大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮及其對全英語授課課程之看法

University EFL Freshmen's Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety
and Their Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses (ETC)

by

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward English-Taught courses (ETC). In addition, the researcher of this study examined the predicative relationship between university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC.

A total of 679 non-English-majored freshmen enrolled in a private university in central Taiwan participated in this study. Two survey questionnaires, namely, the Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety Scale (ALSAS) and the Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses Scale (AETCS), were used to collect data for the study. The ALSAS, with forty-five 5-point Likert-scale items, measured the participants' self-rated degrees of academic listening and speaking anxiety in the ETC. The AETCS, with twenty 5-point Likert-scale items, measured their attitudes toward ETC. The two questionnaires along with a 7-item Basic Personal Background Information Survey were administered to the participants during the last month of the spring semester in 2016.

Among the returned questionnaires, 657 copies were valid for data analysis. The statistical software SPSS for Windows was used to organize and analyze the collected data to provide descriptive and inferential statistical results. For inferential statistics, the significance decision level was set at $\alpha < .01$ for all the statistical significance tests. First, descriptives and frequencies analyses were performed to obtain frequencies of response, means, and standard deviations for relevant questionnaire items. Second, two-tailed independent-samples t-test were conducted to determine if there were significant differences in non-English-majored freshmen's academic listening, speaking anxiety, and attitudes toward ETC between students of high and low English proficiency levels and

between male and female students. Finally, multiple regression analyses were carried out to examine whether non-English-majored freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety could effectively predict their attitudes toward ETC.

The major findings of the study are presented as follows. First, university freshmen in a well-supported EFL learning context are likely to manage their academic listening and speaking anxiety to a slight to moderate degree. Second, English proficiency level plays a significant factor of university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety wherein students with high English proficiency are generally less anxious than their low-proficiency counterparts. In contrast, gender does not make much difference in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety. Third, university EFL freshmen seem likely to hold quite positive attitudes toward ETC. Fourth, English proficiency level plays a significant factor of university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC wherein students with high English proficiency are generally more positive than their low-proficiency counterparts. In contrast, gender does not make much difference in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC. Finally, university ELF freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety can be used to predict their attitudes toward ETC, but do not prove to be effective predictors.

Keywords: foreign language anxiety, English-Taught courses, listening anxiety, speaking anxiety, immersion programs

大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮及其對全英語授課課程之看法

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中文摘要

　　本研究調查了大一非英文系主修學生的課堂聽講焦慮及其對於全英語授課課程之看法。此外,也檢驗了大一非英文系主修學生的課堂聽講焦慮及全英語授課課程看法彼此之間的關係。

　　共計有 679 位台灣中部某私立大學一年級非英文系主修的學生參與此研究。其研究使用了二份問卷調查作為蒐集資料及提供研究所需的工具,分別是「課堂聽講焦慮」(四十五道題目),用以測量參與者在大一英文課堂上聽講焦慮程度的自我評估;以及「對全英語授課課程之看法」(二十道題目),用以測量參與者在大一英文課堂上對於全英語授課課程的看法。此外,個人基本背景資料(六道題目)也包含在此研究的問卷中,用以蒐集參與者之基本背景資料。問卷皆已於 2016 年春季期末發放完畢。

　　在所有收回的問卷當中,共計有 657 份為完整且有效的問卷。此研究使用統計軟體 SPSS 15.0 視窗版來整理和分析研究所需之蒐集資料,並提供描述性與推論性統計數據。推論性統計分析之顯著性測試皆設定 $\alpha < .01$。首先,描述性統計分析用來取得每一問卷題目選填選項之頻率分佈、平均、標準差。其次,獨立樣本 t 測驗用來檢驗參與者在大一英文課堂上聽講焦慮及對於全英語授課課程的看法,及在高、低英文能力學生之間和男、女性別之間是否有顯著性差異。最後,多元迴歸分析用來檢驗參與者在大一英文課堂上聽講焦慮是否能有效地預測其對全英語授課課之看法,以及其之間關係是否會因英文能力及性別的不同而有所差異。

　　主要研究結果包括以下幾點。首先,大一英文課學生可能會感受到中度的課堂聽講焦慮。第二,英文程度對於大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮來說是很重要的因素。英文能力高的學生會比英文能力低的學生感受到較少的焦慮。相較之下,性別對於大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮則無顯著性的差異。第三,大一英文課學生對全英語授課課程之看法是很正面的。第四,英文程度對於大一英文課學生的全英語授課課程之看法是個很重要的因素。英文能力高的學生會比英文能力低的學生抱持著更正面的看

法。相較之下，性別對於大一英文課學生的全英語授課課程之看法則無顯著性的差異。最後，大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮是可以預測其全英語授課課程之看法，但未必是決定性的因素。

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

With globalization and English as a global lingua franca, most non-English speaking countries find ways to internationalize their higher education through the use of English as medium of instruction (Coleman, 2006; Huang, 2009). The intentions are not only to compete internationally and attain a global recognition, but also to prepare students for the discipline-specific knowledge and language skills. There has been a rapid growth in the number of English-taught courses (ETC) in many non-English-speaking countries, including Taiwan, in recent years. However, seeing that anxious students deem taking ETC as a highly challenging task, researchers have begun to take interests in investigating students' foreign language anxiety (FLA) and attitudes toward ETC (e.g., Chang, 2010; Chen & Yu, 2011; Huang, 2009; Wei, 2007; Wu, 2006).

Background and Rationale of the Study

With the increase in globalization, internationalization has become a buzzword in universities and a feature of higher education curriculum design. The Taiwan government interprets that since the academia cannot avoid international competitiveness and cooperation, there is a need to establish a strong foundation of international education at schools. Therefore, among the popular mechanism for internationalizing education in Taiwan is the provision of ETC in higher education (Huang, 2009), which also responds to the needs of providing a favorable environment for foreign and exchange students and preparing local students for successful academic study.

For the past decade, the development of ETC has sped up among higher educational institutions in Taiwan. As far back as the entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, when the international challenges and educational reform gradually became pressing problems, the Taiwan Ministry of Education then began to actively promote ETC in higher education (Huang, 2009). However, shortly afterwards, in Tsai' (2004) study surveying 117 Taiwan colleges and universities, the researcher found that nearly sixty

percent of the total had offered ETC for their students. Subsequently in 2008, a news release reported that up to ten percents of courses in Taiwanese elite national universities had been all delivered in English (Retrieved August 18, 2016, from http:// news.ltn.com.tw/news/life/paper/243047).

Indeed, an increasing number of ETC are available for students, not only for English majors but also non-English majors. So far, a majority of language-related courses have been required to deliver in English. Likewise, many other non-language-related courses are designed in the same manner. For instance, among the best known are the business courses provided by Taiwanese elite national universities, such as Masters of Business Administration (MBA), Executive Masters of Business Administration (EMBA), or International Masters of Business Administration (IMBA) course (Huang, 2009).

In fact, ETC is believed by students to be able to develop and attain English proficiency. For instance, in Chang's (2010) survey of 370 undergraduate students in Yuan Ze University, the bulk of them approve of the way the school provides ETC to enhance their English skills, particularly listening comprehension. Similar to Wei's (2007) study, a majority of 89 undergraduate students in Ming Chung University also report their faith in ETC that can make them achieve a satisfying performance in their English ability.

The effectiveness of ETC can be found to facilitate the development of students' English proficiency. In Wu's (2006) study, twenty-eight graduate students in Chung Hua University indicate that although not having a perfect command of English, they indeed improve their English skills. Moreover, Huang (2009) interviews ten private university students for the learning effectiveness of ETC, indicating that the interviewers can perceive improvement in their listening comprehension, vocabulary performance, and self-confidence of communication.

Statement of the Problems

Despite the success mentioned earlier, thinking about learning the course content of professional subjects through the use of English as medium of instruction, still many students tend to take ETC with a grain of salt (Chang, 2010; Huang, 2009). In reality,

Taiwanese students, as non-native English speakers, are less accustomed to the English language; generally, they are anxious about using English in a large class in front of classmates or to interact with instructors (Young, 1990). Furthermore, to succeed in learning, not only should they be equipped with general English language skills, but also technical vocabulary, and listening and speaking skills in academic English. They hereby concern themselves with their own language inabilities which might lead to their failure to comprehend lectures (Chang, 2010; Huang, 2009).

It is likely that ETC lead to tremendous FLA in students, especially their academic listening and speaking anxiety (Price, 1991; Yang, 2012). In fact, in the context of the ETC, students are inevitably required to listen to or speak in academic English and thereby commonly experience academic listening and speaking anxiety to a certain extent (Young, 1990). Nevertheless, although the level or cause of anxiety among students is uncertain, students with low English proficiency are found to generate more anxiety than those with high English proficiency (Cheng, 2007; Liu, 2007). Sources of students' anxiety may vary from person to person and need further investigation, but typical sources include students themselves, peers, instructors, instructional practice, personality, and past experiences. These sources may, in turn, lead to anxiety-inducing factors such as unclear articulation, difficult level, lack of processing time, less practice, and acoustic input (Su, 2007; Vogely, 1998; Xu, 2011; Zhang & Zhong, 2012).

It is worthy to note that students' academic listening and speaking anxiety can negatively impact their language performance and academic achievement. According to findings of previous studies, under the influence of academic listening and speaking anxiety, students tend to less prefer an all-English learning context and are often less successful in various aspects of language learning performance, such as their use of listening or speaking strategies (Chen & Yu, 2011; Li, 1999; Yang, 2012), listening comprehension (Xu, 2011), vocabulary learning performance (Chen, 2011), and learning motivation (Jhang, 2014; Lai, 2009).

Apart from academic listening and speaking anxiety, teachers and researchers should also pay close attention to students' attitudes toward ETC. Actually, gender is among the

factors that are related to students' learning attitudes, and male students are reported to have less positive attitudes toward language learning than their female counterparts (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Gömleksiz, 2006; Karahan, 2007). Besides, students with lower English proficiency levels are more likely to take a less positive attitude as well. They therefore may lose interests and confidence in attending the ETC or perhaps may withdraw from instructional activities and try to avoid the use of English in class. Also not being able to understand most of the English words and phrases for further mastering the lecture, they prefer bilingual instruction to all-English instruction, hoping that the teacher can incorporate some Chinese words when necessary (Chen & Yu, 2011).

Understandably, students' reserved or less positive attitudes toward ETC likewise can negatively influence their language performance and learning achievement. Gardner (1985) proclaims that students' learning attitudes, which usually go together with their motivation, are related to their success or failure in language learning, indicating that the more positive attitudes and motivation students have, the better performance they tend to achieve. Numerous studies (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Gömleksiz, 2006; Karahan, 2007) support that students with positive attitudes can be integratively and instrumentally motivated to learn English and further facilitate learning achievement, and vice versa.

Despite the proliferation of ETC in Taiwan higher education toady, however, relevant research on ETC in Taiwan is still at the beginning stage. In particular, few studies have been conducted to explore students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. If any, they address the issues primarily from teachers' perspectives rather than from students', let alone perspectives of non-English-majored students (Huang, 2009). Therefore, the current study was designed to address issues related to ETC in Taiwan higher education from perspectives of non-English-majored students focusing on their academic English listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. Students' English proficiency level and gender were also included as factors in examining academic English listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. It is hoped that findings of the study can fill in the gap in research on ETC, especially in the context of Taiwan higher education.

4

Purpose of the Study

In view of the problems and the research gap mentioned above, the main purpose of the study is to investigate university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC in association with English proficiency and gender. In addition, the researcher of this study examines the predicative relationship between university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. It is hoped that findings of this study are able to provide a better understanding of the relationship between university students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC.

Research Questions

According to this research purpose, the following research questions are formulated and addressed in this study.

1. What are university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their academic listening and speaking anxiety?

2. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between students with high and low English proficiency levels?

3. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between male and female students?

4. What are university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward ETC?

5. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between students with high and low English proficiency levels?

6. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between male and female students?

7. Is there a significant predictive relationship between university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety? If so, does such relationship vary according to their English proficiency levels and genders?

Definition of Terms

1. <u>Academic listening and speaking anxiety</u>: Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) ever identified foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 126). In this study, academic listening and speaking anxiety primarily refers to non-English-majored students' nervousness and avoidance when they engage in academic English listening and speaking activities in an EFL classroom using English as medium of instruction. Furthermore, students' academic listening and speaking anxiety are measured using the Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety Scale (ALSAS), which consists of forty-five 5-point Likert-scale items, twenty items on academic listening anxiety and twenty-five items on academic speaking anxiety. The academic listening anxiety items are further divided into the teacher-oriented, audio input-oriented, and proficiency-oriented factors, and the academic speaking anxiety items divided into the self-oriented, teacher-oriented, classmate-oriented, and proficiency-oriented factors.

2. <u>Attitudes toward English-taught courses (ETC)</u>: In this study, they primarily refer to non-English-majored students' thoughts and feelings about ETC that are designed for students to learn the course content of professional subjects such as language, business, finance, science, and technology using English as medium of instruction. Furthermore, students' attitudes toward ETC are measured using the Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses Scale (AETCS). The AETCS, consisting of twenty 5-point Likert-scale items, is designed based on the willingness to participate, self-perceived English proficiency, and potential effectiveness factors.

3. <u>High-proficiency and low-proficiency groups</u>: All the participants of this study had to take the Freshman English Placement Test (FEPT), which consisted of the grammar (20%), reading (40%), and listening (40%) sections, when they first came to the university. According to their FEPT scores, they were placed into classes of high-, mid-, and low-proficiency levels. In this study, the high-proficiency group recruited students from 12 intact high-level classes with an FEPT score of 80 points or above,

whereas participants of the low-proficiency group came from 14 low-level classes with their FEPT scores lower than 60 points.

Significance of the Study

This section presents expected contributions of the findings of this study. First of all, it is hoped that the findings can achieve a better understanding of Taiwanese university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes toward ETC as well as the predicative relationship between students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC.

Second, the researcher of this study hopes that the findings of the study can keep university administrators and policy better informed. As a result, they will be more likely to take students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and learning attitudes toward ETC into account when they incorporate ETC into the university curriculum.

Third, pedagogically, the findings of the study can be conducive to teachers' teaching effectiveness and students' learning outcomes. For one thing, ETC teachers may be better aware of students' affective conditions and then offer better instructions and guidance to reduce their listening and speaking anxiety in class and enhance their learning outcomes.

Finally, it is hoped that the findings can pave the way for further research on foreign language anxiety and teaching effectiveness of ETC. Only through continuing research endeavor will more insights and progress be made to help teachers and students maximize their teaching and learning effectiveness.

CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The second chapter presents the overview of foreign language anxiety (FLA), learning attitudes, and English-taught courses (ETC). The first section provides the definitions and background of FLA, listening anxiety, and speaking anxiety. The second section addresses the definitions and background of learning attitudes, the effects of learning attitudes, and the measurement of learning attitudes. The third section covers the definitions and background of ETC, the affective filter theory, and the relationship between FLA, learning attitudes, and ETC. At the end of each section, relevant empirical studies are included.

An Overview of Foreign Language Anxiety

FLA has been a focus of many researchers due to its potential as a barrier to language performance and achievement. Among foreign and second language learning studies, many of them examine the effects of listening and speaking anxiety and their impacts on ways students comprehend what others are saying and express what they would like to say. For further enhancement of language teaching and learning effectiveness, many other studies try to pinpoint the sources of students' FLA (Zhang & Zhong, 2012).

Definitions and Background of Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety has been defined in many ways by various researchers. As Spielberger (1996) says, anxiety is "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of autonomic nervous system" (p. 16). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) describe anxiety as the fear, apprehension, and worry occurring in unpredictable situations or events. Regardless of its different definitions, anxiety often leads to people's uneasiness, frustration, and self-doubt (Brown, 1994; Gardner & MacIntyre; 1993; MacIntyre, 1999). For students, they might withdraw from classroom participation and position themselves as outsiders while engaged in learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1989).

Anxiety is primarily manifested in three states: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is considered a permanent personality trait, stating that regardless of any situations, students always get nerves or encounter emotional instability (Scovel, 1978; Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety refers to a temporary emotional state, generally indicating that external activation, such as negative evaluation, is something that triggers students' strong emotional and physical reactions (Lai, 2009; MacIntyre, 1999). Situation-specific anxiety is an emotional response to a definite situation or given time, just like delivering a speech and taking a test (Lai, 2009; Spielberger, 1983).

Among the three states, FLA is actually recognized as situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre, 1999). Such language anxiety is similar to general anxiety which is associated with the negative affective state of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry (Spielberger, 1996), but further characterized by the context-specific learning. More specifically, in a language context, language students inevitably must involve "a distinct complex of perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning, arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process", they thus often evoke emotional response to a definite situation or given time (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 31).

Components of Foreign Language Anxiety

For evaluation purposes, FLA was previously classified into three components: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. The classification was first described in the theory of Foreign Language Anxiety by Horwitz et al. (1986), the pioneers of foreign language anxiety research. Initially, they just considered the devastating effects of FLA and thought it was essential to identify those students suffering from FLA. They then determined three main types of anxiety occurring in foreign language context and developed an instrument of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure. Nowadays, the FLCAS has been well-discussed and widely-employed in many studies.

In theory, communication apprehension refers to "an individual level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person" (McCroskey, 1997, p. 78). Strictly speaking, the fears of speaking and listening to a foreign language are the major sources of students' anxiety since they cannot avoid communicating with their teacher and classmates in the process of foreign language learning (Daly, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991). Just because of this, these fears will get them to avoid or withdraw from using the foreign language (Daly, 1991; MaCroskey, 1997).

The second component is test anxiety, which is another type of performance anxiety. It is defined as "the tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluation situation" (Sarason, 1978, p. 214). This anxiety generally is an apprehension over academic evaluation, which is not entirely specific to language communication, but rather a more comprehensive learning (Aida, 1994; Chan &Wu, 2004; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991b). Moreover, it often arises from students' concern about lack of learning and study skills as well as their past experiences of poor test performance (Culler & Holahan, 1980). Typically, test-anxiety students must be excessively worried about doing well on a test. They often make enormous demands on themselves and therefore perceive physical and emotional strains (Horwitz et al., 1986). Finally, these worries and stress will become significant hindrances on their test performance, leading them to a distracted state in the language classroom.

Finally, fear of negative evaluation refers to "apprehension about others' evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations and the expectation that one would evaluate oneself negatively" (Watson & Friend 1969, p. 449). This type of anxiety often comes from students' overwhelmingly lacking self-confidence, teacher's manner of correction, and peer evaluation (Young, 1990). It also may encourage students to behave in ways to minimize the risk of unfavorable evaluation, such as avoiding social contact or situations, viewing themselves as outsider by sitting passively, and withdrawing from classroom activities (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991b). Due to students' refusal to perform in front of others, many language tasks thus are unable to be done successfully (Young, 1990).

Facilitating and Debilitating Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety

In reviewing the literature, FLA might be described as facilitating anxiety which can motivate students to succeed in learning achievement and language performance. The findings indicate that FLA is able to help boost students' positive energy and self-confidence to face the challenge of learning tasks and then achieve learning outcomes (Scovel, 1978). Furthermore, anxious students are more willing to devote effort to their study to compensate for the negative effects of anxiety and their effort is sufficient enough to overweigh the reduced performance (Eysenck, 1979).

Even so, the relationship of students' performance and the facilitating effects of FLA is not linear and consistent. The Yerkes-Dodson Law demonstrates an empirical relationship between arousal and performance, pointing out that increased anxiety at any task can help improve performance, but only up to a certain point where anxiety becomes excessive and performance increasingly declines (see Figure 2.1). When probing into the relationship between anxiety, intelligence, stage of learning, and difficultly of task, Spielberger (1996) even finds that high anxiety can facilitate all students' performance on the simple tasks, but only motivate high IQ students to accomplish difficult tasks.
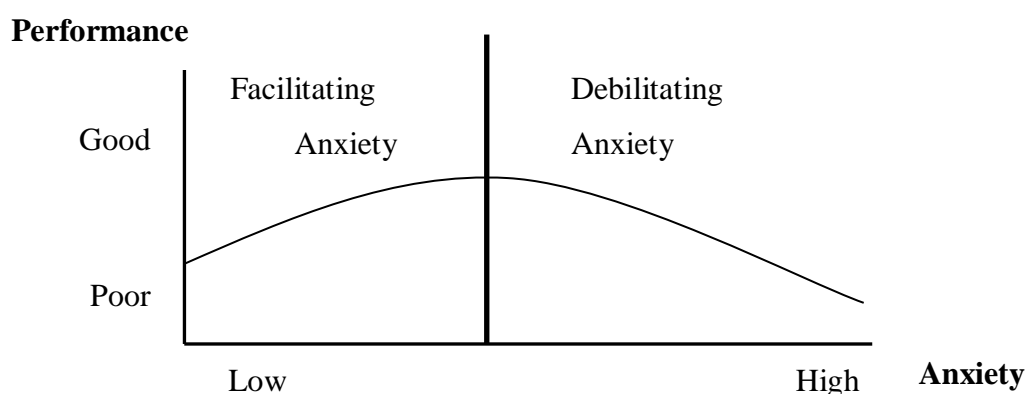
Figure 2.1 Model demonstrating relationship between anxiety and performance (adapted from Lai, 2009, p. 34)

FLA might be debilitating anxiety which can demotivate students from success in language learning and performance. The research findings also show that FLA is able to trigger learns' negative emotions and feelings and result in them not approaching the new learning tasks and eventually dropping out of learning. Furthermore, FLA is acknowledged as debilitating anxiety more frequently than as facilitating anxiety. For instance, Gardner and MacIntyer (1991b) indicate that students' language performance of input and output decline significantly with the level of anxiety increases. Aida (1994) demonstrates that students with high anxiety receive lower course grades on average than the ones with low anxiety. Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) state that those suffering anxiety tend to have a lower efficiency of learning and eventually fall into a low achievement in the long run.

The origins of debilitating anxiety may be derived from learner-induced, classroom-related, skill-specific, and society-imposed sources (Zhang & Zhong, 2012). First, learner-induced source is mainly due to students' unrealistic beliefs and high standard, a low level of language proficiency, and self-perceived incompetence. Second, classroom-related source is directly associated with instructor, peers and classroom practices, such as the manner of error correction, the peer evaluation, and the type of language tasks. Third, skill-specific source is about language skills, among of which are listening and speaking skill, the most anxiety-generating in the literature of language anxiety. Last, society-imposed source tends to be related to identity formation, cultural connotation, and parental intervention, such as cultural values, preferences, or habits and parents' expectation. One instance is that students' parents may expect them to master English well because English is the common language to communicate with people around the world.

Studies on Listening Anxiety

Listening anxiety currently has become of particular concern for researchers who study FLA. Although all language skills, including input (listening and reading) and output (speaking and writing) skills, can provoke anxiety (Zhang & Zhong, 2012), when students cannot anticipate what is going to be listened to or how the discourse is presented, listening

anxiety will more frequently occur (Yang, 2012). They also discover that countless students have suffered from listening anxiety especially under the circumstances that academic discourses do not come easily (Young, 1992). Therefore, an increasing number of researchers place the emphasis on the anxiety over listening skills.

Listening anxiety may intervene in language learners' listening comprehension and listening performance (Chen, 2011; Xu, 2011). Davis and Palladino (1995) indicate that listening comprehension must involve a complex process of "perception, comprehension, recognition, evaluation, and reaction" (p. 1). Therefore, to instantly comprehend the passing on of the message becomes the most challenge for students (Goh, 2000; Kao, 2006; Yang, 2012). Nevertheless, Yang (2012) states that "the acoustic input, different types of linguistic knowledge, details of the context, and general world knowledge" can also enhance the difficulty of students' listening comprehension (p. 42). The difficulty eventually leads to negative emotions of fear and nerves in students and hinder their listening perception (Evers, Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1987).

Even so, the origins of listening anxiety cannot be attributed to one or two sources but a variety. Vogely (1995) indicates that the listening process of constructing meanings covers many aspects: the relationships between the students, the internal and external influence, and the intrinsic and extrinsic elements. It is not therefore surprising to find that the origins of FLLA can vary owing to these variables. For this reason, it opens a door for researchers to determine the origins of students' listening anxiety.

In addition, numerous studies examine the effects of listening anxiety. Most studies note that listening anxiety negatively impacts on students' listening comprehension and performance (Chen, 2011; Cheng 2005; Cheng, 2007; Golchi, 2012; Su, 2007; Xu; 2011), self-perceived listening competence (Cheng, 2005), course performance (Cheng, 2005), listening vocabulary performance (Chen, 2011), and listening strategy use (Cheng, 2007; Yang, 2012). Furthermore, it is common to find that due to English as an international language, many studies are conducted in non-English speaking countries. For instance, in Taiwan, many studies have examined the effects of listening anxiety among Taiwanese's students at different school levels (Chen, 2011; Cheng, 2005; Cheng, 2007; Su, 2007).

Most previous studies simultaneously explore a variety of origins of listening anxiety. As early mentioned that listening anxiety can involve many aspects, many researchers therefore classify the origins of listening anxiety into different categories in designing the research. Although the classifications are not exclusive and may be overlapping in certain cases, they are closely related to input (such as nature of speech, level of difficulty), information processing (such as inappropriate strategies, lack of processing time), instructional (such as lack of practice, uncomfortable environment), and personal factors (such as fear of failure, instructor's personality) (Vogely, 1998). The relevant studies in the literature are briefly summarized below.

Golchi (2012) investigated the relationship between listening anxiety, listening strategy use, and listening comprehension with regard to gender and years of studying English. Sixty-three Iranian participants, taken IELTS listening and speaking preparation course in two language institutions in Shiraze, were recruited into this study. They were required to take the Listening Anxiety Questionnaire, the Listening Comprehension Strategy Questionnaire, and a listening test. The results revealed that learners with high anxiety, especially female learners and those with few years of studying English, performed more poorly in the listening comprehension test and listening strategy use.

Xu's (2011) study fully assessed listening comprehension anxiety among EFL non-English majors in China. The researcher recruited one hundred and forty engineering students in Qingdao University of Science and Technology participated in this study. They were surveyed on causes of listening comprehension anxiety based on Vogely's (1995) four categories: input characteristics, process-related aspects, instructional factors, personal attributes of teacher and learners. The findings demonstrated various sources of listening comprehension anxiety, including level of difficulty, inappropriate strategies, lack of processing time, uncomfortable environment, fear of failure, and others. The researcher strongly suggested increasing learners' self-confidence and making input comprehensible.

Su (2007) investigated Taiwanese EFL college students' listening anxiety and listening performance. Approximately one thousand and four hundred participants responded to a survey of listening anxiety; twenty of them were interviewed for further

information. The researcher found that the participants' listening anxiety negatively impacted on their listening comprehension. Furthermore, the factors leading to the arousal of listening anxiety were closely related to tests, fast speed, unclear articulation, difficult level, inappropriate strategy use, lack of confidence, and inattention. He therefore suggested that there was a definite need to alleviate learners' anxiety by better understanding individual personality difference and developing curriculum materials and activities.

Cheng (2007) examined the effect of listening anxiety on listening performance and strategy use. The researcher distributed Elkhafafi's FLLA Scale, listening test, and a questionnaire of listening strategy use to nearly one hundred and thirty Taiwanese high school students. Subsequently, twelve participants from different anxiety levels were selected to receive an interview. The findings indicated that listening anxiety negatively interfered with listening performance and was much provoked by stress of test taking, poor proficiency, and lack of practices. Furthermore, low-anxiety or high-proficiency students used listening strategies more frequently than those with high anxiety or low proficiency. The researcher suggested decreasing students' listening anxiety before tests and increasing opportunities for training of students in short talks and the use of listening strategy.

Chen (2011) studied the effect of nearly two hundred and fifty Taiwanese eight-grade junior high school students' listening anxiety on their listening comprehension and listening vocabulary. The researcher implemented listening and listening vocabulary tests, and a Foreign Language Listening Anxiety scale as instruments. The result demonstrated that listening anxiety had different debilitating influence on both listening comprehension and knowledge of listening vocabulary, mostly arising from characteristics of oral inputs, and students' low-confidence, limited English vocabulary and listening skills. The researcher concluded that enhancing English vocabulary was beneficial to students' listening comprehension and minimized their listening anxiety.

Cheng (2005) examined the effects of listening anxiety on students' self-perceived listening competence and course performance and their listening anxiety toward audio-listening and video-viewing activities. Twenty-three Taiwanese EFL graduate

students majoring in a required intermediate English listening course were recruited to complete an open-ended questionnaire, primarily adapting from Vogely's (1995) categories: input, information processing, instructional, and personal factors. The results indicated that compared with audio-listening activities, video-viewing activities aroused less listening anxiety with the visual support. Moreover, students rarely had good self-perceived listening competence and course performance in the activities.

Studies on Speaking Anxiety

For long, speaking anxiety has been the major research focus in the field of FLA. That is because in a foreign language environment, students are unable to engage in an extensive practice of speaking the target language. Moreover, they always lack self-confidence to speak the target language and show too much concern about their linguistic mistakes, such as grammatical structure and pronunciation (Price, 1991). Under these circumstances, foreign language speaking can be known as the most anxiety-producing stimuli that students experience (Horwitz et al., 1986). Because of this, a significant number of researchers begin to contribute to this field of speaking anxiety.

Most speaking activities requiring "in front of the class" performance always create tremendous speaking anxiety for students. Young (1990) surveyed one hundred and thirty Spanish university students and one hundred and nine high school students studying Spanish as their foreign language. In measuring their in-class anxiety, the researcher discovered that students were afraid of self-exposure and of revealing themselves in front of others. Price (1991) reported similar findings in a qualitative study of ten high anxiety students, indicating that students produced the greater anxiety over speaking in front of peers than involving pair-work and small group work.

Students' lack of oral proficiency may also create tremendous speaking anxiety in themselves. Studying the effects of oral proficiency level on speaking anxiety, researchers may simultaneously determine the origins of speaking anxiety. The findings reveal that the sources are strongly correlated with students' poor oral proficiency and oral skills. For instance, Liu (2007) examined the speaking anxiety of Chinese EFL students taking the

English listening and speaking course in a Chinese university. Through the use of Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and the observation of students' reflective journals, the researcher found that no matter how proficient students' English oral language was, they may experience certain extend of speaking anxiety. Even so, the results still indicated that students with low oral proficiency typically suffer from more speaking than those with high oral proficiency.

Additionally, gender may also be a variable which creates tremendous speaking anxiety in students. In Mesri's (2012) study, the findings revealed a significant relationship between foreign language anxiety and the female students. The researcher recruited fifty-two (20 male and 32 female) Iranian EFL students English at Salmas University to complete the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) questionnaire. The results indicate that in Iranian EFL context Iranian female EFL learners have more anxiety to learn English.

The presence of speaking anxiety is already found disrupting students' learning process and behavior in classrooms. Phillips (1992) reported that students with high language speaking anxiety often speak less than those with low language speaking anxiety. Aida (1994) likewise stated that experiencing speaking anxiety, students are reluctant to communicate with other classmates or in expressing themselves in a foreign language. Nevertheless, through observing the interaction between six Korean students of US graduate school in whole-class discussion, Lee (2009) declared that after students with poor oral proficiency generate speaking anxiety, they rarely engage in discussing.

The facilitating and debilitating effects of speaking anxiety are therefore of great concern to researchers. In research, Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), Young's (1990) Speaking-Oriented In-Class Activity scale, and Huang's (2005) Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLSAS) are the most representative scales to test foreign language anxiety and speaking anxiety. They are now widely-used by researchers to determine the effects of speaking anxiety on oral performance and achievement and also other aspects of language performance.

In reviewing the literature, the effects of speaking anxiety are examined and identified. For instance, numerous studies (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Phillips, 1992; Razmjoo & Soozandehfar, 2010; Tóth, 2012; Woodrow, 2006) demonstrate the debilitating effects of speaking anxiety on students' oral performance and achievement. The findings prove that the more speaking anxiety the participants experience, the less oral performance they achieve. The results even reveal that high-anxious participants typically exhibit poor performance on the oral exam, including giving a presentation, doing a role-play in front of class, contributing to a formal discussion, and taking part in group discussion. In addition to these findings, the debilitating effects of speaking anxiety are also found on other aspects of language, such as learning style preference and speaking strategies (Li, 1999), learning motivation (Jhang, 2014; Lai, 2009), and self-consciousness and English speaking self-concept (Lin, 2005). The subsequent paragraphs review the effects of speaking anxiety on oral performance and achievement.

Woodrow (2006) investigated the relationship between students' in/outside class anxiety and oral performance. Approximately three hundred Australian students were recruited from the program of advanced English for academic purpose (EAP); they were required to complete the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS). The scale contained items about in-class anxiety (such as giving oral presentation, doing a role-play in front of class) and out-of-class anxiety (such as answering native speakers' questions). The results showed that communicating with a teacher and native speakers or speaking in public in English made students more anxious. Furthermore, the finding indicated their anxiety hindered their speaking performance.

Phillips' study (1992) examined the effects of speaking anxiety on forty-four American students' oral exam performance. The participants, enrolled in the French classes at a university in the United States, were required to complete Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and taken a French oral exam, of which first part was to talk freely on a given cultural topic and second part was to do a role-play. The results showed that students received lower scores on the exam tended to have higher speaking anxiety. That is, speaking anxiety was found to negatively impacts on oral performance.

Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) examined the effects of speaking anxiety on oral test performance among forty Spanish students who took a university-level elective English course. In the study, the researcher duplicated the design of Phillips' (1992) study, which implemented Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and an oral exam. The results show that compared with the moderate-anxiety group and low-anxiety group, high-anxiety group received the lowest scores on the oral exam. It was to explain the negative relationship between speaking anxiety and speaking performance.

Razmjoo and Soozandehfar's (2010) study examined the relationship between speaking anxiety and speaking performance among forty-three Iranian students who majored at English department in Shiraz University. In their study, the researchers adopted Cope et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and collected the participants' first-year grades from two semester-long courses, namely, Conversation 1 & 2. The results showed that there was an inverse relationship between students' speaking anxiety and oral exam score.

Tóth (2012) examined the speaking anxiety with respect to the speaking performance of sixteen advance level students who were first-year English majors at a university in Hungary. The researcher distributed Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and arranged a one-on-one conversation interview to the participants. In terms of the interview tasks, the participants need to exchange their own information with one another, express their own opinion on a controversial issue, and describe and interpret an ambiguous picture. The results pointed out that highly anxious students seldom actively communicated and demonstrated a weaker ability to express more detailed statements.

An Overview of Learning Attitudes

Learning attitudes has been the topic of heated discussion in language learning literatures. This factor is usually believed to have correlation with the success or failure in language learning (Gardner, 1985). Skehan (1991) explains that although learning attitudes may not be independent in predicting success or failure in language learning, it can cause action and effort to achieve the learning goals. Therefore, an increasing number of researchers contribute to this field of learning attitudes.

Definitions and Background of Learning Attitudes

Attitude has been interpreted in many ways by different researchers over time. It's largely defined as a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a particular individual, action, or thing (Eagly & Chaiken, 1995). To a certain extent, attitudes can affect "how we shape our goals and expectations and how we interpret obstacles we encounter while trying to achieve our goals" (Kosslyn & Rosenberg, 2006, p. 738). They may present in a positive, negative, or neutral way in our beliefs, feelings and behaviors, such as being energetic and motivated in work, feeling indifference, frustration and fear, as well as not being moved by any persuasions.

Attitudes are influenced by numerous factors. Brown (2000b) indicates that individuals' attitudes are potentially affected by the attitudes of parents and people around him because they always develop attitudes early "in childhood" and "while contacting with people who are different in any number of ways" (p. 180). Davis and Palladino (1995) also demonstrate that "learning and reduction of cognitive dissonance" can influence attitudes as well (p. 711). More than that, individual's "insufficient knowledge, misinformed stereotyping and extreme ethnocentric thinking" may typically form negative attitudes, such as the cultural stereotype, bias and prejudges (Brown, 2000b, p. 180).

Nowadays, attitudes toward the learning situations have been remaining the focus of research. Learning attitudes are relatively complicate and greatly concerned with students' learning experiences, beliefs, values, and educational background. They are proved to have a profound impact on the learning process and learning outcomes. Therefore, when assessing learning attitudes, there are many factors needing consideration, such as teaching environment, class activities, teachers and classmates (Gardner, 1985).

More than that, an increasing number of studies focuses on the situation of language learning. Learning attitudes thus may refer to "individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught. Furthermore, it is essential to take more factors into account, including geographical, cultural, and language differences. Gardner (1968, 1985) claims that negative learning attitudes toward language learning are

sufficient to influence students' willingness to acquire a language and then hinder their language achievement.

ABC's of Attitudes

The type of learning attitudes typically has three components: affect, behavior, and cognition, so-called the ABC's of attitudes (Fedlman, 2000). First, the affect component refers to the emotions and evaluations of an individual concerning the attitude object, primarily expressing how we feel and being able to be read by monitoring physiological sign (such as heart rate). Second, the behavior component consists of a disposition or intention to act in a particular manner in relation to one's preference, describing what we do and being able to be assessed through direct observation. Third, the cognition component refers to one's beliefs and thoughts about the attitude object, explaining what we believe and know and being able to be measured via survey, interview and other reporting method (see Figure 2.2).

Affect
"I like to make my own decisions."

Behavior
"I would consider spending more on learning English if necessary."

Attitude
"I am in favor of learning English."

Cognition
"Learn to speak English could be a facilitator of getting a better job."
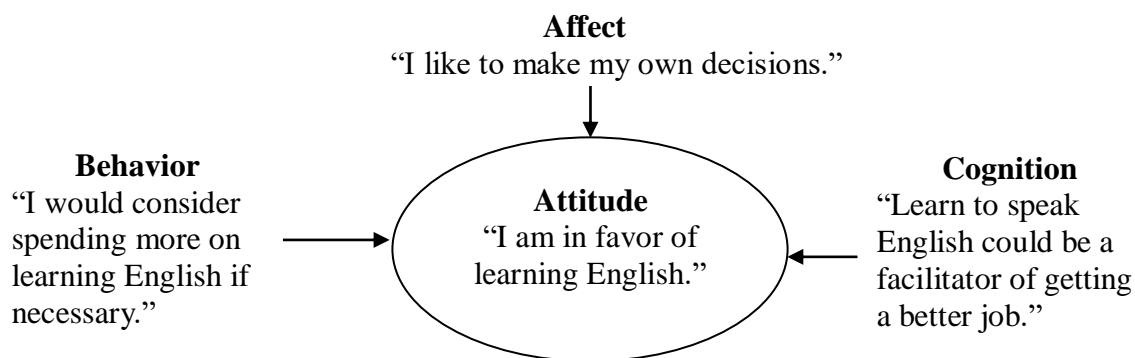
Figure 2.2 The components of learning attitudes (adapted from Feldman, 2000, p. 514)

The Effects of Learning Attitudes

Learning attitudes are regarded as a factor that can facilitate language learning. Gardner (1985) highlights one of his research findings that the more positive attitudes students have, the better language performance they get. This is very likely attributed to the

fact that students with positive language learning attitudes are willing to put more effort into learning and spend more time on practice (Liuoliene & Metiuniene, 2006). However, students who lack positive attitudes may not produce anything and tend to seek to escape from a task or environment by performing inappropriate behavior. Therefore, such behaviors may lead them to lower satisfaction with their own learning performance and achievement (Verma, 2005).

Learning attitudes and motivation usually go together and are simultaneously examined. These two factors are believed to have a close relationship and influence the success or failure in foreign language learning (Gardner, 1985). Numerous studies indicate that any student with motivation can be integratively motivated to engage in learning out of sheer interest or instrumentally motivated to achieve certain ends.

Studies on Attitudes toward Language Learning

To measure the learning attitudes, attitude scale is always regarded as the most effective way (Coon, 2001; Davis & Palladino, 1995; Heffernan, 2005). It is because although attitudes are abstract ideas directed toward people or events, this instrument can be still used to reliably and validly measure what individuals believe, perceive, feel or act toward the objects. Actually, attitude scale requires the respondents to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with the attitudinal questions or statements through the use of Likert scaling techniques. And to understand the stance of large number of the respondents, the measured responses are then quantified for acceptance or rejection of the attitude objects.

The instrument of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) is always found to measure attitudes and motivation of the students. It was first introduced by Gardner (1985) and most widely-used for the evaluation of language achievement, behavioral intention, attitudinal and motivational characteristics, the relation of attitudes, and motivation to classroom behaviors. The test consists of one hundred and thirty items which are classified based on the five subcategories: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation,

motivation, instrumental motivation, and language anxiety (see Table 2.1.). It has provided highly reliable and valid results in the field in a number of different operating conditions.

Table 2.1.

The Constructs and Scales of Gardner's AMTB (adapted from Hashimoto, 2002)

Construct A	Integrativeness
Subtest 1	Integrative orientation
Subtest 2	Interest in foreign language
Subtest 3	Attitudes toward the target language group
Construct B	Attitudes toward the learning situation
Subtest 4	Evaluation of the language instructor
Subtest 5	Evaluation of the language course
Construct C	Motivation
Subtest 6	Motivational intensity
Subtest 7	Desire to learn the language
Subtest 8	Attitudes toward learning the language
Construct D	Instrumental motivation
Subtest 9	Instrumental orientation
Construct E	language anxiety
Subtest 10	Language class anxiety
Subtest 11	Language use anxiety

Owing to the facilitating effects of learning attitudes, numerous studies on language learning therefore examine learning attitudes and motivation towards language learning, or else confirm what factors are associated with the difference of learning attitudes. Most researchers demonstrate that students can have positive learning attitudes and higher motivations towards language learning (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Kurihara, 2006; Mamun, Rahman, Rahman, & Hossain, 2012). The surveyed students can be male, female, or from various grades, departments, majors, and countries. On the other hand, a number of researchers (Gömleksiz, 2010; Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Karahan, 2007; Mamun et al., 2012) are aware that there are significant differences between students' LLA in terms of

various factors, including gender, age, and the time starting learning English. The relevant studies are described as follows.

According to Mamun et al.'s (2012) study, the researchers investigated seventy-nine Khulna undergraduate students' attitudes and motivation towards English language. The participants were recruited from Life Science School of Khulna University in Bangladesh and assigned to complete an attitude questionnaire. In terms of the data, the researchers discovered that the participants' attitudes towards English language were positive and they were instrumentally motivated to learn English.

Ghazvini and Khajehpour's (2011) study investigated Iranian students' attitudes and motivations towards learning English in association with gender. About one hundred and twenty male and female students from two high schools were asked to do a survey. The finding demonstrated that male students tended to be instrumentally motivated to learn English; whereas female students were more integratively motivated and had more positive attitudes towards English.

Kurihara (2006) examined Japanese EFL students' attitudes towards the English oral communication class. The participants were all female senior high school students. By employing the pre- and post-questionnaires and interview techniques to collect data, the researcher determined that students had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards the speaking activities in class. They hold the belief that their English oral communication can improve after attending the class.

Gömleksiz's (2010) investigated attitudes towards language learning in association with gender, grade level, and department variables. By surveying nearly one thousand and three hundred students studying at Frat University in Turkey, the researcher discovered that students' attitudes were different. The results indicated that students' attitudes varied from one department to another. Moreover, compared with male students and freshmen, female students and sophomores had more positive attitudes towards language learning.

Similar findings were also showed in Karahan's (2007) study, which investigated nearly two hundred Turkish primary school students' attitudes towards English learning. The finding showed that female students have more positive attitudes towards English

learning than male students did. Additionally, if learning English early at preschool level, students also had more positive attitudes. However, limited to the participants who were still young, the results showed that students generally demonstrated slightly positive attitudes towards English language use and cultural understanding.

An Overview of English-Taught Courses

While English is regarded as a lingua franca, ETC have become more widespread in higher education in Taiwan. Especially following the entry of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, ETC were productively developed in such non-English speaking areas as the Asia Pacific and mainland Europe (Huang, 2014). Many countries around here attempt to implement English as medium of instruction (EMI) to internationalize their education (Coleman, 2006; Huang, 2009). For instance, in 1996, Thailand initiates English-only instruction to the first grade of the elementary school students. In 1997, the South Korea starts practicing English teaching on the third graders. In 2001, in South Korea, English course are delivered entirely in English (Chen, Su, & Yu, 2011).

Definitions and Background of Language Immersion Program

As already known, the first language immersion program was launched in a small suburban community in St. Lambert, Quebec in 1965 (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). The initiation of the program was characterized predominantly by the use of target-language instruction in which the regular school curriculum was taught through the medium of the target language (Chen, Su, & Yu, 2011). Therefore, this program created an experiential environment in which their English-speaking students could study all or part of the course content through French language. It was also because the program was proved to successfully bring the benefits of learning; language immersion therefore became more appealing especially to those who sought the improvement of language proficiency (Chen, Su, & Yu, 2011). Nowadays, there are more related language immersion programs or

courses which are well-established and flourishing; ETC are the one extension of language immersion which has been around for many decades.

Generally those language immersion programs can come in three main formats: full immersion program, partial immersion program, and two-way immersion program. The first two, total immersion and partial immersion program respectively mean that almost all and only a portion of the curriculum subjects are delivered in the target language. Then, two-way immersion, also referred as bilingual immersion, two-way bilingual, and two-way dual immersion bilingual, is to provide "instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part, or all, of the school curriculum" (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010, p. 2). Although such a program often varies in how the languages are distributed throughout the curriculum, it is rapidly growing in popularity across the world.

Furthermore, immersion courses can be also differentiated based on students' ages, class time, and other factors. According to when students begin the target language, they can be divided into four: early immersion (from age 5 or 6), middle immersion (from age 9 or 10), late immersion (between ages 11 and 14), and adult immersion (from age 17 or older) (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010). Furthermore, they can be also distinguished by class time spent on the use of target-language instruction, often including complete immersion and partial immersion. The first means that that all course content is delivered in the target language. The latter implies that roughly of instruction time is spent in the target language and half in the first language.

The Effectiveness of Language Immersion

The idea of "more language input, better language acquisition" can be seen as the foundation of all types of language immersion (Chen, Su, & Yu, 2011, p. 82). It is largely derived from Krashen's (1982) theory of Second Language Acquisition, claiming that a language is learned easiest and best where it is spoken and when students concentrate on the input message rather than the grammatical form. Namely that if students are exposed to authentic language use and massive comprehensible input, then they can possess a mature

command of second language because their acquisition can proceed in a manner most similar to first language acquisition. For this reason, language immersion therefore duplicates such an environment where "the learners are surrounded with and exposed to the target language and culture as much as possible" (Chen, Su, & Yu, 2011, p. 82).

Language immersion thus provides substantial stimulus and opportunities for students to acquire discipline knowledge and language proficiency. Johnson and Swain (1997) demonstrate that after students involve extensively in language immersion, they can "demonstrate fluency and confidence when using the immersion language, and their listening and reading skills are comparable to those of native speakers of the same age" (p. 78). They can also make normal or better-than-normal progress in subject content (Cohen & Swain, 1979; Genesee, 1987). Moreover, compared with those in other school-based language programs, students in language immersion are more able to attain a superior level of the target-language (Met, 1998).

Yet the effects of language immersion cannot be guaranteed in all conditions. Parker (1994) argued that whether teachers are bilingual or native speakers of the target language and whether there are target-language students involved can be the factors for the success of language immersion. Furthermore, it is rarely possible to expect immersion students to achieve native-like fluency even if they can speak the target language fluently and without many grammatical errors. Johnson and Swain (1997) also claimed that even though immersion students demonstrate listening and reading skills, they may only have a limited command of spoken and written skills in the target language.

The Affective Filter Theory

From a theoretical perspective, the effectiveness of learning in language immersion can vary with respect to the strength or level of students' affective filters. In terms of Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, students' affective responses to environment can facilitate and impede the delivery of input to the language acquisition device and then influence acquisition. The affective filters contain self-attitude, self-esteem, self-confidence, motivation, anxiety, and others. Typically students whose affective

responses are not optmal tend to have a high or strong affective filter, and vice versa. The filter is able to have a significant impact at any or all of the stages of language of input, processing, and output (see Figure 2.3).

Filter

Input ⟶ | ⟶ Language Acquisition Device ⟶ Acquired Competence
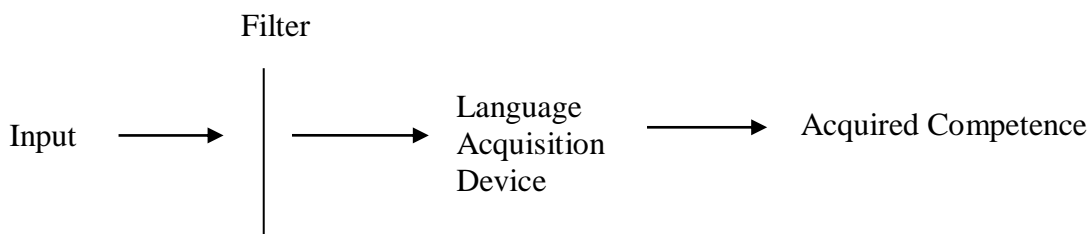
Figure 2.3 Operation of the affective filter (adapted from Krashen, 1982, p. 32)

A high affective filter can interfere with input debilitating students' ability to perform. Students with high affective filter are likely to seek and obtain less input, wherein even if they "understand the message, the input will not reach the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device" (Krashen, 1982, p. 32). Generally, high anxiety can contribute to a high affective filter, which prevents students from receiving input and generating output. That is, students with high-anxiety sensitivity will have so many difficulties on listening comprehension and oral communication.

Certainly a low affective filter is desirable and a key factor in success of the learning. That is because students with low affective filter are more willing to seek and obtain more input. Their open minds therefore will encourage their intake and perform (Stevick, 1976). Krashen (1982) suggest that "the self-confident or secure person will be more able to encourage intake and will also have a lower filter," which also includes a person with outgoing personality, low anxiety, and low self-esteem (p. 23). Furthermore, a low anxiety situation or environment, positive attitude toward the classroom and teacher are also beneficial to encourage low affective filter. That is because "the student who feels at ease in the classroom and likes the teacher may seek out intake by volunteering, and may be more accepting of the teacher as a source of intake" (Krashen, 1982, p. 23).

Studies on English-Taught Courses

For the effectiveness of ETC teaching and learning, an increasing number of researchers contribute to the perspective of students and teachers on ETC. For instance, Wei (2007) investigated students' and teachers' opinions about having a full-English immersion setting at the Department of Applied English (DAE) of Ming Chuan University. To achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher distributed questionnaires to eight-nine DAE students and thirteen English teachers. The results demonstrated that most students and teachers had good responses to the full-English immersion environment, believing that such a setting could make an improvement in students' English proficiency. However, as to whether all courses should be taught in English only, most of them tended to have negative or uncertain attitudes.

Chang's (2010) study examined the perceptions of students and teachers on the implementation of EMI for content courses at a private university in northern Taiwan. The researcher recruited three hundred and seventy undergraduate students and six professors from six departments in the three major colleges at the university. In terms of the data collected from the pilot interviews with students, student questionnaire, and face-to-face interviews with professors teaching EMI subject courses, the researchers found that only few students showed negative attitudes toward the courses. Furthermore, most students confessed that although not having a perfect command of English, they improved their English language proficiency, especially in terms of listening.

Dissimilar to the above studies, Huang's (2015) study merely examined students' perceptions on the English medium instruction courses at Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology. The researcher invited nearly one hundred local and seventy foreign students to complete a students' self-assessment questionnaire. In terms of their responses, the researchers discovered that participants were motivated to take EMI courses to enhance their English proficiency and professional knowledge. Most of them agreed with the helpfulness of the courses and the interactions with students of other nationalities in the course. Moreover, the participants' learning anxiety negatively impacted on their learning achievement and learning motivation, which the major learning anxiety

experienced by local students has a significant association with their self-perceived low English proficiency.

Wu's (2006) study likewise investigated students' perspectives on the use of English as medium of instruction using Chung Hua University as an example. In the study, a survey was administered to twenty-eight graduate students experienced the EMI courses. Their responses indicated that most of them were in favor of EMI courses, believing that the implementation of EMI was beneficial to the improvement of their English proficiency and could give them more opportunities to use English in a natural environment. However, they also admitted that their English proficiency was not improved and that they did not grab the chances to use written and oral English.

Relationships between FLA and Learning Attitudes and ETC

As mentioned previously, students' affective filters have been widely-discussed in the research on FLA and learning attitudes. Among many studies (Chen, 2011; Cheng 2005; Cheng, 2007; Golchi, 2012; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Phillips, 1992; Razmjoo & Soozandehfar, 2010; Su, 2007; Toth, 2012; Woodrow, 2006; Xu; 2011), FLA is seen as a debilitating factor that typically hinders students' listening comprehension, listening and speaking performance and achievement. Moreover, numerous studies (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Kurihara, 2006; Mamun et al., 2012) also indicate that students with less positive language attitudes may influence the success in language learning

Therefore, responding with the truth about the effects of affective filters and the proliferation of ETC, an increasing number of researchers investigate students' FLA and attitudes towards ETC. In reviewing the literature, this area is still under-research. The few existing studies (Chang 2010; Wei, 2007; Wu, 2006) reveal that although most students are willingness to participate in ETC, a portion of participants still hold controversial attitudes toward ETC. That is attributed to the fact that many of them remain apprehensive if they have a high enough level of English to use it in real communication setting, particularly concerning their listening comprehension and speaking ability in academic learning (Chang, 2010).

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This chapter describes the methodology of the research. The content of the chapter is presented in six main sections as follows: participants and setting, measurements and variables, instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and validation of the instruments.

Participants and Setting

A total of 679 EFL freshmen enrolled in the Freshman English for Non-English Majors (FENM) program offered at a private university in central Taiwan participated in this study. All the participants had to take the Freshman English Placement Test (FEPT), which consisted of the grammar (20%), reading (40%), and listening (40%) sections, when they first came to the university. According to their FEPT scores, they were placed into classes of high-, mid-, and low-proficiency levels. To secure participants with distinctively different English proficiency levels, the researcher of the study then recruited students from 12 intact high-level classes (resulting in 317 valid survey copies) and students from 14 intact low-level classes (340 valid copies) from the FENM program, deliberately excluding mid-level classes, to participate in the study.

The FENM program is a one-year 6-credit required course for non-English-majored freshmen. It tries creating an encouraging and non-threatening learning environment and sustains an all-English learning system. The aim of the program is to enhance freshmen's English proficiency and ability through participating and using English in a rich and supportive English-speaking context. Basically, the FENM program consists of two tracks: a three-hour-a-week course without a language lab class and a four-hour-a-week course with a language lab class. The freshmen then join one of the two tracks according to their English proficiency level determined by the results of the English Placement Test.

To encourage students' use of the English language, FENM teachers are expected to integrate use of language skills into their instructional activities. One major focus of these

activities is to help freshmen develop or enhance their linguistic competence to make sense of listening inputs. In the learning process, freshmen receive frequent and abundant practice in listening to their teacher and classmates speaking English in academic contexts and listening to audio and/or audio-visual materials in and outside of class. For example, intensive as well as extensive class activities and resources such as dialogues, short stories, comprehension questions, songs, movies, and television programs are incorporated for listening practice. It is hoped that freshmen will be able to better understand native as well as nonnative English speakers, English talks about daily-life topics, and also English speeches, reports, and lectures about academic and technical topics.

The FENM course maximizes freshmen's opportunities for English speaking as well. It is executed through various in-class oral activities, such as pair/group work, role-play, dialogues, speeches, and plays and other suitable topics. In addition, formal oral assessments are used to evaluate and keep track of students' communicative performance, including in-class oral assessments and midterm and final oral exams. In view of the aforementioned activities and assessments, the freshmen are expected to become more fluent engaging in various forms of oral communication and more comfortable and confident using English in and outside of class for real-life purposes.

Furthermore, the FENM program has managed to maintain relatively small class size over the years. In order to maximize the freshmen's opportunities to use English in class and create a non-threatening atmosphere and supportive learning environment, the FENM class size ranges from twenty-five to thirty-five per class. To take students' English proficiency level into account, the low-level FENM class size is generally limited between twenty-five to thirty students. As to high-level FENM classes, the class size is slightly bigger ranging from thirty to thirty-five.

Measurements and Variables

This study aimed to measure university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. Subsequently, the freshmen's English proficiency level and gender were further used as the independent or grouping variable to

examine if there were significant differences in the dependent variables (see Research Questions 1-6 and Figure 3.1 below). In addition, the researcher of this study examined if there was a significant predictive relationship between the two predictor variables, i.e., university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety, and their attitudes toward ETC. Afterwards, two moderator variables, i.e., the English proficiency level and gender, were used to examine if there was a different effect on the resulting predictive relationship (see Research Question 7 and Figure 3.2 below).

1. What are university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their academic listening and speaking anxiety?

2. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between students with high and low English proficiency levels?

3. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between male and female students?

4. What are university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward ETC?

5. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between students with high and low English proficiency levels?

6. Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between male and female students?

7. Is there a significant predictive relationship between university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety? If so, does such relationship vary according to their English proficiency levels and genders?

Independent Variable		**Dependent Variable**
● English proficiency (High & Low level) ● Gender (Male & Female)	⇨	● Academic listening and speaking anxiety ● Attitudes toward ETC

Figure 3.1

Illustration of Variables in Research Questions 1-6

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐         ┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   Predictor Variable        │         │   Dependent Variable        │
│                             │   ⇨     │                             │
│ ● Academic listening and    │         │ ● Attitudes toward ETC      │
│   speaking anxiety          │         │                             │
└─────────────────────────────┘         └─────────────────────────────┘
                                                   ⇧
                         ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                         │   Moderator Variable        │
                         │                             │
                         │ ● English proficiency (High & Low level) │
                         │ ● Gender (Male &. Female)   │
                         └─────────────────────────────┘
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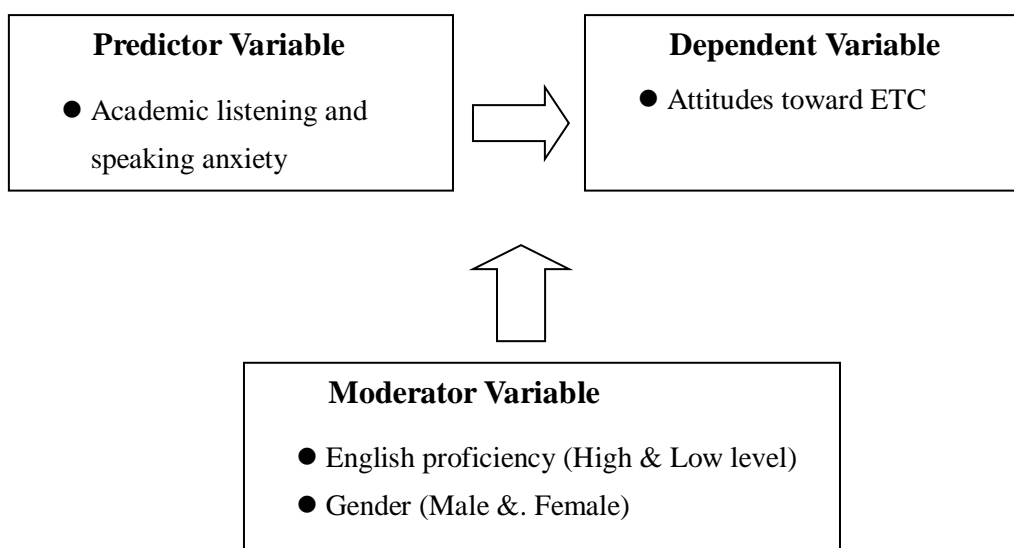
Figure 3.2

Illustration of Variables in Research Question 7

Instruments

A set of two questionnaires, namely, the Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety Scale (ALSAS) and the Attitudes towards English-taught Courses Scale (AETCS), served as the instruments for research data collection in this study. For decades, questionnaires have been accepted and adopted as a highly suitable method for collecting self-reported data and achieving a big sample size within a limited period (Neuman, 2003). Furthermore, because the Chinese language is the participants' mother tongue, a Chinese version of the two questionnaires were developed and used to collect data for the study so as to avoid any misunderstanding of the questionnaire items (see Appendices A and B for the questionnaires written in Chinese and their English translation). For a better understanding of the design of the survey instrument, Table 3.1. presents the framework of the questionnaires for the study, summarizing the themes and the number of items in each questionnaire.

Table 3.1.

Framework of the Questionnaires for the Study

Questionnaire	Theme	Item
Questionnaire I		
(ALSAS)		
-Section I		
Basic Personal Background Information		1-7
-Section II		
Academic Listening Anxiety	Teacher-oriented	1- 6
	Audio input-oriented	7-12
	Proficiency-oriented	13-20
Academic Speaking Anxiety	Self-oriented	21-26
	Teacher-oriented	27-32
	Classmate-oriented	33-38
	Proficiency-oriented	39-45
Questionnaire II		
(AETCS)	Willingness to participate	46-51
	Self-perceived English proficiency	52-57
	Potential effectiveness	58-65

The Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety Scale (ALSAS)

As shown in Table 3.1., the ALSAS is organized into two sections－the personal background information survey and the two-part anxiety survey. First of all, the personal background information survey collects university EFL freshmen's basic demographic data and necessary information regarding name, gender, age, major, first language, as well as time starting to learn English. The first part of the subsequent two-part anxiety survey contains twenty 5-point Likert-scale items measuring university EFL freshmen's academic listening anxiety, and the second part contains twenty-five 5-point Likert-scale items measuring freshmen's academic speaking anxiety (see Appendix A).

The academic listening anxiety items used in the present study were adapted from Elkhafaifi's (2005) Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale. The design of these items were based on the following three subcontracts or factors: teacher-oriented (Items 1-6), audio input-oriented (Items 7-12), and proficiency-oriented factor (Items 13-20). Each is further defined and elaborated as follows:

1. Teacher-oriented: The items in this category measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to listening to English spoken by the teacher in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I feel anxious when I hear the teacher teaching in English."

2. Audio input-oriented: The items in this category measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to listening to English broadcast by the audio in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I feel anxious when I hear English recording of an unfamiliar topic."

3. Proficiency-oriented: The items in this category measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to self-listening proficiency in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I worry that I perform poorly in my English listening."

The academic speaking anxiety items were adopted from the Academic Speaking Anxiety Scale (ASAS) developed and used in Wang's (Wang, 2014) study for his master's thesis study. The internal consistency reliability analysis results of the ASAS items reported in his thesis indicated that the internal-consistency reliability coefficients of the items ranged from .899 to .958 with the overall internal-consistency reliability coefficient of the ASAS reaching .958. Accordingly, the results proved the adequate reliability of the ASAS. Basically, Wang derived the ASAS items geared toward the following four factors: self-oriented (Items 21-26), teacher-oriented (Items 27-32), classmate-oriented (Items 33-38) and proficiency-oriented factors (Items 39-45). Definitions of the four factors along with a sample item for each of them are given as follows:

1. Self-oriented: These items measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to speaking English toward the audience of self in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas."

2. Teacher-oriented: These items measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to speaking English toward the audience of the teacher in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I feel anxious when I use English to answer the teacher's questions."

3. Classmate-oriented: These items measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to speaking English toward the audience of the classmates in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the classmates."

4. Proficiency-oriented: These items measure university EFL freshmen's emotional feelings of personal distress, unease, or nervousness in response to self-oral proficiency in the classroom context. A sample item is: "In my English class, I worry that my English accent or intonation is not good enough."

The Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses Scale (AETCS)

As also shown in Table 3.1., the AETCS comprises of twenty 5-point Likert-scale items, measuring university EFL freshmen's self-related degrees of their attitudes toward ETC. All the items were constructed by the researcher based on the following three factors: willingness to participate (Items 46-51), self-perceived English proficiency (Items 52-57) and potential effectiveness (Items 58-65) factors. Furthermore, these three factors are coincided with the components of ABC's of attitudes: behavior, affect and cognition, respectively (Feldman, 2000). Definitions of the three factors along with a sample item for each of them are given as follows:

1. Willingness to participate: These items measure university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward their willingness to participate in ETC. A sample item is: "In an English-taught course, I am willing to participate in class discussion."

2. Self-perceived English proficiency: These items measure university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward their own English proficiency to take ETC. A sample item is: "In an English-taught course, I believe that I can understand the teacher's lecture content."

3. Potential effectiveness: These items measure university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward the potential teaching and learning effectiveness of ETC. A sample item is: "I think that English-taught courses can enhance my English listening ability."

As mentioned previously, all questionnaire items are accompanied by five 5-point Likert-scale response choices, featuring "Not true of me at all," "Not true of me," "Slightly true of me," "True of me," and "Very true of me." The participants were thereby instructed to choose the responses that best reflect their learning practice and situations. Table 3.2. juxtaposes the questionnaire taker's responses and the corresponding scores allocated to each of them.

Table 3.2.

Questionnaire Takers' Responses and the Corresponding Score

Response	Score
Not true of me at all	1
Not true of me	2
Slightly true of me	3
True of me	4
Very true of me	5

Data Collection Procedures

To accomplish the research purpose, the researcher of the present study started to collect data during the last month of the spring semester in 2016. To begin with, the researcher secured the FENM teachers' consent to recruit their students for this study prior to scheduling for distributing questionnaires. For some proactive teachers, they administered the questionnaires to their students by themselves without the researcher's presence. However, either the teachers or the researcher briefly explained the survey purpose and gave clear instructions before the participants started to respond to the questionnaires. To assure the participants, they were further told that any information and replies provided would be remained anonymous and would by no means affect their class grades. About 15 minutes into the survey response process, the participants were again reminded to respond to all the questionnaire items before turning in the completed copies to the researcher or their teachers. Figure 3.3 illustrates data collection procedures.

Figure 3.3

Data Collection Procedures
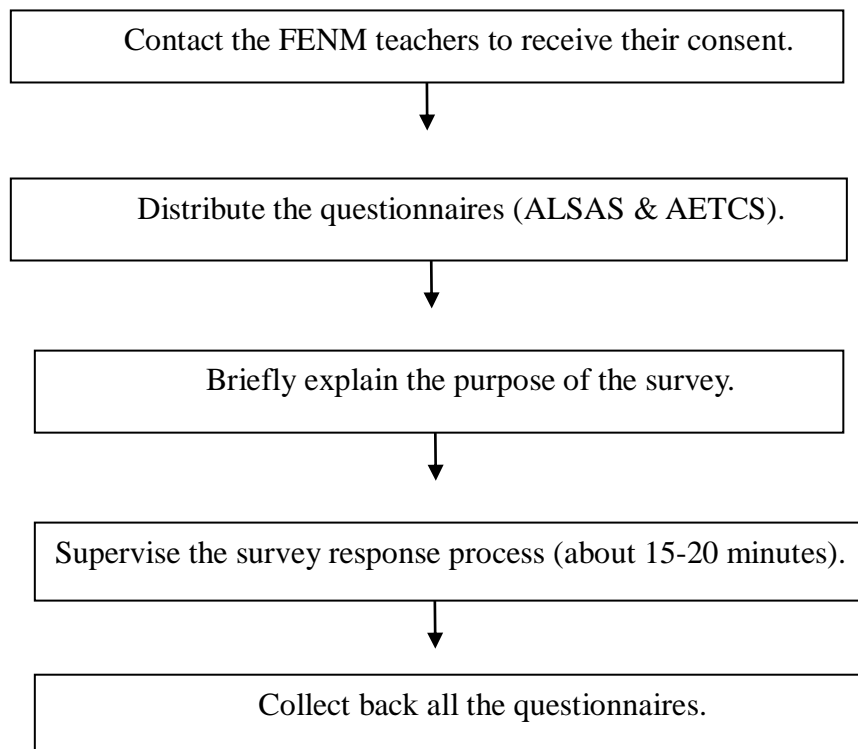
Data Analysis Procedures

The statistical software SPSS for Windows was used to organize and analyze the collected data to provide descriptive and inferential statistical results. For inferential statistics, the significance decision level was set at $\alpha < .01$ for all the statistical significance tests. First of all, descriptives and frequencies analyses were performed to obtain frequencies of response, means, and standard deviations for relevant questionnaire items. The results were used to answer Research Questions 1 and 4, examining university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. Subsequently, two-tailed independent-samples t-test were conducted to determine if there were significant differences in non-English-majored freshmen's academic listening, speaking anxiety, and attitudes toward ETC between students of high and low English proficiency levels and between female and males students. The results were used to answer Research Questions 2, 3, 5, and 6. Finally, multiple regression analyses were carried out to examine whether non-English-majored freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety could effectively predict their attitudes toward ETC. These results were used to answer Research Question 7.

Validation of the Instruments

In this study, the construct validity was examined in two phases. Phase one consisted of content validity check of the ALSAS and the AETCS by experts; Phase two involved checking the reliability of the ALSAS and the AETCS. More details are given below.

Validity Check of the ALSAS and the AETCS by Experts

Subject to the constraints of the FENM program's 1-year course schedule, the researcher of this study had to opt for expert check on validity to validate the instruments rather than conducting a pilot study. To collect data from university EFL freshmen who had had sufficient ETC experiences with their FENM courses throughout the 2015-2016 academic year, the researcher went ahead to collect data for the study during the last month of the spring semester in 2016, which spanned from mid May to early June.

The construct and content validity check was conducted by the advisor of this thesis study and another professor specializing in TESL/TEFL. They were asked to review the design of the ALSAS and the AETCS and the item description of all the survey items, including the seven personal background information items, and afterwards provide suggested changes for further revisions. The review and further revision process went on weeks undergoing several meetings for thorough discussion before all the items on the Chinese version of the survey instruments were finalized. Basically, most of the suggested changes were made to help improve item readability, clarity, and simplicity. Furthermore, the final version of the questionnaire was administered to several university EFL students to ask if there were any informational or typing errors and there was any need to further improve the content validity of the questionnaire; none of them made any suggested changes for revision.

Reliability of the ALSAS and the AETCS

First, the researcher examined the internal-consistency reliability of each factor, including three academic listening anxiety factors and four academic speaking anxiety factors in the ALSAS and three factors about attitudes toward ETC in the AETCS. Subsequently, the overall internal-consistency reliabilities of the ALSAS (including academic listening and speaking anxiety) and AETCS were likewise examined.

Table 3.3. shows all values of the internal-consistency reliability coefficients for the ALSAS and AETCS, including Cronbach's α = .95 for the academic listening anxiety, .97 for the academic speaking anxiety, and an overall α value of .98 for the ALSAS. Furthermore, the internal-consistency reliability coefficient of each factor under the academic listening ranged from .87 to .94, and from .91 to .95 for the academic speaking anxiety factors. Since the Cronbach's α values were all higher than .70, the results proved the adequate reliability of the ALSAS.

Table 3.3.

Internal-Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the ALSAS Items

Academic Listening and Speaking Category	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
The Academic Listening Anxiety	**(1-20)**	.95
Teacher-oriented	1- 6	.91
Audio Input-oriented	7-12	.87
Proficiency-oriented	13-20	.94
The Academic Speaking Anxiety	**(21-45)**	.97
Self-oriented	21-26	.92
Teacher-oriented	27-32	.95
Classmate-oriented	33-38	.94
Proficiency-oriented	39-45	.91
Overall		.98

N= 657

Table 3.4. presents the internal-consistency reliability coefficients of the AETCS with the overall Cronbach's α value reaching .95. Furthermore, the internal-consistency reliability coefficient of each factor under the AETCS ranged from .90 to .93. Accordingly, the results evidently proved that with all Cronbach's α values higher than .70, the AETCS achieved adequate reliability.

Table 3.4.

Internal-Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the AETCS Items

Academic Listening and Speaking Category	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
Attitudes toward ETC	**(46-65)**	.95
Willingness to participate	46-51	.90
Self-perceived English proficiency	52-57	.93
Potential effectiveness	58-65	.93

N=657

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the study followed by discussion of the results in each section. It comprises the summary of the participants' basic personal background information, the participants' academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC, and finally the relationship between academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes towards ETC.

Summary of the Participants' Basic Personal Background Information

This section summarizes the participants' basic personal background information (see Figures 4.1 and 4.2 and Appendix C for details). Among the participants' returned questionnaires, 657 copies were valid for data analysis, including copies from 314 males (47.8%) and 343 females (52.2%). These participants came from nine different colleges, namely, Arts (22.5%), Social Science (20.3%), Science (14.3%), Management (13.7%), Engineering (12.0%), Agriculture (8.5%), Fine Arts and Creative Design (6.6%), Law School (1.2%), and International College (0.9%).

Figure 4.1

Genders
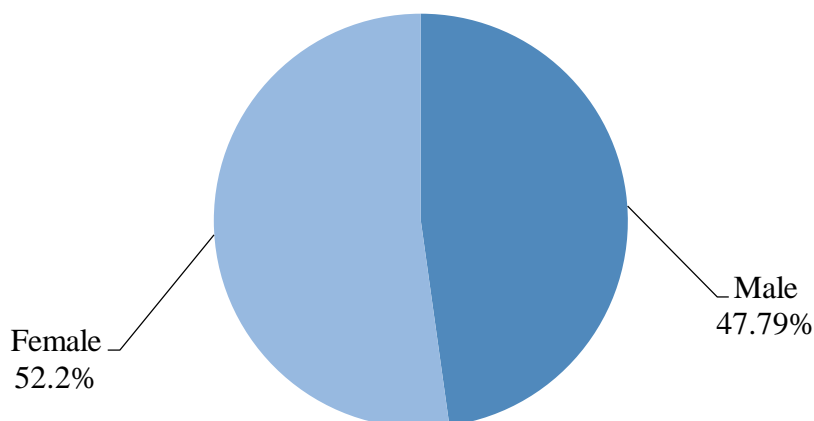
Figure 4.2

Colleges
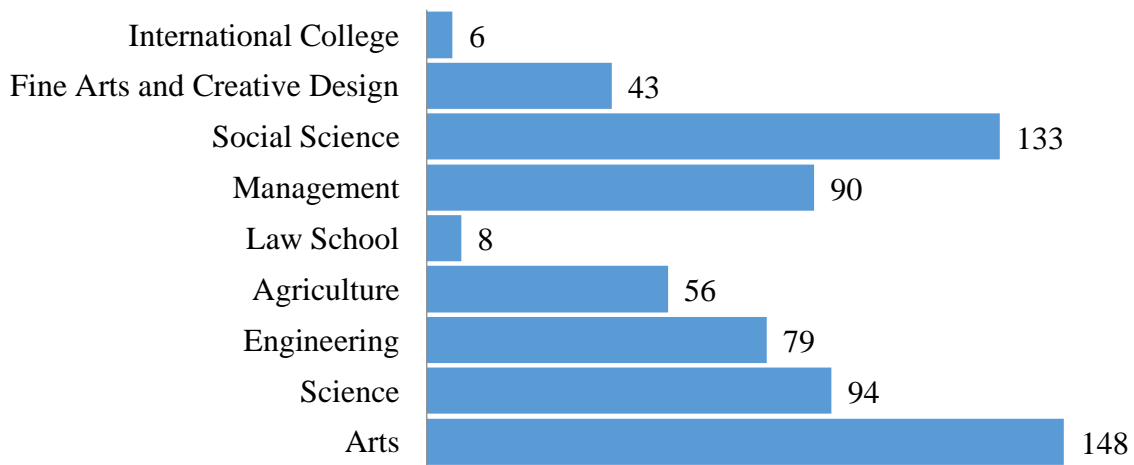
Concerning their English learning experience, the majority of them started learning English either before elementary school (46.3%) or since elementary school (51.9%), and only very few (1.8%) did not start learning English until junior high school. Before attending university, nearly four in ten (37%) never had ETC, while 9% had ETC before elementary school, 22% in elementary school, 14% in senior high school, and 10% in junior high school (see Figures 4.3 and 4.4).

Figure 4.3

English Learning Experience
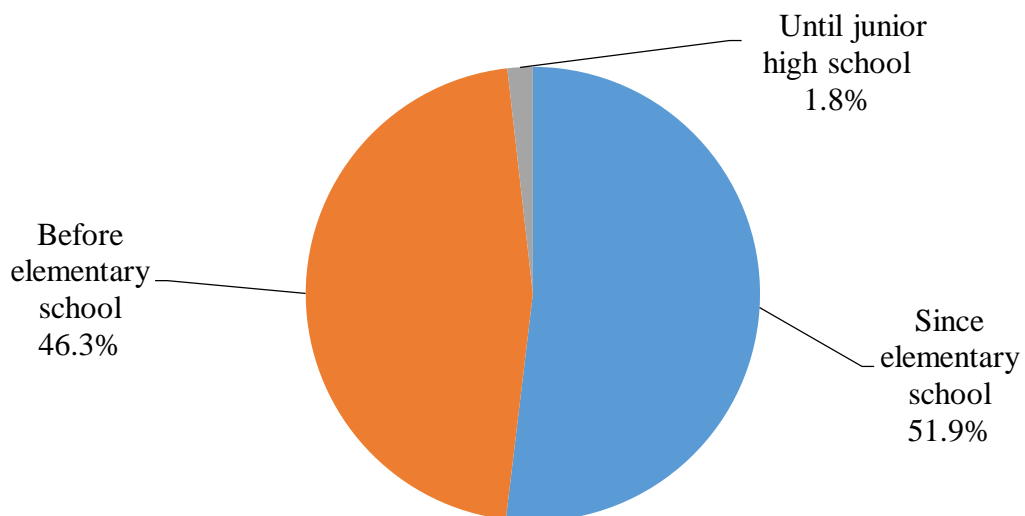
Figure 4.4

ETC Learning Experience
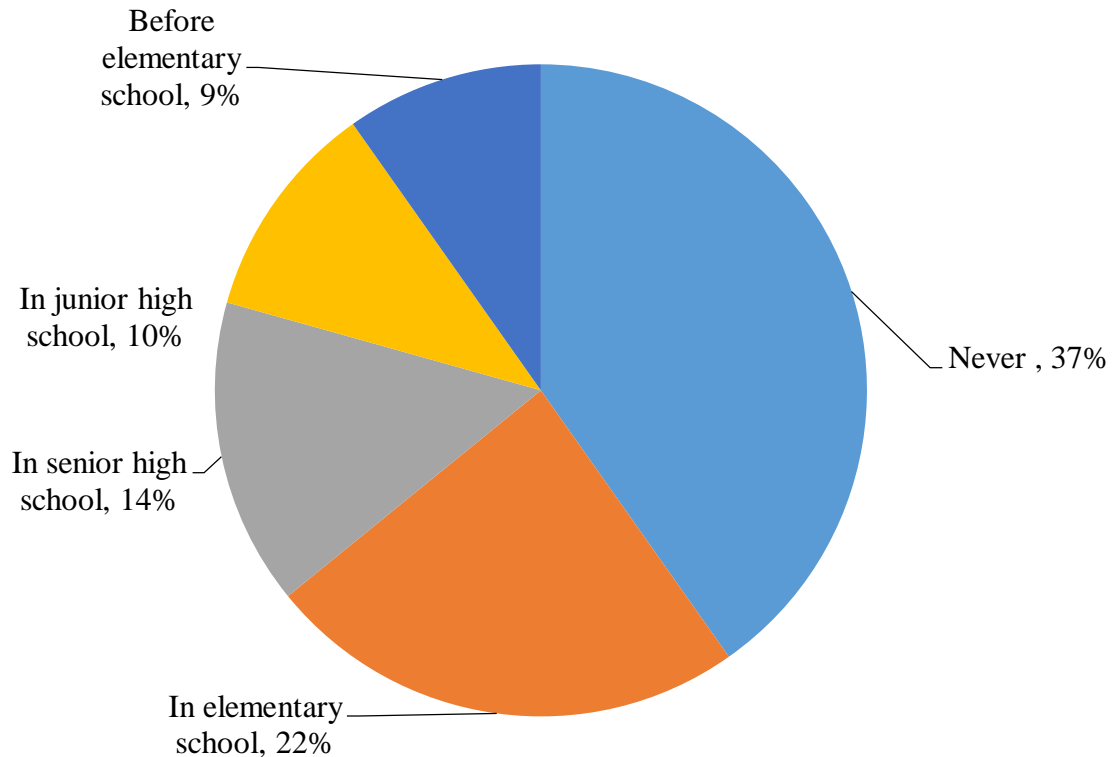
University EFL Freshmen's Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

The following sections present and discuss descriptive statistical analysis results and two-tailed independent-samples t-test results to answer Research Questions 1 to 3. They begin with the university EFL freshmen's overall academic listening and speaking anxiety, followed by differences in EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between different English proficiency and different gender groups.

University EFL Freshmen's Overall Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Table 4.1 displays the overall means of university EFL freshmen's self-rated ALSAS, academic listening and speaking anxiety as well as grand mean of each of the ALSAS factors. See Appendix D for complete descriptive statistical analysis results of the forty-five questionnaire items, including frequency of responses, means and standard deviations.

Table 4.1

Grand Means of the Factors of the Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Factor	Grand Mean
Academic Listening Anxiety	
Teacher-oriented	3.00
Audio Input-oriented	3.21
Proficiency-oriented	2.87
Overall Mean	3.02
Academic Speaking Anxiety	
Self-oriented	2.82
Teacher-oriented	2.90
Classmate-oriented	2.53
Proficiency-oriented	3.09
Overall Mean	2.83
Overall Mean of ALSAS	2.92

As seen in Table 4.1, the participants demonstrated a moderate level of academic listening and speaking anxiety. Specifically, the overall mean of the forty-five ALSAS items was 2.92 and those of the twenty academic listening items and the twenty-five academic speaking items were 3.02 and 2.83, respectively. Compared with the average statistic (M=3), the results indicated that the participants felt moderately anxious while they were engaged in academic listening and speaking activities. They were similar to previous research results (Huang, 2005; Yang, 2012). It seemed understandable that when students could not anticipate what they were going to listen to or how the discourse was going to be presented, their listening anxiety then was aroused (Yang, 2012). Additionally, university freshmen had few opportunities to engage in an extensive practice of speaking English in Taiwan. As a result, when it came to speaking English, their feeling ill at ease and lack of confidence were likely to induce their English speaking anxiety (Huang, 2005).

Another result was that the participants' audio input-oriented listening anxiety and proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety were particularly high. As to the academic listening anxiety, the grand mean (M=3.21) of the audio input-oriented listening anxiety items was the highest and that (M=2.87) of the proficiency-oriented listening items was the lowest. Just like Cheng' (2005) study, that audio input-oriented engagement, such as recording of unfamiliar English words, expressions, and topics, tended to arouse strong anxiety in the participants, probably since they enhanced the difficulty of the participants' listening comprehension. In contrast to the academic speaking anxiety, the grand mean (M=3.09) of the proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety items was the highest and that (M=2.53) of the classmate-oriented anxiety speaking items was the lowest. In line with the finding of Price's (1991) study, due to concerns about their oral performance, such as English pronunciation or speaking fluency, the participants hereby generated tremendous academic speaking anxiety over their speaking proficiency.

Academic Listening Anxiety

Tables 4.2 to 4.4 present the frequencies of response, means and standard deviations of the participants' responses to the teacher-oriented, audio input-oriented and proficiency-oriented anxiety items. All items in each table are listed in a descending order of the means. Subsequently, Tables 4.5 and 4.6 display the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the top and bottom five academic listening anxiety items.

As seen in Table 4.2, the participants' responses to Items 1 to 6 demonstrated a moderate degree of teacher-oriented anxiety. It was because that the grand mean (M=3.00) of the six teacher-oriented anxiety items, ranged from 3.33 to 2.55, was equal to the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, Item 6 (M=3.33) ranked at the top, showing that over 50 % of the participants felt anxious when the teacher spoke English at a fast speech rate; Item 1 (M=2.55) ranked at the bottom, showing that about 20 % of the participants felt anxious when hearing the teacher taught in English.

Table 4.2

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the

Teacher-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In my English class,							
6*	I do NOT feel anxious when I hear the teacher speaking English at a fast speech rate.	4	21	22	43	10	3.33	1.05
4	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher using difficult English words to teach.	6	17	33	30	13	3.27	1.09
5	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher pronouncing English words unclearly.	5	23	33	28	11	3.16	1.06
2	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher asking questions in English.	12	28	32	20	8	2.86	1.12
3	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher constantly speaking in English.	12	32	30	18	9	2.80	1.14
1	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher teaching in English.	16	37	28	14	5	2.55	1.06
	Grand Mean						**3.00**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.3, the participants' responses to Items 7 to 12 demonstrated a moderate degree of audio input-oriented anxiety. It was because the grand mean (M=3.21) of the six audio input-oriented items, ranging from 3.43 to 2.90, was higher than the average statistic (M=3). Specifically, Item 12 (M=3.43) ranked at the top, showing that over 50% of the participants felt anxious when listening to the audio content of English with a foreign accent (such as Australian, Indian, Singaporean accent). Item 10 (M=2.90) ranked at the bottom, showing that 30 % of the participants felt anxious when listening to the audio content of English only spoken one time.

Table 4.3

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Audio Input-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
12*	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I listen to the audio content of English with a foreign accent (such as Australian, Indian, Singaporean accent)	4	17	23	43	13	3.43	1.05
8	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content with unclear English pronunciation.	4	12	41	35	8	3.33	0.92
9	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content of English spoken fast.	4	20	35	33	9	3.23	0.98
11	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content with hard-to-pronounce English words.	5	21	34	31	9	3.19	1.02
7	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content with an unfamiliar English topic.	4	19	41	31	6	3.17	0.92
10	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content of English only spoken one time.	7	32	31	24	6	2.90	1.04
Grand Mean							**3.21**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.4, the participants responses to Items 7 to 12 demonstrated a low to moderate degree of proficiency-oriented anxiety with a grand mean (M=2.87) and individual item means ranging from 3.07 to 2.44. Item 15 (M=3.07) ranked at the top, showing that up to 40% of the participants worried about ignoring important information of the lecture content; Item 20 (M=2.44) ranked at the bottom, showing that 16% of the participants worried that they could not understand the lecture content even if knowing all English words.

Table 4.4

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Proficiency-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
15	In English class, I worry that I ignore important information of the lecture content.	8	24	30	28	10	3.07	1.11
13	In English class, I worry that my English listening performances are poor.	10	26	24	29	11	3.04	1.18
16	In English class, I worry that I misunderstand the lecture content of what I hear.	8	26	33	24	9	2.99	1.09
14	In English class, I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content.	12	27	26	25	10	2.93	1.19
18	In English class, I worry that I cannot understand all the English words of the lecture content.	12	27	32	21	8	2.87	1.11
19	In English class, I worry that I cannot have enough time to think about the lecture content of what I hear.	11	31	29	21	9	2.85	1.13
17	In English class, I worry that I cannot identify the keywords of the lecture content.	12	35	26	19	7	2.75	1.12
20	In English class, I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content even if knowing all English words.	17	43	24	12	4	2.44	1.03
	Grand Mean						**2.87**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

Table 4.5 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the top five academic listening anxiety items. Three of the top five items were the audio input-oriented anxiety items, showing that participants tended to feel anxious when listening to the audio content with unclear pronunciation or with a foreign accent (such as Australian) and English spoken too fast. The results corresponded to Yang's (2012) and Cheng's (2005) studies that the acoustic input could lead to negative emotions of fear and nerves in the participants since it enhanced the difficulty of listening comprehension. The other two items were the teacher oriented anxiety items, indicating that participants felt anxious when their teacher spoke

English fast and instructed using difficult English words. The results were similar to Su's (2007) study that fast speed and difficult level led to the arousal of listening anxiety.

Table 4.5

Top Five Academic Listening Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
12	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I listen to the audio content of English with a foreign accent (such as Australian, Indian, Singaporean accent)	Audio Input-oriented	3.43
6	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I listen that the teacher speaks English fast.	Teacher-oriented	3.33
8	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content with unclear English pronunciation.	Audio Input-oriented	3.33
4	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen that the teacher instructs using difficult English words.	Teacher-oriented	3.27
9	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen to the audio content of English spoken fast.	Audio Input-oriented	3.23

Table 4.6 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the bottom five academic listening anxiety items. Three of the five items were proficiency-oriented anxiety items, showing that few participants worried that they could not understand the lecture content even if knowing all English words, could not identify the keywords of the lecture content, and could not have enough time to think about the lecture content of what they heard. Of them, two are the teacher-oriented anxiety items, indicating that few participants felt anxious when listening that the teacher instructed in English and constantly spoke in English. Although the above five academic listening anxiety items are listed at last, the means of each item are still close to the average statistic (*M*=3). In sum, the origins of anxiety vary from one by one since the listening process of constructing meanings covers the internal and external influence and intrinsic and extrinsic elements, such as students'

listening strategy skills, learning attitudes, and learning backgrounds and experiences (Vogely, 1998).

Table 4.6

Bottom Five Academic Listening Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
20	In English class, I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content even if knowing all English words.	Proficiency-oriented	2.44
1	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen that the teacher instructs in English.	Teacher-oriented	2.55
17	In English class, I worry that I cannot identify the keywords of the lecture content.	Proficiency-oriented	2.75
3	In English class, I feel anxious when I listen that the teacher constantly speaks in English.	Teacher-oriented	2.80
19	In English class, I worry that I cannot have enough time to think about the lecture content of what I hear.	Proficiency-oriented	2.85

Academic Speaking Anxiety

Tables 4.7 to 4.10 present the frequencies of response, means and standard deviations of the participants' responses to the self-oriented, teacher-oriented, classmate-oriented and proficiency-oriented anxiety items. All items in each table are listed in a descending order of the means.

As seen in Table 4.7, the results of the participants' responses to Items 21 to 26 demonstrated a low to moderate degree of self-oriented anxiety. It was because the grand mean (M=2.82) of the six self-oriented anxiety items, ranged from 3.40 to 2.26, was slightly lower than the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, Item 26 (M=3.40) ranked at the top, showing that over 50% of the participants felt anxious when using English to do oral activities such as oral presentation or explanations. Item 25 (M=2.26) ranked at the bottom, showing that about 10% of the participants felt anxious when using English to read the texts or other materials aloud.

Table 4.7

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Self-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
26*	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as oral presentation or explanations.	5	19	24	38	15	3.40	1.09
22	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas.	9	30	32	22	7	2.89	1.07
24	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to answer questions.	8	33	33	20	6	2.83	1.03
23	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to ask questions.	9	33	33	19	6	2.81	1.03
21	In English class, I feel anxious when I speak English.	10	36	33	16	5	2.71	1.01
25	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to read the texts or other materials aloud.	22	45	21	9	3	2.26	1.01
	Grand Mean						**2.82**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.8, the participants' responses to Items 27 to 32 demonstrated a slight to moderate degree of teacher-oriented anxiety. The grand means (*M*=2.90) of the six teacher-oriented anxiety items, ranging from 3.22 to 2.79, were all slightly lower than the average statistic (*M*=3). Among the six items, Item 32 (*M*=3.22), ranking on top, showed that up to 50% of the participants felt anxious when they used English to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with the teacher. Item 27 (*M*=2.79) ranked at the bottom, showing that about 20% of the participants felt anxious when using English to communicate with the teacher.

Table 4.8

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Teacher-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
32*	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I use English to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with the teacher.	6	23	23	40	8	3.22	1.07
29	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the teacher.	8	30	35	20	6	2.86	1.03
28	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the teacher.	9	30	34	20	7	2.85	1.05
30	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to ask the teacher questions.	8	32	35	19	6	2.83	1.02
31	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to answer the teacher's questions.	8	32	35	20	6	2.83	1.02
27	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the teacher.	8	33	36	17	5	2.79	1.00
	Grand Mean						**2.90**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.9, the participants' responses to Items 33 to 38 demonstrated a low to moderate degree of classmate-oriented anxiety. It was because the grand mean (*M*=2.53) of the six classmate-oriented anxiety items, ranged from 2.94 to 2.39, was lower than the average statistic (*M*=3). It terms of the data, Item 38 (*M*=2.94) ranked at the top, showing that about 40% of the participants felt anxious when using English to do oral activities such as dialogue or role-play with the classmates. Item 33 (*M*=2.39) ranked at the bottom, showing that about 10% of the participants felt anxious when using English to communicate with the classmates.

Table 4.9

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Classmate-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
38*	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as dialogue or role-play with the classmates.	9	30	25	30	7	2.94	1.11
34	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the classmates.	12	42	33	10	3	2.48	0.92
35	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the classmates.	13	43	32	9	3	2.46	0.93
37	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to answer the classmates' questions.	13	44	31	10	2	2.46	0.92
36	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to ask the classmates questions.	13	46	29	9	3	2.42	0.92
33	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the classmates.	14	47	28	9	2	2.39	0.91
	Grand Mean						**2.53**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.10, the participants' responses to Items 39 to 45 demonstrated a moderate degree of proficiency-oriented anxiety. It was because the grand mean (M=3.09) of the 7 proficiency-oriented anxiety items, ranged from 3.25 to 2.74, was slightly higher than the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, Item 42 (M=3.25) ranked at the top, showing that over 40% of the participants worried that they could not pronounce some English words or pronounce them wrong. Item 45 (M=2.74) ranked at the bottom, showing that about 10% of the participants worried that the teacher or the classmates corrected their English oral performances such as pronunciation, usages, or grammar.

Table 4.10

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Proficiency-oriented Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
42	In English class, I worry that I cannot pronounce some English words or pronounce them wrong.	6	17	34	32	11	3.25	1.05
43	In English class, I worry that my English oral usages are not appropriate or have mistakes.	5	16	37	32	10	3.25	1.00
40	In English class, I worry that my English speaking is not fluent.	6	18	33	31	11	3.23	1.07
39	In English class, I worry that my English oral performances are poor.	7	19	31	33	11	3.22	1.09
41	In English class, I worry that my English accent or intonation is not good enough.	9	23	33	27	9	3.05	1.09
44	In English class, I worry that the teacher or the classmates evaluate my English oral performances	10	29	33	21	8	2.88	1.09
45	In English class, I worry that the teacher or the classmates correct my English oral performances such as pronunciation, usages, or grammar.	11	32	33	19	4	2.74	1.03
Grand Mean							**3.09**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

Table 4.11 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the top five academic speaking anxiety items. Among these items, three of them were proficiency-oriented anxiety items, showing students' worries about not being able to pronounce some English words or use and speak English properly and fluently. The results, in line with Price's (2014) study, could be inferred that being unable to engage in an extensive practice of speaking English in Taiwan EFL environment, the participants were lack of self-confidence to speak English and show greater concern about their linguistic mistakes (Price, 1991). Of them, the other two were self-oriented and teacher-oriented anxiety items, indicating that the participants generally felt anxious when using English to do oral activities and to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with their teacher. The results, similar to those of previous studies

(Price, 1991; Wang, 2014; Young, 1990), could be interpreted that most participants might be afraid of self-exposure and of revealing themselves in front of other classmates; due to their deficiency in English speaking, they might not practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with their teacher.

Table 4.11

Top Five Academic Speaking Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
26	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as oral presentation or explanations.	Self-oriented	3.40
42	In English class, I worry that I cannot pronounce some English words or pronounce them wrong.	Proficiency-oriented	3.25
43	In English class, I worry that my English oral usages are not appropriate or have mistakes.	Proficiency-oriented	3.25
40	In English class, I worry that my English speaking is not fluent.	Proficiency-oriented	3.23
32	In English class, I don't feel anxious when I use English to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with the teacher.	Teacher-oriented	3.22

Table 4.12 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the bottom five academic speaking anxiety items. Among the bottom five items, four of them were the classmate-oriented anxiety items, showing that few participants tended to feel anxious when using English to communicate with the classmates, ask the classmates questions, answer the classmates' questions, and discuss the course content with the classmates. Of them, the other was the self-oriented anxiety item, showing that few participants felt anxious when using English to read the texts or other materials aloud. Consistent with Wang's (2014) study, the results could be interpreted that in homogeneous English proficiency classes, the participants might feel more comfortable and less anxious when communicating with their classmates in English. Furthermore, since reading aloud did not require the participants to speak English spontaneously; therefore, it led less academic speaking anxiety in the participants.

Table 4.12

Bottom Five Academic Speaking Anxiety Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
25	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to read the texts or other materials aloud.	Self-oriented	2.26
33	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the classmates.	Classmate-oriented	2.39
36	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to ask the classmates questions.	Classmate-oriented	2.42
37	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to answer the classmates' questions.	Classmate-oriented	2.46
35	In English class, I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the classmates.	Classmate-oriented	2.46

English Proficiency and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Table 4.13 summarizes the t-test results of the ALSAS between the high and low English proficiency participants. The results provide the group means, standard deviations, mean difference, and t-value among the overall academic listening and speaking anxiety and its subcategories with these two English proficiency levels.

Table 4.13

T-Tess Results of English Proficiency and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

	High	(N=317)	Low	(N=340)		
Factor	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	t
-- Academic Listening:						
Teacher	2.58	0.80	3.38	0.81	.80	-12.718**
Audio Input	2.93	0.74	3.46	0.70	.53	-9.416**
Proficiency	2.45	0.88	3.26	0.81	.81	-12.261**
Overall	2.63	0.71	3.36	0.67	.72	-13.435**
--Academic Speaking:						
Self	2.56	0.84	3.05	0.85	.50	-7.466**
Teacher	2.59	0.90	3.18	0.86	.49	-8.618**
Classmate	2.28	0.76	2.75	0.82	.59	-7.645**
Proficiency	2.85	0.86	3.31	0.80	.47	-7.072**
Overall	2.58	0.74	3.08	0.70	.46	-8.863**

** Significant at *p*<.01

As seen in Table 4.13, the low English proficiency participants had more overall academic listening and speaking anxiety than the high English proficiency ones. In terms of the data, the low English proficiency participants' overall academic listening and speaking anxiety were 3.36 and 3.08, respectively, far more than the high English proficiency participants', 2.63 and 2.58. Evidently, the lower English proficiency the participants had, the more academic listening and speaking anxiety they suffered from. The findings just corresponded with numerous studies (Cheng, 2007; Huang, 2015; Liu, 2007; Phillips, 1992) which indicated that the low English proficiency students typically suffered from more academic listening and speaking anxiety.

Nevertheless, the low English proficiency participants' anxiety in all the ALSAS subcategories was also higher than that of the high English proficiency ones. The data indicated that the overall means of the high English proficiency participants' responses for each ALSAS subcategory were all lower than a moderate degree (*M=3*). However, the low English proficiency participants' were higher than a moderate degree (*M=3*), except for the classmate-oriented subcategory of academic speaking anxiety (*M=2.75*), which was slightly lower than a moderate degree (*M=3*).

Finally, the results of the independent-sample t-test revealed significant differences in academic listening and speaking anxiety between the high and low English proficiency participants. In terms of the data, the low English proficiency participants had more anxiety levels in the overall academic listening and speaking and in all of the ALSAS subcategories than the high English proficiency ones. Moreover, the significances at *p<.01* were also found in the overall academic listening and speaking anxiety and its subcategories. These significant findings proved that there was a correlation between the high and low English proficiency participants.

Gender and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Table 4.14 summarizes the t-test results of ALSAS between the male and female participants to answer Research Question 3: Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety between male and

female students?" The results provide descriptive statistics, including group means, standard deviations, mean difference, and t-value among the overall academic listening and speaking anxiety and its subcategories with these two genders.

Table 4.14

T-Test Results of Gender and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

	Male	(N=314)	Female	(N=343)		
Factor	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	t
-- Academic Listening:						
Teacher	3.04	0.93	2.96	0.87	.84	1.195
Audio Input	3.20	0.80	3.21	0.74	-.12	-.195
Proficiency	2.94	0.95	2.80	0.92	.14	1.955
Overall	3.05	0.80	2.97	0.76	.79	1.298
--Academic Speaking:						
Self	2.76	0.90	2.87	0.85	-.11	-1.545
Teacher	2.85	0.96	2.94	0.90	-.09	-1.179
Classmate	2.51	0.86	2.54	0.79	-.04	-.539
Proficiency	3.07	0.89	3.12	0.84	-.04	-.530
Overall	2.80	0.78	2.87	0.75	-.06	-1.072

** Significant at *p*<.01

As seen in Table 4.14, both male and female participants similarly felt a moderate level of the overall academic listening and speaking anxiety. The male participants' overall academic listening and speaking anxiety, 3.05 and 2.80 respectively, were as moderate as that of the female participants, 2.97 and 2.87. Their overall academic listening and speaking anxiety were all pretty close to the average statistic (*M*=3). It was found that the participants' gender seldom influenced their academic listening and speaking anxiety.

Likewise, the male and female participants similarly had a moderate level of academic listening and speaking anxiety in all ALSAS subcategories. The data showed that the overall means of both male and female participants' responses for each ALSAS subcategory were

close to or slightly higher than the average statistic (*M=3*). It was evident that male and female participants felt a similar level of academic listening and speaking anxiety in all ALSAS subcategories.

Finally, the results of independent-sample t-test revealed no significant differences in academic listening and speaking anxiety between the male and female participants. Moreover, the significances at *p*<.01 were not found in the overall academic listening and speaking anxiety and its subcategories. The results concluded that a statistically significant difference did not exist between these two gender groups.

University EFL Freshmen's Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses

This section separately discusses the descriptive statistical analysis results and the two-tailed independent-samples t-test results for Research Questions 4 to 6. It begins with university EFL freshmen's overall attitudes toward ETC and then the significant English proficiency and gender differences in terms of their attitudes toward ETC.

University EFL Freshmen's Overall Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses

Table 4.15 displays the overall means of the attitudes toward ETC and the grand means of each attitude toward ETC factor to answer Research Question 4: What are university EFL freshmen's self-rated degrees of their attitudes toward ETC? See Appendix E for the detailed descriptive statistical analysis results of the twenty items, including frequency of responses, means and standard deviations.

Table 4.15

Grand Means of the Three Categories in the Attitudes toward ETC

Factor	Grand Mean
Willingness to participate	3.56
Self-perceived English proficiency	3.41
Potential effectiveness	3.82
Overall mean of attitudes toward ETC	**3.60**

As seen in Table 4.15, the participants demonstrated very positive attitudes toward ETC. It was because the overall mean (*M*=3.60) of the twenty attitude items was larger than the average statistic (*M*=3). In line with the previous studies (Chang, 2010; Huang, 2015; Wu, 2006), the results indicated that the participants were in favor of ETC. Moreover, the participants reported the most positive attitudes toward ETC in the potential effectiveness items were and least positive in the self-perceived English proficiency items. The data showed that the grand mean of the potential effectiveness items (*M*=3.82) was the highest and that that of the self-perceived English proficiency items (*M*=3.41) was the lowest. Similar to the results of Wu's study (2006), the participants seemed to have had faith in ETC that ETC could benefit their English proficiency and future competitiveness.

Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses

Tables 4.16 to 4.18 present the frequencies of response, means and standard deviations of the participants' responses to the willingness to participate, self-perceived English proficiency, and potential effectiveness items. All items in each table are listed in a descending order of the means.　As seen in Table 4.16, the participants' responses to Items 46 to 51 demonstrated more positive attitudes toward ETC in the willingness to participate items. It was because the grand mean (M=3.56) of the six willingness to participate items was much higher than the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, the means of those items ranged from 3.75 to 3.37, which Item 51 (M=3.75) and Item 48 (M=3.37) ranked at the top and bottom, respectively. It showed that in the ETC, up to 70% of the participants were most willing to use English to express their own opinions and only 46% of them were willing to take lecture notes in English.

Table 4.16

Grand Means and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Willingness to Participate Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
51*	In English-taught class, I am not willing to use English to express my own opinions.	4	7	18	52	19	3.75	0.98
47	In English-taught class, I am willing to participate in class discussion.	2	8	31	44	15	3.62	0.90
49	In English-taught class, I am willing to use English to communicate with the teacher.	2	8	34	41	15	3.60	0.90
46	In English-taught class, I am willing to participate in English-taught class.	5	14	25	34	22	3.53	1.13
50	In English-taught class, I am willing to use English to communicate with the classmates.	2	11	35	39	14	3.51	0.94
48	In English-taught class, I am willing to take lecture notes in English.	3	16	35	34	12	3.37	0.99
	Grand Mean						**3.56**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.17, the participants' responses to Items 52 to 57 demonstrated more positive attitudes toward ETC in self-perceived English proficiency items. It was because the grand mean (*M*=3.41) of the six self-perceived English proficiency items was much higher than the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, the means of those items ranged from 3.67 to 3.25, which Item 57 (*M*=3.67) and Item 54 (*M*=3.23) ranked at the top and bottom, respectively. It showed that in English-taught class, 65% of the participants thought that they could use English to express their own opinions and about 40% of them believed that they could take lecture notes in English.

Table 4.17

Grand Means and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Self-perceived English Proficiency Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
57*	In English-taught class, I don't think I can use English to express my own opinions.	5	9	20	43	22	3.67	1.08
56	In English-taught class, I believe I can use English to communicate with the classmates.	3	11	40	32	13	3.41	0.96
53	In English-taught class, I believe I can understand the class discussion content.	4	11	38	35	12	3.40	0.97
52	In English-taught class, I believe I can understand the teacher's lecture content.	4	12	37	35	12	3.39	0.98
55	In English-taught class, I believe I can use English to communicate with the teacher.	4	16	36	31	12	3.32	1.01
54	In English-taught class, I believe I can take lecture notes in English.	5	17	39	28	11	3.25	1.02
	Grand Mean						**3.41**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

* The points were given in reverse order of the 5-point Likert scale for the negative statement.

As seen in Table 4.18, the participants' responses to Items 58 to 65 demonstrated more positive attitudes toward ETC in potential effectiveness items. It was because the grand mean (M= 3.82) of the 8 potential effectiveness items was much higher than the average statistic (M=3). In terms of the data, the means of those items ranged from 4.07 to 3.49, which Item 65 (M=4.07) and Item 61 (M=3.49) ranked at the top and bottom, respectively. It showed that 85% of the participants thought that the ETC could improve their competitiveness for the future employment and 50% of them thought that the ETC could improve their professional content knowledge.

Table 4.18

Grand Means and Standard Deviations (SD) of the Potential Effectiveness Items

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
65	I don't think English-taught class can improve my competitiveness for the future employment.	1	4	10	55	29	4.07	0.82
64	I don't think English-taught class can improve my competitiveness for the future study.	2	5	12	53	29	4.03	0.85
58	I think English-taught class can improve my English listening ability.	1	5	18	46	30	3.99	0.87
59	I think English-taught class can improve my English speaking ability.	1	5	24	45	25	3.86	0.88
60	I think English-taught class can improve my English communicative ability.	1	6	24	45	24	3.85	0.89
63	I think English-taught class can improve my international competitiveness.	2	10	29	38	21	3.66	0.99
62	I think English-taught class can improve my self-confidence in English ability.	3	10	30	37	20	3.61	1.01
61	I think English-taught class can improve my professional content knowledge.	3	12	36	33	17	3.49	0.99
	Grand Mean						**3.82**	

1= not true of me at all, 2= not true of me, 3= slightly true of me, 4= true of me, 5= very true of me

Table 4.19 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the top five attitudes toward ETC items. As seen in the table, the participants reported that the ETC could improve their competitiveness for the future employment and study, English listening ability, English speaking ability, and English communicative ability. Similar to the previous studies (Huang, 2015; Wei, 2007; Wu, 2006), students believed that the ETC were beneficial and could improve their English proficiency.

Table 4.19

Top Five Attitudes toward ETC Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
65	I don't think English-taught class can improve my competitiveness for the future employment.	Potential effectiveness	4.07
64	I don't think English-taught class can improve my competitiveness for the future study.	Potential effectiveness	4.02
58	I think English-taught class can improve my English listening ability.	Potential effectiveness	3.99
59	I think English-taught class can improve my English speaking ability.	Potential effectiveness	3.86
60	I think English-taught class can improve my English communicative ability.	Potential effectiveness	3.85

Table 4.20 displays the item descriptions, means, and ranking of the bottom five attitudes toward ETC items. Among the items, four of them were the self-perceived English proficiency items and one of them was the willingness to participate item, which were related to the participants' attitudes toward taking lecture notes in English, using English to communicate with the teacher, understanding the teacher's lecture content, understanding the class discussion content, and taking lecture notes in English. Even so, the participants' attitudes toward these items were still moderately positive. The means of these bottom five attitudes were all higher than a moderate degree (*M*=3).

Table 4.20

Bottom Five Attitudes toward ETC Items

No.	Item Description	Factor	M
54	In English-taught class, I believe I can take lecture notes in English.	Self-perceived English proficiency	3.25
55	In English-taught class, I believe I can use English to communicate with the teacher.	Self-perceived English proficiency	3.32
48	In English-taught class, I am willing to take lecture notes in English.	Willingness to participate	3.37
55	In English-taught class, I believe I can understand the teacher's lecture content.	Self-perceived English proficiency	3.39
54	In English-taught class, I believe I can understand the class discussion content.	Self-perceived English proficiency	3.40

English Proficiency and Attitudes toward ETC

Table 4.21 summarizes the t-test results of attitudes toward ETC between the high and low English proficiency participants to answer Research Question 5: Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between students with high and low English proficiency levels? The results provide group means, standard deviations, mean difference, and t-value among the overall attitudes toward ETC and its subcategories with these two English proficiency levels.

Table 4.21

T-Test Results of English Proficiency and Attitudes toward ETC

	High	(N=317)	Low	(N=340)		
Factor	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	t
Willingness to Participate	3.88	0.70	3.27	0.74	0.61	10.796**
Self-perceived English Proficiency	3.86	0.67	2.98	0.81	0.88	15.017**
Potential Effectiveness	3.97	0.69	3.68	0.77	0.29	5.063**
Overall	3.91	0.57	3.35	0.65	0.56	11.734**

** Significant at $p<.01$

As seen in Table 4.21, English proficiency level plays a significant factor of university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC wherein students with high English proficiency are generally more positive than their low-proficiency counterparts. The low English proficiency participants' overall attitude toward ETC was 3.35, far less than that of the high English proficiency participants, 3.91. It was found that the lower English proficiency the participants had, the less positive attitudes toward ETC they expressed. The findings just corresponded with Chen and Yu's (2011) study that low English proficiency with less positive attitudes were likely to withdraw from or avoid the instructional activities.

Likewise, the high English proficiency participants had more positive attitudes toward ETC in all AETCS subcategories than the low English proficiency ones. The data showed that the overall means of the high English proficiency participants' responses for each AETCS subcategory were all significantly higher than a moderate degree (*M=3*). However, the overall means of the low English proficiency participants' response were slightly higher or even lower than a moderate degree (*M=3*).

Finally, the results of independent-sample t-test revealed the significant differences in the attitudes toward ETC between the high and low English proficiency participants. In terms of the data, the low English proficiency participants had less positive attitudes toward ETC and toward all of the AETCS subcategories than the high English proficiency ones. Moreover, the significances at *p<*.01 were also found in the overall attitudes toward ETC and its subcategories. These significant findings proved that there was a correlation between the high and low English proficiency participants.

Gender and Attitudes toward ETC

Table 4.22 summarizes the t-test results of attitudes toward ETC between the male and female participants to answer Research Question 6: Are there any significant differences in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC between male and female students? The results provide descriptive statistics, including group means, standard deviations, mean difference, and t-value among the overall attitudes toward ETC and its subcategories with these two genders.

Table 4.22

T-Test Results of Gender and Attitudes toward ETC

	Male	(N=314)	Female	(N=343)		
Factor	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	t
Willingness to Participate	3.50	0.81	3.63	0.76	-0.13	-2.176
Self-perceived English Proficiency	3.30	0.93	3.50	0.79	-0.20	-3.010**
Potential Effectiveness	3.79	0.75	3.85	0.74	-0.06	-1.011
Overall	3.55	0.70	3.68	0.65	-0.12	-2.367

** Significant at *p<.01*

As seen in Table 4.22, the result demonstrated that the male participants' attitudes toward ETC were slightly less positive than the female participants'. In terms of the data, the male participants' and female participants' overall attitude toward ETC were 3.55 and 3.68, respectively. Although the male and female participants both had more positive attitudes toward ETC, which their overall attitudes were all much higher than the average statistic (*M*=3), the male participants' attitudes toward ETC were still slightly less than the female participants'. Consistent with previous studies (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Gömleksiz, 2010; Karahan, 2007), the female students were more integratively motivated and had more positive attitudes toward English.

Likewise, the male participants expressed slightly less positive attitudes toward ETC in all factors of the ALSAS than the female ones. The overall means of the female participants' responses for each attitude toward ETC items were all higher than a moderate degree (*M=3*). However, the overall means of the male participants' responses were still slightly lower than those of the female ones although they were also higher than a moderate degree (*M=3*).

Even so, the results of independent-sample t-test revealed that expect for the self-perceived English proficiency factor, no significant differences were seen in the participants' overall attitudes toward ETC and in the other attitude factors between the male and female participants. In terms of the data, the significance at *p<.01* was only found in the

self-perceived English proficiency factor. It was clear that the male participants had less positive attitudes toward the self-perceived English proficiency factor than the female one. A possible explanation was that the male participants might more concern in their lack of English proficiency and overwhelmingly lack self-confidence.

Relationship between University EFL Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety and Attitudes toward ETC

This section presents and discusses the results of the multiple regression analysis of attitudes toward ETC and academic listening and speaking anxiety.

Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety and Attitudes toward ETC

Table 4.23 to 4.25 display the multiple regression analysis results to answer Research Question 7: Is there a significant predictive relationship between university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety? If so, does such a relationship vary according to their English proficiency levels and genders? The results showed that a significant negative predictive relationship was found between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety, and this predictive relationship varied according to their English proficiency levels and genders.

As seen in Table 4.23, significance at $p < .01$ was found between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety in the overall group. Specifically, academic listening anxiety weighed slightly more than academic speaking anxiety in predicting attitudes toward ETC. It might be that when taking the ETC, the participants were typically engaged in more listening activities than speaking ones. Furthermore, unlike most speaking activities which could be prepared in advance, the participants had to instantly comprehend the message in listening activities, and they thus were likely to feel anxious (Goh, 2000; Kao, 2006; Yang, 2012). Certainly, when taking the ETC, the participants had to speak in front of others, and they thus might be concerned that they could not speak accurately or fluently (Price, 1991; Young, 1990).

Table 4.23

Regression Models of Attitudes toward ETC and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety in the Overall Group

Group	Beta (ß) (Listening/Speaking)	R	R^2/Adjusted R^2
Overall (N=657)	-.308** /-.272**	.547	.299/.297

** Significant at p <.01

Nevertheless, the participants' academic listening and speaking anxiety did not prove to be effective predictors of attitudes toward ETC since they accounted for about only 30% (R^2=.299) of the variance in the overall group' attitudes toward ETC. In other words, the other 70 % of the variance would be accounted by other variables, such as learner personality, learning motivation, and strategy use.

As seen in Table 4.24, the significant predicative relationship only existed between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic speaking anxiety in the high English proficiency group. One possible explanation might be that high-proficiency students are more confident about their English listening ability than their English speaking ability since speaking is widely viewed as production skills. Therefore, high-proficiency students may consider speaking English relatively more challenging than listening to English, and in turn experience relatively more academic speaking anxiety. As a result, academic speaking anxiety, overshadowing academic listening anxiety, turns out to be the only significant predictor of attitudes toward ETC for high-proficiency students.

Table 4.24

Regression Models of Attitudes toward ETC and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety in English Proficiency Groups

Group	Beta (ß) (Listening/Speaking)	R	R^2/Adjusted R^2
High (N=317)	-.170 /-.337**	.484	.234/.229
Low (N=340)	-.182**/-.284**	.431	.186 /.181

** Significant at p <.01

Nevertheless, the high English proficiency participants' academic speaking anxiety did not prove to be an effective predictor since it accounted for about only 23 % (R^2=.234) of the variance in their attitudes toward ETC. In other words, other variables, such as learner personality, learning motivation, and strategy use, need to be taken into account to predict high-proficiency students' attitudes toward ETC.

Significance at $p < .01$ was found between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety in the low-proficiency group. Specifically, academic speaking anxiety weighed slightly more than academic listening anxiety in predicting attitudes toward ETC. It might be that low English proficiency students are relatively less worried about their English listening ability than their English speaking ability since speaking is widely viewed as production skills. Therefore, students with low English proficiency, considering speaking English relatively more challenging than listening to English, may experience relatively more academic speaking anxiety. As a result, academic speaking anxiety weigh slightly more than academic listening anxiety in predicting attitudes toward ETC for low-proficiency students.

Nevertheless, the participants' academic listening and speaking anxiety did not prove to be effective predictors since they accounted for about only 18% (R^2=.186) of the variance in the low English proficiency group' attitudes toward ETC. In other words, the other 82 % of the variance would be accounted for by other variables.

As seen in Table 4.25, significance at $p < .01$ was found between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety in the male group. Interestingly, academic listening anxiety weighed slightly more than academic speaking anxiety in predicting male students' attitudes toward ETC. It might be that male students, generally less vocal than female students, are typically engaged in more listening activities than speaking ones. Also, the urgent need to instantly comprehend the message in listening activities may make male students feel more anxious than engaging in speaking activities, which mostly could be prepared in advance (Goh, 2000; Kao, 2006; Yang, 2012) (Goh, 2000; Kao, 2006; Yang, 2012). As a result, academic listening anxiety weigh slightly more than academic speaking anxiety in predicting attitudes toward ETC for male students

Table 4.25

Regression Models of Attitudes toward ETC and Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety in Gender Groups

Group	Beta (ß) (Listening/Speaking)	R	R^2/Adjusted R^2
Male (N=314)	-.370** /-.236**	.570	.325 /.321
Female (N=343)	-.194 /-.363**	.532	.283/.278

** Significant at $p < .01$

Nevertheless, the male students' academic listening and speaking anxiety did not prove to be effective predictors since they accounted for about only 32% (R^2=.325) of the variance in the male group' attitudes toward ETC. That is, other variables, such as learner personality, learning motivation, and strategy use, need to be taken into account to predict male students' attitudes toward ETC.

The significant predicative relationship only existed between the participants' attitudes toward ETC and their academic speaking anxiety in the female group. One possible explanation might be that female students, like high-proficiency students, are more confident about their English listening ability than their English speaking ability. Also, female students, generally more vocal than their male counterparts, are typically more willing to participate in speaking activities and, in turn, experience more academic speaking anxiety than academic listening anxiety when taking ETC. As a result, academic speaking anxiety, overshadowing academic listening anxiety, turns out to be the only significant predictor of attitudes toward ETC for female students.

Nevertheless, the female students' academic speaking anxiety did not prove to be an effective predictor since it only accounted for about 28 % (R^2=.283) of the variance in their attitudes toward ETC. Again, future researchers need to take into account other variables, such as learner personality, learning motivation, and strategy use, to effectively predict female students' attitudes toward ETC.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

This chapter first summarizes the major findings of the study and then presents pedagogical implications of the findings. Subsequently, the limitations of this study are offered followed by suggestions for further research.

Summary of Major Findings of the Study

The summary of major findings of this study consists of three parts. The first part focuses on the university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety. The second part deals with the university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC. The last part presents the predictive relationship between the university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC and their academic listening and speaking anxiety.

University EFL Freshmen's Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety

To begin with, university freshmen in an EFL learning context are likely to experience a slight to moderate degree of academic listening and speaking anxiety. In the present study, the participants demonstrated a slight to moderate level of academic listening and speaking anxiety. Their audio input-oriented listening anxiety and proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety were the most; the proficiency-oriented listening anxiety and the classmate-oriented speaking anxiety were the least. That is to say that audio input-oriented engagement, such as recording of unfamiliar English words, expressions, and topics, tended to arouse stronger anxiety in the participants. In contrast, proficiency-oriented listening engagement, such as listening comprehension performance, would result in less anxiety. At the same time, the participants reported higher levels of proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety. It was evident that due to concerns about their oral performance, such as English pronunciation or speaking fluency, the participants hereby generated academic speaking anxiety over their speaking proficiency. Yet, in using English to do oral activities, the participants reported comparatively less anxiety.

Moreover, English proficiency level plays a significant factor of university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety wherein students with high English proficiency are generally less anxious than their low-proficiency counterparts. In contrast, gender does not make much difference in university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety. In the present study, statistically significant differences existed in overall academic listening and speaking anxiety between the participants with high and low English proficiency levels, and such differences were also seen in each of the ALSAS factors. However, no significant differences were found in academic listening and speaking anxiety existed between the male and female participants. That is, regardless of teacher-oriented, audio input-oriented, and proficiency-oriented listening anxiety or self-oriented, teacher-oriented, classmate-oriented, and proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety, the male and female participants had similar anxiety levels.

University EFL Freshmen's Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses

Interestingly, university EFL freshmen seem likely to hold quite positive attitudes toward ETC. In the present study, the participants demonstrated very positive attitudes toward ETC. Specifically, the participants reported the most positive attitudes toward ETC in the potential effectiveness items were and least positive in the self-perceived English proficiency items. Accordingly, the participants seemed to have had faith in ETC that ETC could benefit their English proficiency and future competitiveness. Yet, as to their self-perceived English proficiency, they tended to be reserved about it.

Similarly, English proficiency level plays a significant factor of university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC wherein students with high English proficiency are generally more positive than their low-proficiency counterparts. In contrast, gender does not make much difference in university EFL freshmen's attitudes toward ETC. In the present study, statistically significant differences existed in the attitudes toward ETC between the participants with high and low English proficiency levels, and such differences were also seen in each of the AETCS factors. Noticeably, except for the self-perceived English proficiency factor, no significant differences were seen in the participants' overall attitudes

toward ETC and in the other attitude factors between the male and female participants. That is, regardless of the overall attitude toward ETC and the responses to the willingness to participate, and potential effectiveness items, the male and female participants were roughly the same.

Relationship between University EFL Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety and Attitudes toward ETC

Finally, university ELF freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety can be used to predict their attitudes toward ETC, but do not prove to be effective predictors. In the present study, a significant predictive relationship was found between the participants' academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. At the same time, this predictive relationship varies according to their English proficiency levels and genders. Specifically, this significant predicative relationship was found only in the low English proficiency group and male group. As to the high English proficiency and female groups, academic speaking anxiety turned out to be the only statistically significant predictor of the participants' attitudes toward ETC.

Pedagogical Implications

First, this study discovered that the participants had a slight to moderate degree of academic listening and speaking anxiety, especially the audio input-oriented listening anxiety and proficiency-oriented speaking anxiety. As a result, to decrease university EFL freshmen's academic listening anxiety, teachers can help them understand different accents and unfamiliar words, expressions, and topics by increasing opportunities for their training in various English recordings. As to university EFL freshmen's academic speaking anxiety, it is helpful to provide them with a friendly low-anxiety environment where they could feel at ease when speaking English. For instance, students can do more groups or pair work while they are participating in oral activities, which they therefore can regain self-confidence and lower academic speaking anxiety.

Second, significant differences of the academic listening and speaking anxiety were found between the participants with high and low English proficiency levels. The low English proficiency participants were reported to express more academic listening and speaking anxiety than the high English proficiency ones. As a result, teachers need to think of individual differences and provide necessary assistance to the needy students. Additionally, to avoid the negative influence of anxiety on their learning performance and achievement, teachers also need to set tasks at appropriate level of difficulty for the students with low English proficient level.

Third, this study discovered that although the participants generally had positive attitudes toward ETC, their attitudes were more positive toward the potential effectiveness factor, but the self-perceived English proficiency factor. That is, university EFL freshmen agreed with and were motivated to take the ECT, for they commonly thought ETC were beneficial to their future and the improvement of their English proficiency and professional knowledge. Nevertheless, they commonly did not think much of their own English proficiency. As a result, teachers need to understand individual personality differences and boost their confidence in ETC.

Fourth, significant differences of the participants' attitudes toward ETC were also found between the participants with high and low English proficiency levels. The low English proficiency participants were reported to have less positive attitudes toward ETC than the high English proficiency ones. As a result, teachers need to take into account individual student's English proficiency level and care especially about low English proficient students' affective responses and give them necessary support and assistance. As mentioned above, teachers can boost low English proficient students' confidence in ETC. Moreover, reducing their stress and anxiety is of great importance to them.

At last, university ELF freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety were found statistically significant predictors of their attitudes toward ETC. This predictive relationship varied according to their English proficiency level and gender. As to the high English proficiency and female groups, academic speaking anxiety turned out to be the only statistically significant predictor of the participants' attitudes toward ETC. In this case,

teachers may increase opportunities for their oral training in a friendly and supportive environment where they could feel at ease when speaking English. For instance, students can do more group or pair work while they are participating in oral activities, which may help them enhance self-confidence and lower academic speaking anxiety. As to the low English proficiency and male groups, academic listening and speaking anxiety were both statistically significant predictors of the participants' attitudes toward ETC. Therefore, apart from providing opportunities for oral training in a friendly and supportive environment, teachers may select listening tasks with interesting contents and at appropriate difficulty levels to help male students and students with low English proficient levels improve their listening skills and ability.

Limitations of the Study

This study investigated university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. Although all the research questions have been answered and discussed, some limitations are still found and presented accordingly.

First, notwithstanding a good sample size (N=657), the sample of this present study might not well represent all the university EFL non-English-majored freshmen in Taiwan. It was noted that all the participants in this study were recruited from the same university in central Taiwan; therefore, if the participants had been from other universities, the findings and results might have been different.

Second, this present study, limiting to only quantitative method, would not provide more in-depth information regarding university EFL freshmen's academic listening and speaking anxiety and their attitudes toward ETC. In this study, the data were assessed by means of structured and self-reported questionnaires, thus not enabling to provide detailed and deeper insights into their anxiety and attitudes. Furthermore, the self-reported data provided might be misleading and biased due to various matter, such as misreading, imprecise wording, or leading questions.

Last but not least, the researcher of this present study did not control all variables except the participants' English proficiency levels and genders. Although those two

variables were found significantly related to students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes toward ETC, other variables such as ages, academic background, majors, or departments might also affect the associations and outcomes.

Suggestions for Further Research

In response to the aforementioned limitations, some recommendations are made for future studies. First, future researchers may increase the number and variety of participants. Since the researcher of this present study only recruited university EFL freshmen from the same school in central Taiwan, future researchers may focus on other students in different schools, programs, disciplines, majors, grades, or ages.

Second, future researchers may consider investigating more qualitative aspects of students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes toward ETC. In addition to the quantitative survey conducted in this present study, future researchers may incorporate qualitative methods in future research such as conducting individual/ group interviews, making classroom observations, or designing learning tasks so as to obtain richer data for deeper understanding of students' academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes toward ETC.

At last, future researchers may replicate the study using other variables. In this present study, the freshmen's English proficiency level and gender are used as the dependent variables or grouping variables to examine if there are significant differences in the dependent variables, namely, academic listening and speaking anxiety and attitudes toward ETC. Therefore, future researchers can use other variables such as ages, academic background, majors, or departments as the dependent/ grouping variables to see how well the results of this present study can be extended.

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APPENDIX A

Instruments of the Study

大一英文課學生的課堂聽講焦慮及其對全英語授課課程看法之調查

親愛的同學,您好:

非常感謝您參與本問卷調查研究。此研究目的在調查學生對於英文<u>課堂聽講</u><u>焦慮</u>及對<u>全英語授課課程看法</u>,研究調查結果將作為未來增設全英語授課課程的參考。煩請您填寫以下問卷,提供個人寶貴的經驗和意見。

此問卷調查將僅作為學術研究之用,問卷中填寫的資料都將予以嚴加保密,且不會影響您的英文課業成績,故請您安心作答。本問卷所有問題的答案皆無對錯之分,請您詳細閱讀每一題的敘述後,依照個人的實際情況作答;作答過程中,請勿與同學討論彼此作答的內容,並務必要<u>回答問卷中所有的問題</u>,以求資料之完整性與可用性。

再次感謝您的參與及協助!

東海大學外國語文學系碩士班
英語教學組學生: 陳秀菁

個人基本背景資料

說明:請勾選(或填選)與您個人基本資料符合的敘述,每題皆為單選題,謝謝。

1. 性別:
   □男　　　　□女
2. 出生年:西元:＿＿＿＿＿＿＿年
3. 主修科系之學院:
   □文學院　　　　　　□理學院　　　　　　□工學院
   □農學院　　　　　　□法學院　　　　　　□管理學院
   □社會科學院　　　　□創意設計暨藝術學院　□國際學院
4. 大一英文科目代號:＿＿＿＿＿＿
5. 母語(可複選):
   □國語　　　□閩南語　　　□客語　　　□英語
   其他＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
6. 你什麼時候開始學英文?
   □國小以前　□國小　　　　□國中
7. 你就讀大學以前,是否曾經上過全英語授課的課程?
   □否　　　□國小以前　　□國小　　　□國中　　　□高中

問卷一：課堂聽講焦慮調查

說明：此問卷分為 A、B 兩部分，共計 45 題：A 部分有 20 題，B 部分有 25 題。其敘述皆與<u>英文課堂聽講焦慮</u>有關。請就各項敘述，依照您個人實際情況的程度等級來判斷。每題皆為單選題，答案無對錯之分，故請您在詳細讀完每一題的敘述之後，依照您個人的第一反應或直覺來作答。

作答方式: 每題皆有五個程度等級選項，分別是
1=非常不符合，2=不符合，3=略為符合，4=符合，5=非常符合。
請在讀完各題敘述之後，圈選最適當的數字選項。

例如：你覺得某一題的敘述<u>**非常符合**</u>你個人<u>英文課堂聽講焦慮</u>的實際情況，請你在該題的五個選項中，圈選數字⑤；其他選項依此類推。

	非常不符合	不符合	略為符合	符合	非常符合
在英文課堂上，當我					
1. 聽老師用英語授課時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 聽老師用英語問我問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 聽老師說一連串英語時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 聽到老師用艱深的英文字詞講解時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 聽到老師英語發音不夠清楚時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 聽到老師說英語速度快時，我不會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 聆聽主題不熟悉的語音內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 聆聽發音不夠清楚的語音內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 聆聽說話速度快的語音內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 聆聽只播放一次的語音內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 聆聽發音拗口饒舌的英文字詞時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 聆聽帶有外國口音（如，澳洲、印度、新加坡口音等）的英語時，我不會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
在英文課堂上，我會擔心					
13. 自己的英語聽力表現不佳。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 自己聽不懂上課的內容。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 自己錯過上課內容中的重要資訊。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 自己誤解所聽到的上課內容。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 自己無法分辨上課內容中哪些是關鍵字詞。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 自己無法聽懂上課內容中所有的字詞。	1	2	3	4	5
19. 自己沒有足夠時間思考所聽到的上課內容。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 自己即使聽懂所有字詞，仍無法理解上課內容。	1	2	3	4	5

	非常不符合	不符合	略為符合	符合	非常符合

在英文課堂上，當我

21. 說英語時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 用英語表達個人想法時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 用英語問問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
24. 用英語回答問題時，我會覺得焦慮	1	2	3	4	5
25. 用英語大聲唸課文或其他教材時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
26. 用英語作個人口語活動時，例如:口頭報告、展示解說等，我 不會 覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
27. 用英語跟老師溝通時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
28. 用英語跟老師表達個人想法時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
29. 用英語跟老師討論上課內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
30. 用英語問老師問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
31. 用英語回答老師問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
32. 用英語跟老師練習對話或做其他口語練習時，我 不會 覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
33. 用英語跟同學溝通時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
34. 用英語跟同學表達個人想法時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
35. 用英語跟同學討論上課內容時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
36. 用英語問同學問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
37. 用英語回答同學問題時，我會覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5
38. 用英語跟同學做口語活動時，例如:對話、角色扮演等，我 不會 覺得焦慮。	1	2	3	4	5

在英文課堂上，我會擔心

39. 自己的英文口語表現不好。	1	2	3	4	5
40. 自己的英語說得不流暢。	1	2	3	4	5
41. 自己的英語腔調或語調不夠好。	1	2	3	4	5
42. 有些英文單字我不會唸或自己的發音有誤。	1	2	3	4	5
43. 自己的英文口語用詞不當或有誤。	1	2	3	4	5
44. 老師或同學評量我的英文口語表現。	1	2	3	4	5
45. 老師或同學糾正我的英文口語表現，例如:發音、用詞、文法等。	1	2	3	4	5

問卷二：全英語授課課程看法調查

說明：此問卷共計為 20 題。其敘述皆與**全英語授課課程看法**有關。請就各項敘述，依照您個人實際情況的程度等級來判斷。每題皆為單選題，答案無對錯之分，故請您在詳細讀完每一題的敘述之後，依照您個人的第一反應或直覺來作答。

作答方式: 每題皆有五個程度等級選項，分別是
1=非常不符合，2=不符合，3=略為符合，4=符合，5=非常符合。
請在讀完各題敘述之後，圈選最適當的數字選項。

例如：你覺得某一題的敘述**非常符合**你個人對**全英語授課課程看法**的實際情況，請你在該題的五個選項中，圈選數字⑤；其他選項依此類推。

	非常不符合	不符合	略為符合	符合	非常符合
在全英語授課課堂上，					
46. 我願意接受以全英語授課方式上課。	1	2	3	4	5
47. 我願意參與課堂討論活動。	1	2	3	4	5
48. 我願意用英文做隨堂上課筆記。	1	2	3	4	5
49. 我願意用英語和老師溝通。	1	2	3	4	5
50. 我願意用英語和同學溝通。	1	2	3	4	5
51. 我 不願意 用英語表達自己的意見。	1	2	3	4	5
52. 我相信我能聽懂老師講解的內容。	1	2	3	4	5
53. 我相信我能聽懂課堂討論的內容。	1	2	3	4	5
54. 我相信我能用英文做隨堂上課筆記。	1	2	3	4	5
55. 我相信我能用英語和老師溝通。	1	2	3	4	5
56. 我相信我能用英語和同學溝通。	1	2	3	4	5
57. 我覺得我 沒有能力 用英語表達自己的意見。	1	2	3	4	5
我覺得全英語授課課程					
58. 能提升我的英語聆聽能力。	1	2	3	4	5
59. 能提升我的英語口說能力。	1	2	3	4	5
60. 能提升我的英語溝通能力。	1	2	3	4	5
61. 能提升我的專業課程知識。	1	2	3	4	5
62. 能提升我對英語文能力的自信心	1	2	3	4	5
63. 能提升我的國際競爭力。	1	2	3	4	5
64. 不會 提升我未來繼續升學的競爭力。	1	2	3	4	5
65. 不會 提升我未來就業的競爭力。	1	2	3	4	5

English Translation of the Instruments

Note: This translation does not include translation of the questionnaire instructions.

Basic Personal Background Information Items

Gender:

☐M ☐F

Year of Birth: A.D. _____ year

College:

☐Arts ☐Science ☐Engineering

☐Agriculture ☐Law School ☐Management

☐Social Science ☐Fine Arts and Creative Design ☐International College

Course Number: _____

First Language:

☐Chinese ☐Taiwanese ☐Hakka ☐English

☐Others _____

Time Starting to Learn English:

☐Before Primary School ☐Primary School ☐Junior High School

Experience of Taking English-Taught Courses:

☐Before Primary School ☐Primary School ☐Junior High School

Questionnaire I: The Academic Listening and Speaking Anxiety Scale (45 items)

Part A: The Academic Listening Anxiety (20 items)

Items 1- 6 are made for the **teacher-oriented** factor (6 items)

Items 7 -12 are made for the **audio input-oriented** factor (6 items)

Items 13 -20 are made for the **proficiency-oriented** factor (8 items)

1=not true of me at all, 2=not true of me, 3=slightly true of me, 4=true of me, 5=very true of me

In my English class,

1. I feel anxious when I hear the teacher teaching in English.

2. I feel anxious when I hear the teacher asking questions in English.

3. I feel anxious when I hear the teacher constantly speaking in English.

4. I feel anxious when I hear the teacher using difficult English words to teach.

5. I feel anxious when I hear the teacher pronouncing English words unclearly.

6. I do NOT feel anxious when I hear the teacher speaking English at a fast speech rate.

7. I feel anxious when I hear English recording of an unfamiliar topic.

8. I feel anxious when I hear English recording pronounced in unclear English.

9. I feel anxious when I hear English recording spoken at a fast speech rate.

10. I feel anxious when I hear English recording played only one time.

11. I feel anxious when I hear English recording in which there are tongue twisters.

12. I do NOT feel anxious when I hear English recording in a foreign accent (such as Australian, Indian, or Singaporean accent).

13. I worry that I perform poorly in my English listening.

14. I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content.

15. I worry that I miss important information of the lecture content.

16. I worry that I misunderstand the lecture content I hear.

17. I worry that I cannot tell the keywords of the lecture content.

18. I worry that I cannot understand each and every English word in the lecture.

19. I worry that I cannot have enough time to think about the lecture content I hear.

20. I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content even if I know each and every English word in the lecture.

Adapted from Elkhafaifi's (2005) Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale.

Part B: The Academic Speaking Anxiety (25 items)

Items 21 -26 are made for the **self-oriented** factor (6 items)

Items 27 - 32 are made for the **teacher-oriented** factor (6 items)

Items 33 -38 are made for the **classmate-oriented** factor (6 items)

Items 39 -45 are made for the **proficiency-oriented** factor (7 items)

1=not true of me at all, 2=not true of me, 3=slightly true of me, 4=true of me, 5=very true of me

In my English class,

21. I feel anxious when I speak English.

22. I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas.

23. I feel anxious when I use English to ask questions.

24. I feel anxious when I use English to answer questions.

25. I feel anxious when I use English to read the texts or other materials aloud.

26. I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as oral presentation or explanations.

27. I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the teacher.

28. I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the teacher.

29. I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the teacher.

30. I feel anxious when I use English to ask the teacher questions.

31. I feel anxious when I use English to answer the teacher's questions.

32. I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with the teacher.

33. I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the classmates.

34. I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the classmates.

35. I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the classmates.

36. I feel anxious when I use English to ask the classmates questions.

37. I feel anxious when I use English to answer the classmates' questions.

38. I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as dialogue or role-play with the classmates.

39. I worry that my English oral performances are poor.

40. I worry that my English speaking is not fluent.

41. I worry that my English accent or intonation is not good enough.

42. I worry that I cannot pronounce some English words or pronounce them wrong.

43. I worry that my English oral usages are not appropriate or have mistakes.

44. I worry that the teacher or the classmates evaluate my English oral performances.

45. I worry that the teacher or the classmates correct my English oral performances such as pronunciation, usages, or grammar.

Adopted from Wang's (2014) Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale.

Questionnaire II: The Attitude towards English-Taught Course (20 items)

Items 46 -51 are made for the **willingness to participate** factor (6 items)

Items 52 - 57 are made for the **self-perceived English proficiency** factor (6 items)

Items 58 -65 are made for the **potential effectiveness** factor (8 items)

1=not true of me at all, 2=not true of me, 3=slightly true of me, 4=true of me, 5=very true of me

In an English-taught course,

46. I am willing to accept the arrangement that the course is taught in English.

47. I am willing to participate in class discussion.

48. I am willing to take class notes in English.

49. I am willing to use English to communicate with the teacher.

50. I am willing to use English to communicate with classmates.

51. I am NOT willing to use English to express my own opinions.

52. I believe that I can understand the teacher's lecture content.

53. I believe that I can understand what is discussed in the class.

54. I believe that I can take class notes in English.

55. I believe that I can use English to communicate with the teacher.

56. I believe that I can use English to communicate with classmates.

57. I do NOT think that I can use English to express my own opinions.

I think that English-taught courses

58. can enhance my English listening ability.

59. can enhance my English speaking ability.

60. can enhance my English communicative ability.

61. can enhance my professional content knowledge.

62. can enhance my self-confidence in my English ability.

63. can enhance my competitiveness in the international community.

64. can NOT enhance my competitiveness for future academic studies.

65. can NOT enhance my competitiveness for future employment.

Summary of the Participants' Basic Personal Background Information

Items	Response Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	314	47.8
	Female	343	52.2
Year of Birth	1992	1	.2
	1993	6	.9
	1994	27	4.1
	1995	33	5.0
	1996	233	35.5
	1997	355	54.0
	1998	2	.3
College	Arts	148	22.5
	Science	94	14.3
	Engineering	79	12.0
	Agriculture	56	8.5
	Law School	8	1.2
	Management	90	13.7
	Social Science	133	20.3
	Fine Arts and Creative Design	43	6.6
	International College	6	.9
First Language	Mandarin	334	50.8
	Taiwanese	6	.9
	Hakka	2	.3
	English	2	.3
	Cantonese	22	3.3
	Malay	1	.2
	Japanese	3	.5
	Indonesia	1	.2
	Aboriginal language	1	.2
	Mandarin & Taiwanese	253	38.5
	Mandarin & Cantonese	4	.6
	Mandarin & Korean	1	.2
	Mandarin & English	2	.3
	Mandarin & Hakka	13	2.0
	Mandarin, Taiwanese & Hakka	5	.8
	Mandarin, Taiwanese & English	6	.9

Summary of the Participants' Basic Personal Background Information

Items	Response Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Mandarin, Taiwanese, Hakka, & English	1	.2
Time Starting to Learn English	Before Elementary School	304	46.3
	Elementary School	304	51.9
	Junior High School	12	1.8
Experience Taking ETC	Never	243	37.0
	Before Elementary School	59	9.0
	Elementary School	145	22.1
	Junior High School	66	10.0
	Senior High School	94	14.3
	Before & Elementary	3	.5
	Before, Elementary & Senior	4	.6
	Before, Elementary & Junior	2	.3
	Before, Elementary, Junior & Senior	5	.8
	Elementary & Senior	2	.3
	Elementary & Junior	8	1.2
	Elementary, Junior & Senior	10	1.5
	Junior & Senior	16	2.4

N= 657

APPENDIX D

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and

Standard Deviations (SD) of the ALSAS Items

Academic Listening Anxiety

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In my English class,							
1	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher teaching in English.	4.7	14.3	28.0	37.3	15.7	2.55	1.06
2	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher asking questions in English.	8.4	19.9	32.4	27.7	11.6	2.86	1.12
3	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher constantly speaking in English.	9.0	17.7	29.5	32.1	11.7	2.80	1.13
4	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher using difficult English words to teach.	13.2	30.1	33.3	16.9	6.4	3.27	1.09
5	I feel anxious when I hear the teacher pronouncing English words unclearly.	10.8	28.2	32.7	23.1	5.2	3.16	1.06
6	I do NOT feel anxious when I hear the teacher speaking English at a fast speech rate.	9.6	43.2	22.2	20.5	4.4	3.33	1.04
7	I feel anxious when I hear English recording of an unfamiliar topic.	5.9	30.7	40.9	18.7	3.7	3.17	0.92
8	I feel anxious when I hear English recording pronounced in unclear English.	8.4	35.0	40.9	12.2	3.5	3.33	0.92
9	I feel anxious when I hear English recording spoken at a fast speech rate.	8.5	32.9	35.2	19.8	3.7	3.23	0.98
10	I feel anxious when I hear English recording played only one time.	6.2	23.7	31.2	31.8	7.0	2.90	1.04

Academic Listening Anxiety (continued)

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In my English class,							
11	I feel anxious when I hear English recording in which there are tongue twisters.	9.1	31.2	33.8	21.0	4.9	3.19	1.02
12	I do NOT feel anxious when I hear English recording in a foreign accent (such as Australian, Indian, or Singaporean accent).	12.9	42.8	22.8	17.0	4.4	3.43	1.05
13	I worry that I perform poorly in my English listening.	11.0	28.8	24.0	26.2	10.0	3.04	1.18
14	I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content.	9.9	24.8	25.7	27.2	12.3	2.93	1.19
15	I worry that I miss important information of the lecture content.	10.0	27.7	30.1	23.9	8.2	3.07	1.11
16	I worry that I misunderstand the lecture content I hear.	9.0	23.7	32.9	26.2	8.2	2.99	1.09
17	I worry that I cannot tell the keywords of the lecture content.	7.3	19.3	26.2	35.2	12.0	2.75	1.12
18	I worry that I cannot understand each and every English word in the lecture.	7.8	21.5	32.1	27.1	11.6	2.87	1.11
19	I worry that I cannot have enough time to think about the lecture content I hear.	8.5	20.5	28.9	31.2	10.8	2.85	1.13
20	I worry that I cannot understand the lecture content even if I know each and every English word in the lecture.	4.0	12.3	23.7	43.2	16.7	2.44	1.03

Academic Speaking Anxiety

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In my English class,							
21	I feel anxious when I speak English.	5.0	16.3	33.0	36.1	9.6	2.71	1.01
22	I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas.	7.2	22.2	31.5	30.4	8.7	2.89	1.07
23	I feel anxious when I use English to ask questions.	5.9	19.3	33.0	33.2	8.5	2.81	1.03
24	I feel anxious when I use English to answer questions.	5.9	20.2	32.7	32.9	8.2	2.83	1.03
25	I feel anxious when I use English to read the texts or other materials aloud.	3.2	9.0	21.0	44.6	22.2	2.26	1.01
26	I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as oral presentation or explanations.	14.8	38.2	23.6	18.9	4.6	3.40	1.09
27	I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the teacher.	5.3	17.4	36.2	32.7	8.4	2.79	1.00
28	I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the teacher.	6.7	19.6	34.4	30.4	8.8	2.85	1.05
29	I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the teacher.	6.4	19.9	35.0	30.4	8.2	2.86	1.03
30	I feel anxious when I use English to ask the teacher questions.	6.1	18.7	35.5	31.7	8.1	2.83	1.02
31	I feel anxious when I use English to answer the teacher's questions.	5.6	19.6	34.7	32.1	7.9	2.83	1.02
32	I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to practice the dialogue or do other oral practice with the teacher.	8.4	39.7	23.4	22.7	5.8	3.22	1.07
33	I feel anxious when I use English to communicate with the classmates.	2.4	8.8	27.9	47.2	13.7	2.39	0.91

Academic Speaking Anxiety (Continued)

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In my English class,							
34	I feel anxious when I use English to express my personal ideas with the classmates.	2.6	10.0	32.7	42.3	12.3	2.48	0.92
35	I feel anxious when I use English to discuss the course content with the classmates.	2.9	9.3	31.8	43.2	12.8	2.46	0.93

36	I feel anxious when I use English to ask the classmates questions.	2.6	9.1	29.2	45.7	13.4	2.42	0.92
37	I feel anxious when I use English to answer the classmates' questions.	2.4	10.0	31.1	43.8	12.6	2.46	0.92
38	I do NOT feel anxious when I use English to do oral activities such as dialogue or role-play with the classmates.	6.5	29.7	24.5	30.1	9.1	2.94	1.11
39	I worry that my English oral performances are poor.	11.0	32.6	30.9	18.7	6.8	3.22	1.09
40	I worry that my English speaking is not fluent.	11.1	31.4	33.2	18.1	6.2	3.23	1.07
41	I worry that my English accent or intonation is not good enough.	8.8	27.2	32.7	22.5	8.7	3.05	1.09
42	I worry that I cannot pronounce some English words or pronounce them wrong.	11.3	31.7	34.2	16.9	5.9	3.25	1.05
43	I worry that my English oral usages are not appropriate or have mistakes.	9.9	31.7	37.1	16.4	4.9	3.25	1.00
44	I worry that the teacher or the classmates evaluate my English oral performances.	7.8	20.5	32.7	29.4	9.6	2.88	1.09
45	I worry that the teacher or the classmates correct my English oral performances such as pronunciation, usages, or grammar.	4.3	19.3	33.5	32.1	10.8	2.74	1.03

Frequencies of Response (in %), Means (M), and

Standard Deviations (SD) of the AETCS Items

Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	In an English-taught course,							
46	I am willing to accept the arrangement that the course is taught in English.	21.8	33.8	25.1	14.5	4.9	3.53	1.13
47	I am willing to participate in class discussion.	15.2	43.5	31.4	8.2	1.7	3.62	0.90
48	I am willing to take class notes in English.	12.3	33.9	34.7	16.0	3.0	3.37	0.99
49	I am willing to use English to communicate with the teacher.	15.1	40.9	34.4	7.8	1.8	3.60	0.90
50	I am willing to use English to communicate with classmates.	13.9	38.5	34.9	10.5	2.3	3.51	0.94
51	I am NOT willing to use English to express my own opinions.	19.3	51.6	18.1	6.8	4.1	3.75	0.98
52	I believe that I can understand the teacher's lecture content.	12.2	34.6	37.4	11.9	4.0	3.39	0.98
53	I believe that I can understand what is discussed in the class.	12.2	34.9	38.1	10.8	4.1	3.40	0.97
54	I believe that I can take class notes in English.	11.4	28.2	38.5	17.4	4.6	3.25	1.02
55	I believe that I can use English to communicate with the teacher.	12.5	31.2	36.2	16.4	3.7	3.32	1.01
56	I believe that I can use English to communicate with classmates.	13.1	32.3	40.2	11.4	3.0	3.41	0.96
57	I do NOT think that I can use English to express my own opinions.	22.2	42.9	20.2	9.3	5.3	3.67	1.08
58	can enhance my English listening ability.	29.7	46.3	18.1	5.0	0.9	3.99	0.87

Attitudes toward English-Taught Courses (Continued)

No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
	I think that English-taught courses							
59	can enhance my English speaking ability.	24.5	45.1	23.9	5.5	1.1	3.86	0.88
60	can enhance my English communicative ability.	23.9	45.2	23.9	5.9	1.1	3.85	0.89
61	can enhance my professional content knowledge.	16.6	32.9	35.6	12.3	2.6	3.49	0.99
62	can enhance my self-confidence in my English ability.	19.6	37.3	30.1	9.9	3.0	3.61	1.01
63	can enhance my competitiveness in the international community.	21.3	38.1	28.6	9.6	2.4	3.66	0.99
64	can NOT enhance my competitiveness for future academic studies.	28.6	53.4	11.7	4.7	1.5	4.03	0.85
65	can NOT enhance my competitiveness for future employment.	29.4	54.6	10.4	4.4	1.2	4.07	0.82