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Measuring Adult Learners' Foreign Language Anxiety, Motivational Factors, and Achievement Expectations;a Comparative Study Between Chinese as a Second-Language Students and English as a Second-Language Students

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MEASURING ADULT LEARNERS' FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY,

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COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN CHINESE AS A SECOND-LANGUAGE

STUDENTS AND ENGLISH AS A SECOND-LANGUAGE STUDENTS

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DEDICATION

I would like to thank my parents and my boyfriend for being with me for the entire doctoral journey. Their encouragement is the main support that makes me believe I can earn the doctoral degree. Academically, I would like to thank Dr. Stead, Dr. Messemer, Dr. Bagaka's, Dr. Rogers, Dr. Carl, and Dr. Engelking for being on my committee and for instructing me in the knowledge required for writing the dissertation. Personally, I would like to thank Professor Wanda (nickname is Dr. Mama), Sashalle, Ann, and Monica for helping me solve problems I encounter. The process of earning my doctoral degree, as an international student in the United States, is unforgettable because of the love from my parents, boyfriend, professors, and colleagues.

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation focuses on interpreting the impacts of foreign language anxiety and individual characteristics on the achievement expectations of Chinese second-language learners and English second-language students at the university level. Four research questions are examined through quantitative design. In relation to methodology, this study utilizes a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), logistic regression, and χ^2 as the statistical methods; in addition, the latest version of Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) is used to analyze the data.

This study provides current and future second-language educators and administrators who plan to set up second-language programs with a broad idea of the extent to which foreign language anxiety, personal characteristics, and cultural differences influence the adult learners' achievement expectations in university sponsored second-language programs. This study also outlines the differences between non-Western and Western adult learners and the impact cultural factors have on the adult learners' level of foreign language anxiety.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As the global economy is booming, individuals have multicolored lives, yet encounter more challenges resulting from changes in their work environment. Government officials place more emphasis on international relations and on the balance between import and export; businessmen are required to travel abroad to extend their business territory, and educators are asked to possess more specialized knowledge to meet learners' diverse needs. These situations have led to tremendous increase in the demand for professional classes or refresher courses focused on second language learning, technology knowledge, and vocational skills. For example, the Modern Language Association (MLA) reported that Chinese language class enrollment at the college level was 34,153 students in 2002; the number of enrolled students has been progressively increasing with 60,976 students in 2009. Statistically, the enrollment in learning Chinese as a second language grew approximately 79% between 2002 and 2009 in the United States. One connotation of the growth in Americans learning Chinese as a second language means that the exchange between America and China is not limited to goods only; instead, it involves the communication of language and culture.

Globalization has induced several shocks to educational systems. First, the student population has changed. Educational program planners make more efforts in adult education, particularly for students who are in the work force. Universities try to facilitate learning for employed adults and commuters by increasingly offering online courses and establishing satellite schools. Meanwhile, educators now attempt to design a great number of courses and to cooperate with business and outside institutions to develop educational networks. The holistic goal of these efforts is to provide learners with practical knowledge that can be used to increase the probability of being hired or remaining employed.

In addition, globalization also shifts the education paradigm from teacher-centered to student-centered teaching due to learners' diversity backgrounds (Geeslin, 2003; Yang & Xu, 2008, p. 20). This paradigm shift is particularly obvious in adult education. In comparison with traditionally aged younger learners, adult learners better understand what they need to know and how to gain their knowledge. Following an old saying, "one learns as long as one lives," adult learners have more specific paths and stronger motivation in their learning. As a result, their expectations towards educational content are higher. Under these circumstances, adult learners view themselves as subjects rather than objects in classrooms. Because of adults' unique features, the content of adult education is different from other forms of education. Unlike compulsory education, the spirit of adult education is to empower, and to acknowledge individuals' internal potential and independence (Schalge & Soga, 2008, p. 153).

Overall, the goal of adult education is to assist individuals in improving their quality of life, as well as to carry out their dream of self-actualization in the context of globalization. In order to offer more beneficial courses and improve better student

achievement, there is a need for educational administrators and current educators to increase their understanding of the factors that influence adults learning in educational settings.

Background

The most surprising event in current business markets in the world is the rapid economic development in China. While the majority of countries are experiencing economic depression, the economy in China is growing. The opportunities for the United States to trade with China increase tremendously every year. Moreover, the Chinese population in the United States is continuously growing. These circumstances increase the demand in learning Chinese as a second language. Following this trend, universities and colleges have begun to establish Chinese language programs or to add Chinese language courses into their class schedules.

Although Chinese has become a popular second language for students to learn, it is undoubted that English is still the official language on the global stage. Students from various countries keep coming to the United States with the intention of enhancing their English language ability while studying for their degrees. In order to assist these students with varied English levels, more universities and colleges set up "Intensive English Language Programs" (IELP) to better prepare students for their studies. These international students enrolled in IELP programs in order to learn English as their second language are in a similar situation to Americans who are learning Chinese as their second language. The principal difference between these two second-language groups is that Chinese second-language learners acquire Chinese in the scenario of western educational systems which is their primary educational background, whereas English second-language learners acquire English under a western educational system, a completely

different educational system from their original educational backgrounds, non-western educational system. Nowadays, these two second language learner groups are growing rapidly in the United States. With these developments, it is urgent to understand the differences between them. In addition, it is worthy to invest time in further understanding how individuals' personal characteristics affect their expectations of future second-language proficiency.

Currently when mentioning language learning, particularly second language acquisition (SLA), the stereotype associated with that is, "the earlier learners are exposed to a new language, the better they will be." The metaphorical meaning of this stereotype is that children have more advantages than adults when learning a second language. This stereotype basically stems from the concept of the critical-period hypothesis, a neurolinguistic term, developed by Panfield and Robert (1959), followed by Lenneberg (1967), who hypothesized that brain traumas and disorders would influence second language acquisition (Hakuta et al., 2003, p. 31). Lenneberg, therefore, is considered to be the initiator who integrated the critical-period hypothesis into language learning with the confirmation that the best timing for learning languages is from age 2 to puberty (Chiswick & Miller, 2008, p. 17).

After Lenneberg, the critical-period hypothesis served as a biological foundation for linguists to investigate language learning issues. Noam Chomsky, an innatist scholar, further argued that all humans are equipped with a "Language Acquisition Devise" (LAD) when they are born. This devise is turned off when humans pass puberty and become adults (Conteh-Morgan, 2002, p. 191). In Chomsky's view, individuals who want to be successful language learners should begin their study before puberty.

The critical-period hypothesis is rooted in biology, viewing language learning only in association with physical maturity issues. However, current studies in the educational field indicate that age might be one factor affecting language learning, yet there are still other intervening variables governing language learning. For example, the interactive perspective holds that the quality of communication and interaction is the key to becoming successful language learners. The interactive perspective proposed by Long (1983) holds that acquiring a new language necessitates communication and interactions with peers and teachers (Nassaji, 2000, p. 243). Through interacting with people, learners comprehend differences between their language output and others'. In terms of this comprehension, they are able to modify their sentence structures as well as to reconstruct their linguistic knowledge.

Another paradigm regarding second language acquisition (SLA), the socioeducational perspective, holds that learning a new language does not simply mean knowing the language itself; it involves social, cultural, and historical ingredients. In other words, language is a cultural and social product. The socioeducational perspective proposed by Gardner (1985) indicated that the process of acquiring a second language is different from any other learning processes because of the involvement of affective and attitudinal variables. Gardner believed that individuals' specific backgrounds, such as cultural background, beliefs, and personality features (language aptitude, anxiety, motivation), influence second language learning achievement to a certain degree (Tse, 2000, p. 70).

After Gardner, research on second-language learning focused on individuals' characteristics. Lawrence (1993) stated that "different learners, whether as a result of heredity, educational background, situational requirement, age, or other factors,

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understand and process information differently" (Wintergerst et al., 2003, p. 86).

Learners with various cultural backgrounds, age, and experiences acquire knowledge and

express themselves differently. Therefore, a second-language (L2) classroom needs to

address learners with diverse backgrounds.

These individual differences drive scholars to investigate issues regarding how

individuals' features, including gender, age, anxiety, cultural backgrounds, and prior

experiences influence their achievement in second-language (L2) settings. For example,

Ehrman and Oxford's (1995) study showed that older students were more able to apply

their life experiences to a second-language learning scenario than were younger students

(Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000, p. 6). In Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) study, the

findings indicated that age negatively correlates with Classroom Anxiety (CA)/ Foreign

Language Anxiety (FLA) (p. 942). In Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (2000) study, the

findings showed that men and those who took the least number of high school foreign

language courses tended to be lower foreign-language achievers (p. 9). Individuals'

characteristics in current studies are widely utilized as variables to investigate

achievement issues in second-language (L2) settings.

Problem Statement

Numerous studies on second-language (L2) achievement have depicted

individuals' features, including age, gender, anxiety, prior experiences, and cultural

background, are all factors that influence the likelihood of succeeding in second-language

(L2) learning. Based on these studies, linguists recommended numerous instructions to

language educators. One of the most famous language instructions is Krashen's Input

Hypothesis. According to Krashen (1981), language input should not be too easy nor too

difficult for learners; he suggested that language educators use the 'i+1' strategy in

second-language (L2) classrooms (Fang, 2009, pp. 56-57). Based on the 'i+1' strategy, 'i'

represents a learner's current language level, and '1' means the language input, which is a

little beyond his/her current language level (Fang, 2009). The intention of this strategy is

to let language learners appropriately apply their prior experiences and surrounding

resources to achieve their goals. Krashen's input hypothesis is extensively used in

second-language (L2) language classrooms, particularly in English as second language

(ESL) classrooms.

Although scholars have made efforts in improving second-language (L2)

achievements, certain research reported that the understanding of second-language (L2)

learners is still not enough. In summary, Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000) stated:

Although Ehrman and Oxford (1995) noted that the majority of those

studies focused on cognitive variables (eg., Language aptitude, cognitive

ability, study habits), affective (eg., anxiety, self-perceptions), personality

(eg., locus of control, individualism) and demographic (eg., age, number

of previous foreign language studied) variables also seem to be related to

foreign-language achievement (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Gardner,

Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). ... There is a lack of research examining the

relationships among those variables simultaneously. (p. 3)

While research on second-language (L2) achievement covers the major

dimensions of individuals' characteristics, these characteristics were examined separately.

There is still the missing piece of exploring how these variables correlate with one

another in second-language (L2) settings. In addition, there is a lack of understanding of

the extent to which these variables influence second-language (L2) learners' achievement.

In relation to learning English as a second language (ESL), August and Shanahan (2006) stated that the literature has ignored the literacy needs of older children and adults who possess limited English language abilities (Harrison & Krol, 2007, p. 380). The literature on adult second- language (L2) language learning remains insufficient, which might decrease adult educators' teaching efficiency and dissuade adult learners from enrolling in English language classes. In addition, Harrison and Krol (2007) indicated that "we know much less about the acquisition of reading skills in ESL (English second language) adults" (p. 389). Current studies on English as second language (ESL) classrooms indicate that there is a lack of research on the learning issues of English as second language (ESL) learners, particularly adults.

In comparison with the literature on English as second language (ESL) learning, research on Chinese as second language (CSL) learning is more limited. Literature regarding linguistics often states that "English is a subject-prominent language, and Mandarin Chinese is a topic-prominent language" (Huang, 1984a, 1984b; Li & Thompson, 1976; Yuan, 1995, p. 568). In Chinese, a topic is a central point to form a sentence, whereas a subject is the core of a sentence in English. Besides, Chinese is written in Hanzi (Chinese characters), which are composed of diverse numbers of strokes, and each character is not encoded phonetically (International Organization for Standardization, 1991; Bassetti, 2009, p. 758). The writing and spelling systems of Chinese are completely different from those of English. These differences in language structure increase difficulties for English learners who are learning Chinese as a second language. Macaro (2006) stated that an English speaker cannot utilize the keyword strategy to remember Chinese words, since Chinese words cannot be identified based on their phonetic components (p. 329).

The differences in linguistic structure between English and Chinese will often cause English adult learners to have more difficulties in becoming successful learners of a new language. In addition, the limited studies on Chinese as second language (CSL) can lead CSL educators to teach learners without a sufficient theoretical foundation and understanding. These problems might result in a lower level of student achievement. Therefore, it is also urgent to gain understanding of Chinese second language learners' needs in order to improve CSL achievement. Overall, current research on English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) learning is still insufficient and there is much room to improve it. After reviewing the existing literature, it is clear that there is still a lack of understanding about how individuals' characteristics influence their expectations of future achievement in English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) learner groups in the United States. Moreover, there is no research comparing ESL and CSL learners' achievement expectations using individuals' characteristics as variables.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between foreign language anxiety (FLA) level and the achievement expectations of English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) adult learners. Secondly, this study addressed the extent to which the cultural differences among the ESL and CSL adult learners might influence foreign language anxiety levels, achievement expectations, and learning motivational factors. Therefore, the following four research questions directed this study:

1. To what extent do foreign language anxiety, gender, and second-language learning type predict second- language achievement expectations?

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2. Does foreign language anxiety level differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language adult learners according to gender?

3. To what extent do achievement expectations differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language adult learners?

4. To what extent do motivational factors differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language adult learners?

Significance of the Study

This study would be significant to current second-language (L2) educators, future second-language (L2) teachers, administrators who plan to set up second-language (L2) programs in relation to English and Chinese, and scholars whose research focus is on English as a second language (ESL) and Chinese as a second language (CSL) learners at the college or the university level. This study might also be beneficial to individuals who are interested in understanding second-language (L2) learning or knowing the differences between non-Western and Western learners' expectations of second-language (L2) achievement.

Another significance of this study is to enrich research on learning non-European languages. Rodriguez and Abreu (2003) reported that current studies tend to focus on languages organized by Roman alphabet, such as Spanish, English, and French; there is a need to include semicognate, cognate and nonalphabetic languages (p. 373). The Chinese language is rooted in nonalphabetic originals; the characters and syllables do not have one-to-one match, which is different from those languages written with the Roman alphabet. The findings of this study will add knowledge with respect to nonalphabetic languages to second language acquisition (SLA) research.

Overall, the value of this study is that it opens the door for future research that studies the cultural differences in second-language participation. In addition, it also provides education policy makers with a better understanding as to the important cultural and contextual factors that influence second-language curriculum; as a result, education policy makers and adult educators will have more clear avenue for developing second-language programs in relation to English and Chinese.

Limitations

This study has four primary limitations: the representative level of its participants, the generalizability of its findings, the participants' native languages, and different degrees of second-language proficiency and learning motivation between the two groups. In this study, the Chinese second-language participants are students from two public universities in urban districts in Ohio whose ages are all above eighteen. The SAT scores for these students are above the average for undergraduate students in the United States. In addition, the English second-language students who are enrolled in the Intensive English Language Program (IELP) are from one public urban university and one private non-urban university; their academic backgrounds met the standards required for admission. In other words, these two second-language groups have reached a certain threshold of academic performance. Therefore, the responses from these participants might only reflect English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) learners from comparable backgrounds.

Another limitation of this study is the generalizability of its findings. The study was conducted at three universities with 229 participants. Due to this medium sample size, the findings of this study might not generalize all situations in English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) classrooms. It will not describe

English as second language (ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) learners'
experiences throughout the entire United States.

The third limitation is the participants' native language. The major native
languages for the Chinese second-language students are English, Spanish, and Portuguese;
the majority of English second-language students speak Arabic, Chinese, Korean, and
Japanese. There are a minority speaking Cantonese, Vietnam, Thai, and so on, but not are
not listed in the table due to a small sample size. Therefore, the findings of this study
might reflect the perspectives towards second-language learning from certain dominant
language groups and overlook the opinions of the minority.

The fourth limitation is different degrees of second-language proficiency and
learning motivation between the two groups. The majority of Chinese as second language
(CSL) students in this study are beginners or intermediate, and they are learning Chinese,
a nonalphabetic language, in the United States, which is an alphabetic language country.
However, the English second-language (ESL) students are learning English in an
alphabetic language with the intentions of meeting admission requirement, survival in an
English speaking environment, and being proficient in English as required to complete a
degree. In addition, the majority of the ESL students have acquired basic knowledge
about English in their home countries. Overall, the ESL students more likely possess
higher language proficiency in English as well as stronger motivation towards learning
English than the CSL students in learning Chinese. With these four limitations, this study
is a small but significant step in the comparative study of English as second language
(ESL) and Chinese as second language (CSL) learners.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The intention of this chapter is to review the existing literature regarding second language acquisition theories and to explore the influences of various factors, including age, anxiety, gender, culture, expectations, motivation, and prior experiences on acquiring a second language, particularly in adulthood.

This review includes four dimensions:

1.   Theoretical perspectives regarding adult learning

2.   Historical explanations of second language acquisition

3.   Fundamental findings of current adult L2 research

4.   Distinguishable differences between the English and Chinese languages

Theoretical Perspectives of Adult Learning

The definition of adults. One of the distinguishable differences between adults and children is age. According to Merriam and Brockett (2007), individuals are defined as adults in three ways in common:

(1) Biological definition: puberty is considered as the beginning of adulthood in many cultures. The notion of adulthood is typically rooted in individuals' physical growth; (2) Legal definition: the notion of adulthood

is based on legislation. For example, males and females can vote at age eighteen in America. At this point, age eighteen represents a criterion for legally being an adult, and (3) Psychological and social definitions: Knowles (as cited in Merriam and Brockett, 2007) applied these two standards to define the notion of adulthood and stated that an individual becomes an adult once he or she "perceives herself or himself to be essentially responsible for her or his own life" (p. 5).

Moreover, Jarvis (1987) defined adulthood through social roles. Jarvis assumed that people become adults when they are able to socialize in the world in which they live using their knowledge, values, beliefs, and their specific life experiences (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991; Messemer & Valentine, 2004, p. 70). In conclusion, individuals are viewed as adults if they reach the legal age in their cultures or if they are biologically or psychologically mature.

Adult education. Numerous scholars dedicate their time to adult education, developing various adult learning theories, and researching intervening elements that could possibly affect adult learning outcomes. Lincoln and Rademacher (2006) indicated that the more understanding of student preference, the higher the level of adult student retention that may occur (p. 497). Researching issues in the adult education field lets educators better understand adult needs, and results in adult students' lasting learning in academic settings.

 Compared to compulsory education, adult education involves more challenges brought on by the external learning environment and individual internal psychological and biological changes. Under these circumstances, the content and purpose of adult education are slightly different from any other education. The content of adult education,

according to Ullman (2010), is "a profession, historically tied more closely to social work than to other kinds of public education, and at its base, it is holistic" (p. 7). Because of adults' specialized knowledge and unique life experiences, the focus of adult education is to expand adult learners' horizons rather than to develop segments of specific knowledge. Knowles (1970), a giant in the adult education field, argues that adult learners are independent, self-directed, and capable of taking responsibility for their own learning (Schalge & Soga, 2008, p. 153). Adult learners know what they need and how to achieve their goals. Therefore, the purpose of the entire adult education is to empower learners, to stimulate their inherent potential, and to assist them to be self-actualized.

Adult learning. With the issues of globalization being more important, uncertainty in daily life tremendously increases. Governors are facing economic crisis; businessmen are encountering financial challenges, and teachers are confronting being laid off. The knowledge and skills these professionals possess are no longer enough to deal with these troublesome issues. They need a more specialized education system that could provide them with resources to increase their competitiveness. In the light of this situation, Sork (2010) indicated that adult learning is important to human survival and growth in a complicated, economically declining, and conflict-ridden world (p. 157). Adult learning, nowadays, acts as a means to enhance individuals' specialized knowledge, as well as to boost one's possibilities of being hired.

The content of adult learning seems to be vague due to the diverse instructions and purposes claimed by different scholars. In the current adult education field, five philosophies: liberal learning philosophies, progressivism, behaviorism, humanism, and radical philosophy, are highly mentioned and frequently used as theoretical foundations for research (Eisen, 1993, pp. 15-26):

1. Liberal education: Liberal education represents the earliest paradigm of learning. In terms of liberal education, reading and writing are two major ways for learners to acquire knowledge. The didactic lecture is the main instructional method for teachers to convey class content. Overall, liberal education is typical of a teacher-directed model.

2. Progressivism: One of the renowned proponents is John Dewey. The famous phrase, "learning by doing," represents the spirit of progressivism. Following this spirit, the aim of a class is to teach students practical knowledge, rather than abstract content. Hands-on instruction is a preferable teaching method.

3. Behaviorism: Behaviorism stems from science and focuses on objectivity. Well-known scholars include Watson, Pavlov, Skinner and Thorndike (Merriam et al., 2007, p. 295). Behaviorists believe that all individuals could make the same achievement if they are taught through appropriate materials and instruction. Learning outcomes are quantified, and all can be measured. In terms of this theoretical foundation, standardized testing is a better evaluation method compared to others, since it involves less subjectivity.

4. Humanism: Compared to Behaviorism, Humanism has converse perspectives towards adult learning. In the views of Humanists, such as Maslow and Rogers, individuals are born with various potential. In addition, Humanists believe that individuals express themselves in different ways. Therefore, scientific assessments are not always accurate, and learning outcomes cannot always be quantified. From the Humanism

perspective, learners are the subjects in classrooms. Hence, they are the

ones who evaluate their own learning achievement. The recommended

assessments include learners' reflections and peer interaction. For adult

education, the goals are to arouse individuals' limitless potential, as well

as to enhance their capacity of self-actualization (Merriam et al., 2007, p.

295).

5.   Radical philosophy: Different from the previous four philosophies, the

focal point of radical philosophy is concerned with the power dynamic

both inside and outside of classroom. Educators who apply radical

philosophy as the guiding principle in their classrooms tend to use the

critical thinking instructional method to reveal issues in current society, as

well as to challenge learners to ponder hypotheses related to social

inequalities.

These five philosophies fundamentally describe the content of adult

learning from various backgrounds and from different standpoints. Based on these

existing paradigms, Knowles (1990) generalized the notion of adult learning principles

and stated that the adult education should let adult learners know the reasons why they

are engaging in the learning process and make them believe that they have abundant

relevant life experiences and knowledge (Larotta, 2007, pp. 25-26). Overall, the central

goal of adult learning is to provide adults with resourceful assistance that is significant to

their knowledge and could possibly improve their lives.

The Discrepancy between adult and childhood learning. Age acts as a

criterion to differentiate adults and children from a legal perspective. It also significantly

influences individuals' learning processes and achievement due to biological maturity

and accumulation of life experiences. Contemporary studies revealed that adults and children have several visible learning preferences, such as the methods they use to acquire knowledge, the solutions they utilize to deal with learning difficulties, and the ways they manipulate new information.

Regarding learning, Brown (2001) identified five differences between adults and children:

(1) adults are more capable of dealing with abstract principles and concepts than children; (2) adults maintain their attention longer to material even if they are not interested in it; (3) adults do not need varied sensory input as children do; (4) adults usually possess self-confidence, and therefore the fragility of self-esteem is not as great a problem as it is with children during learning processes, and (5) adults consider authenticity and meaningfulness to be highly significant elements in a learning environment (p. 91).

In terms of these five differences, age affects individuals' academic performances psychologically and biologically. The influences of age on achievement were broadly investigated in the psychological field in the past. Since the concern of language learning is more important to the educational field, age effects also drive scholars to research the role of age in learning second languages and form so-called "Second Language Acquisition" (SLA) theories.

Historical Explanations of Second Language Acquisition

Barton (1994) argued that language is culturally and socially situated (Hubenthal, 2004, p. 108). Learning a language involves complex and invisible factors that could possibly lower learners' motivation and decrease achievement. In addition, to acquire a

language and to be able to accurately operate it takes multiple strategies. Learners usually perceive their language performances and dissimilarities by comparing their output with others (Klien, 1986; Nassaji, 2000, p. 248). During the process of interacting with peers or surrounding people, learners correct their pronunciation, modify the order of syntax, and expand their understanding of lexicon. The quality and frequency of feedback from others are significantly important, since they act as a scaffold for language learners not only to construct their linguistic knowledge but also to improve their speaking abilities.

In the second language acquisition (SLA) field, the concepts of second language and foreign language are sometimes ambiguous. Hammarberg (2010) specified that the notion of second language focuses on the language learning sequences, whereas foreign language does not have this connotation (p. 98). Individuals are considered to be learning a second language if they have been proficient in one language, which is, in most cases, their native language.

In relation to the difference between second language and foreign language, Oxford (2003) provided excellent explanations to distinguish the notions of second language and foreign language: second language is often learned in a context where the language is used for daily conversation and survival, and therefore learners' motivation is stronger; foreign language is usually acquired in a setting where this language is not the main communication tool (p. 272). The definitions provided by Oxford utilize learning backgrounds and purposes as criteria to distinguish second language from foreign language. However, the definition of foreign language, at some point, narrows down the content and limits the significance of language learning. Therefore, linguists tend to use "second language" as a term to address second language acquisition issues.

Based on the differences between "second language" and "foreign language", the researcher has decided to use the term, Chinese second language, rather than "Chinese foreign language", as the terminology in this study with the intention of responding to "English second language" (ESL) terminology as well as emphasizing the significances of Chinese second- language learning. The notion of Chinese second-language (CSL) would be further described in Chapter Three in this study.

Brief description of second language acquisition (SLA). The definition of second language acquisition (SLA) has been much discussed throughout the past several decades. The universal SLA definition might be Brown's definition (2000), "…second language acquisition is the process of learning a second language other than a speaker's first language" (p. 26). This definition simply sketches the term, SLA, and provides a broad idea of how SLA is utilized to explain language learning. Different from the first language acquisition, the research focus of SLA is on learners' internal processes (Izadpanah, 2010, p. 48). In the SLA field, individuals' internal cognitive processes and coding systems have a certain degree of impact on external language production. Therefore, the path of learning a second-language (L2) varies from individual to another.

Another distinguishable aspect of second-language acquisition (SLA) from the first language acquisition is the usage of linguistic knowledge. "Due to the retrieving speed and the applied context, not all linguistic knowledge existing in learners' minds is equally used" (Jiang, 2007, p. 2). Based on the degree of familiarity and understanding towards specific words, learners tend to utilize certain vocabulary and ways of expression in certain contexts. At this point, the usage of vocabulary does not represent learners' language abilities but only a preference.

Although scholars have made an effort to research SLA issues, the influences of age are still indeterminate, and the issue of age is often summarized as: "Children are faster and ultimately more successful second-language (L2) learners than adults" (Hulstijn, 2007, p. 193), and "second-language acquisition becomes more difficult as students got older." (Cho & Reich, 2008, p. 236) These two controversial concepts have been frequently discussed and stem from the notion of the critical-period concept, which is often associated with Innatist theory.

The critical-period hypothesis was initially a neurolinguistic term developed by Penfield and Robert (1959). Lenneberg (1967) followed up, hypothesizing that "limited recovery from brain traumas and disorders would extend to second language acquisition." (Hakuta et al., 2003, p. 31) Lenneberg is concerned to be the initiator who integrated the critical-period concept into language learning. After Lenneberg, linguists expanded the concept of the critical-period hypothesis into language learning and argued that in order to be a native speaker in a second language (L2), learners need to acquire the L2 within a narrow, neurologically determined "window" (Baker et al., 2008, p. 318). In terms of this notion, individuals who are exposed to a second language (L2) earlier have more probability of succeeding in second-language (L2) learning. On the other hand, those who have passed the critical period and entered adulthood have more difficulties in learning a second language (L2).

Although the theoretical basis of the critical period is from scientific evidence, some scholars argue that acquiring a language does not simply involve biological variables, but it involves an individual's personal characteristics and environmental factors. Hulstijn (2007) stated that the critical period, according to Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003), might exist, but that biological and socio-psychological elements

are also relevant in and after the critical period (p. 194). While learning a language, the degree of biological factor importance declines when individuals become older, and the significance of socio-psychological factors progressively increases as individuals pass the critical period.

Furthermore, overemphasizing the influences of the biological development in language learning destroyed the reliability and the validity of the critical-period hypothesis. Numerous scholars have doubted its significance and criticized the critical-period hypothesis. Bialystok (1997) stated that the weaknesses of the critical hypothesis is the concept that "the earlier SLL [second language learners] start, the better"; Bailystok also felt that the critical-period hypothesis "lingered in discussion of both theory and practice" (Piller, 2002, p. 180). The main shortcomings of the critical hypothesis are the neglect of individuals' personal characteristics and its lack of persuasive practical evidence rooted in a theoretical foundation. The most critical shortcoming is overlooking the significance of education as it relates to language learning.

Theories in the second language acquisition (SLA) field. While researching issues regarding SLA, four paradigms- the innatist theory, the cognitive perspective, the interactive perspective, and the socioleducational perspective- frequently serve as a theoretical basis. Each paradigm is rooted in different hypotheses regarding second-language (L2) learning and has its own representative proponents:

1.   The innatist theory: Innatists believe that individuals are equipped with language ability when they are born. With this ability, individuals are allowed to acquire languages. In terms of this assumption, innatists do not view language development as a product of environmental stimuli as behaviorists do. Instead, language development is naturally formed. One

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of the best-known innatist scholars is Noam Chomsky. Chomsky

hypothesized that all humans are born with a "language acquisition

device" (LAD) that enables them to acquire linguistic knowledge. This

device will be "turned off" once individuals pass the critical period. This

is the reason why innatists think adults have more difficulties learning a

new language than children (Conteh-Morgan, 2002, p. 191).

After Chomsky, scholars continued researching child language acquisition and

developed the notion of "Universal Grammar." Similar to language acquisition device

(LAD), universal grammar assumes that all humans have a degree of intelligence that

enables them to process language (Brown, 2000, p. 25). Scholars embedded the notion of

LAD into a universal linguistic principle system that was superior to what was proposed

for LAD.

2.   The cognitive perspective: Theoretical developments in the

cognitive psychology field contributed certain alternate

explanations to the language learning framework. The cognitive

perspective describes second-language (L2) learning as a cognitive

skill, and the process of which involves in several cognitive stages

(Nassaji, 2000, p. 243).

The cognitive stages, according to Schneider and Shiffrin (1977), include controlled

processes and automatic processes. From their perspective, any complicated cognitive

skill is initially learned through controlled processes.

When acquiring a new cognitive skill, individuals need to use it frequently and

with attention. After the individual is familiar with this skill, it becomes an automatic

process that is faster and attention-free (Nassaji, 2000, p. 243). Therefore, when acquiring

second-language (L2), learners need to understand and practice it repeatedly with specific attention. It might take abundant time and energy for individuals to enter the automatic process and be able to operate a new language.

3. The interactive perspective: The interactive perspective holds that social and meaningful interactions are essential elements while acquiring a new language. According to Long (1983), learners apply various communicative tactics, including request for repetition and communication checks during interaction, and the degree of success depends on the interaction quality between learners and teachers (Nassaji, 2000, p. 243). Instead of memorizing linguistic knowledge and remembering vocabulary, interactive scholars believe that communicating with surrounding people is the most efficient method to learn a new language.

4. The socioeducational perspective: The socioeducational perspective was proposed by Gardner (1985) and is well-known for integrating affective and attitudinal variables into second language acquisition (SLA) theories. Gardner thinks that acquiring a second language (L2) is entirely different from learning any other knowledge, since it involves social factors such as cultural discrepancy and an individual's beliefs. Learners' achievement will be affected either by the degree to which a new culture is assimilated into the existing culture, or by the degree to which the existing culture is accommodated to the new culture.

Gardner categorized four types of affective and social variables that could potentially influence learners' second-language (L2) achievement: (a) social background

(beliefs, culture), (b) individual features (language aptitude, motivation, and anxiety), (c) second language acquisition (SLA) context (formal and informal experiences), and (d) successful results (linguistic and nonlinguistic) (Tse, 2000, p. 70). The connotation of these four categories is that individuals' own features could determine whether second-language (L2) leaning is successful.

      Four stages of second language acquisition (SLA). In the second language acquisition (SLA) field, there are four main theories that are rooted in various assumptions regarding second-language (L2) learning. However, no matter what theory researchers prefer, there are four stages that learners must pass. According to Terrell (1977), there are four stages that students acquiring a second language need to experience: preproduction, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency (Schon et al., 2008, p. 170). Stage one, preproduction, usually occurs at the beginning of the first three months of the L2 learning journey. Students might not respond and keep silent in order to maintain their attention on understanding the content of a new language. At the end of the first three months, students might be able to pronounce one-word sentences such as 'yes', and 'no'. Stage two, early production, comes after stage one and lasts from three to six months. Students at stage two could provide one-to-three word phrases but still need to focus on comprehension. Stage three, speech emergence, lasts from six months to two years. Students at this stage have increased comprehension regarding the target language and are able to expand the length of their sentences due to vocabulary expansion. Intermediate fluency, the fourth stage, usually starts after two or three years. Students at this stage possess more vocabulary and make fewer grammatical errors (Ochoa, 2005a; Schon et al., 2008, p. 170).

These four stages generalize the timeframe of acquiring second-language (L2) as well as the circumstances that learners encounter; stages might vary from language to language. These four stages also apply to second-language (L2) writing and reading. Some learners might need more time to pass one stage, whereas others accomplish these four stages faster than expected. Second-language (L2) educators should take individuals' features into account in order to better assist second-language (L2) learners.

First language (L1) vs. second language (L2). The existing studies indicate that first-language (L1) and second-language (L2) acquisition have similarities and differences in terms of the role of knowledge resources and lexical-semantic knowledge function. In comparison with the first language, Krashen (1982) argued that the second language should be acquired rather than learned. Language acquisition, according to Krashen, is choosing and operating language in a natural environment, whereas language learning is studying language in a formal setting (Nero, 2009, p. 176). When learning a second language (L2), individuals need to be highly exposed to an authentic context where language learning occurs naturally. In other words, authenticity of learning settings is the most necessary requirement for second-language (L2) learning. Krashen's prominent writings on second- language learning brought the term "second language acquisition" into common use.

Another difference between first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition is the role of lexical-semantic knowledge function. According to Hufeisen (1998), L1 acquisition is basically a combination of language universals and elements produced by the external environment, whereas in L2 acquisition, learners might use L1 as a scaffold and apply life experience and learning strategies to their studies (Hammarberg, 2010, p. 95). Learners' L1, at some point, is the foundation of acquiring

L2. With existing L1 linguistic knowledge, L2 learners compare similarities and contrast differences between L1 and L2 to improve their language output. Moreover, L2 learners can increasingly retain the L2 input if lexical-semantic information is enough. However, for native speakers, lexical-semantic knowledge has long existed in their mind, and its function is only applied in real settings (Roberts, 2010, p. 200).

Both first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition shares a need for authenticity in the learning environment. In addition, they are typically developed in a natural setting and involve cognitively constructive and social processes where input and interaction are major elements (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1985; Snow, 1977; Vygotsky, 1978; Harper & Jong, 2004, p. 153). Individuals need to have an authentic environment which allows them to practice languages when acquiring L1 or L2. However, the need for authenticity in the L2 learning environment is higher than that of L1, since L2 learners need more feedback from teachers and peers in order to continuously modify their linguistic knowledge.

Adult second-language (L2) learning. The nature of adult second language (L2) acquisition has been well studied and is defined with distinct learning concepts based on the following assumptions:

(1) adults have a general problem-solving mechanism that enables them to acquire cognitive skills (2) processes of implicit language-specific acquisition (revealed in first language (L1) acquisition) are either not accessible to adults or they are repressed/ controlled by the general cognitive mechanism (3) for adults, domain-independent implicit induction is marginal for learning complicated rules (Scheffler, 2008, p. 309).

With this general cognitive mechanism, adults can acquire cognitive skills as well as handle abstract rules. This mechanism is not available to children due to their physical immaturity. Under this circumstance, child learners are unable to understand complex rules and can only acquire basic linguistic knowledge.

Besides, the first-language (L1) learning process for children is basically dominated by an internal language-specific mechanism. For adult second-language (L2) learners, a linguistic system of L1 is well-developed with a general cognitive mechanism that is in place for use. This acquired linguistic system and existing general cognitive knowledge act as a foundation for adults when learning L2.

Based on the prior first-language (L1) linguistic knowledge, adults can assimilate the rules of a second language (L2) to the L1, if there are similarities between them. Thereby, they can construct an understanding of a L2. On the other hand, if the linguistic system of a L2 is completely different from their native language, accommodation or crosslinguistic influence (Yip, 1995) might occur, which increases the difficulty in acquiring a L2 (Li, 2010, p. 393). Simply, whether adult L1 linguistic knowledge is beneficial to acquire a L2 depends on the degree of similarity of both languages.

In addition, the process of adult second-language (L2) acquisition is not as simple as that of child first-language (L1) acquisition or child L2 acquisition. There are many variations involved in the learning process which indirectly increase the uncertainty of success. According to Scheffler (2008),

> In adult L2 acquisition, there is variation in the level of success that
> learners achieve, variation in the reliability of grammaticality judgments
> that they can make, and variation in the goals and strategies that they
> employ. Also, adult learners make use of various form of instruction and

their learning is affected by factors like personality and motivation. (p. 300)

Adult second-language (L2) learners possess specific thinking models and unique life experiences. They are self-directed and responsible for their own decisions. They have their own views and explanations towards surrounding events; more importantly, they know what they need and how to achieve their ambition. These characteristics highlight the role of adults in learning processes and underscore the concept that adults should be subjects within classes. Therefore, adult educators have to understand their students' strengths, respect their opinions, and design the curriculum with more sophisticated linguistic and conceptual content so that the students' L2 development will not be restricted (Harper & Jong, 2004, p. 153).

Fundamental Findings of Current Adult Second-Language (L2) Research

Acquiring a second language does not simply involve the language itself; individual characteristics and cultural diversity are invisible variables affecting achievement as well as learners' experiences. Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003) identified individual differences, including language potential, learning styles, affective variables, gender, age and other demographics which could influence learning L2 to a certain degree (p. 314). The extent to which the influences brought on by individual differences might be wider than expected. In Fishkin's study (2010) indicated that for different individuals, the journey of learning another language is diverse (p. 14). Some students took less time than average to become like native speakers, while others needed more time to adapt to new language systems. Some might struggle with public speaking, whereas others utilize communication as a learning tool. This varying individual

language aptitude acts as an intervening factor that governs the probability of achieving success in learning a second language (L2).

In recent studies, researchers have examined many variables regarding individuals' features in relation to second-language (L2) learning such as anxiety level, gender, age, learning preferences, learning motivation, individual interdependent level, language aptitude , number of high school foreign-language courses taken, and so on. Findings confirmed that individual characteristics have influenced L2 learning to various degrees.

Besides individual differences, cultural discrepancy is another factor in acquiring a second language. The aspects of this include how learners assimilate the new culture or how they adjust their culture to the new culture. Gardner (1979) stated that learning a second language (L2), for individuals, is a process of learning symbolic components of a different ethnolinguistic society (Rubenfeld et al., 2007, p. 311). Cultural factors, at this point, are associated with linguistic knowledge and are the ingredients for forming a new language. In order to be fully proficient in one language, learners are required to understand the cultural background of the target language. Therefore, cultural factors play a more important role in second language acquisition than in first language acquisition. Because acquiring a second language necessitates learners to be familiar with the culture of the target language, "the student's harmony with his own cultural community and his willingness or ability to identity with other cultural communities becomes important considerations in the process of L2 acquisition." (Gardner, 1979; Rubenfeld et al., 2007, p. 311) A lack harmony between learners' own culture and the new culture might cause cultural conflicts or culture shock that might dominate the second language (L2) acquisition process.

Culture also affects students' learning preferences. Students with different cultural backgrounds acquire knowledge with diverse strategies, solve learning difficulties in different ways, and have various expressions (Bennett, 1999; Huang & Brown, 2009, p. 644). Teachers of classes that are made up of students from diverse cultural backgrounds should not simply teach mono-content by applying single instruction. Conversely, they should be able to draw on abundant teaching aids to assist students' learning as well as to create multiple contents to meet students' needs.

Based on these contemporary references in relation to second-language (L2) learning, the researcher reviewed studies focusing on learners' personal variables, such as cultural background, age, anxiety, gender, motivation, prior experiences, and expectations. Guided by the results of this literature review, the researcher designed a study to examine the relationships between these variables and individuals' L2 learning expectations among English and Chinese second language adult learners.

Age. The most controversial topic in the second language acquisition (SLA) field is the notion of "the earlier one is exposed to second-language (L2), the more successful he will be", which is rooted in the critical period hypothesis. From Lenneberg (1967) to Chomsky, age had been regarded as the dominant factor that decided whether one's L2 learning is successful. However, this concept neglects other significant elements, such as intelligence, learning motivation, and educational backgrounds. Current researchers have proposed different perspectives regarding L2 learning and have reported the significant effects resulting from other invisible variables. Psychologists advocated that older children might not necessarily manipulate more cognitive strategies than younger children, but they know how to make use of their resources efficiently and flexibly (Flavell et al., 1993; Macaro, 2006, p. 327). Due to their biological maturity, older

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children are better able to apply multiple resources to gain knowledge than are younger children. Similar findings were found in Lyster and Saito's (2010) study.

Lyster and Saito (2010) examined the correlation between age and student feedback type through regression modeling. Participants were grouped based on their age: younger learners (10-12 years old), young-adult learners (17-20 years old), and adult learners (above 23 years old). The findings indicated that prompts were more beneficial to younger learners compared to recasts, whereas prompts and recasts were both beneficial to older learners (p. 288). The results of this study confirmed Flavell et al. (1993) findings that older learners are more able to utilize surrounding resources to enhance their second-language (L2) learning and have a higher ability to accept different assistance from teachers or other peers.

Increased age also enhances learners' capacity for applying life experiences and for applying first-language (L1) linguistic knowledge to second-language (L2) learning. In Ehrman and Oxford's study (1995), older students were more able to apply their life experiences to a second-language learning scenario, whereas younger students could only pronounce a second language fluently (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000, p. 6). In cross-sectional studies, older learners made fewer first-language influenced mistakes than younger students did (Cronnell, 1985; Fashola et al., 1996; Figueredo, 2006, pp. 887-888). Simply, older students possess more relevant life experiences and first-language (L1) knowledge, which acts as a basis to help them absorb or adjust the new linguistic system into their existing language.

In learning English as a second language (ESL), older learners were able to apply more English orthographic knowledge than younger learners did (Edelsky, 1982; Edelsky & Jilbert, 1985; Figueredo, 2006, pp. 887-888). In addition, late bilinguals (i.e. ESL

learners) may be more capable to strengthen their first-language skills, which could be transferred to support their L2 development (Cummins, 1981; Genesse, 1984; Figueredo, 2006, p. 894). For older ESL learners, their first-language background provides them with a linguistic framework to acquire English.

In Chiswick and Miller's study (2008), the analysis regarding immigrants who speak English as a second language showed that age does not cause a decline in immigrants' speaking proficiency (p. 26). In terms of Chiswick and Miller's study, the biological maturity does not restrict adult second-language (L2) development and confirmed the notion that there is always a possibility for older English second-language (ESL) speakers to be close to native.

These experiences and knowledge older students possess also help them to easily ease their anxiety in second-language classrooms. Dewaele, Petrides and Furnham (2008) examined the relationship between the age of the adult multilinguals and their Classroom Anxiety (CA)/ Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA). Their findings indicated that age had negative correlations with these students' CA/ FLA, which means older adult students are less anxious than young adult students (p. 942). Increased age lets older students' mental status become more stable and indirectly alleviates students' anxiety. This lowered anxiety level potentially increases the likelihood of having self-confidence while learning a second language (L2).

From a biological perspective, adult learners have fewer advantages due to the restriction of their physical development. However, more and more scholars believe that there is still room for adult learners to be successful in second-language (L2) learning. They suggested that adult educators respect adult learners' unique experiences and modify their instruction according to learners' age (Munoz, 2007; Lyster & Satio, 2010, p.

287). Larotta (2007) recommended that educators give adult learners the ownership of curriculum and have a two-way dialogue in classes (p. 25). The requirements of instruction for adult learners are not a didactic lecture, but an open-ended conversation and a student-centered model. Their unique life experiences need to be respected in class, and their personal preferences need to be integrated into class content to increase the level of their identification with the learning environment.

Anxiety. In the past, cognitive terms, such as intelligence, creativity, and problem-solving strategies, were associated with learning achievement. The stereotype of individuals with outstanding achievement often included possessing high intelligence, superior creativity, or greater problem-solving strategies. Affective variables had not been paid attention to and not regarded as significant in learning a second language (L2) until Krashen's work. From Krashen's perspective, affective factors, such as motivation, beliefs, and anxiety could have the potential to heighten or lower an 'affective filer' that impedes language comprehension. Low anxiety, high motivation, and self-esteem can facilitate language acquisition as well as allow the input to be stored in the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (Tse, 2000, p. 71). After Krashen, anxiety, motivation, and self-esteem were no longer considered to only affect individuals at the psychological level; more importantly, they influence individuals academically.

Many current educators indicate that students often come to class without enthusiasm and sometimes unconsciously express a helpless attitude during learning. They are neither energetic nor active in class activities. These situations worry educators, yet there is still no specific method to simulate students' motivation. Schalge and Soga (2008) pointed out that students' depressed attitude towards classes usually comes from anxiety regarding unexpected learning content or unclear curriculum objectives (p. 160).

These emotional barriers usually decrease students' learning motivation and increase their anxiety levels.

Current studies also indicate that students' anxiety changes their studying preferences. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) indicated that some anxious students decided to over-study due to being overly concerned with performances, whereas other students chose to ease their anxiety by skipping classes or ignoring assignments (p. 127). Either of these situations increased students' unease and further led to teachers' incorrect evaluation of students' performances. Students who were unable to perform in class or had poor test performances often struck teachers as having insufficient mental capacity and a lack of motivation (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). This inaccurate impression frequently hinders teachers from communicating with students as well as from assisting them. Eventually, the achievement gap among students is enlarged.

In educational studies, anxiety is basically categorized as either a trait or state. Trait anxiety is a personality characteristic, which means that individuals tend to feel anxious all the time. State anxiety, conversely, refers to the idea that individuals only feel anxious in temporary settings, and that the anxious emotion does not last for a long time. A third type of anxiety is specific-situated anxiety, which means anxiety only occurs in a particular context (Spielberger, Anton & Bedell, 1976; Woodrow, 2006, p. 310). Any individual might feel anxious; however, the reasons for it may be different.

In the second language acquisition (SLA) field, anxiety is also one of the major variables that is used to explore students' achievement discrepancy and is defined as foreign language anxiety (FLA), which is academically defined as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language context, including speaking, listening and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Dewaele, 2007, p. 391).

The notion of foreign language anxiety (FLA) is similar to that of specific-situated anxiety, which refers to the idea that individuals do not feel anxious in any other classrooms, but only in second-language (L2) settings.

Rodriguez and Abreu (2003) explained that second language acquisition (FLA) is a specific-situated anxiety that particularly occurs in a foreign-language (FL) formal learning context due to students' low self-confidence in their expression abilities in the target language (p. 365). The essence of FLA, according to Horwitz et al. (1986), is "the threat to an individual's self-concept caused by the inherent limitations of communication in an imperfectly mastered second language" (Saito et al., 1999, p. 202). Students with insufficient communication skills usually attempt to avoid talking in public because of the fear of embarrassment resulting from incorrect sentence order and unclear pronunciation.

Based on the studies on foreign language anxiety (FLA), researchers further examined whether foreign language reading anxiety is associated with particular foreign languages. Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999) surveyed American students from 30 first-semester foreign language classes, including French, Japanese and Russian using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS). The research questions included: first, whether foreign language (FL) reading anxiety was distinguishable from general FL anxiety; second, whether FL reading anxiety was associated with a particular target language (p. 203). The findings showed that FL reading anxiety has positive correlation with FL anxiety. In addition, FL reading anxiety changed based on the particular target language (p. 212). Saito et al. (1999) further confirmed that anxiety should be viewed as a mediating

variable that affects the process of decoding of a text and of the actual production of textual meaning (p. 219).

Studies on foreign language anxiety (FLA) indicated that FLA is also associated with individuals' cultural backgrounds. Woodrow (2006) reported that English second language learners whose cultures were rooted in Confucian heritage such as China, Korea, and Japan felt more anxious than learners from other ethnic groups (p. 308). This finding confirmed that learners' ethnic and educational backgrounds have the potential to impact their anxiety level in second-language (L2) learning.

Besides individuals' ethnic and educational backgrounds, age is also one factor that influences the anxiety level. Tse (2000) investigated the anxiety level of adult learners in the foreign-language (FL) classrooms. There were 51 participants, including 14 males and 37 females in the study, and all of them had second-language (L2) learning experiences in high school. The findings showed that participants felt that teacher attention and sympathy could help them ease their anxiety in class and keep their learning interesting (p. 75). Appropriate teacher reaction and feedback are the key to alleviating students' anxiety in a L2 classroom.

In addition, foreign language anxiety (FLA) has a negative relationship with second-language (L2) learning achievement. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) suggested that anxiety in relation to language learning increases at the beginning of L2 learning experiences and may block acquisition (Tse, 2000, p. 71). Sparks and Granschow (1991, 1995) further indicated that "affective variables (eg., anxiety) are not only causes of foreign-language learning problems but are side effects of having difficulties coding the native language" (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000, p. 4). Increased anxiety prevents

individuals' from engaging in second-language (L2) learning and produces unexpected hardships in operating first language (L1).

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) also correlates negatively with motivation. Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre (1992) examined integrative motivation effects through seven measures. Their findings showed a negative relationship between the anxiety measures and integrative motivation, which indicated that students with integrative motivation possessed less anxiety than those without integrative motivation (Gardner et al., 1992; Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003, p. 371). Based on the existing literature, FLA has been proven to be negatively associated with motivation, age, and achievement in second-language (L2) settings and is one reliable factor utilized to investigate second language acquisition (SLA) issues.

Gender. Achievement differences between females and males have been studied in the past decades. A common stereotype is that men outperform women in scientific and mathematical fields, whereas women have better intellectual abilities in literature and educational fields. Following these thoughts, it would be surprising that females become scientists and males become writers. These views on academic achievement might be ridiculous; however, certain biological evidence offers theoretical foundations to explain this situation.

In terms of biology, the brain development of females is slightly different than that of males. When a child's brain is mature, diverse functions are lateralized to the left or right hemisphere. Brown (2000) stated that the left hemisphere is associated with logic and analytical abilities, and it tends to deal with mathematical, scientific, and linear knowledge; the right hemisphere is used to accept and store visual, tactile, and auditory

knowledge, and it produces holistic, integrative, and affective information more effectively than the left hemisphere does (p. 118).

Due to the brain structure difference and gender preferences regarding hemispheres, Males tend to use the left hemisphere to handle the problems, while females like to deal with troubles through the right hemisphere. Therefore, males' left hemispheres are usually better developed than females', and that is the reason why males are viewed to be equipped with higher capacities in science or mathematics areas compared to females.

Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000) indicated that "the language centers of males are more concentrated in the left hemisphere, whereas, for women, they are more globally represented" (p. 6). Males tend to acquire and produce language through the left hemisphere, whose original function is to process liner knowledge, such as mathematics and science. The usage of the left hemisphere gives males a disadvantage in language learning compared to females.

Based on the biological differences between males and females, linguists found that there is a discrepancy of first-language (L1) and second-language (L2) learning between females and males. In L1 verbal items evaluation, females are superior to males by one-third of a standard deviation (i.e., 5 IQ points) (Anderson, 2004; Payne & Lynn, 2011, p. 434). Besides, females are also stronger on verbal tasks compared to males (Galsworthy, Dionne, Dale, & Plomin, 2002; Payne & Lynn, 2011, p. 434). These findings presented that females are good at acquiring verbal knowledge in relation to language and have higher probabilities of performing better in language learning processes than males.

Gender differences are also found in learning strategy application. Females are more likely to use more strategies than males (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Macaro, 2000; Sheorey, 1999; Macaro, 2006, p. 321). When learning languages, females use various strategies to understand the linguistic system of a new language, to be familiar with vocabulary used in the target language, and eventually to be able to use that language appropriately in a real setting. Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) indicated that the strategies females use to learn languages are more context-controlled or culture-situated (p. 401). The existing references generalized that females are more strategy-users when learning languages, which might be another reason why females have higher achievement in language learning compared to males.

Research on second-language (L2) learning found that the gender factor caused difference achievement. Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000) used the instrument, the Background Demographic Form (BDF), to explore gender differences in foreign language achievement among college and graduate students. The findings presented that men and those who took the least number of high school foreign language courses tended to be lower foreign-language achievers (p. 9).

In addition, different genders even express the same language in a different way. Compared to males, females tend to follow the linguistic rules in second language acquisition (SLA). Li (2010) examined whether there is a sociolinguistic variation in speech among Chinese second language learners of both genders. The finding concluded that females used the word '*DE*' (a preposition in the Chinese language) more frequently than males did (p. 395). Similar studies on gender differences in relation to second language acquisition (SLA) were also found in Payne and Lynn (2011) research.

Payne and Lynn (2011) examined to what extent the gender factor influenced second-language (L2) learning. In their study, there were 73 native English speaking college students (31 males and 42 females) who were learning Spanish as their second language. The age of the participants ranged from 18-22 years old, and all had prior experience learning Spanish. The findings of this study confirmed that females had better performances than males in second- language learning (p. 436). Gender influences on second-language (L2) achievement become more crucial than in first language (L1), which might be a key to deciding whether individuals can succeed in L2 learning.

Motivation. Motivation is originally a psychological term used to describe individuals' internal desire to know or acquire new information. It is usually categorized as an affective factor that is in charge of individuals' enthusiasm. In adult education, a volume of studies have been conducted on motivation influences on adult learning. Houle's work (1961) has been most influential. Houle's Typology assumed that goal-oriented, activity-oriented, or learning-oriented types were elements that led adults to learn. Boshier (1971) extended Houle's Typology and further determined fourteen motivations that affect learners' motivations of participating in adult education programs (Beder, 1990, p. 207).

In terms of this theoretical foundation, researchers began to generalize reasons that prevented adults from enrolling in adult education. In Beder's (1990) study, he attempted to determine reasons for adult learners who did not enroll in adult basic education (ABE) in Iowa. The findings revealed that these participants had low perceptions of needs and lower self- confidence towards attendance of ABE. These participants reported that they could not successfully complete coursework due to age and abilities. Also, they did not need the diploma and the knowledge from the school. The

way these participants attributed their learning inhibited them from going back to school. Similar findings were found in Valentine and Darkenwald's study. Valentine and Darkenwald (1990) investigated the factors that hinder adults from attending organized education. The results indicated that deterrents, such as personal problems, lower confidence, and lack of interest in organized education or in available courses can all decrease adults' learning motivation and further prevent them from going back to school (p. 36).

In general, the components of motivation are goals and attribution, which refers to how individuals attribute their past success or failure (William & Burden, 1997; Macaro, 2006, p. 331). Typically, one's attribution contributes to motivation to a certain degree, and motivation influences the way goals are established. In Beder and Valentine (1990) study, the findings indicated that several factors, including self-improvement, desire to provide a good example for their children, and ambition to develop literacy were some motivators that stimulated them to go back to school (p. 84). The way adults evaluate their status quo and abilities influences their school attendance rate and their future plans.

In relation to language learning, motivation refers to "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language" (Gardner, 1985; Noels et al., 1999, p. 23). In second-language (L2) learning, motivation represents the idea of learner's attitude, interest, and endeavor in learning a new language (Gardner et al., 1997; Onwuegbyzie, 2000, p. 6). Learners possessing greater motivation usually contribute their energy and time to learning with the intention of achieving better performances. In other words, learners with greater motivation have higher expectations of their learning achievement.

One's learning preferences can decide the degree of motivation and the time they invest to learn the target language. Generally, different individuals have various motivations for learning a language. Scholars indicated that motivational beliefs regarding second-language (L2) learning are different from culture to culture (Bernat, 2004; Biggs, 1992; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Watkins & Ismail, 1994; Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 211). Language learners who are educated in non-Western cultures might have different motivation and expectations of learning and of teaching compared to learners from Western educational systems. Therefore, learners from different countries have varying achievement even though they have the same materials and instructors.

The existing studies showed that motivation is one determinant of success in second-language (L2) learning and has a positive correlation with achievement. Kosio (2003) claimed that "motivation is considered to be one of the main determining factors of success in developing a second or foreign language" (Rahman et al., 2010, p. 206). Learners who have higher L2 learning motivation, in a majority of cases, have better grades and proficiency in the target language (Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985; McGoarty, 1996; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Spolsky, 1989; Warschauer; 1996; Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 210). Learners with higher motivation tend to seek more resources and assistance for modifying and improving their L2 performances. High motivation lets learners have higher learning expectations and higher likelihood of success in their L2 learning than those with lower motivation. Overall, learners' motivation is an abstract concept, but it truly influences learners' L2 expectations and governs their L2 achievement.

Prior experience. Students' prior experiences often have great effects on their current learning. Some prior experiences facilitate students' leaning, whereas others

impede their learning. According to the attribution theory proposed by Weiner (1985), learners tend to attribute specific experiences to their future learning, particularly when these experiences are significant or bring unexpected and unhappy memories. Attributions of low ability have been found to decrease the probability of success and the rate of student retention in academic settings. These negative attributions let students lose self-esteem and gain a feeling of helplessness (Graham, 1990; Tse, 2000, p. 73). The ways in which students evaluate their success or failure deeply affect their actions in their future study. The attribution theory describes the significance of students' prior experiences and serves as a theoretical foundation for research that investigates achievement issues they can create.

Learners' prior experiences not only influence their achievement but also empower them to choose their ideal instruction. Becker (2000) indicated that because prior experiences provide learners with a basic idea of what appropriate instruction should be, they may not be willing to have unfamiliar activities (Hubenthal, 2004, p. 107). Learners with abundant prior experiences towards specific courses have been taught by various instructors using different materials. They broadly understand what instruction works best for them, and what material is beneficial to their study. Under these circumstances, they might refuse to attend class activities which they think do not relate to class content or are not beneficial to their study. Prior experiences, at this point, might let learners become more objective and have more desire to lead their own learning.

Prior experience, according to current studies, is also associated with second-language (L2) learning. In English as second language (ESL) classrooms, Tse (2000) indicated that students' experiences and perspectives on their ESL study can influence their decision whether or not to continue their study beyond required course work (p. 73).

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ESL students' prior experiences basically provide them with a picture of what English is and what American cultures are like. Due to their different linguistic systems, ESL students encounter more difficulties in learning. At this time, their prior experiences act as a criterion for continuing or stopping learning. ESL students with good experiences in learning English tend to have positive evaluation and view their learning as expanding their knowledge. Conversely, students with unhappy experiences might think that learning English is only for meeting course requirements. The differences in ESL students' prior experiences make them have varying amounts of time spent learning English.

In order to decrease ESL students' learning hardships, Figueredo (2006) suggested that nurturing learners' first language (L1) skill growth through at-home experiences and formal instructional chances may benefit English spelling development (p. 896). Integrating ESL students' L1 skills into English learning will let them adapt to the English language system faster. This adaption might let them have more positive experiences in ESL classrooms and result in students' lifelong study of English.

Studies on prior second-language (L2) learning experiences also indicate that experienced L2 learners tend to apply various strategies that are different from those of inexperienced L2 learners (Kember & Gow, 1994; Porte, 1997; Macaro, 2006, p. 321). Dupuy and Krashen (1998) study researched 104 undergraduate students who were actively learning German, French, and Spanish. They found that the majority of students who had better performances in L2 class had experience studying abroad, whereas those who had lower achievement had not been exposed to L2 learning settings other than in school (Tse, 2000, p. 73).

Payne and Lynn (2011) examined the relationship between years of second-language (L2) learning experience and L2 understanding among college participants and found that there is a positive correlation between years of experience L2 learning and L2 comprehension (pp. 435-436). Students' prior experiences have resulted in significant influences on students' L2 learning.

Linguistically, prior experiences provide second-language (L2) learners with basic knowledge about the target language. Psychologically, prior experiences might facilitate or hinder L2 learning. Educators need to understand the significance of L2 learners' prior experiences and utilize them as one of resources to assist them.

Culture. Culture, a sociological term, is used to describe the background of a group of individuals' customs. Lusting and Koester (2006) define culture as "a learned set of interpretations about beliefs, values, norms, and social practices, which affect behaviors of a relatively large group of people" (Nero, 2009, p. 178). Individuals from different ethnic groups tend to interpret the world differently, express themselves in diverse ways, and have varying levels of achievement. Therefore, a second-language (L2) classroom made of various ethnic students is multi-cultural.

The scenario in second-language (L2) classrooms, according to Hamilton (1996), is that "students interact with the teacher's cultural representations, including materials, interpretations that mirror their own backgrounds and responses that reflect their own bias" (Bodycott, 2006, p. 215). In a L2 setting, learners interact with teachers culturally, politically, and linguistically. Learners construct their vision of a new culture and reevaluate and rethink their own cultures. This process forms individuals' identity and further decides the level of their positionality within the dominant culture (Tisdell, 2001; Messemer, 2010, p. 122) Therefore, cultural interaction between teachers and students is

important in a L2 setting. L2 teachers must understand and confirm that cultural knowledge is the foundation of all second-language learning (Bodycott, 2006, p. 212).

Current studies indicate that cultural discrepancy increases the probability of learners' misbehaving in second-language (L2) settings. One action that represents politeness in one group could be insulting to individuals in another group. Spinelli (2008) reported that a language or cultural difference in values and beliefs brings learners to have inappropriate responses and become academically deficient (p. 103). Second-language (L2) learners who are not familiar with the culture of the target language tend to behave or respond in the way they were educated in their native cultures. This situation indirectly challenges L2 teachers' specified knowledge and understanding towards different cultures.

Bodycott (1995) indicated that some second-language (L2) teachers are neither aware of their own cultural bias of learning and teaching nor conscious of cultural diversities that exist in their classes (p. 216). The neglect of cultural differences might result in lower L2 achievement. In Allen (1993), L2 teachers might become obstacles if they do not possess enough knowledge regarding cultures of different ethnic groups or do not have ability to support learners with various cultures (Bodycott, 2006, p. 209). L2 teachers should extensively understand different cultures in order to avoid insulting students' ego unconsciously and better assist leaners.

In cross-cultural studies examined through quantitative and qualitative methods, the findings have proven the relationship between culture and learning (eg. Cole et al., 1971; Cooper, 1980; Reynolds & Skilbeck, 1976; Swisher & Deyhle, 1989; Vyas, 1988; Yu & Bain, 1985; Wintergerst et al., 2003, p. 98). He (2004) indicated that second-language (L2) learners attempt to acquire the new linguistic system and assimilate or

adjust the new culture to their native culture (p. 575). The level of cultural assimilation or accommodation might have a great impact on L2 learners' achievement as well as their feelings.

Rintell (1984) indicated that leaners from different cultures than the one of the target language have more difficulties in dealing with their emotion in the second-language (L2) classrooms, which prevents them from being closer to the new culture and from becoming proficient in the target language (Dewaele, 2005, p. 375). The affective issues, such as anxiety, helplessness, and disappointment, overwhelm second-language (L2) learners and eventually make them dislike the target language. In addition, Chiswick (1993, 1997) reported that the success of L2 learners (particularly elders) would be affected by culturally-influenced experiences, such as their prior learning background and educational system (Hubenthal, 2004, p. 105). The influences on L2 learning caused by culture are more than expected and significant.

In English second language (ESL) classrooms, researchers have found that students' cultural or ethnic backgrounds yielded different test results (Chen & Henning, 1985; Farhady, 1982; Politzer & McGoarty, 1985; Wintergerst et al., 2003, p. 100). Rueda and Chen (2005) indicated that students from different cultural backgrounds do acquire target languages and interpret purposes of learning differently (p. 224). Students from Asian countries tend to have visual and auditory learning styles when learning a new language and think the purpose of learning is to have higher achievement, while students from Western countries might have various learning styles to acquire a language and think of learning as a means to expand their knowledge. Other factors in relation to culture, such as ethnic communities and home front, also have been proven to have

significant influences on students' learning process and academic achievement (Pintrich, 2003; Zusho & Pintrich, 2003; Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 213).

Learners from different cultures possess various knowledge, languages, and beliefs. These individual characteristics are important, particularly when cultural shock or cultural conflict occur. At this point, second-language (L2) educators should make an effort to eliminate the probability of having sensitive cultural topics in class and erase their own stereotype towards certain cultures. That way, the communication gap between teachers and students will be narrowed. In addition, L2 educators, particularly adult educators, should better integrate learners' backgrounds, such as existing linguistic knowledge and life experiences into class content in order to make learners feel close to the target language, to have lower anxiety, and to have higher second-language (L2) learning expectations.

Non-western cultures vs. western cultures. Second-language (L2) teachers might not reach their expected goals if they do not realize their role in L2 classrooms. For example, in Asian culture, according to Wintergerst et al. (2003), teachers are the main resources in classrooms; their role is to provide learners with knowledge and information they need to learn (p. 99). In comparison with the Western model, Asian education is more teacher-centered and more didactic. Merriam et al. (2007) stated four themes that describe Non-Western and Western different perspectives on learning:

(1)   Independence is more emphasized in Western academic settings, whereas interdependence is highlighted in Non-Western educational models. The purpose of Western education is to educate individuals to be in charge of their lives, assist them in independence, and to be able to contribute to the society. However,

in non-western education, the process of learning is to identify the

meaning of one's existence and to form self-concept and ego.

(2)   The concept of interdependence is associated with community

learning, which refers to the idea that all members are responsible

to teach and learn in non-Western traditions. Conversely, Western

teaching-learning systems are more oriented toward the individual

and focus on individuals' autonomy.

(3)   In Western models, the components of learning include the

development of spirit, mind, cognitive maturity, and individuals'

characteristics. Nevertheless, in non-Western models, the goal of

education and learning is to develop the ability to serve others

more so than just individual self-actualization.

(4)   Compared to Western perspectives, the non-Western educational

model is basically informal. Knowledge is provided by

surrounding people and is integrated into daily life. (p. 237)

Non-Western educational systems typically stem from the Confucian paradigm

which claimed the notion that 'the teacher must know all' (Hudson-Ross & Yu, 1990, p.

123). Following this paradigm, the role of teachers in classrooms is more important than

those in Western classrooms. In non-Western classrooms, teachers represent the model

for students to imitate; therefore, teachers' insufficient content knowledge or improper

behaviors could damage students' cognitive and mental development. However, the role

of teachers, in Western classrooms, is one of knowledge resources and as a facilitator to

assist students in learning. This model is completely different from that in non-Western

models. Therefore, the significance of cultural differences becomes obvious, particularly in English as second language (ESL) classrooms.

In English as second language (ESL) classrooms, teachers are basically educated in Western educational systems, and English is their primary language. They possess abundant knowledge regarding Western cultures, customs, and thoughts that are the main content in classes. Overall, the features of ESL teachers are quite similar. Nevertheless, students in ESL classrooms have culturally diverse experiences, and their primary languages might be all different. The only shared similarity among them is that they all encounter difficulties in fluently speaking English and lack content knowledge required in class.

Although English as second language (ESL) students are not able to express themselves clearly in English, their diverse backgrounds have certain contributions to ESL class at some point. According to Seixas (1993), English as second language (ESL) students' various backgrounds could make class content colorful and enrich class experiences if teachers understand and value their native cultures (Cho & Reich, 2008, p. 237). In fact, ESL students are just like teachers bringing their own ways of thinking and their cultural beliefs to class in order to construct their understanding of a new language. The experiences they have in class play a big role in learning processes and how they evaluate the English language (Bodycott, 2006, p. 216). Thus, the level of negotiation between learners and teachers becomes crucial, and the instruction ESL teacher use is important.

In second-language (L2) classrooms, one well-known teaching strategy is intercultural communication. Intercultural communication, according to Lusting and Koester (2006), is "a symbolic, interpretative, transactional, contextual process in which

people from different cultures create shared meanings" (Nero, 2009, p. 178). Intercultural communication encourages L2 teachers to construct meanings and knowledge by negotiating and discussing with learners. In terms of intercultural communication, knowledge is created and shared rather than didactic. L2 teachers should make learners actively engage in class to form shared knowledge.

Although teachers in second-language (L2) classes are experts due to the possession of linguistic knowledge of the target language, there is a need for them to understand what students have in mind and to have shared goals towards L2 achievement. These shared visions in L2 classes are particularly important not only because they put teachers and learners on the same page but also because they eliminate misunderstandings which occur in class. In addition, the extent of communication should extend to L2 learners' daily lives to create positive relationships between school and home experiences. Calderon, Slavin, and Sanchez (2011) indicated that the positive relationship between home, and school experiences allows English learners to be more likely to adjust to cultural, linguistic and social differences (p. 115). The less difference between home and school experiences, the better second-language (L2) learners accommodate the new language. L2 educators should be enthusiastic about designing curriculum to link learners' school experiences with those at home to help learners adapt to the new culture.

Expectation. In educational psychology, influences brought on by teachers' expectations and beliefs have been described by the term, "Pygmalion Effect", which outlines the significance of teachers' feedback towards students' learning and the importance of instruction application. In terms of the Pygmalion effect, positive feedback and appropriate instruction from teachers can make students have self-esteem and

increase their learning motivation. Teachers' expectations and beliefs have received attention from educators as well as researchers, and a volume of evidence has been reported in the current references.

In contrast to the amount of research on teachers' expectations and beliefs, scholars have invested less time in understanding the effects caused by learners' beliefs. In the past decades, as the concept of learners as the subject in the classroom became more important, scholars began to define "learners' beliefs" and to research issues regarding it. The definition of learners' beliefs is, according to Grotjahn (1991), "highly individual, relatively stable, and relatively enduring" (Loewen et al., 2009, p. 91). Thus, learners' beliefs vary from one person to another and are lifelong. Wenden (1999) defined that learners' beliefs refer to the idea of learners' metacognitive knowledge regarding learning (Loewen et al., 2009, p. 92). During learning processes, individuals interact with teachers and peers and perceive the value of their performances. Some might have great interaction experiences, and thereby they have higher expectations of their future study. Others might feel disappointed or even helpless and decide to give up. Educational psychology research has proven these situations and confirmed that epistemological beliefs, such as learning beliefs result in individuals' varying learning outcomes (Loewen et al, 2009, p. 92).

The two best-known theories about learners' expectations might be the attribution theory proposed by Weiner (1986) and the self-efficacy model suggested by Bandura (1986). Weiner claimed that learners tend to attribute their success or failure to certain reasons. The most common attributions include: individuals' ability, individuals' effort, difficulty of task, and luck. Weiner categorizes these four attributions into three types: internal (ability and effort) vs. external (difficulty of task and luck); stable (ability and

difficulty of task) vs. unstable (effort and luck); controllable (effort) vs. uncontrollable (ability, difficulty of task, and luck). When learners attribute their success or failure to internal, stable, and controllable categories, they have more probability of maintaining their success or becoming successful in the next performance. However, learners would continuously fail or do not succeed in later tries if they attribute their experiences to external, unstable and uncontrollable factors. Therefore, the way learners categorize their experiences affects their learning achievement.

Another famous theory about learners' expectation is the self-efficacy model, which is one concept of Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986) and is a main element that governs individuals' behavior and motivation. Self-efficacy is defined as "personal beliefs concerning one's capacity to learn or perform skills at designated levels" (Bandura, 1986,1989; Schunk,1991; Chularut & DeBacker, 2003, p. 251). Individuals' self-efficacy potentially influences their behaviors, motivation, beliefs towards learning and eventually their coursework achievement.

Studies indicated that students who had high self-efficacy tended to have better achievement (Schunk, 1989; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Chularut & DeBacker, 2003, p. 251). In addition, students who believed that they were able to handle the task utilized more strategies to accomplish tasks and spent more time on these tasks than those with lower expectations (Schunk & Rice, 1991; Zimmerman & Marinez-Pons, 1992; Chularut & DeBacker, 2003, p. 251). The beliefs and expectations of learners potentially govern their internal motivation and external actions. Based on Weiner's attribution theory and Bandura's self-efficacy model, one's expectations, beliefs and self-efficacy regarding learning can have profound influences on one's achievement.

Individuals' affective beliefs and expectations also have been assumed to be a factor in language acquisition processes (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991; Tse, 2000, p. 70). Current research shows that there is a relationship between L2 learner beliefs and their strategy usage, motivation, and proficiency (Mori, 1999; Yang, 1999; Loewen et al., 2009, p. 91). Second-language (L2) learner beliefs lead them to utilize different strategies with various intentions.

Rueda and Chen (2005) examined the differences in motivational beliefs of learners of the Chinese language as a second language at the college level. The participants were one hundred fifty students from 2-year community colleges, 4-year state universities, and 4-year private university. There were two findings in this study: first, students' beliefs regarding L2 language learning are impacted by their ethnic backgrounds. Second, students' motivational factors (i.e. beliefs) are significant variables in the Chinese second language learning field (p. 224). Learners' beliefs intertwine with their ethnic backgrounds resulting in different achievement in Chinese language learning. Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000) also confirmed that learners' beliefs and expectations can make their L2 achievement differ (p. 4).

In addition, Krashen (1980) indicated that many foreign-language students with low expectations encounter difficulties in language input, and therefore the learning process is slowed down (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000, p. 5). The beliefs that second-language (L2) learners have towards L2 might be obstacles that hinder their learning when they are pessimistic and passive. These situations lead scholars to think that learners' beliefs are a good indicator of the decisions they will make about their future study (Bandura, 1986; Karathanos, 2009, p. 617).

English as a second language (ESL). In the current language learning field, theories and research on the English language are the most well-developed not only because of the increasing learning population but also the status of English as a global language. More English second language learners come to America and enroll in classes to acquire English. The data from the National Clearinghouse for English language Acquisition (2002) showed that the English language learner population increased by 46% from 1999 to 2000. In the current decade, the population of English language learner students in the United States has rapidly increased and is expected to grow continuously (Karathanos, 2009, p. 615). Spinelli (2008) predicted that this population will become one fourth of the entire student population by 2025 (p. 101).

The ranges of English language learners basically cover all populations whose native languages are not English; however, the notion of it is ambiguous. *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) further defined English language learners as:

(a) is between the ages of 3 to 21 years; (b) has enrolled or is preparing to

enroll in elementary or secondary school; (c) was not born in the U.S. or

English is not a native language; (d) comes from a background in which

English has had a considerable impact on an individual's English

Language Proficiency; (e) comes from an environment where English is

not the primary language; and (f) has had difficulties in speaking, writing,

reading, or understanding the English language that may deny the

individual the ability to meet the state's proficient level of achievement

(NCLB, as cited in Wolf et al., 2008; Fishkin, 2010, p. 14).

The definition provided by NCLB specifically outlines the characteristics of English second-language learners. Any individuals that fall into one of these categories are considered as English language learners (ELL).

From a sociological perspective, the meaning of the growing population of English second language (ESL) learners in the United States is that English is a necessary communicative tool on the global stage. However, one connotation of this growth is that program administrators and educators may encounter more challenges brought on by learners' various educational backgrounds, as well as by their diverse beliefs. Under these circumstances, educators are expected to acts as a 'bridge' between students, their family, and administrators (Osterling & Fox, 2004, p. 501). The responsibility of ESL teachers is not simply teaching courses as American teachers'. The duties of ESL teachers involve multiple dimensions, including how to eliminate cultural discrepancy, reduce language barriers, and narrow educational background discrepancies.

Studies on English second language (ESL) learning issues indicated that the factors that influence ESL achievement are sometimes teachers' own bias, language barriers, and the lack of external support. Studies by Schalge and Soga (2008) showed that ESL teachers ignored class evaluation from students and did not realize that ESL students were self-directed (p. 154). Certain ESL teachers do not take their students' feedback into account, nor believe their students understand what they need. These situations usually block the communication and decrease students' achievement.

Besides teachers' bias towards second-language (L2) students, the lack of content knowledge and the shortage of resources are also problems in English second language (ESL) classroom. Cho and Reich (2008) reported that ESL teachers faced difficulties in instruction processes due to students' insufficient content knowledge and deficient

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language abilities; they also mentioned that time, educational resources and school support were other challenges (pp. 237-238). In English as second language classrooms, teachers often encounter more difficulties and challenges than in any other type of classroom.

English second language (ESL) learners' different cultural and educational backgrounds challenged not only teachers but also themselves. Meyer (2000) stated that for ESL learners, the knowledge they possess might not be valued and evaluated as it would be in American classes; in addition, their knowledge might not be helpful when they acquire abstract rules (p. 230). Studies indicated that even though ESL students possess required abilities to enter universities or colleges, many of them still have difficulties in achieving their course requirements (Birell, 2006; Bretag, 2007; Pantelides, 1999; Baik & Greig, 2009, p. 401). Nowadays, ESLs are struggling with the insufficient content knowledge and language abilities, yet, there is still no efficient instruction or materials to solve this problem.

For English second language (ESL) adult learners from non-Western countries, studies indicated that there is still a discrepancy between current American educational pedagogy and the expectations of adult learners (Collignon, 1994; Fingeret, 1991; Rossi-Le, 1995; Sparks, 2002; Schalge & Soga, 2008, p. 158). ESL adult learners who are from various backgrounds might want particular assistance and specific teaching aids to enhance their learning. Cho and Reich (2008) indicated that ESL teachers reported that they need to have more cultural training to meet learners' diverse needs (p. 238). To address these situations, policymakers and educational administrators need to add more classes regarding cultural issues to second-language (L2) teacher education to solve problems in L2 classrooms.

In the past decade, more research on English second language (ESL) instruction began to provide recommendations to teachers that could possibly improve their teaching quality. Calderon et al. (2011) suggested that it is important for teachers to show respect for students' own cultures and native languages (p. 110). Fishkin (2010) stated that ESL teachers should integrate students' cultures into classes as well as have high expectations and parental involvement during teaching processes (p. 19). Larotta (2007) recommended that ESL teachers should design their classes as more student-centered and open conversation (p. 28). To be an efficient ESL teacher, educators need to be more open-minded to accept diverse feedback from their students as well as to better understand possible influences caused by learners' different cultural backgrounds. That way, second-language (L2) achievement will increase and L2 learners' experiences will be colorful.

Distinguishable Differences between the English and Chinese Languages

The United States is called a 'melting pot', which represents that American cultures and populations are diverse. According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (2000), the Asian population reached 11.6 million in America, which made up 4% of the entire population; furthermore, 3.8 million of them are living in California (Sheets & Chew, 2002, p. 2). With this huge population, the Chinese language is progressively becoming one of the main languages in the United States. The Modern Language Association (2004) indicated that enrollment in Chinese language course at the college level grew 20% between 1998 and 2002 in the United States (Welles, 2004; Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 211). The demand for learning the Chinese language becomes higher than before. However, limited research is conducted to explore issues about learning an Asian language, such as the Chinese and the Japanese as a second language (Rueda & Chen, 2005, p. 210).

In comparison with learning the English language, learning the Chinese language in the United States usually starts with reading an alphabetic script (called the pinyin system), following by learning Chinese characters (McGinnis, 1997; Everson, 1998; Zhang, 1992; Chung, 2003, p. 210). An first-language (L1) speaker of English might have more difficulties in learning the Chinese language compared to an L1 speaker of Chinese learning English as a second language due to the differences in language structure. According to Yin (1990), a pinyin scholar, Chinese contains 1300 syllables and 5000 Hanzi (characters) that are often used, and thereby one syllable typically uses for 4 Hanzi; some of these syllables are used for up 40 Hanzi (Bassetti, 2009, p. 760). In other words, Hanzi and syllables do not have a one-to-one match, which is quite different from English.

Current studies indicated that there are four major differences between the English and Chinese languages. The first difference is the language content. Linguistics scholars indicated that "English is a subject-prominent language, and Mandarin Chinese is a topic-prominent language" (Huang, 1984a, 1984b; Li & Thompson, 1976; Yuan, 1995, p. 568). In Chinese, a sentence is formed by a topic, whereas in English a sentence is based on a subject. Consider the example sentence, "Famous countries in Asia, I only visited China". In Chinese, the main point of this sentence is the visited country, which represents the topic of the sentence. In English, this sentence would be "I only visited China, of all the famous countries in Asia". This sentence emphasizes the subject 'I'.

The second difference between English and Chinese is the writing system. According to Bassetti (2009; International Organization for Standardization, 1991):

English is written with orthographic words separated by spacing, whereas

Chinese is written in hanzi (Chinese characters). Hanzi are self-contained

units composed of variable number of strokes and inscribed within a

square area. Each Hanzi represents a monosyllabic morpheme, that is, the

hanzi maps onto language at the morpheme level and onto spoken

language at the syllable level. Pinyin is conventionally written with

syllables grouped in orthographic words separated by spacing (p. 758).

Overall, Hanzi and Pinyin are two components in the Chinese writing system. Hanzi represents the meaning of words, and Pinyin represents the pronunciation of words. Although phonetics is used in the Chinese language, Chinese characters are not encoded phonetically as English words are (Ho, 2003; Ho & Bryant, 1997a; Harrison & Krol, 2007, p. 380). Unlike English words, each character in Chinese cannot be identified in terms of its phonetic components, and therefore syllabic tone (there are four tones used in Chinese) is used to differentiate the meaning of syllables (Ho & Bryant, 1997b; Harrison & Krol, 2007, p. 380).

The third difference between English and Chinese is the usage of the plural morpheme. In English, the plural morphemes such as 's', 'es', and 'ies' are used to present the concept of plurality; however, this usage is rare in Chinese (Jiang, 2007, p. 20). The fourth difference between English and Chinese is the nature of words. The Chinese blog writer Yi (2006) stated that the most obviously different between English and Chinese is that Chinese words are more praise and derision oriented and fewer 'neutral' words compared to English (Sorby, 2008, p. 23). In the Chinese language, speakers and context are both involved in determining a word's meaning for listeners. Nevertheless, in English, speakers tend to choose specific vocabulary to express their emotion in particular scenarios, which makes a word's meaning more distinguishable.

These differences in linguistic structure between the English and Chinese languages can create various difficulties for second-language (L2) learners and lead them to have different expectations of language achievement. However, contemporary research on L2 issues on Chinese second language learners is still limited. In addition, studies conducted in comparing and contrasting an individual's characteristics between these two L2 leaner groups are rare. In terms of this background, this study will explore how individuals' features such as age, anxiety, gender, culture, and prior experiences influence L2 learners' expectations of achievement, particularly between those learning English as second language learners and those learning Chinese as a second language. The findings of this study will be utilized as references for current L2 educators, policymakers, educational administrators and all other interested parties.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the methodological framework for the study. This study used a quantitative research method to analyze the data. Different from qualitative research methods, quantitative methods depict and interpret data through numeric explanations and statistical models. The researcher used a quantitative research method called descriptive research to design the study. Statistically, the study utilized logistic regression, factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), and χ^2 test to analyze the data. Furthermore, the software used to analyze the data was the 19th version of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Through this quantitative design, the researcher seeks to have a greater degree of generalization and a lower degree of research bias.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between foreign language anxiety (FLA) level and the achievement expectations of English as a Second Language (ESL) and Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) adult learners. Secondly, this study addressed the extent to which the cultural differences among the ESL and CSL adult learners might influence foreign language anxiety levels, achievement expectations,

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and learning motivational factors. Therefore, the following four research questions

directed this study:

1.   To what extent do foreign language anxiety levels, gender, and second-
        language language learning type predict second- language achievement
        expectations?

2.   Does foreign language anxiety level differ between Chinese second-
        language and English second-language adult learners according to
        gender?

3.   To what extent do achievement expectations differ between Chinese
        second-language and English second-language adult learners?

4.   To what extent do motivational factors differ between Chinese second-
        language and English second-language adult learners?

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). The researcher has been granted the

permission from Dr. Elaine K Horwitz using the survey and attached the permission

email in the appendices.   The purpose of the FLCAS is to evaluate the degree of

students' anxiety levels in foreign language classrooms. The FLCAS is a 33-item, 5-point

Likert-type questionnaire, with responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly

disagree". In terms of the content, the 33 items are designed to ask students' feelings of

anxiety directly and indirectly. For example, the ninth question is "I start to panic when I

have to speak without preparation in language class," and the sixteenth question is "Even

if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it." Students can clearly tell

that the purpose of these two questions is to understand their anxiety levels in their foreign language classrooms.

Conversely, the fifth question is "It would not bother me at all to take more foreign language classes," and the twenty-eighth question is "When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed." Students might not realize that the purpose of these two questions is to understand their anxiety levels. These types of questions may decrease the probability of having the 'response bias' problem.

This scale has evidence of reliability and validity scores. Its internal reliability yielded an alpha coefficient of .93, and the test-retest reliability over eight weeks achieved coefficient of .83 among seventy eight students taking undergraduate foreign language classes (Horwitz, 1991; Horwitz, et al., 1986, p. 129). The current studies, including Aida (1994), and Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999), also reported that the FLCAS has stable reliability. In Adia's (1994) study, 96 Japanese students were surveyed in a second-year Japanese course, yielding an alpha coefficient of .94 (p. 158). In the study conducted by Saito et al. (1999), 383 American students were surveyed in French, Japanese, and Russian courses, reporting an alpha coefficient of .86 (p. 204).

In relation to the validity, Horwitz (1991) provided evidence of the validity of this scale's score through significant correlations with the trait scale, which was measured by Spielberger's (1983) Trait Scale of The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory ($r = .29$), and through correlations with test anxiety which was measured by Sarason's (1978) Test Anxiety Scale ($r = .53$).

Data Collection

　　Research sites. The research sites for this study were at two four-year universities located in urban districts, Cleveland State University and Ohio State University, and one four-year, non-urban university, Ashland University in Ohio. The Cleveland State University contains three campus locations and has eight colleges that offer approximately 200 academic programs. The degrees offered at this university include undergraduate, graduate and doctoral degrees. In 2011, it was selected as one of American's best colleges by *U.S. News & World Report*. There are over 17,000 students currently enrolled at this university, of which approximately 5,000 are graduate students (nearly one third of the student population). Over 800 international students from 80 different counties are enrolled in diverse programs at different academic levels. The majority of the international student populations are Indian, Chinese, Taiwanese, and Korean students. Overall, the student population is numerous and diverse at this university.

　　The Ohio State University, is considered as one of America's Public Ivy universities, was founded in 1870. The main campus is located in downtown Columbus. The degrees offered at Ohio State University are undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral degrees. There are over 64,000 students enrolled at this university, of which approximate 50,000 are undergraduate students, and 14, 000 graduate students. It was ranked as the 55th university in America by *US News & World Report*; internationally, it was ranked as the 111th university in the world by *QS World University Rankings* in 2011. In addition, the diversity of student socio-economic backgrounds at Ohio State University reaches a significant level; 22.7% of freshmen are the first generation college students in 2007, which obviously exceeded 15.9% of the national norm on American campus. Overall, the

backgrounds of students at Ohio State University are as diverse as those at Cleveland State University.

Ashland University, a non-urban and mid-sized university, was founded in 1878. The main campus is located in Ashland, Ohio, which offers undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral degrees. There are approximately 6,500 students, with 2,100 undergraduate students. Among these students, over 50% students are currently enrolled in graduate programs, and 76% of students are from Ohio. Ashland University had been placed in the National University level institutions by *US News & World Report* in 2012.

Samples. There were two groups of participants in this study: English second language (ESL) learners and Chinese second language learners (CSL). The participants were above age eighteen for both genders. They were enrolled in the language programs at these three universities either with the intention of improving their second language abilities, or for meeting their degree requirements. In addition, each participant's academic background in second language learning was different to one other's. Some took certain foreign language classes in high school, whereas others had only limited experience learning foreign languages. The participants in this study possessed a great variety of experiences with second language learning.

The Background of English Second Language (ESL) Participants

One of the participant groups in this study were those students who were enrolled in the Intensive English Language Programs (IELP) offered a continuing education program. They were either international students or local immigrants. They had various personal characteristics, different learning preferences, and diverse expectations of how proficient they would become. The shared background of these learners was that their

primary languages were not English. The purpose of enrollment in these programs for them was to strengthen their English abilities and to better prepare them for academia.

Language proficiency at these two universities, Cleveland State University and Ashland University, is considered one of the necessary abilities for applicants. When English second-language (ESL) students apply to study at these two universities, they are asked to submit their TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) scores. The requirements of TOEFL scores vary based on degrees. For example, ESL students need to have TOEFL scores above 79-80 (Internet-Based test) in order to take Master's degrees; TOEFL scores above 61 are required to study at the undergraduate level. When ESL students fail to meet the required standard, they are asked to enroll in the IELP program.

The IELP programs at Cleveland State University and Ashland University have four levels: beginner, intermediate, intermediate-advanced, and advanced. All levels contain reading, listening and writing classes. ESL students are given a placement examination, created by the universities, before they register for the programs. ESL students are then placed at different levels based on the placement examinations scores they receive. After they successfully complete language coursework, required by the degree programs in which they plan to enroll, they are able to begin their studies at the universities. The ESL participants in this study included all students enrolled in intermediate, intermediate-advanced, and advanced levels in the IELP programs. The ESL participants were previously educated under non-Western educational systems, and English was their second language.

The Background of Chinese Second Language (CSL) Participants

Chinese second-language (CSL) is a new term used in the educational field in comparison with the term, English second language (ESL), particularly in the adult education field. Scholars have been discussing whether Chinese second-language is a term that precisely describes the notion of Chinese second language learning, but they have not had one specific conclusion. After reviewing existing linguistic literature and educational studies, the researcher has decided to use, Chinese second language, as a term in this study due to keeping linguistic consistency and comparing its meaning to English second language.

Students who are currently enrolled in the Chinese language classes at Cleveland State University and Ohio State University are another group of participants. These students speak English and are undergraduates. The reason for enrolling is either to meet the foreign language requirements required by the university or to enhance their second language abilities.

These CSL participants and the ESL participants learn their second language under the context that language ability is one requirement of their study: the Chinese second-language students have to pass the Chinese language class to meet their program requirement, and the English second-language students need to pass the Intensive English Language Program (IELP) to be qualified to enroll in either undergraduate or masters program. All undergraduate students at Cleveland State University who graduated from high school in 1987 or after are expected to have finished two years of foreign language classes in high school. Students who fail to meet this standard will be asked to complete a first-year foreign language sequence course. They have various second language choices, such as Chinese, Japanese, German, Spanish, and French. After they decide to take one of

these languages, they need to talk to their advisors or to faculty in the Modern Language Department to determine their abilities in the target language. They are then placed in foreign language classes based on their abilities in that language. Students are required to complete this coursework before they complete 60 credits at Cleveland State University. However, some CSL students at Cleveland State University were motivated to take Chinese language classes by personal interests.

In comparison with the CSL students at Cleveland State University, the CSL students at Ohio State University have more reasons for taking Chinese language classes. Some of the reasons are as follows: majoring in Chinese language, meeting program requirements, desiring to improve language skills, and preparing for the future. The Chinese language program at Ohio State University basically includes four levels: beginner, intermediate, intermediate-advanced, and advanced. Materials in every level are interrelated, and the difficulty level is progressively increasing. The goal of the Chinese language classes at Ohio State University is to increase proficiency in speaking the Chinese language and enhance the familiarity with the Chinese history. Students are encouraged to read the materials prior to classes and are motivated to interact with instructors during class. "Speaking the Chinese language is considered to be an art perform at Ohio State University" (Minru Li, personal communication, April 10, 2012).

This study included CSL students who are currently enrolled in all levels of Chinese language classes at these two universities. Broadly speaking, these CSL participants have more similarities than the ESL participants. Linguistically, they have similar linguistic knowledge of Chinese and have a shared primary language (English). Academically, they are educated under a Western educational system. Culturally, they represent the dominant culture, American culture, in classroom settings. However, they

possess different expectations and different personal experiences with the Chinese

language. Some of them have traveled to China and plan to work in China after they

graduate, whereas others know Chinese cultures only from newspapers or the media.

Overall, the CSL participants have diverse experiences and expectations with respect to

Chinese language learning.

Institutional review board. Before beginning this study, the researcher

submitted an IRB (Institutional Review Board) form to the IRB committee at Cleveland

State University, describing this research and asking permission to survey the ESL and

CSL students at these three universities. Please note that the dissertation title has been

changed slightly after receiving the IRB approval. However, the overall purpose of the

study did not change. The intention of the title change was due to the type of data

received with respect to the analysis conducted.

After receiving permission from the IRB committee at Cleveland State University,

the researcher had verbal contact with the director of the IELP program as well as the

director of the Modern Language department prior to meeting them in person at

Cleveland State University. The intention of this contact was to briefly introduce the

researcher herself, to make an appointment to further explain the content and purpose of

this study, and ask permission to conduct this study in classes. This process had been

repeated to ask for permission from instructors of both ESL and CSL classes.

Meanwhile, the researcher emailed the director of Chinese second-language

program at Ohio State University as well as the director of English second-language

program at Ashland University so as to obtain permission to survey students in their

programs. After having permission from these two program directors, the researcher

further asked a favor to these two directors to write a letter, along with their signatures,

stating that this research at their programs had been approved. The letters from these two

directors were submitted to the IRB (Institutional Review Board) committee at Cleveland

State University prior to the research being conducted in these two programs.

Having been permitted to enter classes at Cleveland State University, the

researcher and the ESL and CSL instructors then discussed the appropriate date for

surveying students. ESL and CSL students had been informed of this study by their

instructors. On the day of conducting the research, the researcher again explained the

purpose of the study and the content of the survey to ESL and CSL participants face-to-

face. Students retained the right to decide whether or not to participate in this study. Both

groups of participants had the same instruction regarding the survey, and both were given

the same amount of time to complete it.

Moreover, the researcher discussed the survey date with the Chinese second-

language program director at Ohio State University as well as the English second-

language program director at Ashland University through emails. In consideration of the

distance, the director at Ohio State University kindly scheduled one day for the researcher

to conduct the study in all levels and announced this research to all instructors hoping

have assistance in surveying Chinese second-language students in their classes. Besides,

the director at Ashland University kindly scheduled two days for the researcher to

conduct the study so as to have a higher participation level. The research at Ohio State

University and Ashland State University was successfully conducted due to the assistance

provided by these two directors.

Research design. This study followed a quantitative research method called

descriptive research. In this study, there were five variables: anxiety levels, gender,

motivational factors, the second language learning type, and achievement expectations

towards second language learning. From among these five variables, anxiety levels, gender, and the second language learning type were used as independent variables to determine the degree to which they influence second language (L2) learners' achievement expectations. In addition, anxiety levels, gender, motivational factors, and achievement expectations were used as independent variables to examine differences between ESL and CSL students.

Data analysis. This study used descriptive statistics, logistic regression, a factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), and a χ^2 test to analyze the data. The descriptive statistics in this study included frequencies and means. Frequencies were used to outline the total number of English second-language (ESL) and Chinese second-language (CSL) students at each university, as well as the totals for gender, home country, and native language. Mean scores were used to describe the average age and the average number of foreign language classes taken in high school.

The second statistical method used in this study was logistic regression. Logistic regression is used in research which contains discrete dependent variables. According to Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), logistic regression is used when researchers are interested in predicting and explaining a binary (two-group) categorical variable. In this study, the researcher attempted to understand to what extent anxiety levels, gender, and language learning types predict English and Chinese second-language students' achievement expectations. Among these independent variables, the anxiety level variable was continuous, whereas the gender variable and second-language learning types were discrete variables. In addition, the dependent variable, second-language achievement expectation, was also discrete, which made logistic regression an appropriate statistical method.

When utilizing logistic regression, the gender variable was dummy coded as "1" for "female", and "0" for "male"; the language learning type variable was dummy coded as "1" for "learning Chinese as a second language", and "0" for "learning English as a second language". The dependent variable, achievement expectations in English or Chinese second language classes, was dummy coded as "1" for "pass" for students whose expectation scores were above 91, and "0" for "fail" for those whose expectation scores were below 90.

A logistic regression was run to analyze the data, of which the dependent variable (Y) was Chinese and English second-language learners' achievement expectations, as predicted by the independent variables (X) of anxiety level, gender, and second-language learning type.

Another statistical method used in this study was a factorial ANOVA. According to Howell (2007), a factorial ANOVA is used when there are two or more independent variables in the study, and the researcher is interested in investigating interactions among the variables (p. 392). In contrast with logistic regression, the dependent variable in the ANOVA model has to be continuous. In this study, the ANOVA model was used to examine the extent to which foreign language anxiety levels, a continuous variable, differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language students according to gender.

The last statistical method used in this study was a χ^2 test. A χ^2 test is used when the independent and dependent variables are both discrete. In this study, a χ^2 test was used to determine the extent to which Chinese second-language and English second-language students' achievement expectations differ. In addition, χ^2 was also utilized to

examine the extent to which motivational factors differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language students.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The aims of this study were to examine the extent to which foreign language anxiety (FLA) levels, gender, and second-language learning type predicted achievement expectations of English second-language (ESL) and Chinese second-language (CSL) adult learners. In addition, this study determined whether or not foreign language anxiety levels, achievement expectations, and motivational factors differed between Chinese second-language and English second-language adult learners.

This chapter depicted findings using quantitative research methods, including descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. In the descriptive statistics section, the participants' demographic information, such as the number of Chinese and English second-language learners at each university, and totals for gender, home country and native languages were provided. The descriptive statistics also described the mean age and the average number of foreign language classes each participant group had taken in high school. In the inferential statistics section, the research questions of this study were interpreted utilizing logistic regression, factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), and a χ^2 test on the Statistical Package of Science and Sociology (SPSS) software.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were provided in Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 below, presenting

the participants' demographic information in these two second-language learning groups,

with the maximum, the minimum, mean, and standard deviation (SD). Table 1 refers to

the number of students at each university in each second-language learning group. This

study was conducted at Cleveland State University, The Ohio State University, and

Ashland University with a sample size of 229 students. Among these 229 students, 83

were English second-language students, with 65 students from Cleveland State

University and 18 students from Ashland University; 146 were Chinese second-language

students, with 120 from The Ohio State University and 26 from Cleveland State

University.

Table 1

Number of Students at Each University

Place	Language Learning Type	Participant n
Cleveland State University	English Second-Language	65
	Chinese Second Language	26
Ohio State University	Chinese Second-Language	120
Ashland University	English Second-Language	18
Total Participants	English Second-Language	83
	Chinese Second-Language	146

Table 2 refers to the totals by gender in Chinese and English second-language

learning groups. Among these 229 students, 132 were male students and 97 were female

students; the gender ratio was 1.36:1. In addition, within these two second-language

learning groups, 53 male and 30 female students were learning English as their second language, which made the ESL gender ratio 1.76:1. In the Chinese second-language student group, 79 were male students, and 67 students were females; the gender ratio in this group was 1.12:1. This result revealed that male students were in the majority among those leaning English or Chinese as a second language at these three universities.

Table 2

Totals by Gender in Each Language Learning Group

Language Learning Type	Gender	Participant n
English Second-Language	Male	53
	Female	30
Chinese Second-Language	Male	79
	Female	67
Total Participants	Male	132
	Female	97

Table 3 refers to students' home country and native language in each second-language learning group. The 83 English second-language students in this study were all from non-Western countries. The majority of these English second-language students were from Saudi Arabia, China, Korea, and Japan. Among these English second-language students, 61 out of 83 students were from Saudi Arabia, which made up about three-fourths of the entire English second-language students. In addition, the most common native language of these students was Arabic followed by Chinese, Korean, and Japanese.

In comparison with the English second-language students, the Chinese second-language student were from both Western and non-Western countries. Among the 146 Chinese second-language students, 8 students were from non-Western countries, including Japan, Korea, and Vietnam; their main native languages were Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese. 134 students were from Western countries, such as the United States, Brazil, and so on. Overall, the major native language of these Chinese second-language students was English.

Table 3

Students' Home Country and Native Language in Each Language Learning Group

Language Learning Type	Home Country	Native Language	Participant *n*
English Second-Language	Saudi Arabia	Arabic	61
	China	Chinese	13
	Korea	Korean	3
	Japan	Japanese	2
	Other		4
Chinese Second-Language	The United States	English	134
	Brazil	Spanish/Portuguese	4
	Japan	Japanese	3
	Other		5

Table 4 refers the average age in Chinese and English second-language learning groups. In these two second-language groups, the Chinese second-language students were

on average younger than the English second-language students, with an average age of 23.4 years, compared to the mean age of 24.4 years for English second-language students.

The age difference in the Chinese second-language group was much more than the English second-language group, with a standard deviation of 10.33. The youngest learner was 16 years old and the oldest learner was 69 years old in the Chinese second-language group, whereas the youngest learner was 17 years old and the oldest learner was only 48 years old in the English second-language group. This result not only indicated that there was a larger age range in the Chinese-second language group but also connoted the divergent perspectives towards learning between non-Western and Western learners.

Table 4

The Average Age of Each Language Learning Group

Language Learning Type	*N*	Mean	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
English Second-Language	83	24.44	5.36	17.00	48.00
Chinese Second-Language	144	23.40	10.33	16.00	69.00
Total	227	23.78	8.85	16.00	69.00

Table 5 refers to the average number of foreign language classes Chinese and English second-language students had taken in high school. These Chinese second-language students had taken more foreign language classes in high school, with a maximum number of 15 and with a mean of 2.7 classes. By comparison, the mean number of foreign language classes taken in the English second-language group was 1.8 classes, which was less than the Chinese second-language students. The difference in the number of foreign language classes taken in high school between Chinese second-language and English second-language students revealed that the different educational

systems, Western and non-Western, had different emphasis towards second-language learning.

Table 5

The Average Number of Foreign Language Classes Taken in High School

Language Learning Type	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
English Second-Language	79	1.79	2.18	0.00	15.00
Chinese Second-Language	145	2.67	1.70	0.00	11.00
Total	224	2.36	1.93	0.00	15.00

Inferential Statistics

In this section, the findings of each research question were interpreted through the techniques of logistic regression, factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), and χ^2 using the 19th version of Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS). The application of each statistical method was based on the characteristics of independent variables and dependent variables in each research question.

Research question 1:

To what extent do foreign language anxiety, gender, and second-language learning type predict second- language achievement expectations?

This research question was examined by logistic regression, for which the gender variable was dummy coded as "1" for "female", and "0" for "male", and the language learning type variable was dummy coded as "1" for "learning Chinese as a second language", and "0" for "learning English as a second language". The dependent variable, achievement expectations in English or Chinese second language classes, was dummy

coded as "1" for "pass" for students whose expectation scores were above 91, and "0" for "fail" for those whose expectation scores were below 90.

Table 6 refers to the pass and failure percentages that were predicted by foreign language anxiety, gender, and second-language learning type. Thirty-two out of 74 students who failed the second-language classes were correctly classified, and 128 out of 151 students who passed the second language were correctly classified. In other words, 43.2% of students who failed and 84.8% of those who passed were correctly classified when foreign language anxiety, gender, and second-language learning type were the independent variables predicting the dependent variable, second-language achievement expectations.

Table 6

The Achievement Expectations Predicted by Foreign Language Anxiety, Gender, and Second-Language Learning Type

| | | Predicted | | |
| | | Grade | | |
Observed		fail	Pass	Percentage Correct
Grade fail		32	42	43.2
pass		23	128	84.8
Overall Percentage				71.1

Table 7 shows the result of the achievement expectations that were predicted by foreign language anxiety, gender, and second-language learning type. Every one unit increase in foreign language anxiety level was associated with a 6% increase in the expectation of passing in foreign-language classes (B = .059, *Exp (B)* = 1.061). This

finding was statistically significant ($p <. 05$). This result indicated that the more anxious a student felt, the more likely they would think they would pass.

In addition, for being a female student was associated with an 89% increase in the expectation of passing in foreign- language classes (B = .640, *Exp (B)* = 1.897), and this finding reached a statistically significant level ($p < .05$). In relation to second-language learning type, learning Chinese as a second language was associated with a 72% decrease in the expectation of passing in foreign language classes(B = -.1263, *Exp (B)* = .283), and this finding yielded a statistically significant level ($p<.05$).

Table 7

The Achievement Expectations Predicted by Foreign Language Anxiety, Gender, and Second-Language Learning Type (N=225)

	B	*Exp (B)*	S.E.	df	p
Anxiety levels	.059	1.061	.015	1	.001
Gender	.640	1.897	.324	1	.048
Second-Language Learning Type	-1.263	.283	.314	1	.001

Research question 2:

Does the foreign language anxiety level differ between Chinese second-

language and English second-language adult learners according to

gender?

This research question was examined by 2x2 Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), for which second-language learning type, Chinese or English, and gender, male or female, were independent variables; foreign language anxiety level was the

dependent variable. On SPSS, the second-language leaning type variable was dummy coded as "1" for "learning Chinese as a second language" and "0" for "learning English as second language"; the gender variable was dummy coded as "1" for "female" and "0" for "male". The following tables and figure from SPSS illustrated the main effects and the interactions of the two independent variables. Table 8 shows descriptive statistics for factorial ANOVA. 83 students were learning English as a second language, and 146 students were learning Chinese as a second language. In addition, 132 students were male and 97 students were female.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Factorial ANOVA (N=229)

Subject	Dummy Coding	Value Label	Participant n
Language learning Type	0	English Second-language	83
	1	Chinese Second-Language	146
Gender	0	Male	132
	1	Female	97

Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics for dependent variable, namely anxiety levels. Female students who were learning English as a second language had higher anxiety levels (M = 43.70) than male students learning English (M = 43.33). However, male students who were Chinese second-language learners had higher anxiety levels (M = 48.21) than female students learning Chinese (M = 44.76). Overall, male second-language students had higher anxiety levels (M = 46.25) than female second-language students (M = 44.43) in these two second-language groups.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable: Anxiety Levels

Language Learning Type	Gender	Mean	Participant *n*
English Second-Language	Male	43.33	53
	Female	43.70	30
Chinese Second-Language	Male	48.21	79
	Female	44.76	67
Total	Male	46.25	132
	Female	44.43	97
	Total	45.48	229

Table 10 is the factorial ANOVA for dependent variable, namely anxiety levels. There were no significant differences in foreign language anxiety levels according to second-language learning type [F (1,225) = 3.597, p = .059] and gender [F (1,225) = .977, p = .324]. In addition, there was no statistically significant interaction between second-language learning type and gender [F (1,225) = 1.485, p = .224] in relation to foreign language anxiety levels.

Table 10

Factorial ANOVA for Dependent Variable: Anxiety Levels (N=229)

Source	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Language Type	441.75	1	441.75	3.597	.059
Gender	119.95	1	119.95	.977	.324
Language Type*Gender	182.39	1	182.39	1.485	.224
Error	27631.708	225			
Total	502364.000	229			

Second-Language Learning Type= Chinese and English Second-Language

According to the Figure 1 below, male Chinese second-language students had higher anxiety levels than female students who were learning Chinese as a second language. Nevertheless, female English second-language students had higher anxiety levels than male students learning English as their second language. Overall, male students possessed higher anxiety levels than female students in these two second-language groups. However, these results did not reach a statistically significant level.
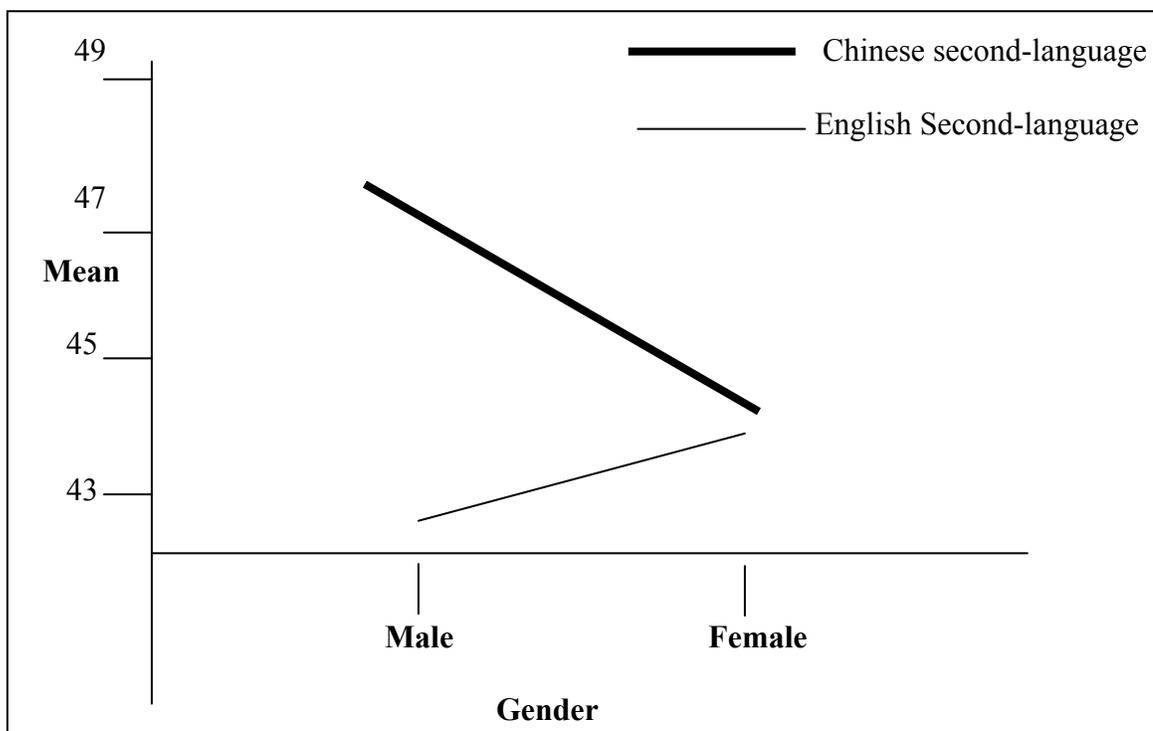
Figure 1. Estimated Marginal Means for Anxiety Levels

Research question 3:

To what extent do achievement expectations differ between Chinese

second-language and English second-language adult learners?

This research question was examined by a χ^2 test, for which second-language

learning type, either Chinese or English second-language, were placed in the column,

and the achievement expectations were placed in the row.

Table 11 shows the Chi-Square test for achievement expectations between

Chinese and English second-language adult learners. There was a statistically significant

difference between achievement expectations and second-language learning type [χ^2

$(1,225) = 22.342$, $p = .001$]. In other words, the achievement expectations of Chinese

second-language learners were different than those of English second-language learners

and this difference yielded at a statistically significant level.

Table 11

Chi-Square Test for Achievement Expectations between Chinese and English second-language Adult Learners

	N	χ^2	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	225	22.342	1	.001

Research question 4:

To what extent do motivational factors differ between Chinese second-language and English second-language adult learners?

A χ^2 test was performed on the data to examine the extent to which six motivational factors differ between Chinese and English second-language adult learners. Second-language learning type, either Chinese or English second-language, was placed in the column, and the motivational factors were placed in the row. In addition, learners' responses were categorized as follows: 1-2 represented "least likely", 3 stood for "neutral", and 4-5 represented "most likely". The six motivational factors' differences were presented in Table 12-23.

The results of the data displayed in Table 12 showed that 64 out of 142 (approximately 45.1%) of the Chinese second-language students surveyed in this study stated they were least likely to study Chinese as a second language due to diploma/degree requirements. Nevertheless, 61 out of 82 (about 74.4 %) of the English second-language students were neutral when it came to answering the question as to whether they were learning English as a second language due to diploma/degree requirements. Overall, English second-language students (74.4%) in this study were more neutral than Chinese second-language students (38.7%) in responding this question.

Table 13 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "diploma or degree requirement".

Table 12

Motivational Differences: Diploma or Degree Requirement (N=224)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=142		*n=82*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	23	16.2	12	14.6
Neutral	55	38.7	61	74.4
Least Likely	64	45.1	9	11.0

L2=Second Language

Table 13

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Difference: Diploma or Degree Requirement

	N	χ^2	*df*	**Asymp. Sig (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	224	31.386	1	.001

The results of the data displayed in Table 14 showed that 53 out of 142 (approximately 37.3%) of the Chinese second-language students surveyed stated they were least likely to learn Chinese as a second language due to training for a new job. Nevertheless, 43 out of 81 (53.1%) of the students gave a neutral response when it came to answering the question as to whether they were learning English as a second language for professional reasons. Overall, the English second-language students were more

neutral (53.1%) than the Chinese second-language students (35.2%) when answering this question. Table 15 showed that there was a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "training for a new job".

Table 14

Motivational Differences: Train for A New Job (N=223)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=142		*n=81*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	39	27.5	18	22.2
Neutral	50	35.2	43	53.1
Least Likely	53	37.3	20	24.7
L2=Second Language				

Table 15

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Differences: Training for A New Job

	N	χ^2	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	223	7.021	1	.030

The results of the data displayed in Table 16 showed that 121 out of 142 (approximately 85.2%) of the Chinese second-language students and 68 out of 83 (81.9%) English second-language students surveyed were neutral when it came to answering the question as to learning Chinese or English as a second language for the purpose of language skill improvement. In other words, Chinese and English second-

language students held similar perspectives towards this question. Table 17 shows that there was not a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "language skill improvement".

Table 16

Motivational Differences: Language Skill Improvement (N=225)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=142		*n=83*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	11	7.7	11	13.3
Neutral	121	85.2	68	81.9
Least Likely	10	7.0	4	4.8
L2=Second Language				

Table 17

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Differences: Language Skill Improvement

	N	χ^2	*df*	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	225	2.108	1	.349

The results of the data displayed in Table 18 showed that 77 out of 143 (approximately 53.8%) of the Chinese second-language students and 52 out of 80 (about 65.5%) of the English second-language students surveyed were neutral when it came to answering the question as to whether they were learning Chinese or English as a second language to advance at an existing job. Chinese and English second-language students

held similar perspectives towards this question. Table 19 shows that there was not a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "improving or advancing in job".

Table 18

Motivational Differences: Improve or Advance in Job (N=223)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=143		*n=80*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	25	17.5	16	20.0
Neutral	77	53.8	52	65.5
Least Likely	41	28.7	12	15.0

L2=Second Language

Table 19

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Differences: Improving or Advancing in Job

	N	χ^2	df	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	223	5.314	1	.070

The results of the data displayed in Table 20 showed that 60 out of 142 (about 42.3%) of the Chinese second-language students surveyed were neutral when it came to answering the question as to whether they were learning Chinese as a second language due to personal, family, or social reasons. Nevertheless, 32 out of 83 (approximately 38.6%) of the students stated that they were least likely to learn English as a second language due to personal, family, or social reasons.

In addition, the percentage of the Chinese second-language students who were least likely to learn Chinese for these reasons were similar to that of English second-language students. The result indicated that personal, family, or social reasons were the least likely possible factor that motivated either Chinese or English second-language students to learn a second-language. Table 21 below shows that there was not a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "personal, family, or social reasons".

Table 20

Motivational Differences: Personal, Family, or Social Reasons (N=225)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=142		*n=83*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	27	19.0	20	24.1
Neutral	60	42.3	31	37.3
Least Likely	55	38.7	32	38.6
L2=Second Language				

Table 21

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Differences: Personal, Family, or Social Reasons

	N	χ^2	*df*	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	225	.960	1	.619

The results of the data displayed in Table 22 showed that 105 out of 138 (approximately 76.1%) of the students surveyed stated they were least likely to learn

Chinese as a second language due to a need to communicate in an English-speaking country. However, only 24 out of 82 (64.6%) of the students were neutral when it came to answering the question as to learning English as a second-language due to a need to communicate in an English-speaking country. Table 23 below shows that there was a statistically significant difference between Chinese second-language learners' and English second-language learners' responses to "communicating in an English speaking country".

Table 22

Motivational Differences: Communication in an English Speaking Country (N=220)

	Chinese L2		English L2	
	n=138		*n=82*	
	n	%	n	%
Most Likely	13	9.4	24	29.3
Neutral	20	14.5	53	64.6
Least Likely	105	76.1	5	6.1

L2=Second Language

Table 23

Chi-Square Test for Motivational Differences: Communicating in an English Speaking Country

	N	χ^2	*df*	Asymp. Sig (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	220	101.414	1	.001

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter depicted statistical and qualitative findings of this dissertation. In addition, it provides suggestions from literature as well as from current second-language instructors that can potentially improve second-language teaching efficacy, particularly Chinese and English second-language learners.

Statistical Findings

This dissertation focuses on interpreting how personal characteristics, such as gender, age, motivational factors, and foreign language anxiety levels influence the achievement expectations of Chinese second-language and English second-language students. The total sample size was 229, with 83 English second-language students and 146 Chinese second-language students from three universities. The findings were summarized as following:

1. Male students were in the majority of these two second-language groups. In comparison with English second-language students, Chinese second-language classes have more female students, and the gender ratio of male and female was 1.2:1, whereas the gender ratio of English second-language students was 1.76:1.

2. The ethnicity of Chinese second-language students was more homogenous than English second-language students. Among these Chinese second-language participants, 107 were Caucasians, 15 were African Americans, four were Latinos, and four were Asians. On the other hand, the ethnicity of English second-language students was more diverse, including Saudi Arabians, Asians, Latinos, Vietnam, and Thai students.

3. English was the major native language of Chinese second-language students, followed by Spanish, Portuguese, and Japanese. The mother languages of English second-language students were mainly Arabic, Chinese, Korean, and Japanese.

4. The age range of Chinese second-language students was from 16 to 69 years old, which covered more senior students than English second-language students, whose age ranged from 17 to 48.

5. The majority of Chinese second-language and English second-language students had taken at least one foreign language in their high school. However, Chinese second-language students took on average 2.7 foreign language classes in high school, which was much more than English second-language students' 1.8 classes.

6. The logistic regression indicated that 84.8% of those who passed in Chinese or English second-language classes were correctly classified when foreign language anxiety level, gender, and second-language learning type were the independent variables predicting second-language achievement expectations. Furthermore, every one unit increase in foreign language anxiety level was associated with a 6% increase in the

expectation of passing Chinese or English second-language classes; being a female student was associated with an 89% increase in the expectation of passing in Chinese or English second-language classes; learning Chinese as a second language was associated with a 72% decrease in the expectation of passing in Chinese or English second-language classes. These results all yielded a significant level.

7. The factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that female English second-language students had higher anxiety levels in comparison with male English second-language students. However, male Chinese second-language students were more anxious than female Chinese second-language students. Overall, male second-language students had higher anxiety levels than female second-language students in these two groups. In addition, the factorial ANOVA indicated that there were neither significant differences in foreign language anxiety levels according to language learning type, nor statistically significant interaction between language learning type and gender according to foreign language anxiety levels.

8. The χ^2 test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between students' achievement expectations and students' second-language learning type. In other words, there was a definite relationship between students' achievement expectations and students' second-language learning type.

9. Regarding the relationship between motivational factors and second-language learning type, the χ^2 tests indicated that there were statistically

significant differences between motivational factors, such as diploma or degree requirement training for a new job, a need of communicating in an English speaking country, and student' second-language learning type. In other words, there were marked relationships between these three variables and students' second-language learning type. Moreover, the χ^2 test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between students' motivational factors, such as language skill development, improving or advancing in job, personal, family, or social reasons, and students' second-language learning type. Moreover, these Chinese second-language students were mainly motivated to take Chinese-language classes due to a number of reasons: diploma or degree requirements, language skill improvement, job preparation, and to be able to communicate in Chinese speaking countries. In comparison, English second-language students were motivated to take English language classes only because of diploma and degree requirements and to able to communicate in English-speaking countries.

The findings above indicated that personal characteristics, such as gender, motivational factors, and anxiety levels play significant roles in Chinese second-language and English second-language students' learning processes. The extent to which these intervening factors affect these students' achievement expectations was also significant. Based on these quantitative findings, it is undeniable that students are more than just language-receivers; they are the ones who decide whether or not learning is successful.

Feedback from CSL and ESL Students

It is fortunate that the researcher had an opportunity to have informal conversations with Chinese second-language and English second-language students after collecting surveys from them. Some of their learning experiences and comments on their on-going Chinese and English classes are worthy to mention and can be used as references when instructors or program planners design second-language classes for either Chinese or English second-language students.

The feedback from CSL and ESL students in this research is of a great quantity and significant to second-language instruction, and was summarized as following:

A word from Chinese second language learners. The major concerns of Chinese second-language learners include three aspects: pronunciation and writing perplexity, Chinese language grammar confusion, and code-switching difficulty:

1. Pronunciation and writing perplexity: this perplexity occurs frequently at beginning levels. Many Chinese second-language students stated that the Chinese language impressed them most by its four intonations. Unlike in English vocabulary, different intonations represent different words and contain various meanings, which challenges students' existing linguistic knowledge. Moreover, the Chinese characters (Hanzi) are not written with orthographic words; instead, they are composed of a number of strokes that are written in particular steps. Overall, the pronunciation and the writing system tremendously differ from European language systems, which maked Chinese second-language students whose native languages are made up of alphabetic systems confront challenges.

2. Chinese language grammar confusion: confusion with respect to Chinese language grammar happens frequently to the intermediate Chinese second-language students who started learning how to produce Chinese sentences. Some students indicate that they can clearly tell the morphological features of words, such as verbs, adjectives, and adverbs according to English grammar. However, they are not able to tell the morphological features of words from the structures of words nor from Chinese sentences. Furthermore, the morphological features of certain Chinese words vary based on conversation context. Some Chinese second-language students struggle with identifying the morphological features of Chinese words and often question why certain words are adjectives in some sentences but are adverbs in other sentences. One Chinese second-language student said, "Chinese grammar for us is more complicated than English grammar, and it seems that there is no particular rule of it." (Personal conversation, 04, 2012). It is urgent to establish a well-organized Chinese language grammar instruction system to lower Chinese second-language students' confusion levels.

3. Code-switching difficulty: code-switching typically bothers the majority of Chinese second-language students who are at intermediate or advanced levels beginning to speak the Chinese language. Students whose native language is English were taught to start a sentence with a "subject", followed by a verb and the object. However, they need to begin a sentence with a "topic" when they speak Chinese. Certain students experience a hard time distinguishing topics from subjects in sentences and are not able

to produce correct Chinese sentences. This linguistic code-switching difficulty increases the hardship of learning the Chinese as a second-language, particularly when a learner's native language is English. Chinese second-language instruction needs to not only let students understand Chinese sentence structures but also help them make code-switching easier.

A word from English second language learners. In comparison with Chinese second-language students, the concerns of English second-language students were more about ESL teachers' instruction style and class content.

1.   Instruction style preference: certain English second-language students indicated that they cannot adjust themselves to their instructors' teaching styles. In classroom settings, the ESL instructors mainly focus on the class schedule and therefore, seldom provide English second-language learners with time to express their thoughts and concerns. The instruction in ESL classrooms is more teacher-centered, which is the opposite of ESL students' instruction preference: student- centered teaching style. Two ESL students made comments on their current ESL schooling, "Teacher-centered instruction leads us to feel that learning is one-way, and there is no opportunity for us to have self-directed learning." (Personal conversation, April, 2012) ESL instructors would should reconstruct their instruction as well as redesign the class schedule to enrich the class and meet diverse students' needs simultaneously.

2.   Class content: some students indicated that their classes emphasized learning grammar, vocabulary, and writing skills, and having the

instructors keep the classes on schedule. The classes made ESL students

feel that they were in supplementary schools, such as those in their own

countries. ESL students would like to have more classes with respect to

American traditional cultures, such as Easter, Saint Patrick's day,

Halloween and Thanksgiving since the difference between learning

English in the United States compared to their own countries was that they

were allowed to more closely experience Americans' lives. Some ESL

students expressed their thoughts on their current ESL learning by saying,

"Learning English is not only learning the language itself; it should

involve more cultural pieces to help us assimilate American language into

our own native language, and this is the reason why we come to the

United States to learn English." (Personal conversation, April, 2012).

Instruction Suggestions from Literature and Current Instructors

Based on the students' feedback mentioned above, there seems to be space for

English and Chinese second-language teachers to modify their instruction to better assist

second-language students in acquiring their second languages. After reviewing the

existing references, the researcher lists English and Chinese second-language teaching

strategies suggested by scholars and current instructors, which could potentially increase

students' second-language achievement:

English second language instruction. English second-language instruction has

been developed for a long time, and the existing literature in relation to it is abundant.

From among these many suggestions, the ESL teaching instructions provided by Cho

and Reich (2008) cover most ESL strategies and are chosen in this dissertation. Cho and

Reich (2008) described certain dimensions, such as comprehensibility, interactions

between students, and collaboration with ESL teachers, which are necessary elements of ESL instructions:

1. Possible strategies that can be used to increase comprehensibility: Comprehensibility is the foundation of learning, particularly second-language learning. Students learning a second language not only need to understand the meaning of a word; more importantly, they have to know the scenario of when and where to apply it, and its possible connotations. Therefore, the way ESL instructors introduce and explain vocabulary becomes key. Cho and Reich (2008) recommend ESL instructors adjust their speech rate as well as pronounce equally-stressed words to give students enough time to understand words. Moreover, ESL instructors can try to recall students' prior experiences, explain key words, or utilize visual aids before introducing a concept or a topic. These strategies help students scaffold their new linguistic knowledge as well as accommodate their own native languages into this new language system if there is a discrepancy.

2. Possible strategies that can increase interactions between students: Teacher-centered instruction is usually preferable in ESL classrooms. Under this circumstance, students act as knowledge receivers who tend to listen, read, and write rather than speak; ESL instructors are the only knowledge resources. The abilities students acquire in ESL classrooms do not prepare them to become speakers but only writers. In order to avoid this situation, Cho and Reich (2008) suggested ESL instructors let students work with diverse levels of students. The intention of this strategy is to let

students learn how to speak English with lower anxiety during while interacting with their colleagues, become learning scaffolds for each other, and share their own opinions.

3. Increase collaboration and communication with ESL teachers: ESL programs usually include reading, writing, grammar, and listening classes for each individual level, which are instructed by several ESL teachers. ESL Students will have a placement examination before entering ESL programs and then will be placed based on the scores they receive. However, students placed in the same level might not possess equal English abilities; some ESL students are good at reading, whereas others are good at listening. In order to better assist ESL students with diverse abilities, ESL teachers at the same level need to communicate more frequently with each other to share teaching experiences, understand each student's capacity in different areas, know particular individual's concerns, and come up with better instructions for each student. These informal discussions among instructors enhance instructors' understanding background of each student, decrease the possibility of having cultural shocks or cultural conflicts, and increase teaching efficacy.

Chinese second language instruction. In the existing literature, research on Chinese second-language instruction is still limited. Current Chinese second-language instructors utilize various teaching strategies, and the most often used teaching aids include word cards, textbooks, tapes, and videos. Overall, there is no specific instruction method that has been proven to be better. According to Chinese second-language

instructors at The Ohio State University and Cleveland State University, there are two major suggestions to improve current Chinese second-language teaching:

1.	Increase opportunities to speak Chinese in class. The second language acquisition process is similar to that of the native language:

Individuals have to apply it frequently in a different context and learn from the mistakes they make, just as they did when they learned their first language. However, most second-language learners hesitate to speak second languages in public and even in classes due to a fear of being laughed at. These situations heighten second-language learners' anxiety levels, which leads to lower achievement.

Current second-language instructors confront these circumstances very often but still struggle with handling this issue because of the learners' ages. One Chinese second-language instructor said, "It is very hard to teach a second language to adults since you cannot force them to speak. Some of adults follow the instruction and attempt to become proficient in Chinese, whereas others forget to turn in the assignments on time and try to be absent. Maybe the reason why they take this class is only because of degree requirements." (Personal Conversation, 03, 2012).

The situation occurs frequently in Chinese second-language classes, and certain experienced Chinese instructors have come up with possible solutions to it. One current Chinese instructor said, "I usually design activities in relation to the vocabulary or sentence structures I taught today. I would then group students with diverse levels and let them assess their classmates' achievement. This evaluation style will make students speak Chinese with ease since they do not need to speak in front of everyone feeling embarrassed; simultaneously, students will have to speak Chinese in class at least certain times. " (Personal Conversation, 04, 2012). Another instructor said, "I usually will

encourage students to review the materials before class and after class. They will have chances to get extra points if they answer the questions correctly. In addition, I try not to modify their mistakes they make directly; instead, I will say something like, 'that is right, but maybe it is better to speak in this way.' All the strategies I use focus on release their anxiety levels." These two strategies are used by the major Chinese second-language instructors at The Ohio University and Cleveland State University with the intention to encourage students' speaking in classes.

2. Enhance Chinese second-language students' familiarity with Chinese cultures. Language is the product of culture, and the most efficient method to acquire a new language is to live in the place where that language is a main communication tool. Most second-language learners have difficulty learning new languages due to cultural unfamiliarity with the target language. This situation makes new languages abstract concepts rather than communication tools.

One Chinese second-language instructor indicated that the biggest difficulty students have in learning Chinese is to imagine the meanings of Chinese words in an American context; meanwhile, it is a challenge for Chinese second-language instructors to teach the language. This difficulty occurs most obviously when English does not have a synonym to illustrate a particular Chinese word.

Some Chinese second-language instructors apply videos, movies, or even multimedia to explain the new vocabulary with the intent that these tools will help students perceive the words more efficiently. Other Chinese second-language instructors use these visual aids as either scaffolding to construct students' new language knowledge or as a bridge to link new vocabulary to students' existing linguistic knowledge. The

Chinese second-language instructors at Ohio State University and Cleveland State University agree on the point that the degree of familiarity with Chinese culture is associated with Chinese second-language achievement. Collecting plentiful resources supporting Chinese second-language students' learning is a common method utilized in their instruction.

Instructors with different professional experiences and educational backgrounds tend to utilize different strategies to convey academic knowledge and to handle students' learning difficulties. In addition, a teaching or counseling strategy that works in one scenario might not be a good one in another context. Chinese second-language or English second-language instructors need to create a new instruction style or redesign their existing instruction methods based on the characteristics of second-language students in their classroom. This might be the beauty of being second-language instructors, serving as balance of western and non-western cultures.

Implication for Practice

This study examined the extent to which individual characteristics, such as gender, anxiety levels, and second-language learning type influence students' achievement expectations. In addition, this study investigated the relationship between achievement expectations and motivation factors and second-language learning type. The results indicated that English was the major native language in the Chinese second-language (CSL) group with more senior students, lower achievement expectations, and male students in this group possessed higher anxiety levels compared to the English second-language (ESL) group.

The reasons that caused these results are still ambiguous and might vary in different research sites. Chinese second-language students at these two universities were

learning Chinese from native speakers with specific class schedules; students with different degrees of proficiency in Chinese were required to accomplish certain agendas after school. Instructors provided the CSL students with abundant visual resources, practices, and supports in and after classes. The class operation model was similar to that of English second-language (ESL) classes. Therefore, the only possible factor that resulted in higher anxiety levels and lower achievement expectations in this group might be because of instructors' insufficient understanding towards the American educational system. The majority of CSL instructors was educated under non-Western educational systems and came to the United States after they became legal adults. Their thoughts as well as instructional skills have well-developed yet, might not fit the learning preferences of American students. At this point, Chinese teacher licensure program designers should add classes regarding the American educational system, and introduction to American culture to their degree requirement. This will ensure future Chinese second-language instructors to be better prepared for entering classes. Moreover, current Chinese second-language program employees need to possess strategies of understanding how well Chinese instructors integrate Western educational systems and cultures into their existing academic knowledge during the interview processes. On-site Chinese second-language instructors have to be able to tell whether or not there are cultural shocks or cultural conflicts going on in their classes. They would either assimilate the new culture into their own academic knowledge or adjust their professional backgrounds to eliminate any possibilities of causing higher anxiety levels resulting from cultural differences.

Conversely, the English second-language (ESL) students in this study expressed higher achievement expectations and lower anxiety levels. These findings represented that ESL students possessed either higher adaption capacity towards their learning

contexts or higher degrees of satisfaction in their ongoing ESL classes. The concerns that ESL students had were more about class instructional styles and content. A strong need to share their opinions and to receive feedback from colleagues was found in this study. These circumstances suggest a need to modify existing ESL class structures. Present English second-language program designers and instructors should take into account the class content changes and adjust their schedule to provide ESL students with sufficient time expressing their thoughts and concerns. Moreover, ESL students expect to have a learning context that they are not only learning English, but also immersed in American traditional lives. As a result, ESL instructors need to integrate cultural celebrations and historical events into class content to equip students with language and survival knowledge.

Implication for Policy Makers

The findings of this study indicated that the learning situations of Chinese second-language and English second-language adult students are slightly different: the Chinese second-language adult students struggled with pronunciation, writing, and grammar in their learning journey, whereas the English second-language students cared about class content and teaching styles. These findings revealed that the model to develop a new Chinese second-language (CSL) programs is different from that of English second-language (ESL) programs due to differences in concerns students have. In addition, the findings indicated that there is a need for policy makers to reevaluate and redesign the existing CSL or ESL programs and further develop programs that meet the needs of CSL or ESL adult students.

Learning Chinese as a second language has become a new trend in the past decade because of the booming economy in China. However, the class content and instructor

qualifications have not been officially stated. Different Chinese second-language programs teach CSL students with different class content and instruction; as a result, the achievement depends on CSL teachers' academic knowledge. Nevertheless, the qualifications for CSL teachers are not unified, either. The discrepancy in class content and the degree of professional accomplishments causes a potential risk of lowering students' motivation and achievement. At this point, policy makers might need to legislate a broad direction for program designers to follow.

In order to better understand the nature of the Chinese language and the beauty of the Chinese culture, policy makers might travel to the Chinese-speaking countries such as Taiwan and China to gain information of what the Chinese language contains as well as how the Chinese language has been taught in the native countries. Moreover, policy makers might assemble roundtable discussions and invite local or overseas experts and scholars to gather the opinions in relation to the qualifications of CSL teachers. Simultaneously, they should make CSL experts join the policy making process to have their feedback. These steps might assist policy makers in developing rules for CSL programs.

In comparison with CSL programs, the curriculum and instruction for ESL programs have been developed well. Regarding the concerns of current ESL students, policy makers might encourage program designers and instructors to place more emphasis on students' feedback and to increase the degree of conversation. It is a general situation that ESL teachers have a variety of ESL students with different backgrounds in classes and have a specific schedule of accomplishing class content. These circumstances lead ESL teachers to use teacher-centered instruction. However, the focus of ESL programs not only enhances the English ability of ESL students but also gets them better

prepared for American lives. As a result, ESL teachers might adjust the instruction and class elements. Policy makers might suggest ESL program designers empower ESL teachers to slightly change their class tempo to better assist ESL students regarding diverse learning needs.

Implication for Research

The aim of this study was to provide second-language researchers and practitioners with a fundamental idea with respect to the concerns of current Chinese second-language (CSL) and English second-language (ESL) learners. In addition, this study attempted to bridge the Western and non-Western cultures by bringing the two representative languages, English and Chinese, together. Undoubtedly, language is a main form of communication among individuals and always contains historical and cultural meanings. Individuals educated under different language systems view things in different ways and behave diversely even in the same scenario. Therefore, language is key when people want to understand different cultures and undertake research in relation to individual from different educational backgrounds.

A volume of studies in relation to alphabetic languages, such as English, French, and Spanish were conducted. However, research on nonalphabetic languages, such as Chinese was still not enough, and studies on the comparison between English and Chinese remain sparse. The role of this study is to fill up the gap in nonalphabetic language research, particularly the Chinese language; sufficient understanding of the Chinese language is significantly important in the era when the number of students learning Chinese as their second-language is tremendously increasing, and the opportunities of doing business with China are getting much higher than before. In addition, this study was conducted with intentions of turning a new page of linguistic

research on comparing nonalphabetic and alphabetic languages, along with second-language learners' characteristics.

The findings in this study indicated that the Chinese second-language (CSL) students who were educated under Western educational systems possess different achievement expectations, anxiety levels, and motivational learning factors as compared to English second-language (ESL) students who were educated under non-Western education. Researchers or scholars who are interested in second-language fields, particularly in comparing differences between students with alphabetic languages backgrounds learning nonalphabetic languages and students with nonalphbetic language backgrounds learning alphabetic languages might use this study as reference to begin their research journey. Current ESL or CSL program operators or instructors might apply the findings of this study as their class guidance to set up or organize their second-language content to lower students' anxiety levels and heighten their achievement expectations.

Suggestion for Further Research

This study examined certain individual characteristics, such as anxiety levels, gender, motivational learning factors, and achievement expectations. The findings of it indicated that CSL students were struggling with three areas: pronunciation and word perplexity, Chinese grammar confusion, and code-switching difficulties. ESL students were concerned about instructional styles and class content.

In order to enhance teaching efficacy in CSL classrooms, researchers might further investigate more studies with respect to the extent to which individual characteristics, such as learning styles and learning preferences affect their second-language achievement expectations, and how intervening factors, such as instruction,

class procedure, and instructors' personal features influence their learning outcomes. In addition, scholars might need to further develop solutions to decrease the degree of CSL students' difficulties in pronouncing, writing, and understanding Chinese grammar.

Research on the ESL field has been conducted in the past decades, and the topics in relation to it have covered the majority of concerns that have been proposed by learners and educators. According to the findings in this study, researchers might further investigate why female ESL students possess higher anxiety levels in comparison with male ESL students, and the solution to eliminate their anxious feelings in ESL classes. Scholars and administrators may find it beneficial to collaborate on innovative ESL content design that can better meet ESL students' requirement as well as increase teaching efficacy.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL

Cleveland State University
*engaged*learning·

Memorandum

Institutional Review Board

To: Jonathan Messemer
Urban Education

From: Barbara Bryant
IRB Recording Secretary

Date: March 29, 2012

Re: Results of IRB Review of your project number: *#29507-MES-HS*
Co-Investigator: Li-Ching Lin
Entitled: The influence foreign language anxiety has upon the learning expectations of adults: A comparative study between English as a second language and Chinese as a second language

The IRB has reviewed and approved your application for the above named project, under the category noted below. Approval for use of human subjects in this research is for one year from today. If your study extends beyond this approval period, *you must contact this office to initiate an annual review of this research.*

By accepting this decision, you agree to notify the IRB of: (1) any additions to or changes in procedures for your study that modify the subjects' risk in any way; and (2) any events that affect that safety or well-being of subjects. Notify the IRB of any revisions to the protocol, including the addition of researchers, prior to implementation.

Thank you for your efforts to maintain compliance with the federal regulations for the protection of human subjects.

Approval Category: **Date: March 29, 2012**

__X__   Exempt Review: Category b(4)

cc: Project file

APPENDIX B

SITE APPROVAL LETTERS

100 Hagerty Hall, 1775 College Rd.
Columbus, OH 43210-1340 USA
(614) 292-4361 phone, (614) 688-3355 fax

Chinese • Japanese • Korean

National
East
Asian
Languages
Resource
Center
at
The Ohio State
University

PERSONNEL

Galal Walker
Director

Charles Quinn
Associate Director

Jianqi Wang
Associate Director

Minru Li
Assistant Director

Karen Sobul
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Knowledge Exchange

John Kuzmik
Baker Botts

Thomas Parry
Defense Language
Institute

S. Robert Ramsey
University of Maryland

Paul Schroeder
East-West Trade
Development

Tsuneo Yamada
National Institute
for Media Education
Japan

April 4, 2012
Dear Li-Ching Lin:

We understand that you are conducting a research project for your doctoral dissertation at Cleveland State University which is entitled: *Measuring Adult Learners' Foreign Language Anxiety: A Comparative Study between Chinese as a Second Language Students and English as a Second-Language Students*. In addition, we also understand that your dissertation has been approved by the IRB Office at Cleveland State University.

The purpose for this letter is to grant you permission to collect data for your dissertation at the Chinese Language Program at Ohio State University.

Sincerely,
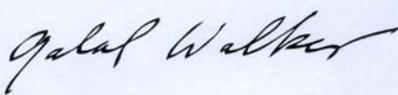
Galal Walker
Professor
Director, National East Asian Languages Resource Center

April 5, 2012

Dear Li-Ching Lin:

We understand that you are conducting a research project for your doctoral dissertation at Cleveland State University which is entitled: *Measuring Adult Learners' Foreign Language Anxiety: A Comparative Study between Chinese as a Second-Language Students and English as a Second-Language Students.* In addition, we understand that your dissertation has been approved by the IRB Office at Cleveland State University.

The purpose for this letter is to grant you permission to collect data for your dissertation from our students at the Ashland Center for English Studies (ACCESS), which is located at the Ashland University main campus on the third floor of the Patterson building.

Sincerely,

Dr. Nate Myers
Executive Director, International Programs
Ashland University, Library 7th floor
Ashland, Ohio 44805
nmyers@ashland.edu

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION FOR USING THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS)

Re: permission using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

From: "Horwitz, Elaine K" <horwitz@austin, utexas.edu>

To: Li-Ching Lin <l.lin99@csuohio.edu>   Thursday, November 29, 2012 10:30 AM

I appreciate your interest in my work.

Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the FLCAS in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings. Some scoring information about the FLCAS can be found in my book Becoming a Language Teacher: A Practical Guide to Second Language Learning and Teaching, 2nd edition, Pearson, 2013.

Best wishes,

Elaine Horwitz

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Dear Participant:

I am Li-Ching Lin, a doctoral student in the Leadership and Lifelong Learning Program at Cleveland State University. Currently, I am working on my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Jonathan Messemer, Department of Counseling, Administration, Supervision, and Adult Learning.

I am asking for your permission to participate in a survey used for my dissertation. The purpose of this survey is to understand the foreign language anxiety (FLA) level and learners' demographics in English as a Second Language (ESL) and Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) classrooms.

This survey is confidential and you will not be identified by name in any written reports. In addition, your privacy is protected as your completed survey will be kept in a locked file in Dr. Jonathan Messemer's office where Dr. Jonathan Messemer is the only person who has access to it.

You may experience minimal emotional discomfort when you fill out the survey that asks your anxiety level in your English/ Chinese second language classes. The assistance I will provide in this event is to find available counseling for you.

The findings of this survey will be used for my dissertation and other scholarly publications. The surveys will be kept for at least 3 years before it is destroyed.

You should contact any of the following listed below for your rights and further information:

Contact	Telephone/ Email
Dr. Jonathan Messemer	(216) 523-7132 J.MESSEMER@csuohio.edu
Li-Ching Lin	(419) 306-4627 l.lin99@csuohio.edu

For your rights and further information, you can also contact Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects in Research at Cleveland State University at 216-687-3630, or e-mail: b.bryant@csuohio.edu

Please indicate your agreement to participate in this survey by signing and returning the consent form attached with a survey. Thank you very much for your cooperation and support.

Sincerely,

Li-Ching Lin

APPENDIX E

CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate as described in the Informed Consent Statement provided to me. I understand that this survey is confidential and will only be used for this dissertation. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and I will not receive any benefits from my participation. I reserve the right to withdraw from the research process any time without penalty.

_____   _____

Participant's Signature   Date

_____

Print Name

SURVEY[1]

This survey will be used as an instrument for a doctoral student's dissertation. All the results will be anonymous, and the surveys will be destroyed after this study is conducted. The survey will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your cooperation is truly appreciated.

1. Gender: male ☐ or female ☐ 2. Age: _____ 3. Race/ Ethnicity: _____
4. Home language_____
5. Home country you have spent the most time in: _____
6. The number of foreign language classes taken in high school:_____
7. The score you expect to receive in this foreign language class: _____
 (A: 95-100, A-: 91-94, B+: 87-90, B:83-86, B-:80-82, C: 70-79, F: less than 69)

I was motivated to take the Chinese language courses/English language courses because of the following reasons:

		Least Likely				Most Likely
A.	Meet diploma/degree requirements	1	2	3	4	5
B.	Train for a new job	1	2	3	4	5
C.	Improve language skills	1	2	3	4	5
D.	Improve/advance in job	1	2	3	4	5
E.	Personal/family/social reasons	1	2	3	4	5
F.	Communicate in an English speaking country	1	2	3	4	5
G.	Other_____	1	2	3	4	5
	(please write your reason and rate)					

What percentage of your classroom and course activities include:
   1. Paper/Pencil Test _____%
   2. Lecture_____%
   3. Discussion_____%
   4. Group Work_____%
   5. Independent Study/ Work on your own_____%
   6. Film/Video_____%
   7. Audio Tape_____%
   8. Cultural Activities_____%
   9. Field Trips_____%
   10. Written Reports/Papers_____%
                     (Total= 100%)

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[1] The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) survey is not attached in the appendices due to the copyright laws