

The Relationship between Instructor Feedback and Foreign Language Anxiety

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship between Instructor Feedback and Foreign Language Anxiety

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Conducted in an intermediate English as a second language (ESL) setting at the high school level in Quebec, this correlational study investigated the relationship between instructor feedback and English second language (L2) students' writing anxiety. Participants were 53 teenagers in their last year of high school who were required to write an end of year integrative high stakes writing exam. Throughout the five-month period, students were exposed to two practice integrative tasks, written corrective feedback, and five questionnaires to measure language learning anxiety, L2 writing anxiety, and participants' perception of instructor feedback. The results showed a significant, negative correlation between students' perceptions of feedback and test anxiety. These findings have pedagogical implications which suggest that anxious learners might benefit from feedback to decrease their anxiety for high stakes exams, provided that the written feedback is clear.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Writing is an important tool for educational success in the world. In school, students' grades are determined, in part, by their performance on written tests (Graham, 2006). Writing also provides a useful tool for supporting students' learning of content material (Graham & Perin, 2007). Writing follows a linguistic standardized system which consists of syntactic and socio-linguistic protocols of the community discourse. It puts across an intended meaning to a specific audience. Thus, writers need to develop linguistic and cultural protocols to allow clarity for the audience. According to Armendaris (2009), being able to write well is a necessary prerequisite not only in a first language but also in a second or foreign language. However, second language learners often have difficulty creating coherent texts (Kaplan, 1977). Given that writing has become a crucial element to determine an individual's future in school, students can experience a lot of pressure in passing a writing exam. Writing anxiety has been a subject of research, but according to Woodrow (2011), there is little research in the area of anxiety and second language (L2) writing.

Anxiety and Language Learning

In order to situate writing anxiety within a broader context, it is important to explain what anxiety is. Anxiety is the internal feeling of dread or tension that a person experiences despite the fact that no real, concrete threat to the person exists (Burg & Cizek, 2006). According to Kimura (2008), anxiety has established itself as one of the most important affective factors responsible for individual differences in the success or failure of L2 learning, and it has become one of the most investigated individual differences in the field of L2 acquisition (Baralt & Gurzyniski-Weiss, 2011). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) stated that anxiety can interfere with the acquisition, retention and

even production of an additional language. There are specific types of anxiety investigated by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), and within the context of language learning, the current consensus is that language anxiety should be viewed as a situation-specific construct which recurs consistently overtime within the given context of language learning situations (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Language anxiety may result when a L2 learner is required to use a second language, either for speaking, listening, reading or writing. Horwitz et al. (1986) were the first to propose that a situation-specific anxiety construct was a separate and distinct phenomenon particular to language learning and independent of other types of anxiety. They called it Foreign Language Anxiety, and they specified that this type of anxiety was accountable for students' negative emotional reactions to language learning. They created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure foreign language anxiety, consisting of three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. However, researchers have questioned its adequacy to measure anxiety aroused in performing language skills other than speaking, considering that the majority of the items in the scale are related to speaking (Cheng, 2004). Writing has also been seen to provoke anxiety amongst students.

Since the 1970s, research on the relationship between writing anxiety and personality characteristics has provided justification for regarding writing apprehension as a distinct form of anxiety. The term 'writing apprehension', also known as writing anxiety, was coined by Daly and Miller (1975c) and refers to a situation- and subject-

specific individual difference related to a person's inclinations to approach or avoid situations that require writing accompanied by some amount of perceived evaluation. For L2 students, Gupta (1998) has claimed that writing is actually dreaded by L2 learners since it has long been maintained to be a very difficult skill to attain. Writing is associated with self-expression, flow of ideas, and outsider expectations, among other things, and L2 learners have difficulty coping with this in order to succeed in writing (Basturkmen & Lewis, 2002).

To measure writing anxiety, Daly and Miller (1975a) developed a standardized writing anxiety questionnaire called the Writing Apprehension Test (WAT), which consists of Likert-scale items targeting three aspects of writing: tendency to avoid writing, attitudes towards written communication, and feelings experienced during writing. However, the WAT was designed for use with first language learners, according to Cheng (2004), so it does not capture issues faced by L2 writers. Cheng created an updated version of Daly and Miller's (1975a) WAT that measures L2 writing anxiety grounded in both L2 learners' reports or anxiety experiences and the multidimensional conceptualization of anxiety, given that anxiety is not a unitary, unidimensional phenomenon. The scale, known as Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI), consists of 22 items related to the three dimensions of anxiety: physiological, behavioral, and cognitive responses.

In light of the importance of writing in academic English and the anxiety that it can trigger, a key question for L2 instructors is how to decrease learner anxiety about L2 writing, particularly for high-stakes writing exams. Besides administering practice tests before high-stakes exams, instructors can provide written corrective feedback designed to

help students improve their subsequent performance. Giving feedback on practice tests is important because it gives learners information on how to improve. The underlying assumption for giving feedback is that it will help learners notice their errors, and therefore, to hopefully produce the correct form in the next written task. However, given that teachers give written corrective feedback to aid in learners' writing, a question remains whether feedback plays a role in learners' anxiety.

Corrective Feedback and L2 Writing

Corrective feedback is possibly the most broadly used feedback form in L2 classrooms and has attracted considerable attention among researchers since there is a growing consensus about corrective feedback and language acquisition concerning learners' interlanguage development (Sheen, 2008). Havranek and Cesnik (2001) state that corrective feedback is a necessary means of making learners aware of their mistakes when speaking a language. Considering that there has been evidence showing how oral corrective feedback facilitates interlanguage development, the effects of written corrective feedback has also been explored. Truscott (1996) began the debate claiming that written error correction in L2 classes is ineffective and potentially harmful. With his practical arguments, he states that teachers are incapable of providing useful and consistent feedback just as the learners are unable and unwilling to use the feedback correctly. Consistently giving feedback can be troublesome considering there are a variety of ways to deliver feedback to learners. For students writing a text, content, organization, accuracy, and quality of the writing are all aspects that make up the text. Teachers decide what they want to take into consideration when correcting a text, which could be overwhelming for a learner if all components were targeted at the same time.

Truscott suggests that the time allotted for corrections – for teachers and students – would be better spent on additional writing practices.

Ferris (1999) has stood against Truscott (1996), claiming that his statements were premature, and if corrective feedback were clear and persistent, it would be helpful. Indeed, a number of L2 writing studies to date have reported positive effects for written feedback (Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) and shown that written feedback can help students improve the accuracy of their writing under the right conditions and on particular features. For instance, both Ashwell (2000) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) required that the students revise their texts rather than write new texts. Both studies singled out specific error types indirectly, and the participants had accuracy gains on their final revision drafts. It is important to note that revision is a crucial element in writing since revision is necessary for the development of students' writing abilities and processes. Chandler's (2000) study investigated the effects of feedback on new pieces of writing by giving indirect feedback and showed improvement by reducing errors by one third in students' fifth essay. However, this study can only be seen as indicative of the *potential* that corrective feedback might have for helping learners improve on accuracy of writing since the design did not include a control group.

The fact that positive results were seen in Ashwell (2000) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) shows that guided pedagogical intervention from the teacher that pushes learners to pay attention to language is useful and could in essence carry on to future compositions, as shown in Chandler (2000), especially if the learner is asked to perform a subsequent writing task but with different content. However, it is important to investigate how students perceive written feedback since feedback could have the

potential to make students anxious about their writing. Research on the student perspective on feedback began in the 1990s and has focused on student preferences and expectations based on questionnaire surveys (see Cohen, 1987, as cited in Lee, 2008; Ferris, 1995). Previous research has shown that students appreciate teacher feedback (Leki, 1991; Zhang, 1995), and they are eager to have all their errors pointed out by their teacher, whether they are local errors (i.e., spelling, grammar, and punctuation) or global errors (i.e., ideas, content, and organization) (Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991). In McCurdy's (1992, as cited in Ferris, 1995) study where students were asked about their perception of feedback they had already received, students said they paid attention to feedback and found it helpful. Although McCurdy's (1992) study found that students also perceived a variety of problems in understanding their teacher's feedback, they also used a great variety of strategies to understand the feedback, such as asking the teacher for help and looking up corrections in a grammar book. Ferris (2004) has argued that revision and editing of a specific text after receiving feedback may be useful and perhaps a necessary step in developing longer term linguistic competence.

Most research has shown that students prefer indirect error feedback where they have to correct the errors themselves with the help of the clues suggested (Hyland, 2001; Saito, 1994). In Ferris's (1995) study, students were more attentive to feedback given during the writing process than after they have already finished a composition. It could be assumed that students prefer to correct the errors themselves so that they can learn from their mistakes. However, there is not much evidence to show how the feedback affects learner anxiety. Daiker (1989, as cited in Hyland, 1998) states that students' motivation and confidence in themselves as writers may be unfavourably affected by the

feedback they receive. To date, only research by Hyland (1998) has findings worth noting concerning student attitudes towards feedback. Hyland investigated ESL writers' reactions to and uses of written feedback. Using a case study approach, the paper focused on two student writers who showed contrasting patterns of feedback use and who both became less positive about their writing during the course. The study suggests that there needs to be a more open teacher/student dialogue on feedback, since the data suggested that feedback has great potential for misunderstanding and lack of motivation for the learner. In order to shed light on the relationship between corrective feedback and L2 writing anxiety, the current study explores the anxiety experienced by Quebec secondary students.

Context of the Study

In Quebec, the ministry of education known as Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport (MELS) is responsible for developing the education program in the areas of preschool, elementary, secondary education, college, and university. Secondary school offers five years of general education, and at the end of the fifth year of secondary education, the students are awarded a Secondary School Diploma (SSD) that provides access to college. In a French high school, there are three streams of English: English as a second language (ESL), Enriched English as a Second Language (EESL), and English language arts (ELA). In the EESL program, students are on their way to becoming competent lifelong language learners by developing three competencies: *interacts orally in English*, *reinvests understanding of texts*, and *writes and produces texts*. The competency *interacts orally in English* is the basis for the other two competencies, as students interact spontaneously in English in all classroom situations. When developing

reinvests understanding of texts, students explore an assortment of texts, construct the meaning of texts with peers and the teacher, and make use of what they have understood in a reinvestment task. In the competency *writes and produces texts*, students write and produce with a purpose and express themselves for an intended audience.

In EESL classes, the goal of the course is to explore a wide variety of complex issues and abstract ideas in class (MELS, n.d.). These learners engage in the response, writing and production processes throughout the school year. They explore a variety of authentic texts, whether popular, literary or information-based and demonstrate their understanding through reinvestment tasks. With their more extensive language repertoire, these learners adopt a more flexible approach in their use of the writing and production processes and focus on their creativity and personal style. The current study was undertaken in a French private high school with EESL students. The students in the study will have attended six hundred hours of English by the time they complete secondary school. In one year, they have English five times in an eight-day cycle, and classes are sixty minutes in length.

In high school, the school year is divided into three terms where each term has its own weight for the students' final grade (see Table 1). In secondary five for EESL students, each competency has an equal value to give a final grade out of 100 (33% for both *reinvests understanding of texts* and *writes and produces texts*, and 34% for *interacts orally in English*), and in order for a learner to pass, he or she must get a final minimum grade of 60%. As of June 2010, students in the EESL program have an end-of-year Ministry exam. This exam evaluates two competencies at once and is worth 50% of competency two: *reinvests understanding of texts* and 50% of competency three: *writes*

and produces texts. Given its weight, this exam is crucial in determining whether the learners graduate high school or not.

Table 1
Percentage of Each Competency per Term

Competency	Term 1	Term 2	Term 3	Ministry Exam
1. Interacts orally in English	20	20	60	Ø
2. Reinvests understanding of texts	10	10	30	50
3. Writes and produces texts	10	10	30	50

Note. Interacts orally in English is worth 34% of the learner's final grade and reinvests understandings of texts and writes and produces texts are worth 33% of the learner's final grade.

The writing task, which is a requirement by the MELS for EESL, is an information-based feature article. This task was created by the MELS and is the end-of-year Ministry exam. The feature article requires students to provide the target audience with a solid overview of a given topic from a prescribed angle (MELS, 2013). Known as an issues-and-trends feature, it takes a critical look at a given angle, helping readers better understand the issues and the stakes involved, based on research materials provided for the students in print and in audio. A topic can be analyzed from different angles. An angle, which is similar to a prompt, is a specific focus of the feature article in which it narrows the scope of the topic and corresponds to the perspective from which students will approach the topic. In a 400 words, the feature article presents different point of views and includes quotations from or references to experts, stakeholders, eyewitnesses and other concerned individuals. What matters in a feature article is that the given angle is respected since it goes beyond the topic or the subject but is instead a perspective from which to write the feature article.

Purpose of the Study

Considering the fact that L2 writing in general is demanding and anxiety-creating (Gupta, 1998), particularly in testing situations such as is the case for the end of year ministry exam in Quebec, research is needed in order to see whether the provision of written corrective feedback is related to learners' anxiety levels. Given that students do appreciate teacher feedback, perhaps it would decrease their anxiety levels before writing this high-stakes task if they were given ample practice beforehand with relevant feedback. If we consider that students write subsequent practice tasks before high-stakes exams and receive written feedback as part of the writing process, it could have an effect on their anxiety since learners would know what to do in order to improve on the high-stakes exam if they consider the feedback received. Therefore, the purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationship between corrective feedback and L2 writing anxiety. The manuscript that describes the empirical study and reports its findings is provided in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER TWO: MANUSCRIPT

A recent tendency in assessing English for academic purposes is to integrate reading and listening with writing (Weigle & Parker, 2012). This type of assessment, called integrative writing, requires that the examinee read texts and/or listen to audio to obtain information that is used for a writing task. Integrated writing is believed to enhance students' critical thinking ability (McGinley, 1992), and it is increasingly used in many influential large-scale assessment programs such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the Canadian Academic English Language (CAEL), and several university-based assessment programs. Integrated writing reflects the greater importance given to critical writing skills in environments which academic writing is an essential part of academic success (Leki & Carson, 1997).

Most integrative writing tasks revolve around a reading to writing task known as discourse synthesis (Plakans, 2009b; Spivey & King, 1989). Learners need to synthesize the given material, which will show whether or not they understand the content in the provided readings or audio. By synthesizing, they need to select the relevant information and shape the ideas into a new organizational structure in their own ideas, which is an important component of academic writing ability. Finally, they connect the content by providing links between related ideas drawn from multiple sources. Moreover, this process results in a new text to be read; nevertheless, this text has essentially been shaped to make connections for an intended audience and to respect the given purpose of the writing task. According to Weigle (2004), one of the main reasons for intertwining reading and writing skills is to enhance authenticity since writing is based on actual material, whether in readings or in an audio. Integrative writing tasks provide content for

students to write about, which can essentially reduce content bias and avoid drawing on memory (Weigle, 2002).

Although this style of writing has advantages, integrative writing tasks also come with a number of challenges. According to Weigle and Parker (2012), there has been a great deal of discussion of the development of learner ability to incorporate source text materials accordingly. Providing texts to writers may lead to inappropriate, misleading or irrelevant textual borrowing if students are not accustomed to the norms regarding suitable source text use or do not know or have the language skills to paraphrase material from source texts properly within the given time frame of a test situation (Mateos & Solé, 2009; Weigle, 2002). Other factors that contribute to task difficulty are the degree of topic familiarity to the writer, level of reading ability, complexity of relationship between texts, and type of writing discourse synthesis required (Spivey & King, 1989; Wiley & Voss, 1999). For L2 learners, additional challenges include L2 proficiency level, previous experience with the task, and first language reading and writing ability (Plakans, 2009a, 2009b).

Given that integrative writing is a highly complex task compared to other types of writing and is used for influential high-stakes tests, it can trigger anxiety, both general language learning anxiety as well as writing anxiety. According to Kimura (2008), anxiety has established itself as one of the most important affective factors responsible for individual differences in the success or failure of L2 learning, and it has become one of the most investigated individual differences in the field of second language acquisition (Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011). Anxiety is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), but the current consensus is that language

anxiety should be viewed as a situation-specific construct which recurs consistently overtime within the given context of language learning situations (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) were the first to propose that a situation-specific anxiety construct was a separate and distinct phenomenon particular to language learning and independent of other types of anxiety, which they referred to as foreign language anxiety.

To measure foreign language anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to assess learners' anxieties in three areas: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. This scale has been validated with good reliability and is still being used as the most efficient questionnaire to measure foreign language anxiety. However, researchers have questioned its adequacy to measure anxiety aroused in performing language skills other than speaking, considering that the majority of the items in the scale are related to speaking (Cheng, 2004). At the same time, speaking is not the only component influencing anxiety that learners face in a L2 classroom. Writing has also been seen to provoke anxiety amongst students, and research on the relationship between writing anxiety and personality characteristics has provided justification for regarding writing apprehension as a distinct form of anxiety.

Writing anxiety refers to a situation- and subject-specific individual difference related to a person's inclinations to approach or avoid situations that require writing accompanied by some amount of perceived evaluation (Daly and Miler, 1975c). 'High apprehensive' individuals find writing unrewarding and even view it as a punishment; therefore, they try to avoid situations where writing is required. This anxiety is often

reflected in their written products and in their behaviour in and attitudes toward writing situations. ‘Low apprehensive’ individuals do not mind writing and are confident in their abilities. Individuals who have writing anxiety find writing exceptionally frightening and would fear assessment because they assume they would be negatively evaluated.

Apprehension also affects satisfaction in coursework that requires writing as well as expectations of success in future writing courses or assignments. Thus, most individuals with writing anxiety would try to avoid writing as much as possible, either by failing to turn in compositions or by avoiding attending class when writing is required.

In order to measure writing anxiety, Daly and Miller (1975a) developed a standardized Likert-type writing anxiety questionnaire called the Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) related to three aspects of writing: tendencies to avoid writing, attitudes towards written communication, and feelings experienced during writing. Influenced by the WAT, Cheng (2004) created the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) specifically for L2 writers, which measures three dimensions of anxiety: physiological, behavioral, and cognitive responses. Physiological responses relate to somatic anxiety which refers to the unpleasant feelings such as nervousness and tension. Behavioral responses are characterized as avoidance behaviour which is abstaining from writing. Cognitive responses relate to cognitive anxiety and refer to the mental feature of the experience such as negative expectations, fixation with performance and apprehension about others’ perceptions.

When writing tasks are incorporated into high-stakes tests, L2 writers may also experience test anxiety that manifests in both physical responses (sweating, racing heart rate) and behavioral responses (fidgeting, pencil tapping) (Burg & Cizek, 2006). In

addition to triggering fear of negative evaluation, tests may also trigger anxiety because of their time constraints (Gallassi, Frierson, & Siegel, 1984), the testing situation (emotional atmosphere, presence of examiner, examiner-student rapport, clarity of instructions) and the test itself (e.g. perceived fairness, comprehensibility of items, perceived interest of test content) (Zeidner & Bensoussan, 1988).

In light of the anxiety that may be triggered when L2 writers are asked to perform complex integrated-writing tasks in high-stakes testing environments, an important question for instructors is how to help them prepare for these types of examinations. One way to help decrease learner anxiety is to have practice tests before a high-stakes test so that learners can simulate the test beforehand. In addition, providing students with feedback on their practice test performance may also help reduce anxiety about their writing abilities and facilitate exam preparation. Although there has been a debate concerning the effectiveness of written corrective feedback (Ferris, 1999, Truscott, 1996), several studies have shown that written feedback that helps learners pay attention to language is useful and can be incorporated into subsequent writing tasks (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). However, it is important to investigate how students perceive written feedback since feedback could make students feel anxious about their writing. Previous research has shown that students appreciate teacher feedback (Leki, 1991; Zhang, 1995), and they are eager to have all their errors pointed out by their teacher, whether local errors (i.e., spelling, grammar, and punctuation) or global errors (i.e., ideas, content, and organization) (Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991). In McCurdy's (1992, as cited in Ferris, 1995) study where students were asked about their perception of feedback they have already received, students said they paid attention to

feedback and found it helpful. Although McCurdy's (1992) study found that students also perceived a variety of problems in understanding their teacher's feedback, they also used strategies to understand the feedback, such as asking the teacher for help and looking up corrections in a grammar book.

Nonetheless, there is not much evidence to show whether there is a relationship between teacher feedback and learner anxiety. Daiker (1989, as cited in Hyland, 1998) states that student motivation and confidence in themselves as writers may be unfavourably affected by the feedback they receive. To date, only research by Hyland (1998) has findings worth noting concerning student attitudes towards feedback. Hyland investigated ESL writers' reactions to and uses of written feedback. Using a case study approach, the paper focused on two student writers who showed contrasting patterns of feedback use and who both became less positive about their writing during the course. The study suggests that there needs to be a more open teacher/student dialogue on feedback, since the data demonstrated that feedback has great potential for miscommunication and lack of motivation for the learner.

To summarize, when integrative writing is used as a high-stakes assessment, students may experience anxiety. Considering the fact that L2 writing in general is demanding and anxiety-creating (Gupta, 1998), particularly in testing situations, research is needed in order to see whether instructors can positively impact students' anxiety levels by administering practice integrative writing tests and providing them with written corrective feedback. If practice exams and feedback are incorporated into their writing classes, students might have a better idea of what they need to do in order to improve, thereby decreasing their anxiety. And given that students have expressed appreciation for

written corrective feedback, they may experience reduced anxiety about the high-stakes integrated-writing exam if they are given feedback on similar writing tasks. The purpose of the study reported here is to explore the relationships between students' anxiety and instructor feedback. The research questions were as follows:

- (1) Do the foreign language learning anxiety and writing anxiety of ESL students change over time?
- (2) What are the ESL students' perceptions about the written corrective feedback they receive on practice integrative writing exams?
- (3) Is there a relationship between the ESL students' perceptions of feedback and their test anxiety for a high-stakes integrative writing exam?

Method

Participants and Context

The participants were 53 high school students (22 boys, 31 girls) enrolled in ESL classes taught by the researcher. They ranged in age from 16-17 years old, and were in their final year of high school at a private French school located on the south shore of Montreal, Quebec. The students were French Canadians, known as francophones in Canada, and the strongest language of the majority was French. Based on the English entrance exam taken upon entering high school, the students' proficiency was at the intermediate level. At the time the study was carried out, they had received roughly 540 hours of English instruction in high school that was designed to promote three English competencies: *interacts orally in English*, *reinvests understanding of texts*, and *writes and produces texts*. At the end of the school year, the students had to pass an integrated-writing exam that assesses the latter two competencies. The exam is administered by the

Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport (MELS), and performance on the exam was crucial in determining whether students graduated from high school. The English credits from their English class are needed in order to receive the secondary school diploma, and it would have been difficult to obtain the necessary English credits without passing the integrated-writing exam.

Integrated-writing Exam

The integrated-writing exam the students took requires that students write a 400-word, issues-and-trend feature article. Students must write an information-based feature article that takes a critical look at the topic for the purpose of helping readers better understand the issues and what is at stake. One week before the exam, the students are given a preparation booklet which contains texts about the subject. Throughout the week, they are asked to read, analyze and synthesize their understanding of the texts with the help of a guiding question provided in the booklet. The day before the exam, they listen to a ten-minute audio recording about the subject followed by a group discussion to talk about the texts read and listened in order to better understand the issues presented. On the day of the exam, the students are given a prompt that narrows the scope of the topic and indicates the perspective from which they should approach the topic. They are allowed their preparation booklet to write the exam. The exam provided by the MELS for the participants was on the topic of counterfeiting, and the prompt was to examine who gets hurt by the counterfeit goods industry.

The evaluation chart for the feature article coins the organization of the text as *structure* and grammar related components such as spelling, tense, and punctuation as *form*. According to the MELS guidelines, the feature article has a contain a catchy and

engaging introduction, have a clear purpose, include informative content that is logically organized, follow appropriate paragraphing, and contain transitions that promote flow. To reflect the genre, the structure of a feature article must contain a headline and secondary headline, a lead that hooks the reader, and a closing that drives home the writer's perspective. The feature article must not contain more than two quotations, whether direct or indirect, that can be used to show credibility or provide eyewitness accounts. It must include text components such as an image with a caption, a side bar or a pull-quote, in order to add visual impact, highlight information, or include information that does not flow with the main structure of the article. The feature article must be written in the third person. In order to make the text engaging, students must skillfully use the text components, use idiomatic language, have varied sentences and rhetorical devices and could use a conversational or humorous tone.

Materials

Practice exams. In order to help the students prepare for the feature article integrated-writing exam, two practice exams were administered by the researcher. Both practice exams were created by the MELS and made available to instructors for use with their students. The topic of the first practice exam practice was Underwater Shipwrecks. Approximately half the students were told to write a feature article about the debate over the ownership of artifacts recovered from shipwrecks, while the other half were asked to examine the debate between archaeologists and treasure hunters regarding underwater shipwrecks. Both prompts were created by the MELS and included in the practice exam materials. The second practice exam was on the topic of Space Exploration, and the only

prompt provided by the MELS was to examine the main challenges of future space exploration.

Anxiety questionnaires. A total of three anxiety questionnaires were used to assess the students' general language learning anxiety and elicit their perceptions about the instructor's written feedback and the integrated-writing exam. All questionnaires were written in English.

Language learning anxiety inventory. This questionnaire measured both foreign language anxiety generally and L2 writing anxiety specifically. Appendix A provides the items organized into categories but the order of the items was scrambled when given to the participants. Compiled from items previously used by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) and Cheng (2004), the language learning anxiety questionnaire contained a total of 55 items using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." To measure foreign language anxiety, the inventory contained 32 modified items from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which was developed by Horwitz, et al. (1986). It contained statements in three domains: 11 items for communication apprehension, 15 items for test-anxiety, and 6 items for fear of negative evaluation. Because FLACS' focus was mainly on oral communication, Cheng's (2004) Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was also used to measure L2 writing anxiety specifically. The inventory consisted of 23 items and contained items related to three dimensions of anxiety: 9 items for cognitive responses, 7 items for physiological responses, and 7 items for behavioral responses. The internal response consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for the two administrations of the questionnaire (January and June, respectively) were .83 and .82 for communication anxiety, .85 and .89 for test-

anxiety, .82 and .85 for fear of negative evaluation, .82 and .77 for cognitive responses, .87 and .85 for physiological responses, and .52 and .67 for behavior responses. Due to low response consistency, the items in the category of behaviour responses were removed from the subsequent analysis. The low response consistency may be due to the inapplicability of the items to these participants, as in their instructional context it is not possible to avoid writing in English, and in their daily lives they have no need to write in English.

Instructor feedback anxiety questionnaire. The instructor feedback anxiety questionnaire was created by the researcher to measure three domains of instructor-provided feedback: apprehension of feedback, usefulness of feedback, and quality of feedback. The 24-item 5-point Likert scale ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The ten items concerning the participants’ apprehension of feedback were designed to see their attitudes and feelings towards instructor feedback. The six items concerning participants’ usefulness of feedback were designed to measure whether the participants felt the feedback would have an impact on their writing. The eight items concerning the quality of feedback were designed to measure whether the feedback was useful and understandable for the participants. Appendix B provides the items organized into categories; note that they were scrambled when given to the participants. The questionnaire was revised to promote readability and transparency based on feedback from the researcher’s colleagues and previous graduates. The internal response consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) for the two administrations of the questionnaire (February and April, respectively) were .84 and .77 for apprehension of feedback, .75 and .77 for usefulness of feedback, and .84 and .85 for quality of feedback.

Integrated-writing exam questionnaire. The integrated-writing exam questionnaire was created by the researcher to measure student test anxiety and whether the practice examinations and instructor feedback affected their anxiety for the final feature article. The items were organized into two categories: test anxiety and perception of feedback, and the 18-item 5-point Likert scale ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The category test anxiety contained 13 items to measure how the participants felt while writing the end-of-year Ministry exam. The category perception of feedback contained seven items, and the goal was to measure how helpful the feedback they received was on the two practiced exams prior to writing the final feature article. There were also nine open-ended questions to get more insight on (1) their anxiety before and while writing the test; (2) their perception of the feedback received; (3) future suggestions for the teacher to help decrease anxiety; (4) which feedback they preferred receiving; and (5) how the feedback affected their confidence level. Appendix C provides the items organized into categories, but they were scrambled when given to the participants. The questionnaire was validated for its readability and reliability by the researcher’s colleagues and previous graduates. The internal response consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) for the administration of the questionnaire (June) was .88 for test anxiety and .73 for perception of feedback.

Instructor Feedback

Each time the participants wrote a practice exam, they received written feedback from their instructor. All participants received the same type of feedback that linked to content, structure, and form. Comments referring to content were explicitly written next to the paragraphs that contained mistakes. The comments indicated how accurate the

information was, whether the developed content was shaped (e.g. lacking focus, ideas are listed, further explanation or clarification is needed) and whether the content was copied from source texts. Comments referring to the structure of the text were explicitly written. Appendix D lists the common comments that were given when the mistakes were related to the structure. When the structure was respected or the content of the body paragraphs were well developed, a checkmark was given next to the paragraph.

When feedback on form was given, all participants received unfocused indirect feedback. Depending on the error made, the error was either coded or circled. Errors that were circled were common mistakes that had already been viewed in class. Appendix D lists the general common mistakes that were circled. If the error on form was more complex, a code was given. The participants had already received a list of codes at the beginning of the school year (see Appendix E) and were already familiarized with the meaning of the codes.

Design

The current study employed a correlational design to identify the relationship between instructor feedback and English L2 students' writing anxiety. Language learning anxiety and L2 writing anxiety were measured through the language learning anxiety inventory that was administered at the beginning and at the end of the study. The participants' perceptions of the instructor feedback were measured through the instructor feedback anxiety questionnaire, which was administered after the learners completed the two practice exams and received feedback from the instructor. Both direct and indirect feedback were provided by the instructor, and the complete list of feedback types are summarized in Appendices D and E. Finally, the integrated-writing exam questionnaire

was given once the participants took the MELS exam to see whether the feedback given during the two practice exams was related to their test anxiety.

Procedure

The study was carried out over a five-month period, beginning in the middle of the school year (January) and ending in the middle of June after the students took the MELS integrated-writing exam. Before the study began, the students had already spent class time reviewing the content and structure of the integrated writing exam. All research tasks were administered following the regular classroom schedule. When the participants were not in the process of preparing for the practice exams, the regular curriculum was being continued. Questionnaires were administered five times by colleagues of the researcher, and each one took no longer than 15 minutes to complete. The researcher being the teacher did not look at the questionnaires until after the participants had graduated high school, and the colleagues kept the questionnaires until graduation.

The participants completed the language learning anxiety inventory in January before writing the first practice exam about shipwrecks, which was also written in January. After receiving their shipwreck practice exam and instructor feedback, the students had time to review the comments and then completed the instructor feedback and anxiety questionnaire in February. They completed the second practice exam about space exploration, received their space exploration exams with instructor feedback, and completed the instructor feedback and anxiety questionnaire in April. Three weeks later, the students took the MELS integrated-writing exam at the end of May, and completed the integrated-writing exam questionnaire in the following class period. Finally, the

participants completed the language learning anxiety inventory again in June at the end of the school year to determine whether their general language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety level had changed.

Data Scoring and Analysis

All Likert scale questionnaire data were subjected to SPSS analysis, yielding mainly descriptive data. For all items using 5-point Likert scales, each point on the scale was awarded a number of points from 1 to 5. For all positively worded statements, points ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) were awarded following the scale. However, the scoring was reversed for all negatively worded statements (i.e., 1 strongly disagree = 5 points). For the language learning anxiety inventory, high scores on an item represented high levels of language learning anxiety and writing anxiety. The possible range of scores for each category of anxiety was the following: communication apprehension 11 to 55; test-anxiety 15 to 75; fear of negative evaluation 7 to 35; cognitive anxiety 9 to 45; and somatic anxiety 7 to 35.

For the instructor feedback and anxiety questionnaire, high scores on an item represented high levels of anxiety in all three categories. The category *apprehension of feedback* measures how the participants perceived the feedback. The category *usefulness of feedback* measures how useful the feedback was for the participants, and the category *quality of feedback* measures whether the participants understand the feedback received. The possible range of scores for each category is the following: apprehension of feedback 10-50; usefulness of feedback 6 to 30; and quality of feedback 8 to 40.

To answer the first research question, a paired-samples *t*-test was used to compare the students' scores at the beginning and the end of the semester for each subscore on the

general language learning and writing anxiety questionnaire. To answer the second research question, a paired samples *t*-test was used to compare the students' apprehension of feedback, usefulness of feedback and quality of feedback after the first and second practice exams with instructor feedback. To answer the third research question, a Pearson correlation was carried out to determine the relationship between the students' test anxiety and their perception of feedback on the integrated writing exam questionnaire. The open-ended questions in the questionnaire were analyzed by extracting responses and considering synonyms as answers for each question and compiling frequency counts for each response type. Alpha was set at .05 for all statistical tests.

Results

The first research question asked whether foreign language learning and writing anxiety of ESL students changed over time. As shown in Table 2, the students' scores on the general language learning anxiety inventory showed little change from January to June, and the *t*-tests confirmed that there were no significant differences in their anxiety levels.

Table 2
Comparison and Data for Language Learning Anxiety Inventory

Categories of anxiety	January		June		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Communication apprehension (σ55)	26.58	6.91	25.36	6.16	1.79	.079
Test-anxiety (σ75)	36.75	9.36	35.34	9.95	1.79	.080
Fear of negative evaluation (σ35)	15.58	4.66	15.19	4.77	0.80	.427
Cognitive anxiety (σ45)	24.25	6.44	23.79	5.87	0.69	.495

Somatic anxiety ($\sigma 35$)	15.49	5.57	14.49	5.18	1.84	.072
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The second research question asked how participants' perceived the written corrective feedback they received on their practice integrated-writing exams. As shown in Table 3, the students' perceptions about the usefulness of feedback and the quality of feedback showed no change from the first practice test to the second practice test.

However, their scores for apprehension of feedback decreased significantly from the first practice exam to the second practice exam.

Table 3
Comparison and Data for Instructor Feedback Anxiety Questionnaire

Categories of feedback	After practice exam #1		After practice exam #2		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Apprehension of feedback ($\sigma 50$)	27.06	.90	23.55	.76	4.92	.001
Usefulness of feedback ($\sigma 30$)	19.06	4.96	18.32	5.20	1.32	.192
Quality of feedback ($\sigma 40$)	12.13	3.34	12.06	3.78	0.16	.875

The students' responses to the open-ended questions on the integrated-writing exam questionnaire were used to supplement the questionnaire data. When asked which feedback, among content, structure and form (with codes or without codes) they liked receiving, 33 responded that they preferred receiving feedback related to the content mainly because of its high value in the task as well as the fact that the comments related to the content showed whether they understood the readings, which made them feel better as writers. Fourteen preferred feedback on structure whereas only six said they liked feedback that was coded. None of the participants wrote about content that was uncoded.

When asked which type of feedback made the participants feel more confident with their writing, among the 52 responses received, 28 mentioned feedback for structure.

The general reasons were because it was something they had to learn and follow, and it was something they had control over: “Structure because for all the texts we get to write, it is always the same so I felt prepared for this.” Some even stated that it is something they always do well on: “The feedback on structure was mostly excellent and so it made me feel a lot more confident.” The second highest type of feedback chosen was on content (13 students), and the general reasons were that it made them realize that they understood the task and that they were on the right track: “Feedback about content because it made me realize that I’m not so far from a good grade after all.” The remaining participants selected the answers of codes (4 participants) or grammar in general (1) because it is not their weakness, so it increases their confidence, any positive feedback in general (3), and three participants stated that the lack of comments on certain parts of the integrative task made them confident in general because it made them realize they were doing well.

When asked which type of feedback made the participants feel nervous about their writing, among the 51 responses received, the results varied between content (17), structure (10), codes (8), no codes (5), content and structure (1), grammar in general (1), negative feedback in general (1) and neither of the feedback types (8). Feedback on content was selected the most in that comments on content affected the participants, and the general reasons were that it was something they struggled with but wanted to do well and did not know how to do so. Structure was another feedback selected because the participants thought they understood what they had to do: “The structure since I thought

that I had fully understood how it works.” Some even mentioned that neither of the feedback types affected their anxiety: “None made me nervous. It just helps me improve!”

The third research question asked whether there was a relationship between students’ perceptions of feedback and their test anxiety. Their mean score for the perception of feedback was 20.74 (out of 25) while their mean score for test anxiety was 29.30 (out of 50). The Pearson’s product-moment correlation showed a significant, negative correlation between the scores: $r(53) = -.516, p = .001$. The relationship between perception of feedback and test anxiety is illustrated in Figure 1.

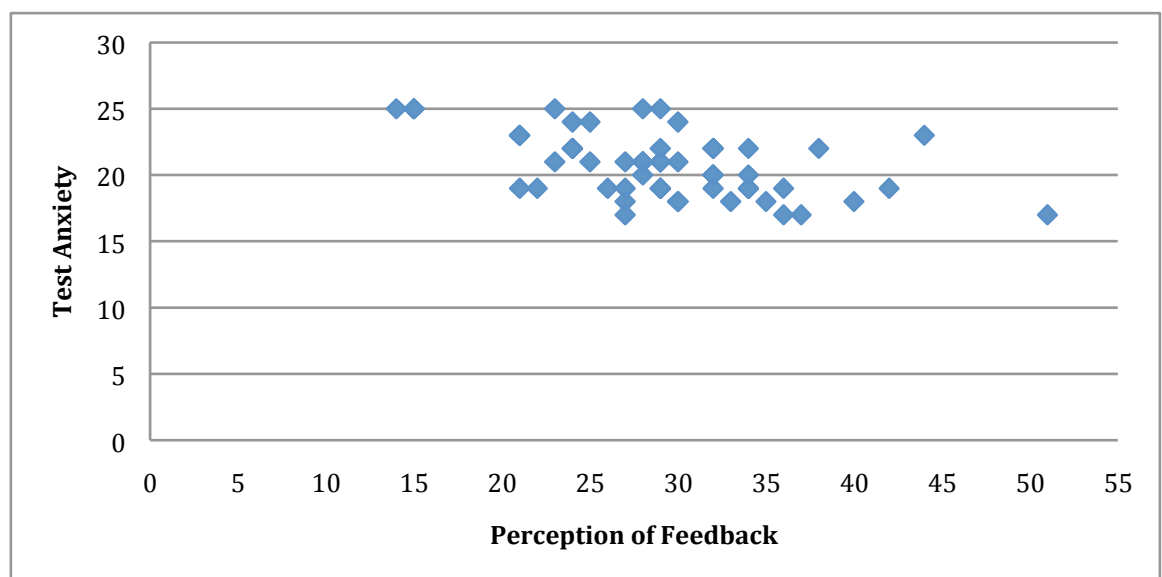


Figure 1 Relationship Between Test Anxiety and Perception of Feedback

In looking at the open-ended questions on the integrated-writing exam questionnaire, when asked to describe how they felt before writing the high stakes exam, out of the 52 responses received, 26 participants said that they were nervous for various reasons. The most common reasons mentioned were that they were anxious because they did not know the exam content and that they felt pressure due to the high stakes nature of the exam. Despite being nervous, 25 participants stated that they were confident about

taking the exam and explained with various reasons. The most popular were that they felt prepared (17 participants) and the feedback on their practice exams helped them (3 participants). One participant responded that he did not want to write the exam due to lack of sleep and made no reference to confidence or stress. When asked specifically whether instructor feedback helped them write the exam, 26 responded that the feedback reduced their stress and made them feel more confident, and 22 stated that it helped them understand how to improve and encouraged them to do better. Only three participants stated that the feedback made them more stressed, and the remaining two participants had isolated comments that did not match the other comments such as the feedback made her realize the complexity of the task and feedback in general had no effect on his anxiety. Overall, the responses correspond to the correlation in that the students' comments suggest that the instructor feedback was associated with reduced test anxiety.

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between students' anxiety and instructor feedback. In analyzing the first research question concerning foreign language learning and writing anxiety development overtime, it comes as no surprise that the scores on the general language learning anxiety inventory showed little change from January to June. The data confirms previous research that language learning anxiety should be considered as a situation-specific construct that recurs habitually overtime in language learning situations given that the participants' anxiety towards second language learning was relatively stable throughout the five month period of the study (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). At the same time, given that there is a high stakes end of year exam, this could help explain

why test anxiety did not decrease. The participants were aware that performance on the exam is crucial in order to graduate from high school. However, it is worth noting that the category test anxiety did not increase at the end of the year when they took the exam.

For the second research question, the students' perceptions about the instructor feedback showed little change in terms of the quality and usefulness of feedback, but their apprehension of instructor feedback decreased for the second practice exam. Previous research has shown that students are eager to have all their errors pointed out to them, whether they are local errors (i.e., spelling, grammar, and punctuation) or global errors (i.e., ideas, content, and organization) (Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991). In looking at the open-ended responses, the participants' statements show that they appreciated feedback on the elements of the task that were worth more: content and structure. The majority did not like the comments related to grammar (whether coded or not coded) either because they did not understand the codes or because of the fact that grammar is not worth as much as content and structure for the integrative task. This supports McCurdy (1992) in that students have difficulty understanding feedback at times, and it also explains why there was no change from the first practice test to the second practice test for the mean and standard deviation for the categories *usefulness of feedback* and *quality of feedback*.

Although there was no decline within the ratings for the categories *usefulness of feedback* and *quality of feedback*, the ratings are nonetheless relatively low. This is in line with Truscott (1996), who has argued that written corrective feedback is ineffective and potentially harmful, stating that teachers are incapable of providing useful and consistent feedback. However, 26 participants stated that the feedback made them feel more confident and actually reduced their stress to write the final exam. At the same

time, according to 22 participants, the feedback either helped them want to improve for the next written production or confirmed that they were on the right track. This supports Ferris (1999), who claimed that feedback can be helpful, and fits with the purpose of the study as it gave the participants assurance. In looking at the open-ended questions, the students were more confident with the sections they could control, such as the structure of the integrative task, because it is something they need to study and can master with practice. However, given the variation in answers as to which type of feedback made the learners less confident about their writing ability, it is difficult to figure out which type of feedback affects learner discourse since feedback on writing affects each person individually.

In analyzing the third research question whether there was a relationship between students' perceptions of feedback and their test anxiety, the results showed a significant, negative correlation between the two categories, meaning positive perceptions of feedback were associated with lower test anxiety. This does not confirm with Daiker (1989, as cited in Hyland, 1998) who stated that student confidence in themselves as writers may be negatively affected by the feedback received. In contrast, out of 53 participants, only three stated they were more stressed whereas the majority stated that after feedback, they felt more confident or felt encouraged to do better.

Nonetheless, there could be other factors involved to explain the negative correlation. Given that the end of the school year was near, the students could have been relieved that the work required for English class was coming to an end and felt better overall about the exam. It could also be because the topic chosen for the integrative

writing exam (counterfeiting) was more interesting than the practice exams (underwater shipwrecks and space exploration).

Implications

The students' responses to the open-ended questions raised a number of topics that have potential pedagogical implications. First, students still need positive encouragement and feedback. As much as teachers try to help students by providing a great deal of comments, a positive and encouraging attitude to the learners can prevent them from giving up or feeling flustered towards their writing as was the case for a few anxious students. Also, given the fact that integrative writing is gaining more widespread recognition as a valid task for assessing academic writing, teachers need to make sure they properly teach students how to incorporate source text materials appropriately and teach them strategies for paraphrasing, especially in ESL settings where independent writing tasks have been the norm. Although the study did not consider the grades of the participants for the practice exams, the researcher, also being the teacher, noticed low averages for the practice exams, showing participants' difficulty mastering the task due to improper source borrowing. Extensive exercises on paraphrasing need to be practiced before administering integrative writing tasks. Furthermore, feedback, whether direct or indirect, needs to be practiced given the number of students that outlined their difficulty in understanding the comments referring to form.

It is important to note that teaching the feature article and administering the practice exams took a lot of preparation and class time. A pause in the curriculum was undergone every time the participants wrote a practice exam. Class time was also needed

once the participants received the practice exams with the feedback to allow the participants to read the feedback.

Since the researcher was the teacher, the questionnaires were not viewed until the participants had graduated high school. This was done to prevent the students from filling out the questionnaires to please their teacher in writing good comments as opposed to their true perceptions towards the feedback. However, if the teacher had seen the participants' answers throughout the study, the teacher could have taught the material differently to find ways to decrease anxiety, and this could have had an impact on the results. After viewing the results of the study, in the future the teacher will spend more class time focusing on teaching paraphrasing and synthesizing material, as that is a challenge for ESL students, and perhaps give fewer evaluations.

Limitations

As with most research, there are limitations. The participants used for the study were teenagers, and given that the researcher was the teacher, some students could have answered the questionnaires in favour of the teacher even though it was outlined in the consent forms that the teacher would not see their responses until after they had graduated. At the same time, during the study some teenagers got upset over their grades for the practice exams and blamed their teacher even though the exams and rubric were not created by the teacher. This could have had a negative impact on the results. Some comments and suggestions were beyond the teacher's control, such as giving more time for classroom discussion or practice writing the exam in a three-hour block versus during class time. This shows the students' lack of understanding of the explanations provided at the beginning of the course.

More research is warranted on feedback and anxiety. The participants were highly interested in the feedback received because performance on the exam is crucial in order to graduate. Considering that the feedback was given for practice exams to help prepare for the end of year exam, more research is needed on whether feedback has an effect on exams in general and not only for high stake environments.

Conclusion

Integrative writing is being used in large-scale assessment environments that can trigger anxiety, resulting in a debilitating writing task that can negatively impact L2 learners' linguistic performance. This study found that students' test anxiety was negatively correlated with positive perceptions about feedback relating to content, structure and form. This has implications at the classroom level. Anxious learners would benefit from feedback to decrease their anxiety for high stakes exams. It is important to take into consideration that feedback alone will not decrease anxiety but that both the learner and the teacher have a role to play as well. Finally, there is a need for evidence whether feedback has an effect on anxiety for exams in general and not only in high stakes environments.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCLUSION

Anxiety has been viewed as one of the most important affective factors responsible for individual differences in the success or failure of L2 learning; there are many forms of anxiety since it is not a unitary phenomenon. Given the lack of change between the scores on the general language learning anxiety inventory development overtime, the study supports previous research that language anxiety exists and is viewed as a situation-specific construct that recurs consistently overtime within the context of language learning situations where learners can feel scared and tense in an L2 environment or when they need to use the L2 for speaking, reading, listening or writing purposes (Horwitz, Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). In looking at writing anxiety specifically, the participants in the study did experience apprehension in relation to Cheng's (2004) SLWAI and more specifically to the physiological and cognitive responses. However, the participants could not avoid the end of year written exam, and although this exam is dreaded by most students, the participants were required to take part in the task in order to graduate high school. This explains the low response consistency for the avoidance behaviour category found in the SLWAI questionnaire and was omitted.

This study found that there is a relationship between test anxiety and corrective feedback amongst learners in that learner anxiety decreases with comments and remarks related to student discourse. This supports Ferris (1999) that feedback is in fact helpful in that it gave the participants the confidence to write the exam with less apprehension. However, given the little change in terms of the results for quality and usefulness of the feedback found in the instructor feedback anxiety questionnaire, the study supports McCurdy (1992) in that students have difficulty understanding feedback. Coded

feedback seems to be the norm teachers use to correct grammar; however, according to the study, this was one type of corrective feedback given that the participants had difficulty understanding and therefore did not find useful. Even though the participants stated they appreciate and want feedback, teachers need to take the time to teach learners how to understand feedback in order to self-correct so that they can apply these corrections to subsequent tasks, especially if coded and uncoded feedback is being used to correct grammar, structure and content at the same time.

The Quebec context was chosen for the study because the high stakes exam involved has only been administered two times as an end of year exam, and there has been a very negative reaction towards this exam amongst students and even teachers. The purpose of the study was to explore the relationships between students' anxiety and instructor feedback to see whether written feedback can reduce anxiety. Given the results of the study, feedback can help anxious learners to understand their mistakes so that they can improve. Subsequent practices need to be administered though with adequate and relevant feedback in order for anxiety to be affected in a positive way.

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Appendix A

Name _____

Language Learning Anxiety Inventory

Instructions: For the following statements, circle the number that applies to you.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Communication Apprehension</u>					
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am not nervous speaking English with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel confident when I speak in English class.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I usually feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Test-Anxiety</u>					
1. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I get scared when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I often feel like not going to my English class.	1	2	3	4	5

13. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Fear of Negative Evaluation</u>					
1. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Cognitive Anxiety</u>					
1. I don't worry at all about what other people think of my English composition.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I'm not afraid at all that my English compositions would be given a poor grade.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I don't worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I'm afraid that the other students would make fun of my English composition if they read it.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I'm afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. While writing in English, I'm not nervous at all.	1	2	3	4	5
7. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.	1	2	3	4	5
8. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Somatic Anxiety</u>					
1. My thoughts become mixed when I write English compositions under a time limit.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My mind goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often feel panic when I write English compositions under a limited timeframe.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I tremble or sweat when I write English compositions under time pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under a limited timeframe.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when I write English compositions.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.	1	2	3	4	5

Avoidance Behaviour

1. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Whenever possible, I would use English to write compositions.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in English.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Unless I have no choice, I would not use English to write compositions.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Name _____

Instructor Feedback Anxiety Questionnaire

Instructions: Now that you have completed the [first/second] feature article practice about [underwater shipwrecks/space exploration] and received feedback from your teacher, how do you feel about the feedback you received? Remember that feedback means the comments/guidelines the teacher gave you to help you improve your writing. For the following statements, circle the number that applies to you.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Apprehension of Feedback</u>					
1. The feedback made me nervous about my writing ability.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The feedback did not make me stressed about my writing ability.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I felt nervous when I saw that the teacher wrote comments in my feature article.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Seeing comments from my teacher did not make me feel stressed.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoyed receiving feedback because I felt that the teacher was trying to help.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I did not like the comments from the teacher because I felt the teacher was attacking my writing ability.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The feedback received did not affect my attitude towards the writing task.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I did not care that there was feedback given.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Reading the comments from my teacher makes me more nervous to write the next time.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Reading the feedback decreased my anxiety because I know how to improve.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Usefulness of Feedback</u>					
1. I don't like getting feedback because I don't know how to improve.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I like receiving feedback but I still don't know how to improve.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I don't like receiving feedback because I don't want to know how to improve.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I enjoy receiving feedback because I try to understand the comments so that I can do better the next time.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I see no need to receive feedback because I rarely understand what the teacher means.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I do not know how to apply the feedback that I received.	1	2	3	4	5

<u>Quality of Feedback</u>					
1. The feedback was helpful.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The comments were not useful.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I did not understand any of the feedback received.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I understood the feedback received.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I found the feedback unclear.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The feedback received did not confuse me.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I don't need help from my teacher to understand the comments.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I need support from my teacher to understand the comments received.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Name _____

Integrated-Writing Exam Questionnaire

Instructions: Now that you have just written the final feature article, circle the following statements that apply to you concerning the MELS exam and the feedback received during the two practice tests.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Test Anxiety</u>					
1. I was tense and uneasy writing the test.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I was not nervous writing the test.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I felt unprepared writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I felt ready writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think I was overreacting before writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Although I was overreacting before the test, I had a reason to be nervous because it was difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The test was not so hard after all.	1	2	3	4	5
8. We should have done more than two practice tests.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Doing two practice tests was enough practice.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My ideas and words came easy while writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I had difficulty concentrating while writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I did not know what to do during this test.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I was confident while writing this test.	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Perception of Feedback</u>					
1. The feedback from the two practiced tests helped me to write this test.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The comments from the two practiced tests from my teacher were useless since I still did not know how to write this test.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I could not remember the feedback I received from the two practiced tests.	1	2	3	4	5

4. I remembered the feedback I received from the practice test but I did not know how to apply it.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I remembered the feedback I received from the two practiced tests and applied it to the best of my ability to write the MELS exam.	1	2	3	4	5

1. How did you feel before writing this test? Explain why you felt this way.

2. Did getting teacher feedback on your practice tests affect how you felt about this test? Explain your answer.

3. Did getting teacher feedback on your practice tests affect the quality of your writing while taking this test?

4. What do you think your teacher should have done to help reduce your anxiety or increase your confidence in writing the end of year exam?

5. Which type of feedback did you prefer receiving? Rank them in order of preference.

- a) feedback on content
- b) feedback on form with codes (VT, S, SP etc.)
- c) feedback on form that is not coded (underlined or circled)
- d) feedback on structure

6. From the items listed in #5, which type of feedback did you appreciate the most? Why?

7. From the items listed in #5, which type of feedback did you think was useless or a waste? Why?

8. From the items listed in #5, which type of feedback made you feel more confident about your writing? Why?

9. From the items listed in #5, which type of feedback made you nervous about your writing? Why?

Appendix D

List of Written Comments Given Referring to Feature Article Structure

Text Form	Comments
Headline	subject? simple no period
Secondary headline	1 sentence no period angle?
Lead	not catchy enough angle? too short/simple
Body	subheadings will help
Closing	not very effective full circle? reader doesn't feel need to reflect
Picture	caption? integrate IN a paragraph more detail needed irrelevant location
Side-Bar	integrate IN a paragraph irrelevant location no use
Pull-Quote	integrate IN a paragraph irrelevant location not a catchy quote quote accurately

List of Common Mistakes that Were Circled

Mistake	Example
Verb tense conjugation	simple tenses, progressive tenses, past participle
Singular/plural nouns	spelling
Articles	a vs. an
Simple spelling mistakes	futur, wich
Names	M. John Smith
Capitalization	english, french
Punctuation	commas in parallel structure; joining two independent clauses

Note. This is a general list. The teacher only circles the mistakes when the participants have viewed them in class and should, therefore, know the mistake made and how to correct them.

Appendix E

Guidelines to Correct Errors

- S** Spelling mistake
- P** Punctuation
What did he say__ What did he say?
- C** Capitalization
I am studying english. I am studying English
- SP** Singular-Plural: could be a singular/plural change
Two shoe Two shoes
- WF** Word form: right word but not in the right form
I saw a beauty picture. I saw a beautiful picture.
- WC** Word choice: change your word
She got on the taxi. She got into the taxi.
- PO** Possession: omit or add possession
It is Julie sweater. It is Julie's sweater.
- ^** Add word: missing a word
I want () go to the zoo. I want to go to the zoo.
- WO** Word order: right words, but not in the right order
I saw five times the movie. I saw the movie five times.
- VT** Verb tense: not in the right tense
I go to the store yesterday. I went to the store yesterday.
- SV** Subject-verb agreement
He eat sandwiches every day. He eats sandwiches every day.
- IS** Incomplete sentence
*I went to bed. Because I was tired.
I went to bed because I was tired.*
- ROS** Run-on sentence
*My roommate was sleeping, I didn't want to wake her.
My roommate was sleeping. I didn't want to wake her.*
- AWK** Awkward
Rephrase your sentence

R Repetitive/redundant
Fix your word/phrase/sentence