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## LISTENING AND SPEAKING ANXIETY IN CROATIAN EFL LEARNERS

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LISTENING AND SPEAKING ANXIETY IN CROATIAN EFL LEARNERS  
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## **Abstract**

This thesis investigates language anxiety in Croatian learners of English as a foreign language. Language anxiety is considered to be a complex phenomenon specific to the language learning context and has thus been extensively researched over the last few decades. The purpose of this study was to investigate levels of listening and speaking anxiety in undergraduate and graduate non-English majors at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb. More specifically, the purpose was to examine the relationship between language anxiety and the independent variables of self-perception of proficiency and competence, and length of study. The quantitative analyses presented in this thesis have led to interesting conclusions, with the results indicating that Croatian non-English majors exhibit low levels of listening anxiety and moderate levels of speaking anxiety in foreign language learning. In addition, a statistically significant negative correlation was discovered between language anxiety and almost all independent variables.

**Key words:** foreign language anxiety, listening anxiety, speaking anxiety, non-English majors, length of study, self-perception of competence, self-perception of proficiency

## 1. Introduction

Anxiety has become a matter of considerable interest in language learning context. Horwitz (2001, as cited in Elaldi, 2016) states that one-third of all foreign language learners experience some level of language anxiety. Therefore, foreign language anxiety has been a topic of much interest and research in recent years.

Foreign language learning affects learners in a specific way and is accompanied by different emotions. Many of those emotions are beneficial and positive, like enthusiasm, joy, satisfaction, happiness, pride. However, language learning is also often accompanied by negative emotions such as apprehension, nervousness, fear, anger, frustration, dissatisfaction, disappointment. In that sense, language anxiety represents learners' reactions to what they consider as a threat to their self-assurance and self-confidence.

There is still much to be considered and understood about the issue of anxiety in foreign language learning. According to Horwitz (2000), "the potential of anxiety to interfere with learning and performance is one of the most accepted phenomena in psychology and education" (as cited in Trang et al., 2013, p. 96) and should be thoroughly investigated. However, research is considerably recent and has yet to adequately define foreign language anxiety and examine its relationship with various learner characteristics, teacher characteristics, and language classroom setting.

In attempt to understand foreign language anxiety in Croatian learners, this paper provides a concise theoretical background regarding the issue of language anxiety, an elaboration of a study conducted with students attending the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb, and an overview of other similar research.

The first section outlines the already mentioned theoretical context of the phenomenon of language anxiety, provides information regarding its causes, manifestations, and impact upon learners. It also explains language anxiety in the skills of listening and speaking, and mentions several studies that investigated the phenomenon in a similar context. The second section elaborates the quantitative study examining language anxiety in Croatian undergraduate and graduate students conducted in June 2018. The purpose of the study was to examine listening and speaking anxiety in non-English majors and to consider the relationship between the anxiety in those two skills and length of study, self-perception of competence and self-assessment of proficiency in English language.

## 2. Theoretical Background

### 2.1. General anxiety

Numerous definitions and perspectives on anxiety in general have been put forward (e.g. in the fields of education, anthropology, psychology, etc.) mostly concerning the construct of threat and fear to a person's psychological or physical safety and well-being. In the nineteenth century, Darwin (1872) defined anxiety as "an emotional reaction that is aroused when an organism feels physically under threat" (as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 40). Twenge (2002, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), while referring to Darwin's theory of evolution, debated that fear and anxiety function primarily to trigger psychological and physiological response and to warn of potential danger. At the beginning of the twentieth century, Freud (1920, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) claimed that anxiety was equivalent to 'fear' or 'fright' and believed fear was fundamentally directed toward an object, while anxiety emerged in connection with a condition regardless of any object.

In later decades, anxiety was thought to be a state of "apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object" (Scovel, 1978, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 40). Rholes and associates (1985, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), for example, argued that anxiety may appear when physical threat is expected, and added that, while both depression and anxiety may originate following a loss, anxiety on its own originates when a loss is anticipated.

Spielberger (1976, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 41) distinguished between fear and anxiety and concluded that the difference is that the cause of fear is a "real objective danger in the environment", while the emergence of anxiety may not be known to a person. Furthermore, Beck and associates (Beck, 1985; Beck & Emery, 1985, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) argued that anxiety emerges as an emotional response due to a deficient perception of danger in the environment.

When contemplating what constitutes general anxiety, emotionality and worry were considered as its essential components (Morris et al., 1981, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006). More precisely, emotionality is depicted as a person's perception of the anxiety experience and the unpleasant feelings that appear along with it, and worry is explained in terms of cognitive aspects, i.e. concerns and negative expectations "about oneself, the situation at hand, and possible consequences" (Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 41). Similarly, Spielberger (1983) claimed anxiety to be a "subjective feeling of tension, apprehension,



nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 41).

Authors mention a distinction between two types of anxiety: *trait anxiety* and *state anxiety* (MacIntyre, 1995; Phillips, 1992; Aida, 1994). Spielberger (1983) defines trait anxiety as “a stable predisposition to become anxious in a wide range of situations” (as cited in Macintyre, 1995, p. 93). Similarly, Capan and Karaca (2012) explain anxiety as one’s tendency to become anxious despite the situation he/she is in. State anxiety, on the other hand, is explained as an immediate emotional event with immediate cognitive consequences (Macintyre, 1995). Moreover, Phillips (1992) describes state anxiety as a *situation-specific* trait anxiety, or, in other words, individuals who experience state anxiety will exhibit a stable tendency to develop anxiety, but only in specific situations.

The above mentioned notion of *situation-specific* anxiety can be explained as the possibility of becoming anxious in certain situations, like, for example, in testing situations (‘test anxiety’) or when speaking a second/foreign language (‘language anxiety’). Oh (1990, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) defines foreign language anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety that students experience in the language classroom and which can be distinguished by fear of failure, feelings of incompetence and inadequacy, and various emotional reactions in the classroom. Furthermore, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) concluded that, as a result of continuing appearance of state anxiety on various occasions, the situation-specific anxiety continually re-emerges in a language learner.

A number of researchers (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Aida, 1994; MacIntyre, 1995; Trang et al., 2013) differentiate between the notions of *facilitating* and *debilitating* anxiety, indicating that anxiety can be either positive or negative. According to Alpert and Haber (1960), facilitating anxiety improves learning and performance by motivating learners to strive to overcome the feeling of anxiety and to do things more efficiently. As opposed to this, debilitating anxiety refers to excessive amounts of anxiety which could lead to poor results (Simpson et al., 1995, as cited in Heng et al., 2012). In other words, debilitating anxiety causes learners to start avoiding certain situations in the learning process in order to avoid the feeling of anxiety.

Some researchers suggest that both facilitating and debilitating anxiety may be present in the same individual at the same time. For example, Alpert and Haber (1960) claim that “an individual may possess a large amount of both anxieties, or of one but not the other, or of none of either” (p. 213). Another author (Scovel, 1978, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006)

who researched these two notions proposes that facilitating and debilitating anxiety may function together. He claims that, in normal circumstances, facilitating and debilitating anxiety appear simultaneously in order to both motivate and to warn the individual about the learning environment.

However, in the domain of foreign language learning, which is in the focus of this thesis, language anxiety is defined as a debilitating phenomenon (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Phillips, 1992) that learners should work hard to overcome in order to be able to take full advantage of foreign language instruction. In addition, Horwitz (1990, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) asserts that in language learning, the concept of facilitating anxiety does not exist and that all anxiety in this environment will probably be debilitating because language learning is a psychologically complex and diverse phenomenon. She added that this kind of anxiety is “responsible for students’ negative emotional reactions to language learning” (Horwitz, 2001, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 56).

## 2.2. Anxiety in language learning

For many decades, teachers and researchers have been aware that language learning can be an extremely tedious experience for some individuals. Stengal (1939, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), for example, used the term ‘language shock’ to depict the feelings of concern experienced by learners in situations when they wish to convey something in a foreign language but worry that others might laugh at them because the words and expressions they choose are not accurate. Additionally, he claims that speaking a foreign language may cause embarrassment which derives from feelings of incompetence.

Language anxiety can be defined as fear or apprehension emerging when a learner is expected to perform in the second or foreign language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, as cited in Oxford, 1999). This is not just a general performance anxiety as it is linked directly to performing in the target language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz et.al., 1986, as cited in Oxford, 1999). Furthermore, language anxiety is reported to be one of the most common factors influencing language learning, regardless of whether the setting is formal (in the language classroom) or informal (outside the classroom).

As previously mentioned, when anxiety is limited to the language learning context, it belongs to the category of specific anxiety reactions. The anxiety-provoking potential of foreign language learning has been studied by various scholars for many years. Curran (1976) and Stevick (1980), for example, examined how most common language teaching methods

provoke a defensive position in learners, while Guiora (1983) defines language learning as “a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition” because it exposes an individual’s self-perception and worldview to danger (as cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125).

According to Campbell and Ortiz (1991, as cited in Khattak et al., 2011), almost one half of all language learners experience high levels of anxiety. Moreover, language anxiety is experienced both by foreign and second language learners and may pose certain problems as it interferes with the acquisition and production of the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, as cited in Khattak et al., 2011).

Arnold (2000) claims that anxiety may emerge in the early stages of language acquisition because negative feelings are produced by either existing trait anxiety or other factors in classroom context. If experienced frequently, this may lead learners to associate anxiety with language learning itself. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, as cited in Arnold, 2000) explain that when such negative experiences are repeated, learners begin to expect poor performance and the feeling of nervousness which in turn results in the development of a self-fulfilling prophecy: What one expects to occur eventually really occurs. What makes language learning environment special in this sense is, according to Arnold (2000), the fact that foreign language classes, unlike classes in other subjects, emphasize communicative skills and require learners’ active participation and a high degree of self-exposure and risk taking.

### 2.2.1. Causes of language anxiety

While investigating anxiety in language learning, Young (1991) distinguishes between six possible sources of language anxiety. According to her, some of them are associated with the teacher, some with the learner, and some educational practice. Furthermore, she states that anxiety in language learning derives from: “1) personal and interpersonal anxieties (self-esteem, competitiveness, shyness, stage fright, embarrassment); 2) learner beliefs about language learning; 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching; 4) instructor-learner interactions; 5) classroom procedures (having to speak in the target language in front of a group, oral presentations, oral quizzes); and 6) language testing” (Young, 1991, p. 427). She also discusses MacIntyre and Gardner’s (1988, as cited in Young, 1991) claim that language anxiety appears only after the emotions and beliefs about language learning in general have been formed. Taking their theory into consideration, Young (1991) states that the problem is not so much in the learners but in the experience of learning a new language (i.e. educational practice and methods), and that teachers should attempt to respond to the signs of anxiety in language learners if they identify it in their classrooms.

Considering that language anxiety is a psychological concept, it is probable it derives from the learner's own self (Schwartz, 1972, as cited in Hashemi, 2011), e.g. his/her self-perceptions, thoughts about others (peers, teachers, interlocutors, etc.) and the environment where language learning takes place, his/her perspectives on L2/FL learning etc.

Phillips (1991) recognizes several elements which may contribute to elevated levels of anxiety in the language class. First of all, she noticed that learners' competence and effort are not properly acknowledged. In addition, learners' self-perception is closely associated to their self-expression through language, and it is susceptible to self-perceived failure and to teachers' and classmates' comments. Furthermore, many language learners experience elevated levels of unease due to intensified emphasis on oral competence. Lastly, learners often tend to have unrealistic expectations about language learning process which are also likely to elevate the levels of anxiety.

Zhang and Zhong (2012) categorize causes of foreign language learning anxiety as being "learner-induced, classroom-related, skill-specific, and some society-imposed depending on different contexts" (as cited in Elaldi, 2016, p. 219). The main cause of anxiety, according to Elaldi (2016), derives from learners' mistaken or unrealistic expectations about language learning process. While some learners believe they lack the potential or talent to learn a new language (Price, 1991, as cited in Elaldi, 2016), others believe that approximately two years or less is the sufficient amount of time to master the target language (Horwitz, 2000) without assessing the adversity of the language learning task and this mistaken estimation often results in emergence of anxiety if they fail to achieve that goal. In addition to this, learners may also have mistaken beliefs and expectations about language standards. Since learners are exposed to advanced levels of target language spoken by native speakers like in tapes or videos (Kitano, 2001, as cited in Elaldi, 2016), they sometimes set their standards too high, which, in turn, causes anxiety (Zhang & Zhong, 2012, as cited in Elaldi, 2016).

The appearance of classroom-related anxiety, claims Elaldi (2016), depends on teachers, peers and educational practices. According to Hashemi and Abbasi (2013, as cited in Elaldi, 2016), the more friendly and casual language classroom is, the less anxiety provoking it is likely to be. They state that formal language classroom environment is a considerable source of anxiety and stress due to the exaggerated expectation to be more accurate and proficient in using the target language (as cited in Elaldi, 2016). Furthermore, the evaluation or unfavourable judgement from peers was also found to be a major source of anxiety. Young

(1991), for instance, found that anxious learners develop fear of appearing foolish and incompetent from the perspective of their peers.

According to Hashemi (2011), the speaker's and his/her interlocutor's social status, the awareness of unequal power relations between them, and gender should also be examined as possible causes of language anxiety.

Some researchers from Croatia also tried to determine causes of language anxiety. Mihaljević Djigunović (2002), for instance, inquired into foreign language anxiety causes in Croatian students (EFL learners). In her book, Mihaljević Djigunović (2002) mentions a qualitative research in which students were asked to describe the anxiety they experience while learning and using English in as much detail as possible. The results showed that anxiety is associated with: negative self-perception of oneself as EFL learner; perception of language characteristics (such as grammar, spelling, pronunciation); isolated elements of specific classroom context (teacher, grading, error correction and feedback); negative experience when using English outside of classroom context. Similar to this, another Croatian researcher, Puškar (2010, as cited in Mihaljević Djigunović, 2014), conducted a qualitative research which confirmed the claim that certain classroom elements cause language anxiety.

### 2.3. Defining foreign language anxiety

In spite of the appearance of various understandings and definitions of foreign language anxiety, the work of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) has provided the most commonly accepted definition of the concept. They were the first to treat the concept of foreign language anxiety as a separate and distinct phenomenon particular to language learning, and they defined it 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” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128).

Another framework that could explain foreign language anxiety is that of MacIntyre and Gardner (1994, as cited in Heng et al., 2012). They theorized that foreign language anxiety may occur at any of the three stages of learning: i.e. *the input stage*, *the processing stage* and *the output stage*. In other words, “anxiety may affect the initial information received during the input stage, the processing of the information which involves the cognitive operations during the processing stage, and finally the production or retrieval of previous inputs at the output stage” (as cited in Heng et al., 2012, p. 156).

As ways of measuring anxiety experienced in the language classroom were sparse at that time, Horwitz and her associates (1986) designed an instrument for their study, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). To be specific, FLCAS was designed as means of evaluating this particular type of anxiety, creating in the process a scale that would be used by a multitude of researchers from then on. To analyze anxiety in terms of social and educational contexts, Horwitz et al. (1986) established three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. The above mentioned FLCAS was developed based on these three components.

Communication apprehension refers to an individual's discomfort in talking in front of others. In the foreign language context, Horwitz et al. (1986) affirmed that the inconsistency between foreign language learners' mature thoughts and their immature foreign language proficiency leads to feelings of anxiety in some individuals. The lack of learners' ability to express themselves or to comprehend what another person is saying can easily result in concern and frustration (as cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

The second component, i.e. the fear of negative evaluation, is likely to be displayed in the form of a learners' excessive concern with the evaluation of his/her academic and personal performance and competence in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, as cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). Although similar to test anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) state that fear of negative evaluation is not limited to test-taking situations and may occur in any social, evaluative context such as a job interview or speaking in foreign language. Individuals who fear negative evaluation initiate conversation on rare occasions and interact minimally. Also, language learners who experience this type of anxiety tend to avoid activities that could increase their language skills, often sit passively in the classroom, or may even avoid classes entirely (Ely, 1986; Gregersen, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986, as cited in Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

The third component, test anxiety, is explained as the "tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation" (Sarason, 1978, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 47). Horwitz et al. (1986) claim that test-anxious students often have unrealistic demands of themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure. They also found that students suffering from anxiety in testing situations experience language anxiety so severe that they postpone language studies indefinitely or change majors to avoid language requirements.

Additionally, Hembree (1988, as cited in Young, 1991) investigated the relationship between ability and anxiety and concluded that higher ability level correlates with lower test

anxiety. It would seem, then, that learners who perceive their foreign language abilities as low are the likeliest to develop language anxiety, or any other type of anxiety for that matter.

Although the fusion of communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation might be useful to provide a definition of foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that foreign language anxiety cannot simply be defined in terms of the combination of these fears transferred to foreign language learning. It is also important to mention that MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, as cited in Salehi & Marefat, 2014) and Aida (1994) analyzed FLCAS by factor analysis and, while both of these studies supported the idea that language anxiety has the first two above-mentioned components, they did not support Horwitz et al.'s (1986) claim that test anxiety is the third component of foreign language anxiety.

### 2.3.1. Manifestations of foreign language anxiety

Rardin (as cited in Young, 1991) differentiates between general anxiety manifestations and responses manifested as a result of existential anxiety. She suggests that a major degree of anxiety could manifest itself “in ‘flight’ or ‘fight’ response patterns with the obvious physiological signs of sweaty palms, nervous stomachs, accelerated heartbeat and pulse rates” (as cited in Young, 1991, p. 430). Other manifestations of foreign language anxiety may appear in the form of sound distortion, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, ‘freezing up’ while performing in front of others, inability to remember words and phrases that were just learned or simply refusing to speak.

Furthermore, Horwitz et al. (1986) assert that learners’ anxiety can be recognized from behaviours like: complaining about having trouble distinguishing the structures and sounds of a foreign language text; freezing up in role-play assignments; trying to avoid conveying difficult messages in the foreign language; over-studying without any grade improvement; reporting that they know the correct answer on a test but put down the wrong one due to nervousness or carelessness. Additional manifestations of this particular type of anxiety include avoiding eye contact, nervous laughter, joking, and short responses (Young, 1991), acting indifferent, avoiding class, avoiding certain activities or coming unprepared to class, hiding in the last row, and avoiding participation in speaking activities in target language (Horwitz et al., 1986).

### 2.3.2. Language anxiety and achievement

An interesting research into the causes of foreign language anxiety has been carried out by Ganschow and associates (Ganschow et al., 1994; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Ganschow et al., 2000, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), who claim that foreign language achievement problems are related to difficulties learners encounter in their mother tongue. According to them, these foreign language problems are “likely to be based in native language learning and that relationship with one’s language codes (phonological/orthographic, syntactic, semantic) is likely to play an important causal role in learning a foreign language” (Ganschow et al., 2000, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006, p. 80). However, Horwitz (2001, as cited in Elaldi, 2016) maintains that foreign language anxiety is independent of first language learning difficulties and should be considered as an important factor that interferes with language learning.

In terms of interrelationship between language anxiety and achievement, some researchers propose that anxiety might be caused by poor language outcomes (Horwitz, 2001; Skehan, 1989, as cited in Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012). Nevertheless, anxiety itself may hinder the existing language ability and cause poor language learning and performance – e.g. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) were of the opinion that “language anxiety consistently, negatively affects language learning and production” (as cited in Hewitt and Stephenson, 2012, p. 171).

Regarding achievement and performance, research indicates that both overall foreign language anxiety and specific skill anxieties (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) have negative effects on learners’ achievement and performance. Significant negative correlations were found between general foreign language anxiety and course grades (Aida, 1994; Coulombe, 2000; Elkhafafi, 2005; Yan & Horwitz, 2008, as cited in Trang et al., 2012), between foreign language listening anxiety and listening course grades (Elkhafafi, 2005; Bekleyen, 2009, as cited in Trang et al., 2012), between foreign language reading anxiety and reading scores (Zhao, 2009, as cited in Trang et al., 2012), between foreign language speaking anxiety and oral scores (Sellers, 2000, as cited in Trang et al., 2012), and between foreign language writing anxiety and writing achievement (Chen & Lin, 2009, as cited in Trang et al., 2012). For example, learners with higher levels of reading anxiety tend to recall less passage content, and experience more interfering thoughts than less anxious learners (Sellers, 2000, as cited in Trang et al., 2012). Also, learners who experience higher levels of speaking anxiety produce smaller amounts of continuous speech, have longer mid-clause pauses, and make more false starts (Mihaljević Djigunović, 2006, as cited in Trang et



al., 2012). These and similar results indicate that foreign language anxiety does indeed have negative effects on foreign language learning performance and achievement.

Phillips (1991) partially agrees with Trang and associates (2012) and states that considerable quantitative data devoted to examining anxiety demonstrates only a moderate relationship with achievement in language learning. Several studies, she asserts, demonstrate no correlation between anxiety and achievement in language learning (Pimsleur et al., 1964; Brewster, 1971; Steinberg, 1982; Backman, 1976, as cited in Phillips, 1991) or negative correlations between anxiety and one skill but not others (Bartz, 1975; Swain & Burnaby, 1976, as cited in Phillips, 1991) or one language and not others (Chastain, 1975, as cited in Phillips, 1991). On the contrary, two have even revealed a positive correlation between anxiety and language learning (Chastain, 1975; Kleinmann, 1977, as cited in Phillips, 1991), causing researchers to speculate the distinction between facilitating and debilitating anxiety. Still, numerous studies reveal small inverse relationship between language anxiety and achievement (Scott, 1986; Phillips, 1990; Horwitz, 1986; Gardner et al., 1976; Trylong, 1988, as cited in Phillips, 1991) although correlations are generally low to moderate. Thus, learners exhibiting lower levels of anxiety may perform better than those with higher levels of anxiety and vice versa, but the relationship between anxiety and performance explains only a part of the overall achievement picture.

### 2.3.3. Foreign language speaking anxiety

Language learning incorporates four skills, among them, the skill of oral communication (speaking). Communication is indispensable in our everyday life as it enables the exchange of information, ideas and thoughts between individuals or groups of people. According to Heng and associates (2012), individuals who possess good communication skills are highly advantaged in their social life, relationships and work.

Foreign language anxiety is considered to be a unique factor affecting learners' oral production. Anxious foreign language learners mostly identify speaking as the most intimidating skill. English language teachers are generally familiar with the existence of foreign language speaking anxiety. However, Yalçın and Inceçay (2013) assert that it is often difficult to determine whether a student seems reluctant to speak in the target language due to lack of motivation or increased anxiety level.

Phillips (1991) claims that the speaking skill is the one in which the language ego appears most vulnerable. As speaking activity often involves more than one interlocutor, failure to communicate a message, claim Batiha et al. (2016), might cause anxiety. The

authors add that “anxiety affects the learners’ attention and interferes with their ability not only to comprehend what is said in the target language, but also to generate ideas, as well as to retrieve the necessary vocabulary” (Batiha et al., 2016, p. 64).

Daly (1991, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) asserts that the fear of giving a public speech surpasses some phobias, such as fear of heights, elevators or snakes. In their research, Horwitz et al. (1986) found that students had most problems with listening and speaking skills. They reported that they were not as anxious during speaking activities if they had the time to plan what they would say, but would freeze if they had to speak spontaneously. Also, a considerable percentage of the participants in their study agreed with statements such as ‘I start to panic when I have to speak without preparations in language class’ (49%) and ‘I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students’ (28%) (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Price (1991, as cited in Phillips, 1992) discovered that all highly anxious, ex-language learners she interviewed believed that the speaking skill was the most problematic and that the inconsistency between effort and results was particularly frustrating for high ability students. They feared “being laughed at”, “making a fool of themselves”, and “being ridiculed” (Price, 1991, as cited in Phillips, 1991, p. 4). Moreover, Young (1991) reports that anxious learners perceive their language skills, especially speaking skills, to be weaker than their peers’ because they consider speaking ability to be the most important. Additionally, Kitano (2001), states that “speaking skill is usually the first thing that learners compare with that of peers, teachers and native speakers” (as cited in Elaldi, 2016, p. 220).

There is a common recognition that anxiety is a major obstruction in mastering a foreign language, especially when it comes to speaking in the foreign language (Minghe & Yuan, 2013, as cited in Debreli & Demirkan, 2016). There are claims that, regardless of the type of anxiety, it affects learners’ three functioning systems: cognitive, physical, and behavioural (Ormrod, 2005, as cited in Debreli & Demirkan, 2016). These functioning systems are said to be activated together, or, in other words, if a learner is afraid to speak in front of the class (cognitive), he/she may exhibit physical symptoms (e.g. shaking), and, consequently, try to avoid participating in the speaking activities in the following tasks (behavioural).

Such evasion of speaking activities in the target language is often considered as a negative factor in language learning, especially taking into consideration that maximum exposure to practice in the target language has an indisputable effect on language learning.

Although speaking causes immediate anxiety, Yalçın and Inceçay (2013) conclude that this does not lead to the conclusion that speaking should be avoided altogether. On the contrary, not only do researchers and teachers emphasize the importance of spontaneous speech, but students also agree on this matter. This was mentioned in Liu and Littlewood's (1997, as cited in Yalçın & Inceçay, 2013) study in which they reported that when asked to choose the most important feature for successful spoken communication, both university teachers and students agree that unplanned, spontaneous speech is the most significant.

Cheng et al. (1999) assert that, although current situation-specific approach to foreign language anxiety promises beneficial research results, some important theoretical questions still remain. One of these questions has to do with the generality of scales developed to measure foreign language anxiety. Considering the assumption that speaking is the most anxiety-provoking skill in foreign language learning contexts, instruments designed to measure foreign language anxiety in general tend to be dominated by items addressing speaking anxiety, largely in a classroom situation. The prevalence of items related to speaking raises suspicion about whether these instruments are capable of identifying learners' language anxiety in skills other than speaking. Moreover, there is doubt about the possibility of using these instruments for examining the relationship between anxiety and overall language achievement (in all four skills) or performance not related to speaking activities limited only to classroom context.

#### 2.3.4. Foreign language listening anxiety

Listening is an integrative language skill incorporating complex affective, cognitive, and behavioral processes, lexico-grammatical and phonetic features, as well as performance features such as irregular pauses or hesitations, false starts, unclear pronunciation and intonation. When involved in listening activities, foreign language learners are generally not allowed to control the topic, speed, or volume of the speech (Snow & Perkins, 1979, as cited in Kim, 2002). Unlike instances when language learner can manage the input, like, for example, in reading comprehension, in listening activities learners have fewer chances for repetition and correction because the delivery rate of information is usually controlled by the teacher. In the absence of appropriate listening competence, language learners may fail to decode information, and consequently experience nervousness and apprehension when they not able to control their language intake.

When discussing listening comprehension, Dunkel (1986) asserts that the goal of communicative competence is reached "by putting the horse (listening comprehension) before

the cart (oral production)” (as cited in Arnold, 2000, p. 778). To be more exact, he proposes that the key to achieving proficiency in speaking is developing proficiency in listening comprehension. Numerous other studies (Dunkel, 1991; Long, 1985; Rost, 1990; Vogely, 1999, as cited in Arnold, 2000) stress that listening is essential for language acquisition because it provides the raw material input necessary for the learning process to occur.

In terms of listening skill performances of students learning English as a foreign language, some researchers (Arnold, 2000; Vogely, 1998; Young, 1992, as cited in Serraj & Noordin, 2013) state that immature teaching strategies, less affective information processing, ineffective listening strategies, learners’ lack of vocabulary, and poorer retrieval of prior knowledge are the dominant factors causing low performance in foreign language listening. In addition, Kimura (2008) infers that learners cannot control the input unless they are skilful enough to ask that the input be slowed down, repeated, or clarified.

Compared to the multitude of research on anxiety in other skills, particularly the speaking skill, according to Elkhafaifi (2005, as cited in Capan & Karaca, 2012) the number of studies on foreign language listening anxiety is far from being adequate. To emphasize the significance of addressing listening anxiety in a suitable manner, Vogely (1998) posits that “listening comprehension anxiety can undermine speech production because, in order to interact verbally, the listener must first understand what is being said” (as cited in Capan & Karaca, 2013, p. 1364).

Nord (1978, as cited in Kim, 2002) was one of the first researchers to suggest the existence of listening anxiety. He suggested that anxiety, often caused by ‘task overload’, is one of the greatest obstacles to listening comprehension. Taking his remarks into consideration, several other researchers (Bacon, 1989; Lund, 1991; Young, 1992, as cited in Kim, 2002) began to investigate the phenomenon of listening anxiety in foreign language learning. They concluded that listening tasks may produce additional feelings of concern and unease in learners because they are often unaware of who the speakers are, what their roles are, and how they interact.

Krashen (as cited in Capan & Karaca, 2012) states that, although authors generally consider speaking to be the most anxiety-provoking skill, listening may also lead to high levels of anxiety, especially when the text is incomprehensible to the listener due to such reasons as foreign language proficiency. Moreover, MacIntyre (1995, as cited in Serraj & Noordin, 2013) explains that such an anxiety originates due to learners’ worry that they will misunderstand what they are listening to and due to fear of being laughed at in case they interpret the message incorrectly.

Joiner (1986, as cited in Arnold, 2000) states that, one of the main reasons for learners' development of listening anxiety is the negative self-perception of their listening competence and abilities. In a similar vein, Kim (2002) investigated the impact of foreign language listening anxiety on listening proficiency. In the study with Korean learners of English, he found that there was a significantly negative correlation between foreign language listening anxiety and listening proficiency. The author argued that the negative relationship between levels of foreign language listening anxiety and listening proficiency should be attributed to learners' lack of self-confidence in the target language. Furthermore, in his study with learners of Arabic as a foreign language, Elkhafaifi (2005, as cited in Capan & Karaca, 2012) reported that foreign language listening anxiety was related to overall foreign language learning anxiety. His study reported mainly negative correlations between foreign language listening anxiety and the variables of gender and length of study.

#### 2.4. Previous research

A vast number of research confirms the negative effect of anxiety on foreign language learning. There are cases when students even changed their academic majors and/or career goals as a result of their negative experiences in foreign language courses (Horwitz et al., 1986), or delayed taking a foreign language course for as long as possible (Young, 1991). As an affective factor, foreign language anxiety is likely to negatively affect learners' feelings of content and pleasure, and in worst cases may lead to loss of motivation, which may weaken or even destroy learners' interest in the target language (Trang et al., 2013)

However, not everything can be blamed on anxious experiences, because unless foreign language learners enjoy learning and positively and actively involve themselves in the process, it is unlikely that they can reach their ultimate goal of achieving proficiency in the target language.

##### 2.4.1. Language anxiety in two skills

The following section considers research studies of language anxiety in two or more skills. It should be noted that such studies (i.e. the ones examining anxiety in more than one skill) are generally quite scarce.

In their study, Cheng et al. (1991) examined foreign language classroom anxiety in relation to foreign language writing anxiety and also tried to link these two constructs with achievement in foreign language speaking and writing. They noted statistically significant

negative correlations between foreign language classroom anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety, and foreign language speaking and writing achievement.

Ganschow et al. (1994, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) investigated anxiety in three skills, i.e. listening, speaking, and reading, and reported mixed results. Their findings indicate that low-anxious and moderate-anxious learners tend to present better speaking and listening skills than high-anxious learners. However, no statistically significant differences were found in reading skills amongst learners of different anxiety levels.

The purpose of Capan and Karaca's (2012) study was to conduct an investigation into the correlation between listening and reading anxiety levels. The results have shown that there is a positive correlation between reading and listening anxiety, i.e. that higher levels of listening anxiety indicate higher levels of reading anxiety. Similarly, in a study conducted by Sparks and Ganschow (1991, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), learners who were more anxious were found to obtain significantly lower scores in foreign language speaking and writing.

Another study (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) emphasized an interesting manifestation of anxiety in relation to listening and speaking. The authors separated their participants (foreign language learners) into two random groups, and asked one group to write about an experience when they had felt very nervous and apprehensive when using the target language, and asked the other group to write about an experience when they had felt very relaxed and confident when using the target language. Analysis of essay content indicated that when participants wrote about anxious experiences, they spoke almost solely about the speaking skill, but when recalling relaxed experiences, they wrote both about speaking and listening. The authors concluded that learners who wrote about relaxed experiences perceive themselves as more competent, while those who wrote anxiety essays perceive themselves as less competent in foreign language learning.

#### 2.4.2. Proficiency level

There is a general agreement in recent research that anxiety negatively affects foreign language learning (Trang et al., 2013), especially language proficiency. This negative impact of anxiety on proficiency has been observed at various instructional levels as well as with different target languages (e.g., Aida, 1994; Chen & Lin, 2009; Isselbaecher, 2004; Yan & Horwitz, 2008, as cited in Trang et al., 2013). In terms of learning French, for example, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993, as cited in Trang et al., 2013) infer that the correlations between learners' anxiety and French performance were lower than the correlations between

learners' anxiety levels and their self-ratings, i.e. they conclude it is likely that anxious learners underestimate their actual language proficiency. Similar findings were reported in Stephenson and Hewitt's (2010, as cited in Trang et al., 2013) study, in which they note that anxious learners' actual grades were more favourable than they had expected.

Regarding listening anxiety in relation to proficiency, Nagle and Sanders (1986) assert that "a breakdown of the comprehension process might occur when there is anxiety about failure to understand or being accountable for a response" (as cited in Kim, 2002, p. 5). They add that "under high levels of anxiety or stress, only automatic processes function, since attention is narrowed to principal information at the expense of peripheral" (as cited in Kim, 2002, p. 5). Consequently, beginner foreign language listeners occasionally miss important cues, because they do not know which aspects of the sound stream to pay attention to. Kim (2002) adds that learners who are not confident in listening, who worry about being unsuccessful and feel uncomfortable in English courses tend to have lower foreign language listening proficiency. Additionally, the author reveals that learners' self-assessed anxiety levels showed higher correlation with their self-assessed proficiency levels in listening than with their actual scores on the listening test, indicating that learners' self-perception of proficiency appears to be a better predictor of the levels of listening anxiety than is their actual proficiency.

Concerning the relationship between foreign language anxiety and proficiency levels, inconsistent results have been reported by different researchers. On one hand there are those who claim that advanced learners exhibit higher levels of anxiety than beginner and intermediate learners. On the other hand, some researchers found that learners' high anxiety levels decline as their proficiency level increases.

For instance, Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009, as cited in Salehi & Marefat, 2014) studied the effects of language anxiety on course achievement in three foreign language proficiency levels of Spanish, i.e. beginner, intermediate, and advanced. They report that advanced participants showed higher levels of anxiety than beginner and intermediate participants. In a similar study, Saito and Samimy (1996, as cited in Čiček, 2014) examined anxiety experienced by American students of Japanese at three proficiency levels, beginner, intermediate and advanced. Their results indicate that language anxiety does not play an important role at beginner levels of foreign language learning. The authors explain these findings by indicating that, being inexperienced, beginner learners' main preoccupation is

development of successful learning strategies. Thus, at this stage they still haven't set specific goals so language anxiety cannot interfere with them. On the other hand, language anxiety is a significant predictor of success in intermediate and advanced language learners.

MacIntyre and Noels (1994) argue that "language anxiety affects not only the way in which learners perform but also the way in which they perceive their performance, which can serve to maintain high levels of anxiety" (as cited in Maturanec, 2015, p. 12). To be more specific, by underestimating their competence and ability, and by expecting to fail, anxious learners actually maintain high levels of anxiety, causing evasion of learning and communication activities that would actually simplify language learning. MacIntyre (1998, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) also claims that the combination of low self-assessed proficiency and high language anxiety creates learners with low linguistic self-confidence, which, in turn, leads to decrease in motivation for foreign language learning.

As opposed to studies that suggest that advanced learners exhibit the highest levels of anxiety, the following studies suggest contrary results. For example, Gardner et al. (1997, as cited in Heng et al., 2012) investigated the relationship between anxiety and language proficiency level and found that beginner foreign language learners experience a high level of anxiety due to lower proficiency level. Zhiping and Paramasivam (2013, as cited in Batiha et al., 2016) assert that learners with low language proficiency feel highly anxious about speaking because they lack mastery in the target language.

MacIntyre et al. (1997, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) designed a study to investigate learners' perceptions about their foreign language proficiency in all four language skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and to examine the role of anxiety in creating discrepancies in these self-evaluations. The authors assumed there would be a moderate correlation between perceived and actual foreign language competence and that there would be a negative correlation between actual language competence and language anxiety. The results have shown that all correlations were negative, indicating that more anxious learners assess their proficiency as lower and tend to have fewer and poorer ideas about language learning.

Furthermore, inconsistent results regarding learners' anxiety levels and proficiency levels were reported Rodriguez and Abreu (2003, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) who conducted a study with foreign language learners at two different universities. Students attending one university reported exhibiting higher levels of anxiety as they became more proficient, whereas students attending another university exhibited lower levels of anxiety as



they became more proficient. The authors suggest that these mixed results were perhaps due to different classroom activities and instructors' behaviours and personal characteristics.

#### 2.4.3. Self-perception of competence

In their exploration of factors contributing to emersion of foreign language anxiety Onwegbuzie et al. (1999, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) discovered that high levels of anxiety were related to lower perception of self-worth, lower perception of academic competence, and to anticipation of poor course grades. These negative expectations were somewhat based on facts, but it seems that anxiety leads to even more negative expectations, resulting in turn in decreased motivation and effort. The notion of learning problems arising due to low self-confidence and language anxiety also came to light in a study by Cheng et al. (1999) where authors tried to define different elements of anxiety in speaking and in writing. They assumed that learners with low self-confidence are likely to feel unsure about their capability to learn a foreign language, and that low expectations would bring about higher levels of anxiety, resulting in feelings of even greater insecurity.

In their examination of negative self-perception of competence, many researchers (Gregersen, 2006; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 1997; MacIntyre & Noels, 1994; Sultan, 2012; Szyszka, 2011, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) indicate that learners who assign a low value to their competence experience elevated levels of language anxiety. In that sense, Ormrod (2006) defines perceived competence as "one's belief that he/she has the skills and qualifications to do things well" or that he or she possesses "the requisite qualities in a specific situation to achieve specific tasks" (as cited in Maturanec, 2015, p. 27). To simplify, self-perception of competence can be defined as learners' belief that they are capable to master a foreign language. Therefore, it is only natural that the negative perception of competence may result in elevated levels of language anxiety, which in turn further affects the learners' performance.

Aida (1994) states that future research should look into potential interactions between anxiety and other learner characteristics such as their beliefs about their own language ability, self-esteem, knowledge of language learning and anxiety managing strategies, etc. She asserts that some learners may be anxious because they do not know how to request clarification for their assignments or how to organize and process information. Moreover, others may need the teacher's assistance, but do not ask for help because they do not want to be seen as weak, immature, or even incompetent.

It should be noted that self-perception of competence must not be neglected in the context of language learning because it can both facilitate or hinder the development of one's abilities in the process of acquisition of the target language.

#### 2.4.4. Length of study

Taking into consideration that only a few authors addressed language exposure (or length of study) in relation to language anxiety, it may be negotiated that this issue is not sufficiently investigated.

When it comes to the correlation of language anxiety and length of study, Maturanec (2015) found that learners who learned English longer displayed significantly lower levels of language anxiety than those who had learned it for a shorter period of time. Latif (2015) also concluded that language anxiety level decreases when learners are exposed to foreign language for a longer period of time. A contradictory finding by Rezazadeh and Travokoli (2009, as cited in Latif, 2015) indicates that there is no meaningful relationship between language anxiety and the length of years spent studying the language.

Another interesting study into the relationship between language anxiety and length of study was conducted by Piechurska-Kuciel (2008, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) and suggests that foreign language anxiety may be reduced after longer visits to countries where the target language is spoken. In a similar manner, the findings of Kitano's (2001, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) study indicate that the experience of going abroad is correlated with lower anxiety levels, while Price (1991, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) concludes that many learners believe that they would need to live in the country where the target language is spoken in order to learn it.

### 3. The Study

#### 3.1. Aims

The main aim of this study was to examine listening and speaking anxiety in foreign language learning. More specifically, the aim was to examine levels of language anxiety when learning English as a foreign language in Croatian students who were not English language majors. Furthermore, the aim was to investigate the correlation between English language listening and speaking anxiety and the relationship between the anxiety in those two skills and length of study, self-perception of competence and self-assessment of proficiency in English language.

#### 3.2. Hypotheses

In order to investigate the above mentioned aims and design a suitable questionnaire, five hypotheses were formed. The first hypothesis is related to the interrelationship of two language acquisition skills, i.e. listening and speaking: (H1) *There is a statistically significant positive correlation between listening anxiety and speaking anxiety in Croatian EFL learners.* More specifically, it is expected that higher levels of listening anxiety correlate with higher levels of speaking anxiety.

When it comes to the correlation between students' self-perception of competence in the skills of listening and speaking in English and their listening and speaking anxiety levels, two different hypotheses were formed within this research study. The first of the two is related to the interrelationship of students' self-perception of listening competence and their listening anxiety levels: (H2) *There is a statistically significant negative correlation between self-assessed listening competence and listening anxiety.* To be more precise, it is expected that lower self-assessment of listening competence correlates with higher levels of listening anxiety. Similarly, the following hypothesis is related to the interrelationship of students' self-perception of speaking competence and their speaking anxiety levels: (H3) *There is a statistically significant negative correlation between self-assessed speaking competence and speaking anxiety.* As in the previous hypothesis, it is expected that lower self-assessment of speaking competence correlates with higher levels of speaking anxiety.

When contemplating the relationship between length of study and language anxiety in two language acquisition skills, the following two hypotheses were formed. (H4a) *There is a*

*statistically significant difference in levels of listening anxiety between participants with shorter and participants with longer language exposure.* To be exact, it is expected that participants who learned English less than 10 years experience significantly greater levels of listening anxiety than participants who learned English more than 10 years. (H4b) There is a statistically significant difference in levels of speaking anxiety between participants with shorter and participants with longer language exposure. More specifically, it is expected that participants who learned English less than 10 years experience significantly greater levels of speaking anxiety than participants who learned English more than 10 years.

The final two hypotheses concern the relationship between students' self-assessed proficiency levels and levels of listening and speaking anxiety. (H5a) *There is a statistically significant difference in levels of listening anxiety between groups of participants who assess their proficiency level as beginner, intermediate, advanced or proficient.* In other words, it is expected that all four groups of participants experience different levels of listening anxiety. (H5b) *There is a statistically significant difference in levels of speaking anxiety between groups of participants who assess their proficiency level as beginner, intermediate, advanced or proficient.* To be more precise, it is expected that all four groups of participants experience different levels of speaking anxiety.

### 3.3. Methodology

#### 3.3.1. Sample

Ninety university students participated in this study during the summer semester of 2018. The requirements were that the participants attended the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb and that they were recently enrolled in the course 'English language for academic purposes'. The latter requirement was necessary as none of the participants were English majors. Three participants did not follow instructions and left some questions unanswered and, therefore, their data was discarded, leaving a total sample of 87.

The sample consisted of 12 male (14%) and 75 female (86%) participants aged between 19 and 27 ( $M = 22$  years old). Among the participants, 22 were enrolled in the first, 16 in the second, and 15 in the third year of the undergraduate program. Furthermore, 11 participants were first-year, 18 participants second-year, and 5 participants third-year graduate students. In addition, participants were students of 18 different academic programs at the

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences – 11 participants were enrolled in the Department of Information and Communication Sciences, 18 participants in the Department of Sociology, 6 participants in the Department of History, 10 participants in the Department of Croatian, 2 participants in the Department of Romance Studies, 3 participants in the Department of Hungarian Studies, 1 participant in the Department of Linguistics, 6 participants in the Department of Pedagogy, 4 participants in the Department of Psychology, 5 participants in the Department of Comparative Literature, 3 participants in the Department of Ethnology and Cultural Anthropology, 3 participants in the Department of Italian, 1 participant in the Department of Archaeology, 2 participants in the Department of Art History, 3 participants in the Department of Phonetics, 7 participants in the Department of German, 1 participant in the Department of Philosophy, and 1 participant in the Department of West Slavic Languages and Literature.

### 3.3.2. Instrument

The instrument developed for the purposes of this study was a questionnaire which consisted of four sections. The entire questionnaire was translated to Croatian in order to suit the requirements of this particular research. In the first section, the participants were required to provide demographic data such as age, gender, year of study and the academic department they are enrolled in. The second section of the questionnaire examined learning and usage of English as a foreign language where the participants were asked to provide information about how long they have been studying English, how often they use English for non-academic purposes, and to self-assess their proficiency in English and their competence in the skills of listening and speaking in English. In order to self-assess their proficiency in English language, the participants were asked to select one of the four available answers, i.e. to determine whether they were beginner, intermediate, advanced or proficient English language users. In addition to this, the participants were asked to self-assess their competence in the skills of listening and speaking in English on a five-point Likert scale ranging from ‘I am not competent at all’ to ‘I am highly competent’.

The third section addressed students’ speaking anxiety. This part of the questionnaire was adopted from Heng et al. (2012) who used the *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), but revised it for the purposes of their study (i.e. investigating English speaking anxiety in Malaysian students). Heng et al. (2012) changed the term ‘foreign language’ from the original scale to ‘English’ to suit their study. Their modified questionnaire consisted of two sections – one of them focused on students’

anxiety towards speaking in English, while the other one focused on students' anxiety towards taking a speaking test in English. Since the purpose of the present study was not to examine foreign language anxiety in testing situations, only the first section (10 items) of Heng et al.'s (2012) questionnaire was used. The authors stated that the first section of their instrument (i.e. the one investigating students' anxiety towards speaking in English) was proven to be a reliable and valid instrument with high internal consistency – the calculations revealed Cronbach's alpha values of .88. The adopted questionnaire used for examining English speaking anxiety in the present study is a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and consists of 10 items. The possible scores in this scale range from 10 to 50, meaning that the higher scores indicate higher levels of speaking anxiety. In this study the reliability for the internal consistency for this questionnaire was very high ( $\alpha = .94$ ). The scores on one item, i.e. 'I don't worry about making mistakes when speaking in English', were key-reversed before data processing.

The fourth section of the instrument addressed students' listening anxiety. To measure the anxiety level stemming from listening contexts, Kim's (2002) *Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale* (FLLAS) was used. The FLLAS comprises 33 statements which are to be answered on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The possible scores in the FLLAS range from 33 to 165, i.e. higher scores indicate higher levels of listening anxiety. In his study, Kim (2002) revealed Cronbach's alpha of .93 for the FLLAS. In the present study, the reliability for the internal consistency for this translated questionnaire was also very high ( $\alpha = .97$ ). The scores on four items (6, 14, 25, and 31 – e.g. 'It's easy to guess about the parts that I miss while listening to English') were key-reversed before data processing.

### 3.3.3. Procedure

After receiving mentor's consent to conduct this study, the questionnaires were personally distributed to students via e-mail, private Facebook profile, and in Facebook groups 'Studentski dom "Stjepan Radic" - "Sava"', 'Šara - Studentski dom dr. Ante Starčević', and 'CZON Studenti'. After the purpose of the study was explained to students, they were asked to participate in the study and they received an online link where they could fill in the questionnaire, created with the help of *Google forms*. They were also asked to forward the questionnaire to their associates, friends and/or family members, whom they considered to suit the requirements of the study. Participant recruitment period lasted two weeks, between June 10<sup>th</sup> and June 24<sup>th</sup> 2018.

Prior to filling in the questionnaire, detailed written instructions comprising the requirements of the study, purpose and aims of the study, and short item descriptions, were presented to the participants. Furthermore, voluntary participation, anonymity, and the possibility to cease participation at any moment were emphasized to the participants. Participant results which met the requirements and the questionnaires that were properly filled in were statistically analysed using the SPSS computer software.

### 3.4. Results

This section outlines the results obtained by quantitative analyses in SPSS. The hypotheses outlined in this research study were tested by calculating The Pearson correlation coefficients and by performing *t*-tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests.

Firstly, descriptive statistics were conducted in order to obtain results about the levels of listening and speaking anxiety among the participants. The results presented in Table 1 below indicate that participants experience low listening anxiety and moderate speaking anxiety.

Table 1. *Descriptive data for listening and speaking anxiety levels (N = 87)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>Std</i>	Range	
			Real	Theoretic
Listening anxiety	64,64	27,459	33-144	33-165
Speaking anxiety	25,83	11,181	10-50	10-50

In order to examine the first three hypotheses (H1), (H2), and (H3), Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated. In terms of (H1), the results indicate high positive correlation ( $r = .821$ ;  $p < 0,001$ ) between participants' listening and speaking anxiety levels. In other words, it was found that higher levels of listening anxiety highly correlate with higher levels of speaking anxiety.

For the second hypothesis (H2), the results have shown high negative correlation between self-assessment of listening competence and listening anxiety level ( $r = -.699$ ;  $p < 0,001$ ). More specifically, lower self-assessment of listening competence highly correlates with higher levels of listening anxiety. Similarly, in terms of the third hypothesis (H3), the

results indicate high negative correlation between self-assessment of speaking competence and speaking anxiety level ( $r = -.665$ ;  $p < 0,001$ ). In other words, lower self-assessment of speaking competence highly correlates with higher levels of speaking anxiety.

In order to examine the following two hypotheses: (H4a) and (H4b), one sample  $t$ -tests were performed. Field (2009) asserts that before performing a  $t$ -test, the Levene's test should be used in order to examine the necessary assumptions, because, if the assumptions are not met, the results of the parametric tests are likely to be inaccurate. Thus, Levene's test was performed and the results indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated. Results of one sample  $t$ -tests are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. *Difference in listening and speaking anxiety levels with regard to length of study*

		N	M	SD	t	p
Listening anxiety	less than 10 years	18	75,89	29,97	1,984	0,050
	more than 10 years	69	31,71	26,21		
Speaking anxiety	less than 10 years	18	31,33	11,15	2,411	0,018
	more than 10 years	69	24,39	10,81		

In terms of (H4a), there is no statistically significant difference in levels of listening anxiety between participants who have learned English less than 10 years and those who have learned English more than 10 years ( $t_{(85)} = 1,98$ ,  $p > 0,05$ ).

However, the results for (H4b), indicate that, there is a statistically significant difference in levels of speaking anxiety between participants with shorter and participants with longer language exposure ( $t_{(85)} = 2,41$ ,  $p < 0,05$ ). To be more exact, participants who learned English less than 10 years experience higher levels of speaking anxiety than those who learned English more than 10 years.

It should be mentioned that in the questionnaire, the participants were asked to select one of three available answers, i.e. to indicate whether they learned English less than 5 years, between 5 and 10 years, or more than 10 years. Due to the fact that a very small number of participants indicated that they learned English either less than 5 years or between 5 and 10



years, the separate analysis of that data could not be conducted. Thus, these two groups of participants were merged into one, i.e. learning English less than 10 years.

Since the assumptions for conducting the analysis of variance (ANOVA) were not met, the final two hypotheses, (H5a) and (H5b), were examined by performing its non-parametric counterpart, i.e. Kruskal-Wallis test, and Dunn’s post hoc tests. Field (2009) claims that if there is data which violates an assumption, this ANOVA’s equivalent test “can be a useful way around the problem” (p. 559).

It is important to note that in the questionnaire designed for the purposes of this study, in order to self-assess their proficiency in English language, the participants were asked to select one of the four available answers, i.e. to determine whether they were beginner, intermediate, advanced or proficient English language users. However, taking into consideration that only two participants assessed themselves as ‘beginner language users’, this sample was too small to be taken into consideration and was thus excluded from further analyses.

When considering (H5a), the results of Kruskal-Wallis test show that there is a statistically significant difference in listening anxiety levels ( $\chi^2_{(2)} = 37,484, p < 0,001$ ) between groups of participants who assess their proficiency level as intermediate, advanced or proficient. Furthermore, in terms of (H5b), the results indicate that there is also a statistically significant difference in speaking anxiety levels ( $\chi^2_{(2)} = 31,474, p < 0,001$ ) between groups of participants who assess their proficiency level as intermediate, advanced or proficient. Listening and speaking anxiety mean ranks for intermediate, advanced and proficient groups of learners are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Listening and speaking anxiety mean ranks for different proficiency groups

	Mean rank	
	Listening anxiety	Speaking anxiety
Intermediate	64,80	67,12
Advanced	46,25	43,87
Proficient	17,57	22,55

Dunn's post hoc tests were carried out on each pair of groups (intermediate, advanced, and proficient learners), in order to determine which specific groups differ from each other in levels of listening and speaking anxiety. In terms of listening anxiety, results indicate that intermediate learners experience higher levels of listening anxiety in comparison with both advanced ( $p < 0,001$ ) and proficient ( $p < 0,01$ ) learners. Also, advanced learners experience higher levels of listening anxiety than proficient ( $p < 0,001$ ) learners.

Post hoc comparisons performed in order to examine differences in speaking anxiety indicate that intermediate learners experience higher levels of speaking anxiety in comparison with advanced ( $p < 0,01$ ) and proficient ( $p < 0,001$ ) learners. Furthermore, advanced learners experience higher levels of speaking anxiety than proficient ( $p < 0,01$ ) learners.

To simplify, Dunn's post hoc tests have shown that intermediate learners report the highest levels of listening and speaking anxiety, while proficient learners report the lowest levels of listening and speaking anxiety.

### 3.5. Discussion

The descriptive analysis of the quantitative data showed that students attending the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb who are not English majors do indeed experience both listening and speaking anxiety in learning English as a foreign language. More specifically, the results indicated that participants exhibit low levels of listening anxiety and moderate levels of speaking anxiety. Similar to these findings, in their study, Horwitz et al. (1986) found that students reported experiencing anxiety mostly in foreign language listening and speaking. The findings of several studies (Price, 1991, as cited in Phillips, 1992; Young, 1991, as cited in Elaldi, 2016; and Minghe & Yuan, 2013, as cited in Debreli & Demirkan, 2016) indicate that anxious learners particularly perceive speaking skills as a major obstruction in mastering a foreign language. In such studies it is suggested that anxious foreign language learners generally identify speaking as the most intimidating skill, and Phillips (1991) adds that the speaking skill is the one in which the language ego appears most vulnerable.

On the other hand, Dunkel (1986, as cited in Arnold, 2000) disagrees and claims that the key to achieving proficiency in speaking is developing proficiency in listening comprehension and thus learners experience highest levels of listening anxiety. Numerous other studies (Dunkel, 1991; Long, 1985; Rost, 1990; Vogely, 1999, as cited in Arnold, 2000)

stress that listening is fundamental for language acquisition and that language learners mostly report experiencing listening anxiety in foreign language learning.

The findings of this study, however, indicate that Croatian learners generally experience slightly higher levels of anxiety in speaking than in listening.

### 3.5.1. The relationship between listening and speaking anxiety

The results of this study coincide with the first hypothesis and show that there is a high positive correlation between listening and speaking anxiety. In other words, the participants who report experiencing higher levels of listening anxiety also report experiencing higher levels of speaking anxiety.

The correlation between anxiety and these two specific language acquisition skills is not often investigated. In fact, anxiety in foreign language learning is mostly investigated in relation to only one skill. There are several studies that have looked into relationships among anxiety and two or more skills, but very few of them examine listening and speaking skills taken together. For example, Sparks and Ganschow (1991, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) report a high positive correlation between speaking and writing anxiety in foreign language learning, while Capan and Karaca (2012) report a high positive correlation between listening and reading anxiety levels.

There are some studies, however, whose findings contradict the results of this study and report a negative correlation between anxiety in different skills, meaning that learners experience anxiety in one skill, but not in the others. For example, Cheng et al. (1991, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) examined speaking and writing in foreign language learning and discovered a negative correlation between the two skills. Furthermore, Ganschow et al. (1994, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) conducted a study involving listening, speaking, and reading anxieties and found that listening and speaking anxiety correlate positively, but reading anxiety correlates negatively with listening and speaking anxiety (i.e. learners who exhibit higher levels of listening anxiety, also exhibit higher levels of speaking anxiety, but do not exhibit higher levels of reading anxiety).

In any case, the correlations between anxiety levels in two or more skills should be investigated more thoroughly.

### 3.5.2. Listening and speaking anxiety in relation to self-assessment of listening and speaking competence

Regarding the correlation between students' self-perception of listening and speaking competence and their listening and speaking anxiety levels, two different hypotheses were tested within this study. The first of the two concerns the correlation between learners' self-perception of listening competence and their listening anxiety level, while the second one concerns the correlation between learners' self-perception of speaking competence and their speaking anxiety level. In terms of both of these hypotheses (i.e. for both of the skills examined), it was assumed that there is a statistically significant negative correlation between self-perceived competence and anxiety levels. To be more precise, it was assumed that learners who assess their listening competence as low would exhibit higher levels of listening anxiety, and, in the same manner, that learners who assess their speaking competence as low would exhibit higher levels of speaking anxiety. The results of the study confirmed these assumptions and the findings are consistent with both of the hypotheses.

Within this context, a number of researchers have concluded that lower self-assessment of competence is directly linked to higher language anxiety (Gregersen, 2006; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 1997; MacIntyre & Noels, 1994; Sultan, 2012; Szyszka, 2011, as cited in Maturanec, 2015). For instance, Liu and Jackson (2008) and Sultan (2012) state that learners with low perceived competence experience more feelings of anxiety as compared to those with high perceived competence (as cited in Maturanec, 2015). In terms of the correlation between anxiety levels and self-perception of competence in a particular skill, Szyszka (2011, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) confirms this negative correlation and states that learners who experience higher levels of language anxiety perceive their speaking competence as lower than those with lower anxiety levels. Similarly, in their study on language learners' self-perceptions of competence, MacIntyre et al. (1997, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) submitted that more highly-anxious students are prone to underestimate their linguistic abilities, and, as a result, they fail to see that they are making progress in language learning.

### 3.5.3. Listening and speaking anxiety in relation to length of study

In the context of length of study in relation to listening and speaking anxiety, two hypotheses were formed and tested, one for each of the skills examined. It was assumed that there is a statistically significant difference in levels of both listening and speaking anxiety between participants with shorter and participants with longer language exposure but the results of the study confirmed only one of the hypotheses.

The issue of language exposure in such a context was investigated by several researchers (e.g. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Kitano, 2001; Price, 1991, as cited in Maturanec, 2015; and Rezazadeh & Travokoli, 2009, as cited in Latif, 2015). For instance, Piechurska-Kuciel's (2008, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) study confirmed the claim that longer language exposure has a positive effect on the levels of language anxiety, while shorter language exposure results in its elevated levels. Along similar lines, Kitano (2001) and Price (1991) report that many learners believe they would need to live in the country of the target language for years in order to experience lower anxiety levels in that language (as cited in Maturanec, 2015).

Considering length of study, Latif (2015) concluded that the longer a student spends learning a foreign language the less language anxiety he/she will experience since he/she would have gone through the language learning context longer compared to those who have learnt English for only a few years. However, there are some studies that contradict these findings. For example, a study by Rezazadeh and Travokoli (2009, as cited in Latif, 2015) suggests that there is no meaningful relationship between language anxiety levels and the number of years spent studying the language.

Nonetheless, this study has proven that the participants who learned English for a shorter period of time displayed significantly higher levels of speaking anxiety than those who learned it for a longer period of time. More specifically, participants who learned English less than 10 years experienced significantly greater levels of speaking anxiety than participants who learned English more than 10 years. However, the hypothesis regarding the relationship between listening anxiety and length of study was not confirmed. To be exact, no statistically significant difference in levels of listening anxiety was found between participants who learned English less than 10 years and those who learned English more than 10 years.

#### 3.5.4. Listening and speaking anxiety in relation to different proficiency groups

The most complex issue examined within this study was the relationship between students' self-assessed proficiency levels and levels of listening and speaking anxiety. Two different hypotheses were proposed (i.e. one for each of the skills examined) and it was supposed that there is a statistically significant difference in levels of listening and speaking anxiety between four different groups of participants – those who assess their proficiency level as 1) beginner, 2) intermediate, 3) advanced, or 4) proficient. However, as was previously mentioned in the Results section, only two participants assessed themselves as beginner language users, which was too small a sample to be taken into consideration in

further analyses. Thus, the difference in levels of listening and speaking anxiety between only three groups of participants (i.e. intermediate, advanced, and proficient) was investigated.

In terms of the relationship between learners' proficiency levels and anxiety levels, various studies have revealed contradicting findings. Similar to findings of this study, some researchers found that less proficient learners experience higher levels of anxiety. For example, MacIntyre et al. (1997, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) examined learners' self-perceived proficiency in relation to anxiety in all four skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and found that the more anxious learners tended to have poorer ideas and self-assess their proficiency as lower. Similarly, Elkhafaifi (2005, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006) observed that learners of Arabic who were more proficient exhibited significantly lower levels of general language anxiety and of listening anxiety than less proficient learners.

Inconsistent results regarding anxiety levels and proficiency levels were obtained by Rodriguez and Abreu (2003, as cited in Stephenson Wilson, 2006), who report that, at one university, students were observed to become more language-anxious as they became more proficient, whereas students attending another university became less language-anxious as they became more proficient. The authors suggest that these mixed results were perhaps due to different classroom activities and instructors' behaviours and personal characteristics.

As opposed to the findings of this study, many researchers (Gregsén & Horwitz, 2002; Kitano, 2001; Onwuegbuzie, 2001; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Pappamihel, 2001; Saito & Samimy, 1996, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) imply that more proficient learners exhibit higher levels of language anxiety. For example, Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) report that advanced learners experience higher levels of anxiety than beginning and intermediate learners, which is also confirmed by Onwuegbuzie et al. (1997, as cited in Maturanec, 2015) who claim that university freshmen and sophomores experience the lowest levels of anxiety. Likewise, Saito and Samimy (1996, as cited in Čiček, 2014) investigated levels of language anxiety experienced by learners of Japanese at three levels (i.e. beginning, intermediate and advanced). The results showed that at the beginner levels of language learning, anxiety does not play an important role. The authors indicated that the main preoccupation of the beginner learners is the development of successful learning strategies and that they still do not have their performance goals set, and thus language anxiety cannot interfere with their goals. On the other hand, they claim that language anxiety is a significant predictor of success in intermediate and advanced language learners (as cited in Čiček, 2014).

The results of this study indicate that, in terms of both listening and speaking anxiety, intermediate learners experience higher levels of anxiety in comparison with both advanced and proficient learners, and that advanced learners experience higher levels of anxiety than proficient learners. More specifically, the findings indicate that intermediate learners report the highest levels of listening and speaking anxiety, while proficient learners report the lowest levels of listening and speaking anxiety.

Regardless of the contradicting findings of different studies, Bailey (1983, as cited in Trang et al., 2013) asserts that the most pressing issue is the fact that the underestimation of proficiency might actually be a negative effect of anxiety. Namely, even if students' anxiety only leads to the incorrect perception of their proficiency, the fact that students believe they are less able is possibly more important than the external reality (i.e. their actual proficiency), and it may reduce their confidence in using the foreign language.

### 3.6. Limitations and implications for further research

Certain limitations of this study should be considered. First of all, this was a small-scale study, conducted on a small number of participants. In order to better understand the concept of anxiety in learners of English as a foreign language, there is a need for a study with a larger sample. Due to the small number of participants several issues (i.e. English language anxiety in relation to gender, frequency of usage, and finished high-school) were not investigated as originally planned.

Secondly, the participants in this study were non-English majors from a number of different departments. This was a peculiar sample group, so the findings cannot be generalised. It is entirely possible that English majoring students, who learn English for different reasons and in different learning contexts than those majoring in other subjects, would report completely different levels of anxiety.

Finally, levels of proficiency and competence were measured by a self-report scale, and not by overall grades or other performance criteria. As was previously mentioned, some learners tend to underestimate their competence and proficiency levels due to elevated levels of language anxiety. Thus, if a similar study was to be conducted, measures other than just self-report scales should be used in order to determine participants' competence and proficiency levels.

Further research on this topic should explore the causes of anxiety in the context of learning English as a foreign language – for example, whether language anxiety is caused by learners' personal characteristics (such as shyness, competitiveness, or stage fright), by their unrealistic beliefs about language learning, by their interactions with the teacher, by testing situations, etc. The peculiarity of this research study was that the participants were non-English majors from 18 different departments. Thus, a suggestion for further research would be to replicate this study, or conduct a similar one, but with a much larger sample. Additionally, further research should also look into foreign language anxiety experienced by English majors, and make a comparison between levels of anxiety exhibited by learners from these two very different contexts.

Furthermore, anxiety in language learning is mostly investigated in terms of its debilitating aspects. Given that there is also a facilitating side of anxiety in language learning, in addition to finding solutions to reduce anxiety, future research should also find ways to take advantage of the positive effects of anxiety on foreign language teaching and learning.



## 4. Conclusion

Language researchers and theorists have long been aware that anxiety is often associated with language learning. Moreover, teachers and students generally firmly believe that anxiety is a major obstacle which needs to be overcome in order to master a foreign language. With this in mind, this study was an attempt to examine foreign language anxiety in two skills, i.e. listening and speaking. To be more precise, the purpose was to examine levels of listening and speaking anxiety in undergraduate and graduate non-English majors and to inquire into the relationship between anxiety and length of study, self-perception of competence and self-assessment of proficiency in English language.

The study has proven that there is a positive correlation between listening and speaking anxiety levels, i.e. that higher levels of listening anxiety highly correlate with higher levels of speaking anxiety. Moreover, it was proven that learners who perceive their listening and speaking competences as lower experience higher levels of listening and speaking anxiety. In addition, it was verified that learners who learned English less than 10 years experience significantly greater levels of speaking anxiety than learners who learned English more than 10 years. However, it was found that there is no statistically significant difference in levels of listening anxiety and length of study. Finally, the study has proven that intermediate learners experience the highest levels of listening and speaking anxiety, proficient learners experience the lowest levels of listening and speaking anxiety, while advanced learners fall somewhere in between the other two groups.

To conclude, despite various uncertainties and questions waiting to be answered regarding language anxiety, it can be argued that this is a very engaging and significant phenomenon which almost equally interests experts and layman, teachers, students, and other language users. Similar to other researchers' suggestions for a more thorough investigation of foreign language anxiety, the findings of this study indicate the necessity to explore anxiety in English language majors, to offer some insight into the factors attributing to the emergence of this particular anxiety, to consider teachers' perspective and thoughts on the complexities of the phenomenon, and to identify potential methods and techniques for reducing levels of anxiety exhibited by foreign language learners.

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## 6. Appendices

### 6.1. Appendix A – Demographic data questionnaire

#### **Općeniti podaci**

Molim Vas da pažljivo pročitate i odgovorite na sljedeća opća pitanja o Vama i Vašem studiju.

#### **1. Označite Vaš spol.**

Muškarac

Žena

#### **2. Koliko imate godina? Upišite brojem. \_\_\_\_\_**

#### **3. Koju ste srednju školu završili?**

Gimnaziju

Četverogodišnju strukovnu školu

Ostalo: \_\_\_\_\_

#### **4. Na kojoj ste godini studija? Upišite brojem.**

\_\_\_\_\_

#### **5. Označite na kojem ste odsjeku Filozofskog fakulteta.**

Odsjek za arheologiju

Odsjek za etnologiju i kulturnu antropologiju

Odsjek za filozofiju

Odsjek za fonetiku

Odsjek za germanistiku

Odsjek za informacijske i komunikacijske znanosti

Odsjek za klasičnu filologiju

Odsjek za komparativnu književnost

Odsjek za kroatistiku

Odsjek za lingvistiku

Odsjek za indologiju i dalekoistočne studije  
Odsjek za hungarologiju, turkologiju i judaistiku  
Odsjek za pedagogiju  
Odsjek za povijest  
Odsjek za povijest umjetnosti  
Odsjek za psihologiju  
Odsjek za romanistiku  
Odsjek za istočnoslavenske jezike i književnosti  
Odsjek za južnoslavenske jezike i književnosti  
Odsjek za zapadnoslavenske jezike i književnosti  
Odsjek za sociologiju  
Odsjek za talijanistiku

## 6.2. Appendix B – Learning and usage of English as a foreign language

### **6. Koliko dugo učite engleski jezik?**

Manje od 5 godina

Od 5 do 10 godina

Više od 10 godina

### **7. Koju ste ocjenu iz kolegija 'Engleski jezik za akademske potrebe' imali u prošlom semestru?**

1 2 3 4 5

### **8. Koliko često koristite engleski jezik izvan akademskog konteksta?**

Nikada

Nekoliko puta godišnje

Nekoliko puta mjesečno

Nekoliko puta tjedno

Svakodnevno



**9. Procijenite Vaš stupanj znanja engleskog jezika.**

Početničko znanje

Osrednje znanje

Napredno znanje

Vrlo napredno znanje

**10. Procijenite vlastitu kompetenciju u engleskom jeziku u sljedećim područjima.**

**a) govorenje**

1 2 3 4 5

**b) slušanje**

1 2 3 4 5

6.3. Appendix C – The Croatian translation of the shortened version of Heng et al.'s (2012) Speaking Anxiety Scale

Slijedi deset tvrdnji o strahu od govorenja na engleskom jeziku. Molim Vas da pažljivo pročitate tvrdnje i na skali od 1 (uopće se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem) odaberete odgovore koji se najbolje odnose na Vas.

**11. Nikad se ne osjećam sigurnim/om u sebe kad govorim na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**12. Ne zabrinjavaju me pogreške koje činim kad govorim na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**13. Nervozan/na sam kad pričam s izvornim govornicima engleskog jezika.**

1 2 3 4 5

**14. Uhvati me panika kad moram govoriti engleski jezik bez pripreme.**

1 2 3 4 5

**15. Uzrujam se kad ne razumijem što drugi govore na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**16. Uvijek mi se čini da drugi studenti govore engleski jezik bolje od mene.**

1 2 3 4 5

**17. Neugodno mi je kad moram govoriti na engleskom jeziku pred drugim studentima.**

1 2 3 4 5

**18. Bojim se da će mi se drugi studenti smijati kad govorim na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**19. U svim mi je situacijama neugodno govoriti engleski jezik.**

1 2 3 4 5

**20. Strah me kad me netko pita nešto na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

6.4. Appendix D – The Croatian translation of the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (Kim, 2002)

Slijede trideset i tri tvrdnje o strahu od slušanja na engleskom jeziku. Molim Vas da pažljivo pročitate tvrdnje i na skali od 1 (uopće se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem) odaberete odgovore koji se najbolje odnose na Vas.

**21. Kad slušam na engleskom jeziku, često zapnem na jednoj ili dvije nepoznate riječi.**

1 2 3 4 5

**22. Nervozan/na sam kad se, tijekom aktivnosti slušanja na engleskom jeziku, odlomak pročita samo jednom.**

1 2 3 4 5

**23. Teško mi je razumjeti kad netko izgovara engleske riječi drugačije nego što ih ja izgovaram.**

1 2 3 4 5

**24. Kad osoba priča engleski vrlo brzo, brinem da neću moći sve razumjeti.**

1 2 3 4 5

**25. Nervozan/na sam kad slušam na engleskom jeziku ako unaprijed nisam upoznat/a sa temom.**

1 2 3 4 5

**26. Lako mi je pogoditi dijelove koje propustim prilikom aktivnosti slušanja na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**27. Ako mi misli makar i nakratko odlutaju tijekom aktivnosti slušanja na engleskom jeziku, brinem da ću propustiti najvažnije ideje.**

1 2 3 4 5

**28. Kad slušam na engleskom jeziku, brine me ako ne mogu gledati usne ili izraz lica osobe koja govori.**

1 2 3 4 5

**29. Postanem nervozan/na i zbunjen/a kad ne razumijem svaku riječ tijekom aktivnosti slušanja na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**30. Teško mi je razlikovati riječi jedne od drugih kad slušam na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**31. Osjećam se nelagodno kad na satu engleskog jezika nešto slušam bez napisanog teksta pred sobom.**

1 2 3 4 5

**32. Teško mi je razumjeti usmene upute na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**33. Teško mi se koncentrirati na ono što drugi govore na engleskom jeziku osim ako ih ne poznam jako dobro.**

1 2 3 4 5

**34. Osjećam se sigurnim/om u sebe kad slušam na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**35. Kad slušam na engleskom jeziku često postanem toliko zbunjen/a da se ne mogu sjetiti što sam čuo/la.**

1 2 3 4 5

**36. Plašim se da imam nedovoljno znanje o nekim temama kad slušam na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**37. Zbunjen/a sam i misli su mi zamršene kad slušam važne informacije na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**38. Brine me kad imam malo vremena za razmišljanje o onome što sam čuo/la na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**39. Kad slušam na engleskom jeziku, najčešće prevodim riječ po riječ bez da razumijem sadržaj.**

1 2 3 4 5

**40. Volio/la bih da uopće ne moram slušati druge kako pričaju na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**41. Brine me kad ne mogu slušati na engleskom jeziku vlastitim tempom.**

1 2 3 4 5

**42. Često mislim da svi osim mene dobro razumiju što osoba govori na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**43. Uzrujam se kad nisam siguran/na razumijem li to što slušam na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**44. Brine me razumijevanje izgovorenog ako osoba govori engleski jezik vrlo tiho.**

1 2 3 4 5

**45. Ne bojim se slušanja na engleskom jeziku ako sam dio publike.**

1 2 3 4 5

**46. Nervozan/na sam kad slušam osobu kako sa mnom priča engleski jezik na telefon ili kada zamišljam situaciju u kojoj osoba sa mnom priča engleski jezik na telefon.**

1 2 3 4 5

**47. Napet/a sam kad kao član društvenog okupljanja slušam na engleskom jeziku ili kada zamišljam situaciju u kojoj kao član društvenog okupljanja slušam na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5

**48. Teško mi je slušati na engleskom jeziku ako je i u najmanjoj mjeri prisutna pozadinska buka.**

1 2 3 4 5

**49. Slušanje novih informacija na engleskom jeziku čini me nesigurnim/om.**

1 2 3 4 5

**50. Postanem razdražen/a kad, prilikom slušanja na engleskom, čujem riječi koje ne razumijem.**

1 2 3 4 5

**51. Engleski naglasci i intonacija su mi poznati.**

1 2 3 4 5

**52. Kad slušam na engleskom jeziku, često razumijem riječi ali svejedno ne mogu u potpunosti razumjeti što govornik time želi reći.**

1 2 3 4 5

**53. Plaši me kad ne mogu razabrati ključnu riječ tijekom slušanja odlomka na engleskom jeziku.**

1 2 3 4 5