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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY BASED ON MAEHR’S PERSONAL INVESTMENT MODEL

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ABSTRACT  

KEYWORDS: LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY, MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS, MAEHR’S PERSONAL INVESTMENT MODEL

1. Introduction  
Second language (L2) refers to a language an individual learns that is not his/her mother tongue, but is of use in the area of the individual. It is not the same as a foreign language, which is a language learned that is not generally spoken in the individual’s area. In research on motivation, it is considered to be an internal process that gives behavior energy, direction and persistence in research (in other words, it gives behavior strength, purpose, and sustainability) (Reeve, 2013). Learning a new language takes time and dedication. Once you do, being fluent in a second language offers numerous benefits and opportunities. Learning a second language is exciting and beneficial at all ages. It offers practical, intellectual and many
aspirational benefits. In learning a language, there can be one or more goals – such as mastery of the language or communicative competence – that vary person to person. There are a number of language learner motivation models that were developed and postulated in fields such as linguistics and sociolinguistics, with relations to second-language acquisition in a classroom setting. The different perspectives on L2 motivation can be divided into three distinct phases: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process-oriented period (Dörnyei, 2005).

Since foreign language learning is a stressful activity (Hewitt & Stefenson, 2011), many researchers have investigated the role of anxiety in learning a foreign language (e.g., Phillips, 1992). Foreign language anxiety has been defined as negative emotional reaction that is caused when using or learning a foreign or a second language (MacIntyre, 1999). Several studies have been carried out on language anxiety. Although few of them have revealed that there is a positive relationship between language anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999), most of them have shown that language anxiety and language achievement are negatively related (e.g. Horwitz, 2001, MacIntyre, 1999, MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997). Put it another way, learners who are more proficient in a foreign language, experience less anxiety in learning it in comparison with other learners who are not that proficient. Foreign language learning anxiety is a great barrier to foreign language achievement (Young, 1991), so the low achievement of learners can be attributed to negative effects of anxiety (Horwitz, 2000, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Tóth, 2007).

Considering the pivotal role of motivational goals in learning foreign languages and their relationships with effective behavioral and affective variables in learning English, this study investigates the relationship between achievement goal orientations and foreign language learning anxiety in an Iranian EFL setting.

2. Literature Review
2.1 Anxiety in Second Language Acquisition
In second language research, anxiety is considered as an affective variable (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz et al, 1986). Anxiety is composed of some parts which have different features (Dörnyei , 2005). According to Dörnyei (2005), there are different categorizations for anxiety. Two of the most popular classifications of anxiety are debilitating-facilitating (Scovel, 1978) and state-trait (Speilberger, 1983) views of anxiety. In the former dichotomy, the facilitating or beneficial anxiety does not hinder performance but it can facilitate it whereas debilitating anxiety can deter performance when an individual is under excessive worry. In the latter classification, trait anxiety is rather stable with the passage of time, whereas state anxiety is a transitory and changing feeling (Dörnyei, 2005).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) identified three types of foreign language anxiety: test anxiety, communication apprehension, and fear of negative evaluation. In order to measure foreign language classroom anxiety, they developed a 33-item questionnaire. Several studies have been done on language anxiety most of which have shown a negative relationship between language learning anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999; MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997) and only a few of them have shown that language achievement is positively related to language learning anxiety (e.g., Liu, 2006a; Oxford, 1999). Put it another way, the more proficient the learners, the less anxious they become.

According to Dornyei (2005), trait anxiety is related to an individual’s anxiety in different situations. He maintains that this is because of the disposition of the individual. MacIntyre (1999) believes that situation-specific anxiety is similar to trait anxiety for both of them refer to the possibility of being anxious in a specific situation. For example, language learners might have situation-specific anxiety when a teacher calls them to speak English in the classroom. Another kind of anxiety is state anxiety which is the emotional reaction to the present situation and is considered as a moment-to-moment experience (MacIntyre, 1999; Dornyei, 2005). MacIntyre (1999) differentiates situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety from state anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety refer to the possibility of getting anxious in a specific situation, while state anxiety refers to the way an individual experiences anxiety. MacIntyre (1999) suggests that state anxiety has impacts on cognition, emotions, and behavior. An example for state anxiety can be a person who tries to abandon a situation and the bodily effects including a rapid heartbeat and a seating palm. This might result when making a speech in front of a
large number of people. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) maintained that language anxiety is an identifiable variable in foreign language learning. Krashen (1981) discussed the influence of affective filter in second language acquisition with regard to input. He suggested that when the affective filter is high, an individual is less likely to process the input. The affective filter involves emotional reactions like language anxiety.

Many studies have been done investigating the relationship between anxiety and language learning indicating that anxiety can have an adverse effect on the performance of those who speak English as a foreign language (e.g., Chen & Lee, 2011, Stroud & Wee, 2006). Some studies related to the scope of the present study are reported here. In a study by Liu (2006b), it was revealed that students who had advanced English language proficiency had less anxiety. In a recent study, Chakraborti and Sengupta (2012) studied the language learning anxiety of Indian students. They found that the students’ test anxiety was high among other components of anxiety. Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) conducted a study in Iran investigating the relationship among academic achievement, gender, years of study, and levels of test anxiety. One hundred and ten Iranian EFL students participated in that study. The findings showed that the female students had a higher level of anxiety. And there was no relationship between years of study and test anxiety. In another study by Sadighi, Sahragard and Jafari (2009) on eighty Iranian EFL learners, it was found that there was no statistically significant relationship between years of study and the level of anxiety. In a recent study by Mesri (2012a), it was shown that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and Foreign Language Class Anxiety (FLCA). According to these studies, language learning anxiety of EFL learners was on a high range. However, since the number of participants in the Iranian context is low (n=52), more research on this issue should be done.

2.2 The interface between motivation and language learning anxiety
Every language learner makes use of a combination of affective and cognitive factors which affect the process of second language learning. Among the affective factors are motivation and anxiety. Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis states that when there is lack of motivation, anxiety is high and self-esteem is low, the filter is up and the input does not become intake (Krashen, 1981). He established a connection between anxiety and motivation. Gardner et al. (1992) claim that anxiety and motivation are two separate dimensions which have overlapping behavioral consequences meaning that although they are correlated, they are still distinguishable. However, the causal sequence cannot be established and it differs from person to person. It is quite possible that a motivated learner might experience low or no anxiety and an unmotivated learner might be very anxious. Researchers who work in the field of affective variables believe that anxiety and motivation can predict language proficiency. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) maintain that language aptitude and motivation are the two most dominant factors at the earliest stage of language learning and anxiety plays a small role in proficiency but at the later stages of language learning, anxiety plays a significant role in determining learners’ success. They believe that language learning anxiety of learners who have negative experiences might affect their performance.

Khodadady and Khajavi (2013) examined the relationship between language learning anxiety and motivation of Iranian EFL learners and found that amotivation and less self-determined types of external motivation are positively related to language anxiety. Also, intrinsic motivation and identified regulation were negatively related to language anxiety.

In another study, Zarei (2014) investigated the effect of reading anxiety and motivation on EFL learners’ choice of reading strategies and found that there was a significant low positive relationship between reading anxiety and motivation.

Gomari and Lucas (2013) examined the relationship between students’ language learning anxiety and their motivation and found a significant and negative correlation between language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines.

2.3 Motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)
 Comprehensive studies on second language acquisition theory and research (e.g., Ellis, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Spolsky, 1989) list several factors which explain success in learning foreign languages. These factors include the age of exposure to foreign languages, cognitive or
learning style, language aptitude, personality, learning strategies, the environment of learning, as well as motivational and attitudinal factors.

As Bley-Vroman (1989) mentioned in the Fundamental Differences Hypothesis, adult second and foreign language learners not only consciously study linguistic features like pronunciation and grammar, but they also think about non-linguistic matters such as their goals, anxiety, learning beliefs, and strategies to learn the language effectively. Among these non-linguistic factors, motivation has been considered as the most important factor in learning a second language successfully which can influence other factors as well (McInerney & McInerney, 2000). On the other hand, the issue of achievement goals has attracted many motivation researchers’ attention too (Uebuchi, 1995).

2.4 Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement goal theory states that learners bring different types of goals like performance goals and mastery goals into the classrooms (Elliot, 2005). Students who follow a mastery goal tend to develop academic competence, while learners who seek a performance goal would like to show their competence relative to others. The modified versions of this theory have included the approach-avoidance dimensions (see Elliot, 2005) which led to four kinds of achievement goals: performance approach, mastery approach, avoidance, and performance avoidance.

Although the standards of success might be different, mastery and performance goals focus on the attainment of personal competence. The emphasis on personal competence can be seen in items which are used to utilize these two goals. Learners are asked whether the reason why they would like to study is because the material is interesting to them (mastery approach) or because they want to show that they outperform other students (performance approach) (Dowson & McInerney, 2004). It is agreed upon that the goals of mastery approach are adaptive which lead to deep learning strategies, investment of more effort in school, and motivational engagement (e.g., Wolters, 2004). A recent study has shown that mastery goals are associated with outcomes of beneficial learning across different cultures (Hulleman et al. 2010).

2.5 The role of social goals in school

Studies on achievement goal have provided a vast body of knowledge on how performance and mastery goals influence achievement-related behaviors (Elliot, 2005), but the limitation of achievement goal framework is that it focuses on performance goals and competence-related mastery and ignores other kinds of goals like social goals which can motivate students (King, 2012). Dowson and McInerney (2001) maintain that students’ goal orientations are not peripheral to academic performance and achievement; on the contrary, these goal orientations might impact students’ psychological processes directly when they try to gain academic achievement.

In the present study, Maehr’s Personal Investment Model (PIM) was used as the theoretical framework which assumes a multidimensional conceptualization entailing social goals as well as performance and mastery goals (Maehr & McInerney, 2004). Personal Investment Model will be explained below.

2.6 Maehr’s Personal Investment Model

Maehr’s Personal Investment Model is a comprehensive model of motivation. It states that students’ behaviors are the result of what they perceive of their context, their academic tasks, the events that happen around them, and many other factors. The personal meaning that an individual makes of the context comes from their goals, their sense of self, and what they perceive as action possibilities. In order to depict the present context of study, the components of the model are expanded on. Four contributing factors, namely, the Sociocultural Context, the Teaching-Learning Situation, Personal Experiences, and Information affect these three concepts which determine Personal Investment. Personal incentives refer to four kinds of achievement goals: social solidarity, ego goals, extrinsic rewards, and task goals. Sense of Self is comprised of: Sense of Purpose, Sense of Competence, and Self-Esteem. This model is used as the theoretical framework for this study in order to identify the variables that were most successful at predicting academic success of Iranian EFL university students.

This model examines a wide range of goals across different cultural settings. It offers a more generative framework for investigating the influence of different kinds of goals including social and achievement goals on learning outcomes. It is a cross-culturally relevant theory of achievement motivation presenting a multidimensional model of motivational goals in learning contexts. It is in contrast to achievement goal
theory in that achievement goal theory has been criticized for having a narrow and restricted conception of goals since it mainly focuses on performance and mastery goals. Personal investment theory provides distinct advantages in comparison with other theories of achievement motivation, and it has minimized the role of culture in achievement motivation (McInerney & Liem, 2009). Since its conception, personal investment theory has been devised to be culture-sensitive by including several goals which are important to students from different cultures (McInerney & Liem, 2009). This theory characterizes three categories of motivational goals as significant for understanding achievement-related behaviors: performance goal, social goal, and mastery goal (Watkins et al. 2002).

Goal theory had some major shortcomings. Firstly, it assumes a bipolar continuum which has mastery goal at one end and performance goal at the other end whereas research studies suggest that these goals are not incompatible and an individual might have both goals simultaneously (Maehr, 1984). The second limitation of goal theory was that little attention was paid to the group oriented goals and it mainly had an individualistic flavor rather than a collectivist essence. Maehr’s Personal investment model is an extension of goal theory aiming at focusing on the limitations mentioned above. This model assumes that motivated behavior is determined by three goal variables: beliefs about self, perceived goals of behavior, and action possibilities.

The first component of the model is beliefs about self or sense-of-self. It refers to perceptions, beliefs, and feelings of an individual. It comprises several components such as sense of purpose, sense of autonomy, and sense of competence each of which plays a role in the motivational orientation of individuals and interacts with the motivational goals. The second component of the model as described by Maehr is perceived goals of behavior which refers to what an individual considers as failure or success in a specific situation. Maehr suggested four universal goal systems: social solidarity, task, ego, and extrinsic rewards.

It is assumed that each of these goal structures plays a role in the motivational orientation of an individual. The third component of the model is action possibilities which refers to behaviors that a person considers appropriate in a specific situation.

Based on Maehr’s personal investment model, McInerney and his colleagues (McInerney, Yeung, & McInerney, 2000, 2001) devised a hierarchical and multidimensional model of goal orientations which reflects a wide range of goals. There exist eight goals in this model: competition, social concern, task, praise, effort, social status, affiliation, and extrinsic rewards which can also be classified into four more general goals: performance, mastery, social, and extrinsic goals at the pinnacle of which is general motivation. Therefore, an instrument called the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) was developed to assess the constructs of this model (McInerney, Roche, McInerney, & Marsh, 1997). This instrument has been used in various studies which have examined the motivational factors in academic achievement in different cultures (McInerney et al., 1997). Table 2.1 provides information on the three types of achievement goals of the Personal Investment Model.

2.7 The Inventory of School Motivation

The Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) was devised by McInerney and Sinclair (1991) in order to measure motivational goal orientations. The ISM was formulated to describe motivational characteristics of individuals and groups to investigate the discrepancies and similarities among groups, explain outcome variables, and predict future behavioral outcomes in terms of individual and group characteristics. It measures the central aspects of Personal Investment in an educational environment. The ISM is not a standardized inventory but an exploratory one which can be adapted to a particular cultural context (McInerney & Sinclair, 1991). This study attempts to answer the following research question:

What is the relationship between motivational goal orientations and foreign language learning anxiety?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In order to collect the required data, three Iranian universities were selected using cluster sampling. The universities included Shiraz, Jahrom, and Salman Farsi Universities in Shiraz, Jahrom and Kazerun, respectively. The participants were female and male students of English language. In total, 305 students participated in this study, 74 male students and 231 female students ranging from 18 to 30 years of age. All of them were native speakers of Persian studying English as a foreign language at university.

3.2 Instruments
Two questionnaires were used in this study namely, the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Each questionnaire will be discussed below.

3.2.1 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The first instrument used in this study was Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) consisting of 33 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). It aimed at examining students’ anxiety pertaining to foreign language learning in classroom contexts. One of the reasons for using this scale was that it has been one of the most comprehensive and valid instruments for measuring students’ anxiety in classroom contexts. Another reason was that it showed favorable reliability coefficients with the samples of population to which it had been administered (Horwitz, 1991). Nowadays, it is a frequently used scale which is often shortened or adapted in studies which are concerned with similar purposes. This scale is a self-report measure which assesses the level of anxiety, as indicated by social comparisons and negative performance expectations, psycho-physiological symptoms and avoidance behaviors.

Nakayama (2005) reported the Cronbach’s alpha of this questionnaire as follows: Future Use Anxiety (α = .929) and In Class Anxiety (α = .770). The reliability coefficient of the FLCAS in this study was .918.

3.2.2 Inventory of School Motivation

The second questionnaire was the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) developed by Ali and McInerney (2004). The ISM was devised in order to measure motivational goal orientations of students. It was designed to describe the motivational characteristics of individuals and groups to investigate the discrepancies and similarities between groups, explain outcome variables like performance, and predict future behavioral outcomes (McInerney & Sinclair, 1991). McInerney and his colleagues (McInerney, Marsh and Yeung 2003) proposed a hierarchical and multidimensional model of goal orientations based on Maehr’s Personal Investment Model (PIM). The questionnaire consisted of 43 items and had four dimensions each of which had two subscales which are as follows:


They are grouped into three more general goals which are social goals, mastery goals, and performance goals. General motivation is on the top of the hierarchy. According to Azadikhah (2012), the internal consistency of the questionnaire was 0.93; the Cronbach’s alpha for Task was 0.70, Effort 0.72, Competition 0.82, Social Power 0.85 Social Affiliation 0.79, Social Concern 0.78, and Token/Rewards 0.87. In this study, the reliability coefficient of the ISM was calculated by coefficient alpha to be .918.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

First, the students were informed about the objectives of the study. Then, they were given the instructions regarding how to answer the items of the questionnaires. They were also assured about the confidentiality of the information that they were supposed to provide.

Having received the questionnaires from the students, the researcher scored, and entered the data into a spreadsheet sheet in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. Then, descriptive statistics were computed and reported. The data underwent some descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation together with correlational analyses. Then, further inferential analyses were performed to find answers to the research questions.

To investigate the relationship between motivational goal orientations and language learning anxiety, Pearson Product-Moment correlation was run.

4. Results

4.1 The relationship between motivational goal orientations and language learning anxiety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Motivation Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Language Learning Anxiety</th>
<th>Language Learning Belief</th>
<th>Language Learning Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.199&quot;</td>
<td>.381&quot;</td>
<td>-.054</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods (MJLTM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>.199**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>.474**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>.266**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 1, there was a weak positive relationship between goal orientations and language learning anxiety \( r = 0.199, n = 305, p < 0.01 \). This finding is in contrast to that of Khodadady and Khajavi (2013), Zarei (2014), and Gomari and Lucas (2013). However, this finding is in line with that of Shinge (2005) who found no relationship between motivation and language learning anxiety.

5. Conclusion

Thus far, an overall picture of the study has been presented. Now, it is time to recapitulate briefly on the research questions and the findings derived from the data. With respect to the relationship between goal orientations and language learning anxiety, there was a weak positive relationship between them. Although, the relationship between them was positive, the correlation coefficient was rather low \( r = .199 \). This means that anxious students were not necessarily unmotivated. In other words, since students have different personality traits to react to situations differently, signs of anxiety in the classroom do not necessarily imply that students are unmotivated and even anxious students might still have enough motivation to learn effectively. Therefore, instructors ought not to give up on their anxious students assuming that anxious students tend to be less motivated to learn. However, teachers should try to increase their students’ motivation as well as reduce their level of anxiety. This finding can also minimize the confusion the teachers have regarding active and motivated students who are anxious in the classroom. When teachers recognize that motivated and enthusiastic students experience a feeling of anxiety in the class, they can utilize anxiety-reducing techniques to calm them down.

6. Implications

Findings of this study can be beneficial for teachers and learners as well as educational psychologists. The findings of this study can prove helpful for teachers to pay more attention to the affective factors of learners. These findings can also help instructors to predict their learners’ anxiety, beliefs, and behaviors. Teachers can adjust their teaching plans according to their students’ characteristics to facilitate their learning.

7. Limitations and suggestions for further research

There were some limitations to this study. Inferences drawn from the results of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts because of cultural differences. Another limitation was that the sample was not evenly distributed since there were 74 males and 231 females and this could affect the results of the study. Therefore, generalizing the findings of this study to other contexts and situations should be exercised with caution. Since this study was a quantitative one and just made use of questionnaires, more longitudinal and qualitative studies with in-depth interviews are needed to understand individual differences in greater detail.

REFERENCES


Appendices

Appendix I The Inventory of School Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I try harder when university tasks are more interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I like to see that I am</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I need to know that I am getting somewhere with my university tasks.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SA A
5. I don’t mind working a long time at university tasks that I find interesting.

6. I try hard to make sure that I am good at my university tasks.

7. When I am improving in my university tasks I try even harder.

8. The harder the problem the harder I try.

9. I try hard at university because I am interested in my

10. I work hard to try to

11. I am always trying to do better in my university tasks.

12. Winning is important to me

13. Coming first is very important to me.

14. I like to compete with others at university.

15. I work harder if I’m trying to be better than others.

16. I want to do well at university to be better than my classmates.

17. I am only happy when I am one of the best in class.

18. I work hard at university so

19. I want to feel important in

20. At university I like being in charge of a group.

21. It is very important for me to be a group leader.

22. I work hard at university

23. I often try to be the leader of a group.

24. I do my best at

Appendix III: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I don’t worry about making mistakes in language class.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in language class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I get upset when I don’t understand what the teacher is correcting.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I often feel like not going to my language class.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I can feel my heart pounding when I’m going to be called on in language class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>