Investigating the Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and Oral Performance of Non-English Major University Students in Indonesia

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Abstract
This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and spoken performances of non-English major university students in Indonesia. The study found that learners experienced various degrees of FLA with the mean score 93.07 (SD = 17.69, N = 119). This study also found a statistically significant, negative correlation between the learners’ FLA and their achievements as measured by their grades, r (117) = -.37, p < .01. Consistent with that, significant, negative relationships were also found between the learners’ achievements and all the three related situation-specific anxieties, communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Considering the results, it is suggested that both teachers and students should minimise the debilitating effects of students’ FLA. Based on the limitations of this study, some recommendations for future studies are also highlighted. They are investigations on the relationship between FLA and second language (L2) achievements across different levels of education and thorough qualitative investigations of FLA.

Keywords: Foreign Language Anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, learners’ achievements

A. Introduction
A large body of research investigating affective factors such as anxiety and motivation may indicate many experts’ acknowledgement on the role of emotion in foreign language learning. Dulay and Burt (1977) might have made the first attempts to investigate the role of affect, especially anxiety, in learning through the concept of affective filter hindering learning in which they gave an early explanation as to why some learners could achieve high
language proficiency level, whilst some others could not. Krashen (1982) later acknowledged that anxiety, along with motivation, attitude, and self-confidence, plays an important role in learning through his affective filter hypothesis. High level of anxiety, he argued, leads to a dense affective filter not allowing information to be absorbed by learners. Low affective filter, Krashen (1985) later stated, is necessary for learning to take place, allowing the input “in”. In agreement with that, Tobias (1986) asserted that anxiety may impair individuals’ ability in taking in information, processing it, and retrieving it when necessary. As such, no wonder nowadays there is a wide range of studies trying to investigate anxiety in the educational setting, including language learning.

Specific in the field of anxiety in language learning, furthermore, language courses are often regarded as ones instilling most anxiety compared to other classes (Gusman, 2004; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Trang, 2012). It is not unusual to find learners who are good at other subjects being frustrated in a foreign language class (Trang, 2012). Gusman (2004) further said that the fact that learning a foreign language requires specific processes like public practice and trial errors might at times cause frustration as well as embarrassment, which could be attributed to anxiety.

Moreover, Campbell and Ortiz (1991) found that anxiety level among university students was particularly high. It was then supported by various subsequent studies (Aida, 1994; Shao, Yu, & Ji, 2013; Trang, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013a), which amplified a fairly consistent pattern of the research findings on the high level of anxiety among university students. Moreover, considering that anxiety is one of the best indicators of foreign language achievement which tend to be in a negative way (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) it becomes paramount important to investigate this field even more to gain further understanding based on which language education practitioners can better help learners’ language learning.

1. Rationales

Indonesia’s National Law on Languages, Undang-Undang 24/2009 (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 2009) carries an explicit theme to love local languages, use national language (Indonesian), and study foreign languages (among which English may be at a great advantage). Despite the Indonesian government’s explicit legal encouragement on studying foreign languages and Indonesia’s having one of the biggest numbers of English as Foreign Language (EFL) speakers in the world, studies of Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) among students in Indonesia are, unfortunately, still very rare. Besides, most EFL learners in Indonesia may use very little English outside classroom contexts due to the extensive use of Indonesian as well as various regional languages at homes (Kirkpatrick, 2012). As such, many students may feel anxious when using English.

Furthermore, there are very few previous studies on anxiety among Indonesian students, four of which are Marwan’s (2008), Anandari’s (2015), Ariyanti’s (2016) and Sutarsyah’s (2017) studies. Marwan’s (2008) study, aiming at investigating factors contributing to learners’ FLA and involving 76 non-English major university student participants,
found that learners experienced various degrees of anxiety. Additionally, such factors as lack of confidence and preparation, as well as fear of failing the class had contributed to the participants’ FLA. In comparison, Anandari’s (2015) study, involving 24 English Education students in a classroom action research focusing heavily on qualitative methods, investigated possible causes and remedies for the participants’ anxiety in speech production in Public Speaking class. Lack of confidence in pronunciation and stage-fright had been reported as the major factors associated with the participants’ FLA. Furthermore, Ariyanti (2016) involved 21 English Education students in her study and found that being afraid of making mistakes, and lacking motivation and self-esteem became the most dominant factors of anxiety. Different from the previous three studies which investigated university students’ anxiety, Sutarsyah’s (2017) study, furthermore, investigated anxiety among 27 Indonesian students of Junior High School. It found that students with lower anxiety level scored higher in speaking performance than students with higher anxiety level did. This particular study gave a support on the negative effect of anxiety on speaking performance and found that nervousness became the most dominant factor of anxiety among the early teenage participants.

Despite the contributions of these four studies in investigating Indonesians’ students FLA, there are still some points that need to be addressed. First, Marwan’s (2008) study, despite using a survey to obtain data related to the students’ anxiety level, did not mention sufficiently specific results regarding the students’ total anxiety level or its mean score. As such, this study may not be sufficient to see Indonesian students’ anxiety level. Secondly, even though Marwan’s (2008) study may have given an early finding, even if very general, on anxiety among Indonesian students, he recommended that a future study involves a bigger number of participants to seek a more generalisable finding. Thirdly, little is known about the relationship between university students’ FLA and their achievements. There are very few studies on anxiety and performance among Indonesian university students despite some authors’ idea that anxiety is one of the best indicators of learning achievements (e.g.: Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) and that anxiety is particularly high among university students (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991). Sutarsyah’s (2017) study, which found negative effects of anxiety on speaking performance among Junior High School students, may give a glimpse of idea on the possible relationship between anxiety and speaking performance. However, the small number of participants in that study may indicate that studies involving a bigger number of participants are needed to further confirm the finding on the anxiety-performance relation. Besides, different contexts and different level of education may be at play in influencing learners’ anxiety. Hence, a study on anxiety and performance among students of a different context and level of education may give a deeper understanding of this area. Overall, the results of the study can benefit both teachers and students in the way that the teachers can be more informed about learners’ FLA and thus can help them more effectively. The study can also pave the way for a further study investigating anxiety, especially its relationship with achievements, in the Indonesian context.
2. Research Questions

Considering the rationales mentioned above, this study seeks to answer these research questions:

a. To what extent do students of English 3 experience FLA?

b. What is the relationship between FLA and L2 oral performance determined by learners’ oral exam grades?

B. Literature Review

1. FLA as a Situation-specific Anxiety

Studies on language anxiety have been quite popular during the last three decades and they have also become an area of various opinions and stances (Trang, 2012). Initially, researchers generally differentiated anxiety into two categories: trait anxiety and state anxiety. Spielberger (1983) stated that trait anxiety is a constant tendency to become anxious in many situations. It is a more permanent tendency to be anxious (Scovel, 1978). State anxiety, in comparison, is defined as an immediate and brief emotional experience with immediate cognitive effects (MacIntyre, 1995). Thus, whilst individuals with trait anxiety have a tendency to get anxious fairly easily in various situations, individuals with state anxiety have a tendency to be temporarily anxious as a response to certain factors from outside (MacIntyre, 1995), examples of which in learning contexts include the level of material difficulty, teachers’ teaching styles and classmates.

Furthermore, early studies, which heavily conceptualised FLA as a transfer of the general anxieties mentioned above on the relationship between anxiety and achievements in language classes, found mixed results. These results were quite difficult to interpret. Chastain (1975), for example, found positive, negative, and non-significant relationships between anxiety and the L2 achievements. Scovel (1978) asserted that the contradictory results of these earlier studies may be associated with the vagueness in the conceptualisation and measurement of anxiety. He then proposed scholars to find a match between anxiety measures (questionnaires) and types of anxiety they were supposed to measure. In regard to that, Gardner (1985) argued that questionnaires directly related to FLA would be more appropriate than general anxiety questionnaires, that used in Chastain’s (1975) study. It was based on the realisation that not all forms of anxiety influence language learning. Gardner (1985) further asserted that it is a specific construct of anxiety to the language learning context that is related to learners’ achievements. Hence, since then, to develop instruments through which anxiety could be better measured has been deemed as important. In response to Scovel’s and Gardner’s calls for specific measuring instruments, some subsequent works were then able to develop prevailing anxiety measuring instruments. As well as Horwitz et al.’s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCAS), discussed further later in this chapter, Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999), for example, developed the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), intended to investigate reading anxiety. These two instruments are now frequently used to investigate the anxiety level of students from...
various learning contexts, either as primary or secondary instruments, in aiming to gain initial information about the research participants’ anxiety levels.

Furthermore, the confusing results of early anxiety studies and the possible causes mentioned above were perhaps attributed to the rise of the newer notion, situation-specific anxiety. Many authors seem to agree with Horwitz et al.’s (1986) idea that anxiety in language learning is situation-specific (e.g.: Bailey, Daley, & Onwuegbuzie, 1999; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Trang, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013b). Bailey et al. (1999) further stated that, as a situation-specific anxiety, FLA is different to trait anxiety or state anxiety, even though some of the signs of FLA are slightly similar to the latter. This similarity may be attributed to the fact that FLA is a consequence of recurring episodes of state anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Trang et al., 2013b). For example, when learners continuously experience state anxiety in the language class, because of many learning difficulties during the learning process, they may, then, start to associate anxiety with language learning. At this point, their repeated state anxiety will solidify into FLA (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Horwitz et al (1986) further defined FLA as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). This implies that FLA, while related to, is distinguishable from other specific anxieties. It also emphasises the complexity of FLA as an intertwining relationship between learners’ subjective perspectives and various external factors occurring in the learning process. It focuses on anxiety experienced by EFL students who might have little contact with English speakers or use very little English outside of class.

Furthermore, the authors identified three related situation-specific anxieties, communication apprehension, test anxiety as well as fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is defined as learners’ apprehension when they are required to speak in front of other people (Horwitz et al., 1986). Being unable to express complex ideas, for example, may be the source of this apprehension (Brown, 2000). Furthermore, test anxiety refers to learners’ fear of failure (Horwitz et al., 1986), usually stemming from the learners’ unrealistic demands on themselves to perform well. Learners become anxious when they have to demonstrate their language proficiency in various testing situations. Aydin (2009) asserted that test anxiety can have huge impacts on learning, as the learners might not be able to show their real proficiency, due to being anxious when assessed. Finally, fear of negative evaluation is defined as learners’ fear of others’ judgement in which this type of anxiety is associated with peer pressure (Horwitz et al., 1986). Students, for instance, are afraid of being laughed at should they make errors. In considering all of these factors Horwitz et al. (1986) further stated that FLA can “represent serious impediments to the development of second language fluency, as well as to performance” (p. 127). Furthermore, out of all of the classroom activities, oral classroom activities are the most problematic and anxiety-provoking (Price, 1991; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986). The fact that even proficient
learners in Liu’s (2006) study still experienced anxiety in the speaking class may suggest that the issue of anxiety is quite complex, as Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested.

As briefly discussed previously, in order to measure the FLA level, Horwitz et al. (1986) developed FLCAS, which consists of 33 five-point Likert scale items mostly related to the anxiety in oral production and apprehensive attitude towards foreign language learning. Oxford (1999) stated that, even though language anxiety is often readily observable, even without any instruments, the observable signs of anxiety may differ across cultures. What anxiety behaviour may be in one cultural context may not be in other contexts. For example, in a culture where students’ having some amount of informal debate with the teachers during the learning process is a “common practice”, a quiet student may be viewed as being anxious. However, in a culture where open discussion with the teachers is not so common, students’ being quiet could merely mean that they are just being polite. Moreover, what is considered “comfortable” by learners in one culture could make learners in different cultural groups stressed (Horwitz, 2001). In considering such possibilities, it is evident that an instrument, such as FLCAS, is needed to better measure the situation-specific anxiety experienced by EFL learners, as this would enable them to self-assess their anxiety level. Since its publication, FLCAS has become the most widely used standard measure of anxiety in anxiety literature. It should be noted that, while Sparks and Ganschow (2007) claimed that FLCAS measures language skills rather than the anxiety level, in support of FLCAS, Young (1994, p. 3) stated that since the publication of the FLCAS, “the concept of anxiety in second language acquisition has achieved the status of a precise technical notion”. Furthermore, since the use of Horwitz et al.’s (1986) FLCAS, researchers have found relatively consistent findings related to the negative associations between FLA and language performance (e.g.: Aida, 1994; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2016; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999), which may support her statement.

2. Debates on the Effects of Anxiety

Even though many studies have found the negative effects of anxiety, a few studies did find some positive impacts. With regard to this, Oxford (1999) claimed that anxiety can be either helpful (facilitating) or harmful (debilitating). Firstly, in relation to how our brains work, anxiety can be helpful when it stimulates our nervous system enough to produce attention, which is needed for learning (Sousa, 2006; Wolfe, 2001). This suggests support for the presence of facilitating anxiety. Kleinmann (1977) study, a seminal work on the idea of facilitating anxiety, found that students with facilitating anxiety tend to have less avoidance behaviour and more courage to take a risk. In fact, some teachers in Trang and Moni’s (2015) study asserted creating a certain degree of anxiety is important in order to boost learners’ effort in learning.

Despite the finding of these studies, Horwitz (1990) asserted that, while anxiety can be helpful for simple tasks, it is actually not helpful for such a complicated task as language learning. In support, Ortega (2009) and Oxford (1999) stated that, although some researchers state that a positive mode of anxiety does exist, debilitating anxiety may be
more common in language learning. This is supported by many studies finding negative associations between FLA and performance (e.g.: Aida, 1994; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2016; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Phillips, 1992). Oxford (1999) continued that this kind of anxiety may harm learners’ performance, both indirectly by instilling self-doubt and directly by reducing their participation. Anxious learners also tend to be hesitant about taking the risk of making language errors (Oxford, 1999). As such, they tend to stay silent by not participating in the class discussions. Hence, their language development may be affected in a negative way in the long run (Oxford, 1999).

Furthermore, slightly in an in-between position, Gardner and MacIntyre seem to agree that anxiety can be both helpful and harmful, depending on its level. MacIntyre and Gardner’s (1994) study did find that a certain degree of anxiety can produce positive results on language performance. They further asserted that anxiety becomes debilitating only when anxious students begin to have negative thoughts and are too hard on themselves, to the point of disrupting their concentration and mental effort in their learning. For example, the learners who already associate language classes with anxiety may find that many things in the class are anxiety-provoking, regardless of the teachers’ efforts and many other factors that actually support the learning. In support of this and in line with Bigdeli’s (2010) statement relating to the “right” level of anxiety to have facilitative effects, Gass and Selinker (2008) claimed that anxiety has “a curvilinear effect on performance” (p. 400), in which a low level will be helpful, while a high level will hurt. With regard to this viewpoint, Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) later argued that this stance does call for further empirical discovery to determine at what point exactly anxiety ceases to be facilitating and becomes debilitating. Despite this, Suleimenova (2013) proposed that it is the learners who should ask themselves, when they are feeling anxious, whether their anxiety, which, as she mentioned, at the right level can keep learners alert in their learning process, has become too much, thus becoming debilitating. In line with this, some of the participants in Trang’s and Moni’s (2015) study also held the opinion that they, themselves, are the ones most capable of managing their anxiety, as the anxiety originates from them and they are the ones most aware of its sources.

3. Debates on the Direction of the Causal Relationship between FLA and Performance

Another major debate in the field is related to the direction of the causal relationship between FLA and achievement. According to Sparks and Ganschow (1993, 2007), anxiety arises from poor achievement and not the other way round. They argued that the early first language (L1) literacy achievement of individuals is a strong predictor of both their L2 proficiency and anxiety in the future (Sparks & Ganschow, 2007). In this view, low performance, stemming from linguistic processing disability, is considered the cause of anxiety and not the result. If anxiety arises due to low proficiency, rather than being the cause of it, they further assert that teachers may, firstly, need to try to help the learners to improve their performance and skills before helping them to deal with their anxiety. As
the learners’ performance improves, as suggested by Sparks and Ganschow (2007), their anxiety level will decrease.

Despite the above claims, many scholars argue that anxiety is attributed to poor performance. MacIntyre (1995), for example, stated that anxiety “can play a significant causal role in creating individual differences in both learning and communication” (p. 90), including performance. For example, learners blank on the answers during assessments despite knowing the answers, and, thus performing poorly, and they freeze up when they are required to speak in front of their classmates (Ortega, 2009). Moreover, in the same position as Horwitz et al. (1986) asserting anxiety as one predictor of performance, MacIntyre (1995) further claimed that anxiety “may cause deficits in cognitive processing and impair task performance” (p. 92). Furthermore, Sparks and Ganschow may not be able to explain the findings of some studies in which some language teachers (see Horwitz, 1996) and highly proficient learners (see Liu, 2006) did experience anxiety. Hence, to “deny the reality of FLA is illogical as well as insensitive to the experience and needs of many language learners and teachers” (Horwitz, 2000, p. 258). Strongly, Horwitz (2000) further asserted that to reject the important roles of affective factors in determining learners’ achievement can be harmful.

Despite Sparks’ and Ganschow’s opposition to Horwitz’s and MacIntyre’s arguments mentioned above and Horwitz’s (2000) strong arguments against their view, both Horwitz and MacIntyre do not totally reject their perspective, in that they believe anxiety has a bidirectional and cyclical relationship with performance (see Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1995). Supporting this view, Levitt (1980) stated that, from the cognitive perspective, anxiety leads to impaired cognition, which will lead to “negative” behaviours. These behaviours, in turn, may lead individuals to be more anxious. For example, as MacIntyre (1995) asserted, a demand to speak in L2 may cause anxiety, leading to worry. In turn, cognitive performance is diminished, due to the divided attention, which causes performance to suffer. As this happens, learners will experience negative self-evaluation and more self-underestimating cognition. This will then impair performance. To put it simply, MacIntyre (1995) claimed that anxiety can impair learners’ performance and, in turn, this poor performance tends to make them even more anxious. Many other authors also support this view (e.g.: Arnold & Brown, 1999; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). Arnold and Brown (1999) further stated that anxiety has a down spiralling effect, making learners nervous and afraid, thus contributing to poor performance. In turn, this will produce a higher level of FLA and an even worse performance.

C. Research Methodology

1. Research Design

Many previous studies on FLA used either quantitative methods or mixed methods. Those using quantitative methods normally administered questionnaire battery, for example, FLCAS and FLRAS (e.g: Aida, 1994; Huang, 2012; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). Mostly, such
studies did statistical analysis, like correlations, regressions, or t-tests, involving learners’ anxiety level and other variables, including self-rating, grades, and gender. However, many other studies did also use mixed methods. Some studies used quantitative methods as the primary ones (e.g.: Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012) whilst some others used quantitative methods merely to obtain initial information regarding the participants’ anxiety level and then proceeded with primary qualitative methods (e.g.: Anandari, 2015; Trang et al., 2013a, 2013b).

This study, furthermore, used quantitate method of distributing questionnaires. Quantitative methods enable us to carry out a large-scale questionnaire survey to gather data with the possibility of generalisation (Basit, 2010; Gray, 2014). The study of anxiety in the Indonesian context was generally still very rare. Hence, little was known about the level of anxiety of university students in Indonesia. For this reason, a survey using the FLCAS was considered appropriate to see their level of anxiety and to seek generalisable data (Basit, 2010).

2. The Participants and Instruments of the Research

The target participants were 202 non-English major university students who were taking compulsory English Level 3 class at a university in a major city in Indonesia. English level 3 was the highest level of three General English courses that all Bachelor’s Degree students from non-English majors at the university should take in order to take English for Specific Purposes in their respective faculties. English Level 3 students were chosen as the participants for the study because of some reasons. First, among the three levels of English class at the university, English Level 3 had Speaking as the primary objective, with all the six small tests and one final test assessing oral performances through role-plays, group discussions, and presentations. As such, the selection matched with the research questions.

Furthermore, along with background questionnaires, containing the students’ concise demographic information consisting of name, age, and gender, as briefly explained previously this study used Horwitz et al.’s (1986) FLCAS consisting of 33-Likert-scaled items. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), there are three domains measured with the FLCAS. The first is communication apprehension, item number 1, 4, 9, 14, 15, 18, 24, 27, 29, 30, and 32. The second is test anxiety, item number 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, and 28. The last is fear of negative evaluation, item number 2, 7, 13, 19, 23, 31, and 33. However, in this study, the original order of these items was rearranged in such a way that the whole questionnaire consisted of three different parts: Communication Apprehension, Test Anxiety, and Fear of Negative Evaluation. This was done to make the data input process easier and much faster. The term “Foreign Language Classes” in the original, Horwitz et al.’s (1986) questionnaire, was changed into “English classes” in line with the focus of the present study.

Furthermore, the FLCAS was translated into Indonesian before distributed. As Indonesian is used extensively in Indonesia as the national language, including as the medium of instruction in all formal education levels, the participants were considered
proficient in the language, which enabled them to understand the Indonesian version of the FLCAS. A teacher of Indonesian in Australia, thus considered proficient in both Indonesian and English, furthermore, helped check the translation and gave some feedback. Back translation to English was done to make sure that there was no change in meaning during the translation process. Furthermore, before the survey was conducted, the questionnaire was piloted by two Indonesian non-English major students to ensure that all the items were “accurate, unambiguous, and simple to complete” (Gray, 2014, p. 372). Based on their feedbacks, some minor changes were made.

3. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the background questionnaire and the questionnaire containing Likert-scale items along with the students’ grades were entered and processed using SPSS 22. The score for each item was calculated. The score ranged from 1 to 5 for each item in which “strongly agree” equalled to 5 points and “strongly disagree” equalled to 1 point. Some negative items in the questionnaire, in which “strongly agree” indicated low anxiety, were reversed scored. To obtain students’ level of anxiety, descriptive data analysis was carried out and the results were reported in the form of mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum and maximum scores, and percentage.

To obtain the relationship between students’ anxiety level and their grades, Pearson (r) correlation was used. This function was done four different times. The first was to see the association between the grades and the FLA level related to communication apprehension, the second related to test anxiety, and the third related to fear of negative evaluation. The last one was to see the correlation between the grades and the total anxiety level. However, it was important to note that these correlations sought to identify associations between two phenomena and did not necessarily mean causal relationships between them (Scott & Usher, 2011).

4. Access and Ethical Consideration

The access for research was granted by the Director of the Language Centre of the university and the questionnaires were distributed by the class teachers at the end of the class between the periods of 18 April 2016 to 20 April 2016. In line with Israel’s and Hay’s (2006) idea of the importance of informed consents in research, students’ voluntary participation was guaranteed through the consent form attached to each of the questionnaires. As such, the students’ signatures on the consent form were the very first requirement for all of the returned questionnaire data to be included in the analysis. Guidelines on no coercion, no intervention, and confidentiality were also given to the teachers distributing the questionnaires. It was intended to maintain the reliability of the data gathered (Bryman, 2012), and the ethical considerations (Oliver, 2003). Furthermore, the students’ grades were given by the Course Secretary in accordance with the signed completed questionnaires. Additionally, all data reported were made anonymous. Whilst the students’ real names and
their grades were known during the data analysis process, all results presented in the report were made anonymous (Israel & Hay, 2006).

5. Summary of the Chapter

The detailed sequence of the data collection and analysis could be seen in the following figure.

**Figure 1: The sequence of data collection and analysis**

D. Findings and Discussions

From 202 students of English 3 in total, 132 students participated in the survey, whilst the other 59 students were either absent when the questionnaires were distributed or decided not to participate in the study. From the 132 returned questionnaires, furthermore, 119 were complete whilst 13 were incomplete, and thus were excluded from the analysis. The minimum age of the participants was 17, whilst the maximum was 24. The mean was 18.74 ($SD = 1.28$). Moreover, 68 of the 119 participants, 57.1%, were males, whilst 51 others, 42.9%, were females. The modified FLCAS questionnaire had .93 Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient, indicating high internal reliability identical to the FLCAS in Hewitt’s and Stephenson’s (2012) and Horwitz et al.’s (1986) studies. The complete results could be seen in the following tables.

| Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the age of the participants |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Age | 119 | 17 | www24 | 18.74 | 1.279 |
| Valid N | 119 |

| Table 2: Gender distribution of the participants |
|---|---|---|
| Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent |
| Valid | Male | 68 | 57.1 | 57.1 |
| Female | 51 | 42.9 | 42.9 |
| Total | 119 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

1. Research question 1: To what extent do students of English 3 experience FLA?

Through descriptive analysis on SPSS 22, the following findings were obtained. Firstly, as seen from Table 3, the mean of learners’ anxiety was 93.07 ($SD = 17.69$, $N = 119$). Keeping in mind the findings of previous studies using FLCAS conducted in Asia, it was found that the mean was slightly higher than the finding of Shao et al.’ (2013) study on the anxiety of university students in China ($M = 92.03$, $N = 510$), but quite lower than...
Trang et al.’s (2013a) study on that of university students in Vietnam \( (M = 108.26, N = 419) \). It was, however, *unpersuasive* to say that the Indonesian student participants in this study had higher anxiety level than their Chinese counterparts in Shao et al.’s (2013) study or had lower anxiety level than their Vietnamese counterparts in Trang et al.’s (2013a) study as to know which group was more anxious would need another statistical analysis (t-test) and was beyond the focus of the study. However, their sharing relatively similar characteristics like Asian cultures, considering ‘face’ an important element and infrequent use of English outside class may be the likely reasons for these slightly similar findings.

Furthermore, the participants’ responses on each of the modified FLCAS item from Horwitz et al. (1986) could be seen in the Appendix at the end of this paper. As seen in the Appendix, the participants’ responses were quite various indicating various degrees of anxiety. It was in line with the finding of Marwan’s (2008) study in Indonesia in which its university student participants also experienced various degrees of anxiety.

In Table 4 below, the means of the participants’ responses for each item of FLCAS, in which items 1-11 were associated with communication apprehension, items 12-26 were associated with test anxiety, whilst items 27-33 were associated with fear of negative evaluation, could be observed.

### Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<tr>
<td>Total Anxiety</td>
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Table 4: The means of the participants’ responses

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<th>Communication apprehension</th>
<th>Test anxiety</th>
<th>Fear of negative evaluation</th>
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<td>Question</td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 4 above, some items yielded mean scores above 3.0, which indicated a higher level of FLA.
Firstly, as also seen in the table of participants’ responses in the Appendix, with regard to communication apprehension, 43.6% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed to item number 2, “It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in English.” Furthermore, the seventh item, “I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students” was endorsed by 36.2% of participants. 38.7% of the participants, furthermore, also endorsed the tenth, “I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English”. In relation with these results, Brown (2000) stated that the high level of communication apprehension among learners are stemmed from learners’ perceived inability to express complex ideas in foreign languages, which they are not proficient with. These results also supported Gusman (2004) statement that public speaking practice in language classes become one of the main causes of FLA.

In relation with test anxiety, furthermore, the 16th, “I worry about the consequences of failing my English class, was endorsed by 37.8%, and the 18th, “In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know,” by 73.1%. The 19th item, “Even if I am well-prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it,” then, was endorsed by 40.1%. Regarding learners’ high level of test anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) attributed their high level of test anxiety to their unrealistic and idealistic demands on themselves to perform well in evaluative situations. The learning environment such as the importance of the English class for learners, their teachers, and assessment’s level of difficulty may also contribute to learners’ high level of test anxiety, which may cause them to be unable to demonstrate their real proficiency (Aydin, 2009).

Finally, with regard to fear of negative evaluation, the 28th, “I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am” was endorsed by 51.2%, the 32nd, “I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do” by 41.1%, and the last item, “I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance” by 41.2%. Regarding these results, Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that the high level of fear of negative evaluation might be attributed to peer pressure. In addition, the context of the participants, Asian culture, considers “face” or pride very important. As such, looking foolish in front of friends might make learners feel embarrassed. This feeling of embarrassment, in turn, may also lead to an even higher level of fear of negative evaluation.

2. Research question 2: What is the relationship between FLA and L2 oral performance determined by learners’ oral exam grades?

As FLCAS consists of items associated with three related situation-specific anxieties, communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986) as previously stated, each anxiety construct is presented separately before the total anxiety score under the bigger umbrella of FLA.

Firstly, the study found a significant negative relationship between the participants’ communication apprehension and their grades. The strength of the correlation strength was in moderate level, $r (117) = -.31, p < .01$. This indicated that the higher the communication
apprehension level the students had, the lower their grades tended to be. Table 5 summarised
the result.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>CA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.310**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.310**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Secondly, the study also found a significant negative correlation between their test
anxiety and grades. The correlation strength was in moderate level, \( r (117) = -.34, p < .01 \). Hence, it indicated that the higher the participants’ test anxiety level, the lower their grades tended to be. The following table summarised the result.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Test Anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.339**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test anxiety</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.339**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Furthermore, as seen in Table 7, consistent with the abovementioned findings, there
was also a statistically significant, negative relationship between the participants’ grades and
the level of fear of negative evaluation. The correlation strength was in moderate level,
\( r (117) = -.38, p < .01 \). Hence, it indicated that there was a tendency that the higher the
participants’ fear of negative evaluation, the lower their grades.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>FNE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.381**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.381**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Finally, as seen in Table 8, the study found a significant negative association between
the participants’ grades and the total FLCAS scores, \( r (117) = -.37, p < .01 \). This indicated
that the more anxious the participants were, the lower their grades tended to be. The
strength of the relationship was moderate. That there was statistically significant negative
association between the FLCAS scores and the grades was also consistent with the findings of some previous studies. For examples, Aida’s (1994) study yielded $r(52) = -.38, p < .01$, Hewitt’s and Stephenson’s (2012) study yielded $r(38) = -.49, p < .001$, and Shao et al.’s (2013) study yielded $r(508) = -.32, p < .01$.

### Table 8: Correlation between grades and the total anxiety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Total Anxiety</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.370**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.370**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

That this study consistently found significant, negative relationships between the grades and each of the three FLA constructs and the total FLA was further discussions. The results has given a further support to Young’s (1994) statement, in that the FLCAS has become the standard measure of anxiety in second language acquisition helping it achieve “the status of a precise technical notion” (p. 3), in which negative associations between anxiety and achievements have consistently been found in many studies since its publication (e.g.: Aida, 1994; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Shao et al., 2013). Despite unable to show any cause and effect relationship between the participants’ FLA and their grades, furthermore, that the results of all the correlations were consistent with the above-mentioned previous studies’ findings may also give some kind of support to many experts’ idea of the negative effects of anxiety (e.g.: Arnold & Brown, 1999; Horwitz, 2000; Levitt, 1980; MacIntyre, 1995; Oxford, 1999). First, the current study’s results were in line with Horwitz’s (1990) statement that anxiety has negative effects on language learning and performance. Even, in Oxford’s (1999) view that debilitating anxiety is more common than the possible facilitating anxiety, the present study’s results might be seen as “predictable”. It was because anxiety could harm learners’ language performance directly by reducing participation and risk-taking behaviours in learning and indirectly through self-doubt (Oxford, 1999). Anxious students tend to be passive with little participation in class activities, and as such their language development could be affected in the long run (Oxford, 1999).

Furthermore, in regard specifically to spoken performance, MacIntyre (1995) asserted that a demand to speak in L2 may provoke FLA, which will lead to worry. In turn, this worry may lead to divided or unfocused attention which will decrease cognitive performance, further affecting spoken performance in a negative way. When this happens, learners will have lower self-confidence as they develop negative self-evaluation as well as self-underestimating cognition. This will, eventually, impair performance even further. This statement is in line with Arnold’s and Brown’s (1999) idea that FLA has a down spiralling effect, in which FLA makes learners nervous and afraid, and thus contributes to poor
performance. In turn, this will cause learners to have a higher level of FLA and an even worse performance. In regard to the experts’ statements above, then, the current study’s results on the negative relationship between FLA and learners’ spoken performance was, despite quite alarming for both learners and teachers and thus calling for some pedagogical actions, not at all surprising.

E. Conclusion

In accordance with the results of the current study, some pedagogical implications can be suggested. First, considering the consistent negative relationships between anxiety and achievement found in this study, it is suggested that teachers show more understanding of their students’ struggles in learning. Teachers should listen to “the inner process of each learner, letting him or her know through words or actions that he or she has been heard and respected” (Young, 1992, p. 166). Secondly, more specifically, teachers are required to design their class activities to accommodate learners’ affect more. For example, they might ask the students to present their work orally in small groups instead of in front of the whole class as some authors held the opinion that speaking in front of less number of people can help reduce FLA (Kitano, 2001). Doing so, teachers can also allow students to have more talking time, which according to Jacobs and Hall (2002) can also improve confidence.

Moreover, despite the results and the implications stated above, some limitations should be acknowledged. Firstly, whilst the results of this study could be generalised to a wider population, they should be viewed within the context, Indonesian non-English major university students. The results may not be able to predict the anxiety level of English-major university students or students from lower education levels as they may have very different characteristics including the teachers, the level of material difficulty, and assessments. Secondly, generally, the self-report measures in the FLCAS brought the consequence that the results depended on whether the students had honestly responded to the questionnaire items.

Furthermore, in an evaluation of the current study, and the limitations above, these suggestions can be taken into consideration for directions of future studies on FLA. The first is to investigate the association between anxiety and achievements of Indonesian learners from different education levels. This study and Sutarsyah’s (2017) study which found the negative effects of anxiety on speaking performance of Junior High School students may give a glimpse of consistency on the negative effect of anxiety on L2 performance. However, further studies in this field investigating learners of different educational contexts are still needed to see whether consistent findings on debilitating anxiety will be found. Secondly, it is recommended that future studies investigate FLA using qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews. These studies can use FLCAS to gain information about the participants’ FLA and proceed to in-depth interviews with the participants to gain a deeper understanding on their anxiety, such as the contributing factors and their strategies to alleviate their FLA. Furthermore, researchers who have easy access to participants may also consider doing qualitative studies during a longer period of
time, using autobiographies for examples, to better capture the ongoing process of how learners’ anxiety develops across time.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Investigating the Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and Oral Performance....


**APPENDIX**

Modified FLCAS items with percentages of students selecting each alternative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>4.2*</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>5.9</td>
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<td>26.9</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>16.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. I don’t understand why some people get so upset over English classes.  
   9.2 | 41.2 | 43.7 | 5 | 0.8

18. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.  
   22.7 | 50.4 | 14.3 | 10.1 | 2.5

19. Even If I am well-prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.  
   9.2 | 30.3 | 28.6 | 29.4 | 2.5

20. I often feel like not going to my English class.  
   5 | 16 | 21 | 43.7 | 14.3

21. I can feel my heart pounding when I’m going to be called on in English class.  
   5 | 19.3 | 33.6 | 33.6 | 8.4

22. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.  
   1.7 | 6.7 | 25.2 | 47.9 | 18.5

23. I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.  
   10.1 | 40.3 | 38.7 | 10.9 | 0

24. English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.  
   2.5 | 9.2 | 32.8 | 47.9 | 7.6

25. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.  
   4.2 | 6.7 | 27.7 | 52.1 | 9.2

26. When I’m on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.  
   14.3 | 48.7 | 31.1 | 5 | 0.8

27. I don’t worry about making mistakes in English class.  
   6.7 | 38.7 | 28.6 | 23.5 | 2.5

28. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.  
   15.1 | 36.1 | 34.5 | 13.4 | 0.8

29. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.  
   5.9 | 21.8 | 34.5 | 27.7 | 10.1

30. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.  
   2.5 | 18.5 | 28.6 | 41.2 | 9.2

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.  
   2.5 | 23.5 | 30.3 | 32.8 | 10.9

32. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.  
   5 | 36.1 | 32.8 | 23.5 | 2.5

33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance.  
   3.4 | 37.8 | 22.7 | 29.4 | 6.7

* Percentages may not add to 100 due to their being rounded up to the nearest whole number.