The Report Committee for Yen-Ju Chen
Certifies that this is the approved version of the following report:

Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety and Anxiety Management Strategies

APPROVED BY
SUPERVISING COMMITTEE:

Supervisor:

Elaine K. Horwitz

Diane L. Schallert

Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety and Anxiety Management Strategies

by

Yen-Ju Chen, B.Ed.

Report

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Arts

The University of Texas at Austin

December, 2014

Abstract

Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety and Anxiety Management Strategies

Yen-Ju Chen, M.A.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2014

Supervisor: Elaine K. Horwitz

By reviewing previous studies, this report aims to explore foreign language listening anxiety and provide a description of anxiety management strategies. There are three parts in the literature review: First, the report discusses the definition and process of listening comprehension; second, it investigates the concept and components of foreign language anxiety and its measurement and impact; finally, the literature review focuses on the importance of foreign language listening comprehension anxiety, and lists its possible sources and influences. In the pedagogical implication portion, this report lists nine listening anxiety reducing strategies developed from the findings in the literature review. By incorporating these strategies into language learning, learners can alleviate the negative influence from foreign language listening anxiety.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

I. Introduction

a. Background Information

I had been an English teacher for three years in one of the junior high schools in Taipei, Taiwan before pursuing graduate-level study here in the United States. In my country, listening skills do not receive much value compared to the other skills. Just as in most Asia countries, English as a foreign language education in Taiwan is the main priority in education, but even so, listening is not emphasized. Formal English education starts in primary schools, although the starting grade may differ from the first to the third grade, depending on each individual city government's economic condition and educational plans. Because of learners' young ages, English instruction often focuses primarily on listening and speaking. However, after learners enter junior high school, instruction becomes test-oriented; students are taught to prepare for entrance exams. Before 2013, the entrance exam for entering senior high schools only tested students' vocabulary and grammar, and most questions evaluated learners' reading comprehension. The entrance exam for universities tests learners' listening, reading, and writing skills. However, most universities consider listening scores as only threshold. This means the washback effect of the tests from this educational policy has led learners in my country to put less emphasis on English aural and oral skills. Listening and speaking skills are both crucial factors in communication, and it is true that the amount of information listeners receive is the key to being successful when responding back. However, because speaking

is not usually tested, few learners are conscious of the need to improve these two skills in the early stages of language learning.

Also, most classes in elementary, junior, and senior high schools are taught in the native language, and Grammar Translation is the most prevalent teaching methodology in language classes. Students do not have many opportunities to listen to English or engage in communicative practice. Outside of class, although students make an effort to enhance their English proficiency, they spend most of their energy memorizing new words and doing reading comprehension practices. Because students rarely have opportunities to listen to English, they feel anxious when they are required to receive oral messages spoken in English. Learners may not have previously noticed their underdeveloped listening skills after studying English as a foreign language for three to five years. Without adequate input, the anxiety problem becomes exacerbated when learners notice the gaps in their abilities.

Sadly, learners usually notice their need to improve listening skills and overcome listening anxiety when they face other exams with a listening portion. Learners may become depressed when they feel they got lost in incomprehensible input. Some learners reported resorting to using their former listening strategies intended to solve problems; however, these strategies may not work in listening comprehension, leading them to experience more anxiety after trial and error. It is possible that learners may not notice or recognize that they already experience heightened level of anxiety while using listening and speaking skills. In fact, more students express their anxiety for speaking than for listening because speaking skills are explicit and active behaviors. In contrast, learners

may not even be aware that they experience high listening comprehension anxiety. Some of my students expressed what they felt while listening to spoken English, “When people speak English to me, I feel my heart beat wildly and get sweaty palms. I think I can only recognize a few words of what they say. However, if they write down what they are talking about, I have no trouble understanding them. I know every word they say.” They knew they had difficulty in listening comprehension, but they could not figure out what caused this to happen and how to solve the problem.

Regardless of learning context, the nature of listening makes comprehension more difficult than reading and can also lead to listening anxiety. Unlike written texts, listeners cannot go back to spoken texts once they miss information, and any inattention to the listening text may lead to confusion about the main idea altogether. To beginners, with limited linguistic knowledge, they may retain all new information in their working memory, which is both demanding and overloading. Moreover, spoken language has more variation than written language; accent, linking, reduction, pause, stress, and intonation all increase difficulty in comprehension.

In fact, many learners have experienced listening anxiety. While some may not have even noticed, some may struggle to find ways to overcome it. Because I have identified this problem in my own learners, my intent in this report is to investigate more about the phenomenon of foreign language listening anxiety. I hope through exploration from previous studies, the sources and effects of listening anxiety can be identified. Learners need to notice their anxiety before they begin to overcome it. Additionally, teachers need to know what characteristics an anxious learner has, what factors lead to

the problem, and what negative influences may affect the learner before helping students reduce anxiety. To help learners in similar learning contexts or having experience in listening anxiety, strategies to defeat listening anxiety from different aspects are provided and discussed.

b. Report Preview

The purpose of this report is to understand more about listening anxiety. The first part of this report is the literature review, which starts with a discussion about how listening comprehension is processed by both L1 and L2 learners. Next, the phenomenon of general foreign language anxiety is explored. Finally, the report focuses on foreign language listening anxiety. This section includes sources that can induce listening anxiety and the influence of this anxiety. After a thorough review, the pedagogical implication section provides suggestions for strategies that can help reduce listening anxiety. There are nine strategies that aim to deal with anxiety from different directions. Two of the strategies are then incorporated into two different lesson plan designs in the appendix section as reference. Lastly, the conclusion summarizes this report, and ends with a reflection about my teaching context, Taiwan. Suggestions and directions for improvement to my teaching context or other similar contents are brought up on the basis of the findings of this report.

II. Literature Review

a. Listening Comprehension

The first step in communication is that the listener needs to comprehend what message the partner speaker wants to convey. However, if the message is not understood successfully, there are many reasons to explain the difficulty. Before exploring listening comprehension anxiety and difficulty, it is necessary to discuss the process of listening comprehension and the factors that affect it.

Clark and Clark (1977) gave a definition of listening comprehension from a perception and memory perspective. This older definition mainly focused on bottom-up process, which was not comprehensive enough compared to other newer definitions.

> First, hearers take in the raw speech and retain a phonological representation of it in "working memory." Second, they immediately attempt to organize the phonological representation into constituents, identifying their content and function. Third, as they identify each constituent, they use it to construct underlying propositions, building continually onto a hierarchical representation of proposition. Finally, once they identified the propositions for a constituent, they retain them in working memory and at some point purge memory of the phonological representation. In doing this, they forget the exact wording and retain the meaning. (p. 49)

Long term memory works with meaning, not with form. Listeners retain meaning and store it in long-term memory, but words or syntax are deleted. Richards (1983) expanded the above model with a contextual assumption included.

1. The type of interfactional act or speech event in which the listener is involved is determined (e.g., conversation, lecture, discussion, debate).
2. Scripts relevant to the particular situation are recalled.
3. The goals of the speaker are inferred through reference to the situation, the script, and the sequential position of the utterance.
4. The propositional meaning of the utterance is determined.
5. An illocutionary meaning is assigned to the message.

6. This information is retained and acted upon, and the form in which it was originally received is deleted. (p. 223)

There is no specific definition for listening comprehension. However, researchers generally agree that listening requires both bottom-up and top-down processing. In bottom-up processing, listeners decode the sounds, words, clauses and sentences to get meaning. Learners construct meaning by accretion; they combine smaller units like phonemes to larger units like discourse-level features. In top-down processing, listeners use general knowledge (topic, culture, long-term memory) to comprehend the text. Top-down processing can be used as a compensatory strategy. Generally, listeners need a combination of the two to make spoken input comprehensible. However, the proportion of meaning coming from each processing may differ depending on the purpose of listening (Vandergrift, 2007). To native language listeners, they can automatically process aural input without exerting too much effort on bottom-up processing. In second language listening comprehension, listeners need to consciously discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary, syntax, stress and intonation, and interpret all the components in a sometimes unfamiliar sociocultural context (Vandergrift, 1999).

In the review article of Rubin (1994), she concluded five major factors affecting listening comprehension from 130 prior studies: (1) Text characteristics. There are four subcategories. For acoustic-temporal variables, they include speech rate, hesitation, and pause phenomena; for acoustic-other variables, they include level of perception, sandhi, stress and rhythmic patterning perception, and L1/ L2 differences; for morphological and syntactic modifications (including restatements), they include syntactic modifications,

redundancy, morphological complexity, word order, and discourse markers; for a text type, it includes visual support for texts. (2) Interlocutor characteristics. (3) Task characteristics (type). (4) Listener characteristics. They include language proficiency level, memory, attention, age, gender, learning disabilities in L1, and background knowledge. (5) Process characteristics. They include top-down, bottom-up, and parallel processing, listening strategies, note taking, strategy training, and negotiation of comprehensible input. All the factors listed above influence listening comprehension. Some of these have been explored more in-depth in previous studies. Some factors that affect listening comprehension competency and induce listening comprehension anxiety, will be discussed in the following sections.

Both reading and listening are receptive language skills. Despite their similarity, there are also many differences between them (Bacon, 1989). Bacon listed the three differences as follows: First, readers can clarify the meaning of the text by going through the same text; however, if listeners can not interrupt speakers or cannot request repetition in some situations, listeners need to rely more on inference to make input comprehensible. Second, cognate words can be more easily identified visually in reading than in listening. Third, the ways to show redundancy in the two skills are different. Readers can find redundancy from markers in the text, while listeners depend on gesture, pause, and reiterations. So, because of the above difference, generally, the process of listening comprehension generates more anxiety than reading comprehension.

Comprehensible input is crucial in listening comprehension. Krashen (1985) suggested that “humans acquire language in only one way-by understanding messages, or

by receiving comprehensible input" (p.2). Krashen further explained that comprehensible input refers to structures in the input a little bit beyond learners' current competency; if learners' current level is *i*, *i* + 1 would be an appropriate input level. Learners are able to understand unlearned grammar through content, which includes "extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world, and previous acquired linguistic competence" (p.2). However, Krashen also pointed out that not all input can be acquired. Once learners hear, mental factors, such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence, serving as an affective filter, could block learners from acquiring the comprehensible input they receive.

b. Foreign Language Anxiety

Logically, the concept of foreign language listening comprehension anxiety is associated with general foreign language anxiety. Research has identified language anxiety as situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz, 2001). In the study by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), there are three types of anxiety that are closely related to foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is the feeling of shyness or anxiety when learners need to use the target language to communicate with others. For example, people who have anxiety when speaking in public, listening or learning a spoken message may have communication apprehension. Test anxiety stems from fear of failure in a testing situation. Having unrealistic expectation toward test outcome may exacerbate test anxiety. Fear of negative evaluation refers to "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself

negatively." The definition of fear of negative evaluation is broader than simply test anxiety. The researchers considered foreign language anxiety to be different from other anxiety, and define it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, belief, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz, *et al*.,1986, p.128).

Horwitz *et al*. (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to examine the scope and severity of general foreign language anxiety. The scale helps to identity anxious learners. It includes a total of 33 items. The results from the FLCAS of Horwitz *et al*. (1986) suggested that significant foreign language anxiety was experienced by many students and showed that students with foreign language anxiety tended to share some common characteristics. The FLCAS has been widely used and adapted in many studies, establishing a connection between general language anxiety and other language learning aspects, such as anxiety in specific language skills (Cheng, 2002; Kim, 2000; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999) and language class or test performance (Aida, 1994; Kim, 1998; Kim, 2000).

Gregerson and MacIntyre (2014) categorized symptoms of anxiety in language learning in four aspects: The physical realm, the emotional/affective realm, the linguistic / cognitive realm, and the interactional/ social realm. In the physical realm, anxious language learners report having increased heartbeat, tension, and trembling (Horwitz *et al*., 1986). Gregerson (2005) also found that high-anxiety learners manifest limited facial expressions and hand movements, and that their postures tend to be rigid and closed. In the emotional/affective realm, anxious learners experience insecurity, fear,

embarrassment, panic, confusion, incompetence, over self-consciousness (Gregerson and MacIntyre 2014), worry related to an arousal of the automatic nervous system, a feeling of being overwhelmed by grammatical rules, and a fear of being laughed at (Horwitz *et al.*, 1986). In the linguistic/cognitive realm, Horwitz (2001) suggested that a negative relationship exists between foreign language anxiety and achievement. Horwitz *et al*. (1986) indicated that students with higher writing anxiety write shorter compositions, have difficulty concentrating and grasping the content of input, have problems discriminating the sounds and structure, become forgetful, or even over-study. In the interactional/social realm, learners show avoidance behavior, such as missing class and procrastination. Students may hold the wrong belief that they need to be perfect before communicating with others in a second language. Talkative students may become reticent in second language classes (Horwitz *et al*., 1986).

Other studies have discussed the effects of foreign language anxiety on receiving input or listening comprehension. Tobias (1986) stated that interference of general anxiety may occur at three stages: input, processing, and output. Anxiety may cause distraction and poor processing of information. Learners with high anxiety may easily be distracted from the task because time is divided between processing emotion and performing the task. Horwitz *et al.* (1986) suggested that students with language anxiety have difficulty grasping the main point in the target language. Additionally, clients with anxiety problems at the Learning Skills Center at the University of Texas reported having difficulty understanding what teachers said in extended target language utterances.

The relationship between language anxiety and achievement has been discussed in a number of studies. The inverted "U" concept can explain how language anxiety relates to performance (MacIntyre, 1999). Facilitating anxiety, at a moderate level, leads to better performance because of increased effort (Leibert & Morris, 1967). However, most studies discussed the negative effect of excessive anxiety, which is debilitating. Several studies (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre &Gardner, 1989; Aida, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Kim, 1998) indicated a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and achievement. Horwitz (2001) concluded that anxiety is a cause of poor language learning because it is a well-known source of interference in all kinds of learning. She also observed that many high proficiency learners reported experiencing language anxiety. In the study by Chen and Chang (2004), which looked at EFL college learners in Taiwan, the finding indicated that the language learning history, classroom learning characteristics, and developmental skills were the best predicators of anxiety in foreign language learning. Among these, English learning history was the best indicator, which meant that the more difficult experience the learners had in English learning, the more anxiety they experienced. On the other hand, academic learning history and test characteristics were not variables that could explain foreign language anxiety, which implied that foreign language anxiety is a situation-specific anxiety associated with the experience of foreign language learning only.

Unlike the results of previous studies, which found a negative relationship between language anxiety and language performance, In'nami (2006) found that the three factors of test anxiety: test worry, test-irrelevant thinking, and emotion, did not have significant

influence on listening test performance. The study used structural equation modeling to show that test anxiety did not affect listening test performance. The result implied that test anxiety is an anxiety problem in general and is not associated with language learning specifically. The researcher attributed the unexpected outcome to the participants' high proficiency and positive self-esteem, strategic competence to control anxiety, and the low stakes nature of the test outcomes as the main reasons. The high proficiency participants in the study tended to have positive experience in tests. In contrast, previous studies have mostly focused on learners in beginning levels. However, because there are other variables needed to be taken into consideration in this study, we cannot conclude that as learners develop their language skills, they feel less test anxiety.

From the above studies, we find there are two subtypes of anxious learners: anxious learners with and without foreign language learning difficulty. To identify the types, teachers can observe between classroom performance, grades from language tests, and the result of a questionnaire like FLCAS. To anxious learners with no obvious difficulty in language learning, channeling personal and social anxiety, creating a low-anxiety learning environment, having good teacher-student interaction, and providing positive feedback can help (Chen & Chang, 2004). On the other hand, for anxious learners with language learning difficulties, instructors need to provide more language learning strategies and also adapt their teaching techniques to reduce anxiety in their learning process.

c. Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety

Compared to general language anxiety and speaking anxiety, there are fewer studies that focus exclusively on listening comprehension anxiety. Researchers tend to place more weight on speaking anxiety than on listening anxiety. Because listening comprehension is an implicit process and a receptive skill, anxiety from it may be hard to identify and therefore ignored. Nonetheless, from the previous studies, we can be sure of the existence of anxiety from listening comprehension. In the study by Horwitz *et al*. (1986), counselors at the Learning Skills Center at University of Texas found that foreign language anxiety focused on two basic language skills: listening and speaking. According to a study by Vogely (1998), 91 percent of the learners experienced listening anxiety. Arnold (2000) also found 81 percent of the participants in her study reported being more anxious toward listening comprehension tests, compared to tests of other skills. In the quantitative findings by Kim (2000), she observed that a majority of Korean EFL learners experienced listening anxiety in both the language classroom and real-life communication situations. Furthermore, Krashen also mentioned that "listening is highly anxiety provoking if [the discourse] is incomprehensible" (cited in Young, 1992, p.168).

It is helpful to identify learners with listening anxiety by using scales that have been developed in previous studies. In the FLCAS (Horwitz, *et al*., 1986), some of the questions are geared to identify learners with listening anxiety. For example, Item 4, "It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language." Or Item 29, "I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says." To identify learners' anxiety focusing on listening skills, Kim (2000) developed the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) with 36 questions to assess EFL

Korean students listening anxiety. Elkhafaifi (2005) also constructed a Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) with 20 items to evaluate listening anxiety of students studying Arabic as a foreign language. Chang (2008) developed the Listening Anxiety Questionnaire with 33 items to assess learners' listening anxiety, its intensity, and the main sources of the anxiety. The scores from these scales helped researchers identify learners' anxiety levels and do further exploration about the relationship between listening anxiety and other variables in language learning.

Listening comprehension anxiety can affect other language skills, such as speech production, because listeners need to understand what is said before responding interactively. In fact, listening comprehension anxiety and general foreign language anxiety are correlated. In the study by Elkhafaifi (2005), the researcher found students with higher levels of foreign language anxiety tended to have higher levels of listening anxiety and vice versa. There was a significant positive correlation in Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the FLCAS and the FLLAS scales ($r = .66$, $p < .01$). Bekleyen (2009) also identified a significant positive correlation between foreign language anxiety and foreign language listening anxiety from the scores of the FLCAS and FLLAS scales ($r = .52$, $p < .01$). The following two sections examine possible sources that induce listening comprehension anxiety and the influences from it.

Sources of Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety

Poor information processing may lead to listening anxiety; however, anxiety may also inhibit information processing (Kim, 2000). The possible reasons for listening anxiety may stem from the listener's linguistic or background knowledge, the manner of

the speaker's speech, the content and format of the text, little processing time, or misuse of listening strategies. In addition to all the factors happening in listening comprehension processing, other aspects, such as teachers' instruction and attitude, and learners' beliefs and strategy use, can all become sources that induce listening anxiety in some learners.

In the study by Chang (2008), she found, from the self-created Listening Anxiety Questionnaire, that college business major students had high levels of listening test anxiety compared to their general listening anxiety, which implied that the learners were more anxious when their language proficiency was being evaluated. Three sources of listening anxiety were reported and the proportion of variance in listening anxiety explained from the largest to the smallest was in this order: low confidence in comprehending spoken English, taking a listening course, and feeling worried about the difficulty of the test. The subcategories of the three sources reflected these language learners' low listening proficiency made them feel anxious when the listening classes or tests were required.

According to Vogely (1998), 51 percent of the participants in her study responded that their listening anxiety was associated with characteristics of input, which included the nature of the speech (accent, poor enunciation), the level of difficulty (beyond students' level, unfamiliar topics, complex syntax), lack of clarity, lack of visual support, and lack of repetition; 30 percent of the participants thought their listening anxiety was related to process-related aspects, which included inappropriate strategies, lack of processing time, not knowing what or how to prepare for a listening comprehension task, and unlike reading comprehension, being unable to go back to check the content. In the

listening process, especially to students who took listening comprehension to mean understanding or translating every word, frustration and anxiety in listening comprehension were more frequently observed.

Learners' language proficiency is also related to anxiety level. Aneiro's dissertation (1989) found that high receiver apprehension was related to lower listening comprehension and general L2 language proficiency, and more exposure to English was significantly related to lower receiver apprehension. Elkhafaifi (2005) found older and more advanced level students experienced less listening anxiety than younger, basic, and intermediate level students. However, studies have also found that high proficiency learners can have high anxiety in listening comprehension. In the study by Bekleyen (2009), the author chose to observe English learners who were English teacher candidates from Turkey as participants. The scores from the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) indicated they had high levels of listening anxiety. Among them, half of the participants attributed their anxiety to their previous education, which had focused on grammar and vocabulary. Reading and writing were tested and emphasized, and listening and speaking were neglected. The difference in phonological properties is also one of the factors leading to listening anxiety. Turkish is a syllable-timed language, meaning each syllable is produced in a steady flow. On the other hand, English is a stressed-timed language; the stressed syllables are produced at roughly regular time intervals and the unstressed syllables separate the intervals. Some of the function words are produced as unstressed forms in connected speech, which can make nonnative speakers from syllable-

timed language backgrounds feel unfamiliar with the spoken language and increase their listening anxiety.

Learners' beliefs and motivation can also affect how they perceive a task. Learners may have enough knowledge to cope with listening tasks; however, their self-beliefs in strategy use and their level of motivation may induce anxiety and increase difficulty in achieving their goals or progress. Graham (2005) discussed listening comprehension from the learners' perspectives. The author found many participants perceived themselves as unsuccessful listeners. Most of them attributed their failure in listening to the speed of the delivery of texts. The author stated that the learners tended to focus too much on bottom-up processing strategies by using their linguistic knowledge, which was not sufficient enough to comprehend the input. These learners paid attention to individual sounds, words, or phrases to get the meaning in the tasks. The fleeting spoken second language made them feel out of control and made them want to give up. Their false belief in bottom-up strategies led to low performance and affected their motivation. Another factor contributing to failure in listening comprehension was that most learners attributed their difficulty to their lack of ability, which indicated a sense of passivity and helplessness in learners. Because learners perceived their low ability as innate and unchangeable, they became demotivated towards learning. Although the author did not indicate the relationship between motivation and anxiety, some studies have examined this relationship. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) stated that anxiety is an antecedent to motivation. It appears that the two variables have a reciprocal relationship; anxiety affects motivation, and motivation brings an effect to anxiety (Gardner & MacIntyre,

1993). Moreover, motivation and listening proficiency are negatively correlated. Because unmotivated students see no relation between their action and the result, like studying hard and having good performance, they are more likely to develop a passive attitude (Vandergrift, 2005). In this regard, motivation can also be regarded as a clue when teachers try to identify anxious learners.

To understand better how learners' self-perceptions may affect the extent of the anxiety they feel, Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006) explored the relationship between self-efficacy, listening proficiency, and listening anxiety. The researchers proposed that on the basis of social cognitive theory, learners' weak sense of self-efficacy can induce anxiety as well as decrease achievement. Learners with a stronger sense of self-efficacy have the ability to transform stress into positive expectations and be more successful. The results of the study suggested that a stronger sense of listening self-efficacy was negatively associated with listening anxiety. Also, similar to the results of most studies, listening anxiety had a negative relationship with listening proficiency. Kim (2000) pointed out that low confidence plays a significant role in listening anxiety. Learners' self-rated English listening proficiency levels were more negatively correlated to their listening anxiety scores from questionnaires (-.45) than the correlation between learners' actual listening performance on the TOEFL and the scores from anxiety questionnaires (-.36). This result implied that learners' self-perceptions were better predictors of their listening anxiety levels than their real performance.

Previous studies concur that language anxiety inhibits the ability to process input and affects cognitive performance in second language learners. In reverse, some studies

have focused on whether learners' cognitive capacity can contribute to managing anxiety in second language learning. In listening, people tend to place emphasis on how much information they memorize, which is a form of intentional remembering. However, Yang (2010) investigated the function of retrieval inhibition, the ability of people to stop themselves from thinking about unwanted memory. The author used the term "*intentional forgetting*" to refer to this effect. Intentional forgetting helps listeners to ignore unrelated information while focusing on listening tasks. Although the study did not find a significant relationship between listening comprehension performance and the ability of intentional forgetting, learners who received higher scores on intentional forgetting tasks did show lower anxiety. The author argued that intentional remembering had a bigger impact on listening comprehension performance, causing intentional forgetting not to affect the learners' performance as much. Nonetheless, intentional forgetting played an important role in controlling listening anxiety. When the learners felt anxiety in a listening task, the function of intentional forgetting started to work by inhibiting unrelated and unhelpful emotion.

From the review of research on the sources of listening anxiety, we can conclude that sources that lead to listening anxiety are complicated and interrelated, making it difficult to isolate and fix just one factor if we want to help learners reduce anxiety in listening comprehension. We must also take individual differences into consideration. The same source may induce anxiety in one learner, but may not be an anxiety-provoking factor to others. Teachers need to be sensitive enough to figure out the sources most likely be anxiety-provoking to students through observation in class activities. Strategies

that are geared towards reducing listening comprehension anxiety from different sources are discussed in later parts.

Influences from Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety

Listening anxiety, just like general language anxiety, can be facilitating and debilitating; both of them have a curvilinear relationship: moderate levels of anxiety makes receivers stay focused on the listening tasks; however, too little or too much anxiety leads to listening difficulty. Chang (2010) found that the majority of students who performed better in the listening comprehension pretest and posttest were participants who had moderate listening anxiety, rather than having too low or too high intensity. However, most studies still identify the negative effects from listening anxiety.

In the study by Zhang (2013), by using exploratory factor analysis, the author identified the underlining sub-components of foreign language listening anxiety, which had a multi-faceted construct including anxiousness, sadness, intimidation, low confidence and low satisfaction. These sub-components are also signs that teachers can use to identify high anxiety students.

Most studies found that increasing listening anxiety adversely influences learners' listening performance as well as their general second language performance. In the study by Arnold (2000), all participants reported that their listening comprehension exam anxiety affected their listening exam performance. Zhang (2013) used structural equation modeling to investigate the potential causual relationship between foreign language listening anxiety and English listening performance. She found that foreign language listening anxiety can be a cause of poor performance. In this longitudinal study, learners

who had a higher listening anxiety in the first stage of the research but had a lower listening anxiety in the second stage tended to improve their performance in the second stage. Conversely, the scores of the listening tests did not influence listening anxiety systematically. To interpret this result, the author concluded that foreign language listening anxiety is a kind of situation-specific anxiety, which is stable and does not form immediately, so performance on one or two tests does not affect the level of listening anxiety immediately. Elkhafaifi (2005) indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between listening anxiety and the final listening comprehension grades as well as their final general grades for students who took Arabic as a second language. Chang and Read (2008) and Bekleyen (2009) found similar results; the higher the levels of the students' listening anxiety were, the lower their listening test performance is. Although most studies could not provide direct evidence to show that listening anxiety caused low achievement, these data suggested that anxiety played an important part in learners' performance.

Besides the effect on listening performance, these studies also found listening anxiety generated similar symptoms to those learners who experienced general language anxiety. The participants in Bekleyen (2009) reported two basic effects of listening anxiety: avoidance and physical symptoms. To avoid situations requiring listening skills, participants did not take initiative to start conversation with others nor did they engage in class activities. The common physical symptoms the learners experienced included faster heartbeat, perspiration, blushing, and stuttering. In Kim (2000), learners with listening anxiety also reported having typical physiological symptoms such as irritation,

nervousness, tension, and difficulty in cognitive processing. Chang (2008) found that students with listening anxiety felt more nervous in English listening classes, and that they avoided eye contact with their teacher.

III. Pedagogical Implications—Strategies to Overcome Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Anxiety

Anxiety exists in second language learning. “As long as foreign language learning takes place in a formal school setting where evaluation is inextricably tied to performance, anxiety is likely to continue to flourish” (Horwitz, *et al.*, 1986). However, although we as language teachers cannot make language anxiety simply disappear, we can help our learners reduce their anxiety. Some language teaching methodologies have been designed to reduce anxiety, such as the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response. There are several more ways to help learners cope with listening comprehension anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) suggested two ways to help students with general language anxiety: helping them to cope with existing anxiety-provoking situation and making the learning environment less stressful. Vogely (1998) indicated that participants reported in the questionnaire that if they can be trained as strategic listeners, their listening anxiety may decrease. Kim (2000) reported that learners believed that to overcome listening anxiety, they needed to look for more authentic input themselves; however, instructors should also provide guidelines to learn systematic and efficient listening skills and to overcome anxiety. Elkhafaifi (2005) pointed out that teachers should teach listening strategies to help learners listen more effectively. Explicit strategy teaching can help reduce listening anxiety and increase comprehension.

Selecting suitable strategies for learners is also equally important. In fact, most learners try to find ways to reduce anxiety problems themselves. Kondo and Yang (2004) explored the types of strategies that students used to deal with anxiety while learning English as a second language. They concluded that preparation, relaxation, positive thinking, peer seeking (looking for others who have the same problem for help), and resignation (giving up) are common tactics for the learners to adopt. Although the effectiveness of these strategies was not discussed in this study, they pointed out that even learners with low anxiety would try a variety of strategies to reduce the negative impact from anxiety. These studies all emphasize the importance of reducing anxiety as well as the fact that learners expect teachers or themselves to have strategies to deal with the problem. The following section discusses some strategies teachers can employ in class or use to empower students to reduce anxiety in listening based on different listening anxiety sources.

a. Provide Comprehensible Input with Appropriate Difficulty Levels

Vogely (1998) pointed out the importance of comprehensible input to reduce listening comprehension anxiety. Learners can obtain enough listening practice without excessive frustration through comprehensible input with appropriate difficulty levels. Elkhafaifi (2005) suggested that teachers select listening tasks with appropriate difficulty levels for students, especially when choosing authentic materials. Difficulty in listening comprehension may vary when factors, such as the rate of delivery, level of vocabulary, topic, information content, fluency (amount of pausing, errors), and coherence differ (Richards, 1983).

b. Provide Learners Opportunity to Listen to Authentic Language

Learners tend to have higher anxiety when they are unprepared to listen to authentic speech. In Kim (2000), although learners were not low in proficiency, they still reported listening anxiety while listening to authentic listening tasks, such as colloquial conversation or news. Nonetheless, Kim still supported authentic materials being introduced and used from an early stage.

To prepare learners to comprehend authentic language, teachers should provide intelligent, informative, truthful, relevant, and sociolinguistically appropriate language (Bacon, 1989). To use authentic, or authentic-like listening materials, Bacon reminded instructors of the need to provide context and strategies to make listening more comprehensible. The speech rate, reduced forms, rhythm and stress and pausing in authentic listening may increase learners' nervousness. Strategies can include asking students to listen to main ideas or details, tone of voice, or number of speakers, and taking notes. Instructors should help learners develop these strategies gradually and use these strategies automatically by themselves. Moreover, preparing our learners to communicate beyond the classroom is necessary. Learners may have less anxiety if the listening activities they do in the classroom can reflect a purpose for listening that approximates authentic real-life listening, which has higher degree of transfer (Richards, 1983). To prepare learners for real listening, finding the right listening tasks for students to practice is important. Providing authentic and also comprehensible input which requires learners to negotiate for meaning and which contains linguistic knowledge at *i* +1 level can be the best kind of input (Krashen, 1982).

There are a number of sources for authentic or less-authentic listening materials on the Internet as well as plenty of prepackaged tape or CD programs. By choosing authentic materials, learners can have more opportunities to hear real natural language; however, teachers need to be aware of selecting materials with appropriate difficulty and provide strategies to scaffold, which can prevent learners from experiencing too much anxiety and frustration in learning. Scaffolding here means a more proficient speaker, such as a teacher, provides support to help maintain the process of receiving input for the learners who have limited linguistic resources, so the learners can keep participating (Horwitz, 2008). To choose authentic materials at the appropriate levels, Shohamy and Inbar (1991) listed the order of difficulty of commonly used materials: news was the most difficult, followed by lectures, followed by dialogues as the least difficult. Complexity of syntax, pauses and redundancy are potential reasons to cause the differences of difficulty between them. Language teachers can still choose authentic materials with less difficulty for novice learners and guide them to tune in to more difficult ones gradually. On the other hand, choosing published listening materials needs extra attention. Some of published programs are obviously scripted and less authentic. Scripted texts lose the redundancy, misstatement, miscue, and overlap, which show up in natural language (Bacon, 1989). Students may stay in their comfort zones when listening to these materials in class, but end up experiencing more listening anxiety when they need to expose themselves to natural spoken target language.

c. Speed of Delivery should not be Taken as the Main Factor of Failure in Listening

Learners sometimes impute excessive importance to a single factor; for example, some learners attribute failure in listening comprehension to speaking rate. They tend to feel more anxious when listening to faster speech (Kim, 2000). There were some studies investigating whether speech rates did affect second language learners' comprehension. In Chang (2008), 75% of the college participants reported they were anxious when spoken English is too fast; 91% of them felt less nervous with slow speech. However, Vogely (1998) pointed out that although many learners reported slower speed could help them alleviate listening anxiety, because listening comprehension is different from word-for-word translation, instead of slowing speed, breaking the spoken language into natural message units and keeping the natural intonation and pause should be more helpful to learners than simply slowing the speed. Rubin (1994) also suggested that there was no agreement in how speech rates affect listening comprehension for second language learners of English from the 130 studies she reviewed. Rubin concluded that the effect of speech rate on comprehension is also related to other variables, including learners' language proficiency, text types, and required background knowledge. In the study by Derwing and Munro (2001), the focus was on the kind of speech rates most Chinese ESL high proficiency learners preferred. Although the result of their study did not indicate participants' real comprehension, rate preference can be an indicator of listeners' overall comfort with certain kinds of speech. The more acceptable speech rates may cause less anxiety to listeners. By using digital manipulation, slowing down 10% of the speech rates did not make better rate evaluations from listeners. The unmodified rates were preferable to slow rates and slightly speeded rates were preferable to very slow natural productions.

Derwing and Munro described speech rates as a scapegoat that learners think causes comprehension failure; however, there are other more pertinent factors, such as phonological and grammatical differences between the L1 and L2 or proficiency levels, that instructors or learners need to consider.

From the implications of these studies, instructors can help learners understand that their false beliefs about fast speech rates may not lead to failure in comprehension. Teachers still can prepare authentic learning materials which may involve faster speeds. If our learners can have more opportunities to get accustomed to real speech rates from native speech, they will also have more possibility to be familiar with pauses, redundancy, and linking in natural speech rates, and will find that speech rates do not affect them so much. In contrast, if learners do not have enough opportunities to explore the process themselves, once they hear faster speech, their affective filter may raise more easily and quickly. As shown by previous studies, listening anxiety becomes an immediate disturbance to their cognitive processing and brings a negative influence towards performance, even if learners are already capable enough of dealing with the listening tasks.

d. Balance the Use of Cognitive and Metacognitive / Bottom-Up and Top-Down Strategies in Listening

Language teachers may wonder whether they should make students listen to learn, or whether students should learn to listen. Vandergrift (2004) proposed that teachers can instruct students to "*learn to listen,*" so they can better "*listen to learn.*" Generally, two

types of listening comprehension processing strategies have been proposed: cognitive strategies and metacogntive strategies (Rubin, 1994). Learners use cognitive strategies to solve learning problems regarding storing and retrieving information. Metacogntive strategies involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating knowledge to know what to do to comprehend the input better. In a study by Golchi (2012), low anxiety learners used more metacognitive strategies than high anxiety learners in an IELTS listening test. There was no significant difference in cognitive strategy use between learners with different anxiety levels. Sioson (2011) explained that metacognitive strategies make learners set goals, plan, and monitor their learning, which raises learners' self-confidence and self-esteem, reducing communication apprehension. However, both cognitive and metacognitve strategies have their own values; without developing cognitive strategies, the advantages of metacognitive strategies are curtailed (Vandergrift, 1999). Because cognitive processing directly manipulates learning materials, it is the first step to receive input. Language proficiency can become more developed with the combination of both cognitive and metacognotive strategies.

Cognitive strategies in listening comprehension favor more bottom-up approaches. Learners consume more working memory because their bottom-up processing, like their word recognition skills, has not fully developed and cannot work automatically. Vandergrift (2004) reviewed previous studies and proposed that advanced organizers (summary and interrogative questions) and visual supports can help learners focus directly on the desired information. Including these aids in the text helps learners use

limited attentional capacity only on related details. Also, to some visual learners, providing aural texts only in practice may limit their learning and arouse anxiety.

With prevalence of multimedia, movies and TV programs can be good authentic materials to enhance cognitive processing in listening comprehension. Markham, Peter and McCarthy (2001) investigated the effects of videos captions on listening performance for intermediate-level foreign language learners. The results indicated that L1 and L2 captions had different levels of effectiveness on increasing comprehension. Captions served as visual support to aid listening comprehension. The authors suggested novice and intermediate learners should use their stronger native language reading skills at first while listening with L1 captions, and then use their weaker target language reading skills the second time while listening with L2 captions. Finally, learners will be prepared and ready to use their much weaker target language listening skills without captions. The process above can be good training on cognitive processing in second language listening comprehension. Teachers can make good use of multimedia to help learners, and technology makes it easy to choose whether to show or hide captions. For novice and intermediate learners, teachers can use L1 captions with the target language soundtracks at the beginning, and then replace them with L2 captions, gradually reducing learners' dependence on captions. For advanced learners, L2 captions can be used at first, and practice with no captions can be the final goal. Another benefit of watching videos with or without captions is that learners are able to use the materials themselves and adjust the difficulty with their own learning speed. They can choose whatever videos they are interested in or have more background knowledge on, and adjust captions depending on

their need. It creates a low-anxiety and fun learning environment, and learners are able to enhance listening comprehension with repeated and supportive target language exposure.

Berleyen (2009) found that participants who stated they could not get the meaning of certain words in the listening task did not really mean they did not know the words. Instead, the difficulty in word recognition came from being unable to recognize pronunciations. Their listening anxiety did not have to do with knowing the meaning of the word, but with the level of recognition of words or sentences they already knew. To solve the cognitive processing problem of word recognition, Berleyen suggested learners need to have more opportunities to expose themselves to diverse types of spoken language. For high proficiency learners, listening tasks with different accents or dialects can also be good practice.

In real speech, learners cannot expect advanced organizers, visual supports, or captions to be available, and must realize that they may only be able to rely on acoustic signals and contextual factors (Vandergrift, 2007). Therefore, cognitive processing strategies alone are not adequate. For L1 listeners' cognitive processing, they have developed word recognition skills automatically; however, they still need metacognitive strategies for self-regulation while listening (Vandergrift, 2004). Needless to say, metacogntive strategies play an important role in successful L2 listening. Prediction, monitoring, problem solving, evaluation are the major categories of metacognitive strategies (Vandergrift 2004). To develop learners' metacognitive strategies, Vandergrift proposed several guidelines for teachers to follow. (1) Pre-listening and post-listening activities should be incorporated into listening tasks. Pre-listening activities help learners

make predictions about what information they are going to receive and help them focus more on meaning while listening. Post-listening activities encourage learners to reflect the process in listening and find out what kinds of preparation or work can improve comprehension. (2) Teachers should instruct students on ways to monitor their comprehension. It is impossible for teachers to intervene in the process while listening; however, activities, such as developing inference, reviewing difficulty, or justifying choices, can help learners learn how to monitor their listening process. (3) Teach students to evaluate the approach and outcomes of a listening task. Teachers can encourage students to evaluate the effectiveness of strategies they used, which can be discussed in pair or group activities. Learners who avoid taking risks and have a fear of failure tend to experience higher levels of anxiety in language learning. The instruction helps them learn to make plausible predictions and respond the discrepancy between predictions and outcomes (Field, 2001 & Vandergrift, 2004).

A fast delivery rate is the common factor to which many learners often attribute their failure in listening. Besides faster speech, learners sometimes report feeling anxious when they fail to understand some vocabulary during the process of listening. When learners attribute their difficulty in listening to unfamiliar words, sounds, or faster speech, it may imply that they put too much emphasis on bottom-up processing strategies. Inappropriate strategies can cause gaps in comprehension. To help learners bridge these gaps, teachers need to include top-down processing strategies to help learners make inferences or understand the general meaning of listening materials. The bottom-up approach helps learners build word-recognition skills, but it should not be mistaken for

the translation approach; the top-down approach helps listeners develop more real-life-like listening skills (Vandergrift, 2004)

Listening comprehension requires a balance between top-down and bottom-up strategies. Lacking either of the two will lead to problems in understanding spoken language, which increases the possibility that the learner will experience anxiety. Vandergrift stated that the combination of cognitive and metacognitve and bottom-up and top-down processing is the "optimum listening practice" that helps learners show a more positive learning attitude. Although Vandergrift (2007) provided many instructional methods for both cognitive and metacognitive strategies, he still emphasized the importance of confidence building, especially with beginning-level listeners. Teachers should help raise learner awareness about the process of listening as well as help listeners use combinations of metacognitive and cognitive strategies to increase comprehension and reduce frustration when learning to understand texts in practice or in real time. Also, although teachers initially play a great role in class, the extent of scaffolding in promoting cognitive and metacognitve strategies should be gradually decreased, so that the listening process can eventually function automatically and naturally. (For a lesson plan incorporating cognitive and metacogntive / bottom-up and top-down strategies, see Appendix A.)

e. Listening Support Mechanisms are Helpful to Reduce Anxiety and Enhance Comprehension

Listening support mechanisms serve as an important scaffolding tool for learners because their listening skills are still developing. Teachers should help learners choose proper listening support mechanisms to alleviate stress in listening and to bring listening skills into full play.

Tests used to evaluate learners' proficiency or improvement in language classes are inevitable in current school systems. To help learners yield their best test performance free from anxiety and stress, which affect the validity and reliability of the tests by skewing test scores, teachers can provide some listening support mechanisms during the tests to reduce anxiety. Chang (2008) explored four types of listening tests with different kinds of listening support mechanisms for listening anxiety. The researcher concluded that it is important to design a test that elicits the best performance of the learner without getting a skewed result caused by the learner's anxiety. Chang and Read (2008) investigated the effectiveness of four forms of listening support mechanisms (topic preparation, vocabulary instruction, repetition of the input, and preview of questions) to reduce listening test anxiety. This study revealed that good listening support mechanisms can be used as a strategy to help reduce the learner's stress. The scores from tests and questionnaires indicated that topic preparation and repeated input were more effective in enhancing listening comprehension and reducing listening anxiety when compared to vocabulary instruction and preview of questions. This result highlighted the value of background knowledge as a listening support mechanism. Also, participants in the interview reported that hearing the recording only one time was demanding because it was difficult to process and to understand the information at the same time. Vocabulary

instruction led to increase anxiety for both high and low proficiency learners. Perhaps because vocabulary instruction indirectly encourages learners to use a bottom-up method of comprehension, learners focus more on recognizing the sounds in tasks without grasping the main idea, which can induce listening anxiety. The researcher also found that vocabulary instruction was not effective in improving listening comprehension because learners need multiple encounters with new words in different contexts and to have opportunities using them before they are able to process their meanings. This implied that simply pre-teaching vocabulary or providing word lists as a listening support mechanism is not always useful. Finally, the authors of the study suggested that in order to decrease listening test anxiety and to enhance comprehension, the "correct" and "helpful" listening support mechanisms can be embedded in tests.

Zhang's (2013) result concurred with Chang and Read's (2008) result. Zhang suggested that new words can cause comprehension difficulty if listeners pay too much attention to unfamiliar sounds. For lower proficiency learners, verbal instruction as a listening support mechanism can be useful; on the other hand, high proficiency learners should be encouraged to take risks by guessing the meaning from context. Listening anxiety can be exacerbated if the listeners have the false concept that they need to understand every word to achieve listening comprehension. Horwitz, *et al*. (1986) suggested that there were many students with an incorrect belief that it is unacceptable to guess unknown words. Language teachers need to help learners understand that it is normal to hear some unfamiliar words in the spoken target language, as well as help learners use strategies to guess the meanings of words and to enhance understanding.

There are several more studies that discuss which kinds of listening support mechanisms lead to the best outcomes. Sherman (1997) discussed the effectiveness of preview questions as a listening support mechanism. In the study, four test versions were used by different groups. Participants who took Version A previewed questions before listening to the text twice; participants who took Version B read questions after listening to two hearings of the text; participants who took Version C listened to the text one time, then read the questions, and then listened again, which was called a "*sandwich version*". Participants who took Version D listened to the text twice and then wrote down everything they could remember without any questions as hints. Although there were no significant differences in the result of the tests, participants who took Version C achieved the highest mean scores. However, the results of the questionnaire gave researchers more clues about learners' attitudes towards different kinds of listening support mechanisms. Version C, the sandwich version, was the most favored test. Participants also reported the least tension while listening to the task in Version C. Version A was the second most preferred version, Version B was the third, and Version D, without any listening support mechanism, was the least favored and also caused the most anxiety. Learners with lower proficiency preferred the question preview more and disliked Version D more than the higher proficiency learners. The author attributed the participants' negative feelings towards Version B and Version D to test anxiety. Without being able to preview the questions or having extra support mechanisms in listening, learners felt a higher degree of uncertainty. The sandwich version of the test provided coherent listening texts once, then questions to review the content of the listening task, and listening texts again to ensure

the answers were correct. This test version provided learners with a general view at the beginning, which led into a more detailed view. Although listening support mechanisms did not cause a significant difference in listening performance in this study, we can observe that effective listening support mechanisms did help reduce listening anxiety.

Berne (1995) explored the effectiveness of three pre-listening activities: question preview as the first experimental condition, vocabulary preview on a list with native language definition as the second experimental condition, and a filler activity as the control condition. The results showed that the question preview group received the highest scores, and that those scores were significantly higher than those of the filler activity group, but not significantly higher than these of the vocabulary preview group. The author attributed this to the fact that previewing questions before listening allowed learners to know what information they needed to focus on and allowed them to construct possible responses. The reason vocabulary preview was not so effective was that learners could not connect the vocabulary with their background knowledge without other context cues. It is also possible that learners “lost the forest for the trees”; they paid too much attention to individual vocabulary words and became distracted from the content. The question preview activities led learners to use a top-down approach to focus on the whole meaning; in contrast, the vocabulary preview activity guided learners to use a bottom-up approach and to focus on individual words, which can actually impede comprehension. The result of this study concurs with Chang and Read (2008) and Zhang (2013). Another finding in this study was that the comprehension scores of the three groups for the second repeated input were significantly higher than the comprehension scores for the input

heard for the first time. This implied that additional exposure is effective in enhancing comprehension. The author suggested that language teachers should encourage learners to ask for repetition, restatement, or paraphrase for clarification if they do not understand something in the first hearing. Because learners cannot go back to the spoken texts as they can in written input, previous studies showed that learners' anxiety increases when they feel confused in listening. To reduce anxiety, skills of seeking for clarification should be applied, and teachers should encourage their use in class activities or in real situations.

The studies above have discussed the function of different listening support mechanisms. Among them, background knowledge is an important and effective listening support mechanism that reduces anxiety and increases comprehension. It is common for learners to have the incorrect belief that listening comprehension simply means understanding sounds, words, phrases and sentences. Without considering contexts, pragmatics, or real intention, it is actually quite difficult to understand what is being said. Listening tasks should somehow relate to learners' background knowledge. Background knowledge includes learners' task schemata, topic schemata, as well as linguistic knowledge of their first language. When listeners have no background knowledge toward a topic regarding another culture, there is a greater possibility miscomprehension may occur (Bacon, 1989).Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) investigated the effects of topic familiarity on second language listening comprehension. The participants scored considerably higher on the familiar topic than on the unfamiliar one, which suggested background knowledge is a powerful factor in listening comprehension. Background knowledge was found to

significantly influence learners of all different levels. Based on these results, Schmidt-Rinehart concluded that pre-listening activities are crucial because they can help activate background knowledge. Teachers should also make good use of learners' prior knowledge and make it connect with new information.

Listening support mechanisms that help learners reduce difficulty in listening comprehension and enhance understanding can be used for anxious learners in order for them to gain confidence and to experience less anxiety during the learning process. Teachers should consider incorporating some listening support mechanisms in tests or daily listening exercises to help learners listen more effectively as well as to decrease learners' avoidance of communication

Numerous studies have indicated the effectiveness of different kinds of listening support mechanisms on facilitating learners' comprehension. Teachers can design different pre-listening activities and guide learners to experience and identify the most helpful support mechanism to meet the learners' individual needs. Although in real communication, listeners cannot expect to preview questions or to know background knowledge before natural spoken language starts, these listening support mechanisms can serve as beneficial scaffolding for learners with limited linguistic knowledge to avoid excessive frustration, especially at the beginning stage of language learning. Teachers can decrease the level of listening support step by step once students' language competency increases or their anxiety decreases. By incorporating support into listening tasks, input becomes more comprehensible, allowing teachers to worry less when choosing authentic texts as learning materials. Especially for learners who report having foreign language

classroom anxiety, adequate listening support mechanisms can help enhance listening comprehension, increase the opportunity that learners experience success and improvement, and make them establish positive self-images towards their own abilities. (For the lesson plan incorporating listening support mechanisms, see Appendix B.)

f. In Listening Tests, Teachers should Focus More on the Listening Process, Rather than on Production Only

Tests can cause anxiety in learning, especially when the tests are high-stakes. Horwitz, *et al.* (1986) argued that test anxiety can be similar to foreign language anxiety. Although it is hard to avoid tests in the language class, language teachers should not focus solely on correct answers; the value of a test is in the process of how students find the answers. Zhang (2013) mentioned that listening instruction should focus more on process, rather than on product. Elkhafaifi (2005) also mentioned that instructors should encourage learners to guess, take risks, and make mistakes. By encouraging students to take risks and make mistakes, teachers can also attempt to understand the process of how students make mistakes, and can offer suggestions to students to make improvements. Moreover, Vogely (1998) observed that most students expected to get more listening comprehension practice; however, in reality, language teachers tend to make most listening activities formal and graded. So, even if tests are necessary, teachers should not use them as the only opportunity for practice. Learners can often obtain more practice with less anxiety in a free listening environment.

g. Learners should be Provided with Adequate Input, and Extensive Listening could be a Good Option

Learners tend to think that the more time they spend on listening, the less anxiety they will experience (Bekleyen, 2009). It makes sense that practice makes perfect. In Kondo and Yang (2004), they found that regardless of learners' language anxiety level, preparation was reported as the most frequently used strategy to cope with anxiety. This is reasonable because preparation is task-relevant in nature, and most people will consider preparation as the most effective way to reduce anxiety. Nonetheless, Bekleyen (2009) mentioned that some learners spent hours listening to learning materials repeatedly before the class in order to get prepared, hoping to feel more confident and less listening anxiety during the class because they were familiar with the materials. However, when the learners were later required to listen to something without preparation, they felt extra anxiety.

Extensive listening can be effective training for students to enhance their listening performance, and also can help learners become accustomed to listening to a target language. Extensive listening is defined to mean learners are able to choose any comprehensible and enjoyable input as listening activities. The key point here is to make learners accept a lot of meaningful listening practice (Renandya & Farrell, 2010). Chang (2008) indicated that besides exercises in language classes, few students did extra practice outside the class. However, teachers should inform students that listening competence can be improved greatly from daily practice. In Chang (2010), on the basis of

previous studies, which pointed out that extensive reading is as effective as, or even better than formal education in the long run, she used extensive listening in one group and formal instruction in a second group for a one-year period. For the extensive listening group, learners listened to 25 audio books, had discussions with teachers, and were given a short comprehension test to make sure learners paid attention during the tasks. For the formal education group, to develop listening skills, learners were taught high-frequency words and grammatical structures, and had regular quizzes, midterms and final exams. The results of the study showed that the extensive listening group improved more in listening competence; however, their listening anxiety also increased significantly. Listening anxiety for learners in the extensive listening group did not decrease with the improvement of listening comprehension performance. The results were not interpreted to mean that there was no reduction of listening anxiety from extensive listening. The author analyzed the results to show that listening anxiety does not decrease simply with an improvement in listening competence. This unexpected outcome was explained as facilitating anxiety, which is a kind of moderate pressure to push for better learning results. It is not realistic and nor is it necessary that teachers expect to create an anxiety-free environment for learners. Moderate anxiety can be facilitating for advancement in learning. The advantages of extensive listening are also quite numerous, such as providing learners with adequate and various kinds of input, exposing learners to the target environment, and forming a habit of listening to the target language regularly. These are all helpful elements in reducing listening anxiety as suggested in previous

research. Teachers can still apply extensive listening as a strategy to enhance listening competence and to reduce debilitating listening anxiety at the same time.

h. Create an Anxiety-Reducing Learning Environment

In the study by Vogely (1998), a majority (60 percent) of the participants suggested that instructional factors could be ways to alleviate listening anxiety. The students in the study expressed the need to receive regular feedback from instructors to make sure what they hear was correct or not. If learners can experience small success in the process, their anxiety levels can be lowered. Also, the instructor's personality is also important to alleviate anxiety. Having reasonable expectations towards learners and creating a friendly environment are necessary parts of reducing anxiety in the classroom. Instructors need to be understanding and sensitive to students' foreign language anxiety. One possible method Vogely (1998) mentions is that instructors can list sources of listening comprehension anxiety on the board and help learners understand listening anxiety is not experienced by just one person, but that it is experienced by many other learners as well. Elkhafaifi (2005) also suggested instructors discuss listening anxiety openly in class, especially to basic learners who do not have much second language learning experience.

i. Help Learners Build Positive Self-Images and Develop Ways to Vent Negative Emotion and Thinking

Besides the language and instruction aspects, techniques to help learners to relax and to form a more positive self-image are also used to reduce listening comprehension anxiety. In the study by Arnold (2000), the participants in the experimental group

performed a relaxation and visualization exercise after the listening pretest and before the listening posttest. To practice relaxation, participants were instructed on breathing methods to lower their stress and tension and to relax the whole body progressively. Next, visualization activities were used to help learners to construct a positive self-image and to modify their negative self-beliefs towards listening comprehension ability. Methods were used such as activating mental images, visualizing a master teacher to guide them in the brain, and imagining all the difficulty disappearing. There was no difference between the pretest scores of the experimental group and those of the control group. However, on the listening posttest, the experimental group had significantly higher scores. These techniques helped learners channel energy from anxiety to attention to language processing so that learners could focus more on listening tasks. Learners also reported feeling much calmer, less worried, and having more positive beliefs toward their listening abilities.

Yang (2010) also showed that if the act of intentional forgetting, a kind of cognitive ability that inhibits irrelevant information while receiving input, did not work, learners would experience higher anxiety. Because of this, the author provided some strategies to help facilitate intentional forgetting and control listening anxiety. For example, learners can use some diversions to distract themselves from unpleasant feelings. When pressure or anxiety occurs, learners can try to recall something positive or pleasant. Furthermore, the author suggested that learners continue focusing on learning new things, which ensures learners focus their attention on the right place and prevents them from paying too much attention to negative thoughts. Also, intentionally activating positive self-

images can help counterbalance these negative thoughts. Consciously performing these strategies can cause intentional forgetting to take place, reduce unproductive emotions, and help learners become more attentive to receiving input.

The strategies discussed in this section can be generally categorized as ways to enhance learners' listening comprehension or ways to adjust affective factors. In fact, the two things are correlated and difficult to separate. Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006) found that learners' self-efficacy was negatively related to their anxiety level in listening. Therefore, enhancing students' confidence in their ability to understand spoken language can help reduce anxiety. They recommend that to build learners' confidence, increasing their listening comprehension and making them see their improvement are the most practical methods. Strategies that foster self-efficacy are ones that can foster linguistic performance, and vice versa. The researchers stated that if teachers can incorporate strategies with the two directions together from the first day of instruction, the need for techniques to reduce anxiety can be curtailed in the long run.

The effectiveness of anxiety reduction strategies may depend on individual learners, and learners need to be provided time and opportunities to identify the most suitable ways to help themselves cope with anxiety. Vandergrift (1999) reminded teachers that strategy use should be developed by providing learners with abundant opportunities to practice. Teachers tend to use tests as opportunities for students to practice, which is not a favorable context for developing listening strategies. Listening tests can be a form of listening practice; however, experiencing different types of listening tasks with different topics and different contexts can better help learners find their own optimum listening

anxiety coping strategies. Moreover, Braham (2006) reminded teachers that just exposing learners to texts is not enough. For some teachers, it is common to believe that teaching listening is equal to providing listening texts in class. Learners need to be instructed how to listen before they can listen well. I expect through incorporating these strategies into instruction, learners can effectively alleviate listening anxiety and become better listeners.

IV. Conclusion

a. Report Overview

This report focused on foreign language anxiety in listening. Among approximately 40 studies, different theoretical concepts and the results of empirical research are discussed, and finally, possible strategies that help reduce listening comprehension anxiety are proposed. The unique nature of the listening process makes listening more demanding to some learners than others. Moreover, when learners' anxiety increases, it can inhibit comprehension; contrarily, low proficiency in listening can cause learners to experience more anxiety. This is a vicious circle. Because of this, most researchers suggested methods to not only lower anxiety, but to also enhance comprehension. The results from previous studies pointed out that strategies can help learners to deal with problems regarding listening anxiety. However, learners may hold false beliefs and adopt improper strategies in order to defeat the negative effect of anxiety. Teachers need to help learners understand the listening process and build up the functionality of cognitive and metacognitve processing to the point that they become automatic (Vandergrift, 1999, 2005). Listening support mechanisms can serve as scaffolding to learners whose cognitive and metacognitive skills have not fully developed. Applying different listening support mechanisms in different tasks empowers learners to comprehend more effectively and also lowers their affective filter. However, individual differences make each learner have his or her own learning style and preference. An effective strategy or support mechanisms may be effective to one learner,

but useless to another. Learners need to have sufficient and comprehensible input and also have opportunities to practice with authentic language in order to identify their preferred strategies based on their own experience.

Teachers have the responsibility to create an anxiety-reducing environment. Providing positive and constructive feedback regularly, having students experience small successes frequently, and being friendly and encouraging are all necessary components of decreasing anxiety in the language classroom. Even if testing is inevitable in formal education, teachers should put more emphasis on process than production. Moreover, building learners' positive self-images prevents them from experiencing excessive negative emotions. Finally, both teachers and students should never ignore the impact caused by foreign language listening anxiety. Understanding the possible sources and developing suitable strategies to avoid anxiety can lower its impact.

b. Reflection—about My Teaching Context

At the end of this report, after looking for several studies about the sources, the effects, and the solutions for listening anxiety, I would like to return to my teaching context. The importance of English as a foreign language education has always been greatly emphasized in my country, Taiwan. The value of language education goes beyond a simple school subject. English ability has already become an indicator of one's competiveness. However, few people recognize the problem of language anxiety. Because listening skills are not visible, most people overlook them. Teachers or learners themselves tend to blame lack of practice as the cause of foreign language anxiety or low proficiency. They have the misbelief that as long as they listen more, the problem can be

solved naturally. That is why it is common to see tons of reading or listening comprehension practice materials in bookstores. These practice materials are mainly multiple-choice questions that require learners to choose the correct answers after receiving written or spoken input. Poor learners still feel they are lost in real communication and experience more anxiety after making concerted effort. Few authentic materials show up in English textbooks from elementary to senior-high-school level. There is a large distance between natural language and this type of practice. Another issue is that testing leads instruction; however, the material teachers instruct may not be applicable in real life. The accumulation of these factors makes anxiety problems even worse. Language teachers should have more knowledge that foreign language anxiety comes from various sources and needs to be examined from different aspects.

Moreover, junior or senior high school students in my country usually have at least one English class every day. Teachers should have sufficient time to give students strategies to reduce listening anxiety and to make listening more comprehensible. Nonetheless, it is common to see teachers in my teaching context simply play soundtracks and check the answers of comprehension questions with students. This phenomenon implies that most teachers agree about the importance of sufficient input; however, they neglect the fact that second language listeners need to be taught how to listen; listening skills are not acquired naturally. Without proper instruction and strategies to scaffold, anxiety can easily increase more when learners are exposed to too much incomprehensible input. Therefore, I designed two lesson plans that incorporate strategies to overcome listening anxiety at the last part of this report (see Appendix A and B). I

hope embedding these strategies in class can help learners in my teaching context and other similar contexts as well.

Finally, teachers need to have more sensitivity to identify learners with high levels of language anxiety. Especially for listening anxiety, teachers have to pay extra attention and use patience to observe learners. In the test-oriented culture of Taiwan, language teachers are always eager to help learners achieve their goal, but ignore the fact that process is equally important. I hope that with the help of these strategies, either in teachers' instruction or in self-teaching, more individual can benefit and see listening skills as important components to language learning, rather than a source of fear or stress.

Appendix

Appendix A—Lesson Plan 1

Cognitive and Metacognitive / Bottom-up and Top-Down Strategies
Procedure
First Session
(1)The teacher prepares a video clip with the target language (L2) soundtrack from movies or TV programs before the class. The video clip must be comprehensible input for students (one level above learners' current proficiency). The topic of video clip should be related to students' daily experience or be able to arouse their interest. (Teachers need to be aware of the problem about copyright when choosing the video clip and make sure it can be played in public for education purposes.) (2) Pre-listening activities: The teacher discusses the topic of the video clip with the learners to activate students' background knowledge and to help prepared them for what they are going to listen to. (3) For the first listening, the teacher plays the video clip with the soundtrack and captions in the native language (L1). (4)Post-listening activities: The teacher asks students questions related to the content in the video clip based on what they have heard or seen. The questions focus on detailed information about the content of the video clip. Learners are allowed to use the L1 to answer the questions. (5) For the second listening, the teacher plays the video clip again with the soundtrack and captions in the L2. Before playing the clip, the teacher should tell students they are going to answer some detailed questions in the L2 later, encouraging them to listen to the target language carefully. (6) Post-listening activities: The teacher asks questions and this time students are required to answer these questions in the L2. If the students provide an incorrect answer, the teacher should ask them to justify their answer first, and provide clues to find the correct answer after. (7) For the third listening, the teacher plays the video clip again with the soundtrack, but

no captions.

(8) Post-listening activities: The teacher asks learners 5 WH1H questions (who, what, when, where, why, and how) and ask students to summarize what happened in the video clip. If the students provide an incorrect answer, the teacher should ask them to justify their answer first, and provide clues to find the correct answer after.

(9) The teacher discusses the following points with students.

a. How do they feel when watching the video clip with L1 captions? With L2 captions? Without captions? What is the difference in the listening comprehension process in the three listenings?

b. Do they think L1 captions or L2 captions help them comprehend better? In what way?

c. Do they think listening to the video clip with L1 or L2 caption helps reduce listening anxiety? In what way?

d. Without the help of captions in the third listening, how do they feel when hearing unfamiliar sounds or words? What strategies do they use to solve the problem?

e. Discuss with students whether or not they experience any other difficulties in the third listening. How do they feel when they have difficulties in listening comprehension? What strategies do they use to solve the problem?

Second Session

(1)The teacher prepares another video clip with the L2 soundtrack from movies or TV programs before the class. The video clip must be comprehensible input for students.

(2) Pre-listening activities: The teacher tells students about the topic of the movie or TV program. The teacher should ask students to predict what characters they will see, what possible content they will hear, and what kinds of scenes will take place.

(3) For the first listening, the teacher plays the video clip with the soundtrack, but no captions.

(4) Post-listening activities: The teacher discusses the following questions with learners.

a. Summarize what happened in the video clip. If students fail to summarize completely, provide 5WH1H questions to scaffold.

b. Are there any parts where they cannot understand what the speakers say while watching? Which part?

c. How do they feel when they have problems understanding?

d. How do they overcome the difficulty in listening?

e. In which activity do they feel more anxious, this one or the third listening in the first session?

(5) For the second listening, the teacher plays the video clip with the soundtrack and L2 captions. The teacher asks students to write down unfamiliar words or phrases.

(6) Post-listening activities: The teacher asks students to bring up words or phrases written down in their notes. The teacher shows students their definitions and provides examples of the words or phrases in context.

(7) The third listening is the same as the second listening. The teacher plays the video clip with the soundtrack, but without L2 captions. This time, encourage students to take detailed notes on information about the video clip.

(8) Post-listening activities: Ask students detailed questions about the content of the video clip. If students provide an incorrect answer, ask them to justify their answer first, and ask all the other students to identify the incorrect parts together.

(9) The teacher discusses the following points with students.

a. Ask all students to create a listening anxiety hierarchy and rank the listenings in order from the one in which they felt most anxious to the one in which they felt least anxious.

b. Which listening makes them feel the most anxious?

c. When they feel increased anxiety, what kinds of symptoms do they notice from their body or thought process?

d. In which listening are these symptoms most obvious?

e. How does anxiety influence their listening comprehension process in the three listenings?

f. How do they cope with anxiety during the three listenings?

g. Help students understand each individual has different listening anxiety levels and

its endurance. Recognizing the anxiety problems and developing strategies to reduce the levels will be helpful to comprehend input better.

Appendix B—Lesson Plan 2

Listening Support Mechanisms
Procedure
(1) Before the class, the teacher prepares five different listening tasks. Each task includes a passage of spoken input and the following comprehension questions. (2) Divide students into five groups. (3) The teacher explains to students the rules of the activity: Each group uses one designated listening support mechanism to complete the listening task. For students in Group A, they read an introduction to the topic as background knowledge before they listen to the text; for students in Group B, they preview comprehension questions first before listening; for students in Group C, they receive repeated input in a sandwich version: they listen to the text one time, then read the questions, and then listen again; for students in Group D, before they listen to the text, they read a list of words, their definition, usages, and example sentences that will show up in the listening; for students in Group E, they discuss with their group members to develop an effective listening support mechanism by themselves, which is not used by Group A, B, C, and D, and then use it to complete the listening tasks. All students in the group need to follow the rules and complete all the comprehension questions. Finally, they should check the answers of their questions and discuss with their group members about the incorrect ones in order to understand the problems. (4) After all the students in the five groups complete their tasks, students in Group A move to Group B; students in Group B move to Group C; students in Group C move to Group D; students in Group D move to Group E; students in Group E move to Group A.

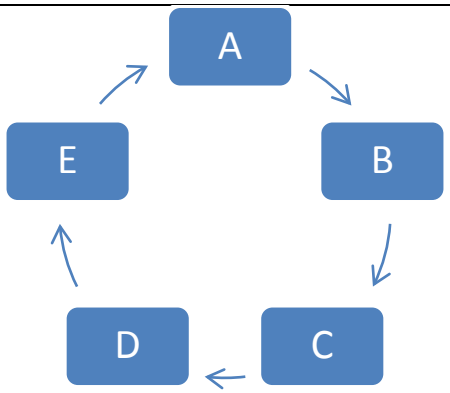

Figure 1: Students' Group Rotation

(5) Repeat the above rotation until all students have experienced five different listening support mechanisms.

(6) Ask students to go back to their original seats. Discuss the following points with them.

a. Among the five listening support mechanisms, ask students to rank their preference from the most favorable to the least. Explain the reasons.

b. Among the five listening support mechanisms, ask students to rank their effectiveness in listening comprehension from the most effective to the least. Explain the reasons.

c. Are the two rankings consistent? Explain why or why not.

d. Which of the listening support mechanisms help them reduce listening anxiety the most? In what way?

e. In real speech, can they develop suitable listening support mechanisms to facilitate listening comprehension and reduce listening anxiety on their own?

Bibliography

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. The Modern Language Journal, 78, 155-168.

Aneiro, S. (1989). *The influence of receiver apprehension in foreign language learners on listening comprehension among Puerto Rican college students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University.

Arnold, J. (2000). Seeing through listening comprehension exam anxiety. *TESOL Quarterly,* 34, 4, 777-786.

Bacon, S. M. (1989). Listening for real in the foreign-language classroom. Foreign Language Annals, 22 (6), 543-551.

Bekleyen, N. (2009). Helping teachers become better English students: Causes, effects, and coping strategies for foreign language listening anxiety. System, 37, 664-675.

Berne, J. E. (1995). How does varying pre-listening activities affect second language listening comprehension. *Hispania,* 78 (2), 316-329.

Chang, A. C-S. (2008). Sources of listening anxiety in learning English as a second language. *Perceptual and Motor Skills,* 106, 21-34.

Chang, A. C-S. (2010). Second-language listening anxiety before and after a 1-year intervention in extensive listening compared with standard foreign language instruction. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 110 (2), 355-365.

Chang, A. C-S. & Read, J. (2008) Reducing listening test anxiety through various forms of listening support. TESL-EJ, 12 (1), 1-25.

Cheng, Y. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals,* 35 (5), 647-656.

Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. Language learning, 49(3), 417–446.

Derwing, T. & Munro, M. J. (2001). What speaking rates do non-native listeners prefer? Applied Linguistics, 22 (3), 324-337.

Elkhafaifi (2005). Listening comprehension and anxiety in the Arabic language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal,* 89, 206-220.

Field, J. (2001).Finding one's way in the fog: Listening strategies and second-language learners. Modern English Teacher, 9 (1), 29-34.

Gardner, R.C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contribution to second language learning: Part II, Affective factors. Language Teaching, 26, 1-11.

Golchi, M. M. (2012). Listening anxiety and its relationship with listening strategy use and listening comprehension among Iranian IELTS learners. International Journal of English Linguistics, 2 (4), 115-128.

Graham, S. (2006). Listening comprehension: The learners' perspective. *System*, 34, 165-182.

Gregerson, T.S. (2005). Non-verbal cues: Clues to the detection of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals,* 36, 25-32.

Gregerson, T.S. & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). *Capitalizing on language learners' individuality: From premise to practice*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Horwitz, E.K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 559-552.

Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *21* (1), 112–126.

Horwitz, E. K. (2008). *Becoming a language teacher: A practical guide to second language learning and teaching*. Boston, MA: Pearson/ Allyn & Bacon.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.

In' name, Y. (2006). The effects of test anxiety on listening test performance. *System*, 34, 317-340.

Kim, J.-H., (2000). *Foreign Language Listening Anxiety: A Study of Korean Students Learning English.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.

Kim, S.Y. (1998). *Affective experiences of Korean college students in different instructional contexts: Anxiety and motivation in reading and conversation courses.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.

Kondo, D.S. & Yang, Y. (2004). Strategies for coping with language anxiety: the case of students of English in Japan. *ELT Journal*, 58 (3), 258-265.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1985) The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications. Beverly Hills, CA: Laredo Publishing Company.

Liebert, R.M., & Morris, L. W. (1967). Cognitive and emotional aspects of test anxiety : some distinctions and initial data. Psychological Reports, 20, 975-978.

MacIntyre, P.D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*, (pp. 24-25). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

MacIntyre, P.D., &Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language learning*, 39, 251-275.

Markham, P. L., Peter, L. A. & McCarthy, T. J. (2001). The effects of native language vs. target language captions on foreign language students' DVD video comprehension. *Foreign Language Annual*, 34 (5), 439-445.

Mills,N., Pajares, F.& Herron, C. (2006). A reevaluation of the role of anxiety: Self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39 (2), 276-295.

Richards, J.C. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. TESOL Quarterly, 17 (2), 219-240.

Renandya, W. A. & Farrell T. S. C. (2010). 'Teacher, the tape is too fast!' Extensive listening in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 65 (1), 52-59.

Rubin, J. (1994). A review of second language listening comprehension research. The Modern Language Journal, 78 (2), 199-221.

Saito, Y., Horwitz, E.K.& Garza, T.J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83 (2), 202-218.

Saito, Y., & Samimy, K. (1996). Foreign language anxiety and language performance: A study of learning anxiety in beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level college students of Japanese. Foreign Language Annals, 29, 239-251.

Schmidt-Rinehart, B. C. (1994). The effects of topic familiarity on second language listening comprehension, The Modern Language Journal, 78(2), 179-189.

Sherman, J. (1997). The effect of question preview in listening comprehension tests. *Language Testing*, 14 (2), 185-213.

Shohamy, E. & Inbar, O. (1991). Validation of listening comprehension tests: The effect of text and question type. *Language Testing*, 8, 23-40.

Tremblay, P.F., & Gardner, R.C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 505-520.

Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 53 (3), 168-176.

Vandergrift, L. (2004). Listening to learn or learning to listen. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 3-25.

Vandergrift, L. (2005). Relationships among motivation orientation, Metacognitive awareness and proficiency in L2 listening. Applied Linguistics, 26 (1), 70-89.

Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language Teaching*, 40 (3), 191-210.

Vogely, A. (1998). Listening comprehension anxiety: Students' reported sources and solutions. *Foreign Language Annals*, 31, 67-80.

Yang, X. (2010). Intentional forgetting, anxiety, and EFL listening comprehension among Chinese college students. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 20, 177-187.

Young, D. J. (1992). Language anxiety from the foreign language specialist's perspective: Interviews with Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin. *Foreign Language Annals*, 25, 157-172.

Zhang, X. (2013). Foreign language listening anxiety and listening performance: Conceptualizations and causal relationships. *System*, 41, 164-177.