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By

Nicholas Sherrod Gatlin

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**DON'T FORGET ABOUT US: AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGIATE
STUDENTS' NEWFOUND PERSPECTIVES ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE
MOTIVATION, FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY, AND BELIEFS ABOUT
FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Dissertation Committee:

Elaine K. Horwitz, Supervisor

Diane L. Schallert

Orlando R. Kelm

Edmund T. Gordon

Kevin M. Foster

**Don't Forget About Us: African-American Collegiate Students' Newfound
Perspectives on Foreign Language Motivation, Foreign Language Anxiety, and their
Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning**

By

Nicholas Sherrod Gatlin, B.A., M.A.

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DEDICATION

“...Do not leave the state of Texas until you complete that PhD” – Dad

“I love you and support you in this endeavor. I am very proud of you and all of your accomplishments.” – Mom

“I pray that I live to see the day where I can call my grandson Doctor.” – Grandma

To the three of you, I thank you for your love, words of encouragement, your unconditional support. It has meant more to me than you could imagine. For that, I dedicate this to you and I say...

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Don't Forget About Us: African-American Collegiate Students' Newfound Perspectives on Foreign Language Motivation, Foreign Language Anxiety, and their Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning

Publication No. _____

Nicholas Sherrod Gatlin, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2013

Supervisor: Elaine K. Horwitz

This study investigates African-American college students' beliefs about foreign language learning, foreign language anxiety, motivations for language learning, and the extent to which the racial composition of a campus environment plays a role in those factors.

571 students across four universities completed three survey instruments: modified versions of the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1986), the Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand et al., 1992) respectively, the Foreign Language Classroom Academic Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986), and three open-ended questions on being African-American and learning a foreign language.

Findings noted that one of three motivation factors for language learning was significantly different for campus environment. Post-hoc analyses indicated that participants at HBCUs were less likely to be the least motivated by short-term extrinsic goals for learning a foreign language than those at a PWI.

African-American participants reported higher levels of foreign language anxiety than mixed groups of participants in previous studies and there were no significant

differences in foreign language anxiety regarding campus environment and gender; but, there were significant differences for academic classification and the individual universities.

Two of three motivation factors correlated with foreign language anxiety. Long Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction—had a positive relationship with anxiety only at Predominantly White Institutions (PWI), whereas, Short Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment had a negative relationship with foreign language anxiety at both PWIs and HBCUs, This factor also had the highest relationship with anxiety.

The beliefs analysis indicated that African-American college students across campus environments displayed more similarities in their beliefs about foreign language learning than differences. Findings also noted few differences when compared to prior studies with other language learner groups. The belief category “African-American Expectations,” noted that African-Americans strongly believe that they are capable of learning a foreign language, and that learning a foreign language would benefit them in the future.

The open-ended questions provided a wide range of perspectives to several of the beliefs about language learning, as well as motivation and anxiety from African-American college students. One major theme that emerged from the analysis focused on pressures African-American students face in the foreign language classroom.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. AFRICAN-AMERICANS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Over the last ten years, the number of postsecondary degrees conferred by public, private for-profit, and private nonprofit institutions of post-secondary instruction have increased for each level of degree (US Department of Education, 2011). For African-Americans, the number of degrees has increased over time; however, it appears that they are receiving post-secondary degrees at a much lower rate and have the least amount of representation in comparison to other demographic groups among American college students.

With respect to foreign language learning, African-Americans have a small presence in the overall makeup of foreign language degree holders. However, as African-Americans progress from the bachelor's degree to the doctoral degree in the field of foreign languages, their numbers significantly decrease. The most recent statistics show that African-Americans make up 4% of all bachelor degree holders in foreign languages. At the doctoral level, they make up only 1.4% of all foreign language education degree holders (US Department of Education, 2009). Many foreign language educators view this as a concern and would like to understand why this is the case.

Since their inception, the major foreign language scholarly journals--*the Modern Language Journal (MLJ)* and *Foreign Language Annals*—have published only eleven publications total relating to foreign language learning and minority culture. Five publications were found in the MLJ concerning minorities and foreign language learning in general (Brigman & Jacobs, 1981; Clark, 1980; Hubbard, 1968, 1980; Wilberschied & Dassier, 1991). Six publications were found in *Foreign Language Annals* (Davis &

Markham, 1991; Louden, 2001; Moore & English, 1997, 1998; Moore, 2004; and Moore 2005) that specifically focused on African-Americans and their attitudes regarding foreign language learning.

It was not until the mid-1990s that researchers started to explore African-Americans and their beliefs about language learning. Guillaume (1994) suggested that the lack of participation by African-Americans in language study lies in the traditional view that only white Europeans spoke foreign languages, and because of this, Afro-centric perspectives on foreign languages do not appear in most foreign language classes. Hence, African-Americans may not believe that they should or even can learn a foreign language. Peters (1994) maintained that with respect to German, foreign language educators should embrace an Afro-centric Germanic curriculum that would include non-European Germanic groups. Davis (2000) suggested that if African American students were exposed to connections between African culture and other cultures such as Hispanic and French cultures, perhaps more African American students might continue to study a language beyond the introductory levels.

Moore (2005) noted that African-Americans do not have high enrollment numbers in foreign language programs. Even more disturbingly, the ones who do enroll are performing in the foreign language programs at minimum satisfaction in order to meet the minimum standards. Furthermore, she noted that as students reflected on their foreign language learning experience, they found that it was either “difficult to assess since they were not being monitored, the focus of the course was not geared to learning the language, or that the teacher did not teach them anything” (p. 194). Moore (2006) also noted that African-Americans often do not see how foreign language learning will allow

them to “succeed” in the 21st century, as foreign language learning is not perceived as a high-paying field similar to athletics, law, and medicine. Because of this, the motivations of African-American language learners and their likelihood of pursuing foreign languages as a major seem to be very low.

In contrast, Davis and Markham (1991) found that African-American students do in fact enjoy studying foreign languages. However, students reported that important problems have existed within the instructional practices that they receive. In other words, it was the pedagogical deficiencies that most frustrated the African-American learners in this study rather than the study of a language itself. Students indicated that course material was often presented without structure and in a confusing manner. Students also indicated dissatisfaction with their instructor’s personality and/or teaching strategies. Because of such instructional deficiencies, African-American students’ experiences in learning a foreign language seemed to be compromised. It seems especially important for foreign language instructors to be able to understand African-American language learners in the foreign language classroom so that they are able to provide instruction that is suited to their learning needs and learning styles.

1.2. CAMPUS ENVIRONMENT AND RACIAL COMPOSITION

It has been widely argued that the racial makeup of a college environment influences African-Americans’ experiences and outcomes as they relate to academic achievement and success (Allen 1987, 1992, Davis, 1995, Nettles, 1988). Moreover, it is often argued that the existence of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), can better fulfill the academic and social needs of African-American students (Baldwin, Duncan, and Bell, 1987).

Allen (1992) argued that there is a “hidden, but special” agenda on the black college campus to correct the social, financial, and academic deficiencies of African-American students that does not exist for blacks at a Predominantly White Institution (PWI). Allen also noted that HBCUs have a reputation of socially nurturing students due to the amount of support given from its student affairs personnel. Flowers and Pascarella (1999b) noted that at an HBCU, students have a greater connection with the school, as they feel they are a genuine part of the campus community. As a result, their overall college experience is more likely to be positive than those who attend a PWI.

Furthermore, comparative research on HBCUs and PWIs also provides evidence indicating that academic performance may be related across the two types of campus environments based on the amount of university support provided to African-American college students. Baird (1993) noted that student affairs personnel at HBCUs have been concerned with creating greater levels of connectedness and fostering a sense of belonging among students. Harper et al. (2004) also noted that student affairs personnel on these campuses encourage activities and relationships with faculty, administrators, and students, which greatly influence black students’ social and academic development. Students who attend an HBCU tend to receive more encouragement from faculty and staff to pursue their future academic endeavors than those who attend a PWI (Allen, 1992; Cokley, 2002; Harper et al., 2004). As a result, students at HBCUs reported higher intellectual gains, higher educational aspirations, better psychological adjustments to the campus, and a higher cultural awareness and commitment to the African-American community (Allen 1991; Fleming, 1984; Kim, 2002). Furthermore, it appears that students who attend HBCUs tend to choose majors and specific courses for reasons of

self-development and enhancement, as opposed to simple instrumental reasons (Flowers & Pascarella, 1999b).

African-Americans who attend PWIs, on the other hand, according to Allen (1987) are better prepared academically for college, have more diverse program options, more plentiful resources, and receive more prestige from the name of the attended college/university than those who attend an HBCU. In addition, African-Americans who attended PWIs have higher academic aptitude, self-rated ability, and high school grade point average than those who attend an HBCU (Davis, 1994; Bennett & Xie, 2003; Kim & Conrad, 2006). Perhaps these findings suggest that that African American students at PWIs do not have the same level of default encouragement that is exhibited at an HBCU, and they may need to rely more on their own personal resources to succeed since such levels of encouragement and support are not available to them as they are for students at HBCUs.

1.3. MOTIVATION

Academic motivation is a topic in educational psychology that has received much attention over the last twenty years. Motivation has both a direct and indirect influence on the learning process, as it has been linked to one's effort and persistence concerning one's ability to process information and the use of self-directed metacognitive strategies. According to Pintrich and Zusho (2002), academic motivation refers to internal processes that instigate and sustain activities aimed at achieving specific academic goals. Prior studies have focused heavily on how motivation modulates value of assigned tasks and noted the relevance of using external rewards. Moreover, it has been noted that low achievement and one's difficulty to effectively transition in the educational setting have

been seen as problems that are targeted from a motivational perspective (Dweck & Leggett, 1983).

A number of researchers have been interested in African-American students' achievement motivation (Banks, McQuater, & Hubbard, 1977; Gurin, 1971, Graham, 1994, Cokley 2003). A better understanding of how African-American students' academic progress might bring about a perspective on their persistent and often reported academic underachievement (Allen, 1988; Ford, 1996; Cokley 2001b).

Researchers have developed several theoretical explanations about African-Americans and their motivational processes. McWhorter (2000) argued that African-Americans often have a “cult of anti-intellectualism,” where they see themselves as “perpetual victims of discrimination,” and as a result, they believe that they do not have to try as hard as other ethnic groups in the classroom. McWhorter noted that African-Americans develop a separatist attitude, and noted that those who do excel in the classroom are “acting white,” a term coined by Fordham and Ogbu (1986), where students tend to appear “raceless” to the dominant culture by not identifying fully with the African-American community. As a result, conflict exists for African-Americans in that they may appear to be “less black” because of their high motivation the classroom. Majors and Billson (1994) argued that African-Americans—specifically, African-American males—develop a “cool pose,” where they learn to “project an emotionless façade of fearlessness and a sense of aloofness to counteract an inner pain caused by the damaged pride and poor self- confidence that results from their existence as a member of a subjugated group” (p. 6). In other words, African-Americans may have the tendency to

underachieve and “sustain an anti-intellectual identity” (Williamson, 2011) to bypass peer pressure from others and to resist the label “acting white.”

On the other hand, empirical studies have indicated differences in gender as it pertains to racial identity and academic motivation (Graham 1997, Cokley 2001), noting that African-Americans view racial identity strongly and that their racial identity is highly associated with academic motivation and achievement in the classroom. Specifically, African-American female students are more likely to associate academic achievement with a strong Black consciousness, whereas African American male students are more likely to disassociate academic achievement from their racial identity. While these two studies provide evidence that gender can assist in understanding the relationship between racial identity and academic motivation and achievement, the fundamental issue rests in understanding the nature of African-Americans’ motivation, and how their motivations influence their perceptions of academic achievement.

1.4. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Foreign language educators have become more concerned about how anxiety levels may influence the language learning process. Spielberger (1983) described anxiety as the subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. When anxiety is specific to language learning, it is called language anxiety, or foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Second language researchers and teachers have been aware that anxiety is not only common among foreign language learners, but also poses potential problems for them "because it can interfere with the acquisition, retention, and production of the new language" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b).

Research on the effects of anxiety upon language learning has suggested that anxiety is one of the primary predictors of language acquisition and that it can have a negative impact on the performance and achievement of foreign language learners. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) conceptualized foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex system of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). They suggested that the construct of foreign language anxiety was related to three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Horwitz et al. (1986) noted that they do not see these three performance anxieties as the components of foreign language anxiety, but rather as related anxieties. While foreign language anxiety has been investigated across various language learner groups (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Yang, 1992; Truitt, 1995; Kunt, 1997; Tallon, 2006), African-American foreign language learners have never been studied with regard to foreign language anxiety.

1.5. BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Horwitz (1986) defines beliefs about language learning as "preconceived ideas about the nature of the language-learning task" (p.283). They include the opinions and ideas learners held on a variety of aspects of language learning, such as "when is the right time to learn a foreign language, how much effort is truly involved in learning a foreign language, and which techniques are optimal for learning" (p. 283). Horwitz argued that the origins of beliefs come from students' previous experiences in learning a foreign language as well as cultural backgrounds, and are likely to influence their language learning. Horwitz also noted that language teachers should not view the learner's beliefs

as a blueprint for teaching a foreign language; rather they should look at them as a way to understand how their learners perceive language and the tasks involved, as well as to develop more effective strategies in foreign language instruction.

In any second language (SL) and/or foreign language (FL) classroom, it is natural for learners to have their own set of beliefs about learning a language. Horwitz (1999) examined a number of representative studies that have used the BALLI with different language learner groups from the United States and around the world. Her findings concluded that there were “no clear-cut cultural differences” among the groups, and that within-group differences accounted “for as much variation as the cultural differences” (p. 575). Moreover, she noted that all of the groups of language learners held a wide range of beliefs with varying degrees of validity.

Horwitz asserted that learners have a myriad of beliefs about language learning that influence the way they use learning strategies and approach to the language learning process. She argued that because language-learning beliefs not only influence students’ learning strategies and expectations for learning a language, these beliefs can change, and are more prone to change than their cognitive and affective characteristics.

Several studies have indicated that learners' beliefs about language learning may be an important source of language anxiety and that what language learners believe about language learning has a major impact on their language learning behaviors, their choice of learning strategies, as well as their motivation. For example, Abraham and Vann (1987) noted that students' beliefs about how language operated may mediate the variety and flexibility of their language learning strategies. Horwitz (1988) agreed with Abraham and Vann and noted "students who believe that language learning consists of

translation, or vocabulary memorization, or grammar translation are not likely to adopt the types of holistic strategies associated with successful language learners” (p. 292). Thus, a better understanding of both students' beliefs and their levels of anxiety for language learning should contribute to the enhancement of effective language teaching and learning in foreign language classrooms, especially for African-American language learners.

1.6. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Numerous studies have targeted specific learner groups and their beliefs about language learning and their foreign language anxiety, but few have addressed these issues among African-American language learners. In addition, while there has been a substantial amount of research conducted on language anxiety and learners' beliefs, there are no studies that address the relationship between these variables with either African-American learners in general or specifically, with African-Americans who attend Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). The foreign language learning experience at an HBCU may be similar to or different from the experience at a PWI. It is possible that after careful examination of the beliefs, motivations, and anxiety levels of African-American collegiate students, these important learner characteristics might be different in the two language learning settings, or they may be similar. In any case, in order to better meet the needs of African-American language learners, it is important for language educators to understand these characteristics of this underserved group of language learners.

While there have been studies that have measured the levels of motivation in African-Americans, no studies have focused on the language learning motivations of African-Americans and their reasons for studying a foreign language.

This study was designed to characterize the foreign language anxiety levels, the motivations, and the beliefs about language learning in African-American language learners, and examine the relationship between motivation and anxiety within two groups of African-American college students: those studying in a Predominantly White Institution (PWI) and those studying in a Historically Black College and University (HBCU).

1.7. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were explored in the study:

1. To describe the beliefs about language learning, levels of foreign language anxiety, and motivation in learning a foreign language held by African-American college students.
2. To compare the levels of foreign language anxiety and motivation in learning a foreign language held by African-Americans across differing college campus environments.
3. To describe the relationship between African-Americans motivations for learning a foreign language and their levels of foreign language anxiety.
4. To describe the beliefs about language learning held by African-Americans and to compare those beliefs to the beliefs of other language learner groups from prior studies.

1.8. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study has both theoretical and practical classroom implications. There have been no previous studies conducted where African-Americans studying at a Historically Black College and University (HBCU) are compared with other African-Americans at Predominantly White Institutions (PWI) with respect to foreign language learning.

Therefore, this study has the potential for providing steps for improving the African-American language learning experience in both types of settings. Although it is true that African-Americans are and have been participants in mainstream language learning studies, there have been few studies that specifically focused on African-American language learners. Thus, an interesting question arises: How would a deeper investigation into African-American language learners add to our understanding of language learning in general, as well our understanding of the language learning experience of African-American language learners.

Davis and Markham's (1991) work investigated how students, faculty, and administrators at HBCUs viewed the importance of having a foreign language curriculum, as well as the measures needed to enhance the curriculum already in place. They found that African-American students wanted to especially have a cultural connection to the language they were studying. In addition, African-American students wanted to study other languages that were not typically offered at the HBCUs, such as Arabic, Russian, and Asian languages. As this seminal study passes the 20-year mark, it is appropriate to examine whether the situation for African-American language learners has changed, particularly at HBCUs.

This study is an exploration of the types of motivation that are present in African-Americans with respect to foreign language learning. To date, there have not been any studies that have examined the individual types of motivation of African-American college students—whether at a PWI or an HBCU—related to foreign language learning.

Moreover, it was hoped that this study would bring about a deeper understanding of how African-Americans navigate the foreign language classroom experience in various

educational environments. Also, the question of whether or not anxiety is the core factor in African-Americans' language learning and their ability to achieve in the foreign language classroom will provide some perspective on how their beliefs about language learning dictate their journeys to acquiring a foreign and/or second language. If Abraham and Vann (1987) are correct with respect to African-Americans, then it is possible that African-Americans will never develop a full range of language competence in any language. Factors such as their anxiety levels might lower their expectations and motivations for learning, thus leaving little chance for achievement.

There is the possibility that African-Americans may particularly experience anxiety in language learning. Although there are numerous studies that have documented the negative impact of anxiety in collegiate learners, no one has specifically examined foreign language anxiety among African-Americans learners. This would seem to be essential because of the cultural negotiations involved in language learning. With regard to campus environment, it is possible that the overall campus environment as well as its racial composition might lead to lower foreign language anxiety levels in African-Americans at HBCUs, and commensurately higher levels for African-Americans at PWIs. Therefore, as a whole, it is especially important to consider African-American college students' perspectives on foreign language anxiety as they progress toward proficiency in a foreign language, as they might perceive communicating with native speakers of the target language to be difficult.

With respect to beliefs about language learning, to date, only Lassiter (2001) and Gatlin (2008) have provided findings on African-Americans' foreign language beliefs. Lassiter's study focused only on a small sample of students at an HBCU. Gatlin's

participants, on the other hand, were from a large predominantly white institution. Importantly, neither study addressed foreign language anxiety, academic motivation with respect to learning a foreign language, nor the relationship of these variables to learner beliefs. Furthermore, neither study allowed for the comparison of language learning beliefs across campus environment. This study will be more representative of African-American college students, as the participants in the study will attend both PWIs and HBCUs. It was expected that the findings of the study will open doors for more research in typically marginalized culture groups, whether in the United States or abroad.

The belief results should yield several findings regarding how African-Americans perceive foreign language learning. Language beliefs can be viewed as “culture-bound” (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Truitt, 1995; Diab, 2000), and it will be interesting to examine whether African-Americans’ beliefs are different from those of other American language learners. The results from the study will allow foreign language instructors to have a more representative view of their students’ beliefs, which should in turn contribute to more effective instructional design and pedagogy. While it is expected that not all African-Americans will hold the same views on foreign language learning, this study is meant to provide a snapshot of how four groups of African-Americans across two types of campus environments view the importance of learning a foreign language, among other issues. Because researchers have already noted that in the foreign language classroom, African-Americans need to have the black experience (Davis & Markham, 1991; Peters 1994), this study will allow inferences about how the beliefs of African-Americans influence their personal experience in the language classroom.

Theoretically, the exploration of African-Americans' anxiety levels, their motivations for learning a foreign language, and their foreign language learning beliefs would provide more understanding on how to approach the foreign language classroom for African-American language learners. It is hoped that the findings inform the existing literature on language learning a perspective from the African-American community concerning foreign language anxiety, motivation, and beliefs. Although prior studies regarding language learner beliefs may have included a small percentage of African-American participants, this study will provide a representative sample of African-American college students from various regions in the United States that attend a Historically Black College and/or a University in addition to those who attend a Predominantly White Institution.

1.9. DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Key terms in this dissertation are as follows:

1.9.1. Historically Black College and University (HBCU)

A Historically Black College and University (HBCU) is an institution of higher education in the United States that was established post-Civil War until the Civil Rights Act of 1964 with the intention of serving the African-American community. Currently, they serve students of different genders and of different racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds. There are currently 106 historically black colleges and universities (HBCU) in the United States, including public and private, two-year and four-year institutions, medical schools and community colleges.

1.9.2. Predominantly White Institution (PWI)

Brown and Dancy (2009) defined a Predominantly White Institution (PWI) as an institution of higher learning in which whites account for 50% or more of the student enrollment. Historically, until around the turn of the 20th century these institutions only served upper class, white men. Currently, they serve students of different genders and different racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds.

1.9.3. Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory is based on the belief that human nature yields positive features that shows commitment in one's life that is growth inherent. Ryan and Deci (2000) asserted that for one to be motivated, he or she must be moved to fulfill one or more of three basic human needs—those being autonomy, competence, and relatedness—and if the person feels no impetus or inspiration to do something, by definition he or she is classified as unmotivated.

1.9.4. Academic Motivation

Pintrich and Zusho (2002) defined academic motivation, as an internal process that instigates and sustains activities aimed at achieving specific academic goals. In addition, academic motivation refers to a student's desire (as reflected in approach, persistence, and level of interest) regarding academic subjects when the student's competence is judged against a standard of performance or excellence.

1.9.4.1. Academic Motivation Scale (AMS)

Created by Vallerand & Pelletier (1992), the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) is an instrument based on Deci and Ryan's tenets of self-determination theory consisting of 28 items divided into seven subscales that address the following: a-motivation

(AMOT); extrinsic motivation through external regulation (EMER); introjected regulation (EMIN); and identified regulation (EMID); and intrinsic motivation to know (IMTK); to accomplish (IMTA); and to experience stimulation (IMES).

1.9.5. Anxiety

Spielberger (1983) described anxiety as “the subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system.”

1.9.6. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) defines foreign language anxiety is defined as “the subjective feeling of fear, tension, apprehension, uneasiness, nervousness and/or worry, associated with the perception or anticipation of threat or negative events in foreign and second language contexts and classrooms.”

1.9.6.1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The FLCAS is "a self-report measure that assesses the degree of anxiety, as evidenced by negative performance experiences and social comparisons, psychophysiological symptoms, and avoidance behaviors" (Horwitz, 1986, p. 559). The instrument has 33 items.

1.9.7. Beliefs about Language Learning

Beliefs about language learning are defined as language learners' ideas or opinions on various issues concerning language learning. Horwitz (1988) classified language-learning beliefs into five major categories: foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations.

1.9.7.1. Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) is a survey measurement tool developed by Horwitz (1987) to identify students' beliefs about language learning. Over the last 20 years, the inventory has been translated into various languages including Chinese, Korean, and Turkish to assess the language learning beliefs of students from different language backgrounds. The BALLI includes 34 5-point Likert scale items across the following five categories: nature of language learning; foreign language aptitude; difficulty of language learning; learning and communication strategies; and motivation and expectations.

1.10. OVERVIEW OF THE DISSERTATION

The organization of the dissertation will be as follows: Chapter 1 has provided a brief overview of the research, as well as the proposed objectives and the significance of the study. In addition, it included definitions of the major terms used throughout the dissertation.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature concerning African-Americans and foreign language learning. Following the review, there is a brief overview of general motivation theories and self-determination theory. This chapter also provides a review of the literature focusing on foreign language anxiety and studies related to the foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS). The chapter concludes with a review on national and global research pertaining to the beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI).

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology used for the study, including information about the participants, the universities involved in the study, as well as the research design, survey instruments, and procedures for the data analysis.

Chapter 4 provides a report of the analysis of all of the findings—both qualitative and quantitative--associated with the data. All statistical analyses are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 summarizes the overall findings of the study and provides a more in-depth discussion of the findings based on the research questions pertaining to the study.

The final chapter, Chapter 6, provides the conclusions associated with the study, as well highlight the limitations, suggestions for further research, practical and pedagogical implications, as well as final thoughts on the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter will review the literature on the issues relevant to this dissertation in five major sections. The first section will discuss relevant literature that pertains to African-Americans and foreign language education. The second section will provide an overview of motivation and self-determination theory. The third section will discuss the literature on anxiety as it relates to foreign language learning. The fourth section will discuss the literature on beliefs about language learning. The chapter will then summarize the major findings of the first four sections, and provide a discussion on the relationship between anxiety and beliefs about language learning.

2.1. AFRICAN-AMERICANS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

2.1.1. Relevant African-American Foreign Language Learning Studies

Very few studies have focused on the factors that affect the performance and attitudes of African-American students in foreign language programs. The earliest study dates back to Rivers (1933) who investigated the interest in modern foreign languages at Negro Colleges.¹ Rivers distributed a survey questionnaire to over thirty Negro colleges to provide a “first picture” about the students, faculty, curricula, and equipment (p. 487). He noted that over a ten-year span, enrollment in foreign language classes in Negro colleges increased from 200 to 3500. His findings showed that few teachers possessed an advanced degree, and many research and textbook publications were considered “unimpressive.” Interestingly, of the thirty schools that participated in the survey, only two schools encouraged study abroad opportunities for the students; however, Rivers

¹ The term Negro College was defined as A system of private colleges that emerged in the late 1800s as a means to circumvent the exclusion of African Americans from private and state colleges in the South.

noted that many of the students did not enjoy their study abroad experiences due to cultural and linguistic disconnections. With respect to classroom language instruction, many of the schools lacked the necessary equipment for effective teaching and learning in modern foreign language classrooms. Teachers often had to purchase their own subscriptions to various *realia* and other professional reading matter. Rivers also noted that many institutions offered an average of three languages, but for no more than two-years of study. When the institutions offered a three or four-year sequence, the intent was to prepare students for graduate study.

Nyabongo (1946) discussed the reasons why foreign languages should be incorporated into the black college curriculum. She believed that African-Americans who were fortunate enough to attend college desired to learn a foreign language. However, at most black colleges and universities at the time, the only languages available and required for graduation were Greek and Latin. A survey was distributed to students at over thirty black colleges. The results indicated that many learners wanted French, Spanish, and German to be entered into the curriculum as traditional electives. Russian and Japanese were eventually added at various institutions, but as being learned as an independent study. Nyabongo argued that language achievement must remain in pace with the interest in modern foreign language study and the methods used around the country.

Miller (1954) noted that between the years of 1865 and 1952 that there had been no more than ten articles published with regard to teaching and learning of modern foreign languages at historically black colleges. Of the ten articles, Miller only

considered two of the articles “serious, comprehensive, and scholarly” studies (40).² Miller also investigated the state of foreign language learning in Negro colleges (later known as HBCUs) through a survey questionnaire, and made recommendations for Negro colleges to have more effective foreign language curricula. He offered twenty-four recommendations to improve foreign language teaching and learning settings at HBCUs, which ranged from better teacher training for public schools to giving the foreign language programs more publicity on college campuses.

Over the last twenty years, the discussion of African-Americans in foreign language learning has continued to see limited interest in the field of second language acquisition. Davis and Markham (1991) conducted a study that asked both students and faculty and administrators at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) for their views on the linguistic and cultural aspects of foreign language learning, and what changes would be necessary to help promote success in the programs. Their findings indicated that when learning, students did not feel that their cultural identity was threatened and that the students were cognizant of the benefits of learning a foreign language as it related to their future career aspirations. However, Davis and Markham also noted students’ frustrations about their ability to achieve a high level oral competence, as they had few opportunities to speak the language. Students also felt that their language learning experience would be more relevant if African themes were given higher priority in the beginning stages of language instruction. Many students believed that the amount of time spent learning in the classroom was very limited, and that the design of their language classes was not suitable to their specific learning styles. Earlier studies (LeBlanc, 1972; Clowney and Legge, 1979; Clark, 1982) also found that African-

² See Rivers (1933) and Nyabongo (1946).

American students showed ambivalence or disinterest in foreign language study.

LeBlanc reported that 64% of the students surveyed advocated that foreign languages be deleted from their graduation requirements. In Clowney and Legge's study, 57% of the participants considered their cultural identities to be threatened by serious study of another language and culture.

Davis and Markham's concluded that African-American college students desired some kind of connection to the language and that they wished to study languages (e.g., Asian languages and Russian) outside of the traditionally offered languages, such as French, Spanish, and German. Importantly, while foreign language faculty believed that their teaching methods were effective, the students felt they were not. Davis and Markham recommended that work needed to be done to enhance teaching methods to create success for both the teacher and students in the classroom.

Several theories from other African-American scholars have formulated as a result of the Davis and Markham study to explain the relationship between African-Americans and foreign language learning. For example, Peters (1994) echoed the sentiments of Davis and Markham and valued giving students "the black experience" in foreign language culture, especially at HBCUs. He believed that social and cultural distances could explain low enrollments of African-Americans in foreign language programs. He also argued that specifically with respect to German, educators should embrace an Afro-centric curriculum that included non-European Germanic groups.

Similarly, Guillaume (1994) suggested that the failure to attract greater minority involvement in language learning stemmed from the traditional historic view that only white Europeans speak foreign languages. Guillaume believed that the failure to include

Afro-centric perspectives in the curriculum, as well as the failure to teach African languages, has had negative effects on language learning among African-Americans. He suggested a natural linkage between diaspora studies and the study of language, and warned that if this linkage was not recognized, then the students' affinity for the language would decrease. He argued that language faculty should be recruited whose "interpretive expression differs from the mainstream culture"(5). Hancock (1994) further pushed Guillaume's point to say that authentic forms of instruction must be included in the classroom design to develop more competent and purposeful language users.

More recently, Moore and English (1997, 1998) conducted a study on African-American middle school males and their perceptions on learning Arabic in and outside of the classroom. The study centered around, Levine's (1981) cultural discontinuity theory, which notes that students whose cultural patterns are aligned with their school culture are more poised for academic success. Accordingly, Levine maintains that students will relate and learn best if curriculum material is relevant to their own culture and presented in context. Moore and English spent an entire semester teaching middle school African-American males Arabic as well as exposing them to authentic Arabic culture outside of the classroom. The young African-American males and the male instructor maintained a journal of their thoughts on the class, and the findings showed that the class was a positive experience for both the teacher and students. Moreover, Moore and English concluded that the students' experience lends strong support to Levine's (1982) cultural discontinuity theory, and contradicts Perry and Locke (1991) argument that teachers have stereotyped African-American males as lazy with an inability to perform in the classroom. One student's journal entry indicated that it was the first time that he had

received an A in any of his classes. By the end of the semester, students were performing at a high-novice level in Arabic. Therefore, it appears that African-Americans are likely to learn a foreign language so long as the material is linked to the own background and culture in such a way that evokes a high level of motivation and interest.

Later Moore (2005) conducted a two-year qualitative study on African-American college students and their perceptions on the foreign language-learning classroom. Her findings indicated that males especially were ill-informed on the value of majoring in a foreign language. According to many of the African-American males in the study, taking a foreign language was only an item on a checklist that needed to be fulfilled in order to graduate. She noted that African-Americans typically will major in an area that makes them more gainfully employed, and they do not seek out a career path for “altruistic reasons” (p.197). Moore noted that for African-American males, teaching—specifically, a foreign language—was not viewed as an attractive career; therefore, they hardly recognized the value in any language study with respect to career paths. African-American women on the other hand, were persuaded to pursue careers in areas such as education and social work, as opposed to the more male-dominated fields of study. Moreover, they were not very open-minded when it comes to deciding on the major because external factors (e.g., family) were heavily kept in mind. It appears that African-Americans do not choose a field of study that they love; rather, they typically choose one that would serve as a means to an end. If foreign languages do not bring in a strong income, then they are overlooked. Moore’s findings are consistent with Davis and Markham (1991) and Hancock (1994), such that they all concluded that serious changes in the curricula need to be implemented in order to attract more African-Americans, such

as improving the quality of instruction at the high school level, and redesigning the language curriculum so that cultural proficiency is made a primary objective.

Currently, there have been two studies conducted that address the beliefs about language learning in African-Americans. Lassiter (2001) conducted a belief study with her beginning French students at Southern University, a Historically Black University in Baton Rouge, LA to assess why the level of interest in French learning had declined over the years and what measures could be taken to revive interest. Her findings indicated that students highly valued the inclusion of culture included in the curriculum. She noted that only three of the ten faculty members were both Francophone and are of African descent. She argued strongly that students should know that there is more than “Paris and Quebec” to French culture. Lassiter’s findings indicated that students believed that learning a foreign language is all about the traditional areas of grammar, vocabulary, and translation. They also noted mixed beliefs about their motivations and expectations for learning a foreign language.

Gatlin’s (2008) conducted a language learning beliefs study at the University of Texas at Austin examined the beliefs of African-American students who were enrolled in a foreign language class, and looked at the differences in gender and its relationship to their beliefs about language learning. His findings indicated that there was a difference in the attitudes and beliefs of foreign language by gender as it related to the “nature of foreign language learning.” African-American males believed that translation was important to foreign language learning, whereas, the females believed that vocabulary and grammar was the most effective. Both African-American male and females supported the idea of pursuing any Southern Bantu languages (e.g., Swahili) so that they could

embrace their culture through language. It appeared that African-American students wanted to establish some form of identity within the language.

2.1.2. Summary

It appears from the studies summarized above that in order to maintain the interests of African-Americans and foreign language learning, a few things must be considered: first, the development of a curriculum that is current and in alignment with African-American students' goals is critical to the success of any foreign language program, especially at an HBCU. Second, African-American students believed that their cultural identities were not being questioned in language classes; however, the fact remains that their identity in the learning context seems to be missing, as there is no "black experience" presented in the language curriculum. In other words, African-Americans would like to see a little more of themselves in the learning process. Third, while it is true that the literature suggests that different language learner groups possess a wide range of beliefs about language learning, it has yet to fully explore the beliefs of African-American language learners with respect to the overall racial composition of one's campus environment.

2.2. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

This section presents a review of literature on motivation and second language acquisition, general motivation theories, Self-Determination Theory and the types of motivation that fall under the theory (Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation).

Definition of Motivation

There are numerous and varied definitions of motivation; as a result, there is some

discord among researchers over the precise nature of the construct (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Broadly speaking, the term motivation is often used to describe “what gets people going, keeps them going, and helps them finish tasks” (Pintrich, 2003b, p. 104). Although motivation theorists initially propounded theories of motivation with a view to describing human behavior in general, studies on motivation have largely come to address behaviors in specific settings and contexts (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008) with motivation theories being used in education settings and contexts to explain students’ academic performance, their academic engagement and persistence, their help seeking behaviors, and their activity choices (Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006).

Motivation can be seen as an ambiguous construct. Although it has been operationalized and used quite differently by various fields, for this study, the concept of motivation from educational psychology is applied here. Specifically, Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory constitutes the theoretical foundation for this study. Nevertheless, an analysis of general motivation theories in education is needed to understand the specific theories used in this study.

2.2.1. Motivation and Second Language Acquisition

Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) motivation theory has dominated research in the field of second language acquisition.. They categorized two types of motivation orientation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to learners learning any given task pure enjoyment or satisfaction. Instrumental motivation, however, indicates that learners learn any given task for utilitarian reasons such as advancing in schools or in careers. Their instrumental/integrative distinction represented as the socio-educational model became the primary research tool for describing and assessing

motivation in language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1975) found that learners with higher integrative motivation invested greater effort and more time toward achieving their language goals. They also reported that integrative motivation correlated more highly with second language (L2) achievement than instrumental motivation.

In the early 1990s, several scholars began to examine new theoretical approaches to understanding the concept of motivation in second language acquisition. For example, Dornyei (1994) proposed a three-tier model of second language learning motivation that focused on the language, the learner, and the learning situation. He provided an exhaustive “starter set” of measures to increase motivation in the foreign language classroom. These measures included the inclusion of a sociocultural component in the syllabus, to the development of the learner’s self-efficacy in achieving their goals, increasing students’ interest and involvement in the course content and task design, promoting learner autonomy, and implementing internalized classroom norms upon which both the learner and instructor can agree. Concerning the learner’s roles in language learning, van Lier (1996) argued that learning has to be initiated by the learner because teaching cannot force learning; it can only encourage and guide learning. Unless the learner shows natural impetus and desire for learning, or attaches some external gain value to the task, learning will not take place.

Researchers generally support the argument that while integrative motivation is adaptive in L2 acquisition, in many cultures, instrumental motivation plays a significant role in one’s language learning achievement. Dornyei (1990) noted in a study with Hungarian EFL learners that the primary reason they learn English is for a promising career in the future. Kim (1998) noted that South Korean language learners showed high

instrumental motivation in their language learning. Therefore, it appears that learners who are instrumentally motivated do perform well in non-western cultures due to how much they value learning a language in general more than the type of motivation.

2.2.2 General Academic Motivation Theories

This section will provide a brief overview of other general motivation theories that pertain to academic achievement. The major theory, Self-Determination Theory, will be discussed in detail, as it is the most relevant theory to the study.

2.2.3. Expectancy-Value Theory

Atkinson's (1957) seminal work defined expectancies as "individuals' anticipations that their performance will be followed by either success or failure, and defined value as the relative attractiveness of succeeding or failing on a task" (p. 797). He later proposed the cognitive theory known as Achievement Motivation Theory (1974). Atkinson proposed that motivation was determined by expectancy for success and incentive values. He also added later that one's need for achievement was a major contributor to one's success and incentive values. When these three variables interact, it helps the individual determine whether or not they would engage in and become successful at learning the given task. Thus, if learners felt a strong need for achievement, expected that they could achieve what they set out to do and received enough incentives to achieve them, their motivation would, in turn, be high. On the other hand, if learners feared failure and were not confident in their ability for success, and/or had very few incentives for achievement, their motivation would be low. Atkinson's achievement motivation became part of a larger body of research pertaining to expectancy-value models of motivation.

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) were among the first researchers to develop the expectancy-value theory, whose basic assumption is that humans determine their behavior depending on the perceived likelihood that a behavior will lead to a goal and on the subjective value of that goal. Expectancy-value Theory is comprised of three parts: 1.) Individuals respond to an action by developing a belief about the action; 2.) Individuals assign a value to each attribute upon which the belief is based; and 3.) Individuals create an expectation based on the product of the value and belief.

Expectancy-value theory has been considered one of the most important perspectives regarding the nature of achievement motivation. Other research (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield and Eccles, 1992, 1996) have expanded the definition and further discussed how individuals' expectancies for success, task values, and other achievement beliefs mediate their achievement and motivation in educational settings.

Eccles et al. (1983) proposed expectancy–value model of achievement performance and choice and studied it initially in the mathematics achievement domain. Eccles et al. (1983) noted that expectancies and values are assumed to influence directly achievement choices. Expectancies and values also influence performance, effort, and persistence. Expectancies and values are assumed to be influenced by task-specific beliefs such as ability beliefs, the perceived difficulty of different tasks, and individuals' goals, self-schema, and affective memories. These social cognitive variables, in turn, are influenced by individuals' perceptions of their own previous experiences (Eccles et al., 1983) and a variety of socialization influences (Eccles et al., 1998, and Wigfield & Eccles 1995).

On the value side of the model, Eccles and Wigfield (1983) defined different components of achievement values: attainment value or importance, intrinsic value, utility value or usefulness of the task, and cost. They defined attainment value as the importance of doing well on a given task. Intrinsic value was defined as the enjoyment one gains from doing the task. Utility value refers to how a task fits into an individual's future plans, for instance, taking a math class to fulfill a requirement for a science degree. Cost refers to how the decision to engage in one activity (e.g., doing household chores) limits access to other activities (e.g., going to the movies with friends), assessments of how much effort will be taken to accomplish the activity, and its emotional cost.

2.2.3. Goal Orientation/Achievement Theory

Goal achievement theory gained popularity during the late 1970s and early 1980s, as many researchers began investigating motivation in competence-relevant settings. They also investigated the differences in students' learning patterns (Dweck, 1986; Maehr, 1984). Not only were researchers interested in the differences in the strength and direction of their engagement in learning, but also the quality of their engagement in the learning process. Students might work on a task diligently; however, the investment in how they perform at the task may vary. While one student may approach a learning task as a challenge and experience positive affect toward the task, another student may approach the same task with frustration due to the level of difficulty, and will experience negative affect toward the task.

Goal orientation refers to the goals that students set when they engage in academic tasks. Over the last twenty years, researchers have focused primarily on two types of achievement goals: mastery-oriented goals and performance-oriented goals

(Ames & Ames, 1984). Mastery goals are defined as one “engaging in achievement behavior with the purpose of demonstrating one’s competence” (White, 1959). In other words, it refers to a focus on the task at hand and to motivational orientations, such as wanting to master skills required for the various task for improvement purposes.

(Midgley, 1996, p.77). Performance goals are defined as one engaging in achievement behavior with the purpose of demonstrating one’s competence or avoiding the demonstration of lack of competence (Dweck, 1986), p.1040). In other words, performance goals focus on the individual and their own ability with motivational orientations or appearing more able or appearing less able than others (Nicholls, 1989).

While students may enter class with different goals, research suggests that teachers’ instructional practices strongly influence the goals students adopt (Anderman & Wolters, 2006; Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996; Midgley et al., 2001). Researchers investigated how students’ responses with similar ability to success and failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), the effect of varying reward structures on student’s level of engagement (Ames, 1984), and how achievement is viewed across various cultures (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980; Maehr, 1984). They concluded that the students’ purpose for engaging in academic behavior affects their motivation. Therefore, their purpose for engagement focuses more on why they engage in achievement-related behavior (Kaplan, 1995).

Achievement goals are thought of as a “psychological program with cognitive, affective, and behavioral consequences” (Elliott & Dweck, 1988, p. 11) that involves “ways of thinking about oneself, one’s task, and the task outcomes” (Ames, 1992, p. 262). Achievement goals consist of both a situational and a personal component.

Elliot & Harackiewicz (1996) noted that the situational component of the achievement goal could manipulate students' goal outcomes. However, other researchers have noted that there are individual differences in students' goal orientations, and that they made remain stable over time (Meece et al., 1988; Pintrich, 1996), across academic and activity domains (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990, Nicholls & Duda, 1990).

Much research has been conducted on the effects of academic motivation for general learning purposes. For example, educational psychology researchers such as Pintrich (2003), Alexander et al. (1994), and Guthrie & Wigfield (1997) and second language acquisition researchers such as Dornyei (1994, 2003), and Gardner et al. (2004) have approached motivation in learning from several aspects ranging from general interest to goal orientations, task values, self-efficacy, and social contexts.

Other scholars have focused more on the relationships of motivation and continuity to various learning environments. Oldfather et al. (1994) viewed intrinsic motivation as the continuing impulse to learn, and Wigfield (1997) and Paris et al. (1994) also found that students' motivation is strongly influenced by their learning environment as well as their goal orientations. These findings were similar to Eccles (1993) who studied task utility value and motivation.

2.2.5. Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory is based on the belief that human nature yields positive features that shows commitment in one's life that is growth inherent.

Deci and Ryan (1985) outlined various orientations of extrinsic motivation, and described a taxonomy of human motivation that included the concepts of intrinsic motivation and a-motivation as well. Deci and Ryan proposed that motivation was based on three

underlying psychological prerequisites or needs as driving forces behind motivation: self-autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Ryan and Deci (2000) believed that for one to be motivated, they must be moved to do something and if the person feels no impetus or inspiration to do something, by definition they are classified as unmotivated. Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000) described several sub-theories within self-determination theory including the Organismic Integration Theory and Cognitive Evaluation Theory. These sub-theories explain the process of internalization that begins with extrinsically motivated behaviors and further develops as individuals attain greater self-regulation and autonomy.

Deci and Ryan's perspectives on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have added to our understanding of the construct of motivation. According to Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation reflects the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate. However, the hallmark of self-determination theory is the multidimensional view of extrinsic motivation, which is argued to vary considerably from external control to true self-regulation with regard to the degree of autonomy it gives to the learner.

The fundamental distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are that intrinsic motivation refers to inherent interest or enjoyment while extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because of potentially separable outcomes (Deci et al., 1985). Ryan et al. (1991) underscored the fact that these differences are important in that depending on the orientation of the motivation, the quality of learning or performance experience can vary to a large extent.

Self-determination theory is a macro theory related to the human development and function of personality in various social mediums. Deci and Ryan (2000) noted that

motivation can be determined through self-determination with three dimensions that reflect how one's autonomy is based: a-motivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation.

2.2.5.1. Intrinsic Motivation

The first dimension of motivation on the Self-Determination Theory continuum is labeled intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the engagement in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction of performing it. Individuals that are intrinsically motivated voluntarily participate in an activity without experiencing external or internal pressures to do so and without expecting rewards (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Deci and Ryan (1985) noted that intrinsic motivation leads to high quality learning and creativity due to the learner's inherent desire for the accomplishment of an action. This phenomenon was first acknowledged when many animals were observed to engage in behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward (Deci et al., 2000). Deci stated that this natural tendency plays a critical role in the cognitive, social, and physical development of human beings.

Intrinsic motivation is also important because it exists within individuals, between individuals, and with activities. Some researchers (Eccles, 1987) have defined intrinsic motivation in relation to the task being interesting whereas others have defined it in terms of the satisfaction it brings to the individual. Eccles (1987) suggested that a person will not value becoming engaged in a task if it is too anxiety provoking, or has high potential of failure, or requires too much effort.

Deci and Ryan (2000) noted that if individuals—despite the presence of numerous distracters and free choices and without any external force—choose to engage in an

activity, it is likely that the individual is intrinsically motivated. The amount of time s/he spends on that particular task shows the degree of her/his motivation. Research scholars (Schallert & Reed (1997); Wigfield et al. (1998); Csikszentmihalyi's (1990)) have researched the concept of "flow" and how it might represent the ultimate form of intrinsic motivation. The focus is on how the sort of deep engagement that flow brings can be fostered and brings about benefits to learning.

Self-determination theory is also based on various social and environmental factors that facilitate intrinsic motivation. Because intrinsic motivation is an inherent propensity, it comes to the surface when individuals are in conditions that lead to the expression of this tendency. Based on cognitive evaluation theory, Deci and Ryan asserted that social factors might produce various levels of intrinsic motivation in different contexts. Consequently, interpersonal events or rewards and feedback can facilitate intrinsic motivation for an action because these can give an individual a feeling of competence if accompanied by a sense of autonomy by an internal perceived locus of causality. Therefore, if a person's self-efficacy is accompanied by autonomy, he or she will maintain and enhance intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, tangible rewards, deadlines, and competitive pressure can diminish intrinsic motivation due to their effects on an individual's sense of self-control and autonomy (Reeve & Deci, 1996).

2.2.5.2. Extrinsic Motivation

The second dimension of motivation on the Self-Determination Theory continuum is labeled extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation has been presented as a less effective form of motivation when compared to intrinsic motivation. Moreover, extrinsic motivation has been viewed as a deterrent to intrinsic motivation, as learners can

lose their natural interest to learn and perform a task, if an extrinsic requirement has to be met. Deci and Ryan (1985) noted that if individuals are self-determined and have internalized the task, then it is possible for the two types of motivation to coexist and the extrinsic motivation can be controlled.

In Deci et al.'s model, because this type of motivation can also result in high quality achievement, it is important to know the forces behind the various orientations. Therefore, according to Deci et al., the main concern should be how to motivate students to value and self-regulate different activities. Deci and Ryan addressed the framework of the organismic integration theory, which underscored the significance of internalization and integration along their taxonomy of human motivation. Internalization is the process of taking in a value, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self (Deci et al., 2000).

The taxonomy shows how an individual's motivation can range from a-motivation, which results from not valuing an activity or expecting any outcome from it, to active personal devotion through the internalization process (Ryan, 1995). As Deci & Ryan's self-determination theory suggests, within the domain of extrinsic motivation there exist four different types of controlled forms of motivation, some of which fall very close to intrinsic motivation along a continuum autonomy.

As one moves from a-motivation toward intrinsic motivation, the different kinds of extrinsic orientation such as external regulation, introjection, identification, and integration are encountered. Deci and Ryan acknowledge that the continuum is not developmental, and that the continuum is dependent upon the individual's prior

experience and even social factors. Individuals could begin with introjection or identification, later shifting orientation from one end of the continuum to the other without having to progress through each stage of internalization. For example, it is very common that a student starts taking a course due to identification with it, but later loses any motivation and/or interest that sense due to perceptual mismatches between self and the teacher.

External regulation results in doing a task due to externally imposed rewards or punishments, similar to operant conditioning. Introjection is when a person is engaged in a task due to the attainment of self-esteem or ego enhancement or avoidance of guilt or anxiety. A more autonomous orientation is identification in which a person has identified with the personal importance of the task. Very close to intrinsic motivation is the most autonomous and self-determined form of regulation in extrinsic motivation: integration, which occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. Ryan et al. (1992) and Deci and Ryan (1987) found that more autonomous extrinsic motivation results in greater engagement, better performance, and higher quality learning. Patrick (1997) also found that if students are provided with the rationale behind even a dull activity and receive support for autonomy and relatedness, their integration and internalization can be promoted. As the different forms of extrinsic motivation come close to intrinsic motivation, the internalization process goes up with the degree of autonomy and self-determination.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), extrinsic motivation—no matter how internalized—is not transformed into intrinsic motivation because there is still a presumed instrumental value in the integrated regulation. As Ryan and Deci (2002)

suggested, the fact that many of the tasks that are planned and designed by educators for learners are not inherently interesting or enjoyable means that it is of utmost significance to focus on active and more autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation to foster successful learning.

Whether learning is socially mitigated and personally constructed or socially constituted, an individual's learning activity and other learning-related components such as motivation cannot be separated from society. As a result of the research from a socio-constructivist approach, it has become clear that learning is a sociocultural phenomenon, and individuals can develop their higher cognitive skills only in social contexts as a result of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

2.2.5.3. A-motivation

The third dimension of motivation on the self-determination theory continuum is called A-motivation. This dimension refers to the absence of a contingency between one's actions and outcomes. Deci and Ryan (1985) noted that when individuals are a-motivated, they are not able to perceive contingencies between their actions and the outcomes. They lack specific purposes/goals and do not approach ends in a systematic fashion (Barkoukis et al., 2008). In other words, they are neither extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. A-motivated individuals simply do not demonstrate the intent to engage in an activity.

A-motivation has been related to learned helplessness, where individuals withdraw effort because of perceptions of incompetence and loss of control. The involvement in an activity is not a result of their will (Deci and Ryan [1985](#); Vallerand et al., 1992). There are four different types of a-motivated behavior: (1) the belief

concerning the lack of ability to perform an activity, (2) the belief that the adopted strategies will not produce the desired outcomes, (3) the belief that the activity is too demanding for the individual, and (4) the belief that even high effort is not adequate for successful task performance.

2.3 FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

2.3.1. General Perspectives on Anxiety

Many researchers view anxiety as a major problem in learning. Sigmund Freud—one of the pioneer researchers of anxiety and its significance—noted that everyone has experienced anxiety in life. Freud defines anxiety as “an unpleasant affective condition, similar to dread or nervousness, with physiological and behavioral manifestations.”, Spielberger (1972) notes that “anxiety” has been used to describe a “palpable, but transitory emotional state or condition characterized by feelings of apprehension and heightened autonomic nervous system activity.

Sarason (1980) defines anxiety as a “response to perceived danger or the inability to handle a challenge or unfinished business which can arise from the inability to cope with a situational demand in a satisfactory manner” (p. 7). Sarason also points out five characteristics of anxiety:

1. The situation is seen as difficult, challenging, and threatening.
2. The individuals see themselves as ineffective or inadequate at handling the task.
3. The individual focuses on undesirable consequences of personal inadequacy.
4. Self-deprecatory statements preoccupations are strong and are complete with task-relevant cognitive activity.
5. The individual anticipates failure and loss of regard by others.

Atkinson et al. (1990) described anxiety as either normal or neurotic, depending on the individual’s reaction seems appropriate to the situation. Normal anxiety—which is

also referred to as objective anxiety—motivates the person to deal with a harmful situation. On the other hand, neurotic anxiety reduces one's ability to cope with the situation (p. 561).

2.3.2. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning that arises from a uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). They also note that anxiety has the ability to prevent learners from reaching their goals, such that having an anxiety reaction “impedes their ability to perform successfully in a foreign language class” (p. 126).

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested that language learners' beliefs might lead to foreign language anxiety. For example, learners who believe that they should never say anything in a foreign language until they can say it correctly, or that it is never okay to guess responses in a foreign language, which may cause the language learner to experience anxiety in learning a language.

Other researchers, such as MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) noted that anxiety could be viewed as “derogatory self-related cognition” (p. 515). Studies have indicated that language anxiety can play a major effect on language outcomes related to standardized tests as well as the production of foreign language vocabulary (Gardner et al., 1987).

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested three types of situation anxieties that are related to why individuals experience foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. They noted that these three components are not

a total sum of foreign language anxiety, but they do help explain foreign language anxiety in a conceptual manner.

2.3.2.1. Communication Apprehension

McCroskey (1978) was one of the first researchers to define communication apprehension. He defined communication apprehension as a person's fear and/or anxiety connected with one's effort to communicate with others. McCroskey (1984) noted that communication avoidance, communication withdrawal, and communication disruption are all typical behavior patterns of communicatively apprehensive individuals, and that communicatively apprehensive individuals are less likely to engage in conversations and seek out social interaction with individuals in general,

With respect to language learning, Lucas (1984) found that communication anxiety is an impediment to the students' mastery of English in ESL classrooms. Lucas also observed that when learners do not have adequate competence to communicate with others and perform in the foreign language, they would experience language anxiety. Thus, it seems as though learners will participate less in the classroom, as well as be least likely to participate in the classroom setting.

Horwitz et al. (1986) believed that communication apprehension was related to foreign language anxiety. They noted that actions such as being able to speak in group settings, as well as the inability to learn an oral lesson would be prime examples of communication apprehension. Furthermore, they noted that people who have difficulty speaking would likely have higher levels of anxiety "where they have little to no control of the communication and their performance is constantly monitored" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127).

2.3.2.2. *Test Anxiety*

Horwitz et al. (1986) discussed test anxiety as a second type of anxiety related to foreign language anxiety. Sarason (1978) defines test anxiety as “the failure to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation” (p. 214). Test anxiety is a type of performance anxiety that stems from a fear of failure. Test anxiety is often the result of one’s negative performance on a past test, thus yielding negative thoughts in a current test-taking situation. Because of this, learners may be more likely to “tune-out” from the learning process, and focus more on the distractions that are placed in front of them in the classroom setting.

Horwitz et al. (1986) observed that foreign language students might make unrealistic demands on themselves as it relates to performing in the target language because anything short of a perfect score on a test is failure in their eyes. Foreign language learners who consider themselves test-anxious will likely undergo a considerable amount of stress, and will have high difficulty in the classroom, as tests and quizzes are frequent evaluative measures.

2.3.2.3. *Fear of Negative Evaluation*

The third component of foreign language anxiety, according to Horwitz et al. (1986), is fear of negative evaluation. Watson & Friend (1969) defined the term as “apprehension about others’ evaluations, and the expectation that others would evaluate one’s self negatively” (p. 449). Fear of negative evaluation is broader in scope than in test anxiety, as it occurs in both testing and social evaluative situations. According to Aida (1994), learners who have a fear of negative evaluation become passive in the

classroom, or even fully withdraw from classroom-related activities that have the ability to help them improve their language learning.

2.3.3. Research measuring Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which is currently the most widely used measure of foreign language anxiety. The FLCAS is a self-report measure that assesses the level of anxiety an individual possesses, as evidenced by negative performance expectancies, psycho-physiological symptoms, and avoidance behaviors. The FLCAS has 33 items that address anxiety, and uses a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

2.3.3.1. Studies Using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to assess the severity of a language learner’s anxiety level. Seventy-eight introductory-level Spanish students participated in a pilot study, and the results indicated that many of the participants were afraid to speak in the classroom.

Phillips (1992) conducted a study that involved third-semester French students, which investigated how anxiety affects students’ performance during an oral exam. Several measures were used along with the FLCAS, including the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and teacher evaluations. Her findings indicated that the more anxious students generally received lower scores than the less anxious students on the oral examination. In addition, there were significant negative correlations between the level of anxiety and performance on the exam.

Aida (1994) investigated the relationship of foreign language anxiety to final course grades. Her study was a replication of Horwitz’s (1986) study with the FLCAS

with a non-traditional language, Japanese, and yielded several important findings. First, she found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and final course grades. Furthermore, her study produced four factors for the FLCAS via factor analysis: speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation; fear of failing; negative attitudes toward Japanese class; and comfortableness in speaking with native Japanese speakers.

Kim (1998) conducted a study with Korean EFL learners and investigated the differences in anxiety when reading in a traditional reading-focused class and a more innovative conversation class. She found a significant negative relationship between the FLCAS data and the students' final grades. Also, in both classes she noted that students were less anxious when learning English in the traditional English class over the conversational course. Kim's findings supported both the instructors and students' feelings that courses that require an extensive amount of oral communication are more anxiety provoking than a traditional classroom setting.

Scholars later became more interested in foreign language anxiety associated with other aspects of language learning aside from speaking. Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999) investigated whether or not general foreign language anxiety is distinguishable from reading anxiety. Three hundred eighty-three students across introductory French, Japanese, and Russian courses participated in the study. Their findings indicated that general foreign language anxiety is in fact distinguishable from foreign language reading anxiety. They noted that students with high levels of general foreign language anxiety might also display high levels of reading anxiety, thus yielding poor performance and final grades. However, their findings also indicated that there were students who experienced reading anxiety, but not general foreign language anxiety. Their findings

also indicated that there were no significant differences in foreign language anxiety among the language groups; however, the Japanese and French learners had significantly higher levels of reading anxiety than the Russian language learners.

In an effort to determine if different types of language learners experience foreign language anxiety, Tallon (2006) conducted a study that investigated foreign language anxiety in heritage Spanish students. His study also examined whether or not anxiety is related to their self-reported proficiency in Spanish. His findings indicated that heritage students did have lower levels of foreign language anxiety than non-heritage students did. In addition, there was a strong negative correlation between the students' self-assessed language proficiency and their reported levels of anxiety, which indicated that as the students' self-assessed proficiency increased their levels of anxiety decreased, and vice versa. Tallon's findings also showed that there was a strong positive correlation between the self-assessments of the four language learning anxiety scales (e.g., speaking, writing, listening, reading), which indicated that there is the possibility to measure anxiety and language learning in other aspects of language learning outside of speaking.

2.3.4. Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety

Language researchers and educators have sought to determine the sources of foreign language anxiety, so that they can implement ways to create a more comfortable environment for the learner. According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), nearly one-third of foreign language learners experience some form of foreign language anxiety. They attribute the anxiety to how accurately learners feel are able to present themselves to others in the target language. Students often believe that speaking in the target language produces the most anxiety in the learning process. Learners are put in a

position where they are required to have a solid and meaningful command on the language, when in fact they are not able to communicate in the same fashion. Young (1991) argued that sources of foreign language anxiety can be categorized into sources associated with the learner, the instructor, and the institutional practices.

Learner characteristics that yield foreign language anxiety may include students' levels of self-esteem and ability, their beliefs about language learning, and their competitiveness. For example, in her qualitative study, Bailey (1983) attributed the students' competitiveness to foreign language anxiety. She analyzed diaries of 11 of her students, and observed how anxious they became when they compared themselves to others in the class. Consequently, the students believed that they were less proficient than the others. Yet, as they became more proficient, their levels of anxiety decreased, thus raising their competitiveness in the classroom. She also observed that how the students' perceived their relationships with their instructor as a source of anxiety.

Similarly, Price (1991) conducted a qualitative study with 10 self-identified extremely anxious language learners who shared their stories of their language learning processes. Her findings indicated that when the students compared themselves to their peers, their anxiety levels increased. Moreover, they believed that their language skills were weaker than those of other learners. Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) also looked at self-perception and demographic factors that may influence foreign language anxiety among language learners with high levels of anxiety. The authors identified seven variables³ that

³ The seven factors that significantly predicated anxiety were age, academic achievement, prior history of visiting foreign countries, prior high school, experience with foreign languages, expected overall average for current language course, perceived scholastic competence, and perceived self-worth. These factors accounted for 40% of the variance in foreign language anxiety.

significantly predicted foreign language anxiety. Further analyses indicated that students' foreign language anxiety increased with respect to their year of study.

Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) conducted a study with pre-service Chilean English teachers and investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism. Their findings indicated that the anxious language learners in this group and perfectionists had a number of characteristics in common. For example, they both shared higher standards for their English performance, as well as a greater tendency toward procrastination, and a higher level of concern over their errors. Interestingly, Gregerson and Horwitz's findings noted that whereas the anxious students stressed the importance of not making mistakes, non-anxious learners believed that they should repair an error and continue speaking.

Researchers have linked a language learner's cultural background to language anxiety. For example, Truitt (1995) found higher levels of foreign language anxiety in Korean EFL learners, whereas, Kunt (1997) found lower levels of language anxiety in Turkish learners. As noted earlier, Tallon (2006) investigated the differences in anxiety level between heritage and non-heritage Spanish learners. His findings showed that heritage learners had lower levels of anxiety than non-heritage learners did. On the other hand, Saito and Samimy (1996) noted in their study that level of instruction had an affect on the Japanese learners, and Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) noted that heritage learners who pursued Spanish as a major or minor experienced higher levels of anxiety perhaps because of the need to do well when working alongside native Spanish speakers.

Language instructors have also been mentioned as a source of foreign language anxiety. Young (1991) argued that teachers who believe that students should be

corrected, as well as teachers doing the majority or all of the talking and teaching in the classroom, might cause anxiety among their students. Palacios (1998) conducted a study that yielded several teacher characteristics associated with anxiety. These characteristics included the absence of teaching support, absence of time for personal attention, favoritism, a sense of judging students, and the sense that the classroom environment did not give students the necessary tools to perform to the teacher's expectations. Likewise, Ando (1999) observed that having a native-speaker for an instructor could also raise anxiety levels to speak in the target language.

Classroom practices also play an important role in foreign language anxiety. Young (1991) noted various activities in the classroom that can provoke anxiety, such as role playing activities in front of the classroom, speaking in front of the classroom, and doing written work on the blackboard.

2.3.5. Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety

Many empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of foreign language anxiety on a language learner's ability to acquire a second and/or foreign language. Foreign language anxiety is a complex phenomenon that has been found to be a predictor of foreign language achievement. According to current research, there is a consistent negative relationship between measures of language anxiety and language achievement. In fact, Gardner (1985) concluded that anxiety is one of the best predictors of foreign language achievement (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley, 1999, p. 219). Moreover, MacIntyre (1999) reviewed the literature on anxiety and language learning, and made distinctions between the achievement, cognitive, social, and personal effects of anxiety as it pertains to foreign language learning process.

Numerous studies have observed a moderately negative relationship between language anxiety and second language achievement. Horwitz's (1986) reported a significant negative relationship between anxiety and the student's expected and final grades in first-semester French and Spanish students. Similarly, as reported earlier, Aida's (1994) findings were consistent with Horwitz et al. (1986), insofar as anxiety was negatively correlated to the students' performance in learning Japanese. Her study also found significant differences in gender as it related to course grades and evaluation as females scored higher grades in the course than males; but, in both gender groups, highly anxious students had lower grades in the course than those who had low levels of anxiety. Saito and Samimy (1996) replicated Aida's study, but used participants in intermediate and advanced level Japanese courses. Their findings showed that language classroom anxiety was the best predictor of performance in the classroom for intermediate and advanced level students, whereas, grade level better predicted beginning Japanese language learner's performance. Participants in the beginning- level courses displayed higher anxiety levels than those in the intermediate and advanced level Japanese courses. Peralez and Cenoz (2002) examined the effects of individual and contextual variables with adult language learners acquiring Spanish in the Basque region of Spain. Their findings showed significant negative correlations between anxiety and acquiring the Basque language through various proficiency measures (e.g., oral examinations, self-evaluations, teacher proficiency ratings). MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement (1997) also found a negative relationship in their study between anxiety and the students' self-reported proficiency levels. They observed:

“The arousal of anxiety probably makes some students more reluctant to speak. If language learners do not choose to communicate, they cannot re-assess their competence...thus, begins a vicious circle” (p. 278).

A second effect of foreign language anxiety is associated with the cognitive processes of individuals learning a foreign language. MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) examined the effects of foreign language anxiety using Tobias (1986) model, which breaks down the learning process into three stages (input, processing, and output). Their findings noted significant negative correlations at each stage of the model, but higher correlations at the processing and output stages. In other words, language processing at any of the stages might be pervasive as well as subtle to one's language production-

A third effect of foreign language anxiety is associated with the social context in which the language is used. Researchers have noted that the more anxious language learners are, the less likely it is that they will communicate with others. (Kleinmann, 1977; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b). Steinberg & Horwitz (1986) conducted a study which showed that students who have higher levels of anxiety provided responses that were more concrete, but less elaborative than students who had lower anxiety levels. Likewise, Meijas et al. (1991) observed in their study with Hispanic heritage language learners that the more formal a communication situation is, the more likely the learners are to have higher levels of communication apprehension. Dewaele et al. (2008) conducted a large-scale study of multilingual adult learners from around the world and found that aside from individual characteristics of the learners, social circumstances such as the specific second-language conversation partners may play a role in lowering foreign language anxiety.

Lastly, personal factors—such as low self-esteem and self-perceptions—have also emerged as a factor pertaining to foreign language anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1993) conducted a study with English-speaking students taking French and their findings noted significant negative correlations between the participants' levels of anxiety in the classroom, and their performance. Participants' anxiety levels were lower than their own self-ratings of performance. Cohen and Norst (1989) reported that one language student described language learning as the “smashing of a well-developed positive self-concept” (pp. 68-69). Phillips (1990) stated that anxiety could have a negative impact on students' attitudes toward language study. Price's (1991) highly anxious participants from her study believed that their language skills were weaker than their classmates and that everyone else in the class looked down upon them because they did a poor job in language classes. One of Price's participants stated, “I'd rather be in a prison camp than speak a foreign language” (p. 104). Another participant felt that her peers would think that she was “stupid” because she had trouble using simple vocabulary and grammatical structures in the language. Finally, Horwitz (1996) argued that even non-native foreign language teachers, who can still be considered language learners themselves, might be susceptible to foreign language anxiety.

2.3.6. Summary

Foreign language anxiety can negatively affect a learner's progress in achieving proficiency in many ways. It can affect one's performance in the classroom, as well as cognitive processing abilities when encountering a second language. Moreover, foreign language anxiety can be severe to the extent where language learners will refrain from communicating with others in the foreign language. As Horwitz (1986) noted, “to discuss

foreign language learning without considering the learner's emotional reactions to language learning is a serious oversight" (p. 573). Hence, it is the responsibility of the educator to help reduce foreign language anxiety, especially in traditionally underrepresented groups, such as African-American language learners. It is unclear as to how African-American language learners process language learning, and to what extent they become anxious in the language learning process in relation to other language learner groups.

2.4 BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

This section reviews the research that has investigated the beliefs of language learning among various groups of FL and SL learners. The studies will be divided into three groups: studies conducted prior to the implementation of the BALLI; studies using the BALLI in the US, studies using the BALLI abroad..

2.4.1. Preliminary Beliefs About Language Learning Studies

One of the first studies that investigated beliefs in second and foreign language learning and teaching was Horwitz (1985) survey of the beliefs about language learning of pre-service teachers. She administered the teacher's version of the BALLI as well as the *Foreign Language Attitude Scale* (FLAS) (Savignon, 1976) to undergraduate teacher education majors. Her findings indicated that most teachers entered the class with preconceived notions about language learning and teaching, which may interfere with how they understand and become receptive to information presented in the course. She recommended the use of the BALLI in teacher training in order to assess the pre-service teachers' beliefs about language learning, and to consider the beliefs when developing curriculum for the methods course.

Wenden (1986) conducted a study with ESL learners about their explicit beliefs about language learning and how to best learn a foreign language. She classified their beliefs into three categories: 1) how important it is to actively use the language, 2) the importance of learning vocabulary and grammar, and 3) how personal factors play a role in the language learning process. Her findings helped her to design a set of modules that would allow second language learners to become more cognizant of any beliefs they might have about language learning, in addition to how their beliefs can have an effect on the learning process. Wenden also noted that learners' explicit beliefs about how to learn a language are reflected in the following four areas:

- 1) What strategies they used;
- 2) What areas of language learning they most attended to;
- 3) What criteria they used to evaluate how effective were the learning and social contexts in which they placed themselves; and
- 4) Where they centered the use of their individual strategies.

In a follow-up study, Wenden (1987) conducted semi-structured interviews with 25 ESL advanced-level students, asking them about the social settings in which they practiced English. Her findings revealed that the students were conscious of the beliefs they held concerning language learning. Wenden classified the participants' beliefs into three categories: those that valued language "naturally"; those who valued formal learning about grammar and vocabulary; and, those who valued personal factors in language learning, such as self-concept, emotions, and aptitude. Wenden's findings provided preliminary evidence that a language learner's beliefs can influence the strategies they use, a finding that has been replicated (Park 1995; Wang 1992; Wang, 1996; Su, 1995).

Abraham and Vann (1987) conducted a study with both successful and unsuccessful ESL learners. The principal finding was that the students' presumptions about language learning do in fact have an effect on the way they learn a language. In other words, their beliefs seemed to affect the flexibility and variability of the learning techniques and strategies used.

2.4.2. BALLI Research in the United States

Horwitz (1988) argued that learners hold various beliefs about language learning that may influence the way they use different learning strategies, and how they approach the language learning process. The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was created based on free-recall tasks and focus group discussions with both foreign language and ESL teachers and students (Horwitz 1985). Horwitz (1989) administered the BALLI to 241 students studying French, German, and Spanish at The University of Texas at Austin. Horwitz divided the BALLI into five categories:

1. The difficulty of language learning
2. Foreign language aptitude
3. The nature of language learning
4. Learning and communication strategies
5. Motivation and expectations.

Concerning foreign language aptitude, the majority of students believed that anyone could learn a foreign language; however, they also believed that some people have a special aptitude for learning a foreign language. In addition, many doubted that they are strong language learners. The vast majority of the students conceded to the notion that a person who knows more than one language does not equate to being intelligent. Students also felt that foreign language learning was different than learning

other school subjects. Moreover, most of the German and Spanish, students believed that learning a language simply involved translating from English to the target language. The French students disagreed with this statement. In regard to learning and communication strategies, the findings showed that students believed in the mantra, “practice makes perfect” and that language labs are of high importance in acquiring a second language. Concerning learner motivations and expectations, despite the fact that learning a second language may not assist them in their respective career, they do not dismiss the idea of embracing the target language and its culture. Regarding the difficulty of language learning, it was striking to observe that students believed that they could achieve fluency in a very short period of time (2 years), a timeframe that most language teachers would find unrealistic.

Horwitz maintained that the most important finding was the range in similarity of beliefs in the different language groups. At the same time, however, the findings showed that students had a wide range of responses. Horwitz concluded that the examination of learner beliefs is important because one’s personal beliefs are more disposed to change than other learner variables, such as motivation or cognitive styles. Horwitz noted that one way that teachers can confront unrealistic beliefs is by presenting new information, since the beliefs may be based on the students’ limited knowledge and/or experience in learning the language. In addition, she challenged language teachers to make an effort to explore students’ beliefs about language learning to increase their overall understanding of how they approach the language learning process, and to ultimately help their students construct more effective learning strategies and expectations in the language learning quest.

Kern (1995, 1996) conducted BALLI studies that involved the opinions of both foreign language students and language instructors in two institutions. He surveyed 208 first and second semester French students and 12 instructors at the University of Texas at Austin and the University of California at Berkeley. Kern administered the BALLI twice during the semester to track changes in beliefs. Kern noted that many of the students and instructors called their language ability ‘very successful.’ Kern found this interesting and he acknowledged the optimism that the students have about learning a foreign language; yet, he questioned whether their ideas were realistic in terms of how long it truly takes to become fluent in a foreign language

Kern noted that while some students beliefs about language learner are encouraging, they could also be perceived as cautionary. For example, students acknowledged that anyone could learn a foreign language; however, their expectations for achieving fluency were viewed as unrealistic as they believed that it takes less than two years to achieve fluency. Kern maintained that students and instructors must engage in discussion on foreign language beliefs and expectations so that they are able to foster a relationship and work with each other effectively to learn a foreign language. Kern concluded the study noting that understanding students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning was important because:

“...awareness of the assumptions that learners and teachers bring to the classroom can help us and other students to become realistic in setting goals, it can shed light on our students' frustrations and difficulties, and it can allow us to provide more thoughtful guidance to our students in their efforts to learn a foreign language” (Kern, 1995, p. 82).

Horwitz (1989) also conducted study where she wanted to determine the relationship between learner beliefs and language anxiety. She used both the BALLI and

the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS, Horwitz et al.1986). She surveyed 34 Spanish foreign language students and found that the participants who had higher anxiety also tended to believe that only a select group of people can effectively learn a foreign language, and importantly, that they did not consider themselves as a part of the select few. Accordingly, Horwitz concluded that an individual's language learning beliefs might be a major source of foreign language anxiety.

Similarly, Oh (1995) investigated the beliefs of American students learning Japanese. She wanted to determine what beliefs American students held with respect to learning a foreign language. She also analyzed the relationship between their beliefs and their foreign language anxiety levels. One hundred and ninety-five students from the University of Texas at Austin participated in the study by completing the BALLI and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS).

Oh's findings yielded several conclusions. First, the American students strongly viewed Japanese as a "very difficult" language to learn due to its complex character structure. In addition, they had 'fair,'⁴ yet realistic beliefs on how long it would not take to become proficient in a foreign language. Furthermore, students were not confident in their language aptitude regarding Japanese. Consequently, the students were not as enthusiastic about communicating with Japanese native speakers. Yet, they acknowledged that practice and repetition would assist in becoming proficient in Japanese. The students' motivations were generally integrative as many wanted to learn Japanese so that they could meet native speakers. It appears that the participants as a

⁴ The majority of the students surveyed believed that 3-5 yrs was enough time to achieve proficiency. This still may be up for discussion, yet given the scope of other studies, where students believed that it would take up to a year to become fluent in a language, 3-5 years can be seen as more a more accurate reflection of acquiring a language.

whole desired to learn Japanese; yet, their beliefs tended to conflict with how they should pursue learning the language.

Concerning the relationship between the learners' beliefs and foreign language anxiety, Oh's findings indicated a negative relationship between beliefs and foreign language anxiety. Her study noted that even though motivation and the 'value of knowing Kanji' are two strong beliefs that could be related to foreign language anxiety, there is still inconclusive evidence that defines a relations between learner beliefs and foreign language anxiety.

Kuntz (1996) replicated Horwitz's (1989) study of foreign language students who were in French, German, and Spanish courses with language learners in less commonly taught languages, specifically, those in Arabic and Swahili courses. Four hundred twenty-four first-year participants were given the BALLI. Of the 421 participants, eighty-one were studying Arabic and fifty-three, Swahili. Kuntz hypothesized that the students of the less commonly taught languages would differ in their beliefs about language learning from those of the more commonly taught languages, and her findings did support the initial hypothesis. She concluded that the language being studied could have an impact on beliefs about language learning.

With respect to the focus of this dissertation, Gatlin (2008) conducted a study on African-American college students at the University of Texas at Austin to assess their general beliefs about language learning, and to determine any possible gender differences in beliefs. This was the first BALLI study conducted on a marginalized and homogenous group of individuals. The BALLI was modified for this study to include three open-ended questions regarding which languages the participants viewed as easy to learn or difficult

to learn, and which language(s) they would prefer to learn. One hundred eighty participants completed the survey questionnaire.

Gatlin's findings indicated both similarities and differences between African-American males and females in beliefs about language learning. For example, both African-American males and females believed that it is easier to learn a foreign language as a child as opposed to an adult. In addition, both gender groups believed that it depends on the individual and the foreign language studied to determine how long it takes one to become orally proficient. In addition, the two gender groups both strongly believed that women learn a foreign language better than males. Moreover, both African-American males and females noted that they would most desire to learn any of the African languages, specifically Igbo, Kikongo, and Swahili.

The two gender groups also showed their differences in their beliefs about language learning. Concerning the nature of language learning, African-American males believed that translation was important to foreign language learning, whereas, the females believed that vocabulary and grammar was the most effective. Also, African-American males disagreed with the belief that Americans are good at learning foreign languages, whereas, females strongly supported this belief..

Gatlin's study concluded that there were more similarities than differences in language learning beliefs as it related to gender, and recommended further research specifically geared toward African-American males to address their beliefs about language learning, and what measures should be taken to develop a foreign language curriculum that may shift their beliefs about foreign language learning in a more positive direction.

2.4.3. BALLI Studies in EFL Settings

Yang (1992) examined language learners' beliefs and the relationships between beliefs and language strategies in a university classroom setting in Taiwan. Yang maintained that researchers had noted a connection between language learners' beliefs and their language strategy use. No previous study had addressed whether or not and how the two variables were related.

Five hundred and five undergraduate students in English classes in Taiwan participated in the study. They completed the BALLI, and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Oxford, 1989). Yang's research indicated several findings. For example, the majority of the subjects felt that it is important to learn spoken English and also expressed positive self-efficacy regarding the usefulness of learning English. Participants also believed that the most important aspect of learning a language involved learning grammar, vocabulary, and translation. With respect to language learning strategies, they favored a more communicative approach in learning English, followed by other strategies (e.g. compensation, cognitive memory, etc.) that essentially would help them in speaking English. Yang also found the relationship between beliefs and strategy use might not be "unidirectional." She found instances where learners' beliefs affect their use of strategy use, but their successful use of the strategies also increased their sense of self-efficacy.

Yang's findings also showed that other varying background factors—such as major and gender—affected the correlation between the students' language beliefs their learning strategies. Descriptive analyses confirmed that female students reported using social strategies more often than male students. Also participants who were foreign

language majors had a greater tendency to believe in foreign language aptitude than did other majors.

When asked about the nature of learning a language, students felt that it was okay to guess if they did not know a word in English, but they also felt that it was important to not say anything in English until the person could say it correctly. This finding may cause confusion in Taiwanese English learners, as their education system is very traditional, and English entrance examinations place high value on accuracy; thus, the students will likely spend more time on correction and place less emphasis on other aspects of foreign language learning (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Lindsay 1998).

Su (1995) investigated language learner beliefs about learning English and the strategies and styles of Chinese EFL students. She used the BALLI and the SILL in her study. Her findings indicated that her students were extremely motivated to learn English, and that they did not find English to be a difficult language to learn. Moreover, her findings note that the participants kept “cultural traits” (e.g., theory-oriented learning and teaching and strict school discipline) in their beliefs about language learning and teaching. She also found that their cultural beliefs were related to their preference for learning styles, but not their learning strategies.

Wang (1996) replicated Su’s study, but added a twenty-minute interview component with twenty students to explore the beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies of Chinese EFL college English students.

With regard to the participants’ beliefs about language learning, Wang’s findings indicated that participants believed strongly in the value of learning English, and although many of them did not perceive themselves as having a “special ability” for

learning English, they were highly motivated to do so, as their motivations were both instrumental and integrative. Also, the participants strongly believed that difficulty of learning a foreign language is dependent upon the language being studied. Participants also believed that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language than adults, and that the more practice a language has in a foreign language they will become more proficient.

Wang also explored the relationship between language learner beliefs and foreign language anxiety. In addition to finding higher levels of foreign language anxiety in comparison to prior studies (Oh 1996; Kunt 1997; Truitt 1997, Horwitz, 1988), her analysis also identified two belief factors—perceived difficulty of English learning and beliefs about foreign language aptitude—that were significantly correlated with foreign language anxiety. Her analysis concluded that Chinese EFL learners who perceived English to be a difficult language to learn would be more anxious in the classroom than those who did not perceive English as difficult to learn. In addition, Chinese EFL students who felt less confident in their foreign language abilities would be more anxious in the classroom than those who have more confidence.

Truitt (1995) examined the beliefs of Korean EFL learners in comparison to other ESL students. Her study also addressed to what extent is foreign language anxiety associated with students' foreign language beliefs, as well as if other background variables (e.g. gender, major, international living abroad experience). Truitt surveyed 204 EFL students at a Korean university in five English classes.

The findings revealed a strong sense of urgency and importance for Koreans to learn the English language. In addition, the findings showed that the self-efficacy of most EFL Korean learners in the study was low, as they were not too comfortable

speaking English in the classroom. Participants, however, were in fact motivated to speak English, as they understood the long-term effects of acquiring English for their career paths.

The EFL learners were also realistic in their beliefs with respect to their anxiety levels. They acknowledged that they would never have an “excellent” English accent. While they know that it is okay to make a mistake on occasion, they are more at ease when speaking with native English speakers. Truitt noted that while the EFL speakers do not like the idea of interacting with English native speakers; yet, they must slowly embrace their ability to interact with them.

Findings also indicated that EFL learners in Korea had high levels of foreign language anxiety compared to other language learners (Horwitz et al. 1986; Aida, 1994). Correlation analyses also identified two belief factors—self-efficacy and confidence in speaking English, and beliefs about the ease of learning English—to be significantly correlated with foreign language anxiety. Truitt also found that other background factors contributed to the students’ language learning beliefs and their anxiety levels. “English majors had significantly higher means than pre-med majors in both self-efficacies in speaking motivation for learning English.” (98).

Park (1995) also conducted a belief study involving EFL students in a Korean classroom setting. He surveyed 332 students at two Korean universities through the BALLI and the SILL. His findings showed that the majority of her students wanted to learn English in order to find better jobs and advancement. Almost half of the participants felt uncomfortable speaking English with native speakers, yet they saw the value from opportunities to practice the language. They believed that interactions with native English

speakers would allow them to move from one proficiency level to another, preparing them for their various professional careers that involve the English language. Interestingly, they rejected the idea of learning a foreign language solely based on grammar. Park also noted a link between the students' learning strategies and their L2 proficiency; however, in order for the beliefs and strategies to work concurrently with one another, it is contingent upon what specific beliefs and strategies foster the relationship.

Kunt (1997) conducted a BALLI study on 882 Turkish-speaking students in an EFL class in northern Cyprus. The study attempted to characterize Turkish students' beliefs about language learning and their foreign anxiety levels, and determine if any correlation exists among the two.

Findings showed that despite the fact that the students are grouped at different proficiency levels, the participants believed that they would learn English well, and that some languages are easier to learn than others; hence, the importance of learning English is high as displayed through their motivations. Kunt's findings also indicated that the Turkish students' motivations were more instrumental than integrative. The students are more concerned with advancing their careers than immersing themselves in an English speaking culture. The idea of repetition and guessing is a concept that would place the subjects more at ease when communicating in the target language with native speakers. Kunt's study displayed a significant relationship between foreign language learner beliefs and the anxiety and confidence in the learners' speaking ability.

Diab (2000) attempted to identify the beliefs about foreign language learning in an EFL setting with Lebanese university students. Her objective was threefold:

1. To compare learning beliefs of Lebanese EFL students in French-medium and English-medium language learning environments;
2. To compare the beliefs about Lebanese students about language learning with respect to previous studies; and
3. To validate whether or not the students' beliefs within the group are due to background variables (e.g. gender, major, living experience) (p. 40).

Diab surveyed 284 university students at three universities in Lebanon with a modified BALLI. Her findings indicated that students in Lebanon held a wide range of beliefs in learning foreign languages, regardless of education system. Diab noted that these students believed that children do learn a foreign language better as a child than an adult considering that most schools in Lebanon start teaching children a second language around the age of six; therefore, many students are successful at their language choice. In addition, their self-efficacy is high as their expectations in learning a foreign language are high.

Second, there existed many similarities and differences among the students in both English and French language learning environments, thus alluding to the possibilities for variation in a particular group's beliefs about learning different target languages. Depending on the language learning environment—whether it is French or English—students believed that one language may be easier to learn over the other. This should be understood that in both school systems, English has a high importance over French, despite the fact that in the French-medium schools, they value the preservation of the French language.

There were differences in beliefs based on gender, English proficiency level, and the languages the participants spoke at home. Students who were brought up in a French-medium school were more integratively motivated than students in the English-medium school system who tended to be more instrumentally motivated.

Finally, Diab's study reported some similarities and differences with previous studies (Park 1995, Truitt 1995, Kunt 1997). For example, both Lebanese and Turkish students would welcome the idea of speaking with native English speakers, whereas Taiwanese and Korean students feel as though speaking with native speakers is not an option as they are not confident in their speaking abilities. These findings support the contention that one's cultural background might be a leading factor that influences one's beliefs about language learning (Horwitz, 1987), in addition to their language-learning environment.

Wang (2005) conducted a study with Chinese EFL learners, and investigated the effects of their language learning beliefs, and to what extent there was a correlation between their beliefs and foreign language anxiety levels.

A majority of Wang's participants believed that it was highly necessary to learn English as a foreign language, and they also had high confidence levels. Many of the participants believed that five years was sufficient time to become proficient in English if learned for an hour a day. In addition, the participants displayed both instrumental and integrative motivations for learning English. While there was strong agreement that learning English was essential to their future job advancement, they also acknowledged that having an English native speaker, as a language partner, would prove beneficial to their progress on a personal level.

The participants had high anxiety levels, and they attributed those to a lack of confidence in performance and their learning abilities. Upon performing a factor analysis, the FLCAS score were significantly correlated with only two BALLI factors:

the perceived difficulty of learning English, and beliefs about foreign language aptitude. These factors accounted for thirty-seven percent of the total variance.

2.4.4. Summary of BALLI Findings

The findings from the BALLI studies showed that language learners from different cultural backgrounds have a wide range of beliefs about language learning. The BALLI studies support the claim that students from various backgrounds have the ability to view language learning in a comparable manner, in part to a “world culture of language learning and teaching” (Horwitz 1999, p.575). In addition, students’ language learning beliefs are important as such beliefs might influence their expectations for learning a foreign language, and their beliefs are subject to change over other language learning variables (Horwitz, 1987).) Language learners’ beliefs about language learning can have an affect on one’s language learning strategies (Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Yang, 1992; Park 1995; Wenden, 1987), and are related to foreign language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Oh, 1996; Kunt, 1997; Truitt, 1995; Wang, 2005). Outside variables and a language learners’ cultural background have influenced learners’ beliefs about language learning (Diab, 2001; Gatlin, 2008, Horwitz, 1987); however, no studies have investigated the beliefs about language learning of African-American collegiate students with respect to differing campus environments.

2.5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Prior studies have indicated that learners not only lack confidence in themselves when compared to others in language learning, but that one must have a special innate ability to learn a foreign language (Price 1991). Furthermore, studies that have used the

BALLI and the FLCAS have shown significantly negative correlations between the two factors.

Horwitz (1989) also noted that individuals who have little to no foreign language aptitude are more than likely more anxious in the foreign language classroom than those who believe they have foreign language aptitude. Therefore, there are certain beliefs about language learning that can have an affect an individual's self-perception on performance. Foreign language education is a very interdisciplinary domain, and as expected, there is little to no research that concerns the relationship between the relationship between foreign language anxiety and language learner beliefs with African-Americans.

Concerning motivation in the context of foreign language learning, while it is true that in prior BALLI studies there is the BALLI component "motivations and expectations" of foreign language learning, such component does not investigate in detail if in fact individuals are psychologically motivated through basic human needs to learn a foreign language. In addition, prior studies that have measured motivation have assessed the motivation of learners with respect to other external factors (e.g., academic competence, academic disengagement, academic dis-identification) and other performance areas (e.g., sports); yet, there are no studies to date where motivation was used to measure students' performance in specific learning subjects, specifically foreign language learning and with African-American collegiate students.

All in all, what is known is that there are studies that focus on three aspects of foreign language learning: a language learners' beliefs about language learning, a language learners' foreign language anxiety levels, and how learners perceive motivation

in the foreign language environment. What is unknown, however, are the following: first, with regard to studies on the beliefs about language learning, while the Lassiter (2001) study addressed the beliefs about language learning to introductory French language learners at Southern University, there are no studies that have addressed the beliefs about language learning with African-American college students attending a Historically Black College and Universities on a broader scale. On the other hand, the Gatlin (2008) study broadly addressed the beliefs about language learning at University of Texas, a PWI. While both are unique in their own regard, the research is nonexistent when it comes to consider African-Americans in general, or more specifically, African-American college students who attend Historically Black Colleges/Universities, as well as how they compare to those who attend a predominantly white institution.

To gain more perspective on these particular aspects of foreign language learning would allow foreign language education research to understand in more detail the classroom performance of African-Americans across these three areas of language learning beliefs, academic motivation and anxiety levels in the foreign language classroom, and explore to what extent they are linked.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore the foreign language anxiety levels and the beliefs about language learning of African-American university students who attend a Historically Black College and University (HBCU) and those who attend a Predominantly White Institution (PWI). The study will also investigate the types of motivation that exist in the two groups of African-American students. The study will also investigate the differences in their beliefs about foreign language learning, as well as the relationship between the students' motivation and their foreign language anxiety levels. After examining the beliefs and the motivation and foreign language anxiety levels of both groups, an analysis will examine the differences between the two groups.

3.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study will address the following questions:

1. What types of motivation with respect to foreign language learning are present in African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?
2. What are the foreign language anxiety levels of African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs with respect to foreign language learning?
3. What is the relationship between African-American college students' motivation for learning a foreign language and their foreign language anxiety with respect to foreign language learning?
4. What are the beliefs about language learning of African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?

3.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.3.1. Participants

The participants in the study consisted of African-American male and female undergraduate students from two Predominantly White Institutions, and two Historically Black Colleges and Universities. The study also looked at African-American students at both institutions who took introductory level foreign language courses over the course of the 2011-2012 academic school year. The specific schools were selected because of the strength of their foreign language departments, as well as their having a language requirement. The following schools participated in the study: The University of Texas at Austin (Austin, TX), Howard University (Washington, DC), The Ohio State University (OH), and Florida A&M University (Tallahassee, FL).

3.3.2. School Profiles

3.3.2.1. Howard University

Howard University is considered one of the premier higher education institutions among historically black colleges and universities. Located in Washington, DC, Howard University was founded in 1867 shortly after the Civil War, as one of the first Historically Black Colleges and Universities in the United States. Howard University has a student population of roughly 11,000, 7,967 of which are undergraduate students.⁵ Over 92 percent of the undergraduate population is considered of African/African-American descent. The Department of World Languages and Cultures (formerly known as the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures) was renamed in 1993 and is the second largest department in the College of Arts and Sciences, where they offer majors

⁵ Source:
https://www.howard.edu/assessment/documents/reports/HU%20Assessment%20Dashboard_AY201112_4.pdf

and minors in French, German, Spanish, and Russian. In addition to the majors, they offer minors in Arabic, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Swahili, and Wolof. Students are required to complete a four-semester sequence of 12.0 credit hours of foreign language coursework with a grade “C” or better in order to meet requirements for graduation.

3.3.2.2. The University of Texas at Austin

Founded in 1883 in Austin, TX, The University of Texas at Austin is the fifth largest and one of the most diverse public institutions in the nation. The University has 51,112 students. 2,299 students are of African-American/African descent. 1,884 (3.7%) of who are undergraduate students.⁶ The University of Texas at Austin offers over thirty-four foreign languages, fifteen of which are available for major. The foreign language majors are all housed within the College of Liberal Arts. Depending on a student’s major, they are required to complete an introductory sequence of foreign language coursework with a grade of “C” or better in order to meet the requirements for graduation, ranging from 9.0-12.0 credit hours.

3.3.2.3. The Ohio State University

Founded in 1870 in Columbus, OH, The Ohio State University is the third largest and one of the most diverse public institutions in the nation. The Ohio State University has 63,058 students, with 56,387 being undergraduate students.⁷ Of the 56,387 undergraduate students, 3,261 students (5.8%) are African-American. The Ohio State University offers classes in thirty-two foreign languages, thirteen of which are majors and nineteen are minors. All foreign language majors are housed within the College of Arts

⁶ Source: https://sp.austin.utexas.edu/sites/ut/rpt/Documents/IMA_S_EnrollAnalysis_2012_Fall.pdf

⁷ Source: <http://www.osu.edu/osutoday/stuinfo.php>

and Sciences. Depending one's major course of study, students who attend the Ohio State University are required to complete a three-semester sequence of 12.0 hours of foreign language coursework with a grade "C" or better in order to meet the General Education Curriculum (GEC) requirements for graduation.

3.3.2.4. Florida A&M University

Florida A&M University was founded in 1890 as a land-grant institution in Tallahassee, FL, and is also one of the premier higher education institutions among historically black colleges and universities. For the 2011-12 academic school year, Florida A&M University had 13,204 total students, 12,077 (90%) being classified as of African/African-American descent. 11,027 were undergraduate students.⁸ Florida A&M University offers degree programs only in French and Spanish. Students can also take basic language courses in German, Chinese, American Sign Language (ASL), Japanese, and Arabic. In addition to French and Spanish, these languages may be used to satisfy the course language requirement for graduation. Students are required to complete 10.0 units of foreign language coursework with a grade of "C" or better in order to meet the requirements for graduation. The Foreign Languages department is housed within the Department of English Language and Literature.

⁸ Source: <http://www.famu.edu/index.cfm?oir&CurrentTermEnrollment>

Table 1: Demographic analysis of Participants attending PWIs by University, Academic Classification, and Gender

Participants at PWIs	University of Texas at Austin		The Ohio State University		Subtotals		Totals
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Freshman	19	17	20	10	39	27	66
Sophomore	10	27	15	16	25	43	68
Junior	18	8	22	11	40	19	59
Senior	9	15	19	17	28	32	60
Subtotals	56	67	76	54	132 (52%)	121 (48%)	253
Total (A)	123		130		253		253

Table 2: Demographic analysis of Participants attending HBCU by University, Academic Classification, and Gender

Participants at HBCUs	Howard University		Florida A&M University		Subtotals		Totals
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Freshman	9	32	8	31	17	63	80
Sophomore	14	10	12	19	26	29	55
Junior	12	27	23	15	35	42	77
Senior	17	40	29	20	46	60	106
Subtotals	52	109	82	75	134 (39%)	194 (61%)	318
Total (B)	161		157		318		318
Total C (A+B)	284		287		571		571

3.4. PARTICIPANTS

571 students across the four universities participated in the study. Tables 1 and 2 show the breakdown by campus environment, school, and gender. The major requirement to participate in the study was that students were taking a foreign language course at the introductory level during the 2011-12 academic school year. Students at the four institutions were taught over a fifteen-week semester with the exception of The Ohio State University, which was on a ten-week quarter system for the fall, winter, and spring.

3.5. INSTRUMENTATION

Participants received a cover letter (Appendix A) introducing the researcher and describing the purpose of this study. The letter explained that participation was completely voluntary and that all answers to the survey instruments would remain confidential and anonymous. In addition, students were informed that their decision to not participate in the study would not affect their grade or their relationship with their academic institution. Students were told that by completing the survey in its entirety they would be entered into a raffle for a \$50 gift card. The cover letter ended with the researcher's contact information (name, phone number, email address) in case the participants had any questions or comments regarding the study.

3.5.1. Quantitative

Quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire with four sections designed to gather demographic information, and three instruments addressing motivations for learning a foreign language (AMS), beliefs about learning a foreign language (BALLI), and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCAS).

1. Background/Demographic Information

The first section of the questionnaire was designed to gather background information including: (1) Gender; (2) academic classification; (3) whether or not the student had studied a foreign language in middle school; (4) whether or not the student had studied a foreign language in high school; (5) the foreign language the student was currently taking (see Appendix B).

2. Academic Motivation Scale (AMS)

The second section of the questionnaire was the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS), which is an instrument derived from Vallerand et al.'s (1992) *Echelle de Motivation en Education*. This instrument, based on Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory, is a 28-item instrument divided into seven subscales⁹ that addressed three types of motivation: a-motivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. A 22-item modification was used in the present study (see below for modifications and Appendix K)

Prior studies indicated that the AMS has high internal consistency. Vallerand et al. reported Cronbach's alpha for the subscales ranging from .83 to .86, with the exception of extrinsic motivation, which was .62. Moreover, test-retest scores ranged from .71-.83. With regard to the dimensionality of the scores, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed adequate model fit after twenty-six error co-variances were introduced to the model.

For the purposes of this study, the AMS was modified to include items related to being motivated to learn a foreign language, specifically African-Americans learning a

⁹ The seven subscales examined are the following: amotivation (AMOT), external regulation (EMER), introjected regulation (EMIN), identified regulation (EMID), intrinsic motivation to know (IMTK), intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (IMES), and intrinsic motivation to accomplish (IMTA).

foreign language. As a result, the following questions were removed from the questionnaire:

1. **Because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on (Q1).**
2. **Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like (Q10).**
3. **Because I want “the good life” later on (Q15).**
4. **For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me (Q16).**
5. **For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written (Q18).**
6. **For the “high” feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects (Q25).**
7. **I don’t know; I can’t understand what I am doing in school (Q26).**
8. **Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies (Q27).**
9. **Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies (Q28).**

The following items were added to the AMS, thus making it a 22-question survey instrument:

1. **It is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I will more than likely be done with learning the language (Q20).**
2. **I am the only black in my class, so it is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language (Q21).**
3. **African-Americans need every advantage they can have as it relates to the job market (Q22).**

3. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The third section of the questionnaire consisted of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986; see Appendix C), which was designed to measure the participants’ level of foreign language anxiety. The FLCAS contains 33 items, each answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree.” The scale measures a person’s level of anxiety by adding up the ratings on the 33 items. The possible range is 33 to 165; the higher the

number, the higher the level of foreign language anxiety. Horwitz (1986) reports that internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha was .93, based on a sample of 108 participants. Test-retest reliability over a period of eight weeks was .83. Other studies have also yielded high internal consistency scores. For example, Aida (1994) reported an internal consistency of .94 with ninety-six participants. Truitt (1995) also reported an internal consistency of .95, with one hundred ninety-eight participants. These high internal consistency results give support to the reliability of the FLCAS.

4. Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

The fourth section of the questionnaire was the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), which is an instrument composed of 34 five-point Likert scale items developed by Horwitz (1987) to assess language-learning beliefs across the following five areas: foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, the difficulty of language learning, and motivation and expectations. The BALLI was designed from the responses of student and teacher focus groups, with both groups were asked to identify their own beliefs and what they perceived to be other people's beliefs about language learning. Because the BALLI measures various beliefs about language learning, there are no right or wrong answers, and it does not yield a composite score.

Prior studies indicated that there were many similarities in BALLI responses across cultural groups. With respect to reliability, Yang's (1992) study on the beliefs of EFL students in Taiwan had an internal consistency of .69 for the modified Chinese version. It should be noted that in her pilot study, the internal consistency was .77. Park's (1995) study had a similar reliability for the BALLI at .61, and Truitt (1995)

internal consistency was .61. Kunt (1997) had an internal consistency of .64, and noted that while the internal consistency coefficients seem low, the BALLI is a composite of individual items, and not a single scale.

The version of the BALLI used in the current study was modified to examine the beliefs of African-American college students. Five questions were included that specifically refer to African-American college students:

- 1. African-Americans are good at learning foreign language. (Q. 24)**
- 2. African-Americans only take foreign language languages to fulfill a language requirement. (Q. 27)**
- 3. African-Americans would be most interested in studying a foreign language if it is taught from an Afro-centric perspective. (Q. 28)**
- 4. African-Americans who excel at learning at learning a foreign language have an innate “special” ability. (Q. 29)**
- 5. African-Americans know that learning a foreign language will benefit them in the long run. (Q. 30)**

3.5.2. Open-ended Questions

Three open-ended questions were included in the questionnaires. The first open-ended question was two-fold as it asked students to list a foreign language that they thought was easy to learn and one that was difficult to learn. A second open-ended question was included at the end of the BALLI: “Do you have any other beliefs about the nature of learning a foreign language?” The final open-ended question was asked at the conclusion of the FLCAS: “Is there anything else you would like to address in regard to studying a foreign language in general? Specifically, being an African-American studying a foreign language?”

3.6. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Permission to conduct this study was granted at the aforementioned universities from the chairs of the Department of Business, as well as the World Languages and Literatures at Howard University. In addition, permission for the study was granted through the Office of Research at The University of Texas at Austin, Florida A&M University, as well as the Office of Diversity and Inclusion at The Ohio State University. In addition, in order to prevent a census sampling¹⁰, The Office of Research and Support supplied a very “narrow” sample of African-American students who were enrolled in a foreign language course over the course of the 2011-12 academic school year at The Ohio State University. IRB approval was also received from UT-Austin, Florida A&M University, Howard University, and The Ohio State University (See Appendices B-E for IRB Approval Letters).

An introductory email was sent to the Chairs of the various language departments as well as the African-American Diaspora Studies (AADS)¹¹ department at the University of Texas at Austin to reach out to the African-American students on their respective campuses. In the introductory email, students were directed to a Qualtrics link that outlined the survey measurements, the risks and benefits of the study, as well as the online consent form that students were advised to print out for their records.

¹⁰ Per conversation with Julie Carpenter-Hubin, Assistant Vice President of Institutional Research and Planning, a census sampling entails sending out a mass email to the entire African-American undergraduate student body. The sample was sent to 801 students total who took a foreign language during the fall, winter, or spring quarters only.

¹¹ The African-American Diaspora Studies (AADS) department was contacted at the University of Texas at Austin as a way to reach the majority of African-American students who were currently taking a foreign language over the course of the school year, in addition to other African-American list serves on the Texas campus.

3.7. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis for this study involved both quantitative procedures, and for the open-ended questions. The data were analyzed in the following ways:

3.7.1. Quantitative Data

Data for the quantitative portion of the study were first coded, and then entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. SPSS was used for the analysis of the majority of the quantitative data analysis in the study.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the background questionnaire responses, the motivation scale, the BALLI, and the anxiety scale. In addition, a principal component analysis as well as a factor analysis was conducted on the BALLI responses. The analyses helped reduce the 31 individual variables to a manageable size while maintaining the information from the BALLI scores.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to investigate the effects of background variables (e.g., gender, academic classification, and the individual universities) on the BALLI and FLCAS factors. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted on variables that showed significant effects in the MANOVA, as well as post-hoc procedures.

Concerning the AMS, because the original scale was modified to address questions pertaining to African-American and foreign language learning, an exploratory factory analysis was conducted to determine the number of factors that should be used for analysis, as well as to keep the 22 items in the modified scale to a reasonable size for analysis. Correlation and regression were also computed to determine if there was any type of relationship with the AMS and the FLCAS.

3.7.2. Open-Ended Response Data

The open-ended questions were included in this study to help provide a better understanding of the experiences and perspectives of African-American college students learning a foreign language. The responses to the open-ended questions were listed, categorized, and summarized.

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has described the methodology used for this study. Participants in this study included 571 student responses across four universities (see Tables 1 and 2). The study involved several types of data collection, including quantitative data (demographic questions, self-assessed beliefs about learning a foreign language, motivations for learning a foreign language, and foreign language anxiety scales) as well as three open-ended questions. The procedures used to analyze the data were also described. The results of the study are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter presents the quantitative results, beginning with the descriptive findings, followed by the results for each research question. After which, the results from the open-ended questions will be discussed.

4.1. DATA FROM BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Section one of the questionnaire provided information about the participants, including gender, academic classification, and previous exposure to foreign language learning in both middle and high school. In addition, participants were asked which foreign language course they were enrolled in during the entire 2011-2012 long academic year.¹² The results were presented in Tables 1 and 2 in the previous chapter.

Question 3 (Table 3) asked participants if they had studied a foreign language in middle school, followed by question 4 (Table 4), which asked if they had studied a foreign language in high school. A substantial number of participants ranging from 47 to 51% reported that they had taken a foreign language in middle school. A majority of participants—98% of all participants--reported that they had studied a foreign language in high school. This is not a surprising finding since foreign language study is often a requirement for university admission.

Table 3: Question 3: Have you studied a foreign language in middle school?

University	Yes	No
Howard University	114 (71%)	47 (29%)
The University of Texas at Austin	72 (59%)	51 (41%)
The Ohio State University	79 (61%)	51 (39%)
Florida A&M University	102 (65%)	55 (35%)

¹² The Ohio State University operated on a three quarter system, which lasted 10 weeks each. The academic school year began in late September, and ended in early June. Howard University, The University of Texas at Austin, and Florida A&M University all operated on a two-semester system, which lasted 15 weeks each.

Table 4: Question 4: Have you studied a foreign language in high school?

University	Yes	No
Howard University	158 (98%)	3 (2%)
The University of Texas at Austin	122 (99%)	1 (1%)
The Ohio State University	128 (98%)	2 (2%)
Florida A&M University	152 (97%)	5 (3%)

Tables 5 and 6 report the language that participants first studied, as well as the foreign language they were currently studying. Both tables show the top three languages to which the participants were first exposed (Question 5), as well as what they are currently studying (Question 6). Across all four universities, languages that the participants first studied were Spanish followed by French. Participants also studied other foreign languages, such as German, Japanese, Latin, and Arabic. These languages varied across the four universities, with participants at Howard University and The University of Texas at Austin studying Japanese and German, and at The Ohio State University and Florida A&M University studying Latin. German was also the third most frequently studied language, and Arabic coming in third with Latin at The Ohio State University.

Question 6 indicated that the majority of African-American college students across the four universities were currently studying Spanish and French. Interestingly, 46 participants at Howard University were currently studying Japanese as well as French. In addition, 18 participants were studying Swahili at The Ohio State University. A slightly larger number of participants at Florida A&M University were studying French than Spanish.

Table 5: Question 5: What foreign language(s) were you first exposed to studying?

University	Most frequent exposed language	Next most frequent exposed language	Third most frequent exposed language
Howard University	Spanish	French	German Japanese
University of Texas at Austin	Spanish	French	Japanese German
The Ohio State University	Spanish	French	Latin Arabic
Florida A&M University	Spanish	French	German Latin

Table 6: Question 6: What foreign language are you currently studying? (Studied During the 2011-2012 School Year)

University	Language 1	Language 2	Language 3
Howard University	Spanish (64)	Japanese (46) French (46)	Arabic (15)
University of Texas at Austin	Spanish (68)	French (28)	German (20) Italian (7)
The Ohio State University	Spanish (79)	French (18) Swahili (18)	Arabic (12)
Florida A&M University	French (85)	Spanish (72)	German (13)

Students at the University of Texas at Austin were taking German (20) and Italian (7), while some students at The Ohio State University (12) reported taking Arabic, and 13 students at Florida A&M University were taking German.

4.2. ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE

4.2.1. Analysis of the Academic Motivation Scale

This section addresses the research question: **What types of motivation with respect to foreign language learning are present in African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?** The tables throughout this section report results grouped by each participating institution. As noted in Chapter 3, the AMS (Section Two

of the survey instrument) was modified to include questions related to the motivation of African-American college students to learn a foreign language.

4.2.2. Reliability of the AMS

In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the modified Academic Motivation Scale was found to be .85, which is considered a high level of reliability. Prior studies also found considerably high levels of reliability, such as Vallerand et al. (1992) at .83, Vallerand et al. (1993) at .86, Cokley (2000) at .7, and Barkoukis et al. (2008), at .71.

4.2.3. Factor Analysis of the AMS

In order to address the research question, **“What types of motivation are present with respect to foreign language learning in African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?”** a factor analysis was necessary. In order to reduce the number of AMS variables to a number that can be reasonably interpreted, a factor analysis with a Varimax rotation was computed to increase the interpretability of the underlying factors of the AMS.

Using a principal component analysis, four factors were obtained with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one. A Scree test was then implemented, and only three factors fit the criteria. These three factors accounted for 68% of the total variance. Table 7 displays the questions included in each factor.

There were three factors that fit the Scree Test criteria. Only variables that had a .40 or greater loading were included, a cutoff point that has often been used in previous studies. Question 19, “For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult activities,” was the only question that loaded on a fourth

component. As a result, the fourth factor was eliminated in its entirety because there were not three items loading on the factor.

Table 7 - EFA Factor Component Breakdown

Factor 1 – Long-Term Intrinsic: Self-Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS)	Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD)	Factor 3 – Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI)
Q1 – Because I experience satisfaction while learning a foreign language	Q2 – Because I think that learning a foreign language will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	Q7 – In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on in the future.
Q3 – For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas in the foreign language.	Q5 – For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in studying a foreign language.	Q8 – I once had good reasons for wanting to learn a foreign language; however, I now wonder if I should continue.
Q4 – Honestly, I don't know; I feel that I am wasting my time taking a foreign language.	Q13 - Because studying a foreign language will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	Q14 – I can't see why I need to take a foreign language; honestly, I could care less.
Q6 – To prove to myself that I am capable of learning a foreign language	Q17 – Because I believe that a few additional classes in a foreign language will improve my competence as a worker.	Q20 – it is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I will more than likely be done with learning the language.
Q9 – For the pleasure I experience when reading interesting authors' works in the foreign language.	Q18 - Studying a foreign language will help me have a better salary in the future.	
Q10 – For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things in the language never seen before	Q21 – It is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language.	
Q11 – For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments		
Q12 – I feel important when I succeed in learning a foreign language		
Q15 – To show myself that I am an intelligent person.		

Table 7 (cont'd) - EFA Factor Component Breakdown

Factor 1 – Long-Term Intrinsic: Self-Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS)	Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD)	Factor 3 – Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI)
Q16 – Because me studying a foreign language will allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me in the language		
Q22 – African-Americans need every advantage they can have as it relates to the job market.		

Factor 1 (Table 8) concerns intrinsic motivation and one's ability to be motivated through discovery and satisfaction in foreign language learning. This factor was named "Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction" (LTIDS). LTIDS has 10 items with factor loadings that range from .81 to .64, and all items loaded positively. The highest loading came from item 12, "I feel important when I succeed in learning a foreign language" and the lowest came from item 3 "For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas in the foreign language." Mean scores for the 10 AMS items indicated that most participants moderately endorsed each statement.

Table 8: Factor 1: Long Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS) in Foreign Language Learning

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q12 – I feel important when I succeed in learning a foreign language	.808	2.76	1.30
Q15 – To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	.779	3.82	1.32

Table 8 (cont'd): Factor 1: Long Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS) in Foreign Language Learning

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q9 – For the pleasure I experience when reading interesting authors’ works in the foreign language.	.778	2.7	1.24
Q6 – To prove to myself that I am capable of learning a foreign language.	.774	3.98	1.3
Q1: Because I experience satisfaction while learning a foreign language.	.766	2.8	1.23
Q10 – For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things in the language never seen before	.717	3.16	1.21
Q11 –. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments	.705	2.92	
Q22 – African-Americans need every advantage they can have as it relates to the job market.	.704	2.95	1.33

Table 8 (cont'd): Factor 1: Long Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS) in Foreign Language Learning

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q16 – Because me studying a foreign language will allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me in the language	.700	2.62	1.27
Q3: For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas in the foreign language.	.635	2.27	1.08

Factor 2 focuses on long-term extrinsic motivation with regard to performance-driven incentives in foreign language learning. This factor is called “Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven” (LTEPD). LTEPD includes 6 items with factor loadings ranging from .82 to .68 (Table 9). The highest loading was from item 21, “It is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language” and the lowest came from item 18 “Studying a foreign language will help me have a better salary in the future.” Mean scores for all 7 AMS items indicated that most subjects moderately endorsed these items.

Table 9: Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD) in Foreign Language Learning

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q21 – It is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language.	.823	2.97	1.34

Table 9: Factor 2 (cont'd)

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q5 – For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in studying a foreign language.	.813	2.82	1.32
Q13 - Because studying a foreign language will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	.757	2.65	1.29
Q17 – Because I believe that a few additional classes in a foreign language will improve my competence as a worker.	.740	2.62	1.27
Q2 – Because I think that learning a foreign language will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	.730	3.25	1.3
Q18 - Studying a foreign language will help me have a better salary in the future.	.678	2.77	1.29

Factor 3 is labeled short-term extrinsic motivation with minimal investment (STEMI) in foreign language learning. STEMI includes 5 items with factor loadings that range from .76 to .50 (Table 10), with the highest loading coming from item 14, “I can’t see why I need to take a foreign language; honestly, I could care less” and the lowest coming from item 20 “– it is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I

will more than likely be done with learning the language.” Mean values for all 5 AMS variables indicated that most participants did not strongly endorse these items, with means ranging from 1.77 to 2.4.

Table 10: Factor 3 - Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI) in Foreign Language Learning.

Item	Factor Loading	Mean	SD
Q14 – I can’t see why I need to take a foreign language; honestly, I could care less.	.768	1.77	1.15
Q7 – In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on in the future.	.752	2.01	1.3
Q4 – Honestly, I don’t know; I feel that I am wasting my taking a foreign language.	.535	2.6	1.24
Q8 – I once had good reasons for wanting to learn a foreign language; however, I now wonder if I should continue	.526	2.39	1.3
Q20 – it is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I will more than likely be done with learning the language	.502	2.0	1.28

The factor analysis reveals the extent to which African-American college students are motivated in regard to learning a foreign language. Of the three factors, it appears that factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment, is the factor with which most

participants strongly disagreed. Therefore, it shows that African-American collegiate students have varying levels of motivation; yet, they appear to have low levels of motivation when learning a foreign language for a short-termed end result.

4.2.4. Academic Motivation Scale Descriptive Statistics

4.2.4.1. Campus Environment and Motivation

Descriptive statistics from the modified Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) are summarized in Table 11. The survey instrument utilized a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 representing a low level of endorsement for the item and 5 representing a high level of endorsement in motivation. The data for each factor is broken down for participants from the two groups: students who attended the Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) and those who attended the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs).

Concerning Factor 1-Long Term Intrinsic-Discovery and Satisfaction, there was no difference in the means between the two groups, as participants from PWIs had a mean of 2.71 (SD = .96), whereas participants from an HBCU had a mean score of 2.68 (SD = .90). The second factor, Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD) showed some slight difference in mean scores, as participants from the HBCUs had a mean score of 3.1 (SD = .90), and participants from PWIs had a mean of 2.9 (SD = 1.1). Factor 3, which concerns short-term extrinsic motivation with minimal investment, had the lowest mean scores among the three factors for both groups, as participants from PWIs had a mean score of 2.1 (SD = .85), and those from HBCUs had a mean score of 1.9 (SD = .80).

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics for the Factors of the AMS across campus environment

Factor 1 (LTIDS)	N =	Mean	Std. Deviation
PWI	253	2.72	.96
HBCU	318	2.68	.90
Factor 2 (LTEPD)	N =	Mean	Std. Deviation
PWI	253	2.9	1.1
HBCU	318	3.1	1.0
Factor 3 (STEMI)	N =	Mean	Std. Deviation
PWI	253	2.16	.85
HBCU	318	1.78	.80

A t-test (Table 12) was conducted to compare differences in motivation factors under the two campus environments. For factor 1, there were no significant difference in motivation level for participants who attend an HBCU ($M=2.69$, $SD=.95$) or a PWI ($M=2.72$, $SD = .99$); $t(569) = -.38$, $p = .71$. For factor 2, there were no significant differences in motivation for participants who attended an HBCU ($M=2.9$, 1.0) or a PWI ($M=3.1$, $SD=1.1$); $t(569) = 1.67$, $p = .09$). For factor 3, however, there was a significant difference in motivation for participants who attended an HBCU ($M=1.78$, $SD = .84$) and a PWI ($M=2.16$, $SD=.91$); $t(569) = -4.65$, $p < .001$. These results suggest that only under factor 3's conditions—Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI)—the type of campus environment one attends seems to impact one's motivation level. Specifically, in this study African-American college students who attended an HBCU had lower motivation levels than those who attend a PWI when it concerns short term extrinsic motivation.

Table 12: T-Test for Differences in Motivation with respect to Campus Environment

Motivation Factor	F	Sig	t	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Factor 1: LTIDS	.996	.319	-.375	569	.708
Factor 2: LTEPD	.796	.373	1.67	569	.096
Factor 3: STEMI	2.24	.135	-4.65	569	.000

4.2.4.2. Gender and Motivation

Table 13 provides descriptive data on the AMS with respect to gender. In general, there were not many differences in motivation with respect to gender. Women had slightly higher motivation levels across the first two factors, and lower levels on the third factors than men, regardless of the institution that they attended. Factor 1 had close mean scores: women had a mean score of 2.8, whereas men had a mean score of 2.6. Factor 2's mean were not as close for both groups; however, women had a mean score of 3.1, while the men had a mean score of 2.8. Factor 3 had the lowest mean values for both groups, and were the least close, as women had much lower means ($m=1.7$) than men ($m=2.1$).

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics for the AMS Factors: Gender

Motivation Factor	Gender	N =	Mean	Std. Deviation
Factor 1: LTIDS	Men	256	2.56	.92
	Women	315	2.83	.99
Factor 2: LTEPD	Men	256	2.81	.94
	Women	315	3.13	1.1
Factor 3: STEMI	Men	256	2.10	.87
	Women	315	1.78	.88

As seen in Table 14, a t-test was conducted to compare differences in the three motivation factors by gender. For Factor 1: Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS), there was a significant difference in motivation level for African-American men ($M=2.56$, $SD=.92$) and African-American women ($M=2.83$, $SD=.99$); $t(569) = -3.3$, $p=.001$. For Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD), there was also a significant difference in motivation level for African-American men ($M=2.81$, $SD=.94$) and African-American women ($M=3.1$, $SD=1.1$); $t(569) = -3.8$, $p=.001$. For Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI), there was a significant difference in motivation level for African-American men ($M=2.56$, $SD=.92$) and African-American women ($M=2.83$); $t(569) = 4.2$, $p=.001$. The results suggest that African-American men and women differed in all three types of motivation. Specifically, the results indicate that African-American women have higher levels of motivation than African-American men for all three of the motivation categories.

Table 14: T-Test for Differences in AMS Motivation Factors: Gender

Factor	F	Sig	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)
Factor 1: LTIDS	1.44	.231	-3.34	569	.001
Factor 2: LTEPD	8.9	.003	-3.76	569	.000
Factor 3: STEMI	.055	.815	4.23	569	.000

Table 15a-b displays descriptive statistics concerning gender and motivation across the four institutions. African-American men at both HBCUs had higher mean scores than those who attended PWIs. African-American men participants at FAMU had the highest mean scores for Factor 1: Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS) ($M=2.56$), and African-American men at Howard University had the highest

mean scores for Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD) and the lowest for Factor 3 Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI) (M=3.02 and 1.92, respectively).

African-American women, on the other hand, had varying levels of motivation, depending on the motivation factor. African-American women at both PWIs had higher mean scores than those who attended HBCUs for two of the three motivation factors. Concerning Factor 1, Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS), African-American women who attended The Ohio State University had the highest mean scores (m=2.96). Women who attended the University of Texas at Austin had the highest mean scores (m=3.22) for Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD). Also, women who attended Howard University had the lowest mean scores (m=1.59) for Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI).

Tables 15a: Descriptive Statistics for the AMS Factors: Male (by University)

Institution	Howard University		Florida A&M University		The Ohio State University		University of Texas at Austin	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Factor 1 (LTIDS)	2.54	.88	2.61	.95	2.49	.98	2.49	.84
Factor 2 (LTEPD)	3.02	.96	2.89	.95	2.65	.94	2.65	.90
Factor 3 (STEMI)	1.92	.79	2.0	.87	2.33	.91	2.33	.88

Tables 15b: Descriptive Statistics for the AMS Factors: Female (by University)

Institution	Howard University		Florida A&M University		The Ohio State University		University of Texas at Austin	
	M	SD	M	M	M	SD	M	SD
Factor 1 (LTIDS)	2.78	.95	2.75	.98	2.96	1.14	2.90	.96
Factor 2 (LTEPD)	3.21	1.14	3.0	1.05	3.06	1.08	3.22	1.05
Factor 3 (STEMI)	1.59	.85	1.72	.79	1.95	.86	2.03	.95

4.2.5. Differences in Motivation Across the Four Universities

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (Table 16) was performed to determine differences in motivation levels across the four universities with respect to the three motivation factors. The results indicated that there was a significant difference among the four universities for Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic; Minimal Investment (STEMI) [$F(3, 570) = 8.422, p < .001$]. Factor 2: Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (LTEPD) was shown to be approaching significance [$F(3, 570) = 2.202, p = .087$] for the four universities. Factor 1: Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS) was not significantly different across the four universities [$F(3, 570) = .054, p = .983$].

Table 16: ANOVA of the 3 Factors of the Academic Motivation Scale Across the Four Universities

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
comp1	Between Groups	.153	3	.051	.054	.983
	Within Groups	534.081	567	.942		
	Total	534.235	570			
comp2	Between Groups	7.045	3	2.348	2.202	.087
	Within Groups	604.615	567	1.066		
	Total	611.660	570			
comp3	Between Groups	19.259	3	6.420	8.422	.000
	Within Groups	432.219	567	.762		
	Total	451.478	570			

A post-hoc Bonferroni analysis showed that there were some significant differences between the four universities for Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic; Minimal Investment (STEMI). As displayed in Table 17, the analysis indicated that there were significant differences between Howard University and both The University of Texas at Austin ($p < .001$) and The Ohio State University ($p < .003$). Howard University had lower motivation mean scores for this factor than both PWIs. In addition, there were some

significant differences in motivation Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic; Minimal Investment (STEMI) between The University of Texas at Austin and Florida A&M University ($p < .01$). The analysis indicated that participants from Florida A&M University had lower motivation levels under Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic; Minimal Investment (STEMI) than participants from The Ohio State University.

Table 17: Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI)

(I) University Attended	(J) University Attended	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Significance
Howard University	University of Texas at Austin	-.47843*	.10456	.000
	The Ohio State University	-.36125*	.10295	.003
	- Florida A&M University	-.15366	.09793	.703
University of Texas at Austin	Howard University	.47843*	.10456	.000
	The Ohio State University	.11718	.10982	1.000
	Florida A&M University	.32477*	.10513	.013
The Ohio State University	Howard University	.36125*	.10295	.003
	University of Texas at Austin	-.11718	.10982	1.000
	Florida A&M University	.20759	.10353	.273
Florida A&M University	Howard University	.15366	.09793	.703
	University of Texas at Austin	-.32477*	.10513	.013
	The Ohio State University	-.20759	.10353	.273

* - numbers indicate significant difference as $p < .05$.

4.2.6. Summary of Motivation Findings

The results concerning motivation suggest the following: there are three motivation factors, and of the three factors, it appears that African-American college students, regardless of campus environment, identified least with Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment, which participants strongly but negatively endorsed. In addition, there were significant differences in motivation concerning gender, as African-

American women had higher levels of motivation for the first two factors, and lower levels of motivation for the third factor. In addition, the ANOVA showed that across the four universities, men who attended HBCUs had higher levels of motivation than men who attended PWIs. With regard to African-American women, the results were more nuanced; African-American women who attended PWIs had higher motivation levels in two of the three motivation factors (Factors 1 and 2), but African-American women at HBCUs had lower motivation levels regarding Factor 3. Moreover, the ANOVA concerning campus environment indicated significance regarding factor 3, which displayed lower levels of motivation for African-American participants who attend an HBCU than those at a PWI. Specifically, with regard to the university itself, the post-hoc analysis indicated that participants who attended Howard University had higher levels of motivation than those who attended PWIs, The Ohio State University and The University of Texas at Austin under factor 3. In other words, participants at HBCUs were least likely to be the least motivated by short-term extrinsic goals for learning a foreign language than those at a PWI.

4.3. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

This section addresses the research question, **“What are the foreign language anxiety levels of African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?”** This section will report the results that were obtained from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The FLCAS tables consist of the number of cases for each school, along with their means (M), standard deviations (SD), and minimum (MIN) and maximum (MAX) scores.

4.3.1. Reliability of the FLCAS

Concerning the reliability of the FLCAS, this current study found a Cronbach's alpha of .85, which is a strong indication of internal reliability and similar to Horwitz et al. (1986) finding of .91. Prior studies that have used the FLCAS found lower levels of reliability with EFL learners [Yang (1992) at .74, Kunt (1997), Yang (1992) (.69), Truitt (1995) (.61), and Park (1995) (.61)].

4.3.2. Descriptive Analysis of the FLCAS

Table 18 shows the descriptive analysis of the FLCAS scores, grouped by university.

Table 18: Descriptive Analysis of FLCAS Scores: University

University	N =	Mean	Min/Max	SD
Howard University	161	99.6	33/156	16.2
University of Texas at Austin	123	106.5	70/140	13.7
The Ohio State University	130	105.2	49/140	15.3
Florida A&M University	157	104.2	33/148	16.9
Totals	571	103.9	33/158	15.8

The means of the FLCAS scores of all four universities are fairly close. Looking at the Predominantly White Institutions, the mean scores for the University of Texas at Austin and The Ohio State University are 106.5 and 105.2 respectively. On the other hand, the mean scores for both Historically Black Colleges and Universities—Howard and Florida A&M—are 99.6 and 104.2, respectively. The findings indicated that as a whole, students at all four universities have somewhat high levels of anxiety, with students at Howard University having somewhat lower anxiety scores than students at the other three schools.

Table 19 presents the anxiety levels by gender at each of the four universities. The findings indicated that the African-American men had means of 96.6, 109.9, 106.1, and 104.8, respectively. In addition, African-American women had means of 102.5, 103.1, 104.1, and 103.6, respectively. African-American men who attended either HBCU had a combined mean of 100.7, while those who attended a PWI had a mean of 104.6. In addition, African-American women who attended HBCUs have a combined mean of 103.1, whereas those who attended a PWI have a combined mean of 107.

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics of FLCAS Scores: Gender

University	Gender	N	Mean	Min/Max	SD
Howard University	Men	52	96.6	33/158	17.9
	Women	109	102.5	73/145	15.4
Florida A&M University	Men	72	104.8	33/158	19.2
	Women	85	103.6	71/137	14.6
The Ohio State University	Men	76	106.1	49/140	15.4
	Women	55	104.1	73/130	15.3
University of Texas at Austin	Men	56	109.9	81/158	13.5
	Women	67	103.1	75/161	13.6

Table 20 reports differences in anxiety levels by academic classification across the four universities. Overall, freshmen reported the lowest foreign language anxiety levels, and juniors reported the highest anxiety levels, followed by seniors, and then sophomores.

Table 20: Descriptive Statistics of FLCAS Scores: Academic Classification

University	N=	Mean	Min/Max	SD
Freshmen	161	100.9	69/158	16.0
Sophomore	124	104.2	73/135	14.8
Junior	136	106.2	49/145	14.0
Senior	166	105.3	33/143	17.2

4.3.3. Demographic Variables

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the influence of demographic variables on the FLCAS scores. Gender, grade classification, and type of campus environment (PWI v. HBCU) were examined.

4.3.3.1. ANOVA by University

An ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were any significant differences in anxiety levels across the four universities (Table 21). The analysis indicated that there were some significant differences in anxiety levels in the four universities [$F(3, 570) = 3.18, p < .02$].

Table 21: ANOVA by University

invsumANX					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2347.576	3	782.525	3.177	.024
Within Groups	139643.482	567	246.285		
Total	141991.058	570			

Post-hoc Bonferroni tests (Table 22) showed that participants who attended Howard University had significantly lower levels of anxiety (mean = 100.6) than those who attended The University of Texas at Austin (mean = 106.0). There were no significant differences in anxiety levels between the other two universities, The Ohio State University and Florida A&M University.

Table 22: Post-Hoc Bonferroni Analysis: Multiple Comparisons by University

Bonferroni

(I) University Attended	(J) University Attended	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Howard University	University of Texas	5.45958 [*]	1.87937	.023
	The Ohio State University	.62781	1.85046	1.000
	Florida A&M University	1.85956	1.76023	1.000

4.3.3.2. ANOVA by Campus Environment

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was also conducted to determine if there were significant differences in anxiety levels with regard to campus environment. The Analysis grouped the four universities into two groups, PWI (n=253) and HBCU (n=318). Table 23 shows the ANOVA based on Campus Environment (PWI v. HBCU). The analysis indicated that there were no significant differences with respect to anxiety levels [$F(1, 570) = 2.403$, $p = .12$]. Therefore, African-American language learners at both HBCUs and PWIs reported similar levels of anxiety.

Table 23: ANOVA by Campus Environment (PWIvsHBCU)

ANOVA

invsumANX

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	597.208	1	597.208	2.403	.122
Within Groups	141393.850	569	248.495		
Total	141991.058	570			

4.3.3.3. ANOVA by University Classification

An Analysis of Variance was also conducted to determine if there were any significant differences in foreign language anxiety levels with respect to students' academic classification. Table 24 shows the ANOVA based on grade classification. The analysis indicated that there were significant differences among the grade classifications, as indicated by the F-value [$F(3, 570) = 3.15, p < .03$].

Table 24: ANOVA by Academic Classification

invsumANX

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2327.717	3	775.906	3.150	.025
Within Groups	139663.341	567	246.320		
Total	141991.058	570			

A post-hoc Bonferroni analysis (Table 25) was conducted to determine which grade classification groups were significantly different. The analysis indicated significant differences in anxiety between African-American freshman and junior participants. African-American freshmen across the four universities had significantly lower anxiety levels than African-American juniors.

Table 25: Post-Hoc Bonferroni Analysis: Multiple Comparisons by Classification

(I) What is your student classification?	(J) What is your student classification?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Freshman	Sophomore	-3.33159	1.91969	.499
	Junior	-5.28083*	1.87348	.030
	Senior	-4.43905	1.78399	.079

4.3.3.4. ANOVA by Gender

An Analysis of Variance was also conducted to determine if there were any significant differences in foreign language anxiety levels in African-American male and female students. Table 26 shows the ANOVA based on gender. The analysis indicated that there were no significant differences with regard to gender and anxiety levels. [$F(1, 570) = .777, p = .378$]. Thus, African-American men ($m=104.3$) and women ($m=103.6$) reported, as a whole, similar levels of anxiety.

Table 26: ANOVA by Gender

invsumANX					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	193.649	1	193.649	.777	.378
Within Groups	141797.409	569	249.205		
Total	141991.058	570			

4.3.4. Summary of Anxiety Findings

The results concerning foreign language anxiety indicated the following: the overall mean FLCAS score for African-American college students was 103.9, which indicated slightly high foreign language anxiety. As it concerned campus environment, African-American participants who attended an HBCU had lower levels of foreign language anxiety than participants than those who attended a PWI. Concerning gender, African-American men had overall higher anxiety means levels than African-American women at all four universities. However, the multiple analyses of variances did not find these differences to be significant.

The analysis also indicated that African-American freshmen participants had the lowest foreign language anxiety level of any academic classification, whereas junior

participants had the highest foreign language anxiety levels. Multiple Analyses of Variance indicated that there were no significant differences in campus environment. However, there were significant differences among the individual universities, as participants from Howard University had lower foreign language anxiety levels than participants from either The Ohio State University or The University of Texas at Austin.

4.4. MOTIVATION AND ANXIETY

This section addresses the research question, **“What is the relationship between African-American college students’ motivation for learning a foreign language and their foreign language anxiety?”** This section will describe the results that were obtained from the AMS and the FLCAS, as well as correlation and regression data as they pertain to the research question.

4.4.1. Relationships between Anxiety and AMS Factors

This section focuses on the relationship between the FLCAS and the AMS factors. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to examine these relationships. The AMS factors (labeled “comp1”, “comp2”, and “comp3”) and campus environment (labeled “PWIVHBCU”) served as the predictor variables while the FLCAS scores were used as the criterion variable in the multiple regression.

4.4.2. Correlations between the AMS factors and the FLCAS

This section examines the correlations between the AMS factors and the FLCAS scores from all four universities broken into the two groups, PWI and HBCU. Table 27 presents the data for the two PWIs, followed by Table 28, which presents the data analysis for the two HBCUs.

Table 27: Correlation between Anxiety and Motivation Factor 3 at PWI

	FLCAS	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
FLCAS	1.0000			
Factor 1	.127* .043 (253)	1.0000 (253)		
Factor 2	-.058 .362 (253)	.583** .000 (253)	1.0000 (253)	
Factor3	-.285** .000 (253)	-.149* .018 (253)	.032 .617 (253)	1.0000 (253)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

With regard to participants who attend PWIs, as shown in Table 28, factors 1 and 3 have a significant correlation with the FLCAS score. Factor 1 has a significant positive correlation with anxiety, whereas factor 3 has a significant negative correlation.

Therefore, for African-Americans who attend a PWI, when their level of motivation for Factor 1 (Long-Term Intrinsic: Satisfaction and Discovery) increases, their anxiety level also tends to increase. In addition, when their level of motivation for Factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment) increases, their anxiety levels also tend to decrease.

Concerning participants who attended the HBCUs (Table 28), only factor 3 has a significant negative correlation. For African-Americans studying at an HBCU, when their level of motivation for Factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment) increase, their anxiety levels tend to decrease.

Table 28: Correlation between Anxiety and Motivation Factor 3 at HBCU

	FLCAS	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
FLCAS	1.0000 (318)			
Factor 1	.024 .672 (318)	1.0000 (318)		
Factor 2	-.083 .141 (318)	.469** .000 (318)	1.0000 (318)	
Factor 3	-.401** .000 (318)	-.161** .004 (318)	-.069 .221 (318)	1.0000 (318)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

4.4.3. Multiple Regression Analysis

A linear regression analysis (Table 29) was conducted to determine whether or not the environment in which the African-American college student attended school predicted how motivated they would be to learn a foreign language. The significant correlation coefficients were used as the initial estimates for selecting the predictor variables for the analysis. The analysis was conducted using all participants across the four universities, but grouped into two groups (PWI and HBCU).

Table 29: Linear Regression and ANOVA (n=571)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.372 ^a	.138	.132	14.70420

a. Predictors: (Constant), PWlorHBCU, comp1, comp3, comp2

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19614.137	4	4903.534	22.679	.000 ^b
	Residual	122376.921	566	216.214		
	Total	141991.058	570			

a. Dependent Variable: invsumANX

b. Predictors: (Constant), PWlorHBCU, comp1, comp3, comp2

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	118.943	2.854		41.682	.000
	comp1	1.259	.755	.077	1.667	.096
	comp2	-1.844	.699	-.121	-2.637	.009
	comp3	-6.448	.747	-.346	-8.635	.000
	PWlorHBCU	.618	1.262	.019	.490	.624

a. Dependent Variable: invsumANX

The analysis indicates that the overall model for the relationship between anxiety and each motivation factor is significant, $F(4, 570) = 22.68$, $p < .05$. In addition, as a whole, the analysis shows that factors 2 and 3 are significant, as they both have probabilities below $p < .01$. A step-wise regression confirmed that factor 3 is the highest predictor of one's anxiety level (with 13% of total variance) followed by factor 2. Factor

1 was still confirmed as having an insignificant relationship, therefore, it was removed from the regression analysis.

4.4.4. Interpretation of Regression Model

The mean scores of the AMS components indicate the following: with regard to African-American students who attend PWIs, concerning Factor 1 (Long-Term Intrinsic: Satisfaction and Discovery), as students' motivation levels increase, their anxiety levels also tend to increase. With regard to factor 2 (Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven) and factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment), for African-American participants who attended either a PWI or an HBCU when their motivation levels for learning a foreign language increase, their anxiety levels tend to decrease.

After examining the predictor variables, it appears that one's campus environment as a whole does not predict one's level of anxiety. However, with regard to factor 2 (Long-Term Extrinsic: Performance-Driven) and factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment), when one's motivation increases, the participant's foreign language anxiety decreases. While these two motivation factors do predict one's level of anxiety, Factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment) explained more of the variance in predicting one's level of anxiety. The analysis indicated that while participants who attended either an HBCU or a PWI were motivated to learn the language, it appears that the language learning process is most optimal within a fixed period of time insofar as the investment on the student's behalf is minimal. As a result, their anxiety levels will likely be comfortable during the learning process. In other words, the shorter the timeframe for learning a foreign language, the higher the students' motivation tended to be, thereby decreasing their likelihood for becoming anxious in the learning environment.

4.5. BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY DATA ANALYSIS

This section address the research question, **“What are the beliefs about language learning of African-American college students at PWIS and HBCUs?”**

This section describes the results that were obtained from the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). The tables show the breakdown of each question grouped by each participating institution and the percentages of participants endorsing the item.

4.5.1. Descriptive Analysis of the BALLI

Descriptive statistics were computed on the students’ responses for the BALLI items. The analyses address the research question, “What are the beliefs about language learning of African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs?” The student responses were analyzed under the five belief categories (Horwitz, 1988).

4.5.1.1. Difficulty of Language Learning

Concerning the perceived difficulty of language learning, as shown in Tables 30-35, students from all four universities showed strong support for the idea, “it is important to hear the language in order to speak it properly,” (Table 30) (91%, 96%, 93%, and 95%).¹³ With regard to the item “If someone spent an hour a day learning a language, how long will it take him/her to become proficient? (Table 31),” participants were divided. Participants from both the University of Texas at Austin (UT) and The Ohio State University (OSU) had moderate support (50%, 54%) saying that it depends on the person and the language, followed with 30 and 27%, respectively, believing that it should take 1-2 years, followed with 12% at both universities with the belief that it only takes

¹³ The percentages in parentheses heretofore are the following schools in order: (HU, FAMU, UT, OSU). Moreover, strongly agree and agree are combined to represent the total percentage of the agreeing subjects. Similarly, strongly disagree and disagree are combined to represent the total percentage of the disagreeing subjects.

less than 1 year to become orally proficient. Participants from Howard University (HU) and Florida A&M University (FAMU), however, had 37 and 48%, respectively, who believed that it depends on the person and language, followed with 34 and 27% believing that it should take 1-2 years to become orally proficient, and 14 and 13% saying less than 1 year.

With respect to the question, “it is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent (Table 32),” findings indicated that students at the four universities moderately disagreed with this belief (54%, 61%, 57%, and 57%), and many students at all four universities took a neutral position (29%, 24%, 28%, and 28%). Also, for the item “It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language (Table 33),” participants showed both moderate agreement (56%, 57%, 54%, and 55%) and a neutral position (29%, 29, 28%, and 30%).

There was also moderate support for the belief that “it is easier to develop reading skills than writing skills in a foreign language” (55%, 55%, 63%, and 49%) from participants at all four universities (Table 34). A substantial minority of participants also had a neutral position with regard to this item (30%, 24%, 22%, and 28%). In addition, there was moderate agreement for the item, “some languages are easier to learn than others (Table 35),” (54%, 52%, 50%, and 55%). Many participants were neutral regarding the same item (33%, 28%, .28%, and 29%).

Table 30: It is important to hear the language in order to speak it properly.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard U.	1	3	5	37	54	4.41	.78
FAMU	1	1	2	43	53	4.43	.7
UT-Austin	1	1	5	47	46	4.35	.72
Ohio State	1	1	3	43	52	4.4	.7

Table 31: If someone spent an hour per day learning a foreign language, how long will it take it him/her to become orally proficient?

University	Less than 1 year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	It depends on the individual and language
Howard Univ.	14	34	13	1	37
FAMU	13	27	10	2	48
UT-Austin	12	30	7	1	50
OSU	12	27	7	1	54

Table 32: It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	15	29	41	13	2.53	.98
FAMU	3	12	24	46	16	2.43	1.1
UT-Austin	6	10	28	44	13	2.5	1.0
OSU	5	10	28	36	21	2.4	1.09

Table 33: It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	8	21	16	43	13	2.7	1.0
FAMU	6	24	13	41	17	2.6	1.2
UT-Austin	3	24	19	34	20	2.57	1.1
OSU	5	25	15	35	19	2.6	1.2

Table 34: It is easier to develop reading skills than writing skills in a foreign language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	4	12	30	36	19	3.53	1.0
FAMU	3	19	25	39	15	3.36	1.0
UT-Austin	3	12	22	45	18	3.62	1.0
OSU	5	19	28	36	14	3.35	1.07

Table 35: Some languages are easier to learn than others.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	9	11	33	28	19	2.63	1.2
FAMU	8	12	28	29	23	2.39	1.1
UT-Austin	7	14	29	34	16	2.6	1.1
OSU	3	13	29	30	26	2.38	1.09

4.5.1.2. Foreign Language Aptitude

With respect to ideas about foreign language aptitude, as shown in Tables 36-45, there was strong agreement across all four universities with the statement that “Anyone can learn a foreign language (Table 36)” (83%, 86%, 89%, and 87%). The item “Americans are good at learning foreign languages (Table 37),” remained neutral (48%, 49%, 52%, and 52%). Furthermore, the item “in the US, there is a lot of importance placed on learning foreign languages (Table 38),” showed moderate disagreement from participants at all four universities (48%, 47%, 54%, and 37%). On the other hand, 44% and 35% of participants from OSU and FAMU, respectively, agreed with the statement.

There was strong agreement from participants at all four universities on the item “it is easier for children to learn a foreign language better than adults (Table 39),” (87%, 92%, 91%, and 91%). In addition, the findings were divided for the item, “some people are born with a special ability, which helps them to learn a foreign language (Table 40),” where participants from HU and UT showed moderate disagreement with the statement (42%, 50%), but there was moderate agreement with participants from OSU and FAMU (44%, 43%) participants. However, HU participants had a more neutral stance on this question (32%), and OSU and FAMU also had 43% and 36%, respectively, who disagreed with the item. UT had 28% who agreed with the statement. The item “Women

are better than men at learning languages (Table 41),” showed divided findings. Many participants from all four universities were neutral on the item (48%, 44, 41%, and 49%); but, there were also a substantial number of participants who agreed with the item (38%, 44%, 52%, and 44%).

There was moderate to strong agreement with the item, “People who are good at Math are not good in foreign languages (Table 42),” (49%, 59%, 72%, and 64%). A substantial amount of participants were neutral with regard to the item (42%, 36%, 24%, and 33%). Concerning the item “People who are good at Science are not good in foreign language (Table 43),” there also was moderate to strong agreement to the question (46%, 55%, 70%, and 61%), but also a relatively high number of neutral responses (46%, 40%, 28%, and 36%).

The item, “It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one (Table 44),” showed moderate agreement from participants at all four universities (50%, 46%, 52%, and 45%). However, participants from HU, FAMU, and OSU showed higher levels of disagreement with the item (26%, 31%, and 31%), and 25% of participants from UT were neutral concerning the item. Moreover, the item, “People who speak more than one foreign language well are very intelligent (Table 45),” showed moderate agreement from participants at all four universities (43%, 47%, 53%, and 51%); there was also a relatively high neutral position regarding the item (41%, 40%, 30%, and 38%).

Table 36: Anyone can learn a foreign language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	1	4	12	48	35	4.1	.86
Florida A&M	3	3	8	50	36	4.1	.87
UT-Austin	2	2	8	55	34	4.2	.78
OSU	3	2	9	52	35	4.2	.87

Table 37: Americans are good at learning foreign languages.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	9	48	33	8	2.7	.81
Florida A&M	3	8	49	32	9	2.6	.79
UT-Austin	1	7	52	31	9	2.6	.76
OSU	1	9	52	32	8	2.6	.78

Table 38: In the US, there is a lot of importance placed on learning foreign languages.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	19	29	20	18	14	3.2	1.3
Florida A&M	16	31	19	18	17	3.1	1.3
UT-Austin	17	37	21	13	12	3.3	1.2
OSU	19	18	21	29	15	3.0	1.3

Table 39: It is easier for children to learn a foreign language better than adults.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	1	5	8	27	60	4.3	.92
Florida A&M	1	2	5	34	58	4.4	.80
UT-Austin	3	2	5	28	62	4.4	.94
OSU	1	2	6	32	59	4.5	.78

Table 40: Some people are born with a special ability, which helps them to learn a foreign language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	18	25	32	19	6	2.7	1.1
Florida A&M	12	24	21	32	12	3.0	1.2
UT-Austin	19	32	21	23	6	2.7	1.1
OSU	13	24	19	33	11	3.1	1.2

Table 41: Women learn a foreign language better than men.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	4	11	48	23	15	2.7	1.2
Florida A&M	3	9	44	23	21	2.5	.95
UT-Austin	1	7	41	29	23	2.3	.92
OSU	2	8	49	22	20	2.4	.95

Table 42: People who are good at Math are not good at foreign languages.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	5	4	42	27	21	2.4	.94
Florida A&M	3	3	37	36	22	2.1	.89
UT-Austin	2	2	24	43	29	2.0	.82
OSU	1	3	33	35	29	2.1	.88

Table 43: People who are good at Science are not good at foreign languages.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	5	3	46	27	20	2.4	.98
Florida A&M	3	2	40	34	21	2.2	.87
UT-Austin	2	1	28	42	29	2.0	.82
OSU	1	2	36	34	27	2.2	.88

Table 44: It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	8	17	25	32	18	3.3	1.2
Florida A&M	8	23	22	34	12	3.2	1.2
UT-Austin	7	15	25	39	13	3.4	1.1
OSU	10	21	24	30	15	3.2	1.2

Table 45: People who speak more than one foreign language are very intelligent.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	12	42	33	11	3.3	.93
Florida A&M	5	8	40	34	12	3.5	.94
UT-Austin	4	11	31	42	11	3.3	.94
OSU	5	7	38	39	12	3.5	.95

4.5.1.3. Nature of Language Learning

Tables 46-51 highlight the results concerning BALLI items addressing the category of the nature of language learning. There was strong agreement from participants from all four universities concerning the item, “It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country (Table 46)” (75%, 70%, 70%, and 72%). In addition, concerning the item “it is necessary to know the culture in order to speak the language (Table 47)” there was moderate agreement from participants at the four universities (53%, 59%, 57%, and 54%). There was also moderate disagreement with the item (25%, 23%, 22%, and 25%).

Participants from the four universities showed considerably strong agreement with the item, “Learning a foreign language is different from other subjects (Table 48)”

(73%, 71%, 64%, and 72%), but there was a sizeable amount of disagreement from UT participants at 24%. In addition, there was moderate agreement with the item, “learning another language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules (Table 49),” (52%, 56%, 60%, and 52%). Interestingly, more participants from the two HBCUs held a neutral position (29%, 23%), whereas participants from the two PWIs disagreed with the item (25%, 25%).

Participants from all four universities showed moderate disagreement with the item, “Learning another language is mostly a matter of translating from English (Table 50),” (50%, 57%, 58%, and 58%). A substantial minority of participants from all four universities agreed with the item (28%, 25%, 19%, and 20%). Furthermore, the item, “Learning another language is mostly a matter of vocabulary (Table 51),” there results were divided in support of agreement (33%, 41%, 45%, and 34%) and disagreement (40%, 37%, 35%, and 42%).

Table 46: It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	2	5	21	37	35	4.0	1.0
Florida A&M	3	6	20	34	36	4.0	1.0
UT-Austin	6	10	15	35	35	3.8	1.0
OSU	5	5	19	37	35	3.9	1.1

Table 47: It is necessary to know the culture in order to speak the language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	18	24	44	10	2.6	1.0
Florida A&M	5	14	22	44	15	2.6	1.0
UT-Austin	7	14	21	48	10	2.6	1.0
OSU	5	17	25	39	15	2.5	1.1

Table 48: Learning a foreign language is different from other subjects.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	2	14	11	45	28	3.8	1.0
Florida A&M	2	14	13	40	31	3.9	1.0
UT-Austin	3	21	11	33	32	3.7	1.2
OSU	3	10	15	42	29	3.8	1.1

Table 49: Learning another language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of Grammar rules.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	4	14	29	42	10	3.4	.99
Florida A&M	3	19	22	46	10	3.3	1.0
UT-Austin	5	20	15	48	12	3.4	1.1
OSU	3	22	23	42	10	3.3	1.0

Table 50: Learning another language is mostly a matter of translating from English.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	16	34	23	22	6	2.7	1.1
Florida A&M	12	46	23	11	8	2.6	1.1
UT-Austin	16	44	22	15	5	2.5	1.0
OSU	15	43	17	19	6	2.6	1.1

Table 51: Learning another language is mostly a matter of vocabulary.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	9	31	26	28	6	4.0	.96
Florida A&M	6	32	20	33	9	4.0	1.0
UT-Austin	11	24	20	33	11	3.8	1.2
OSU	7	35	34	25	9	3.9	1.1

4.5.1.4. Learning and Communication Strategies

In the area of Learning and Communication Strategies (Tables 52-55) there was strong agreement from participants from all four universities regarding the item, “If you are allowed to get away with mistakes at the early stages, it will be hard to get rid of them later (Table 52)” (77%, 77%, 75%, and 78%). Moreover, there was overwhelming strong agreement from all four universities with regard to the item, “It is important to practice a lot in order to become proficient (Table 53)” (91%, 96%, 95%, and 95%).

Participants from all four universities showed weak agreement to the question, “It’s OK to guess if you don’t know a word in the foreign language (Table 54)” (32%, 42%, 34%, and 37%). Interesting, there was relatively the same amount of disagreement regarding the item (34%, 27%, 31%, and 33%). Participants moderately agreed with the item, “You should not say anything in the foreign language unless you can say it

correctly (Table 55)” (50%, 54%, 43%, and 57%). There was also a moderate amount of disagreement with the item (28%, 24%, 38%, and 21%).

Table 52: If you are allowed to get away with mistakes at the early stages, it will be hard to get rid of them later.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	5	15	44	34	4.0	.98
Florida A&M	2	10	11	47	30	3.9	.95
UT-Austin	2	7	15	48	28	3.9	.93
OSU	2	9	11	49	29	4.0	.96

Table 53: It is important to practice a lot in order to become proficient.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	2	3	4	27	65	4.5	.85
Florida A&M	1	1	2	30	66	4.6	.67
UT-Austin	1	1	3	27	68	4.6	.67
OSU	1	1	3	26	69	4.6	.66

Table 54: It is okay to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	9	30	30	29	3	2.9	1.0
Florida A&M	9	19	30	35	7	3.1	1.1
UT-Austin	15	15	34	28	7	3.0	1.2
OSU	10	23	30	29	9	3.0	1.1

Table 55: You should not say anything in the foreign language unless you say it correctly.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	10	19	22	39	11	3.2	1.2
Florida A&M	7	17	22	42	12	3.4	1.1
UT-Austin	15	24	20	29	12	3.0	1.3
OSU	11	11	22	42	15	3.4	1.2

4.5.1.5. African-American Expectations

This section focuses specifically on African-American college students' general beliefs and expectations of learning a foreign language. The BALLI was modified to incorporate statements to reflect the beliefs of African-American college students about language learning. Tables 56-60 provide a breakdown of the results for each participating university.

Concerning the item, "African-Americans are good at foreign languages (Table 56)," participants from all four universities strongly agreed with this item (82%, 84%, 84%, and 84%). Participants from all four universities also moderately agreed with the item, "African-Americans would be most interested in studying a foreign language if it is taught from an Afro-centric perspective (Table 57)" (55%, 49%, 51%, and 56%). Interestingly, participants from all four universities held a substantial neutral position on the item (24%, 27%, 33%, and 32%).

There was an even divide regarding the question "African-Americans only take foreign languages to fulfill the language requirement (Table 58)" with regard to agreement (34%, 26%, 36%, and 29%), and disagreement (33%, 44%, 30%, and 44%). There were also a substantial number of neutral responses (33%, 30%, 34%, and 27%).

Concerning the item, “African-Americans know that learning a foreign language will benefit them in the long run (Table 59),” many participants strongly agreed with the item (66%, 71%, 74%, and 70%); but a number of participants also held a neutral position (30%, 22%, 16%, and 23%). Furthermore, participants from all four universities agreed with the item, “African-Americans who excel at learning a foreign language have a special innate ability (Table 60)” (55%, 55%, 62%, and 53%).

The findings regarding the category of African-American expectations indicated that participants from both PWIs and HBCUs share moderate to strong agreement on various beliefs about language learning, with the exception of one item concerning learning a foreign language in order to fulfill a language requirement.

Table 56: African-Americans are good at foreign languages.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	1	8	9	48	34	4.1	.92
Florida A&M	0	6	9	55	30	4.2	.82
UT-Austin	1	3	11	50	35	4.1	.81
OSU	1	4	12	48	36	4.2	.83

Table 57: African-Americans would be most interested in studying a foreign language if it is taught from a more Afro-centric perspective.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	5	17	24	42	12	3.0	1.2
Florida A&M	3	20	27	34	15	2.9	1.1
UT-Austin	1	15	33	33	18	3.1	1.1
OSU	2	19	32	32	14	2.8	1.1

Table 58: African-Americans only take foreign languages solely to fulfill the language requirement.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	13	22	35	19	11	2.6	1.1
Florida A&M	16	28	30	22	5	2.7	1.1
UT-Austin	6	31	29	24	10	2.5	1.0
OSU	14	30	27	25	5	2.6	1.0

Table 59: African-Americans know that learning a foreign language will benefit them in the long run.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	2	30	23	43	3.3	.73
Florida A&M	4	4	22	57	14	3.3	.77
UT-Austin	2	7	17	58	16	3.4	.69
OSU	5	3	23	44	26	3.2	.78

Table 60: African-Americans who excel at learning a foreign language have a special innate ability.

University	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	M	SD
Howard Univ.	3	11	30	36	20	3.6	1.0
Florida A&M	5	9	30	38	18	3.5	1.0
UT-Austin	3	7	27	42	21	3.7	.98
OSU	5	7	35	38	15	3.7	1.0

4.5.2. Comparison with Previous Studies Using the BALLI

The African-American college students' BALLI responses were compared with responses from prior studies to respond to address the question, "How African-American

College students' beliefs about language learning compare with other language learning groups?"

The responses of all of the African-American college students were compared with other American students of foreign languages, as well as with English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) students. The studies will be presented and compared in the following order: Horwitz (1987) with international ESL students in the United States; Horwitz (1988) with American foreign language students learning German, French, and Spanish; Yang (1992) with Taiwanese EFL students; Park (1995) and Truitt (1995), both with Korean EFL students; Oh (1996) with American students learning Japanese; Kern (1995) with American students of foreign language; Kunt (1997) with Turkish EFL students; Diab (2001) with Lebanese EFL students of French and Arabic medium backgrounds; and Gatlin (2008) with African-American students at the University of Texas at Austin.

Tables 61-64 summarized the responses of the following belief studies. The studies are coded as follows:

Horwitz (1987) – Hor87 – used one subject group of diverse backgrounds learning ESL
Horwitz (1988) – Hor88 – used three groups (German, French, and Spanish; results will be presented in this order).

Yang (1992) – Y92 – used EFL Taiwanese language learners

Park (1995) – Pa95 – used EFL Korean language learners

Truitt (1995) – Tr95 – used EFL Korean language learners

Kern (1995) – Ke95 – used pretest, posttest, and instructor responses.

Oh (1996) – Oh96 – used American students learning first and second year Japanese

Kunt (1997) – Ku97 – used two student groups learning English at two universities.

Diab (2001) – Di01 – used students from three universities learning English from different language background mediums.

Gatlin (2008) – Ga08 – used African-American students learning a foreign language at one university

Gatlin (2013) – Ga13 – used African-American students learning a foreign language at 4 schools of two different campus environments

The comparisons will be presented according to four of the five major belief areas designated by Horwitz (1988): 1) Difficulty of Language Learning; 2) Foreign Language Aptitude; 3) Nature of Language Learning; and 4) Learning and Communication Strategies. Because the BALLI was modified for the current study, the belief area “Motivations and Expectations” was excluded. In addition, the question “In the U.S., there is a lot of emphasis placed on foreign language learning” has been excluded from the analysis, as there was no similar question used in any of the prior studies. The belief section titled “African-American Learning Expectations” has also been excluded from the analysis, as the questions were designed solely for American-American participants in this study.

Table 61: Comparison of BALLI Results from Previous Studies: Modal Percentage Response in Agreement - Difficulty of Language Learning

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	G a 13
3. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent	90	40 52 58	97	50 54 17	89	81	71 90	78 80	84	76	78
12. It is important to hear the language in order to speak it properly.	--	54 54 52	58n	70 65 54	73	59	48 73	67 74	--	47	91

Table 61 (cont'd):

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	G a 13
14. It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language	--	60d 64d 63d	42	64d 59d 83d	--	--	53 59	47d 49d	46	81	55
18. It is easier to read or write in the foreign language than to speak or understand it.	--	39 71 63	56	50 58 50	--	60	38 50	52 53	47d	53	55
26. Some languages are easier to learn than other.	75	88 86 86	67	90 92 67	68	63	68 71	89 87	95	51n	51

Table 61 (cont'd):

33. If someone spent one hour per day learning a foreign language, how long will it take him/her to become orally proficient? 1. Less than 1yr; 2. 1-2 years; 3. 2-5 years; 4. 5-10 years; 5. It depends on the language and on the person.	31*	35** 38** 37**	39**	37* 41* 34*	--	44*	50* 43*	56** 59**	47**	57#	47#
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N – Neutral. D – Disagreed. All other responses indicate the students' agreement.

* - indicates response 3 for question 33

** - indicates response 2 for question 33

- indicates response 5 for question 33.

Table 62: Comparison of BALLI Results from Previous Studies: Modal Percentage Response in Agreement - Foreign Language Aptitude

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	84	88 83	83	79 82 67	--	78	92 96	89 93	90	86	90

Table 62 (cont'd):

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
2. Some people are born with a special ability, which helps them to learn a foreign language .	81	52 46 51	86	53 53 59d	50	60	66 85	47 48	75	45d	45
6. It is easier for someone who already a foreign language to learn another one.	--	80 75 64	54	61 69 75	--	70	48 59	58 68	53	40	46
13. Women learn a foreign language better than men.	19	49d 50d	36d	51d 49d 84d	42d	56d	41n 41n	66d 65d	45	82	48n
19/20. People who are good in Math and Science are not good in foreign language s	--	58d 57d 57d	75d	66 62 75	62d	72d	60 51d	62d 60d	75d	42d	60

Table 62 (cont'd):

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
23. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligen t.	--	50n 41n	56d	55n 50n 50n	49	42	47n 45n	58d 54d	--	74d	49
25. Anyone can learn a foreign language .	85	72 73 73	78	80 85 100	--	58	83 78	83 85	75	54	87

N – Neutral. D – Disagreed. All other responses indicate the students' agreement.

Table 63: Comparison of BALLI Results from Previous Studies: Modal Percentage Response in Agreement - Nature of Language Learning

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
4. It is importa nt to know the culture in order to speak the language .	--	38n 43 45	54	38 40 25	94	85	74 71	47d 45d	49d	45	56
7. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.	94	77 66	90	78 84 91	92	90	74 82	89 92	87	75	71

Table 63 (cont'd):

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
9. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabular y.	50	45d 49d 49d	55	60d 88d 92d	62	42	42 55	76 79	62	36n	39n
15. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.	69	76 79 86	66	76 82 59	--	68	82 87	72 75	62	86	70
16. Learning another language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of Grammar rules.	50	40 41 29d	45d	50d 40d 83d	61d	81d	36n 44	72 80	64	66d	55
17. Learning another language is a matter of translatin g from English	63d	70 65d 75	39	76d 77d 100 d	38	62d	64 71	45 57	64	66d	57d

Table 64: Comparison of BALLI Results from Previous Studies: Modal Percentage Response in Agreement - Learning and Communication Strategies

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
5. You should not say anything in the foreign language unless you say it correctly .	38	83 73 77	92	88d 87d 100 d	90d	93d	69d 75d	83d 81d	84d	76d	36
8. It is okay to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language .	65	43 38 62	85	68 71 75	76	73	56 73	72 58	72	55	38
10. It's important to practice a lot in order to become proficient.	95	98 98 98	88	96 95 100	--	94	97 96	96 98	78	75	95

Table 64 (cont'd):

Question	Hor8 7	Hor8 8	Y9 2	Ke9 5	Pa9 5	Tr9 5	Oh9 6	Ku9 7	Di0 1	Ga0 8	Ga1 3
11. If you are allowed to get away with mistakes at the early stages, it will be hard to get rid of them later.	28	48 57 55	80	33 42 25	--	62d	53 39	43 53	52d	53d	77

N – Neutral. D – Disagreed. All other responses indicate the students' agreement.

4.5.2.1. Difficulty of Language Learning

With regard to the beliefs about the difficulty of language learning (Table 61), all groups shared a wide range of consensus (ranging from 40-97%) that it is important to speak with an excellent accent in the target language (item 3). While it is apparent that when learning a second/foreign language that one cannot achieve native proficiency, it is very possible that one can attain near native like proficiency (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Birdsong, 1992; Birdsong, 2006). While all other language learner groups supported the belief that some languages are easier to learn than others (item 26) (ranging from 63-95%), only 51% of the participants in the current study supported this idea. It seems that African-American language learners are not entirely convinced on the degree of difficulty for any type of foreign language acquisition.

There was also divided agreement for the item that it is easier to speak than understand a foreign language (item 14). The current study found 55% of participants who supported this belief, which is in range with prior studies (ranging from 42-81%). The majority of participants in Diab (2001), Kern (1995), and Kunt's (1997) studies, however, disagreed with this statement. However, when asked if it were easier to read and write in a foreign language than to speak and understand it (item 18), all groups agreed (ranging from 39-71%), except Diab (2001).

Moreover, there is a clear consensus across all groups that it is important to hear the language in order to speak it properly (item 12). The current study, however, has a much stronger support for this belief at 91% than of the other studies, ranging from 47-73%.

Finally, with regard to how long it should take one to become proficient in a foreign language if they spend one hour a day studying (item 33), many of the language learner groups noted that there is a definite period of time to become orally proficient. For example, under the conditions aforementioned, participants from Horwitz (1988), Yang (1992), Kunt (1997), and Diab's (2001) studies noted that it should take 1-2 years (ranging from 38-59%); whereas, Horwitz (1988), Kern (1995), Truitt (1995), and Oh (1996) noted that it should take 3-5 years (ranging from 31 to 50%).

In both the Gatlin (2008) and the current study, African-Americans—both at PWI and HBCUs) agreed that it depends on the language and the individual (55 and 47%, respectively). It appears that as compared with other participants in prior studies, African-American language learners acknowledge that becoming orally proficient in a language is possible; yet, there are other possible factors (e.g., language choice, internal and external

factors concerning the individual, etc.) that should be taken into consideration when desiring fluency.

4.5.2.2. Foreign Language Aptitude

In the area of foreign language aptitude (Table 62), there were several similarities in beliefs in the current study and prior studies. For example, across all eleven studies, participants in each of the language learning groups strongly believed that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language better than adults (item 1) (ranging from 67-96%), as well as that anyone can learn a foreign language (item 25) (ranging from 58-100%). Moreover, all language learner groups believed that it is easier for someone to learn a second language if they have prior knowledge of another one (item 6) (ranging from 40-80%).

Interestingly, the majority of all learner groups disagreed with the belief that people who are good at both Math and Science are not good at learning a foreign language (items 19 and 20) (ranging from 47-72%). Kern (1995) and Oh's (1996) US participants were the exception to this belief, as their participants moderately agreed with this belief, ranging from 60-75%. Furthermore, most participants supported the belief that some people are born with a special ability that helps them to learn a foreign language (item 2) (ranging from 45-80%). Kern (1995) and Gatlin's (2008) participants both disagreed with this statement, at 59 and 45%, respectively.

Language learner groups across all eleven studies were divided in agreement over the question concerning gender and aptitude of language learning (item 13). While a majority of Horwitz's (1987), Diab's (2001), and Gatlin's (2008) participants were in support of women being better language learners than men (Horwitz found weak support

at 19%, the other two group at 45 and 82%, respectively), the other language learner groups showed a substantial range of disagreement with the statement (ranging from 36-82%). The current study, along with the beginning Japanese language learners in Oh's (1996) study were neutral on the belief, at 41 and 48%, respectively.

Finally, with regard to the question that people who speak more than one language are intelligent (item 23), the responses were split across all groups. The current study, along with Park (1995 and Truitt (1995) showed moderate agreement with the statement (ranging from 42-49%). On the other hand, Kunt (1997) and Gatlin (2008) disagreed with the statement (ranging from 58-74%). Horwitz (1988), Yang (1992), Kern (1995), and Oh (1996) remained neutral on the position (ranging from 41-55%).

4.5.2.3. Nature of Language Learning

There were several interesting differences in beliefs about the nature of language learning (Table 63) across the eleven language learner groups. For example, all language learner groups strongly agreed that it is best to language a foreign language in the country where it is spoken (item 7) (ranging from 71% to 94%). In addition, with regard to knowing the culture of the target language before learning how to speak it (item 4), most language learner groups agreed with the statement (ranging from 38-94%). Participants from Kunt (1997) and Diab's (2001) studies, on the other hand, disagreed with the statement (ranging from 45-49%).

Moreover, all language learner groups showed moderate to strong agreement that learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects (item 15) (ranging from 59-82%). Interestingly, concerning the specific aspects of learning a foreign language, the differences in beliefs were quite noticeable. For example, of the eleven

language learner groups studied, when asked about the importance of vocabulary in language learning (item 9), only the current study, Horwitz (1988), and Kern's (1995) participants disagreed with the statement (ranging from 39% to 92%). Gatlin's (2008) participants were neutral on this belief (36%). The other studies agreed with the statement. Perhaps there might be some cultural and educational differences among the groups, as the language learner groups outside of the United States tend to value the importance of vocabulary in learning English and other foreign languages.

Concerning the importance of grammar (item 16), there was an even split on the belief. Horwitz (1987, 1988), Oh (1996), Kunt (1997), Diab (2001), and the present study agreed that grammar is a pivotal part of language learning (ranging from 40 to 80%). The other language learner groups disagreed with the statement (ranging from 29 to 83%). It is conceivable that the classroom and educational goals might determine one's approach to learning a foreign language, whether the emphasis is on grammar or not.

Also, when asked about the importance of translation (item 17), a substantial number of participants—specifically, Horwitz (1987, 1988), Kern (1995), Truitt (1995), Gatlin (2008), and the current study—all shared moderate to strong disagreement (ranging from 57-100%). With the exception of Truitt (1995), all of these studies involve language learners learning in the United States, which might explain why there was disagreement with the statement. Perhaps with the Truitt (1995) study, the expectations and methodologies that Korean EFL learners employed were similar to those of the United States studies, thus indicating such findings.

In sum, as it relates to the specifics of learning a foreign language, it appears that based on one's language learning environment, the more traditional approaches to

learning a specific aspect of a foreign language do in fact vary from group. Yang (1992), Park (1995), Truitt (1995), and Gatlin (2008) believe that it is not both solely grammar and translation that are the most important aspects of learning a foreign language, despite the dominance of the grammar-translation method used in many settings across the world.

4.5.2.4. Learning and Communication Strategies

Concerning the beliefs about learning and communication strategies (Table 64), there were similarities as well as a few notable differences across the studies. For example, participants across all language learner groups showed moderate to strong agreement that it is okay to guess in a foreign language (item 8) ranging from 45-85%, as well as that it is important to practice in order to become proficient in a foreign language (item 10) ranging from 75-100%.

On the other hand, there were some differences in beliefs on whether one should not say anything in the foreign language until it is corrected (item 5). In both of Horwitz's studies and Yang's (1992) study, many participants agreed with the statement, whereas the majority of participants from the other studies strongly disagreed with the statement (ranging from 69-100%). In addition, there was divided agreement on the belief that if a language learner is allowed to make mistakes in early development stages, then it will be difficult to get rid of them later (item 11). The majority of the studies, including the current study, agreed with the statement (ranging from 28 to 80%). Gatlin (2008), Diab (2001), and Truitt's (1995) studies, however, disagreed with the statement (ranging from 52-62%).

4.6. OPEN-ENDED FREE-RESPONSE QUESTIONS

4.6.1. Open-Ended Question 1: Foreign Language Difficulty

At the end of the BALLI questionnaire, questions 31 and 32 asked participants to list one foreign language that they thought was an easy language to learn, as well as a difficult one. Table 65 presents the top three foreign languages in order of frequency.

Table 65: Give an example of one foreign language that is easy to learn.

University	First Easiest Language to Learn	Second Easiest Language to Learn	Third Easiest Language to Learn
Howard Univ.	Spanish	French	German
UT-Austin	Spanish	German	French
Ohio State Univ.	Spanish	German	Swahili
Florida A&M Univ.	French	Spanish	German

With regard to which language participants viewed as an easy one to learn, participants ranked the following three foreign languages the easiest to learn (Table 67). Spanish was regarded as the easiest language to learn by participants at three universities; however, participants at Florida A&M University listed French as the easiest foreign language to learn. Participants from all four universities also listed German, French, and Spanish as easy languages to learn. Interestingly, participants from The Ohio State University listed Swahili as the third easiest language to learn, followed by Spanish and German.

Concerning the question related to what languages were most difficult to learn, Table 66 lists the top three foreign languages. African-American participants perceived Asian languages specifically Chinese, as the most difficult language to learn, followed by Japanese. Arabic was also ranked high across the four universities as the third most difficult language to learn. Participants at the University of Texas at Austin and The Ohio State University also listed French as a difficult language to learn. Participants from Florida A&M University also listed Russian as a highly difficult language to learn.

Table 66: Give an example of one foreign language that is difficult to learn.

University	First Difficult Language to Learn	Second Difficult Language to Learn	Third Difficult Language to Learn
Howard Univ.	Chinese	Japanese	Arabic
UT-Austin	Chinese	Japanese	Arabic French
Ohio State Univ.	Japanese	Chinese	French* ¹⁴ Arabic
Florida A&M Univ.	Chinese	Japanese	Russian* Arabic

4.6.2. Open-Ended Questions about Learner Beliefs

Open-Ended Question 2: Do you have any other beliefs about the nature of learning a foreign language?

Participants had the opportunity to answer two open-ended free response questions about their beliefs about language learning. The first question was, “**Do you have any other beliefs about the nature of learning a foreign language?**” to address any beliefs concerning the overall nature of foreign language learning. The responses were diverse across the four universities. The most important themes that emerged were the following: the importance of practicing a foreign language, the importance of

¹⁴ * - indicates the results were tied.

communicating in a foreign language, the rationale behind taking a specific language, access to instructors and instruction, and some personal perspectives on learning a language.

Concerning the theme “importance of practicing a foreign language,” many participants across the four universities noted that *“practice makes perfect in learning a language,”* as well as other statements like *“the more practice you put into a language, the more you get out of it”* and *“learning a foreign language requires a lot of hard work; the more you try, the better you will become with speaking and learning the language, it takes a lot of hard work and dedication.”* A junior male participant from Howard University noted, *“learning a foreign language is important; it is not difficult but it does require a lot of time, maybe more than what some people are willing to give up.”*

With regard to the theme, “the importance of communicating in a foreign language,” many participants noted that *“it is better to become immersed in the language and culture because it helps.”* Other responses that were repeated were, *“children should learn foreign languages early because their brains are still developing and they are at a critical language-learning stage,”* as well as *“it is beneficial to be bilingual/multilingual, but that is easier said than done.”* A senior female participant from The University of Texas at Austin noted *“if you have a community that supports you practicing the language, then it becomes easier and the community values it as important for uplifting purposes.”* A sophomore female participant from The Ohio State University noted, *“It takes cultural and well-rounded knowledge (aside from book smarts) to excel at learning a foreign language.”*

The theme “rationale behind learning a specific foreign language” highlighted many of the participants and their own personal reasons for learning a foreign language. Many participants pursued a foreign language for extrinsic motivational perspectives, as “it helps [you] in your professional career.” A sophomore male at The Ohio State noted that his rationale for wanting to learn Spanish was, *“to be able to communicate with my entire crew at the workplace.”* A female sophomore participant from The University of Texas at Austin noted *“learning a foreign language should not be a requirement to take in college; it should be a personal choice.”*

Participants noted that they took more Western languages over other languages because “the roots in Latin make it easier to learn.” Also, a senior female participant at The Ohio State University noted,

Romance languages are generally easier for westerners to grasp because they are very similar and the writing system is the same and the sounds are similar, but the grammar is complicated. Languages that have different characters or different sounds than a person is used to are more difficult to learn. Chinese may be more difficult for many American's because of their character system and the tonal nature of their speech, however some [A]mericans may excel at Chinese and [flo]under in the romance languages.

The theme of “access to instructors and instruction” stood out across all four universities as many students commented on their accessibility to their instructors and the teaching styles they prefer. A sophomore male participant from Florida A&M University noted *“teachers must be more accessible when it comes to practicing outside of the classroom.”* A freshman female participant from Howard University noted, *“there should be more access to the Arabic professor for help.”* In addition, most participants commented that instruction should not solely focus on grammar and translation. A male

junior participant from Florida A&M University noted, *“While grammar is important to understand a foreign language, other aspects should be given priority, such as culture.”*

Many participants across the four universities shared some of their own personal stories for learning a foreign language. A junior female participant from The University of Texas at Austin noted *“Spanish is easy because you can practice with other speakers, because there are so many in Texas.”* A freshman male participant from The Ohio State University noted, *“it wasn’t until I traveled to Spain where I really wanted to learn the language and about the culture for myself; I am glad I made the decision to go.”* A senior female participant from the University of Texas at Austin spoke of her experience learning Italian. She commented: *“Many students in my UT Italian class were very advanced in the language and I quickly fell behind. However when I took it at Austin Community College we were all on the same basic level and I learned a lot more and was a lot more comfortable.”*

Open-Ended Free Response Question 3: “Is there anything else you would like to address in regard to studying a foreign language in general? Specifically, being an African-American studying a foreign language?”

The third open-ended free response question was placed at the end of the survey instrument to give participants one final chance to give a more in-depth perspective of their own experiences as it related to foreign language acquisition. The third question asked, **“Is there anything else you would like to address in regard to studying a foreign language in general? Specifically, being an African-American studying a foreign language?”** The responses were similar to the first open-ended question inasmuch as they were diverse. The following four major themes emerged: “personal versus professional benefits of foreign language learning; breaking the stereotype in the

foreign language classroom; being black means standing out; and foreign language learning reflections.

With regard to the theme “personal versus professional benefits of foreign language learning,” many participants commented on how important it is for African-Americans to learn a foreign language, whether it is for professional gain or for their own personal and intimate reasons. A freshman female from Florida A&M University noted, *“I think it is important for me to study a different language because it will make me look better in the corporate world, especially being black and a female.”* In addition, a sophomore female from The Ohio State University noted, *“I feel that it is a powerful thing to be African American and be bilingual. I feel that it can lead to great opportunities in my future.”* On the other hand, students also spoke of other benefits that come from learning a foreign language. A female sophomore from the University of Texas at Austin responded, *“As a voice student, foreign languages are a very common study for me and I quite enjoy learning them.”* Also, a junior male from The Ohio State University spoke of his perspective replying, *“It would be fun to study and learn a foreign language at OSU; but there's so much required in just maintaining what's required to graduate one must stay on track by just meeting those requirements.”* A sophomore female from Howard University noted, *“I think that having an engaging professor that helped me understand foreign languages easily and encourage me tremendously to continue to work hard and it allowed me to pursue my passion in learning [Spanish].”*

The theme “being black means standing out” centers on the participants’ experiences being in a foreign language classroom and how they stood out by being the

only African-American. This theme in particular generated a lot of response, especially from the African-American participants at PWIs. In addition, participants also commented on the extent to which being African-American matters in a foreign language classroom. A junior female participant from The University of Texas at Austin noted, *“As an African American female, I do stand out in many of my French classes as the only African-American. However, I feel like we should not be afraid of taking a foreign language but to embrace it and challenge ourselves.”* A junior male participant from the University of Texas at Austin also replied, *“I have been the only African-American in my Spanish class for three semesters, have made B's, and I have not been discouraged since.”* Participants from The Ohio State University shared their sentiments regarding being one of the only African-Americans in their foreign language classrooms; yet, they expressed their dismay for the lack of African-Americans in the classroom, and how they wished there were others in the classroom with them as they studied the foreign language. A freshman male stated, *“Not enough of us [African-Americans] do it. I've never had a Russian class with another African American. It's saddening.”* A sophomore male participant from The Ohio State University also commented, *“I have always been the only African American in my Italian classes. I wish that wasn't the case.”* African-Americans who attended HBCUs provided their perspectives on being black in the foreign language classroom, and their personal anxieties when speaking around others who look like themselves. A senior female participant from FAMU stated, *“I'm not so much afraid of messing up the language because that is inevitable but I am afraid of my peers reactions, and the majority of them are black!”* Interestingly, a female junior

participant from Howard University gave her perspective on being black in her classes prior to attending the University. She noted:

Before coming to Howard, I took Spanish originally in Florida surrounded by white and Hispanic students. I had a lot of confidence issues with speaking it then. Being in a classroom with classmates and a professor surprisingly who look like me has pushed me to get better. In my opinion, I am much better now.

There also were participants who did not think it made a difference to the progress in being African-American in the foreign language classroom. Participants wondered to what extent does learning a foreign language matter. Several participants from all four universities cited how they did not see how being black in a foreign language classroom even mattered. A male junior participant from Howard University noted, *“I do not believe African Americans are any better or worse than any other race in regard to learning a language.”* A sophomore male participant from the University of Texas at Austin noted:

I don't think there is much difference between learning as an African-American and learning as any other race. However, I do feel most black children have a slight advantage because it is very common for black families to grow up with other minority families.

The theme, “Breaking Stereotypes in the Classroom” also emerged as a common and popular theme among participants across all four universities. A number of participants commented on how they are perceived in the classroom. A female senior participant from the University of Texas at Austin noted, *“It's hard and weird because I'm usually the only African American person in my classes, so I feel all this added pressure to do really well.”* A female sophomore participant from The Ohio State University commented, *“I just feel awkward. I feel like people already expect me to make mistakes. I feel like I'm the only one who's making mistakes. I feel like others aren't as*

transparent as I am.” A freshman male participant also from The Ohio State University commented, *“When I am the only (or one of few) African-American students in a foreign language course, I feel that I have to try a lot harder than they do.”* Participants from HBCU campuses also commented on breaking stereotypes in the foreign language classroom, despite being in a classroom full of their peers who are African-American . A male sophomore participant from Howard University noted, *“I’m not so much afraid of messing up the language because that is inevitable; but I am afraid of my peers reactions, and if it is unacceptable, then I will feel like a failure.”* A female freshman participant from Howard University also commented, *“I don’t believe that the requirement to learn a foreign language should be allowed. Being an African-American does inspire me to want to break the mold and show others that blacks can be bilingual as well.”*

The theme “Foreign Language Learning Reflections” captures many participants’ reflections on learning a foreign language, specifically their ideas about when they “should have” begun learning a foreign language. Many participants from all four universities commented on how they wish they had begun learning a foreign language at an early age, as early as elementary school. In addition, many participants noted that by learning a foreign language at such an early age, they would have been better prepared for learning a foreign language at more advanced levels. A male senior participant from Florida A&M University commented, *“I think that it is important that we take advantage of learning a foreign language in school at a early age because the world is becoming global.”* A female junior participant from Howard University also noted:

I think that learning a foreign language is so hard because in America, emphasis is not heavily placed on learning a foreign language until High School and sometimes, even College. That is too late. I had to take French I twice as well as French II twice. I would have loved to learn a new language. America needs to

start teaching foreign language in elementary school or middle school at the absolute latest. Once I get to college or high school I could care less. I am just trying to graduate!

A junior male participant from The University of Texas at Austin commented, “*I personally think studying a foreign language is a fantastic thing and that American school systems should start children sooner. I think more effort should be made in encouraging African American students to learn another language, too.*”

4.7 SUMMARY OF BELIEFS FINDINGS

The findings on the Beliefs About Language Learning with African-American college students indicated that there were few differences in the beliefs in regard to different college campus environments. When compared to other language groups, as a whole, the African-American foreign language learners in this study showed many differences in foreign language learning from making mistakes early in language learning, to which aspects of foreign language learning—those being grammar and translation—are the most effective in one’s development.

Moreover, the findings also provided some perspective on the degree of difficulty in learning a foreign language, as many African-Americans across all four universities viewed Spanish as an easy foreign language to learn, and Asian languages, such as Chinese and Japanese as difficult to learn. The open-ended questions also validated several of the students’ beliefs about language learning, as the themes covered their personal perspectives of foreign language, with views ranging from stereotyping in the foreign language classroom to early exposure to foreign language acquisition. The perspectives varied on multiple levels inasmuch as it confirmed the idea that African-Americans have a wide array of differences in beliefs about language learning, regardless

of where they attend college, that illustrated the diversity in each person's thought processes and production as it relates to foreign language learning.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter will first summarize the findings of the study and then discuss the results organized by research question.

5.1. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences in beliefs, motivation, and anxiety levels among African-American college students that attend both Predominantly White Institutions (PWI) and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). This study also investigated the extent to which there was a relationship between motivation and anxiety in these student groups. Finally, the study looked at the beliefs and anxiety levels of African-American college students and compared them to previously studied language learner groups.

Participants were undergraduates at the four universities when they completed the surveys over the course of the 2011-2012 academic school year. Participants were from two Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs): Florida A&M University (Tallahassee, FL), and Howard University (Washington, DC) and two Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs): The Ohio State University (Columbus, OH), and The University of Texas at Austin (Austin, TX). 571 students completed the survey instruments, with 318 participants from HBCUs and 253 from PWIs. Participants' motivation levels were measured using a modified version of the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) (Vallerand et al., 1992). The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1986) was used to assess the participants' beliefs about language learning. In addition, students' anxiety levels were determined by using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986). Participants also

answered three open-ended questions. The major findings to each research question will be discussed below.

5.2. RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT TYPES OF MOTIVATION ARE PRESENT IN AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS AT HBCUs AND PWIs?

The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) was modified to include questions that directly addressed African-Americans and their motivations for learning a foreign language. Consequently, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to identify the underlying factors of the new scale. The EFA on the modified scale yielded three factors: (1) long-term intrinsic: discovery and satisfaction (LTIDS); (2) short-term extrinsic: performance-driven (STEPD); and (3) short-term extrinsic: minimal investment (STEMI).

Findings indicated that there was not much difference between the groups of students attending PWIs and HBCUs regarding motivation, as their levels were moderate to high across all three factors. Concerning Factor 1, African-American participants who attended PWIs had higher mean scores than those who attended HBCUs. For Factor 2, HBCU participants, had higher mean scores than African-Americans who attended PWIs. Interestingly, Factor 3, African-American students at HBCUs had lower but significant mean scores than African-American college students who attended PWIs.

An ANOVA was conducted to determine any significant differences in motivation as it related to college campus environment as a whole. The analysis indicated that there were only significant differences in motivation levels for Factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment). Further inquiry required an ANOVA across the four universities to determine if there were significant differences between the four universities. Findings

confirmed that there were significant differences in motivation levels, with respect to factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment). Factor 1 (LTIDS) showed no significance across the four universities [$F(3, 570) = .051, p = .99$]; yet, Factor 2 (STEPD) is approaching significance [$F(3, 570) = 2.202, p = .08$]. Factor 3 (STEMI) was significant [$F(3, 570) = 6.67, p < .001$].

A Bonferroni post-hoc analysis further indicated that there was a significant difference between Howard University ($p < .001$) and The Ohio State University ($p < .003$), thus confirming that African-American college students who attended Howard University have lower motivation than those who attended either The University of Texas at Austin or The Ohio State University under a fixed and short time period.

Concerning gender, African-American female participants from all four universities displayed higher motivation levels across the three factors. Interestingly, upon examining the motivation levels across campus environment and gender, findings indicated that African-American men who attended HBCUs displayed higher motivation levels across all three factors than men who attended PWIs. With regard to women, African-American participants who attended PWIs had higher motivation levels with respect to two of the three factors than those who attended HBCUs; African-American women who attended HBCUs had significantly lower levels of motivation across one factor than those attended PWIs. The analysis showed that African-American women had **higher long-term intrinsic and long-term extrinsic** motivation levels than those who attended an HBCU. African-American women who attended HBCUs had lower **short-term extrinsic** motivation levels in factor 3 than those who attended PWIs.

5.2.1. Summary: Motivation

This study did not find significant differences in overall motivation levels in African-American college students at HBCUs and PWIs. However, there were significant differences in extrinsic motivation as participants from HBCUs had lower extrinsic motivation levels than those who attend a PWI, when it required a minimal investment on learning. In other words, when the language learning experiences was only for a fixed period of time, perhaps African-American college students were motivated the most to learn a foreign language.

Concerning gender, it was not anticipated that there would be difference in motivation. However, descriptive statistics found overall higher motivation mean scores for African-American women than men. Interestingly, African-American men who attended HBCUs had higher mean scores across for all of the three motivation factors than men who attended a PWI. African-American women, on the other hand, showed contrasting results. African-American women who attended a PWI had higher mean scores in motivation than those who attended an HBCU as it pertained to long-term intrinsic motivation as well as extrinsic motivation when they are driven by their performance. Conversely, African-American women who attended an HBCU had higher means than those who attended a PWI when their extrinsic motivation levels were more short-term. Nonetheless, overall, African-American women were more motivated in the foreign language classroom than African-American men. Thus, it appears that where an individual attends college might have some effect on how they learn a foreign language.

The overall motivation means indicated that African-American college students are motivated to learn a foreign language; however, the level of motivation depended on

the type of motivation. Importantly, the findings showed moderate levels of the three types of motivation for African-American males, regardless of the type of campus environment. These findings might suggest that there should be a shift in the perceptions of African-American males, which label them as lazy and have unwillingness to work (Park & Park, 1991). Moreover, the overall findings indicate that African-American men might be more engaged in the foreign language learning process; yet, African-American women might have an advantage over African-American males as it relates to motivation, as they have closed the “engagement odds and social passivity” gap of years past [Fleming (1984); Harper (2004)].

5.3. RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: WHAT ARE THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY LEVELS OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS AT HBCUs AND PWIs?

The findings from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale showed that the overall mean for African-American college students, regardless of campus environment, was 103.9, indicated slightly higher than typical levels of foreign language anxiety. Moreover, upon examining the means across campus environments, the means were close, but still slightly higher than typical levels of anxiety. The mean for HBCU students was 105, whereas the mean for PWI students was 103.

Findings also indicated that African-American men at Howard University and Florida A&M University had lower foreign language anxiety levels than African-American men at both The Ohio State University and The University of Texas at Austin. African-American women showed similar findings, as African-American women from both Howard University and Florida A&M University had lower foreign language anxiety means than those who attended The University of Texas at Austin and The Ohio

State University. Also, African-American college freshman had the lowest foreign language anxiety levels, while juniors had the highest of all academic levels. It may be that juniors are either taking more advanced language classes or that they are waiting until the end of their undergraduate career to fulfill the foreign language requirement.

Similar to the motivation findings, there were no significant differences in the anxiety means for participants at both campus environments. However, after conducting an ANOVA across all four universities, the analysis indicated that there were some significant differences in anxiety levels [$F(3, 570) = 3.18, p < .02$]. The post hoc analysis found a significant difference in anxiety levels between Howard University and The University of Texas at Austin ($p < .02$), as students who attended Howard University had significantly lower levels of anxiety ($m = 99.6$) than those who attended the University of Texas at Austin ($m = 105.2$). Therefore, in at least one case, foreign language anxiety levels for African-American students who attended an HBCU were lower than those attending a PWI.

Other background factors were also analyzed to determine if factors such as grade classification and gender were related to foreign language anxiety. The analysis indicated that African-American college freshmen across all four universities had significantly lower levels of foreign language anxiety than African-American juniors. There were no major differences in foreign language anxiety levels for males and females. It appears that African-American college students across gender and across learning environment have greater levels of foreign language anxiety after two years of undergraduate study. However, the anxiety findings showed some differences in favor of African-American students who attend a Historically Black College, specifically both African-American

men African-American women who attended an HBCU had lower anxiety levels than both either African-American men and American-American women attending a PWI.

5.3.1. Summary: Foreign Language Anxiety

Concerning foreign language anxiety, participants in the current study reported that they experience foreign language anxiety, and at a slightly higher level than that of participants in prior studies. The mean for all of the African-American college participants was 103.7. These means are slightly higher than those of Horwitz's (1986) study on American students learning Spanish ($m = 94.5$), Aida's (1992) study on American students learning Japanese ($m = 96.7$), Truitt's (1995) study of Korean EFL learners (mean = 101.2), and Tallon's (2006) study on American both heritage and non-heritage Spanish learners (mean = 86.8).

The results indicate that in general, African-American college students learning a foreign language have slightly higher levels of anxiety than some other groups of students. Moreover, when factoring in campus environment, the results then show that African-Americans at HBCUs have slightly higher anxiety levels than the participants in prior studies, including Truitt (1995), whose participants had the highest anxiety levels from prior studies, but slightly lower than African-American language learners in the present study that attended a PWI. The means indicated that while African-American students at HBCUs experience some foreign language anxiety, their levels are not high enough to cause language teachers to be overly concerned. However, the foreign anxiety levels of African-American students who attend a PWI might cause some concern from foreign language teachers.

5.4. RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND THEIR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY LEVELS?

Upon the analysis of both the AMS and FLCAS data, correlation data indicated that there was a slight positive and significant correlation between language learning motivation factor 1 (Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction) and anxiety ($r=.13$), as well as a moderate negative and significant correlation with factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment) and anxiety for African-American students who attended a PWI ($r=-.29$). African-American students who attend an HBCU, on the other hand, showed a negative and significant correlation between motivation factor 3 (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment) and anxiety ($r=-.40$).

The relationships between motivation and foreign language anxiety indicate that depending on where one attends college or university, their foreign language anxiety level will have the tendency to go up or down depending on the type of motivation. For those attending a PWI, if African-American students possess more long-term intrinsic motivation in foreign language learning, their foreign language anxiety levels may go up as well. On the other hand, for African-American college students attending a HBCU, if their short-term extrinsic motivation levels for foreign language learning tend to be high, then their foreign language anxiety levels may go down.

Regression analysis indicated that the model for determining to what extent motivation predicts one's anxiety levels was overall significant. Further analysis indicated that campus environment was not a significant predictor for anxiety; however, motivation for language learning factor 3, (Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI)) was the highest predictor of lower anxiety, followed by factor 2 (Short-Term

Extrinsic: Performance-Driven (STEPD)). Factor 1 (Long-Term Intrinsic: Discovery and Satisfaction (LTIDS)) was removed completely from the regression model. In other words, for African-American college students at both PWIs and HBCUs, when their short-term extrinsic motivation levels increase, their foreign language anxiety levels tend to decrease. Therefore, it appears that with regard to short-term extrinsic motivation factor concerning minimal investment, when this level of motivation is at its' highest, African-American college students'—regardless of where they attend university— anxiety levels should be lowered.

5.4.1. Summary: Relationship between Motivation and Foreign Language Anxiety

Despite where African-American college students attend college, their overall environment does not predict the direction of one's foreign language anxiety nor does it indicate any significance in the relationship with motivation and anxiety. However, when examining motivational factors, there existed some significant relationships in the relationship between motivation and foreign language anxiety.

Correlation data indicated that there was a positive correlation for motivation factor 1 (“There is a positive relationship between learners’ anxiety levels and their motivation pertaining to intrinsic discovery and satisfaction”) and a negative and significant correlation for motivation factor 3 (“There is a negative relationship between learners’ anxiety levels and their motivation levels with minimal investment”), both with respect to anxiety. In other words, students that attended PWIs had high levels of anxiety when their motivation pertaining to intrinsic discovery and satisfaction was also high.

Also, if their motivation levels were high as it pertained to short-term minimal investment, their anxiety levels tended to be low.

As it pertained to HBCU participants, there was only a significant negative correlation with motivation factor 3 with respect to anxiety (“There is a negative relationship between learners’ anxiety levels and their motivation levels with minimal investment”). In other words, African-American college students who attended HBCUs who had lower levels of anxiety tended to have higher levels of motivation when the motivation was more short-term and with minimal investment. Therefore, the shorter the time span for learning a foreign language, the higher their motivation would be, which would then create a situation where their level of foreign language anxiety should remain low.

The regression analysis indicated that of the motivation factors to predict the direction of anxiety, motivation factor 3, Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment (STEMI) had a significant contribution to lower levels of anxiety. In addition, participants who are motivated for the purposes of long-term reasons but are driven by their performance (e.g., performing to impress others and/or self) might also have lower levels of foreign language anxiety. However, concerning participants who attend Predominantly White Institutions, if they are motivated for other reasons pertaining to personal development and discovery, it is possible that their foreign language anxiety levels might increase as well. Campus environment, however, was not a significant predicting factor for foreign anxiety levels. Therefore, the analysis suggests that there is little to no relationship with motivation and anxiety as it pertains to campus environment. However, when examining the factors independent of campus environment, the

relationship between motivation and anxiety is contingent upon whether or not the motivation is short-term or long-term.

5.5. RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR: WHAT ARE THE BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS AT HBCUs AND PWIs?

The responses from the BALLI indicated that African-American college students—regardless of campus environment—share many similarities in their beliefs about foreign language learning. A vast majority of the participants believe that anyone can learn a foreign language and very importantly that African-Americans have the capability of learning a foreign language. However, they also believe that it is better to learn a foreign language at an early age than as an adult. They also believe that in the long run, they can benefit from learning a foreign language. African-American college students also believe that it is better to learn a foreign language in the target language country, as opposed to in a foreign language classroom. When learning a foreign language, learning strategies such as repetition and guessing are believed to be most helpful.

There was some division in terms of whether grammar, vocabulary, or translation was viewed as the most important aspect of learning a foreign language. Participants from both HBCUs strongly supported the belief that learning a foreign language was a matter of learning vocabulary, whereas, participants from both PWIs supported the belief that grammar plays a strong role into learning a foreign language. At this point it is not possible to know if different instructional approaches in the two campus environments contributed to these differing beliefs. Perhaps the curriculum at the different colleges and universities might play a role into why students believe that these language learning

factors are critical in their language learning process at their respective schools. Both groups disagreed moderately with the belief that translation plays an important role in foreign language learning.

5.5.1. Summary: Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning

In comparing the findings of the current study with the findings of prior BALLI studies, it is evident that there are a number of similarities and interesting differences in beliefs across the various learner groups.

When discussing the nature of language learning, participants from all language learner groups strongly supported the belief that it is better to learn a foreign language in the target language country. In addition, participants from all language learner groups supported the belief that learning a foreign language is different from studying other subjects. They all disagreed that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning to translate from English. On the other hand, participants from the current study were neutral about whether learning a foreign language was mostly about learning vocabulary, whereas the majority of participants from prior studies [Horwitz (1986); Yang (1992); Park (1995); Truitt (1995); Oh (1996); Kunt (1997); Diab (2001)] agreed with this idea. Furthermore, like several language learner groups, the participants from the current study supported the belief that it is essential to learn about the culture of a foreign language; participants in the Kunt (1997) and Diab (2001) studies disagreed with this belief.

In regard to foreign language aptitude, participants from the current study along with those in prior studies all strongly believed that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language than adults, but they also supported the belief that anyone can learn a

foreign language. Participants from the current study, however, were neutral on the belief that women learn a foreign language better than men, whereas findings from the prior studies (Horwitz (1988); Kern (1995; Kunt (1997)) indicated that most participants disagreed with the statement. Participants from both Diab (2001) and Gatlin (2008) studies strongly supported this belief. Moreover, concerning the question “people who speak more than one foreign language are intelligent” while the findings of many of the studies coincided with the current study, it is not surprising that studies of language learner groups outside of the United States (Yang (1992), Kunt (1997), and Diab (2001)) disagreed with the statement. Perhaps, the disagreement might be attributed to the design of the learning environment, where the educational policies mandate that students begin learning a second language as early as age 5.

Concerning the difficulty of language learning, participants from the current study strongly agreed with participants in the prior studies that it is very important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent as well as the notion that some languages are easier to learn than others. In addition, participants from the current study as well as those from prior studies also agreed on the importance of hearing the language first in order to speak it properly. Yet, in regard to the question about how long it takes for an individual to learn a foreign language, while most language learner groups gave a time block on how long it should take to become proficient in a foreign language (specifically between 3-5 years), in contrast, participants in the current study believed that proficiency in a foreign language is contingent upon what language the learner takes, as well as any other individual factors (e.g. motivation for learning, academic self-concept, personal achievement goals) that may support one’s fluency. Participants might believe that the

easier the language, the less time that it might take for one to become proficient. Conversely, if the language is perceived to be difficult, participants may believe that becoming proficient in the language is going to take some time to achieve. Moreover, other factors could range from one's motivations for wanting to learn the given language—whether they are considered extrinsic or intrinsic—as well as one's ability to navigate and manage the learning process. Also, with regard to the individual's motivation, perhaps their definition of “fluency” might in turn affect the extent to which the individual will stay motivated and pursue the language fully. This also might affect how they view the importance of learning the foreign language that they intended to pursue.

Concerning the use of learning and communication strategies, while participants in the majority of prior studies strongly disagreed with the belief that you should not say anything in the foreign language until it is said correctly, participants from the current study actually agreed with the statement alongside the other studies, specifically prior studies done with language learners in the United States (Horwitz 1988, Yang 1992). In addition, participants from the current study and prior studies strongly believed that it is okay to guess if you don't know a word in the language, as well as the notion that in order to become proficient one must practice. There was some divide, however, in agreement on the belief that if one is allowed to get away with mistakes early in acquiring a language, then it will be difficult to get rid of them later if not fixed. The current study along with the majority of prior studies strongly agreed with this statement, whereas Truitt (1995) Diab (2001), and Gatlin (2008) showed moderate disagreement with the statement. Interestingly, upon further analysis of the participants from the Gatlin (2008)

and the current study, it appears that there was a major shift in agreement from the participants at the University of Texas at Austin. Participants in the current study strongly agreed with the statement, alongside participants from the other universities. In 2008, this belief held a moderate level of disagreement. This might be attributed to the way foreign language curricula have been shaped over the last fifteen years, as more emphasis has been placed on error correction. Perhaps students are aware that in order to excel in the foreign language classroom, accuracy is a key component to becoming more proficient in a foreign language. In addition, the Gatlin (2008) study only examined African-Americans at one institution (The University of Texas at Austin); whereas, the participant sample size in the current study is more robust and includes African-Americans from various areas of the country and institutions with varying policies on foreign and second language acquisition.

5.6 OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

5.6.1. Thoughts on Being African-American and Language Learning

Perhaps the most relevant open-ended question asked participants to discuss their personal thoughts about being African-American and learning a foreign language. Participants from both campus environments emphasized the following themes: marketability in the workforce, the importance to learning a foreign language in the 21st century, how being African-American in the classroom equals standing out, how to address and combat the preconceived prejudices that may entail, and how early exposure in foreign language learning might have reshaped their personal views on language learning.

Participants from the HBCU campuses—both Howard and Florida A&M University—shared a common thread that African-Americans should learn a foreign language because they are African-American. They also noted the advantages that African-Americans would have knowing a foreign language, as they would be able to take their experience in the classroom and share it with their community, as well as how it would serve them well in the workforce after graduating from college. In addition, participants noted that African-Americans should pursue language learning for personal development and reasons of learning something new.

Participants who attended Predominantly White Institutions also commented on how in many cases they stand out in their foreign language classes, as they are one of the few, or in some cases, the only African-American student in their classroom. Some participants noted that they felt as though their performance in the classroom was already put in question based on the preconceived stereotypes about African-Americans. Some participants also noted that they felt as though their classmates viewed them as lazy, or that they felt intimidated by them because they were more advanced. On the other hand, there were some participants that welcomed the idea of being the only African-American in the classroom because it served as motivation for them to excel, as well as the idea for them to prove to their classmates, teachers, and to themselves that they were capable of being successful in learning a foreign language.

Lastly, many participants from both PWIs and HBCUs commented on the importance of learning a foreign language, and that learning a foreign language should begin early. Many participants commented on the overall benefit of learning a foreign language at an early age, as opposed to waiting until the secondary level to begin learning

a foreign language. Several participants commented that foreign language education policies needed to be implemented to where students are required to begin foreign language learning as early as the primary school level. In their support for early language learning, these African-American college students do not differ from most American language learners.

5.6.2. Languages Perceived to be more and Less Difficult

The second open-ended question was two-fold: participants at all four universities were asked to list a foreign language they perceived to be easy and difficult to learn. A vast majority of the participants commented that the Romance languages were the easiest to learn, and specifically listed Spanish and French. With respect to the languages they perceived difficult to learn, participants suggested Asian languages, such as Mandarin Chinese and Japanese, as well as Arabic. Interestingly, however, participants who were studying Arabic and Japanese at The Ohio State University and Howard University perceived both languages as difficult. In addition, students from both The University of Texas at Austin and The Ohio State University noted an interest into learning languages of the Southern Bantu region in Africa, such as Swahili and Yoruba. Several participants from The Ohio State University noted that Swahili was an easy language for them to learn. Participants from The University of Texas at Austin noted that Yoruba was difficult to learn, but different from learning other foreign languages. Perhaps these participants are taking an interest in such languages as a way to embrace a modicum of their racial and cultural identity.

5.6.3. Personal Thoughts on the Nature of Language Learning

The final open-ended question asked participants if they had any personal thoughts about the nature of learning a foreign language. Four major themes emerged from the coding analysis of these responses: the importance of practicing a foreign language, the importance of communicating in a foreign language, the rationale behind taking a specific language, and access to instructors and instruction.

Participants from both campus environments emphasized the importance of practicing a foreign language in order to improve their proficiency. Participants emphasized the idea of “practice makes perfect” as well as how learning a foreign language takes time, and the more effort and hard work that one puts into learning a foreign language, the better the end outcome as it pertains to achieving proficiency.

Concerning the importance of communication in a foreign language, participants believed that being immersed in the target language culture is the optimal method to achieve proficiency in a foreign language. Given their support for immersion, African-American language learners might want to learn Spanish at the University of Texas at Austin due to the proximity to Mexico and other Hispanic culture present or even having a foreign language learning experience at Howard University in Washington, DC, where there is a strong growing presence of Hispanic people and culture.

Furthermore, participants cited several reasons for studying a specific foreign language. Participants believed that one should have the choice to take a foreign language at the university level, citing their reasons of motivation, both integrative and instrumental. Several participants believed that learning a foreign language should be

considered an elective for graduation, whereas others were in support of having a foreign language requirement. Participants also noted that they took foreign language courses in specific languages so that they would be able to communicate with a specific target foreign language community. Also, several participants noted that they prefer to learn a Romance language more than they would an Asian or Middle Eastern language due to the Latin origins and the lower level of difficulty to fully communicate in the foreign language.

Finally, participants believed that accessibility to foreign language instructors needed to be increased outside of the classroom. Whether this is an issue specifically for African-Americans or among all undergraduate language learners remains to be determined, as it might be that all language learners—regardless of background—need more support in the language learning process.

5.7. DISCUSSION OF OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

The themes mentioned in the open-ended questions lend validation to the study in several ways. Concerning the first open-ended question about the participants' personal thoughts about the nature of learning a foreign language, it is evident that African-Americans have a wide range of beliefs about the overall nature of foreign language learning. The four emerging themes encompass the overall belief categories that stem from Horwitz's (1988) BALLI. In addition, these emerging themes also provide perspective on what motivates these participants to learn a foreign language. While some participants blatantly acknowledge that their wanting to pursue a language is solely for future job placement and other external incentives, there are those who report genuinely

desiring to learn a foreign language for personal and development reasons. Several statements given from the participants regarding their motivations for learning a foreign language are in line with the AMS analysis. Yet, those who have this high level of desire to learn a foreign language have also displayed mixed levels of anxiety as it relates to their performance. The FLCAS data indicated that African-Americans had slightly higher levels of anxiety than other language learner groups, and the analysis from the open-ended question showed that there were individuals who attributed their anxiety to having perfectionist tendencies (Gregerson & Horwitz, 2002). On the other hand, some participants had high levels of motivation and minimal to nonexistent levels of anxiety. Therefore, the type of motivation that African-Americans possess as it pertains to learning a foreign language might have an impact on whether or not their foreign language anxiety is high or low.

With regard to the second open-ended question regarding one's personal choice of language and its level of difficulty, it is clear that many African-Americans believe that some languages are easier to learn than others. Despite the fact that there are languages that they perceive difficult to learn, it also confirms that African-Americans believe themselves to be capable of learning a foreign language. It also appears that even the idea of learning a difficult foreign language might be linked to the level of motivation they have while learning the foreign language. Csizer and Dornyei (2005) noted that for one to achieve the optimal level of motivation, the learner must be able to distinguish and have balance between their ideal self—which represents the attributes one desires to possess, and is more promotion focused—and their “ought” self, which represents the attributes that one should possess, and is more prevention focused. In other words, one's second-

language motivation will be dependent upon their ability to see their “ideal self” as a successful, agreeable, and competent learner. Therefore, language learners must have an idea of their personal objectives for learning a foreign language in order to become fully motivated and invested in the process. This, in turn, would aid in the level of second-language motivation to reach the optimal level to which they aspire with respect to the language of choice.

The analysis of the third open-ended question concerning the participants’ personal views on being African-American while learning a foreign language addressed how African-Americans are faced with issues of stereotype threat and academic dis-identification in the foreign language classroom. Finn (1987) defines academic dis-identification as “the lack of a relationship between academic self-esteem and global self-esteem, with the implication that there has been a relationship in the past”. Stereotype threat, according to Steele and Aronson (1995) refers to being at risk of confirming, as a self-characteristic, a negative stereotype about one's group. Stereotype threat has been noted as a major cause of academic dis-identification in African-Americans, in addition to cool pose theory, which Majors and Billson (1992) define as “a ritualized approach that allows individual—specifically African-American males—to cope and survive in a socially oppressive environment” (Majors and Billson, p.2). Individuals project this facade of emotionlessness, fearlessness, and aloofness to counter the inner pain caused by the damaged pride and poor self-confidence that result from their existence as a member of a subjugated group (p. 4). Aronson & Steele (1995) also proposed the idea that stereotype threat causes some African-American students, as well as other minority groups, to de-value the role of academics, and therefore to dis-identify with school and to

disassociate personal success with academic achievement. One major stereotype African-Americans often experience is that they have lower intellectual abilities than other groups, particularly White Americans (Aronson & Steele, 1995; Major, Spencer, Schmader, et al., 1998; Steele, 1997). As African-Americans begin to internalize and accept the stereotype about their innate academic inabilities, they tend to dis-identify with academic engagement (Phillips, 1997; Osborne, 1997). While participants were not explicitly told that they would not be successful in learning a foreign language, some African-American language learners believed that they would not excel at language learning. As a result, some participants sought to disprove the stereotypes (Steele & Aronson, 1998) by performing at the level of their peers, or in some cases, better.

Furthermore, the analysis indicated that these students believe that foreign language learning policies should be implemented to where all students begin learning a foreign language as early as possible and are taught the benefits of learning a foreign language. Participants commented on how they felt at a disadvantage when learning foreign language with their peers during high school. Participants noted that they were not exposed to the benefits of learning a foreign language until they began their studies at the university level, and many felt as though it was too late to explore to what extent they wanted to achieve proficiency. Consistent with Moore's (2005, 2006) recommendations, it might prove profitable if foreign language instructors at the secondary level provide students with creative and innovative ways to explain the benefits of learning a foreign language to students—specifically African-Americans—in order to attract and maintain further interest in learning. African-Americans students have shown that they can successfully develop skills in foreign languages that have been categorized as some of the

most difficult to learn at an age as early as middle school once they are aware of how they can benefit from the experience (Moore & English, 1997, 1998).

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND FINAL THOUGHTS

This section will highlight overall conclusions of the study with respect to African-American language learners at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) from the areas of motivation, beliefs about language learning, anxiety, as well as the relationship of motivation and anxiety. In addition, the implications, limitations, and the future directions for research will be discussed, as well as final thoughts on the study.

6.1. MOTIVATION

As noted in Deci & Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, when individuals are extrinsically motivated, when some form of an incentive is introduced to the individual—whether positive or negative—the individual has the ability to complete the task before or after the end result, despite their true interest. With regard to foreign language acquisition, this study has examined two different levels of extrinsic motivation, and the findings indicate that when there is minimal investment in learning a foreign language, students' motivations increase because they simply want to complete the task, obtain the reward, and move forward.

Yet, to what extent is one's extrinsic motivation regulated? Deci & Ryan (2000) noted that extrinsic motivation does fall on a continuum where individuals' levels of motivation regulation range from external to integrated. The present study shows that African-American college students who attend an HBCU display a blend of both introjected and external regulation levels of behavior with respect to motivation. While participants valued and acknowledged the importance and value of learning a foreign

language, they also consider the incentives and benefits of learning a foreign language, whether short or long term.

On the other hand, when individuals are intrinsically motivated, individuals are more autonomous and perform the actions for self-satisfaction and enjoyment. With regard to this study, African-American college students who attended PWIs had higher levels of intrinsic motivation than those who attend an HBCU. This may be attributed to the notion from Cokley (2001a) study on differences in motivation in African-Americans. A regression analysis revealed that student-faculty relationships were the strongest indicator for predicting motivation and self-concept for students attending HBCUs, whereas GPAs were the strongest for African-American students at PWIs, followed by student-faculty involvement. Perhaps genuine encouragement might play an important role in the student-faculty relationship, which may in turn yield higher self-concept and motivation in individuals to produce higher levels of achievement in the classroom, despite the campus environment.

As Cokley (2003) suggests, “although there are differences in academic performance, African-Americans do not lack academic motivation” (p. 553). However, he acknowledges that African-Americans’ intrinsic motivation levels are not always linked to their self-worth and concept. He states:

For many African American students, learning for learning’s sake may be seen as a luxury that is not instrumental to doing well in school, getting a job, and making money results... They are not as interested in the often highly esoteric musings of academics [like myself]; however, they are interested in what they need to do in order to receive a good grade... However, in classes where the material is either obviously relevant or is made relevant in their lives, one begins to witness changes in their enthusiasm about school. (Cokley 2003, p. 565.)

Therefore, the findings in the present study suggest that African-Americans are motivated to learn a foreign language; however, the level and type of motivation that African-American college students possess may be contingent upon the racial composition of the campus environment, as well as how much value and expectation the individual places on the course that is being taken. Perhaps with African-Americans at HBCUs, they are motivated to learn a foreign language if they can see the value in doing such if it falls within a given period of time. Also, there is a sense of pride and community on their college campus that allows them to thrive and excel, given the resources and faculty encouragement that is constantly present. African-Americans who attend a PWI, on the other hand, might be motivated to learn a foreign language on a more personal level insofar as they want to embrace the totality of learning a foreign language. Although the number of African-Americans who attend a PWI is small in comparison to those who attend an HBCU, they are provided with a wealth of resources on their college campus, which might facilitate their motivation for learning a foreign language.

6.2. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

The findings from the present study indicate that African-American college students—regardless of where they attend college (PWI or HBCU)—displayed higher anxiety levels than those of prior language learner groups. Yet, when examining the participants from the perspective of the campus environment and its composition, it shows that African-American college students who attend Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) had lower anxiety levels than those who attend a Predominantly White Institution (PWI).

From a general perspective, this may be attributed to the overall structure and design of the classroom. The overall anxiety levels may be influenced by the institutional factors that are in play. For example, Truitt (1995) noted that the Korean participants in her study are given several opportunities to enhance their English speaking skills and become successful; hence the low anxiety levels. Aida (1994) and Horwitz (1987), on the other hand, found that anxiety was negatively related to performance in learning most Western languages, as well as Japanese. Findings from the current study would suggest that students' performance in the foreign language classroom might be similar to those of the participants in the aforementioned studies.

Yet, upon examining the findings based on the racial composition of a foreign language classroom, there typically may not be many African-American students in the classroom at a PWI, whereas, at an HBCU the classroom markup is predominantly African-American. There may exist a sense of competition in the PWI classroom to where everyone wants to learn the foreign language, and get the best grade. On the other hand, students in a foreign language classroom at an HBCU may have a relationship with not just the professor (Allen 1994, Cokley 2003) but also their peers to where the level of anxiety is at ease, and while there may exist "healthy competition" among the peers, students may have the "we are in this together" approach to learning a foreign language. Such competition might not be present at a PWI, as the classroom is more diverse, and every language learner is striving to be the best in the classroom. African-Americans may feel pressured to excel more than their white counterparts, and because of such pressure they may exhibit stereotype threat or even become dis-identified from learning, thus causing their levels of anxiety in the foreign language classroom to be raised.

6.3. BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY

This study found that African-American college students had similar beliefs both within the racially composed campus environments, as well as with other language learner groups from both the United States (Horwitz (1987, 1988); Yang (1992); Kern (1995); Gatlin (2008), and abroad (Park (1995), Truitt (1995), Oh (1996); Kunt (1997); Diab (2001)). On the other hand, there were also differences in the language learner groups that stood apart from the other groups that are worth mentioning.

In regard to the difficulty of language learning, while many of the participants from previous studies believed that speaking with a foreign accent in the target language as well as being able to hear the language properly is essential to learning the language properly, African-American college students believed that becoming proficient in a foreign language is not a task that can be learned in a given time frame unlike other language learner groups in prior studies.

Concerning foreign language aptitude, unlike other language learner groups, African-American language learners display a level of pride and confidence in their race noting that they believe themselves capable of learning a foreign language. However, African-American language learners were in line with other groups supporting the premise that individuals who begin learning a foreign language at a young age reach optimal levels of success than those who begin as a late learner. Moreover, speaking in general terms of American foreign language learners, African-American language learners disagreed with the notion that Americans as a whole were not all that capable of learning a foreign language. Perhaps this is attributable to the lack of emphasis that is

placed on the foreign language curriculum in the United States, as foreign languages tend to come secondary to other areas of learning, such as math and science.

The category Learning and Communication strategies seemed to be one of the stronger belief categories held by African-American participants across both campus environments in comparison to findings in prior studies. While most participants strongly acknowledged that practicing the foreign language is extremely important as it pertains to proficiency, as well as the supporting guessing in the foreign language, African-American college language learners disagreed with the idea that students should not speak until they can do it correctly. While this seems easy enough to do, should instructors do everything the way students want them to do it? Perhaps instructors should challenge students who have unrealistic and, to some extent, unhelpful beliefs.

Concerning the nature of language learning, while the majority of participants across all studies believed that it is better to learn a foreign language in the target language's country, there seemed to be some differences in beliefs as to which aspects of the foreign language is optimal for learning. In line with prior US studies, African-American college students disagreed that learning a foreign language was about translation, whereas translation was seen as critical in the language learning process overseas. In addition, the inverse occurred when it pertained to grammar being key to the language learning process. Perhaps instructors should host an open forum at the start of the school year with their students to discuss at length the nature about learning a foreign language, ranging from the students' personal beliefs about learning, as well as the necessary strategies one should employ that would make for an effective learning experience.

The belief category concerning African-American Beliefs provides an overarching summary of all five categories that stem from the original BALLI (Horwitz, 1988). African-Americans acknowledge that similar to other language groups, they are more than capable of learning a foreign language. In addition, they acknowledge that there are long-term benefits to learning a foreign language, yet the extent to which they are beneficial is dependent upon the individual. As seen in the analysis, while many of the participants noted that they are taking a foreign language for the sole purpose of fulfilling a requirement, there are those who genuinely want to have a deeper connection with the language and culture, hence their reasons for pursuing a foreign language. Yet, many of the participants noted that if you are an African-American and excel at the language learning process, there is that “it” factor that one has in order for them to be successful. In other words, perhaps some African-American language learners are naturally gifted at learning a foreign language; whereas, others must have a strong desire to excel at the task.

6.4 FINAL CONCLUSIONS

The question as to what extent does the racial composition of a campus environment matter for African-American collegiate students when it concerns foreign language learning. The intended results—given the literature on the differences in experiences of African-American college students and their overall experiences at both Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs)—would suggest that African-American college students who attend an HBCU would have higher levels of motivation, and lower levels of foreign

language anxiety in the classroom than those who attend a PWI. However, this was not the case in several instances.

First, the actual findings in this study indicated that where an individual attends college does not play a significant factor into their foreign language learning experience. In other words, with respect to this study, African-American college students were not very different when compared against each other and their respective campus environments. With regard to motivation, the findings showed that African-Americans who attend a Predominantly White Institution had higher means scores in two of the three motivation factors. Interestingly, the factor concerning intrinsic motivation—while not significantly different—was higher for African-Americans at PWIs than those who attend an HBCU. Second, the motivation findings also displayed that only one motivation factor was significant (Factor 3: Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment), but in a negative manner. Participants disagreed strongly with items under the factor, Short-Term Extrinsic: Minimal Investment insofar as they were only motivated to learn a foreign language under fixed and timely conditions. Moreover, this was the one factor where African-American collegiate students who attended an HBCU had significantly lower levels of motivation than those who attended a PWI. These findings are in sharp contrast with prior studies on African-Americans and their experiences in college (Allen, 1992; Watson & Kuh, 1996; Flowers & Pascarella, 1999;) as students in these studies who have attended an HBCU had better overall experiences in and out of the classroom than those who attended a PWI. This finding alone shows that PWIs are taking steps to create a learning environment where students are excited to learn and explore various topics on a deeper level than what they are on the surface, which is in contrast to studies showing

that African-Americans who attend an HBCU are offered better learning environments and support systems which have yielded more positive outcomes (Harper, 2004).

It was also not anticipated that there would be significant gender difference across motivation. However, the findings indicated that African-American women were more motivated in learning a foreign language—regardless of the type of motivation—than the African-American men. Could this be attributed to the differences in choice of major and future endeavors, as well as the differences in overall expectations and outcomes (Perry & Locke, 1985) of African-American collegiate students? It appears that the women in the study are more engaged in the foreign language classroom than their male counterparts, thus indicating a strong contrast in the differences in motivation. Harper et al. (2004) noted in their study on African-American college students at HBCUs that over the years, African-American women have become the majority in many classrooms, which might yield to their levels of engagement and motivation in the classroom than African-American men. Accordingly, they are willing to accept the challenge in academics. Moore (2006) noted in her study that many African-American collegiate students pursued a foreign language because it was a requirement rather than for personal reasons. Moreover, she noted that many African-American men who pursued a foreign language for graduation requirements “should be told the benefits and value of learning a foreign language beforehand” (p. 198). In addition, African-American men are often stereotyped as incapable of achieving success in any given academic setting (Steele & Aronson, 1997), therefore, they are made to believe that they cannot perform well in any academic subject (Perry & Locke, 1985). Mortenson (2001) noted that only 1 out of every 3 African-American men discontinues his educational pursuits prior to obtaining a

Bachelors degree. African-American women, however, are in line with the findings of this study, as they typically are more motivated to learn, which assists in their level of engagement in the classroom. Yet, their choices in major tend to be more “limited,” as they have been counseled to major in areas that are “practical and within [their] ability” (Moore 2005, p. 195), like social work, education, and sociology. Similarly, Lackland & Delisi (2001) noted in their study that women still remain over-represented in majors such as health-related fields and education, whereas African-American men choose majors in the technical fields, such as engineering and computer sciences, despite the slow increase in women choosing male-dominated majors (Harper et al. (2004)).

Moreover, the findings in regard to foreign language anxiety were contrary when compared to prior studies with more homogenous language learner groups (Horwitz et al., 1987; Aida, 1994; Truitt, 1995; Tallon, 2006; Luo, 2011). It was anticipated that African-American foreign language learners would have foreign language anxiety levels that were consistent with other language groups. Also, it was anticipated that African-American collegiate students who attended an HBCU would have significantly lower levels of foreign language anxiety than those who attended a PWI.

While the second anticipation of results held true, the first did not. When comparing the two groups of students based on campus environment, there was not much difference in foreign language anxiety between the two; yet, African-American students who attended HBCUs had lower foreign language anxiety levels than those who attended a PWI. When African-Americans students’ foreign language anxiety levels were compared with prior foreign language anxiety studies, they had the highest levels of foreign language anxiety. Interestingly, while they were not anticipated, the results

indicated that African-American men had the lowest levels of foreign language anxiety compared to men at PWIs as well as women on both campus environments. Future research should investigate African-American men at HBCUs in the foreign language classroom to determine what other factors might attribute to their low levels of foreign language anxiety. Given the aforementioned literature that shows women are more engaged and motivated to succeed in the classroom than their male counterparts, perhaps African-American men at HBCUs are more comfortable and engaged in the foreign language learning process. It might be possible that given the results from the motivation and anxiety correlation analysis, it explains why HBCU men and their foreign language anxiety are low in comparison to men who attend PWIs and, to some extent, African-American women.

Finally, the findings assisted in answering the question to what extent is a black experience needed in the foreign language classroom. Should language instructors tailor their curriculum to incorporate a black cultural component to pique the interests of African-American collegiate students in foreign language learning, thereby allowing them to consider the exploration of learning a foreign language beyond the introductory courses that are required for graduation? Based on the qualitative responses, participants were divided over the curriculum. Several participants indicated that the foreign language curriculum did not need a “special component” to highlight their African/African-American heritage; on the other hand, there were participants who believed that the curriculum needs to be revamped become more culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Future research should investigate to what extent does culturally

relevant teaching need to be present in the foreign language curriculum, as well as how exactly should a black experience in a foreign language classroom be defined.

6.5. PEDAGOGICAL AND THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The following are pedagogical and theoretical implications that should be acknowledged in regard to the current study:

1. This study gives foreign language instructors, essentially at any level, understanding on how African-American students (specifically college students) view and value the importance of learning a foreign language. By having an idea of what their beliefs are concerning foreign language learning, instructors can then gauge the most optimal ways to create a positive learning experience.
2. With regard to the BALLI data, the category “African-American expectations” provided firsthand data on beliefs about foreign language learning that are specific to African-American college students. The analysis showed that African-Americans, on both college campus environments, have strong beliefs about language learning that indicate that African-Americans have the ability to be motivated and to learn a foreign language for various reasons.
3. Instructors should consider their own beliefs about learning a foreign language with respect to African-American language learners to ensure that they have some alignment with their own. Such alignment can be critical to the learning process, as it will assist in understanding the various strategies (Yang '992, Truitt, 1995) that they may use to maneuver the language learning process.
4. Based on the qualitative responses, foreign language curriculum should be tailored to incorporate topics of interests that coincide with the interests of

African-American language learners to go further in the learning process beyond the introductory courses.

5. Although the study yielded moderate but slightly high anxiety levels, the findings prompt instructors to develop ways to reduce anxiety in the classroom.

Instructors should identify the sources of anxiety and create measures in which those levels may be lowered for the overall benefit of the student. Future research consider the factor that leader to anxiety in African-American language learners.

6. While the findings indicated that most students' motivation levels are extrinsically high with minimal investment involved, instructors should also develop ways to make the curriculum and teaching can be more appealing to where students genuinely have an intrinsic desire to pursue learning a foreign language.

7. **Based on the analysis of the motivation data, the fact that factor 3 negatively loaded indicates that (come back)**

8. The findings with regard to motivation also showed that levels of motivation for learning a foreign language not only depend on the type of motivation, but for African-Americans, the terms of engagement—whether short or long term—play a factor in how one will approach the language learning process.

6.6. LIMITATIONS

The current study has the following limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings:

1. The study was based on a sample of 571 African-American students across four college campuses: Howard University (161), The University of Texas at Austin (123), The Ohio State University (130), and Florida A&M University (157). Two

- of the four universities are considered Predominant White Institutions (PWI), whereas the other two are considered Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU). While one of the major aims of the study was to compare and contrast the beliefs, motivations, and anxiety levels between the two racially composed environments, they do not represent all PWIs and HBCUs or all university level African-American language learners.
2. While the focus of the study was limited to African-American students at these four universities, the four universities differ in several important ways (e.g., city location, school campus population, size of campus, types of language instruction, etc.
 3. The nexus of the study was limited to African-American foreign language learners who were enrolled in introductory-level courses. The study did not investigate “successful” African-American foreign language learners who might have placed out of foreign languages due to dual-credit and/or AP examination scores, as well as those who are pursuing a foreign language as a major.
 4. The results of the study are limited to a sample population of African-American college students who are studying a foreign language. Given the participants are taking various foreign languages at their respective universities, if the participants were studying a single foreign language, the relationship whether the findings would be the same is unknown.
 5. The study did not focus on individuals who were either avoiding taking a foreign language or did not have to because of their program and/or major. Participants

for the study were those who were willing to register and take a foreign language during the school year.

6. The AMS and the BALLI survey instruments were modified to reflect the reflections of African-Americans and their motivations for learning a foreign language, as well as their beliefs about learning a foreign language. It is possible that the results from both scales used in their original forms might have produced more similar results to those found in prior studies.
7. The three survey instruments—the AMS, the FLCAS, and the BALLI—were considered adequate for measuring the students’ beliefs about language learning. However, all three of these measures are self-reports of the participant’s personal language learning experiences. Therefore, it is possible that many participants might display social desirability bias, where several participants might not have been as truthful and honest as the study allowed for them to be in their responses.
8. Concerning the open-ended questions, while participants were given the opportunity to freely express their personal beliefs about learning a foreign language from the perspective of “being African-American,” it is possible that given the amount of space allotted for open responses, students still may possess other beliefs and options that they were not able to address on the questionnaire.

6.7. PROPOSED SUGGESTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The following are suggestions for future research on African-Americans and foreign language learning:

1. The scope of this study was limited to African-Americans college students. It would be interesting to see what the beliefs, motivation and anxiety levels exist

- among African-American language learners at the secondary level. Do African-Americans transition from high school to college with preconceived notions about learning a foreign language? Does the desire—if any—transition effectively, and if so, to what extent? What is the relationship w/their motivation and anxiety levels?
2. A motivation study solely with students at either HBCUs or PWIs with the original Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) to confirm the validity of the scale.
 3. More qualitative studies should focus on how motivation for learning a foreign language affects the ability to process and produce a foreign language. In addition, as the data reflected that when students' intrinsic motivation increases, their anxiety levels increase, future research should investigate what factors—if any—are causing anxiety levels to increase and work against motivation.
 4. Qualitative research should be conducted to investigate the strategies—if any—have been used by “successful” African-American foreign language learners.
 5. This study could be replicated with other language learner groups in the United States, specifically language learner “groups of color.” It would be interesting to see if there is any difference in beliefs, motivations, and anxiety levels between African-Americans and Hispanic and/or Asian-American foreign language learners.
 6. While this study focused on the beliefs, motivations, and anxiety levels of African-Americans, future research should examine these factors in African-Americans taking specific languages.

6.8 . CLOSING THOUGHTS

Since Davis & Markham's (1991) study of foreign language learning at HBCUs, one must wonder whether or not anything has changed over the last twenty years. Moreover, one must wonder to what extent do African-Americans value foreign language learning, regardless of where they attend college and/or university. Is there a true black experience as it pertains to foreign language learning?

Concerning this study, the findings indicated that there is not much difference in the anxiety levels, levels of motivation, as well as the beliefs about foreign language learning when it concerns one's campus environment. However, the true differences are on an individual basis with respect to the institution itself. While Predominantly White Institutions afford a wealth of resources to aid in the student's academic endeavors, Historically Black Colleges and Universities might be limited in their resources, but there is a sense of unity and encouragement that is embedded within the culture of the college campus insofar as it allows the students to have high confidence about themselves, and are able to assess the true value of achieving their academic goals.

Therefore, with respect to foreign language learning, have things changed since the Davis and Markham (1991) study? Absolutely. It is evident that African-American college students acknowledge that today, in the 21st century, acquiring such a skill is necessary given the direction of how society's make up will entail edit. They also acknowledge that while it is a challenge to undergo such a task, it is one that can be done. This study also introduces a perspective that has been long overdue for exploration. While African-Americans have made appearances in other aspects of the literature along

with the mainstream population, one has to wonder if and how were they overlooked, or even forgotten about as it pertained to foreign language acquisition.

African-Americans are a group that have been marginalized for so long in areas of education, that their voices are hardly heard. Not only does this study acknowledge their perspective acknowledged in the realm of foreign language acquisition, it is hoped that it shall never be lost nor forgotten.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

IRB USE ONLY
Study Number: 2010-02-0045
Approval Date: 01/31/2012
Expires: 01/30/2013

Consent for Participation in Research

Title: African-Americans: Their Beliefs, Their Anxieties, and their stories Regarding Foreign Language Learning

Introduction

The purpose of this form is to provide you information that may affect your decision as to whether or not to participate in this research study. The person performing the research will answer any of your questions. Read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to be involved in this study, this form will be used to record your consent.

Purpose of the Study

You have been asked to participate in a research study about African-American college students and their beliefs, anxiety and motivation levels, and their general stories regarding foreign language learning. The purpose of this study is to survey and investigate the beliefs, motivations, and foreign language anxiety levels of African-American undergraduate students at Predominantly White Institutions and Historical Black College/Universities regarding Foreign Language Learning. In addition, to interview a select number of participants about their foreign language learning experience to validate the quantitative results.

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to participate in this voluntary study, you will be asked to complete three survey questionnaires pertaining to one's beliefs about language learning, one's anxiety levels in the foreign language classroom, and one's motivation levels as it concerns academics. In addition, you will be asked if you are interested in being interviewed in further detail about your own personal journey as it relates to foreign language. All three surveys should not take longer than twenty minutes to complete. If interested, an interview will be set up and conducted. For those who volunteer for the interview portion, participation will last no longer than thirty. **Please be advised that the interviews will be audio recorded; however, all interviews will be kept confidential.**

What are the possible benefits of this study?

You will receive no direct benefit from participating in this study; however, one of the major benefits of the students is that it will enable educators to explore and assess in detail the needs of African-Americans when it comes to learning a foreign language. As a result, foreign language educators may be able to provide opportunities to learn a second language to all African-American students. The proposed results that yield from the study will add to the scholarly literature currently in place that deals with language learner beliefs, foreign language anxiety, and motivation.

Do you have to participate?

No, your participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate at all or, if you start the study, you may withdraw at any time. Withdrawal or refusing to participate will not affect your relationship with your University in anyway.

Will there be any compensation?

You will not receive any type of payment participating in this study.

What are my confidentiality or privacy protections when participating in this research study?

This study is voluntary, as well as confidential. The completed questionnaires will be stored in a locked cabinet in the principal investigator's office. Only the principal investigator will have access to the cabinet and the data. In addition, all interviews will be archived on a special disk drive and tape recorder. Those interview materials will be stored in the dissertation chair's locked cabinet in her office. Only the dissertation chair and the principal investigator will have access to these resources.

If you choose to participate in the interview portion of the study, you will be audio recorded. Any audio recordings will be stored securely and only the principal investigator (Nicholas Gatlin) will have access to the recordings. Recordings will be erased after the final transcription is complete. The data resulting from your participation may be used for future research or be made available to other researchers for research purposes not detailed within this consent form.

Whom to contact with questions about the study?

Prior, during or after your participation you can contact the researcher Nicholas S. Gatlin via email at nick.gatlin@austin.utexas.edu. This study has been reviewed and approved by The University Institutional Review Board and the study number is 2010-02-0045.

Whom to contact with questions concerning your rights as a research participant?

For questions about your rights or any dissatisfaction with any part of this study, you can contact, anonymously if you wish, the Institutional Review Board by phone at (512) 471-8871 or email at orssc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

Participation

If you agree to participate, please sign below of your interest, indicating whether you want to participate in the survey portion only, or both the survey and interview.

Signature

You have been informed about this study's purpose, procedures, possible benefits and risks, and you have received a copy of this form. You have been given the opportunity to ask questions before you sign, and you have been told that you can ask other questions at any time. You voluntarily agree to participate in this study. By signing this form, you are not waiving any of your legal rights.

_____ I agree to participate in ONLY the survey questionnaire portion of the study only.
_____ I agree to participate in BOTH the survey questionnaire & interview portion of the study.
_____ please leave email address if you check the second option.

Printed Name

Signature

Date

As a representative of this study, I have explained the purpose, procedures, benefits, and the risks involved in this research study.

Print Name of Person obtaining consent

Signature of Person obtaining consent

Date

APPENDIX B: IR B APPROVAL FORM: UT-AUSTIN



OFFICE OF RESEARCH SUPPORT

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

P.O. Box 7426, Austin, Texas 78713 · Mail Code A3200
(512) 471-8871 · FAX (512) 471-8873

FWA # 00002030

Date:

PI:

Dept:

Title:

Re: IRB Expedited Approval for Protocol Number

Dear

In accordance with the Federal Regulations the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the above referenced research study and found it met the requirements for approval under the Expedited category noted below for the following period of time: to . *Expires 12 a.m. [midnight] of this date.*

Expedited category of approval:

- ☐ 1) Clinical studies of drugs and medical devices only when condition (a) or (b) is met. (a) Research on drugs for which an investigational new drug application (21 CFR Part 312) is not required. (Note: Research on marketed drugs that significantly increases the risks or decreases the acceptability of the risks associated with the use of the product is not eligible for expedited review.) (b) Research on medical devices for which (i) an investigational device exemption application (21 CFR Part 812) is not required; or (ii) the medical device is cleared/approved for marketing and the medical device is being used in accordance with its cleared/approved labeling.
- ☐ 2) Collection of blood samples by finger stick, heel stick, ear stick, or venipuncture as follows: (a) from healthy, non-pregnant adults who weigh at least 110 pounds. For these subjects, the amounts drawn may not exceed 550 ml in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week; or (b) from other adults and children, considering the age, weight, and health of the subjects, the collection procedure, the amount of blood to be collected, and the frequency with which it will be collected. For these subjects, the amount drawn may not exceed the lesser of 50 ml or 3 ml per kg in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week.
- ☐ 3) Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by non-invasive means. Examples:
 - (a) Hair and nail clippings in a non-disfiguring manner.
 - (b) Deciduous teeth at time of exfoliation or if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction.
 - (c) Permanent teeth if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction.
 - (d) Excreta and external secretions (including sweat).

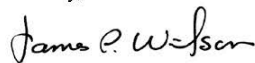
- (e) Uncannulated saliva collected either in an un-stimulated fashion or stimulated by chewing gumbase or wax or by applying a dilute citric solution to the tongue.
 - (f) Placenta removed at delivery.
 - (g) Amniotic fluid obtained at the time of rupture of the membrane prior to or during labor.
 - (h) Supra- and subgingival dental plaque and calculus, provided the collection procedure is not more invasive than routine prophylactic scaling of the teeth and the process is accomplished in accordance with accepted prophylactic techniques.
 - (i) Mucosal and skin cells collected by buccal scraping or swab, skin swab, or mouth washings.
 - (j) Sputum collected after saline mist nebulization.
- ☐ 4) Collection of data through non-invasive procedures (not involving general anesthesia or sedation) routinely employed in clinical practice, excluding procedures involving x-rays or microwaves. Where medical devices are employed, they must be cleared/approved for marketing. (Studies intended to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of the medical device are not generally eligible for expedited review, including studies of cleared medical devices for new indications).
Examples:
- (a) Physical sensors that are applied either to the surface of the body or at a distance and do not involve input of significant amounts of energy into the subject or an invasion of the subject's privacy.
 - (b) Weighing or testing sensory acuity.
 - (c) Magnetic resonance imaging.
 - (d) Electrocardiography, electroencephalography, thermography, detection of naturally occurring radioactivity, electroretinography, ultrasound, diagnostic infrared imaging, doppler blood flow, and echocardiography.
 - (e) Moderate exercise, muscular strength testing, body composition assessment, and flexibility testing where appropriate given the age, weight, and health of the individual.
- ☐ 5) Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for non-research purposes (such as medical treatment or diagnosis).
Note: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt.
- ☐ 6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
- ☐ 7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.
Note: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) and (b)(3). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt.
- ☐ Use the attached approved informed consent document(s).
- ☐ You have been granted a Waiver of Documentation of Consent according to 45 CFR 46.117 and/or 21 CFR 56.109(c)(1).
- ☐ You have been granted a Waiver of Informed Consent according to 45 CFR 46.116(d).

Responsibilities of the Principal Investigator:

1. Report immediately to the IRB any unanticipated problems.
2. Submit for review and approval by the IRB all modifications to the protocol or consent form(s). Ensure the proposed changes in the approved research are not applied without prior IRB review and approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject. Changes in approved research implemented without IRB review and approval initiated to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject must be promptly reported to the IRB, and will be reviewed under the unanticipated problems policy to determine whether the change was consistent with ensuring the subjects continued welfare.
3. Report any significant findings that become known in the course of the research that might affect the willingness of subjects to continue to participate.
4. Ensure that only persons formally approved by the IRB enroll subjects.
5. Use only a currently approved consent form, if applicable.
Note: Approval periods are for 12 months or less.
6. Protect the confidentiality of all persons and personally identifiable data, and train your staff and collaborators on policies and procedures for ensuring the privacy and confidentiality of subjects and their information.
7. Submit a Continuing Review Application for continuing review by the IRB. Federal regulations require IRB review of on-going projects no less than once a year a reminder letter will be sent to you two months before your expiration date. If a reminder is not received from Office of Research Support (ORS) about your upcoming continuing review, it is still the primary responsibility of the Principal Investigator not to conduct research activities on or after the expiration date. The Continuing Review Application must be submitted, reviewed and approved, before the expiration date.
8. Upon completion of the research study, a Closure Report must be submitted to the ORS.
9. Include the IRB study number on all future correspondence relating to this protocol.

If you have any questions contact the ORS by phone at (512) 471-8871 or via e-mail at orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

Sincerely,



James Wilson, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair

APPENDIX C: IRB APPROVAL FORM: HOWARD UNIVERSITY



Office of Regulatory Research Compliance

Date: May 17, 2012

To: Yuvay Meyers, Ph.D.
School of Business

From: Marlene Brown-Walthall, MPH, Sr. Compliance Administrator
Institutional Review Board

Jamie Rotimi, M.S., Compliance Officer
Institutional Review Board

Title: **IRB-12-BUS-02:** African-American Collegiate Students: Their Beliefs and Their Stories Revolved Around Foreign Language Learning

Action: Expedited Review- *New Student Research*

Approval Date: May 11, 2012

Expiration Date: May 10, 2013

The HU IRB reviewed and approved your request to continue the above-referenced subproject on May 11, 2012. Approval for this study is through **May 10, 2013**. The HU IRB also acknowledges University of Texas at Austin as the **IRB-of-Record** for this project. At the point of renewal, please make the Howard University IRB aware of the progress.

Please be reminded of the following:

1. It is your responsibility to ensure that a continuing review report is submitted to the IRB in a timely manner. Should you anticipate renewing this protocol at the end of the approved time frame, please submit the C-2 Form **90 days prior to the expiration date** (Please note that this office will automatically terminate the project on the date stated above, unless reviewed and re-approved by the IRB.);
2. If you plan to close this protocol, a close-out report must be submitted to the IRB within 30 days after completion. Use an C-2 Form for this purpose as well; and
3. During the project period of this research, the IRB has the right to conduct a monitoring site visit and you will be given prior notice.
4. IRB date-stamped consent documents should be used when obtaining informed consent;
5. All informed consent documents must be kept on record with this project and should be archived by you for at least three (3) years after the last date of the IRB approval; and
6. Any changes including changes in personnel, modifications to the protocol and advertising must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to initiation.
7. The HU IRB Federal Wide Assurance number is FWA00000891.

Please refer to the above mentioned date and protocol number when making inquiries concerning this protocol.

HU Research Building 1
1840 Seventh Street, NW, Suite 309
Washington, DC 20001



(T) 202 865-8597
Fax (202) 232-5286
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APPENDIX D: IRB APPROVAL FORM: FLORIDA A&M UNIVERSITY



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INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

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APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

TO: Brandan Craft, MFA
School of Journalism & Graphic Communication

FROM: Tony Manson, Ph.D. 
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board (IRB)

DATE: May 14, 2012

RE: **"African-American Collegiate Students: Their Beliefs and their stories revolved around Foreign Language Learning" (012-28)**

The Florida A&M University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved the above name project and no other revisions are necessary.

The IRB has not evaluated your project for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If the project has not been completed by **May 14, 2013** you must request a renewed approval for continuation of this project.

You are advised that any changes in the protocol in this project must be resubmitted to the committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must promptly report, in writing, any unexpected problems causing risks to research subjects or others.

Please ensure in your research that you only utilize the approved and stamped consent form.

The institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is **FWA00005391**.

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APPENDIX E: IRB APPROVAL LETTER: THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY



Office of Enrollment Services

485 Student Academic Services Building
281 West Lane Avenue
Columbus, OH 43210

Phone (614) 292-8835
Fax (614) 688-4595

May 15, 2012

Dr. James Wilson, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board
P.O. Box 7426
Austin, TX 78713
irbchair@austin.utexas.edu

Dear Dr. Wilson:

The purpose of this letter is to grant Nicholas Gatlin, a doctoral candidate at the University of Texas at Austin permission to conduct research at The Ohio State University. The project, "African-American Collegiate Students: Their Beliefs and Their Stories revolved around Foreign Language Learning" entails participants completing three survey questionnaires via Qualtrics online that address foreign language learner's beliefs, motivation and foreign language anxiety levels. Participants will be African-American undergraduate students who have studied a foreign language while at the university. The participation for the study is voluntary, and all responses will be kept confidential. The goal is to obtain 150-200 survey responses. The Ohio State University was selected because of their location as it relates to the study, as well as their strong academic programs and diverse student body. Upon completion of data collection and analysis, Nicholas Gatlin will email me that the findings are complete, and will, if necessary, send the results via email. I am the Senior Associate Director in the Office of Enrollment Services Analysis and Reporting. After consultation with my colleagues in the Office of Diversity and Inclusion and the Office of Institutional Research and Planning; I hereby grant permission for Nicholas Gatlin to conduct "African-American Collegiate Students: Their Beliefs and Their Stories revolved around Foreign Language Learning" at The Ohio State University.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Linda S. Katunich", followed by a horizontal line.

Linda S. Katunich

Senior Associate Director

Office of Enrollment Services Analysis and
Reporting

Katunich.1@osu.edu

APPENDIX F: BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: The following questions are for research purposes only. All responses will be kept confidential. Please answer the following questions.

- | | | |
|---|----------|-----------|
| 1. What is your student classification? | Freshman | Sophomore |
| | Junior | Senior |

- | | | |
|-------------------------|------|--------|
| 2. What is your gender? | Male | Female |
|-------------------------|------|--------|

- | | | | |
|---|---------------|-----|----|
| 3. Did you study a foreign language in: | Middle School | Yes | No |
|---|---------------|-----|----|

- | | | | |
|---|-------------|-----|----|
| 4. Did you study a foreign language in: | High School | Yes | No |
|---|-------------|-----|----|

5. What foreign language(s) were you first exposed to studying?

6. In what foreign language class are you NOW enrolled? (e.g. FR 101, first semester)

APPENDIX G: FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE

Why do you Study a Foreign Language?

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you study a foreign language?

1 = Does not correspond at all

2 = Corresponds very little

3 = Corresponds moderately

4 = Corresponds very much

5 = Corresponds exactly

Why do you Study a Foreign Language?	DN	CVL	CM	CVM	CE
1. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Because I think that learning a foreign language will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	1	2	3	4	5
3. For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas in the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time taking a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
5. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in studying a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
6. To prove to myself that I am capable of learning a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
7. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on in life.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I once had good reasons for wanting to learn a foreign language; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.	1	2	3	4	5
9. For the pleasure I experience when reading interesting authors' works in the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
10. For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things in the language never seen before.	1	2	3	4	5
11. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel important when I succeed in learning a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Because studying a foreign language will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I can't see why I need to take a foreign language; honestly, I could care less.	1	2	3	4	5
15. To show myself that I am an intelligent person	1	2	3	4	5
16. Because me studying a foreign language will allow	1	2	3	4	5

me to continue to learn about many things that interest me in the language.					
17. Because I believe that a few additional classes in a foreign language will improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Studying a foreign language will help me have a better salary in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
19. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5
20. It is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I will more than likely be done with learning the language.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I am the only black in my class, so it is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
22. African-Americans need every advantage they can have as it relates to the job market.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H: FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Directions: Each of the following refers to how you feel about your foreign language class. For each item, indicate whether your (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree, or (5) strongly agree. Please give your initial reaction to each statement, and mark an answer for every statement.

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

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I always feel that the other students speaking the foreign language better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	1	2	3	4	5
28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

Is there anything else you would like to address in regard to studying a foreign language in general? Specifically, being an African-American studying a foreign language?

APPENDIX I: BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY

Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory

Below are beliefs that some people have about foreign language learning. Please read each statement and then decide if you 1) strongly disagree (SD), 2) disagree, 3) neither agree nor disagree 4) agree, 5) strongly agree (SA)

There are no right or wrong answers. Questions 31-32 are slightly different, so please mark them as indicated

	SD		N		SA
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language	1	2	3	4	5
2. Some people are born with a special ability, which helps them to learn a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is necessary to know the culture in order to speak the language.	1	2	3	4	5
5. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language unless you say it correctly.	1	2	3	4	5
6. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country	1	2	3	4	5
8. It's okay to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language	1	2	3	4	5
9. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It's important to practice a lot in order to become proficient.	1	2	3	4	5
11. If you are allowed to get away with mistakes at the early stages, it will be hard to get rid of them later	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is important to hear the language in order to speak it properly	1	2	3	4	5
13. Women learn a language easier than men	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language	1	2	3	4	5
15. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Learning another language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of Grammar rules.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Learning another language is a matter of translating from English	1	2	3	4	5
18. It is easier to develop reading skills than writing skills in a foreign language	1	2	3	4	5

19. People who are good in Math are not good in foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5
20. People who are good in Science are not good in foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5
21. In the U.S., there is a lot of importance placed on learning foreign languages.	1	2	3	4	5
22. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Americans are good at learning foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5
24. African-Americans are good at learning foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5
25. Anyone can learn a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Some languages are easier to learn than others	1	2	3	4	5
27. African-Americans only take foreign languages to fulfill the language requirement.	1	2	3	4	5
28. African-Americans would be most interested in studying a foreign language if it is taught from an Afro-centric perspective.	1	2	3	4	5
29. African-Americans who excel at learning a foreign language have an innate "special" ability.	1	2	3	4	5
30. African-Americans know that learning a foreign language will benefit them in the long run.	1	2	3	4	5

31. Give an example of a language than you think is difficult to learn

32. Give an example of a language that is easy to learn.

33. If someone spent an hour a day learning a language, how long will it take him/her to become orally proficient?

1. less than a year
2. 1-2years
3. 3-5 years
4. 5-10 years
5. It depends on the language and on the person

**Do you have any other beliefs about the nature of learning a foreign language?
Please respond below.**

APPENDIX J: OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

Languages Perceived to be More and Less Difficult

1. Give an example of a foreign language that is easy to learn.
2. Give an example of a foreign language that is difficult to learn

Personal Thoughts on the Nature of Language Learning

1. Do you have any other beliefs about the nature of learning a foreign language? Please respond.

Thoughts on Being African-American and Learning a Foreign Language

1. Is there anything else you would like to address in regard to studying a foreign language in general? Specifically, is there anything else you would like to address in regard to being an African-American studying a foreign language?
-

APPENDIX K: MODIFICATIONS/ADDITIONS MADE TO THE ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE (AMS) AND THE BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY (BALLI)

Modifications/Addition to the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) & The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventor (BALLI)

Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) – Vallerand et al., (1992)

Item Number	Vallerand et al. (1992)	Modification/Addition
19		19. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.
20		20. It is a requirement for my academic pursuits; once fulfilled, I will more than likely be done with learning the language.
21		21. I am the only black in my class, so it is my job to show my peers that I am capable of learning a foreign language.
22		22. African-Americans need every advantage they can have as it relates to the job market.

Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) – Horwitz (1986)

Item	Modification/Addition
24	African-Americans are good at learning foreign languages.
27	African-Americans only take foreign languages to fulfill the language requirement.
28	28. African-Americans would be most interested in studying a foreign language if it is taught from an Afro-centric perspective.
29	29. African-Americans who excel at learning a foreign language have an innate “special” ability.
30	30. African-Americans know that learning a foreign language will benefit them in the long run.

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VITA

Nicholas S. Gatlin was born in Virginia Beach, VA. After graduating from Ocean Lakes High School in 1998, he went to the University of Virginia. In 2002, he graduated with a Bachelor of Arts in Comparative Politics and French Literature, and a minor in Italian Language and Literature. After four years of working in finance and education, he went back to graduate school to pursue a Masters degree in Foreign Language Education. In 2008, he fulfilled the requirements and graduated with that degree, and decided to continue with his studies in pursuit of a Doctor of Philosophy in Foreign Language Education. While working on his doctoral degree, he worked as a Graduate Research Assistant in the Division of Diversity and Community Engagement under the Pre-College Academic Readiness Programs, as well as a Teaching Assistant in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction for the University Signature Courses. He is now currently working as an ESL Instructor with the ESL Services in the International Office at The University of Texas at Austin, and is pursuing post-doctoral fellowship and tenure-track positions in Foreign Language Education.

nick.gatlin@austin.utexas.edu

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