

Examining Emotional Responses to Written Feedback and the Role Emotions Play on
Second Language Writing Performance

by

Alesia Malec
Bachelor of Arts, University of Victoria, 2011

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the Department of Linguistics

© Alesia Malec, 2013
University of Victoria

All rights reserved. This thesis may not be reproduced in whole or in part, by photocopy
or other means, without the permission of the author.

Supervisory Committee

Examining Emotional Responses to Written Feedback and the Role Emotions Play on
Second Language Writing Performance

by

Alesia Malec

Bachelor of Arts, University of Victoria, 2011

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Li-Shih Huang, (Department of Linguistics)
Supervisor

Dr. Hossein Nassaji (Department of Linguistics)
Departmental Member

Abstract

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Li-Shih Huang, (Department of Linguistics)

Supervisor

Dr. Hossein Nassaji (Department of Linguistics)

Departmental Member

The influence of affective factors on learning has been studied by researchers in a range of disciplines, including within SLA research, where tests measuring anxiety specific to second language writing have been developed (Cheng, 2004). Recent studies on instructor perceptions show increasing numbers of second language learners (SLL) enrolled in mainstream university courses with instructors providing varying types of feedback to these learners. The current study investigates how the writing anxiety of second language learners in a mainstream context may relate to writing performance and how feedback anxiety resulting from one written assignment may be connected to writing performance on a subsequent assignment. Using modified writing anxiety survey instruments, 16 SLLs enrolled in two mainstream university English composition courses (taught by two instructors) completed two surveys, an informal interview, and an online questionnaire about feedback on two writing assignments prepared for their course; feedback and a grade from one assignment and a grade from a second assignment were also collected. Mainstream instructors were found to balance feedback provided to learners between content and organization feedback and grammatical feedback, similar to findings on feedback practices for second language instructors (Evans et al., 2010). Statistical analyses between survey results and grades revealed negative (non-statistically

significant) correlations between anxiety scores (from surveys) and grades. Participants expressed 16 different emotions in response to feedback through qualitative data collection methods (open-ended survey questions, interviews, and online questionnaire); hope, acceptance, and anxiety were the three most commonly emotions reported. The number and complexity of emotional responses reported indicate that anxiety is only one of numerous responses to feedback and research on the effects of affective factors on learning may benefit from investigations of other emotions, including pleasant or positive emotions. Two data collection methods converged in reporting that nearly all participants made use of feedback through one or more forms of follow up action. Continued research into the complex emotions inspired by writing feedback may provide a deeper understanding of how SLLs may moderate their own emotional responses and provide instructors insight into additional factors that may affect learners' writing performance.

Table of Contents

Supervisory Committee	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Acknowledgments.....	x
Chapter One – Introduction	1
1.1. Background	1
1.1. Outline.....	2
Chapter Two – Literature Review.....	3
2.1. Introduction.....	3
2.2. Definitions.....	3
2.3. Research on Affective Factors	4
2.3.1. Psychology and Education.....	4
2.3.2. Second Language Acquisition.	7
2.4. Language Anxiety and L2 Writing	9
2.5. Written Corrective Feedback	11
2.5.1. Theoretical Background.....	11
2.5.2. The Effectiveness Debate.	12
2.5.3. Learner and Instructor Perceptions of WCF.	18
2.6. Research Methods	23
Chapter Three - Methodology.....	25
3.1. Course Descriptions	25
3.2. Participants.....	26
3.3. Instruments.....	28
3.3.1. Background.....	28
3.3.2. EWAT.....	28
3.3.3. SLWFAI.....	29
3.3.4. Interview.	30
3.3.5. Online Questionnaire.	30
3.4. Data Collection	31
3.4.1. Instrument and Procedures Field Test.....	31
3.4.2. Recruitment.....	33
3.4.3. Meeting 1 – EWAT.....	34
3.4.4. Meeting 2 – SLWFAI, Interview, and Essay Collection.	35
3.4.5. Online Questionnaire.	36
3.5. Data Preparation.....	37
3.5.1. Inclusion and Exclusion of Data.	37
3.5.2. Transcription and Coding.	38

3.6.	Data Analysis	47
Chapter Four – Results and Discussion		50
4.1.	Essay Feedback.....	50
4.1.1.	Results.....	50
4.1.2.	Discussion.....	54
4.2.	Guiding Question One	56
4.2.1.	EWAT Scores, Essay One Grades and Feedback.....	57
4.2.2.	Individual EWAT Survey Questions – Group Results.....	59
4.2.3.	Discussion.....	61
4.3.	Guiding Question Two.....	62
4.3.1.	SLWFAI Scores, EWAT Scores, Grades, and Feedback.....	63
4.3.2.	Individual SLWFAI Survey Questions – Group Results.....	66
4.3.3.	Qualitative Data – Survey, Interview, and Online Questions.....	67
4.3.4.	Summary and Discussion – Guiding Question Two.....	77
4.4.	Data Collection Method Cross-examination.....	84
4.4.1.	Closed-ended Survey Questions – EWAT and SLWFAI.....	84
4.4.2.	Open-ended SLWFAI and Interview Questions.....	85
4.4.3.	Closed-Ended SLWFAI and Interview.....	90
4.5.	Summary and Discussion of Key Findings.....	91
4.5.1.	Statistical Results.....	91
4.5.2.	Feedback Practices and Perceptions of Feedback.....	92
4.5.3.	Number and Complexity of Emotions	94
4.5.4.	Participants’ Responsiveness to Feedback.....	95
Chapter Five – Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions		97
5.1.	Implications.....	97
5.1.1.	Empirical.....	97
5.1.2.	Methodological.....	98
5.1.3.	Pedagogical.....	100
5.2.	Limitations	102
5.2.1.	Study Size.....	102
5.2.2.	Methodology.....	103
5.3.	Future Directions	107
Chapter Six – Conclusion		111
References.....		112
Appendix A English Writing Apprehension Test (EWAT).....		120
Appendix B Second Language Writing Feedback Apprehension Inventory (SLWFAI).....		122
Appendix C Interview Guiding Questions.....		124
Appendix D Final Online Questionnaire		125
Appendix E Sample Essay		126
Appendix F Participant Background Information.....		129
Appendix G Feedback Categories and Definitions for Coding Feedback		131
Appendix H EWAT Survey Responses		134
Appendix I SLWFAI Open-ended Questions Results (Questions 13 to 19)		136

This page is intentionally left blank

List of Tables

Table 1	<i>Pekrun's Taxonomy of Academic Emotions</i>	7
Table 2	<i>Participant Characteristics</i>	27
Table 3	<i>Emotion Categories and Examples for Coding</i>	43
Table 4	<i>Essay Feedback Results by Individual Category</i>	51
Table 5	<i>Feedback Results by Category Groups</i>	52
Table 6	<i>Feedback Occurrences for Participants by Category</i>	53
Table 7	<i>Content Feedback Occurrences Breakdown by Participant</i>	54
Table 8	<i>Spearman's Correlations Between Surveys, Grades, and Feedback</i>	59
Table 9	<i>Sample EWAT Survey Results</i>	60
Table 10	<i>SLWFAI Closed-ended Survey Results</i>	67

List of Figures

Figure 1	<i>Participant EWAT Scores and Grades on First Essay</i>	58
Figure 2	<i>SLWFAI Scores and Essay 2 Grades by Participant</i>	64
Figure 3	<i>Results for Interview Question “What do you do after you review the feedback?”</i>	75
Figure 4	<i>SLWFAI Question 14 and Interview Question 4 Results</i>	88

Acknowledgments

Despite frequent feelings to the contrary and one author named on the document, it is impossible for a master's thesis project to be achieved in isolation. First and foremost I want to thank my supervisor, Dr. Li-Shih Huang, for her guidance, support, advice, time, interest, and humour throughout this process. I am exceedingly grateful to you, Dr. Huang. I also want to thank Dr. Hossein Nassaji for his support through the suggestions made in preparation for my study, for graciously serving on my committee, and for providing me with insightful comments. Thanks are due Ross Zariski for his time and efforts navigating a coding scheme in its infancy and to Trish Hannigan for going well beyond "helping with coding" to being a source of insight and inspiration and also, for being a friend. Thank you to Dr. MacLeod and Dr. Pickard for your interest in my project and willingness to encourage your students to participate and, most importantly, thank you to my participants, who enthusiastically shared their time, their essays, and their emotions with me. You helped me turn an idea into reality. Finally, to Karla, for being the sister that every woman should have, and to Mum, for everything else – thanks.

Chapter One – Introduction

1.1. Background

Over the past several decades, research on written corrective feedback (WCF) in second language acquisition (SLA) has focused primarily on the effectiveness of its use in contributing to learning how to write in a second or additional language. The debate between the non-supporter side of the debate, led by Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007), and those that support the use of WCF, represented by Ferris (1999, 2004) and others (eg., Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Storch, 2010), has remained a prominent field of enquiry in WCF research but has yet to culminate in a satisfactory resolution. Simultaneous to the “effectiveness debate” in WCF, interest in the influence of affective factors (i.e., moods or emotions) on learning and cognition has been widely studied by researchers in a range of disciplines – primarily education and psychology (e.g., Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Haidt, 2007; Lazarus, Averill, & Opton, 1970; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Zimmerman, 1995). Within SLA research, this “affective revolution” (Haidt, 2007, p. 998) has sparked investigations into the effects of anxiety on second language learning, but few studies (if any) have yet to examine the affective responses second language learners experience to feedback they receive on written works and how this may relate to subsequent written performance.

The purpose of the current study is to extend the research on writing feedback to include affective factors and potential connections to learner performance. Building from previous research on the effectiveness and perceptions of WCF, and using modified tools created to measure second language writing anxiety, this research contributes to the body of WCF research by examining the overlooked question of how anxiety may or may not

be related to the effectiveness of feedback. The influence of anxiety on learning has been established in other disciplines (e.g., psychology and education) and a relationship may exist between second language writing anxiety and the effectiveness of feedback on writing in a second language.

1.1. Outline

The thesis is organized in five remaining chapters. Chapter two includes a review of the literature on affective factors research in education and psychology and on language anxiety research within SLA research, as well as a discussion of SLA theory, the debate within WCF research over its effectiveness, and a review of previous work on feedback perception. Chapter three describes the research methodology, including participants, data collection methods, and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data. Chapter four presents the results and accompanying discussions related to the two guiding questions along with a summary and discussion of key findings. Chapter five outlines the implications, limitations, and future directions stemming from the study, and chapter six is the conclusion of the thesis.

Chapter Two – Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter includes definitions of terms used in the thesis followed by a discussion of research on affective factors as well as corrective feedback. Research on affective factors within second language acquisition has been gaining attention; however, extensive research has been conducted in fields outside of SLA. The following discussion will encompass research conducted in varying fields with a strong focus on research within psychology and education. A review of the work carried out on written corrective feedback will highlight on the debate over its effectiveness, its theoretical foundations, and a discussion of learner and instructor perceptions.

The chapter is divided into four main sections: 1) definitions, 2) research pertaining to affective factors, 3) research pertaining specifically to language anxiety and writing in a second language, and 4) a review of written corrective feedback research including discussions of the theoretical background, the debate over its effectiveness, and learner and instructor perceptions of WCF.

2.2. Definitions

This thesis employs the following definitions of feedback and anxiety. The terms direct feedback and indirect feedback are not always consistently used by researchers; however, the definition of direct or explicit corrective feedback is feedback in which errors are both overtly identified and subsequently corrected (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005). This type of correction may consist of errors being crossed out and corrected, missing words inserted, ungrammatical sentences edited for structure,

providing meta-linguistic information, as well as including an oral feedback session with an instructor (Bitchener, 2008).

Different definitions for anxiety have been proposed and, across disciplines, there is a lack of clarity and consensus on its definition. In earlier research, language anxiety was not considered a separate type of anxiety (Scovel, 1978); however, more recently, language anxiety, second language anxiety, or foreign language anxiety has been recognized as “a unique type of anxiety that causes worry and negative emotional reactions...[and]...differs from the kind of anxiety that relates to public speaking, test taking, or communication apprehension” (Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009, p. 95). Facilitative anxiety is explained as a type of anxiety that can function to improve performance while debilitating anxiety serves to impede performance (Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009; Scovel, 1978). Writing anxiety and second language writing anxiety are forms of language anxiety specific to performing writing tasks.

2.3. Research on Affective Factors

2.3.1. Psychology and Education.

Previous research in psychology and education has examined a broad range of affective factors. Within the field of psychology, the role of emotion on both personal behaviour and personal beliefs has shown, for example, that affective states have an effect on how people view their level of satisfaction with their lives as well as how they judge risk (Beukeboom & Semin, 2006). Education research has considered the influence of affect on a wide array of subjects including links between emotion and learning in gifted children (Delcourt, Cornell, & Goldberg, 2007), nursing (de Witt, 2012), geosciences (McConnell & van Der Hoeven Kraft, 2011), and mathematics (Walshaw &

Brown, 2012), to cite only a few. Motivation, positive and negative moods, and specific emotions including enjoyment, pride, boredom, and anxiety have been studied by various researchers with an interest in understanding how affective factors relate to cognitive processing (in psychology) (see Isen, 1987; Keltner, Locke, & Audrain, 1993; Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993) and to academic or learning achievement (in education) (see de Jong, 2009; Demetriou & Wilson, 2009; D'Mello & Graesser, 2012; Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Pekrun, 1992; Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002).

The fields of psychology and education have examined the link between affective states and cognitive processes, recognizing that cognition and emotion are not separate (Beukeboom & de Jong, 2008). The impact that affect has on cognitive processes extends to language learning where moods have been shown to have an effect on language processing and language use (Beukeboom & de Jong, 2008; Forgas, 1999a, 1999b). In 2005, Beukeboom and Semin examined the effects of either a positive mood or a negative mood on the written language production of university students. Students were exposed to either a positive mood-inducing or a negative mood-inducing film clip and then asked to relay, in writing, a significant life event. The descriptions were then assessed based on the Linguistic Category Model's categorization of different verbs and adjectives (Semin & Fiedler, 1988, 1992) with respect to abstractness and concreteness. In all four of the study treatments conducted, participants exposed to the positive images included more abstract (i.e., creative) language in their descriptions of their life events, while the participants exposed to the negative images used more concrete language. The focus of this study was not to investigate the effect of emotion on written language production, but on language production in general; however, the language produced by

the participants was in the written form (albeit, not in a second or additional language). The results from this study demonstrate the connection between affective factors and its effect on written language production and a similar effect could be hypothesized for second language learners.

A primary research focus of psychologist Pekrun (1992) and associates (Pekrun et al., 2002) has been the linkages among cognitive processing and emotions and the effects on learning and achievement. In his 1992 analysis, Pekrun investigated the influence of students' emotions on learning and achievement and states that "emotions may be an essential part of students' psychological life, and that they may profoundly influence academic motivation, cognitive strategies of learning and achieving, and resulting achievement" (p. 360). Pekrun identifies anxiety as a negative emotion that may have an "activating" (p. 371) effect, but it may also result in avoidance behaviours in students. He does not delineate anxiety specifically into facilitative or debilitating categories and recognizes that, despite defining anxiety as a negative emotion, it is complex and may trigger opposing motivations or outcomes (i.e., action or avoidance).

The 2002 study undertaken by Pekrun et al. examined "academic emotions" (p. 91) in three academic settings: 1) class attendance, 2) studying, and 3) test taking and found that "students' academic emotions [were] closely linked to their learning...and scholastic achievement" (p. 100). Essay writing was not specifically identified for the study nor was it the focus of the study and it remains open to interpretation whether or not essay writing was included in the category labelled "studying." However, Pekrun highlights the reciprocal nature of causation between emotions on one side and learning and achievement on the other in his 1992 analysis, as well as in the 2002 study with

Goetz, Titz, and Perry. Emotions influence learning and achievement; however, “feedback of achievement in turn affect[s] [the students’] emotions” (p. 100). From this conclusion, it can be extrapolated that feedback of lack of achievement may similarly affect students’ emotions, which, based on Pekrun et al.’s concept of “reciprocal causation” (p. 100), may also have an effect on student behaviours and motivations. In short, academic feedback may result in affective responses that lead to behaviours influencing achievement; these reactions may be applied to all types of learners, including second language learners. Taxonomy of academic emotions was developed based on the findings of the 1992 and 2002 studies; the schema of Pekrun’s academic emotions is found in Table 1.

Table 1

Pekrun’s Taxonomy of Academic Emotions (1992; 2002)

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Negative</u>
Enjoyment	Boredom
Joy	Hopelessness
Hope	Anxiety
Satisfaction	Disappointment
Pride	Shame and guilt
Relief	

2.3.2. Second Language Acquisition.

Within the field of SLA, affective factors and WCF has not been specifically examined, but affective factors have not been entirely ignored by SLA researchers. A

study conducted by Matthews (2010), involving university aged beginner level second language learners who received one-on-one tutoring sessions with a language tutor, was interested in discovering factors that influenced positive motivation for learning. The tutoring sessions that focused on specific goals, were shorter in length, and included instruction on language rules and structure were found to be the most motivationally effective. The tutees in Matthews (2010) study who came to the tutoring sessions with a clear idea of the specific grammatical items they wanted to discuss with the tutor showed “greater tutee self-efficacy gains” (p. 629). These sessions also tended to be shorter in length as a result of the focused goals of the sessions. These findings demonstrate how the amount (related to session length), type (grammatical), and focus (specific items) of feedback could affect learner motivation – a finding which may be transferable to second language (L2) writing learners.

One of the more prominent areas of SLA research and affective factors has been the study of the effects of anxiety on language learning (e.g., Cheng, 2004; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; Sheen, 2008). A 2009 study by Marcos-Llinás and Garau focused on the relationship between language anxiety and language skill development. Their study examined overall language development with writing instruction included as part of the foreign language courses in which the participants were enrolled. Here the researchers looked at the effects of anxiety on three levels of L2 learners and found that, while more advanced learners were reported to have higher levels of anxiety, this did not necessarily translate into lower levels of achievement (based on course grades). However, no delineation was made between facilitative anxiety and debilitating anxiety in the study. Given the results,

the influence of these two types of anxiety would have been instructive had associations been made with learner proficiency level and anxiety level according to type (facilitative or debilitating). Perhaps the advanced learners experienced more facilitative anxiety, and thus, the anxiety did not adversely affect their performance.

2.4. Language Anxiety and L2 Writing

As demonstrated in the Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) study, identifying the specific type of anxiety to be examined in a study is important, as is the ability to appropriately measure a specific type of anxiety. In 2001, Horwitz reiterated a recommendation made by Scovel that “language researchers should be specific about the type of anxiety they are measuring” (Scovel, 1978 as cited in Horwitz, 2001, p. 113) in order to understand how specific types of anxiety may be related to achievement in L2 learning and identified foreign language anxiety as a “situation-specific anxiety” (p. 113). The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) as a situation-specific anxiety testing tool to identify correlations between foreign language anxiety and language learning achievement, using grades as a measurement. Researchers using the tool have, in several instances, found negative correlations between foreign language anxiety and grades (the measure of achievement) (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Saito & Saminy, 1996) where higher levels of anxiety were correlated to lower grades, and vice versa. However, the FLCAS was not designed specifically with L2 writing anxiety in mind. Cheng et al. (1999) recognized that writing apprehension or anxiety differed from speaking apprehension and set out to establish that the FLCAS was more applicable to speaking apprehension than to writing. Using a version of the Daly-Miller (1975)

Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) modified for L2 learners, which was originally developed to measure the writing apprehension of native users of English, and the FLCAS, Cheng et al. found that the FLCAS correlated more strongly with speaking apprehension and the Second Language Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT) correlated more strongly with writing apprehension. This led to the conclusion that, given their findings, second language writing anxiety “appear[ed] to be a language-skill-specific anxiety” (Cheng et al., 1999, p. 437) and a separate instrument should be used to measure writing anxiety in L2 learners.

As a follow-up to the Cheng et al.’s (1999) study, Cheng (2004) embarked on the development and validation of the Second Language Writing Apprehension Inventory (SLWAI). Cheng created the SLWAI by administering a questionnaire of open-ended questions to learners of English as an additional language (EAL) pertaining to their anxiety when writing in English. From the responses, a questionnaire, modeled after statements on other anxiety questionnaires (e.g., WAT), was created and administered to a group of L2 learners. Using exploratory factor analysis to evaluate the validity of the SLWAI, Cheng examined the 22 items on the SLWAI and 10 items from the English Writing Self-efficacy Scale to delineate second language writing anxiety from beliefs about writing ability and found that no items from either test loaded onto any factor not found on its respective test. In other words, no items from a writing anxiety factor loaded onto a self-efficacy factor and vice versa. Cheng also calculated Cronbach’s coefficient α to examine the internal consistency of the SLWAI, which resulted in a reliability estimate of .91 over two administrations of the inventory. From these results, the SLWAI was shown to be a valid instrument in measuring the writing anxiety of L2 learners.

2.5. Written Corrective Feedback

2.5.1. Theoretical Background.

Separate from the possible effect of anxiety on writing performance in an additional language, a vast amount of research has debated the effectiveness of WCF. It could be argued that the debate saw its genesis in the advent of communicative language teaching where teaching and learning of grammar rules were de-emphasized. Krashen's (1981, 1982, 1985) Input Hypothesis theorized that learners learned grammar structures through exposure to language input. Unfortunately, this approach to L2 learning was found to be unsuccessful in providing French immersion learners with target-like levels of grammatical accuracy (Swain, 1985), and some form of grammar instruction was deemed crucial to promoting second language acquisition (Beukeboom & Semin, 2005; Norris & Ortega, 2000). This led to the adoption of focus on form instruction (Long, 1991) in second language classrooms as a method of providing instruction on form without detracting from the focus on meaning critical in communicative-based instruction. Indeed, written corrective feedback can be seen as a particularly effective type of focus on form because "learners only have to deal with written feedback after meaning has been communicated" (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998, as cited in van Beuningen, 2010, p. 5). The use of WCF is also supported by Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1994), where learner's identify mismatches in their own output compared to corrective feedback and this, in turn, highlights gaps in the learners' interlanguage (Sheen, 2010). Combined with the output considered essential for acquisition in Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985), corrective feedback has the potential to benefit the overall learning process (Han, 2002).

2.5.2. The Effectiveness Debate.

The aforementioned theoretical supports for WCF have not diminished the questions surrounding its effectiveness. The primary participants in the debate over the effectiveness of WCF are Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) and Ferris (1999, 2004, 2010) and no discussion of written corrective feedback in L2 research can take place without acknowledgment of their influence on the research in this area.

In 1996, Truscott first published his controversial article, “The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes,” where he found that grammar correction was not beneficial to L2 learners. Ferris, in her 1999 response, disputed Truscott’s claim through findings in her own research that pointed to the benefits of providing WCF and the debate has yet to cease. Truscott (2007) fervently opposed the use of written grammar correction in second language writing and suggested that it is, at best, ineffective and, at worst, harmful. Ferris took the opposing view in support of the use of WCF and did not agree that it is harmful to learners, but she did not disagree with each argument Truscott made. In her 2004 response to Truscott, she acknowledged some of the shortcomings of WCF research, including, in particular, that many of the more recent studies (at the time) did not include a control group (i.e., a group that received no correction in the study). She realistically pointed out that the inclusion of a control group for these studies would make it difficult to enlist the participation of educators because it is unlikely that instructors would agree to a study that prevented instructors from providing corrective feedback. She also noted that this could likewise be considered unethical.

An example of the types of studies conducted amidst the discussions between Truscott and Ferris was undertaken by Bitchener et al. (2005); their study was designed to address some of the research design concerns highlighted by both Truscott (1999) and Ferris (2004). Bitchener et al. included a control group, studied the effects of feedback over a longer term (12 weeks), and was the first study to attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of teacher-student conferences in the feedback cycle. The study examined three types of feedback: 1) direct written feedback plus short verbal conference, 2) direct written feedback only and the effect of these (1 and 2) on three different linguistic errors (prepositions, past simple tense, and definite articles), and 3) feedback strictly on content and organization (the control group). It also included the evaluation of new pieces of writing by the participants, an element less studied in WCF research on L2 writers.

Participants completed four writing assignments over the 12-week period with assignments designed as practice items for competency assessments the participants were required to complete as part of an instructed course. In addition to receiving direct written corrective feedback, participants in the direct feedback plus oral conference group were given the opportunity to ask questions about their corrections during conferences with their instructors and had the “chance to receive additional explanations and examples” (Bitchener et al., 2005, p. 196). The control group did not receive any direct feedback on the three linguistic errors selected for study and received feedback on content and organization, satisfying ethical concerns. Results were measured using a quantitative variable labelled “*accuracy performance...* calculated as the percentage of correct usage of each targeted linguistic form” (p. 197, original emphasis).

What Bitchener et al. found was that, when the error types were grouped collectively, the type of feedback provided did not have an overall significant effect on the accuracy in the learners' subsequent pieces of writing. The patterns of improvement or decline over time varied for each feedback type, with direct feedback plus oral conference demonstrating a statistically significant improvement from the third to fourth assignments (weeks 8 and 12, respectively). No other feedback type showed statistically significant changes over the 12-week span. However, significant differences were found when type of feedback and type of error were correlated. Direct feedback plus oral conference, had a significant effect on errors stemming from a grammar rule (simple past tense and definite article use). This showed that, at least for some error types, error correction had a positive effect.

Bitchener et al. were careful to point out alternative interpretations of their results and suggested that the variations found in the results across the three linguistic forms could have been the result of different variables, including the nature or scheduling of the tasks and individual differences of the participants. Based on the positive results from the direct feedback plus oral conference group, the researchers made a recommendation to English as a second language (ESL) educators to include verbal conferences as part of their regular feedback practice.

Affective factors were not directly considered in this study; however, it is interesting to note that the feedback associated with the most positive effects was the treatment in which a short conversation with the instructor was included with the written feedback. Neither the content nor the tone of these verbal conferences was reported or analyzed for the study. Perhaps the way the instructor delivered the feedback had an

impact on the students' emotions and could have contributed to a positive effect on their subsequent writing abilities. This study did not resolve the Truscott-Ferris WCF effectiveness debate. It did, however, attempt to weigh in on the discussion and found support for providing WCF for certain errors types.

One area of dispute within the overall debate was and is the findings from studies showing that students desire and value the feedback received from their instructors. Numerous studies focusing on learner and instructor perceptions of feedback have found that both learners and instructors believe WCF is effective and helps learners make progress in their writing abilities (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Evans, Hartshorn, & Tuioti, 2010; Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2003, 2004, 2005). Truscott (1996) claimed that learners' desire for feedback could not support the use of corrective feedback because students are not necessarily the best judges of their own needs. Ferris (2004) countered by stating that "from an *affective* standpoint, students' strongly held opinions...may influence their success or lack thereof in the L2 writing class (p. 55, emphasis mine).

Truscott's (2007) response to Ferris' (2004) article was to conduct a small-scale meta-analysis of several qualitative studies that had previously reported the effects of error correction on writing students of ESL. Studies included in the meta-analysis were categorized as either "controlled experiments" (Truscott, 2007, p. 258) or "uncontrolled experiments" (p. 263), and a summary of each study included in the analysis was provided. Controlled experiments were studies that compared providing error correction versus not providing error correction in their experimental treatments and uncontrolled experiments were studies that did not include a comparison or control group and were evaluated based on "absolute gains" (p. 263).

Both groups of studies were analyzed based on calculations of the individual effect sizes for each separate experiment within a study and then by three overall average effect sizes. The overall average effect sizes were calculated based on three different criteria, which varied based on the category of the studies (controlled or uncontrolled). The average effect sizes for the controlled experiments all gave a negative result and “[o]ne calculation method [used] allow[ed] 95% confidence that correction [had] no better than a small beneficial effect on accuracy, while the other two allow[ed] 95% confidence that any beneficial effects [were] too small to even qualify as small effects” (Truscott, 2007, p. 263). Truscott concluded that these results could be interpreted as demonstrating that error correction in writing may be “harmful” (p. 263). He did, however, admit to using an “unorthodox calculation” (p. 262) to produce one of the confidence intervals, but this anomalous calculation did not appear to alter the interpretation of the effect sizes. The effect sizes and confidence intervals for the uncontrolled experiment all fell within the range indicating a small effect size (Cohen’s $d = .20$ to $.50$), which Truscott described as “extremely small” and equated them to a “negligible effect” (p. 267). He found the results for both the controlled and uncontrolled experiments to be similar – i.e., error correction had little to no beneficial effect on a learner’s writing ability.

Prior to providing a conclusion to his analysis, Truscott (2007) identified two factors that “have systematically biased the findings [of written error correction research] in favour of correction groups” (p. 267). These two factors were the setting or environment of the study (the classroom) and the learner’s ability to avoid the errors they are prone to make. He then concluded that “the best estimate is that correction has a

small harmful effect on students' ability to write accurately and ...we can be 95% confident that if it actually has any benefits, they are very small" (p. 270) and that "research has found correction to be a clear and dramatic failure" (p. 271).

Truscott (2007) consistently describes the use of error correction as "most likely...*harmful*...[to learners'] ability to write accurately" (p. 256, emphasis mine) and uses the same description when explaining negative effect sizes as *harmful*. A more objective term would be more appropriate for explaining statistical data. This seems to underscore his bias, which detracts from the overall argument. He also uses the same term when he concludes that the small effect sizes calculated for the controlled experiments could be interpreted as demonstrating that error correction was potentially harmful, as opposed to finding that, perhaps, it could be described as ineffective. The data did demonstrate a level of ineffectiveness with respect to error correction; however, Truscott's assertions that this could be extended to mean that error correction is harmful was not wholly convincing.

Although Truscott's argument against corrective feedback was not unequivocal, in his study he helpfully included a detailed description of effect sizes and how he interpreted Cohen's d values in his meta-analysis. His further explanation on the use of confidence intervals aided in the interpretation the data. He was also careful to include studies in his meta-analysis that had been previously cited in the debate over the effectiveness of WCF. Most notably, Truscott insightfully pointed out in his conclusion that different researchers ask different questions and, therefore, obtain different results. While it is true that further research on the effectiveness of WCF may continue to report

mixed results, further research is by no means unwarranted – new questions, particularly with respect to affective factors, remain to be asked.

Truscott's (2007) meta-analysis was not designed to consider or assess any affective factors that may have contributed to the effectiveness of WCF. In fact, except for the small mention by Ferris (2004), affective factors in WCF have received little attention in the larger debate waged over the effectiveness of providing WCF.

2.5.3. Learner and Instructor Perceptions of WCF.

The learners' desire for feedback, which has been an important area of research on WCF, has focused on how learners and instructors perceive the corrective feedback provided on L2 writing. Research in this area began with investigations on learner perceptions of WCF (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 2003; Lee, 2005, 2008; Leki, 1991; Oladejo, 1993; Radecki & Swales, 1988) with interest in instructor perceptions (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011; Lee, 2003, 2009) and combined learner and instructor perceptions following later (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Hyland, 2000; Lee, 2004; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Similar to Ferris' 1995 discovery, a common finding among these studies suggests that both learners and instructors perceived that WCF is beneficial and leads to improvement in writing. Learners in some studies reported using corrective feedback as not just a means for improving the writing assignment evaluated, but as an overall learning tool (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Hyland, 2003). The value of WCF (to its users) seems evident, even if its overall effectiveness has yet to be confirmed.

The early study undertaken by Ferris (1995) investigated learner perceptions to written feedback in which learners' responses to written feedback on multiple drafts was

examined. Beginner level university aged ESL learners participated through a survey administered multiple times over the course of an entire semester, in order to gather data reflecting learner perceptions to written feedback received on preliminary and final written drafts. The survey instrument included both Likert-scale and open-ended questions requesting information on the types of feedback the students received from their instructors (i.e., on content, organization, grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary), how the students responded to the feedback (i.e., made corrections, thought about the errors, and took no action), and how they would rate themselves as learners. One noted weakness of this, and other perception studies (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011; Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988), is that actual drafts of student writing were not examined or evaluated.

Findings from the survey questions (Ferris, 1995) showed that instructors primarily provided feedback on grammar while the students were interested in and responded to feedback on both grammar and content. The students also reported that they believed the feedback delivered by their instructors was beneficial and helped them improve their writing skills. Interestingly, comments made in the open-ended questions showed students recalling the feedback received on content and organization more than the feedback on grammar; however, Ferris remarks that “[s]everal [students] wrote bitterly that their teachers’ comments were all negative and that this fact *depressed them and decreased their motivation and self-esteem*” (Ferris, 1995, p. 46, emphasis mine). These learners clearly expressed an affective response to the feedback they received.

An evaluation of the study (Ferris, 1995) reveals that the students' instructors administered the survey for the researcher and the instructors had access to the survey responses prior to delivery to the researcher. In one case, this resulted in an instructor not returning the surveys because they highlighted a practice of providing grammar correction on initial drafts, which was in contravention of the institution's educational policy. If students were also aware that their instructor would see their survey responses, this would undoubtedly have influenced the way in which they completed their surveys. However, the survey targeted the students' perceptions over the course of an entire semester and on the feedback received on multiple drafts of writing, which are definite strengths of this study.

The most (non-statistically) significant information revealed from the study was the negative comments made by the students in the open-ended questions. These warrant closer examination, particularly the comments targeting feedback and how it may relate to the students' motivation and self-esteem.

Written corrective feedback in SLA and L2 writing has been researched for over 30 years with the majority of the research involving post-secondary learners of ESL or English as a foreign language (EFL) (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 1995; Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 2000, 2003; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Radecki & Swales, 1988). More recent studies have recognized that the learners in North American mainstream university classes include a considerable number of learners for whom English is not their first, native, or primary language (Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011).

Ferris, Brown, Liu, and Stine's (2011) study on instructor perceptions of written corrective feedback targeted the differences in types of feedback delivered to mainstream college-level ESL learners compared to non-ESL students in the same classes. Most instructors in the study did vary the way they provided corrective feedback based on a learner's primary language and tended to provide more language (i.e., form) focused feedback and less feedback on content and organization to ESL students in their classrooms. Some instructors recommended that ESL learners seek additional assistance while others went so far as to suggest that the ESL students drop the class. This highlights the gap between the changing needs of students in mainstream college classes in North America and the lack of knowledge of the instructors of these classes in their ability to respond to the needs of ESL learners. The researchers noted in their discussion that "L2 students are no longer the sole purview or responsibility of the ESL department" (p. 226). Given these sentiments, the number of learners and users of ESL/EFL, and expected increases in these numbers in the foreseeable future at the post-secondary level in North America, there is definite merit in targeting this group of learners for further research.

As interest in the influence of affective factors on education, cognition, and learning has grown outside the field of SLA, absent from the majority of WCF research studies in SLA are examinations of potential connections between affective factors and the effectiveness of written corrective feedback. Given the interest in affect on cognition in various disciplines, its absence in WCF is notable. In her assessment of future directions in L2 writing feedback, Hyland (2010) notes, "a large number of questions about giving effective feedback have [only] been partially resolved" (p. 172). Her

recommendations include making students “active agents” (p. 174) with respect to feedback, not merely passive recipients, and she suggests that “[r]esearch could focus more on how learners interpret feedback and *what factors* influence their decisions about how they will use it” (p. 176, emphasis mine).

Hyland stops short of explicitly identifying *affective* factors as a potential factor that may influence learners’ decisions and refrains from expanding her recommendations to include how affective factors may influence learners’ uses of feedback. In the search to label WCF effective or ineffective, the influence of affective factors has been overlooked. Perhaps it is not merely the feedback itself that can be deemed either effective or ineffective but it is the learners’ responses to the feedback that have a pronounced effect on the level of effectiveness. The effectiveness debate may not be asking a robust enough question. Perhaps the question should be: How do learner affective factors contribute to the effectiveness of written corrective feedback? Previous research has identified second language writing anxiety as a “language-skill-specific anxiety” (Cheng et al., 1999, p. 437), but what has not been examined is whether corrective feedback on writing produces anxiety, and if it does, what role does it play in second language writing performance? The current study endeavours to examine these queries through the following guiding questions:

1. Do L2 learners’ levels of second language writing anxiety influence their second language writing performance?
2. Do L2 learners’ levels of writing anxiety in response to feedback (feedback anxiety) on an L2 writing assignment influence their perceived performance on a subsequent writing assignment?

It is important to note that the guiding questions provided a starting point for the study; however, the exploratory nature of much of the qualitative data collection methods (described in later chapters) resulted in findings that encompassed a much broader scope than the guiding questions initially covered. What began as an investigation into anxiety and WCF was expanded to explore numerous emotions, participant perceptions of multiple categories of feedback (including corrective and non-corrective types), and their potential links to writing performance.

2.6. Research Methods

While few previous studies have examined affective responses to WCF, the current study does resemble feedback perception studies. For this reason, similar methods and tools were used in the research design as those applied in feedback perception studies. Researchers investigating the perception of feedback have regularly used Likert-scale and open-ended surveys and follow-up interviews to gather participant data (e.g., Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011; Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Lee, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2008, 2009; Radecki & Swales, 1988). These tools provide both quantitative and qualitative data where the analysis of both types of data has been complementary and illuminating (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Hyland, 2003). Applied linguistics research commonly includes audio recordings of participants as a data-gathering tool; a perusal of recently published studies highlights this useful practice (e.g., Belhiah, 2012; Chan, 2012; Copland, 2012; Fernández Dobao, 2012).

Previous feedback perception studies have not generally collected actual writing assignments or performance results on the assignments produced by participants with the exception of a small number of studies (performance results: e.g., Marcos-Llínas &

Garau, 2009; written assignments: e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005). In order to evaluate the effect of feedback on writing performance, it is crucial to examine and assess actual written works produced by study participants.

Chapter Three - Methodology

This chapter describes the methods used to gather the research data from both qualitative and quantitative sources. This chapter is divided into the following sections: 1) course descriptions, 2) participants, 3) instruments, 4) data collection procedures, and 5) data analysis.

3.1. Course Descriptions

The research context for the current study was selected in order to point the research lens towards the increasing number of mainstream North American university students whose primary language is not English. Students and instructors exposed to this fluid learning and classroom environment represent an ecologically valid demographic for study.

The two first-year English composition courses selected for this research were offered in the 2012 fall semester and share a number of similarities with respect to their overall course goals. In fact, one course, ENGL-A¹, is viewed as a pre-cursor (but not a pre-requisite) to the other course, ENGL-B, where ENGL-B aims to build on the skills and knowledge acquired in ENGL-A. In their course descriptions, both emphasize gaining proficiency in the use of Standard English and to provide practice in writing academic papers. One course includes a focus on improving “grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure” (MacLeod, 2012) and the other states one its goals as the ability to write “well-structured sentences and paragraphs” (Pickard, 2012). Both courses also give attention to improving academic reading skills. Requirements for both courses included written assignments that were prepared in and outside of class time. The target learners

¹ The university course calendar designations for the two courses have been modified for anonymity purposes.

for these courses are students near the beginning of their post-secondary careers and who desire or require instruction on academic writing at the university level. Neither course specifically targets second-language learners, recognizing that all students, regardless of language background, can benefit from academic writing instruction. The academic institution places minimum requirements on English language proficiency for all admitted students; however, the academic institution and instructors recognize that students will have varying levels of proficiency in writing upon entering university. These two courses are designed to equip students with the academic writing skills necessary for success within the academic environment in which they are enrolled.

3.2. Participants

This study involved 16 undergraduate students (13 female, 3 male) (Table 2) enrolled at a Western Canadian university in a semester-long (12 week) first year university non-ESL English writing or composition course requiring at least two written essay assignments which were submitted to the instructor for feedback and a grade. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 27 years, with a mean age of 20, and were enrolled in one of two different courses taught by two different instructors; ten participants came from one course – ENGL-A (and one instructor) and the remaining six were from the other course – ENGL-B (and the other instructor). The first language backgrounds of the participants varied to include Mandarin, Cantonese, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Shona; the majority (68.75%) of the participants had learned Mandarin as their primary language. Participants reported using English regularly (i.e., daily) from six weeks to 12 years, with a mean length of 3.1 years of using English in an English speaking country, and had begun learning English as early as age five and as late as age 15, with the mean

starting age of 8.5 years. Each participant reported their own perceived language proficiency level from beginner to advanced² (beginner = 3; intermediate = 9; advanced = 4) and had declared majors from various faculties including English Literature (2), Music (1), Linguistics (1), Business or Economics (7), Biology (1), Social Sciences (1), and General Sciences (1), while two participants had not yet declared a major. Participation in the study was completely voluntary and participants received no monetary compensation for their involvement. Two participants requested follow-up information on the results of the study upon its completion.

The instructors of the two courses had both earned PhD's in English literature; one instructor was a sessional lecturer while the other was an assistant professor. No additional background information was gathered from the instructors. Both instructors also requested follow-up information on the study's results when complete.

Table 2

<i>Participant Characteristics</i>			
Age (Years)	Mean	20	
	Range	18 – 27	
Gender	Male	3	
	Female	13	
Regular English Use (Months)	Mean	36.9	
	Range	1.5 - 144	
Starting Age for Learning English (in Years)	Mean	8.5	
	Range	5 – 15	
Primary Languages	Mandarin (11); Cantonese (1); Italian (1); Portuguese (1); Spanish (1); Shona (1)		
English Course	ENGL-A (10); ENGL-B (6)		

Note. n=16

² Despite three participants rating themselves as beginner level learners, international students at the university where the research was conducted are required to meet a minimum language proficiency requirement upon acceptance. Based on the university admission requirements, participants in the current study were, at minimum, at an intermediate level of proficiency.

3.3. Instruments

3.3.1. Background.

For this study, four different data collection methods were administered in English to the participants: 1) the English Writing Apprehension Test (EWAT) (Appendix A); 2) the Second Language Writing Feedback Apprehension Inventory (SLWFAI) (Appendix B); 3) a face to face audio-recorded interview (Appendix C); and 4) an online questionnaire (Appendix D). In addition, a copy of one complete and graded written assignment, which included the feedback and grade (the measure of performance) provided by the instructor, was gathered from each participant (Appendix E). The grade, but not the feedback, from a second assignment was gathered within the online questionnaire.

3.3.2. EWAT.

The English Writing Apprehension Test (EWAT) is a test that was adapted from the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) (Daly & Miller, 1975) for use with learners of English as an additional language. When the WAT was originally developed, testing and re-testing reached a reliability of .923 and subsequent tests supported its validity. The WAT has been in use by writing anxiety researchers since it was created and is recognized as a well-known writing anxiety instrument (e.g., Cheng, 2004; Phinney, 1991; Pichette, 2009). Each of the 26 statements used in the Daly-Miller WAT were edited to include the phrase “in English” in order to specify that writing in English was the target of each statement (e.g., *original statement*: Writing is a lot of fun.; *edited statement*: Writing in English is a lot of fun.). The EWAT was administered as a means

of evaluating each participant's level of writing apprehension in English. Responses to each of the 26 items included in the test were gathered on a seven-point Likert scale.

3.3.3. SLWFAI.

The Second Language Writing Feedback Apprehension Inventory (SLWFAI) was adapted from the SLWAI (Cheng, 2004) to target the feedback participants received on an initial writing assignment and was used to evaluate the level of anxiety associated with the feedback received on the same initial assignment. The original 22-question SLWAI, rigorously tested by Cheng, reached an internal reliability of over .90. The adapted version used in the current study included 12 closed-ended questions and seven open-ended questions and did not undergo reliability testing. Twelve original SLWAI statements were edited to alter the focus of the statement to the feedback received on writing in English versus the original intent of focusing strictly on writing in English (e.g., *original statement*: My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.; *edited statement*: My thoughts become jumbled when I read the feedback from my instructor on my English composition.). Ten original SLWAI statements were excluded because of their lack of adaptability to focus on feedback anxiety. In addition, seven open-ended questions were added to the questionnaire to gather information on learner responses to feedback that may not have been covered by the 12 closed-ended questions and to provide an opportunity for participants to include their own thoughts and emotions on the feedback they received on their written assignment. The original SLWAI does not include any open-ended questions. Responses to the closed-ended items on the inventory were gathered on a

seven-point Likert scale. Responses to the remaining seven open-ended items were gathered from the participants in hand written form in their own words.

3.3.4. Interview.

Participants who completed the SLWFAI were requested to voluntarily participate in a follow-up interview (Appendix C), conducted to gather additional information about participants' affective responses to the feedback received on the initial written assignment. The interviews included five introductory questions and then were expanded to include additional questions based on participants' responses to the introductory questions as well as questions pertaining to the specific feedback each interviewed participant received on their assignment. All interview questions were directed towards the feedback on the essay the participant provided. Five participants were asked the additional follow-up question "*How did you feel when your paper was returned to you?*" and nine participants were additionally asked "*How do you feel about writing the next essay?*"³ All interviews were audio-recorded on an Apple iPod using the PureAudio Live Recorder Version 3.0 application. Interviews were conducted in English only; the range of participant primary languages deemed it impractical to conduct the interviews in the participants' primary language. All researcher questions and participant responses were recorded for later transcription.

3.3.5. Online Questionnaire.

The final instrument used in the study was a short four-item questionnaire administered electronically to all participants who completed the SLWFAI. The survey

³ These two questions arose during the interview process within the main study and were not discovered in the field test because the participants did not bring an essay with them to discuss, nor was discussion about a specific follow-up essay part of the field test interviews.

was administered through a dedicated URL acquired from and assigned by FluidSurveys, a Canadian based online survey website. Responses to the survey items were in type written form in the participants' own words. One item requested the grade the participant received on a second written assignment and the other three items were open-ended questions designed to gather participants' opinions and thoughts on the feedback they received on the first assignment and how it may have influenced their performance on the second assignment.

3.4. Data Collection

3.4.1. Instrument and Procedures Field Test.

An instrument and procedures field test was conducted to test the research instruments and to determine the time required to complete each of the two surveys, the interview, and online questionnaire. Because participant English proficiency level was neither a primary focus of the study, nor was it believed to strongly influence the time required for a participant to complete each study instrument, for convenience sampling purposes, five graduate level ESL students, pooled from the same Western Canadian university as the main study participants, were involved in the instrument and procedures test. The field test participants ranged from 22 to 41 years of age with a primary language of Korean or Mandarin. Each participant met with the researcher individually on one occasion to respond to the EWAT, SLWFAI, and online questionnaire and participate in a recorded interview. Field test participants did not provide a copy of an essay to the researcher; instead, they were asked to recall a recent essay or written assignment for which they had received feedback from an instructor to discuss during the interview. Each instrument was explained by the researcher to the participant prior to

administration and each participant was timed by the researcher while responding to the surveys and questionnaire. After completing each instrument, the researcher and participant discussed any questions or comments that had arisen that may have interfered with or impeded the participant's ability to complete the survey or questionnaire.

The discussions between the researcher and the field test participants resulted in minor changes to the wording of three EWAT questions. Question two was changed from "I have no fear of my writing in English being evaluated" to "I have no fear of my writing in English being evaluated or graded" because the meaning of the word "evaluation" was not clear to three participants. In question nine, "I would enjoy submitting my English writing to magazines for evaluation and publication" the word "magazines" was changed to "academic journals" to make the question more relevant to an academic setting. Finally, question 22 was changed from "When I hand in an English composition *I know* I'm going to do poorly" to "When I hand in an English composition *I am sure* I'm going to do poorly" because two participants were uncomfortable responding to the phrase "I know" within the context of the question and suggested the change to "I am sure." Three participants requested additional explanation on the use of the legend for both surveys; however, the legend remained unchanged for the main study and it was noted that more thorough explanation would be required when presenting the surveys to the main study participants (see Appendices A and B). The primary focus for the interview was to establish an estimated time to completion; however, the format and questions were reviewed with each participant and no changes were made to the interview. The time required for each participant to complete each instrument and the interview were recorded and used for recruiting participants and implementing the main

study. The data collected during the field test was not included in the main study's results.

3.4.2. Recruitment.

Using the most recent university course calendar, numerous potential first year English composition courses scheduled for the 2012 fall semester were identified for possible inclusion in the study. The university offers non-credit-based English courses specifically designed for ESL students to improve their English language (including writing) skills; however, the aim of the study was to target mainstream courses and students and thus, only mainstream, for-credit courses were identified for potential inclusion. Three different courses and five separate instructors who taught at least two courses or sections of a course (either different sections of the same course or two different courses) were identified as potential candidates for the study. The number of courses was limited to three as a means of building in a level of consistency with the types of writing assignments participants would produce and the number of instructors was limited as a means of controlling for the variety of feedback participants would receive.

At the beginning of the fall semester, an introductory email was sent to the five instructors explaining the purpose of the study and requesting assistance with recruiting. A request was made to attend instructors' classes for a short period of time at either the beginning or end of regular scheduled class time to provide a brief explanation of the research to students and subsequently request their voluntary participation in the study. Three out five instructors responded to the introductory email, but after speaking with one instructor, it was discovered that a very low number of ESL students were registered

in her classes and no recruiting was pursued from these classes. The other two responding instructors agreed to assist with recruitment and I was invited to visit four different classrooms during scheduled class time to recruit participants. Each instructor taught two sections of one course resulting in the participant pool being limited to two different courses and two different instructors.

During each classroom visit, I briefly introduced myself and the research by outlining the aims of the study and participation criteria; criteria for participation were described as enrolment in the current course and having learned English as a second or additional language. Interested students provided me with their name and contact email address, which was used to contact each person individually, by email, within 24 hours to arrange our initial meeting. Gender differences were not a focus of the study and no attempt to balance the number of participants between genders was made. A total of 16 individuals were successfully contacted and scheduled for an initial meeting.

3.4.3. Meeting 1 – EWAT.

I met with each participant one-on-one on two occasions and both meetings occurred on the university campus in a room designated for research conducted within the Department of Linguistics.

During the first meeting, participants verbally received more detailed information about the study, including the purpose and the time commitment required for the study. The first meeting involved participants performing three different tasks: 1) read and sign the participant consent form, 2) provide personal background information (Appendix F), and 3) complete the EWAT (Appendix A).

Prior to completing each task, verbal instructions were given, in English, to each participant on how to complete each document. In the case of the consent form, a verbal overview was given to each participant explaining the purpose of the research, how their identity would be protected, and specifically what was involved in participating in the study. I did not leave the room while participants completed the three tasks and was available to answer questions should any arise while the participants were completing each task. Each participant was given a detailed explanation on how to interpret the Likert-scale legend on the EWAT and many asked for clarification on a question from the background information form requesting the length of time the participant had been regularly using English.

Sixteen participants completed all three tasks and each participant was assigned a participant number (1 through 16) to protect their identities. In all but one instance⁴, the second meeting with each participant was scheduled at the end of the initial meeting and I reminded participants to bring a copy of a graded written assignment with them to the second meeting. Fifteen follow-up meetings were successfully scheduled.

3.4.4. Meeting 2 – SLWFAI, Interview, and Essay Collection.

Meeting two occurred within four weeks of the initial meeting, depending on: 1) the time lag between submission and the return of a written assignment for each participant and 2) availability of the participant.⁵ These meetings took place on the university campus at the same location as meeting one – the designated Department of Linguistics research room. Fifteen participants in total returned for a second meeting,

⁴ An email was sent to the one participant two weeks after the initial meeting to schedule the second meeting.

⁵ Four participants returned for the second meeting within one week of the first meeting and one participant (Participant 10) could not be successfully scheduled for a second meeting due to scheduling conflicts.

during which all completed the SLWFAI, but only 14 provided a copy of a graded essay. Participants were asked to answer the survey questions with the feedback received on the essay they brought to the meeting in mind. The interview also specifically targeted the feedback on the essay and, as a result, the participant who did not provide a copy of an essay (Participant 15) was not subsequently interviewed; he did supply the grade received on the initial written essay assignment. During each meeting, the participants were first asked to complete the SLWFAI (Appendix B) based on the graded essay they brought to the meeting while I left the room to make a photocopy of the essay. Upon returning to the room, I read the participant's essay while the participant finished responding to the SLWFAI. The interview was conducted immediately following the participant's completion of the survey and each participant was asked to voluntarily participate in the interview prior to it commencing; no participant declined to be interviewed. Verbal permission to record the interview was elicited as a reminder that, by previously signing the consent form, participants had consented to be recorded should they agree to be interviewed. Prior to the end of the second meeting, participants were reminded that an email would be sent to them at the close of the semester and would include access to a short online questionnaire, which would represent the final task of the study.

3.4.5. Online Questionnaire.

At the completion of the semester, an email was distributed to the 15 participants who had completed the SLWFAI, including the participant who had not provided a copy of an essay (Participant 15). An email was not sent to Participant 10, who had not completed the tasks associated with the second meeting. The email included a hyperlink to the online questionnaire and participants were asked to access the link at their

convenience within a two-week window. I monitored the responses to the questionnaire and sent a follow-up reminder to any participants who had not responded to the questionnaire within seven days. A total of 13 responses were gathered within the two week time frame at which time access to the online questionnaire for participants was removed.⁶

3.5. Data Preparation

3.5.1. Inclusion and Exclusion of Data.

Upon closure of the online questionnaire, I reviewed the data gathered from all participants to determine whether any data from a participant at any collection point warranted exclusion from evaluation.

As previously noted, Participant 10 did not return for a second meeting and, as a result, only completed the EWAT instrument. Participant 10's data was included in the number of participants receiving a score within a specific range on the EWAT survey (which will be described in the results chapter). For all other analyses, Participant 10's data was excluded.

Two participants (Participants 3 and 15) began learning and using English at age 6 when they started formal schooling. Another participant (Participant 14) had learned English as her first language until the age of four, at which time she began learning and only using Italian and did so until the age of 14, when she began learning English again. All three participants continued to use their primary (or non-English) language regularly, as well as English, and had also received instruction or education in their non-English language (either exclusively or simultaneously with English) for at least five years. As a

⁶ Allowing additional time to respond was not considered beneficial as the deadline coincided with the end of the exam period and participants were unlikely to respond once the semester break had begun.

result, these participants' English language proficiency levels were not considered equivalent to that of a native English speaker and they did not demonstrate more advanced proficiency than other participants in the study based on the interviews and essays. In addition, each of these three participants disclosed their ongoing difficulties with learning and using English in both casual and academic environments. Further, their language learning situations were not considered anomalous and, in fact, were deemed a reflection of the language learning histories of many North American post-secondary students. Because one of the aims of the study was to examine ESL learners in the post-secondary environment, the data from these three participants was included in the overall data analysis.

3.5.2. Transcription and Coding.

The data gathered from the open-ended SLWFAI surveys, the online questionnaires, the feedback data on each participant's essay, and the interviews were subject to a coding process. Prior to coding the survey responses, online questionnaires, and interviews, these required transcription or transformation of the data. Following transcription/transformation, responses to each instrument's questions were coded for their relation to either feedback types or emotions. Participant essays were coded for feedback types. Detailed descriptions of the transcription, transformation, and coding processes are included in the following sections.

3.5.2.1. Transcription/transformation.

Participant responses to the open-ended SLWFAI survey questions, the online questionnaire, and the interviews were transformed or transcribed in English in preparation for coding the data. For the interviews, all comments made by both

interlocutors were transcribed word-for-word into an Excel spreadsheet. The survey and questionnaire responses were copied from the source into the same spreadsheet with responses organized by participant. No words or spellings were changed or omitted from the original sources.

3.5.2.2. Coding – essays.

Fourteen essays were gathered from participants during the second meeting and each participant allowed me to make and retain a copy of their graded essay. Participants were enrolled in one of two courses, taught by one of two different instructors. As a result, the feedback provided to the participants on their essays was from one of these two instructors. This was expected to result in more consistent feedback types across all essays. Upon examination, the essays were indeed found to include relatively consistent feedback types. While the types of feedback provided by the instructors were not identical, sufficient consistencies existed which allowed the creation of a list of feedback types from which the coding of the feedback could be accomplished. Seven unique feedback categories were created to specifically accommodate the feedback types found within the graded essays and standard feedback types were adopted from labels or categories used in previous WCF (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Lee, 2008) and non-WCF (e.g., Coffin, Curry, Goodman, Hewings, Lillis, & Swann, 2002) studies. Because the focus of this study was not solely WCF or a specific type of WCF, but focused on ESL learners' emotional responses to feedback, a unique and study-specific list of feedback categories was necessary for this research; feedback categories used in previous studies did not encompass all the types of feedback found in the participants' essays. Feedback types and definitions used for coding the essay feedback are detailed in Appendix G. A total of

five main categories, divided into 14 distinct subcategories, were used for coding the essays.

All markings and comments ($n = 502$) made by the instructors were numbered and then coded as a type of feedback and a very small number of comments were coded for more than one type (1.1%). In each case where a comment was coded multiple times, the comment in question was re-evaluated and found to contain more than one comment. For example, on Participant 11's essay, at the end of a paragraph the instructor wrote, "good thesis and intro" with an additional comment, "no extra space between paragraphs" written in the margin and connected to the first comment with a line. These two connected comments were assigned the same number for coding, but two codes were assigned separately to each part. The comment, "good thesis and intro" was coded under the content feedback umbrella, specifically as "specific compliment or encouraging comment." The second part of the feedback comment, "no extra space between paragraphs," was coded as "formatting" feedback. This resulted in a total of 508 points of feedback from 502 numbered comments or markings provided by the instructors on the participant essays.

All fourteen essays were coded using the categories and definitions identified in Appendix G. A second coder (Coder 2) was enlisted to code five essays (35.7%) to establish a level of reliability for the feedback coding. Coder 2 was experienced in conducting research on second language learners and had previously taught English to second language learners, including writing skills. Coder 2 used the same feedback categories and definitions for coding the essays. After coding five essays, I met with Coder 2 and found we were in agreement on 121 out of 134 (90.3%) points of feedback.

A follow-up discussion between the two coders examined the 13 points of disagreement and all were successfully resolved.

3.5.2.3. *Coding – SLWFAI open-ended questions.*

The SLWFAI survey (Appendix B) included seven open-ended questions that participants were asked to answer in handwritten form during our second meeting. Two questions (questions 13 and 14) pertained to any emotional responses they experienced after receiving their graded essay from the instructor and five questions (questions 15 through 19) were related to the feedback types received on their graded essay. The participant responses were transformed into digital text, word-for-word, from the surveys.

The responses to questions 15 through 19 (feedback questions) were coded using the same list of feedback categories and definitions as was used to code the essay feedback. The participants did not consistently describe in detail different feedback types and an additional five categories and definitions were created so all survey responses could be appropriately coded. These additional categories were, in most cases, less specific than the categories used for the essays and collapsed some of the original categories into broader categories (see Appendix G). For example, the participants did not always delineate between a criticism that included or excluded a suggestion so an additional category – general criticism with or without suggestion – was added to the coding scheme. Additionally, participants commonly referred to more than one feedback type in response to a question. This resulted in a total of 152 coded comments referencing feedback in response to questions 15 to 19 on the SLWFAI. An example of a multiple-coded response is Participant 4's response to question 16 – *What type of feedback makes you feel negative about your English writing?* The response was: “When

prof write ‘this is not good’ but then he give me a C which is not that bad.” This response was coded as “grade” and “content – general criticism” because the participant mentions the grade and the comment “this is not good” is non-specific criticism.

Questions 13 and 14 on the SLWFAI requested information about the participants’ emotional responses to the feedback and these responses were also subject to coding. Pekrun’s (1992, 2002) taxonomy of academic emotions (Table 1) was initially applied to the responses; however, while participants did reveal experiencing emotions found on Pekrun’s list, they also shared emotional responses outside of Pekrun’s taxonomy. Consequently, the list of emotions used for coding questions 13 and 14 was expanded to include an additional four emotions, to include confusion, confidence, motivation, and acceptance. A category for “none” was also included to accommodate participants responding to questions about their emotions with responses such as “I didn’t feel anything special” or failed to refer to any emotions, such as in the response “I need to discuss my compositions with my instructor one to one.” The complete list of emotions used in coding questions 13 and 14 is found in Table 3. For analysis purposes, each emotion was also categorized as pleasant, unpleasant or neutral. Pekrun identifies the emotions within his taxonomy as positive or negative; however, recent studies have employed the terms “pleasant” and “unpleasant” as a means of labelling emotions themselves without implying an outcome, which may occur with the terms positive and negative (see Eynde & Turner, 2006; Kim & Hodges, 2012). Acceptance was identified as neutral because the participant responses for this emotion could not be characterized as either pleasant or unpleasant. Participants expressed feeling pleasantly or unpleasantly surprised and, as a result, responses identifying surprise were coded accordingly.

Table 3

Emotion Categories and Examples for Coding Interviews, SLWFAI Open-ended Questions and Online Questionnaire Questions

<u>Category</u>	<u>Subcategory</u>	<u>Example</u>
Pleasant	Enjoyment	“I like feedback”
	Hope	“After I saw the feedback the prof gave me, I just feel that I can fix the problems and do better in the next time.”
	Joy	“Then another friend said his friend he’s a native speaker he failed the essay and I feel very happy”
	Pride	“There’s always a good part of receiving a paper back , there are some good comments. It makes you feel like you’re not all bad”
	Relief	“when I saw the grade everything was fine”
	Satisfaction	“[It made me feel] good.”
	Confidence	“This gave me confidence in my writing”
	Motivation	“Feedback encouraged me to improve myself”
	Surprise – pleasant	“I was very surprised because I thought an A would be really hard to get, like for me.”
Neutral	Acceptance	“I saw my mistakes and those things and I say, oh, I agree with him”
Unpleasant	Surprise – unpleasant	“it’s a little surprise ‘cause I check for third time ...but it get back it still so much mistakes”
	Confusion	“I was just kind of confused”
	Anxiety	“I was really nervous about this one”
	Hopelessness/despair	“[I was] depressed”
	Sadness	“I feel sad”
	Disappointment	“[I felt] sorry about myself [because of the grade]. Because I really put enough effort into that”
	Shame/guilt	“[I felt] that I haven’t done good enough about my summary with my own competence”

Similar to the procedure used for coding the essay feedback, an additional coder (Coder 3) was enlisted to code the responses of five (33%) randomly selected participant SLWFAI surveys as a means of establishing coding reliability. Coder 3 is an experienced researcher in Applied Linguistics who specializes in academic emotions and has many years of experience as an adult ESL instructor, making her well-qualified as a second coder. I agreed with Coder 3 on the codes for 55 out of 68 comments referencing feedback or emotions in the open-ended survey responses of the five surveys, giving an interrater reliability of 80.9%. As with the essay coding, a follow-up discussion resulted in each of the points of disagreement being resolved.

It is important to note that in cases where participants specifically referenced anxiety as an emotion, this was interpreted as the nervous form of anxiety and not the anticipation form of anxiousness. It is common in North America to use the word anxious to relate a feeling of anticipation; however, prior to completing the SLWFAI, participants had received a verbal review of the consent form which included a description and purpose of the research and they had also previously completed the EWAT. Both of the surveys used in the study included the word “apprehension” in the title and one question on the SLWFAI uses the words “nervous” and “anxious” interchangeably. Additionally, in nearly all instances where a response was coded as anxiety, participants actually used the word “nervous”⁷ in their responses. For these reasons, all participant comments referring to anxiousness and anxiety were coded as anxiety and were not considered to mean anticipation. This was consistent for all participant responses to emotion questions in the SLWFAI, the interview, and the online

⁷ An example of a response coded for anxiety in response to the question: “When my graded English composition is returned to me I feel...” is Participant 2’s response: “nervous and afraid the feedback is worse than I think.”

questionnaire.

3.5.2.4. Coding – interview responses.

Fourteen interviews were conducted and transcribed. The 14 interviewees were asked between four and seven interview questions (Appendix C) depending on the nature of the discussions that occurred during the interview, responsiveness of the interviewee, the level of rapport between the interlocutors, and participant time constraints. The initial four questions were considered guiding questions as the interviews were not intended to have a rigid structure so some participants were asked more questions than others. The intent of the interview was to encourage the participants to discuss their emotions and emotional responses to the feedback they received from their instructor. Some participants were more enthusiastic about sharing their thoughts and feelings while others seemed less comfortable with the task.

The responses to all the interview questions were examined and coded following the same procedures as had been undertaken to code the open-ended SLWFAI survey questions. Interview questions 1 and 2 were related to feedback types while questions 3, 4, 6, and 7 were in relation to emotions. Consequently, questions 1 and 2 used the feedback type codes (Appendix G) to code participant responses and questions 3 to 7 had the list of emotions from Table 3 applied to the responses. Question 5 – *What do you do after you review the feedback – what actions do you take, if any?* – required its own unique set of categories for coding because responses to this question were neither feedback nor emotion related. Six categories were created for coding this question: 1) read paper/feedback again, 2) refer back/use information for next paper, 3) talk to

instructor, 4) rewrite paper/make notes, 5) ask peers or friends to read essay, and 6) nothing.

As had been the procedure with the SLWFAI responses, all comments referring to feedback, emotions, or any actions taken after receiving their essay were assigned a code; participants regularly reported more than one feedback type or emotion in response to an interview question. The participants produced a total of 209 coded comments in response to the interview questions. Once again, Coder 3 was enlisted to code five (35.7%) randomly selected participant interview responses. Coder 3 and I agreed on 90 out of 102 participant coded comments from the five double-coded interviews, giving an interrater reliability of 88.2%. During a follow up meeting, all points of disagreement were resolved.

3.5.2.5. Coding – online questionnaires.

The final instrument to undergo coding was the online questionnaire. Thirteen participants responded to the questionnaire and each respondent answered all the questions on the questionnaire even though they were not obliged to provide a response to each question. Two questions requested information related to emotional responses to feedback while a third question was interested in whether the feedback from the first written assignment had any influence on the participant when preparing the second written assignment. The two emotion questions were coded using the same list of emotions that was used for the SLWFAI and interview questions related to emotions (Table 3). The third question - *How did the feedback you received on the first assignment influence, or not influence, your writing on the second assignment?* - was coded for either

“Positively – Had Influence” or “Neutral/No Effect.” No participants reported the feedback as having a negative influence on writing the second assignment.

All coded responses to the first two online questionnaire questions were coded according to the list of emotions previously used (Table 3). Participant responses were not limited to only one emotion per response and a total of 35 emotions were coded from the online questionnaire responses. The third question produced 13 total responses, the same number of respondents. Coder 3 was given five randomly selected participant responses to the online questionnaire and coded the responses in the same manner as she had previously done with the interviews and SLWFAI surveys. She was also given the two categories for the third question and coded that question accordingly. Four points of disagreement were found out of 18 coded emotions, giving an interrater reliability of 77.8%. The follow-up discussion resulted in each point of disagreement being resolved.

3.6. Data Analysis

The nature of the data and the associated guiding questions required analysis from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Statistical analyses were conducted through Microsoft Excel using XLSTAT software. Similar statistical analyses and tests were applied to the quantitative data associated with both guiding questions. Non-parametric tests were used to accommodate the small sample sizes.

For guiding question one, the EWAT scoring method developed by Daly-Miller (1975) was used to determine the participants’ English writing anxiety score. The scores were then assigned a level of low, medium, or high by dividing the range of participant scores into three equivalent sections. Letter grades from the first essay were converted to

percentage grades in accordance with the university's grading structure⁸. Descriptive statistics were calculated on the EWAT scores and the grades to determine the group results. Spearman's correlation was calculated between the EWAT results and the percentage grades. Additional correlations were calculated between the EWAT scores and three feedback groups: content, mechanical/grammatical, and organization and formatting⁹. Descriptive statistics were also applied to each survey question as a means of analyzing the group results for each question.

To answer guiding question two, the SLWFAI was scored by summing each participant's scores, in accordance with Cheng's (2004) method, and applying descriptive statistics to the group's scores. Grades from the second essay were converted into percentage grades in the same manner as the first essay grades had been converted. Spearman's correlation was calculated between the SLWFAI results and the converted percentage grades. Correlations were also calculated between the SLWFAI scores and three feedback groups: content, mechanical/grammatical, and organization and formatting. Further analysis was undertaken to calculate any correlation between the two sets of grades and the two sets of survey results, respectively. Descriptive statistics were again applied to each survey question.

The qualitative results from the essay feedback, the SLWFAI, the interviews, and the online questionnaire were analyzed descriptively for frequencies and modes to establish recurring themes among the responses as they related to either emotions or

⁸ A+ = 90-100; A = 85-89; A- = 80-84; B+ = 77-79; B = 73-76; B- = 70-72; C+ = 65-69; C = 60-64; D = 50-59. Numbers represent percentages. Each letter grade was converted to the midpoint of its associated numerical percent range. For example, B- was converted to 71%.

⁹ Content includes: criticism with suggestion, criticism without suggestion, specific compliment, general compliment, acknowledgment without comment, clarity and coherence, and style. Mechanical/grammatical includes: punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. Organization and formatting includes only organization and formatting. See Appendix G for definitions of feedback types.

feedback. The feedback coding scheme and the emotion coding scheme were both collapsed from the total number of subcategories into more comprehensive broad categories; descriptive analysis was conducted at the macro (e.g., pleasant, unpleasant, and neutral emotion categories) and micro (e.g., individual emotion – enjoyment, hope, disappointment, anxiety, etc. – categories) levels. Two feedback subcategories – unknown and other – were removed from analyses because of the low rates of occurrence ($n = 3$) and could not be included in the main categories. Open-ended survey questions, interview questions, and online questionnaire questions that shared similar concepts or were paraphrases of the same question were examined as a means of comparing the data from different collection methods. The qualitative results and quantitative results were also examined comparatively for the same reason.

Chapter Four – Results and Discussion

The study results and accompanying discussion are presented in this chapter in five sections. The first section includes the results and discussion on the essay feedback. Section two presents the quantitative results and discussion for guiding question one. Section three presents the quantitative and qualitative results for guiding question two, which is immediately followed by a summary and discussion of guiding question two's results. Section four includes a cross examination of survey and interview findings and section five concludes the chapter with a summary and discussion of key findings. All results are presented at the group level and individual participant results are included to serve illustrative purposes and provide in-depth analysis where appropriate.

4.1. Essay Feedback

4.1.1. Results.

Fourteen participants provided me with one essay which included comments, feedback, and a grade as assigned by the instructor. The total number of comments or occurrences of feedback found was 508 with 16 occurrences coded as unknown, reducing the number of occurrences used for analysis to 492 ($M = 35.2$, $SD = 16.2$). The total feedback occurrences were calculated by category and individual type (Appendix G), as shown in Table 4. Grammar was the most common individual type of feedback identified (19.7 %) and spelling was found to be the least common type (1.0%). On a per essay basis, number of occurrences ranged from a low of 12 comments to a high of 67. Feedback occurrences by instructor were calculated to understand if disparities existed between the amounts of feedback provided per instructor.

Table 4

Essay Feedback Results by Individual Category

<u>Category</u>	<u>Subcategory</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>	
Organization		12	2.4%	
Formatting		48	9.8%	
Content	Criticism	without suggestion	14	2.8%
		with suggestion	27	5.5%
	Compliment	Specific	18	3.7%
		General	24	4.9%
	Acknowledgment without comment	59	12.0%	
	Clarity & coherence	63	12.8%	
Style	15	3.0%		
Mechanical/ Grammatical	Punctuation	76	15.4%	
	Spelling	5	1.0%	
	Vocabulary	31	6.3%	
	Grammar	100	20.3%	
Total		492	100.0%	

The mean number of occurrences per essay for the ENGL-A instructor was 36.5 ($SD = 18.9$) and for the ENGL-B instructor it was 32.0 ($SD = 4.1$); one instructor varied more in the amount of feedback provided while the other provided a more consistent amount. Spearman's correlation found a negative, non-statistically significant, correlation between amount of feedback and grade ($n = 14$, $r = -.016$, $p = .962$). The essay receiving the most feedback (67 occurrences – Participant 16) and the essay receiving the least amount of feedback (12 occurrences – Participant 7) both received the same grade (C+) from the same instructor. The number of different individual types of feedback (i.e., organization, punctuation, criticism without suggestion) identified on each essay ranged from five types to twelve types per essay and the number of different types of feedback found was statistically significantly related to the total number of occurrences per essay ($n = 14$, $r =$

.888, $p = <.0001$). In other words, more overall feedback (number of occurrences on an essay) corresponded to a wider variety of types of feedback (i.e., organization, punctuation, criticism without suggestion) found within an essay.

When the individual feedback types were arranged into three category groups of organization and formatting, content, and mechanical/grammatical feedback, feedback associated with content and with mechanical/grammatical comments were nearly evenly distributed across all the essays with content identified in 220 occurrences and mechanical/grammatical feedback identified 212 times (Table 5).

Table 5

Feedback Results by Category Groups

<u>Category</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>
Organization & formatting	60	12.2%
Content	220	44.7%
Mechanical/grammatical	212	43.1%
Total	492	100.0%

The distribution of feedback across participant essays was also examined (Table 6), finding the mean rate of occurrences for each grouping resulted in: content 15.7 ($SD = 4.9$), mechanical/grammatical = 15.1 ($SD = 10.8$), and organization and formatting = 4.3 ($SD = 3.2$). The lowest rate of content feedback received by a participant was 31.4% (P2) and two participants (P3 and P9) received no grammar feedback. Upon closer review of the content feedback alone, the occurrences of criticism and compliment feedback per essay were quite uniform (criticism $M = 2.9$, $SD = 2.1$; compliment $M = 3.0$, $SD = 1.3$), but their distribution within the content feedback was more varied. Criticism feedback comprised from 0% to 50% of content feedback while compliment feedback ranged from 8.3% to 40.0% (Table 7). As a result, every essay received at least one compliment and

one essay received no criticism feedback (P9). One participant (P2) received the same number of criticism and compliment feedback occurrences; five received more criticism feedback than compliment feedback and eight received more compliment than criticism feedback. It is also worth noting that all instances of grammar, punctuation, and spelling feedback took the form of direct WCF where the error was identified and corrected by the instructor (see Appendix E for a sample essay).

Table 6

Feedback Occurrences for Participants by Category

<u>Participant</u>	<u>Content</u>		<u>Mechanical/ grammatical</u>		<u>Organization and formatting</u>		<u>Total</u>	
P1	14	(34.1%)	24	(58.5%)	3	(7.3%)	41	(100%)
P2	16	(31.4%)	26	(51.0%)	9	(17.6%)	51	(100%)
P3	14	(87.5%)	0	(0.0%)	2	(12.5%)	16	(100%)
P4	21	(43.8%)	21	(43.8%)	6	(12.5%)	48	(100%)
P5	21	(36.8%)	24	(42.1%)	12	(21.1%)	57	(100%)
P6	10	(50.0%)	7	(35.0%)	3	(15.0%)	20	(100%)
P7	10	(83.3%)	2	(16.7%)	0	(0.0%)	12	(100%)
P8	24	(60.0%)	12	(30.0%)	4	(10.0%)	40	(100%)
P9	12	(100.0%)	0	(0.0%)	0	(0.0%)	12	(100%)
P11	15	(51.7%)	8	(27.6%)	6	(20.7%)	29	(100%)
P12	12	(38.7%)	13	(41.9%)	6	(19.4%)	31	(100%)
P13	11	(37.9%)	15	(51.7%)	3	(10.3%)	29	(100%)
P14	15	(38.5%)	22	(56.4%)	2	(5.1%)	39	(100%)
P16	25	(37.3%)	38	(56.7%)	4	(6.0%)	67	(100%)
Total	220	(44.7%)	212	(43.1%)	60	(12.2%)	492	(100%)
<i>M</i>	15.7		15.1		4.3		35.1	
<i>SD</i>	4.9		10.8		3.2		16.3	

Table 7*Content Feedback Occurrences Breakdown by Participant*

<u>Participant</u>	<u>Criticism</u>		<u>Compliment</u>		<u>Other content</u>		<u>Total content</u>	
P1	1	(7.1%)	5	(35.7%)	8	(57.1%)	14	(100%)
P2	5	(20.0%)	5	(20.0%)	15	(60.0%)	25	(100%)
P3	4	(26.7%)	2	(13.3%)	9	(60.0%)	15	(100%)
P4	1	(9.1%)	2	(18.2%)	8	(72.7%)	11	(100%)
P5	8	(50.0%)	2	(12.5%)	6	(37.5%)	16	(100%)
P6	2	(9.5%)	3	(14.3%)	16	(76.2%)	21	(100%)
P7	1	(4.8%)	2	(9.5%)	18	(85.7%)	21	(100%)
P8	4	(33.3%)	1	(8.3%)	7	(58.3%)	12	(100%)
P9	0	(0.0%)	4	(40.0%)	6	(60.0%)	10	(100%)
P11	1	(4.2%)	4	(16.7%)	19	(79.2%)	24	(100%)
P12	3	(20.0%)	4	(26.7%)	8	(53.3%)	15	(100%)
P13	4	(40.0%)	1	(10.0%)	5	(50.0%)	10	(100%)
P14	2	(14.3%)	4	(28.6%)	8	(57.1%)	14	(100%)
P16	5	(41.7%)	3	(25.0%)	4	(33.3%)	12	(100%)
Total	41	(18.6%)	42	(19.1%)	137	(62.3%)	220	(100%)
<i>M</i>	2.9		3.0		9.8		15.7	
<i>SD</i>	2.1		1.3		4.8		4.9	

Note. Criticism includes with suggestion and without suggestion; compliment includes general and specific; other content includes acknowledgment without comment, clarity and coherence, and style.

4.1.2. Discussion.

Examining all the feedback types provided by the instructors on the participant essays demonstrates not only the types of errors found in the essays, but also the means by which the instructors broached the errors. L2 instructors have been found to provide direct correction (Evans et al., 2010; Lee, 2009) as a common method for providing

feedback on writing and the instructors in this study appeared to follow the same practice by applying direct correction on grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors. Additionally, the instructors did not target only errors, but included feedback on the positive aspects of the students' writing, as evidenced through the number of compliments and acknowledgments identified on the essays. The array of feedback types suggests that neither instructor focused solely on one type or form of feedback; all elements of the essays received feedback¹⁰. Evans et al.'s (2010) survey of over 1000 L2 instructors found that instructors spent slightly less than half of their marking time on correcting form (i.e., grammar, spelling) and slightly more than half of their marking time on content. The current study did not elicit the time spent on marking from the instructors; however, it observes a similar result in the distribution of feedback where, on average, 51.8% of the feedback was mechanical/grammatical, leaving 48.2% of the feedback as content, organization, and formatting. It should be noted that one instructor would alter his grading methods based on a students' primary language¹¹ and the other instructor advised me that he did not alter his grading or feedback methods based on a student's primary language. This both supports and differs from the mainstream instructors in Ferris, Brown, Liu and Stine (2011) who were found to change their feedback practices based on the L1 of a student.

¹⁰ Course outlines described the grading criteria for essay assignments, which were set by the English Department at the university. Elements considered in the criteria included the organization of the essay, clarity of argument or thesis, quality of writing (varied sentence structures, varied vocabulary), and accurate use of standard English writing conventions (punctuation, spelling, grammar). As such, the instructors provided feedback in accordance with the grading criteria.

¹¹ This is based on a participant commenting that her instructor told her after he returned her paper that he was not aware when marking and grading her essay that she was an L2 learner and had he known, he would have graded her differently.

The instructors involved in the current study were not EFL/ESL instructors; they were mainstream instructors with ESL students enrolled in their courses. Studies on WCF effectiveness have produced mixed results (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Ferris, 2004, 2010; Hartshorn, Evans, Merrill, Sudweeks, Strong-Krause, & Anderson, 2010; Leki, 1991; Truscott, 2007), but L2 practitioners have been found to be quite consistent in their approaches to providing feedback (Evans et al., 2010). Pedagogically, the feedback practices of the two instructors in the current study appear to vary little from practices of second language (SL) instructors. Hence, mixed results with respect to the effectiveness (as measured by performance through grades) are expected, which will be addressed in later sections.

From a methodological perspective, the holistic view of writing feedback in this study is a departure from (or a return to) previous research. Earlier research examined overall effectiveness of WCF while more recent research has targeted individual types of feedback as a means of determining efficacy (Storch, 2010). This study targeted an ecologically valid learning environment – a mainstream university writing course – as a means of determining the types of feedback ESL learners are exposed to in a non-ESL classroom and endeavoured to understand how learners respond to feedback in this context. Understanding the types of feedback given and how they were distributed to the learners lays the groundwork for comprehending the remaining results in an appropriate context.

4.2. Guiding Question One

Do L2 learners' levels of second language writing anxiety influence their second language writing performance?

Guiding question one results are presented in two parts: 1) group and individual scores from the EWAT (Appendix A), the essay grades, and correlations with feedback, and 2) group results from individual questions on the EWAT survey.

4.2.1. EWAT Scores, Essay One Grades and Feedback.

EWAT scores were calculated according to the method described by Daly and Miller (1975) and letter grades on the first essay were converted to percentages¹² to coincide with the university grading guidelines. Participant scores from the EWAT ranged from 58 to 113 out of a possible range of 26 to 130. The range of participant scores were divided into three equal parts representing low (58-76), mid (77-94) and high (95-113) ranges. Participants' mean score was 80.5 ($SD = 15.1$). Percentage scores from the graded essays ranged from 67% to 82% (C+ to A-) with a mean of 73.2% (B) ($SD = 5.4$). Spearman's correlation conducted on the EWAT scores and percentage grades resulted in a negative, non-statistically significant, correlation ($n = 15, r = -.239, p = .291$), meaning that higher grades were (not statistically significantly) related to lower EWAT scores and vice versa. In the absence of a statistical correlation, additional examinations of the EWAT scores were pursued. Eight (50%) of the EWAT scores fell into the low range, five (31.3%) were in the mid range, and the remaining three (18.8%) were in the high range. The EWAT scores and grades were then reviewed individually, finding that the two participants receiving the highest grades on the first assignment scored the two lowest scores on the EWAT; participants with the lowest grades scored in either the mid or low range on the EWAT. The two highest EWAT scores were from participants whose grades were B+ and B- (see Figure 1).

¹² See footnote 8.

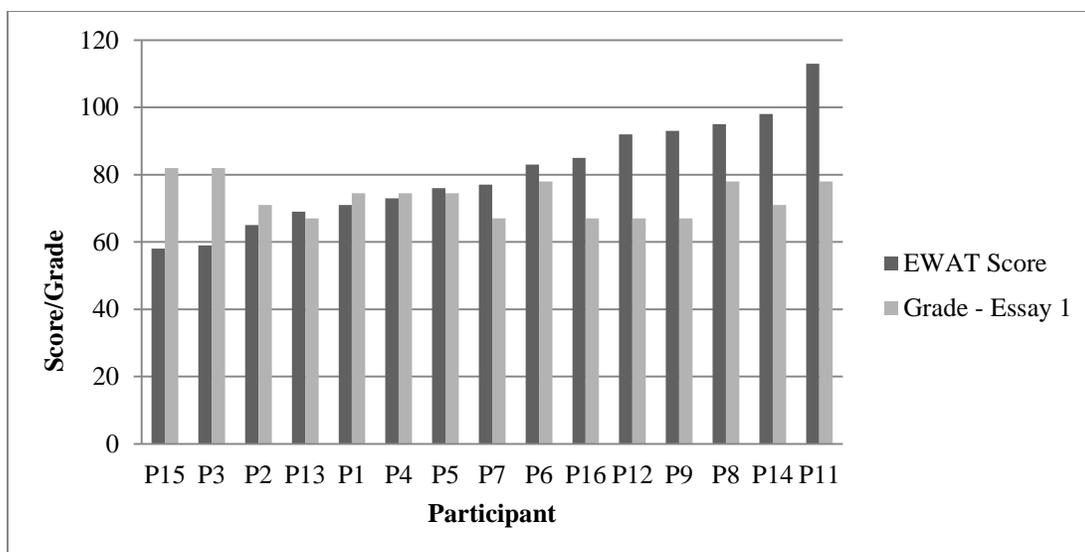


Figure 1 Participant EWAT Scores and Grades on First Essay

Note. $n=15$, $r= -.239$, $p=.291$. P10 is not included because no grade was provided.

Further analysis was conducted on the EWAT scores and feedback¹³. Spearman's correlation was applied to the EWAT scores and the amount of content feedback, mechanical/grammatical feedback, criticism feedback, and compliment feedback. The grades on the first essay were also correlated with the feedback groupings (Table 8). One of the correlational analyses resulted in a statistically significant finding. A negative correlation was found between the grade on the first essay and the amount of criticism feedback ($n = 14$, $r = -.591$, $p = .029$). Finding that higher (or lower) amounts of criticism relate to a lower (or higher) grade is not unexpected and, while a positive correlation was found between grade and amount of compliment feedback (i.e., more compliments relate to higher grades), the correlation was not statistically significant. The grade on essay one and mechanical/grammatical feedback were also negatively correlated, although not at a statistically significant level ($n = 14$, $r = -.264$, $p = .361$).

¹³ An individual analysis between the two participants with the lowest EWAT scores and highest grades for potential relationships among EWAT scores, grades, and feedback types was not possible because one participant (P3) provided an essay and the other (P15) provided only the grade.

Two other negative correlations were found between the EWAT scores and mechanical/grammatical feedback ($n = 14$, $r = -.165$, $p = .573$) and between EWAT scores and compliment feedback ($n = 14$, $r = -.055$, $p = .856$). Lower EWAT scores bore some relation to higher amounts of content feedback and compliment feedback (and vice versa) while lower grades and higher amounts of mechanical/grammatical feedback (and vice versa) were correlated (at a non-statistically significant level). Table 8 includes the full results of the statistical tests.

Table 8

Spearman's Correlations Between Surveys, Grades, and Feedback

	<u>Essay 1</u> <u>Grade</u>	<u>Essay 2</u> <u>Grade</u>	<u>Mechanical/</u> <u>Grammatical</u>	<u>Content</u>	<u>Criticism</u>	<u>Compliment</u>
EWAT	$r = -.239^a$	$r = -.140^d$	$r = -.165^b$	$r = -.046^b$	$r = .092^b$	$r = -.055^b$
SLWFAI	$r = .044^b$	$r = -.036^c$	$r = .265^b$	$r = .058^b$	$r = .078^b$	$r = .419^b$
Essay 1 Grade	-	$r = -.340^c$	$r = -.264^b$	$r = .195^b$	$r = -.591^{b*}$	$r = .477^b$
Essay 2 Grade	-	-	$r = .436^d$	$r = -.319^d$	$r = -.509^d$	$r = -.061^d$

* $p < .05$; ^a $n = 15$; ^b $n = 14$; ^c $n = 13$; ^d $n = 12$

Note. p values are $>.08$ except where indicated. Feedback was gathered from essay one only.

4.2.2. Individual EWAT Survey Questions – Group Results.

The EWAT survey consists of 26 statements which participants ranked on a 7-point Likert scale¹⁴ from strongly disagree to strongly agree, including an option for “Not applicable”; the scale did not include a neutral response option. Seven individual

¹⁴ 0 represented “Not applicable”; the scale from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” ranged from 1 to 6. No participants answered 0 – Not Applicable on the survey. All responses fell into either an agree or disagree category.

questions and their responses at the group level, presented below (Table 9), illustrate attitudes and emotions towards writing in English based on different scenarios and potential outcomes of the writing process. Participant responses were categorized as either “Agree” or “Disagree” (no responses for “Not applicable” were found) and as such, the results display the group percentages of agreement and disagreement with the statement. Complete survey results by question are found in Appendix H.

Table 9

Sample EWAT Survey Results

<u>#</u>	<u>Survey Statement</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>
1	I avoid writing in English (when possible).	31.2%	68.8%
3	I look forward to writing down my ideas in English.	75%	25%
8	Expressing ideas through writing in English seems to be a waste of time.	0%	100%
12	I like to have my friends read what I have written in English.	81.3%	18.7%
13	I'm nervous about writing in English.	75%	25%
19	I like seeing my thoughts on paper in English.	68.8%	31.2%
23	It's easy for me to write good English compositions.	12.5%	87.5%

From the group responses to individual EWAT statements (Table 9), participants are observed expressing positivity towards writing in English through their responses to the statements 1, 3, 8, 12, and 19. They also expressed difficulty and nervousness, as seen in the results for statements 13 and 23. No participant thought it was a waste of time to express ideas in English and a large majority (68.8%) enjoyed seeing their thoughts on paper; however, an even greater number did not find it easy to write in English (87.5%) and over two thirds experienced nervousness towards English writing. Additionally, the

same percentage of participants reported looking forward to writing their ideas down in English as were nervous about writing in English (75%).

4.2.3. Discussion.

EWAT scores and essay grades revealed that the two participants scoring the lowest on writing anxiety earned the highest grades on the first essay and the grades of the two participants with the highest EWAT scores earned average grades (B+ and B-). The lowest grades did not correspond to high anxiety scores – they corresponded to mid and low anxiety scores. The correlation test on the EWAT scores and grades indicated a negative, non-statistically significant, correlation. These results do not explicitly suggest a correlation between the participants' anxiety levels and writing performance, as measured by the grade earned on the first assignment. The remaining statistical results show a negative correlation between anxiety scores and mechanical/grammatical feedback, which may indicate that, for some of the participants, higher levels of writing anxiety were related to fewer mechanical/grammatical errors; this does not suggest that their anxiety was the reason for fewer mechanical/grammatical errors.

The original Writing Apprehension Test (Daly & Miller, 1975) was designed to measure writing anxiety and thus, the EWAT similarly measures anxiety towards writing in English for the participants in the current study whose primary language is not English. Previous researchers (Horwitz, 2001; Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009; Scovel, 1978) have recommended focusing on a specific type of anxiety when undertaking research into language anxiety in order to understand how it may or may not relate to performance. Despite pinpointing second language writing anxiety through the administration of the EWAT, the nuanced responses to the EWAT statements give insight into the participants'

thoughts and feeling towards writing in their non-primary language. The EWAT is designed as a test of writing anxiety; however, the results reveal more than anxiety scores. For example, for statement six (Appendix H), – *Handing in an English composition makes me feel good* – 62.5% of participants were in agreement with this idea. A question that can be asked is – what is the emotion attached to the “good” feeling? It is possible that participants experienced any number of emotions, such as pride, relief, joy, or satisfaction. Further, disagreement with the statement does not indicate that anxiety was the only emotion experienced. Disappointment, hopelessness, and sadness are all possible responses informing the way a participant may have answered statement six. Another explanation for not finding a statistically significant correlation between anxiety scores (EWAT) and grades is that anxiety can function as debilitating or facilitative, or have a neutral effect on performance. Pekrun et al. (2002) discuss anxiety’s effects as “activating” or “deactivating” where activating anxiety relates to performance improvement. This would predict a positive correlation between anxiety scores and grades (i.e., higher grades related higher “activating” anxiety). Even though a statistical correlation may not exist between participants’ writing anxiety levels and writing performance, the complex responses expressed by the participants through the EWAT survey telegraph the complex nature of results found in subsequent data collection methods. These results are presented in relation to guiding question two.

4.3. Guiding Question Two

Do L2 learners’ levels of writing anxiety in response to feedback (feedback anxiety) on an L2 writing assignment influence their perceived performance on a subsequent writing assignment?

Results for guiding question two include quantitative results related to the SLWFAI survey, grades earned on a second assignment, and the feedback received (from the first assignment), as well as the qualitative data associated with the SLWFAI survey, the interviews, and the online questionnaire. The qualitative data gathered was related to the second guiding question; however, the results associated with the qualitative data extend beyond the potential relationship between feedback anxiety and performance, as described in the question. Quantitative results are presented first, followed by individual question results from the open-ended SLWFAI questions, the interview questions, and the online questionnaire questions in successive order. The section concludes with a discussion of the results.

4.3.1. SLWFAI Scores, EWAT Scores, Grades, and Feedback.

The SLWFAI includes twelve closed-ended statements which participants ranked along the same 7-point Likert scale that was used on the EWAT, where three points corresponded to a level of agreement, three points corresponded to a level of disagreement, and one option for “Not applicable” was available. Individual scores were calculated by summing the responses to each question after all questions had been changed to represent positive statements and the responses converted accordingly¹⁵. This allowed for consistency in the evaluation of results.

Fifteen (out of 16) participants completed the SLWFAI and the scores on the closed-ended SLWFAI questions ranged from 28 to 49. The participants’ mean score was 38.9 ($SD = 6.4$). The range of participant scores was broken down into three sections to represent low (28-35), mid (36-42), and high (43-49) ranges. Four participants

¹⁵ As an example: in Question 7’s statement - *I don’t worry a lot about the feedback my instructor provides on my English composition.* – the word “don’t” was removed and the numerical associations with responses were converted by changing 1 to 6, 2 to 5, 3 to 4, and vice versa.

(26.7%) scored in the low range, five (33.3%) scored in the mid range, leaving six (40%) participants in the high range. Thirteen participants reported a grade on a second assignment. Five participants saw a decrease in their grade from the first essay, seven increased their grade, and one participant received the same grade on both essays. Spearman's correlation revealed a negative, non-statistically significant, correlation between the SLWFAI and the grade on the second assignment ($n = 13$, $r = -.036$, $p = .913$). At an individual level, the participant (P12) scoring the lowest (28) on the SLWFAI received the lowest grade (C; 62%) and the participant (P9) scoring the highest (49) on the SLWFAI received the second lowest grade (C+; 67%) (see Figure 2).

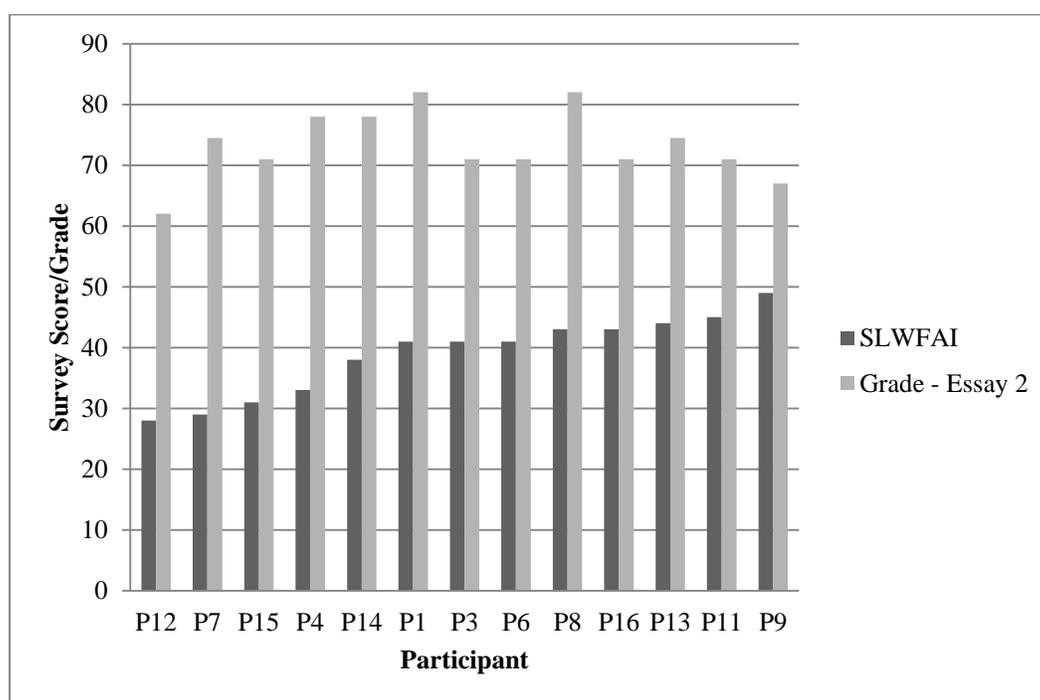


Figure 2 *SLWFAI Scores and Essay 2 Grades by Participant*

Note. $n=13$, $r = -.036$, $p=.82$

Statistical analyses were also conducted on the SLWFAI scores and feedback – mechanical/grammatical, content, criticism, and compliment. Positive, non-statistically significant correlations were found between SLWFAI scores and feedback in all cases

(mechanical/grammatical, content, criticism, and compliment) (Table 8). This suggests some relationship between higher SLWFAI anxiety scores and the amount of feedback received in any specific group of feedback. Correlations were also calculated between the grade reported on the second essay and the feedback received on the first essay. One positive correlation was found between the grade on essay two and the amount of mechanical/grammatical feedback ($n = 12^{16}$, $r = .436$, $p = .156$) while the correlations between the grade on the second essay and content, criticism, and compliment feedback resulted in negative correlations. In other words, a higher grade on the second essay bore some relationship to higher amounts of mechanical/grammatical feedback on the first essay (and to lower amounts of content, criticism, and compliment feedback from the first essay). None of the statistical correlations between SLWFAI scores and feedback or the grades on essay two and feedback achieved statistical significance, however.

A closer examination of the individual EWAT scores and SLWFAI scores reveals that 50% of participants scored in a higher range on the SLWFAI (measuring feedback anxiety) than on the EWAT (measuring L2 writing anxiety). For example, Participant 1 scored in the mid range (36-42) on the SLWFAI and in the low range (58-76) on the EWAT. This may indicate that these participants experienced a higher level of anxiety towards feedback than towards writing in English in general. The feedback received by five participants was comprised of more than 50% mechanical/grammatical feedback and four of these participants scored in a higher range on the SLWFAI than on the EWAT. This result shows that a relationship between higher amounts of

¹⁶ Only 12 participants who had provided a copy of the first essay, which was used to analyze feedback, reported a grade on the second essay.

mechanical/grammatical feedback and anxiety towards feedback may exist (at least for these four participants).

4.3.2. Individual SLWFAI Survey Questions – Group Results.

Upon finding a lack of statistical significance between the SLWFAI scores, grades on the second essay, and feedback, the twelve closed-ended survey questions were each examined at the group level. The first five statements on the SLWFAI (Table 10) relate to anxiety or panic and the participants' responses to these statements exhibited low levels of agreement (from 0% to 33.3%). For example, the statement - *I feel my heart pounding when I read the feedback on my English composition.* – produced an agreement rate of 26.7%. Statements receiving higher rates of agreement involved anxiety towards the overall feedback (#7), anxiety with respect to performance in comparison to others (#8), and anxiety related to performance outcome (i.e., the grade) (#12). No participant reported experiencing their mind going blank upon reading the feedback and nearly all (93.3%) responded that they worry about receiving a poor grade. A review of questions 2 and 11 shows that nearly three quarters (73.3%) do not experience panic when reading feedback, but two thirds (66.7%) admit to feeling nervous during the same activity. The results associated with the closed-ended survey statements exemplify the participants' varied responses to the feedback received.

Table 10*SLWFAI Closed-ended Survey Results*

<u>#</u>	<u>Survey Statement</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>
1	My thoughts become jumbled or confused when I read the feedback from my instructor on my English composition.	33.3%	66.7%
2	I often feel panic when I read the feedback on my English composition.	26.7%	73.3%
3	I often tremble or perspire when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0%	100%
4	I feel my heart pounding when I read the feedback on my English composition.	26.7%	73.3%
5	I usually feel my whole body go rigid and tense when I read the feedback on my English composition.	20.0%	80.0%
6	I usually seek every possible chance to make the changes suggested by my instructor on my English composition.	80.0%	20.0%
7	I worry a lot about the feedback my instructor provides on my English composition.	66.7%	33.3%
8	I worry that the feedback on my English composition is a lot worse than others'.	80.0%	20.0%
9	My mind goes blank when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0%	100%
10	I'm afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	73.3%	26.7%
11	While reading the feedback on my English composition, I'm not nervous at all.	33.3%	66.7%
12	When my English composition is to be evaluated, I worry about getting a very poor grade.	93.3%	6.7%

4.3.3. Qualitative Data – Survey, Interview, and Online Questions.

The open-ended survey and interview questions included responses referencing either emotions or feedback types, with the exception of one interview question involving participants' actions after receiving feedback. Two online questionnaire questions pertained to emotions with a third question asking participants their opinion of the

influence of feedback on their performance. The qualitative results are presented in the following sections beginning with the open-ended survey question responses, followed by the interview responses, and then the online questionnaire responses.

4.3.3.1. SLWFAI Open-ended Survey Results.

Seven open-ended questions from the SLWFAI survey were examined for feedback- or emotion-related remarks. Responses to questions 13 and 14 were coded using the emotion schema (Table 3) and responses to questions 15 through 19 used the feedback categories from Appendix G.

Thirteen (54.1%) of the 24 responses to question 13 – *When my graded English composition is returned to me I feel...* – fell into the unpleasant emotion category (Table 3); 33.3% were found in the pleasant category and the remaining 12.5% of responses were categorized as neutral (acceptance). The most commonly mentioned specific emotions were anxiety (24%), acceptance (12.5%), hope (12.5%), and disappointment (12.5%). Five participants relayed more than one emotion in their answer, which is seen in Participant 11’s response: “[I feel] nervous because I hope I can get a better grade...When I know my grade everything is fine.” Here the participant expresses anxiety in the first part of the response and relief once the grade is known.

Question 14 – *The feedback my instructor provides on my English compositions makes me feel...* – produced 20 occurrences of emotions within the participant responses. Pleasant emotions were identified in 70% of the responses, 20% were in the unpleasant category and 10% were neutral. Hope (35%) and satisfaction (20%) were the highest occurring emotions while confidence and acceptance were mentioned at a rate of 10% each. Three participants expressed multiple emotions in their remarks. Participant 2’s

comment includes satisfaction, confidence, and hope when she states: “[it makes me feel] good {*satisfaction*}. The feedback tells me the good parts of my essay. Although the mark is not high, it still give me confidence {*confidence*} and make me feel I can do better next time {*hope*}.” Participant 14 explains her reaction depending on how she defines the feedback, as explained in her comment “[it makes me feel] good if it is good feedback, demotivated if it is bad feedback.”

To code questions 15 through 19, three additional categories (as mentioned in the methodology) were added to the feedback coding scheme to accommodate participant comments on feedback types that were less specific than what was available within the coding scheme used for the essays (Appendix G). Non-specified errors, writing skills – general, and general criticism were added and applied to the following survey questions as well as to three interview questions. Non-specified errors referred to remarks participants made that referred to errors or mistakes where the particular type of error (i.e., grammar, organization, content, etc.) was not specified. For example, in response to the question, “*Which comments made by your instructor were most helpful to you?*” Participant 13 replied, “...he also point out the detail mistakes I made ...”; she does not specify whether or not the “mistakes” are grammar mistakes, or if she means other mistakes, such as organization. For this reason, non-specified errors may or may not include WCF.

Participants produced 21 comments mentioning feedback in their responses to question 15 – *What type of feedback makes you feel positive about your English writing?* – and 80.1% of those comments were in reference to content feedback. Of the content feedback comments, 76.4% were identified as a specific or general compliment and the

remaining 23.6% referred to a type of criticism (general or with suggestion). Three of the four participants who identified criticism as a type of feedback which induces positive feelings also included a compliment type in their comments. The combination of compliment and criticism appeared to be the key element for these participants, as demonstrated by Participant 9 when she states, “Ones that say I did good, but here are some improvements that can be made.”

The 19 comments associated with question 16 – *What type of feedback makes you feel negative about your English writing?* – showed that over half the feedback types noted by participants were either a general criticism (36.8%) or the grade (21.1%). The remainder of the feedback types were distributed across three different categories (organization, mechanical/grammatical, and non-specified errors).

Results for question 17 – *What type of feedback makes you feel nervous or anxious about writing in English?* – found that mechanical/grammatical errors and non-specified errors were the most commonly labelled feedback types that caused anxiety, each garnering 26.3% of the total 19 comments. Writing skills – general was the next most common feedback type with 17.6% of responses.

Participants’ perceptions of the usefulness of feedback were the focus of questions 18 and 19. Question 18 asked *What type of feedback on your writing in English is most useful to you?* and question 19 inquired about the least useful types of feedback. Content feedback represented the bulk of the question 18 comments (57.7%), 46.7% of which were labelled criticism with suggestion, 40% of the content feedback was attributed to compliment feedback, and general criticism and criticism without suggestion each received 6.7% of the responses. Participant 5’s comment, “Just suggest

me how to improve,” as well as Participant 8’s , “some advices,” exhibit the participants’ perception of the usefulness of suggestions within the feedback. Compliment feedback was perceived as least useful at nearly the same rate as the participants had labelled it most useful (23.1% and 21.0% respectively), but a clearer picture emerged with respect to criticism feedback. General criticism and criticism without suggestion made up 25.0% of the comments on the least useful type of feedback and no participants perceived criticism with suggestion as the least useful type. Participant 12’s comment, “Just tells me that I did an awful work but it doesn’t tell me where are my problems,” captures participants’ sentiments towards non-suggestion based critical feedback. A full breakdown of the responses to survey questions 13 through 19 is available in Appendix I.

4.3.3.2. Interviews.

Feedback was the topic of most of the open-ended SLWFAI questions, whereas the interview questions shifted the focus towards emotions. The interview questions were asked in specific reference to the feedback on the essay the participants brought to the second meeting. Participants did not consistently restrict their responses to only include comments on the feedback from the essay and did, at times, include comments on other sources of feedback from their instructor (i.e., during class time, one-on-one meetings, other assignments, etc.). Results are presented by individual question below.

Interview questions one and two mirrored survey questions 18 and 19 in which participants were asked to describe the most helpful and least helpful comments from their instructor. On the most helpful side, participants provided a total of 39 feedback comments. Eighteen (46.1%) comments referred to content feedback with 55.5% of the content feedback comments found within the compliment subcategory; 27.7% of the

content comments were categorized as a criticism type and 16.7% of the content comments labelled clarity and coherence feedback as most useful. Grammar was identified in 20.5% of all responses to the question about which type of feedback was most helpful and one participant responded that none of the feedback types were “most” helpful because they were all equally helpful. All but two participants noted more than one feedback type as most useful and one participant listed four different types in her response.

When asked about the least helpful feedback types, participants produced the overall lowest number of comments (15) and one third of the comments indicated that none of the feedback was “least useful”; in other words, these participants indirectly noted that all feedback is beneficial. Further probing unearthed comments identifying content feedback characterized as general (complimentary or critical) as least helpful (20.0% of responses) with another 20.0% of responses mentioning mechanical/grammatical feedback. Only one participant said that feedback on organization was the least helpful type.

Question three – *Which (were there any) comments (that) made you worry about your writing ability (if any)?* – generated 20 comments and every major category of feedback type except formatting was represented in the participant comments. Content represented 22.2% of comments (75.0% of which fell under criticism feedback), organization, writing skills – general, and non-specified errors all received 16.7% of responses, grammar and none both received 11.1% of comments and the one response (5.0%) identified the grade as a source of worry about writing ability.

The most productive question in generating participant comments was question four – *How did you feel about the feedback provided by your instructor?* Participants produced 66 total comments and 65 mentioned an emotion (one response of “none” was identified), demonstrating that the feedback they received provoked emotional responses and the responses were emotionally complex. All participants except one expressed multiple emotions in their comments.

Breaking down the remarks into the unpleasant, pleasant, and neutral categories, 55.4% fell into the unpleasant range, 26.1% were characterized as pleasant, and 18.5% comments referred to the neutral emotion (acceptance). Analyzed further, the complexity of the emotions the participants discussed emerges. The top three responses were sadness and acceptance (a tie – 18.5% each), disappointment (16.9%) and anxiety (9.2%). Joy and confidence together represented 12.3% of responses and unpleasant surprise was mentioned in 5.6% of comments. Out of the 16 emotions listed on the schema (Table 3), the participants’ comments referenced 12 of them. One example of the number and complexity of emotions a participant discussed is Participant 11 whose response mentioned joy, relief, sadness, and disappointment, towards the feedback she received¹⁷. A follow up question – *Which type of feedback do you like and why?* – revealed not only the reasons for participants’ feedback preferences, but also how their interpretations of the feedback translated into feedback also being characterized as beneficial. Participant 14 liked “the checkmarks” because “even though they don’t say anything...the checkmarks just mean to me, at least, that [the instructor] read [my essay] and it makes

¹⁷ Participant 11’s response was: “First I feel I got a bad score {*sadness*}. And I talked with my friend and he said it’s a good score. And I feel better {*relief*}. [Interviewer]: *Were you sad?* [P11]: Yup. Of course. [Interviewer]: *Disappointed maybe?* [P11]: Ya...But then another friend said his friend he’s a native speaker he failed the essay and I feel very happy!{*joy*} [Interviewer]: *Were you relieved?* [P11]: Ya ya ya ya ya.”

sense and it was good,” which translated into her using the “good” aspects of her essay as a model for her next essay “because I knew more what my professor wanted.”

Question six – *How did you feel when your paper was returned to you?* – and question seven – *How do you feel/are you feeling about writing the next essay?* – resulted in 21 and 31 comments respectively. Participants reported feeling primarily unpleasant emotions when receiving their graded essay (61.9%), then leaned towards pleasant emotions with respect to writing the next essay (58.1%). Feelings of anxiety and disappointment (28.6% each) in response to their returned essay turned to confidence and hope (19.4% each), as well as hopelessness and shame (9.7% each), when it came time to write the next essay. Participant 13, for example, expressed anxiety and disappointment towards the feedback, and yet, seemed hopeful about writing the next paper¹⁸.

Finally, question five – *What do you do after you review the feedback - what actions do you take, if any?* – was included in the interviews primarily from my interest as an ESL instructor and from communications with other ESL instructors on the perceived usefulness of providing feedback. Previous studies (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 2000; Lee, 2005) have found that learners value the feedback from their instructors and the participants in the current study also expressed similar sentiments, particularly those that explained that all feedback was useful in response to interview questions one and two. I was interested in understanding whether any actions coincided with their statements about the usefulness of feedback. In all,

¹⁸ This is part of the exchange between me and Participant 13: [Interviewer]: How did you feel when you got your paper back? [P13]: Nervous. [Interviewer]: Nervous? [P13]: Of course! Because he said in front of class that this time everyone have made the improvements and he said most of the students grades between B+ and B- so I just feel disappointed about my grade {she received C+}...[Interviewer]: How do you feel about writing the next one? [P13]: I'm just, I'm very eager to know how to write it...I don't want to get really high marks I just want to have an improvement.

participants made 27 comments in response to this question.” (see Figure 3) and only one (Participant 4) commented that she did nothing after reviewing the feedback by saying, “No. Actually I think I didn’t do anything. I didn’t talk to him, I didn’t write.”

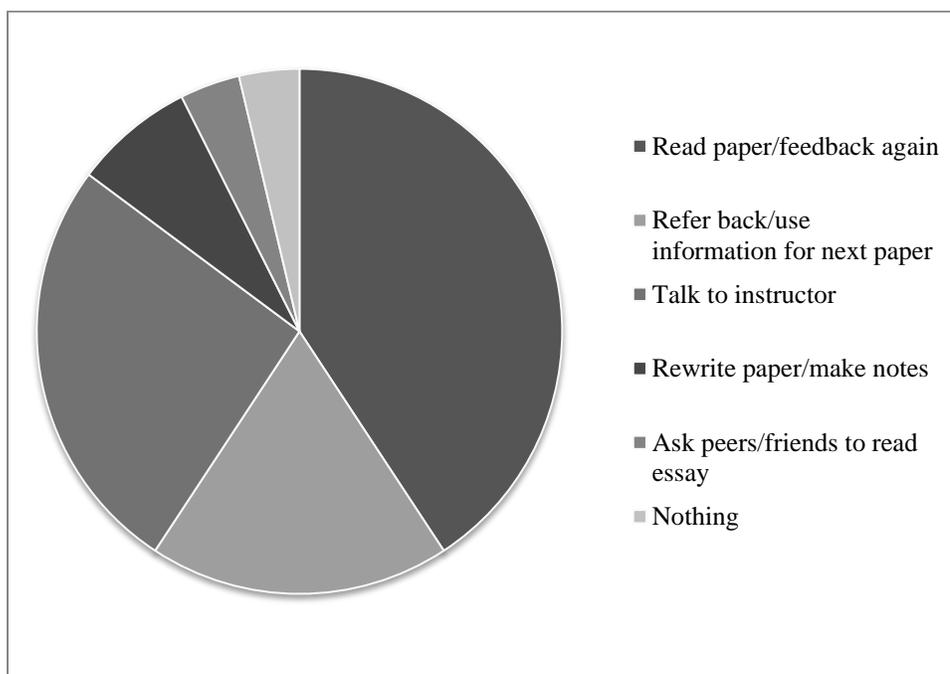


Figure 3 Results for Interview Question “What do you do after you review the feedback?”

The most common response was “read paper/feedback again” (40.7%), followed by “talk to instructor” (25.9%) and then “refer back/use information for next paper” (18.5%). I asked the one participant (Participant 4) who stated she did nothing with the feedback after her essay was returned if she did anything with the feedback in preparation for writing the next essay¹⁹. Her response was, “Yes. For example, I try to look for words...like in this case, formidable, it's not so good word so I won't do this anymore

¹⁹ Only two participants were asked this follow up question. Participant 4 gave the response above and Participant 13 simply replied “Yup,” which was not coded as any specific action. Participant 13 had responded to the initial question “What do you do after you review the feedback?” by saying, “I will go through any problems...and ask him...” which were coded appropriately. Thus, the follow up question resulted in coding both Participant’s 4’s initial “Nothing” response as well as the action taken, whereas Participant 13 had already indicated action was taken so coding was not affected.

because after this there's some mistakes. I try to use the dictionary more.” When reviewed in this light, the responses to this question showed that 100% of the interview participants reported taking some form of follow-up action after reviewing their feedback even if it did not occur immediately after receiving the essay.

4.3.3.3. Online Questionnaire.

The online questionnaire (Appendix D) began by requesting the participants' names and the grades received on a subsequent written assignment, followed by three open-ended questions. The first open-ended question (question three) was interested in the participants' perceived influence of the first assignment's feedback on writing the second assignment and the final two questions were related to emotional responses.

The question – *How did the feedback you received on the first assignment influence, or not influence, your writing on the second assignment?* – produced 13 responses (one per participant). Eight participants (62%) felt the feedback had a positive influence while the remaining five (38%) participants reported that the feedback either did not influence their writing or it had no effect on their second written assignment. No participant reported the feedback negatively influencing the writing of the second assignment.

Consistent with the responses to the previous question, the comments gathered from question four – *How did any emotional responses to the feedback you received on the first assignment affect, or not affect, your writing on the second assignment?* – found that 33.3% of the 15 remarks involved the participants not identifying any particular emotion. Participant 7's response was, “I have no clear emotion about the feedback. So no effect was on the second assignment” and is representative of the other responses

coded as “nothing/none.” Comments falling into the pleasant category were identified seven times; two participants reported feeling unpleasant emotions (hopelessness and disappointment) and one participant expressed acceptance.

The 21 comments provided in response to the final question – *Please provide any additional comments about how you feel about the feedback you receive on your written assignments from your instructor.* – included 20 remarks wherein an emotion was identified. Of these 20 comments, 65% were pleasant emotions and 35% were unpleasant emotions. The three most common emotions reported were hope (20.0%), satisfaction (15.0%), and confidence (15.0%). The participants’ comments covered a range of 11 separate emotions with each of the unpleasant emotions, except unpleasant surprise, receiving at least one mention.

4.3.4. Summary and Discussion – Guiding Question Two.

Statistical analyses of the quantitative data did not produce statistically significant correlations between feedback anxiety and grades; however, the quantitative results do not capture the whole story. Anxiety (or fear) was experienced by at least 66% of participants in response to five of the closed-ended SLWFAI statements (7, 8, 10, 11, and 12), but the variety of emotions relayed in the open-ended survey questions, the interviews, and the online questionnaire demonstrated that learner affective responses involve a range of emotions of which anxiety is one. This coincides with previous research on academic emotions where learners were found to “experience a wide range of emotions in academic settings” (Pekrun et al., 2002, p. 93).

The participants reported primarily pleasant emotions or no emotions when asked whether their emotional responses to the feedback influenced their writing of the second

assignment. This corresponds to the lack of statistical correlation between anxiety towards feedback and their grade – no statistically significant correlation was found perhaps because the participants' primary feeling towards feedback was not anxiety. This finding diverges from Pekrun et al.'s (2002) finding, where “anxiety was the one emotion reported most often” (p. 93) in three academic situations: in class, test-taking, and studying outside the school environment.

Finding no statistical correlations in the quantitative data is in line with the qualitative research findings in that the quantitative surveys focused on one emotion and the participants expressed numerous emotions in response to feedback. Research on affective factors in SLA has focused primarily on anxiety (e.g., Cheng, 2004; Horwitz, 2001; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Sheen, 2008). What the participants in this study demonstrate is that learners experience multiple emotional responses to feedback and of these, anxiety is not the most prevalent. However, feedback on grammar and on non-specified errors received the highest number of comments in reference to the type of feedback causing worry. This suggests a relation between WCF and anxiety, although the influence of anxiety on subsequent performance remains an open question.

The open-ended SLWFAI questions produced both consistent and contradictory comments from the participants. When the essay was returned, participants reported more occurrences of *unpleasant* emotions. The feedback within the essay caused them to report more occurrences of *pleasant* emotions. The worry participants reported on the closed-ended portion of the survey appears to exist up until the feedback has been reviewed, at which time, more pleasant emotions surface. Within the responses to the open-ended survey questions, only joy and pride failed to be mentioned at least once by

the participant group, highlighting the diversity of emotions these participants experienced in response to receiving feedback. The complexity of emotions is demonstrated through observing that hope and anxiety received an equal number of occurrences (seven each) from the same group of questions (from the open-ended SLWFAI).

The point in time associated with anxiety (when the essay is returned) can be interpreted as a time prior to actually seeing the feedback. In their control-value theory of emotions linked to achievement, Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry (2007) explain that “anticipatory outcome emotions are experienced when positively valued success or negatively valued failure are to be expected” (p. 19) and how much control the learner has over the outcome will determine the emotions that will be experienced. In situations where learners have “partial control, . . . *hope* will be instigated if the focus is on success, and *anxiety* if the focus is on failure” (p. 19, original emphasis). The participants in the current study may have been experiencing this phenomenon when their essays were being returned; the feeling of anxiety may have been triggered by “a focus on failure” and experiencing only partial control over the outcome (i.e., the grade). After receiving the essay and reviewing the feedback, multiple and, at times, seemingly incompatible emotions were generated by the participants (i.e., hope and disappointment).

Compliment feedback was viewed positively by the participants (no participants reported unpleasant emotions related to compliment feedback), but criticisms were considered pleasant and unpleasant; the difference in the participants’ assessments of criticism stemmed from whether or not a suggestion was included with the criticism. In other words, criticism that included a suggestion resulted in pleasant reactions; vague or

general criticism induced unpleasant emotions. General criticism was observed as being both least useful as well as the feedback type related to participants reporting feeling negative about their writing. It is not known whether the corollary between these begins with the feedback type or the emotion. The participants' unpleasant emotions towards these types of feedback may have contributed to their perception of the feedback as less useful or they perceived the feedback as less useful, which triggered unpleasant feelings. Similarly, content feedback was identified as most useful and as the type of feedback that induced pleasant feelings towards writing. This may fall in line with what Pekrun et al. (2002) define as "reciprocal causation" (p.100), where emotions and academic outcomes are not considered to be in a unidirectional relationship, but are associated bidirectionally.

During the interview, 12 out of 14 participants named more than one feedback type as most helpful and five failed to label any feedback type as least helpful. Research on L2 learner perception of writing feedback has found learners expressing a desire for content feedback as well as grammar feedback (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaj, 2012; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Huang, 2010, 2011; Lee, 2005, 2008; Leki, 1991; Oladejo, 1993). The participants in the current study are no different; content and grammar were identified as the most useful types of feedback by these participants, indirectly indicating a preference for these types. Participants also divulged their perceptions of non-corrective types of feedback where complimentary and encouraging comments, as well as acknowledgments (i.e., the checkmarks), were recognized as beneficial to the learning and writing process. Participant 5's comment, "when he say I have a lot of good sentence, that really improve me. Like also I can write that sentence on next time," is representative of comments made by the participants noting how positive

feedback is viewed as contributing to learning. Research on WCF has focused on the benefits and effectiveness of error correction (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 1997, 1999, 2010; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Hedgock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Hyland, 2010; Lee, 2005; Sheen, 2010; Storch, 2010). The current findings reveal that explicitly identifying what the learner has done correctly is also perceived as beneficial to the learning process.

From an affective standpoint, the most commonly mentioned emotions in the interviews were hope and acceptance, with 17 occurrences each, and anxiety, with 15 occurrences, which again, differs from previous research (Pekrun et al., 2002). Anxiety was not the foremost emotion on these participants' minds with respect to feedback, although it featured prominently. Notably, every emotion from the schema, with the exception of shame, appeared within the interview comments. The actual comments from the interviews illustrate not only the emotional responses the participants experienced, but also their ability to manage their emotions. Participant 2 demonstrates a shift from sadness to acceptance and hope when she says, "I feel this one make me sad {*sadness*}. But others is ok {*acceptance*}....when I see the feedback I think I can do better next time {*hope*}." Beyond connecting affective factors to performance, these participants exhibit the use of affective strategies by managing their unpleasant emotional responses. As previous research has shown the connection between affective states and learning (e.g., de Jong, 2009; Pekrun, 1992; Pekrun et al., 2002), the affective states that these participants commonly experienced after reviewing the feedback and preparing for the next essay were hope and confidence. Despite reporting unpleasant emotions in response to feedback, their ability to manage unpleasant emotions may have a greater

influence on their performance than the initial response. In Huang's (2012) study on reflection and learner strategic behaviours, affective strategies were reported by learners at nearly the same rate as cognitive strategies and were "the third most frequently used set of strategies" (p. 14). Even though learners in Huang's study were reflecting on L2 speaking tasks, and the participants in the current study were questioned on L2 writing tasks, affective strategies emerge as an important element within a language learner's toolbox.

The online questionnaire results asked questions about any perceived connections between the feedback on the first essay and the performance on the second essay. Participants reported that the feedback on the first essay did not influence their performance on the second essay and neither did their emotional responses to the feedback affect their performance. Isen (2008) suggests that "mild positive affect enables cognitive flexibility...and improved performance on wide range of tasks" (p. 569), which may account for the participants' perception of the feedback in relation to its effect on writing the second essay. The participants stating that their emotional responses to feedback did not influence their performance may have successfully managed any unpleasant responses, and, as such, were not negatively affected by any unpleasant emotions.

Seven participants received a higher grade on the second essay²⁰ and four of these participants reported that their emotional response to the first essay's feedback had no effect on writing the second essay. These results show congruity with the statistical

²⁰ It is important to note that the two essays written by the participants were unlikely to have been the same type (i.e., process essay, rhetorical essay, research essay), based on the course requirements for the two courses. The task type, along with feedback, may have played a role in the increase or decrease in grade from one assignment to the other.

results, particularly because anxiety was only mentioned by one respondent within the online questions. However, the participants demonstrated consistency with the open-ended survey questions and interviews by identifying 12 of the 16 emotions on the schema (Table 3) within the online questionnaire comments. Complex and diverse emotional responses are again the result from the online questionnaire data. Beukeboom and Semin's (2005) study showed that mood influenced writing and the current study participants appeared to employ coping strategies in order to produce a pleasant or positive mood in preparation for the writing the next essay. This is illustrated in different ways by Participant 1's comment, "I don't take in account the previous things for the next things I gonna do," even though he had admitted being disappointed with his grade on the first essay, and Participant 11's comment, "I feel happy just because I can do better in the future," who initially expressed unhappiness with her results. Both participants appeared to employ strategies for minimizing the effects of their unpleasant emotions and thus, focusing on the next assignment with a pleasant or neutral emotion. These findings coincide with previous research on the effects of pleasant emotional states on decision-making and behaviour (Isen, 2008), as well as research on the way in which pleasant emotions are tied to self-regulated learning (Pekrun et al., 2002).

The interview question resulting in all the participants responding that they take some action after reviewing the feedback corresponds to a question on the SLWFAI and will be discussed further, along with several other paired questions, in the following section.

4.4. Data Collection Method Cross-examination

Similar questions from different data collection sources provided an opportunity to examine results for consistencies and disparities in the participants' responses. Comparing the qualitative and quantitative data allows the integration of "two fundamental ways of thinking about social phenomena" (Fielding, 2012, p. 126) where converging data from different sources may support the validity of the research findings. Additionally, the similar target subject (anxiety) of the two quantitative surveys allows for an examination of cross-survey results to related questions.

4.4.1. Closed-ended Survey Questions – EWAT and SLWFAI.

Three comparable questions from the two surveys were examined for their similarities or differences in participant responses.

SLWFAI question 8 (*I worry that the feedback on my English composition is a lot worse than others'*. Agree = 80%) and EWAT question 24 (*I don't think I write in English as well as most other people.* Agree = 75%), both asked the learner to evaluate themselves compared to others, resulting in consistent responses across the two surveys. Despite one question focusing on an emotion (worry) and the other on a personal belief ('I don't *think*'), the two questions appeared to be interpreted in a similar way and produced comparable results.

A not unexpected point of departure between the two surveys is found between EWAT question 12 (*I like to have my friends read what I have written in English.* Agree = 75%) and SLWFAI question 10 (*I'm afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.* Agree = 73.3%). Here, the participants express comfort with their peers reading their compositions in a casual environment and seem more

averse to their peers seeing their writing used as an example for the whole class in the classroom environment. The two questions focus on the nature of the audience and demonstrate how different contexts with parallel audiences may affect the participants' willingness to share their writing with peers.

Another example of disparate cross-survey results was the responses regarding grades or performance (EWAT question 22 – *When I hand in an English composition I am sure I'm going to do poorly. Agree = 18.8%*; SLWFAI question 12 – *When my English composition is to be evaluated, I worry about getting a very poor grade. Agree = 93.3%*). Nearly all the participants *worry* about getting a poor grade, but less than one fifth of them believe they will in fact receive a poor grade. The different results may also be explained by considering that the questions may not be asking the same thing. The first question is related to an external expectation while the second question deals with an internal self-concept.

4.4.2. Open-ended SLWFAI and Interview Questions.

The open-ended section of the SLWFAI and the interviews included five related questions that allowed for a comparison of the participant responses. Both the survey questions and the interview questions were asked in relation to the essay the participant brought to the second meeting. Three questions were in relation to feedback types and the remaining two dealt with emotions. The comparative responses to each question are detailed below.

SLWFAI question – *What type of feedback makes you feel nervous or anxious about writing in English?* and interview question – *Which (were there any) comments (that) made you worry about your writing ability (if any)?* exhibited similarities in the

number of comments mentioning the grade and general writing skills, which were identical across the two methods. Divergence in the responses was evident in the mechanical/grammatical comments where the survey produced a higher number of comments while organization and content errors were found in greater quantities during the interview.

Similarities between SLWFAI question – *What type of feedback on your writing in English is most useful to you?* – and interview question – *Which comments made by your instructor were most helpful to you?* – both revealed no comments mentioning the grade or general writing skills as most useful. Additionally, content feedback was the most common response in both the survey and the interview. The difference between the two methods of questioning resulted in non-specified errors as the second most common result in the survey and mechanical/grammatical errors as the second most common result during the interview. It should be noted that this difference may potentially represent another similarity in that non-specified errors refers to mistakes which may include grammar among them.

The only similarity found between SLWFAI question – *What type of feedback on your writing in English is least useful to you?* – and interview question – *Which comments made by your instructor were less helpful to you?* – was that no comments referred to formatting feedback in either method. The participants displayed disparate responses in reference to content feedback, where 63.6% of survey comments fell into this category (78.6% of which referred to general compliment or criticism) and only 26.7% of interview comments mentioned content feedback. Another point of departure was observed in the number of participants (5) remarking that none of the comments

were “less helpful” during the interviews, whereas the survey comments produced no comments in the “none” category. Overall, the participants appeared more willing or able to refer to “*least useful*” feedback types on the survey than to identify “*less helpful*” feedback in the interview. Alternatively, the difference between the words “least” and “less”, with “least” being interpreted as an absolute, may have contributed to the difference in the results – the vague notion of “less helpful” may have been difficult for participants to connect with individual feedback types.

Few differences were observed in the responses to the SLWFAI question – *When my graded English composition is returned to me I feel* – and the interview question – *How did you feel when your paper was returned to you?* The percentage breakdowns among pleasant, neutral, and unpleasant emotions between the survey (S) and the interview (I) were: Pleasant – S = 19%, I = 21.1%; Neutral – S = 23.8%, I = 15.8%; Unpleasant – S = 57.1%, I = 57.9%. One response (5.3%) of nothing (no emotions) was proffered during the interview. The consistent remarks between the two data sources lend validity to results.

The number of comments made in response to the interview question – *How did you feel about the feedback provided by your instructor?* – was more than triple (66) the number of comments provided on the survey question – *The feedback my instructor provides on my English compositions makes me feel* – (20 remarks) and the distribution of the comments across the three emotion categories differed based on the method in which the question was asked. Most notably, during the interviews, 54.5% of the participants’ comments indicated an unpleasant emotion while 70% of the participant remarks on the survey involved pleasant emotions (Figure 4). Participants expressed

numerous specific emotions while being interviewed (12 from the schema of 16) and all except for one participant expressed multiple emotions. The variability of emotions identified from the survey was similar, with 11 different emotions represented; however, only four emotions received multiple mentions within the participant comments.

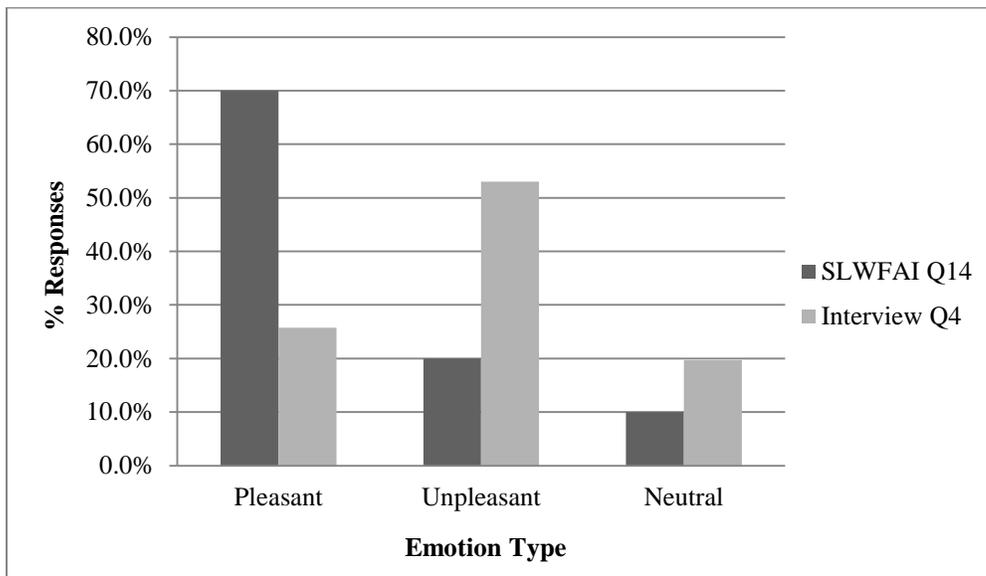


Figure 4 *SLWFAI Question 14 and Interview Question 4 Results*

It is important to note a difference in how the questions were posed to the participants for these two questions. The survey question was entirely open-ended and participants were free to include as much or as little information as they desired and no follow up questions occurred. The same cannot be said for the interviews. When necessary, after participants initially responded to the question, follow up questions were put forward as a means of clarifying the responses as well as encouraging more discussion. An example exchange during the interview with Participant 2 follows:

Interviewer: How did you feel about the feedback?

Participant 2: ... I see all the little comments here, and I feel, not good but not that worse.²¹

Interviewer: So you didn't feel too bad but you felt a little bit sad?

Participant 2: Ya, a little bit sad 'cause I know I will make some mistake but I check it and it's a little surprise 'cause I check...

In this example, the participant did not initially state that she felt sad, but expressed her emotional response as feeling “not good but not that worse.” Participants were commenting on emotional responses in their second or non-primary language which, at times, resulted in ambiguous statements, such as the above example. In these cases, I would make suggestions to the participant in order to clarify their meaning and to better understand their responses. The challenge associated with constructing an interview in this manner is to avoid creating false responses where the participant automatically agrees with the interviewer. The participants did not always agree with the suggestions I made and responded in the negative if the question missed the mark, demonstrating that the follow up questions produced *more* responses, but may not have necessarily resulted in inaccurate comments. The following exchange near the end of the interview with Participant 6, who had difficulty expressing herself throughout the interview, illustrates this effect:

Interviewer: When you read that, how did you feel about that comment?

Participant 6: Oh, too bad.

Interviewer: Were you sad?

²¹ When the participant responded “I feel, not good but not that worse” her demeanour and tone of voice suggested sadness, which is the reason I asked if that was what she meant.

Participant 6: Yah.

Interviewer: Were you disappointed?

Participant 6: Yah.

Interviewer: Frustrated?

Participant 6: No, no frustrate

Interviewer: Were you angry?

Participant 6: Hm, not angry.

Participant 6 states that she felt “too bad” and I wanted to encourage her to find a more specific emotion to attach to her response. She agreed that she felt sad and disappointed; she did not agree to feeling frustrated or angry. Had she simply agreed to all the suggested emotions I would not have considered her responses to be appropriately representing her emotions; because she was clear on what she did and did not feel, her affirmative responses were not disregarded in the coding.

4.4.3. Closed-Ended SLWFAI and Interview.

The final two questions to be compared show a clear convergence of the results. The results from closed-ended SLWFAI question 6 – *I usually seek every possible chance to make the changes suggested by my instructor on my English composition.* – support the findings from interview question 5 – *What do you do after you review the feedback - what actions do you take, if any?* All the interview participants reported taking some form of follow up action after reviewing the feedback and 80% responded that they take the opportunity to make suggested changes to their essays. In Lee’s (2009) study on differences between instructor practices and beliefs, one of the mismatches reported was, “[t]eachers continue to mark student writing in the ways they do although they think their

effort does not pay off” (p. 18). The participants in the current study expressed a preference for content and grammar feedback (identified as the most helpful feedback types) and also demonstrated the value of feedback through their reported actions. Depending on how an instructor defines the “pay off” in marking essays, I would argue that the effort is worthwhile if learners say the feedback is useful and then report putting it to some type of use.

4.5. Summary and Discussion of Key Findings

The study’s results were quantitative and qualitative, with the bulk of the results produced from qualitative data sources. While the guiding questions focused on the relationship between anxiety and the role it may play on performance, the essay feedback data and much of the qualitative data gathered in response to guiding question two (*Do L2 learners’ levels of writing anxiety in response to feedback (feedback anxiety) on an L2 writing assignment influence their perceived performance on a subsequent writing assignment?*) were related to feedback and participant comments (emotions and perceptions) on feedback types. This allowed for an evaluation of the participants’ perceptions of feedback, instructor feedback practices and how these compare to previous WCF studies.

4.5.1. Statistical Results

The statistical analyses between the surveys and grades both resulted in no statistically significant correlations between writing anxiety and grades (guiding question one) and feedback anxiety and grades (guiding question two). However, the resulting (non-statistically significant) negative correlations indicate that, for a portion of the participants, higher anxiety scores may be related to lower grades (and vice versa). The

low number of participants in the study makes finding a statistically significant relationship difficult. A relationship between higher levels of mechanical/grammatical feedback and higher levels of anxiety towards feedback was observed for four (28.6%) participants who provided a copy of their essay and reported a score on the SLWFAI. If a relationship exists between anxiety and mechanical/grammatical feedback, this could be interpreted as supporting Truscott's (1996, 2007) observation that WCF is "harmful" (2007, p. 263), if anxiety is likewise considered harmful. It does not suggest that the feedback was or was not effective.

4.5.2. Feedback Practices and Perceptions of Feedback.

The essay feedback results show that the feedback practices of the two instructors involved in the study were similar to the ways L2 instructors have been found to provide feedback, where content and organization feedback is balanced against grammar feedback (Evans et al., 2010). Other research has shown that L2 instructors tend to focus feedback on language form (i.e., grammar, vocabulary) and provide less feedback on content and organization (Montgomery & Baker, 2007). The feedback practices of the mainstream instructors in the current study contrast the practices of the L2 instructors in Montgomery and Baker and provide more balanced feedback, which coincidentally corresponds to the learner preferences.

Content feedback was identified as one of the most useful feedback types and was also reported as the feedback most likely to lead to learners feeling positive about their writing. However, criticism feedback (a type of content feedback) that did not provide a suggestion on how to improve or change the criticized element was named as one of the least useful types of feedback; it was also noted as the type of feedback reported to elicit

negative feelings towards the participants' English writing. Criticism feedback with a suggestion was related to learners reporting positive feelings about writing, a finding mirrored in Amrhein and Nassaji (2010). Criticism was also viewed positively when accompanied by complimentary feedback. Previous research (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Lee, 2005) points to learners' beliefs that feedback is useful and, despite a few current participants stating that all feedback is useful, some feedback types appear to be more preferred or are perceived as more beneficial than others. As well as being in line with other feedback perception studies, the current study findings, with respect to content and criticism feedback, has moved towards providing additional detail into what constitutes "useful" or "beneficial" feedback for students.

Learners have been found to believe that "error correction... enhance[s] fluency and accuracy (Oladejo, 1993, p. 82) and "[has] the potential for enhancing their learning" (Hyland, 2000, p. 51). Comments made by the current study participants during the interviews echo this sentiment. After stating she liked the grammar corrections her instructor made, Participant 16 was asked why, to which she responded, "So I can improve the next times [sic]. I'll know mistakes and then make the corrections so I'll know how to improve." Similarly, Participant 2 responded to the same question with, "[Be]cause I know where I can improve." These comments correspond to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990; 1994), lending support to the premise that gaps in learner knowledge may be closed through highlighting learner errors (Sheen, 2010). In a departure from previous research, these participants also reported believing that non-corrective feedback is beneficial to their learning. This finding may also coincide with the lack of statistical correlation between anxiety towards feedback and performance; the

learners in this study received the type of feedback they prefer (i.e., found most useful) and use it to benefit their learning. If anxiety is linked to failure expectations, as Pekrun et al. (2007) suggests, then the feedback practices of the two mainstream instructors appear to minimize these expectations by considering the participants' desired types of feedback as well as providing students with learning tools for writing in English.

4.5.3. Number and Complexity of Emotions

A common theme running throughout the qualitative data results was the number and complexity of the emotions participants reported. The qualitative data revealed sixteen different emotions expressed by the participants and anxiety was not found to be the primary emotion within the participant remarks, regardless of whether the remarks were hand written (SLWFAI open-ended), verbal (interview), or type written (online questionnaire). Questions from the qualitative methods resulted in pleasant, unpleasant, and neutral emotions and each individual question received responses in each of the three emotion categories. Additionally, each qualitative question dealing with emotions saw no less than 50% of the emotions on the schema included in the responses. In other words, even when a lower number of distinct emotions were reported (i.e., eight out of 16 from the schema), these still encompassed the three pleasant, unpleasant, and neutral classifications.

The complex nature of the responses to the emotion questions and the statistical results are interpretable as congruous. "Positive activating emotions...and negative deactivating emotions" (Pekrun et al., 2007, p. 28) are described as producing either positive or negative effects on cognition and motivation which, in turn, relate to achievement. In their examples, Pekrun et al. (2007) include enjoyment as a positive

activating emotion and hopelessness as a negative deactivating emotion. A “more complex” relationship exists between anxiety, defined as a “negative activating emotion,” and its effect on motivation and cognition. The relationship is described as “ambivalent” (p. 28). Also, participants in the current study expressed a multitude of emotions that would fall under Pekrun et al.’s descriptions of positive activating (i.e., hope), positive deactivating (i.e., relief), negative activating (i.e., anxiety), and negative deactivating (i.e., sadness) emotions. The ambivalence of anxiety on motivation and cognition, and thus, achievement, as well as the overall variability of the emotions reported by participants and how these may be linked to achievement affected the ability to define statistical correlations.

4.5.4. Participants’ Responsiveness to Feedback

Two data collection methods reported most participants taking (or planning to take) action after receiving feedback, lending support to previous findings where learners have expressed the usefulness of feedback (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010). Learners believe feedback is beneficial and valuable to their learning. These participants not only expressed that belief, but supported their comments with their reported actions in response to receiving feedback.

The interviews revealed that every participant reported making use of the feedback in some way after the initial review, which agreed with the result to a related closed-ended question on the SLWFAI survey (*I usually seek every possible chance to make the changes suggested by my instructor on my English composition.*). Numerous studies have shown that learners value feedback and believe it is beneficial (e.g., Hyland, 2000; Lee, 2005, 2008; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007) and the comments

made by the participants in the current study reiterate this notion. What is different about these participants is they commented on the fact that they value feedback and also reported using the feedback when preparing to write a subsequent essay. This is an important relationship. Where Truscott (1996) states that learner preference for feedback is not sufficient support for its use, these participants go beyond an expression of their preferences and report taking follow up action, underscoring the value of feedback. Indeed, these participants may represent the “active agents” that Hyland (2010) mentions in her recommendations of future directions for L2 writing feedback.

Chapter Five – Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions

5.1. Implications

This chapter discusses the implications and limitations of the current study and suggests future research directions based on the study's findings. Implications are presented first, including empirical, methodological, and pedagogical, respectively. The second section outlines the study size and methodological limitations of the study. Future research directions conclude the chapter.

5.1.1. Empirical.

Research on academic emotions within SLA is almost entirely aimed at anxiety and research examining links between feedback and the emotions it may elicit are in very short supply. Learning an additional language poses challenges for any learner and indeed may result in learners experiencing a number of forms of anxiety associated with SL learning (e.g., second language writing anxiety, second language speaking anxiety, foreign language classroom anxiety). However, learners experience more emotions while learning than anxiety, including in response to feedback. For the participants in this study, anxiety was not the most commonly reported emotional response. I believe that the focus on anxiety in academic emotion research, and particularly SLA research (including WCF), is too narrow. The current study demonstrates the need for expanding research into exploring other emotions, and in particular, pleasant emotions.

Gathering feedback data on all types of feedback, corrective and non-corrective, resulted in the discovery that non-corrective feedback may act as a learning tool in the same way that direct correction may act as a learning tool. WCF focuses on errors and direct correction is a common practice for providing corrective feedback (Ferris, Liu, &

Rabie, 2011; van Beuningen, 2010); learners observe both the error and the correction and then may apply this information to their language learning (Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 1994)). With non-corrective feedback, learners are made explicitly aware that what was written is error-free. This may serve as a model of accuracy that can also be applied to their language learning, as observed by some of the participants in this study.

5.1.2. Methodological.

Qualitative data was gathered from three different methods and allowed for some comparisons of data, but no triangulation was possible because the methods did not all seek to elicit similar information. Collecting qualitative data from more than one or more methods is necessary for data validation. In cases where two data sources diverged, a comparable third source would have proved instructive in evaluating the results.

Another consideration in data gathering is how best to collect information on emotions from L2 learners. Cultural differences and proficiency levels of learners can limit how accurately learners are able or willing to express their emotions. Providing participants with a list of possible emotions to select on a survey (as opposed or in addition to open-ended questions) has advantages and disadvantages; however, research situations may exist where the addition of this type of data collection method would be appropriate. The disadvantage of providing participants with a list is that 1) if the list is not robust enough to capture the emotions experienced, it may limit the responses, 2) conversely, a list may encourage an increased number of responses that may or may not accurately reflect participant emotions, and 3) a list may implicitly direct participants on how to respond (similar to a researcher effect where the participant wants to provide the

“correct” answer) (T. Hannigan, oral defense, March 25, 2013). Given the structure of the interviews in the current study, asking participants to select emotions from a list may have served as useful point of comparison.

The EWAT survey instrument may warrant further scrutiny. The original WAT, designed by Daly and Miller (1975) has been used in research contexts as a valid instrument to measure writing anxiety for nearly 40 years and more recent validations of the instrument were not readily available. An updated WAT, using the wealth of recent data collected on academic emotions, including anxiety, may be in order. The statements on the WAT appeared to provide insight into more than participants’ anxiety (as described in chapter four), indicating that an updated validation of the survey, or a new instrument, would benefit research and researchers.

Finally, reviewing the actual essays written by the participants, along with the corresponding feedback provided by their instructors, served to enhance the findings on feedback perceptions and allowed for the instructors’ feedback practices to be examined. The feedback perceptions were intended to be focused on one specific essay; however, the essay also served as an impetus for discussing or expressing learner views on feedback. Surveys are often deployed to gather learner feedback perceptions (e.g., Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 1995; Leki, 1991), as was the practice in the current study. Interviews are also a common research practice (e.g., Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Lee, 2005, 2008). In the current study, participants were asked to comment on an actual example of feedback received as opposed to being asked to relay their overall impressions of feedback. Even though some comments made by the participants were more general,

having a point of reference (the essay) optimized the number of relevant comments and reduced the number of comments that may not have been germane to the study.

5.1.3. Pedagogical.

Providing feedback on writing is a necessary part of instruction for L2 and non-L2 practitioners alike and the findings of the current study may have implications that would inform feedback practices of any instructors with SL learners in their classrooms.

Based on the study's findings with respect to feedback, I propose the following recommendations regarding instructor feedback practices:

1. *Finding*: Higher amounts of content feedback were related to lower writing anxiety scores (*n.s.*), but learners also desire more than content feedback and consider grammar feedback helpful.

Recommendation: Writing feedback is balanced between content feedback and grammar and organization feedback.

2. *Finding*: Learners prefer a combination of content and grammar feedback, with the balance tipping in favour of content.

Recommendation: The amount of content feedback outweighs the amount of grammar feedback.

3. *Finding*: Non-corrective feedback is perceived as beneficial to learners and learning and feedback that includes both criticisms and compliments is viewed positively.

Recommendation: Content feedback includes both corrective and non-corrective feedback.

4. *Finding*: Specific content feedback (i.e., includes suggestions or advice), both critical and complimentary, is perceived as more useful than general comments.

- Recommendation: Criticisms and compliments on content are best accompanied by a specific comment or suggestion.
5. Finding: General criticism was identified as the least useful feedback type and elicited negativity towards writing.
- Recommendation: Limit general criticism feedback.
6. Finding: Checkmarks are interpreted as feedback on accuracy.
- Recommendation: Despite their non-specific nature, checkmarks are not discouraged. Learners may interpret them as a form of confirmation of accuracy.
7. Finding: Learners fear their essay being used as an example in class.
- Recommendation: Carefully consider the use of student essay examples in class where the examples and students from which they are derived are the same.
8. Finding: Learners enjoy having their friends or peers reading their papers.
- Recommendation: Experiment with a formal and/or informal peer review process.
9. Finding: Learner feedback preferences which coincide with feedback received may be related to reduced anxiety towards feedback.
- Recommendation: Try to match learner feedback preferences to feedback practices (i.e., perhaps through needs assessment) and set expectations with respect to feedback. Provide feedback based on both what learners prefer and on what they can expect from the instructor.

Instructors may already be applying some (or all) of these practices in their classrooms. What may be of interest to instructors is the finding that feedback that is not corrective in nature is viewed by learners as beneficial and emerged as a tool for language learning. Instructors should be aware of the potential perceived benefits of

providing this type of feedback. Focusing on errors allows learners to observe the gap in their learning; highlighting examples of accuracy may illustrate for the learner what has been produced correctly, which the learner may model in the future.

Finally, the common myth among writing instructors (as well as instructors providing feedback on any form of student writing) is that learners do not use written feedback and, therefore, time spent providing it is a poor investment. Participants' reported use of feedback informs instructors of the potential value of feedback and suggests that the time and effort invested in marking (and correcting) student writing may not be time wasted.

5.2. Limitations

5.2.1. Study Size.

The small number of participants in the study, combined with multiple potentially inter-related variables (feedback types, responses to feedback, performance outcomes), contributed to finding no statistical significance from the quantitative data and precludes generalizing the results to other populations. As other researchers assert, “statistical significance is not equivalent to practical significance” (Huang, 2013, p. 13) and failure to achieve statistical significance in quantitative results does not equate to a research failure (Nassaji, 2012), particularly in light of the fact that research variables do not “[operate] in isolation” (Huang, 2013, p. 26), as may have been the case for the current study. The courses targeted for study are mainstream university courses that are offered every year and the participants in the study are members of an ecologically valid demographic for study. The low number of participants does not invalidate the results; it

provides insight into how these participants with these instructors correspond to or differ from instructors and learners in other learning and teaching contexts.

5.2.2. Methodology.

The length of the study encompassed one full semester, but the scope of the study gathered one written, graded essay, as well as the grade on a second essay. Participants provided one graded essay with feedback and simply the grade from a second essay of their own choosing. The only stipulation made was that the grade for the second essay was for one written sometime after the essay provided to me during our second meeting. Gathering a second essay with accompanying feedback and grade would have allowed for a comparative analysis of feedback. However, previous WCF and feedback perception research has typically excluded (for various reasons) gathering participant writing samples (e.g., Evans, et al., 2010; Ferris, 1995; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996). This study demonstrates the benefit of doing so by casting a light on the actual amounts and types of feedback provided to learners in an ecologically valid setting.

The timing of the interviews and administration of the SLWFAI was not uniform for all the participants. Efforts were made to meet with participants as soon as possible after their papers had been returned, although some participants experienced a greater time lag between receiving their paper and meeting with me than others. Coordinating more closely with instructors or collaborating with them in the classroom may have minimized any unintended effects resulting from differences in time lags.

Another limitation is observed in the inconsistency of task-types across the two essays. Learners demonstrate different levels of achievement for different types of tasks

based on interest in certain task types and beliefs about their own capabilities, which may be linked to performance outcomes (Bong, 2004). The nature of the courses in which the participants were enrolled did not allow for consistency across the two essays. As introductory English composition courses, the goals for both courses included providing instruction on different types of academic writing in preparation for an academic career at the post-secondary level.

The interview method used in the study was not designed strictly as a reflection tool and this may have contributed to some of the contradictory results found between the interview data and the other qualitative data sources (open-ended survey and online). Prompting the participants as a means of clarification may have produced some inaccurate responses despite efforts to minimize this situation within the questioning process. Conducting the interviews in the participants' non-primary language was necessary, given the range of primary languages spoken by the participants; however, this influenced the interview process of asking additional clarifying questions when participant comments were ambiguous. In addition to responding to questions in their L2, cultural differences surrounding emotional expression may have also factored in to what participants may have revealed about their emotions during the interview. As noted in research on the vocabulary of emotions in L2 speakers, proficiency level and cultural background have an effect on how L2 speakers express their emotions (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002).

All of the data, with the exception of the feedback on the essay, was self-reported by the participants, including the question as to whether or not the participants take any action after reviewing feedback. Huang (2010) points out that the reliability of self-

report data requires scrutiny. Participants “may provide carefully considered responses; some may quickly rush through...; and others may provide inauthentic answers” (p. 534). It is also possible that a researcher effect may have occurred, where the participants may have wanted to give me the “right” answer (the answer they believe I wanted) instead of their true answer (or, in the case of the follow up to feedback question, were disinclined to admit they did nothing). It is important to evaluate the results of self-reported data in this light with the understanding that participants may not have revealed their true actions or emotions in their responses.

How participants interpreted the questions from any method (surveys, interviews, online) would have an effect on the answers provided. The SLWFAI open- and closed-ended questions, as well as the interview, targeted feedback on the essay brought to our meeting and participants were directed to answer the questions accordingly. However, participants did make comments that referred to feedback in general and did not only refer to the essay. Further, the format of some of the open-ended questions (from any qualitative data source) may not have been ideally worded. For example, the online questionnaire question – *How did any emotional responses to the feedback you received on the first assignment affect, or not affect, your writing on the second assignment?* – suggests that emotional responses to feedback must have either *had* an effect or it must *not* have had an effect. The binary nature of the question presumes a relationship between emotional responses and writing the second essay that may or may not exist. The construction of open-ended questions may require more careful consideration and be subject to a more rigorous process during research design. The use of open-ended questions in concert with closed-ended survey questions adds “richness, ...depth and

color to the data” (Brown, 2009. p. 205) and enhances research findings. The findings, however, are best enhanced by finely-tuned open-ended questions. The same may be said for the use of the words “less” vs. “least” in specific questions. Participants may respond more easily to absolutes than to vague concepts, and thus, generate varied results.

In addition to how questions were worded, ensuring the inclusion of comparable questions from different data collection sources is an important research method consideration, the absence of which may have imposed a limitation on the current study. In the case of the similar survey and interview question that produced disparate results, a third data collection method would have allowed for another source of data which may have supported one finding over the other. Even though participants were given the opportunity to provide their own comments in three ways – verbally, in hand-written form, and in type-written form – the different data collection methods did not encompass all of the same questions. A third data source would have enabled triangulation of the data.

The SLWFAI, the instrument used to measure anxiety towards writing feedback, was adapted from Cheng’s (2004) SLWAI, and was intended to gather participant responses specific to the feedback received on the first written essay assignment. However, the survey statements may have been interpreted by the participants to include responses to feedback in general. The statements on the survey underwent modification to direct the focus towards feedback; as a means of maintaining some level of integrity of the original survey, the statements were not further modified to remove general terms such as “often” or “usually”. A tool designed specifically to gather information on the

emotions related to the first written task, thereby reducing the potential for responses in reference to feedback in general, may have been beneficial. Additionally, the SLWFAI did not undergo validation. In the absence of a specifically designed instrument, the adapted tool did play an important role in gathering participant data. Tests to measure feedback anxiety, particularly focused on writing feedback, are difficult to locate and adapting existing tools is a common research practice (e.g., Pae, 2013; Horwitz, 2010). However, results from adapted tools should be viewed with this in mind and, as was the case for the current study, other data collection sources should also be administered as a means of corroborating (or discounting) results.

5.3. Future Directions

The feedback practices of the mainstream instructors were found to emulate the practices of L2 instructors, which leads to a consideration of whether or not the responses of L2 learners to feedback are similar to those of their L1 classmates. Other research has found that mainstream instructors alter their feedback practices for ESL students (Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011) compared to that provided to L1 students (in an English-language context). Studying an entire mainstream university course classroom, as opposed to targeting specific members, could shed light on differences and similarities between learners. One of the instructors involved in this study stated that all students were given feedback and grades with equanimity. The other instructor would grade L2 learners differently than L1s, but feedback practices were not influenced by a students' primary language²². Even though research on instructor perceptions has been conducted in mixed L1/L2 contexts (Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011), exploring feedback

²² Based on participant comments. See footnote 11.

practices and learner responses to feedback in mainstream contexts, where participants' primary language backgrounds include both L1 and L2 backgrounds in relation to the language used for instruction (L1 English and ESL need not be the only context), could contribute to endorsing or deeming unnecessary the practice of altering feedback and/or grading practices based on language background.

Without actual participant essays, the feedback practices of the instructors would have remained unknown and an analysis of potential links between feedback types and anxiety scores would not have been possible. Some previous work on feedback perceptions has gathered learner writing samples in different learning contexts (secondary EFL – Lee, 2009; adult ESL – Montgomery & Baker, 2007) and many employ surveys and interviews (e.g., Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011; Ferris, Liu, & Rabie, 2011; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996; Radecki & Swales, 1988). Few studies have collected multiple writing samples (i.e. Bitchener et al., 2005; Huang, 2011) and I am aware of none that have done so with the intention of examining how learner responses to feedback may relate to subsequent performance. To better assess possible connections between emotional responses to feedback and potential linkages to performance, gathering and comparing more than one writing sample with feedback is a logical next step for future research.

The feedback from the essays also revealed a possible relationship between writing anxiety and specific types of feedback. Mechanical/grammatical feedback was reported as a feedback type invoking anxiety and increased amounts of this type of feedback were related, non-statistically, to higher writing anxiety scores. Further research into the emotional responses to types of feedback (i.e., mechanical/grammatical,

content, organization and formatting) and potential links to performance could provide a new perspective on feedback effectiveness. One of the goals of the current study was to incorporate research on affective factors into WCF research. By investigating relationships between specific feedback types and learner emotions, WCF research can continue examining effectiveness of feedback types with the added dimension of research on affective factors through multi-componential research – a research perspective, I would argue, whose time has come.

Academic emotion research, in and outside of SLA, has exhibited a perhaps overly strong focus on anxiety (see Young, 1999). The complexity of the emotions expressed by the participants and the amount of pleasant emotions reported demonstrates that a shift in research from anxiety to emotions such as hope, acceptance, and satisfaction may be both warranted as well as illuminating. While some researchers have recognized the need to evaluate the effects of positive or pleasant emotions on academic achievement (Villavicencio & Bernardo, 2013; Pekrun & Shutz, 2007), SLA research, including WCF research, has not sufficiently extended its inquiries into this domain.

With respect to WCF and affective factors, research into affective strategies may provide additional insights into whether a relationship can be defined between affective factors and feedback effectiveness. Research has questioned learner strategy use in SLA and performance (Huang, 2013) and affective factors are noted as one of the common types of strategies learners exercise in learning contexts (Bown, 2006; Rossiter, 2003, Huang, 2012). The number of emotions expressed by the participants suggests that affective factors may play a role in mediating performance, but more research is needed in order to understand what relationships may exist between feedback and emotions.

Finally, participants' use of affective strategies may also be functioning as a mediating factor, influencing the relationship between anxiety scores and grades. In social psychology, a mediator is defined as "a variable that serves to explain the process...by which a predictor significantly affects an outcome, such that the predictor is associated with the mediator, which is, in turn associated with the outcome" (Holmbeck, 2002, p. 87). I echo Huang (2013) in her appeal for "mediational...research" in SLA in recognizing that it "must be employed to examine complex relationships among...key variables" (p. 28). If emotional responses and affective strategy use behave within a complex relationship, mediational research would allow for more in-depth analysis and understanding of how the complex relationship among feedback, affect, and performance may be interconnected.

Chapter Six – Conclusion

This study was the first, to my knowledge, to examine potential linkages between writing feedback, learner affective factors, and writing performance. A connection between emotional responses to feedback and writing performance is yet to be conclusively established, but I believe the results from this study indicate that further investigations are worth pursuing. Learner emotional responses are not straightforward, but are complicated and varied. The dearth of research on emotions besides anxiety (particularly within SLA), coupled with anxiety being one of several emotions reported by the participants, suggests that, even though anxiety may figure prominently in a learner's range of academic emotions, it is important to recognize that there is, in fact, a range and it warrants investigation. The debate over the effectiveness of WCF is not yet settled, but the contention that learner beliefs about the usefulness of feedback “does not mean that teachers should [provide] it” (Truscott, 1996, p. 359) is not well-sustained by the current findings. Participants reported taking opportunities to act on feedback, thereby underscoring its value to them. Further, non-corrective feedback, as well as corrective feedback, was recognized by participants as a learning tool, demonstrating that the writing feedback learners perceive as valuable is not solely corrective in nature. For instructors, the knowledge that learners both value and make use of corrective and non-corrective feedback may serve as encouragement to continue in their feedback practices and suggests that their efforts are worthwhile.

References

- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-186.
- Amrhein, H. R., & Nassaji, H. (2010). Written corrective feedback: What do students and teachers prefer and why? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics / Revue canadienne de linguistique appliquee*, 13(2), 95-127.
- Belhiah, H. (2012). You know Arnold Schwarzenegger? On doing questioning in second language dyadic tutorials. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(1), 21-41.
- Beukeboom, C. J., & de Jong, E. M. (2008). When feelings speak: How affective and proprioceptive cues change language abstraction. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 27, 110-122.
- Beukeboom, C. J., & Semin, G. R. (2005). How mood turns on language. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 42, 533-566.
- Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17, 102-118.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 191-205.
- Bong, M. (2004). Academic motivation and self-efficacy, task value, achievement orientations, and attributional beliefs. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 97(6), 287-297.
- Bown, J. (2006). Locus of learning and affective strategy use: Two factors affecting success in self-instructed language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(4), 640-659.
- Brown, J. D. (2009). Open-response items in questionnaires. In J. Heigham, & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction* (pp. 200-219). London: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational Researcher*, 18(1), 32-42.
- Chan, A. Y. (2012). The use of monolingual dictionary for meaning determination by advanced Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(2), 115-140.

- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(3), 267-296.
- Cheng, Y.-S. (2004). A measure of second language writing anxiety: Scale development and preliminary validation. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*, 313-335.
- Cheng, Y.-S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49*(3), 417-446.
- Coffin, C., Curry, M., Goodman, S., Hewings, A., Lillis, T., & Swann, J. (2002). Teaching academic writing: A toolkit for higher education. Taylor & Francis. Retrieved June 7, 2013, from <http://lib.mylibrary.com>
- Copland, F. (2012). Legitimate talk in feedback conferences. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(1), 1-20.
- Daly, J. A., & Miller, M. D. (1975). The empirical development of an instrument to measure writing apprehension. *Research in the Teaching of English, 9*(3), 242-249.
- de Jong, T. (2009). Affective processes in learning. In T. de Jong, T. van Gog, K. Jenks, S. Manlove, J. van Hell, J. Jolles, . . . A. Boschloo (Eds.), *Explorations in learning and the brain* (pp. 25-27). New York, NY: Springer.
- de Witt, J. (2012). The "added value" of affective learning for gerontological nursing education. *Gerontological Nursing Association. Perspectives, 35*(2), 12-18.
- Delcourt, M. A., Cornell, D. G., & Goldberg, M. D. (2007). Cognitive and affective learning outcomes of gifted elementary school students. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 51*, 359-381.
- Demetriou, H., & Wilson, E. (2009). Synthesising affect and cognition in teaching and learning. *Social Psychology of Education, 12*(2), 213-232.
- Dewaele, J.-M., & Pavlenko, A. (2002). Emotion vocabulary in interlanguage. *Language Learning, 52*(2), 263-322.
- D'Mello, S., Graesser, & A. (2012). Dynamics of affective states during complex learning. *Learning and Instruction, 22*, 145-157.
- Evans, N. W., Hartshorn, K. J., & Tuioti, E. A. (2010). Written corrective feedback: Practitioners' perspectives. *International Journal of English Studies, 10*(2), 47-77.
- Eynde, P. O., & Turner, J. E. (2006). Focusing on the complexity of emotion issues in academic learning: A dynamical component systems approach. *Educational Psychology Review, 18*, 361-376.

- Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Demotivation: Affective states and learning outcomes. *System*, 37, 403-417.
- Fernandez Dobao, A. (2012). Collaborative dialogue in learner-learner and learner-native speaker interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(3), 229-256.
- Ferris, D. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 33-53.
- Ferris, D. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 315-335.
- Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1), 1-11.
- Ferris, D. (2004). The "grammar correction" debate in L2 writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what do we do in the meantime...?). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 49-62.
- Ferris, D. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, 181-201.
- Ferris, D., Brown, J., Liu, H., & Stine, M. (2011). Responding to L2 students in college writing classes: Teacher perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(2), 207-234.
- Ferris, D., Liu, H., & Rabie, B. (2011). "The job of teaching writing": Teacher views of responding to student writing. *Writing and Pedagogy*, 3(1), 39-77.
- Fielding, N. G. (2012). Triangulation and mixed methods designs: Data integration with new research technologies. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 6(2), 124-136.
- Forgas, J. P. (1999a). Feeling and speaking: Mood effects on verbal communication strategies. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25, 850-863.
- Forgas, J. P. (1999b). On feeling good and being rude: Affective influences on language use and request formulations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 928-939.
- Haidt, J. (2007). The new synthesis in moral psychology. *Science*, 18(316), 998-1002.
- Han, Z.-H. (2002). Rethinking the role of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *RELC Journal*, 33(1), 1-34.
- Hartshorn, K. J., Evans, N. W., Merrill, P. F., Sudweeks, R. R., Strong-Krause, D., & Anderson, N. J. (2010). Effects of dynamic corrective feedback on ESL writing accuracy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 44(1), 84-109.
- Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1994). Feedback on feedback: Assessing learner receptivity to teacher response in L2 composing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3, 141-163.

- Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1996). Some input on input: Two analyses of student response to expert feedback in L2 writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 287-308.
- Holmbeck, G. N. (2002). Post-hoc probing of significant moderational and mediational effects in studies of pediatric populations. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 27(1), 87-96.
- Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 112-126.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 559-562.
- Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching*, 43(2), 154-167.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- Huang, L.-S. (2010). Seeing eye to eye? The academic writing needs of graduate and undergraduate students' and instructors' perspectives. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 517-539. doi:10.1177/1362168810375372
- Huang, L.-S. (2011). Are we having the effect we want? Implementing outcomes assessment in an academic English language-support unit using a multi-component approach. *Writing Program Administration*, 35(1), 11-44.
- Huang, L.-S. (2012). Use of oral reflection in facilitating graduate EAL students' oral-language production and strategy use: An empirical action research study. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 6(2), 1-22.
- Huang, L.-S. (2013). Cognitive processes involved in performing the IELTS speaking test: Respondents' strategic behaviours in simulated testing and non-testing contexts. *IELTS Research Reports Online Series*, 1, 1-51.
- Hyland, F. (2000). ESL writers and feedback: Giving more autonomy to students. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(1), 33-54.
- Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: Student engagement with teacher feedback. *System*, 31, 217-230.
- Hyland, F. (2010). Future directions in feedback on second language writing: Overview and research agenda. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10(2), 171-182.
- Isen, A. M. (1987). Positive affect, cognitive processes, an social behaviour. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 20, pp. 203-253). New York, NY: Academic Press.

- Isen, A. M. (2008). Some ways in which positive affect influences decision making and problem solving. In M. Lewis, J. M. Haviland-Jones, & L. Feldman Barrett (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (3rd ed., pp. 548-573). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Keltner, D., Locke, K. D., & Audrain, P. C. (1993). The influence of attributions on the relevance of negative feelings to personal satisfaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *19*, 21-19.
- Kim, C., & Hodges, C. B. (2012). Effects of an emotion control treatment on academic emotions, motivation and achievement in an online mathematics course. *Instructional Science*, *40*(1), 173-192. doi:10.1007/s11251-011-9165-6
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principle and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Lazarus, A., Averill, J. R., & Opton, E. M. (1970). Toward a cognitive theory of emotions. In M. B. Arnold, *Feelings and emotions* (pp. 207-232). New York: Academic Press.
- Lee, I. (2003). L2 writing teachers' perspectives, practices and problems regarding error feedback. *Assessing Writing*, *8*, 216-237.
- Lee, I. (2004). Error correction in L2 secondary writing classrooms: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*, 285-312.
- Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 writing classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal*, *22*(2), 1-16.
- Lee, I. (2008). Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *17*, 144-164.
- Lee, I. (2009). Ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. *ELT Journal*, *63*(1), 13-22.
- Leki, I. (1991). The preferences of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, *24*, 203-218.
- Linnenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. R. (2002). Motivation as an enabler for academic success. *School Psychology Review*, *31*, 313-327.
- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, D. Coste, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.
- MacLeod, B. (2012). *ENGL101: Fundamentals of academic literacy [Class handout]*. Department of English, University of Victoria, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.
- Marcos-Llinás, M., & Garau, J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42, 94-111.
- Martin, L. L., Ward, D. W., Achee, J. W., & Wyer, R. S. (1993). Mood as input: People have to interpret the motivational implications of their mood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 317-326.
- Matthews, P. H. (2010). Factors influencing self-efficacy judgments of university students in foreign language tutoring. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 618-635.
- McConnell, D. A., & van Der Hoeven Kraft, K. (2011). Affective domain and student learning in the geosciences. *Journal of Geoscience Education*, 59(3), 106-110.
- Montgomery, J. L., & Baker, W. (2007). Teacher-written feedback: Student perceptions, teacher self-assessment, and actual teacher performance. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 82-99.
- Nassaji, H. (2012). Statistical significance tests and result generalizability: Issues, misconceptions, and a case for replication. In G. Porte (Ed.), *Replication research in applied linguistics* (pp. 92-115). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Norris, J., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50(3), 417-528.
- Oladejo, J. A. (1993). Error correction in ESL : Learners' preferences. *TESL Canada Journal*, 10(2), 71-89.
- Onwuegbuzie, A., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. (2000). The validation of three scales measuring anxiety at different stages of the foreign language learning process: The input anxiety scale, the processing anxiety scale, and the output anxiety scale. *Language Learning*, 50, 87-117.
- Pae, T.-I. (2013). Skill-based L2 anxieties revisited: Their intra-relations and the inter-relations with general foreign language anxiety. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(2), 232-252.
- Pekrun, R. (1992). The impact of emotions on learning and achievement: Towards a theory of cognitive/motivational mediators. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 41(4), 359-376.

- Pekrun, R., & Schutz, P. A. (2007). Where do we go from here? Implications and future directions for inquiry in emotions in education. In P. A. Schutz, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotions in education* (pp. 313-332). London: Academic Press.
- Pekrun, R., Frenzel, A. C., Goetz, T., & Perry, R. P. (2007). The control-value theory of achievement emotions: An integrative approach to emotions in education. In P. A. Schutz, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotions in education* (pp. 13-36). London: Academic Press.
- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students' self-regulated learning and achievement: A program of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(2), 91-105.
- Phinney, M. (1991). Word Processing and writing apprehension in first and second language writers. *Computers and Composition*, 9(1), 65-82.
- Pichette, F. (2009). Second language anxiety and distance learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 77-93.
- Pickard, R. (2012). *ENGL135: Academic reading and writing [Class handout]*. Department of English, University of Victoria, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.
- Radecki, P. M., & Swales, J. M. (1988). ESL student reaction to written comments on their written work. *System*, 16(3), 355-365.
- Rossiter, M. J. (2003). The effects of affective strategy instruction in the ESL classroom. Special issue: Strategy research and training. *TESL-EJ*, 7(2), 1-20.
- Saito, Y., & Samimy, K. (1996). Foreign language anxiety and language performance: A study of learning anxiety in beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level college students of Japanese. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 239-251.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 129-158.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *AILA Review*, 11, 11-26.
- Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning*, 28, 129-142.
- Semin, G. R., & Fiedler, K. (1988). The cognitive functions of linguistic categories in describing persons: Social cognition and language. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 558-568.
- Semin, G. R., & Fiedler, K. (1992). The inferential properties of interpersonal verbs. In G. R. Semin, & K. Fiedler (Eds.), *Language, interaction and social cognition* (pp. 58-78). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Sheen, Y. (2008). Recasts, language anxiety, modified output, and L2 learning. *Language Learning, 58*(4), 835-874.
- Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*, 203-234.
- Storch, N. (2010). Critical feedback on written corrective feedback research. *International Journal of English Studies, 10*(2), 29-46.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass, & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning, 46*, 327-369.
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8*(2), 111-122.
- Truscott, J. (2007). The effect of error correction on learners' ability to write accurately. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16*, 255-272.
- van Beuningen, C. (2010). Corrective feedback in L2 writing: Theoretical perspectives, empirical insights, and future directions. *International Journal of English Studies, 10*(2), 1-27.
- Villavicencio, F. T., & Bernardo, A. B. (2013). Positive academic emotions moderate the relationship between self-regulation and academic achievement. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*(2), 329-340.
- Walshaw, M., & Brown, T. (2012). Affective production of mathematical experience. *Educational Studies in Mathematics, 80*(1), 185-199.
- Young, D. J. (Ed.). (1999). *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom*. Boston: McGraw-Hill College.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura, *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 202-231). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix A

English Writing Apprehension Test (EWAT) Adapted from Daly & Miller (1975)

Please answer each of the following questions by circling the response (0 – 6) that most closely applies to you (how much you agree or disagree with the statement).

Legend:

0=NA-Not Applicable

1=SD-Strongly Disagree

2=MD-Moderately Disagree

3=SLD-Slightly Disagree

4=SLA-Slightly Agree

5= MA-Moderately Agree

6= SA-Strongly Agree

	NA	SD	MD	SLD	SLA	MA	SA
1. I avoid writing in English (when possible).	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I have no fear of my writing in English being evaluated or graded.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am afraid of writing essays in English when I know they will be evaluated.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Taking an English writing course is a very frightening experience.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Handing in an English composition (i.e. essay, paper) makes me feel good.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on an English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Expressing ideas through writing in English seems to be a waste of time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I would enjoy submitting my English writing to academic journals for evaluation and publication.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I like to write my ideas down in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in written English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I like to have my friends read what I have written in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I'm nervous about writing in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. People seem to enjoy what I write in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I enjoy writing in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Writing in English is a lot of fun.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

18. I expect to do poorly in English writing classes even before I enter them.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I like seeing my thoughts on paper in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Discussing my English writing with others is an enjoyable experience.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in an English composition (i.e. writing) course.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. When I hand in an English composition I am sure I'm going to do poorly.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. It's easy for me to write good English compositions .	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I don't think I write in English as well as most other people.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I don't like my English compositions to be evaluated.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I'm not good at writing in English.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Second Language Writing Feedback Apprehension Inventory (SLWFAI) Adapted from Cheng (2004)

Please answer questions 1-12 by circling the response (0 – 6) that most closely applies to your most recent writing assignment (the one used for this study).
Please answer questions 13-19 in your own words based on your most recent writing assignment.

Legend:

0=NA-Not Applicable

1=SD-Strongly Disagree

2=MD-Moderately Disagree

3=SLD-Slightly Disagree

4=SLA-Slightly Agree

5= MA-Moderately Agree

6= SA-Strongly Agree

	NA	SD	MD	SLD	SLA	MA	SA
1. My thoughts become jumbled when I read the feedback from my instructor on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I do not often feel panic when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I often tremble or perspire when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I feel my heart pounding when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I usually feel my whole body go rigid and tense when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I do not usually seek every possible chance to make the changes suggested by my instructor on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I do not worry a lot about the feedback my instructor provides on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I don't worry that the feedback on my English composition is a lot worse than others'.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My mind goes blank when I read the feedback on my English composition.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I'm not afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. While reading the feedback on my English composition, I'm not nervous at all.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When my English composition is to be evaluated, I worry about getting a very poor grade.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. *When my graded English composition is returned to me I feel*

14. *The feedback my instructor provides on my English compositions makes me feel*

15. *What type of feedback makes you feel positive about your English writing?*

16. *What type of feedback makes you feel negative about your English writing?*

17. *What type of feedback makes you feel nervous or anxious about writing in English?*

18. *What type of feedback on your writing in English is most useful to you?*

19. *What type of feedback on your writing in English is least useful to you?*

Appendix C

Interview Guiding Questions

1. Which comments made by your instructor were most helpful to you? Why?
2. Which comments made by your instructor did you find less helpful? Why?
3. Which (were there any) comments (that) made you worry about your writing ability (if any)?
4. How did you feel about the feedback provided by your instructor? What did you like? What did you not like? Why?
5. What do you do after you review the feedback? What actions do you take, if any?
6. How did you feel when your paper was returned to you?
7. How do you feel/are you feeling about writing the next essay?

Appendix D

Final Short Questionnaire Questions

1. Please provide your name.²³
2. Please provide the grade you received on the second writing assignment.
3. How did the feedback you received on the first assignment influence, or not influence, your writing on the second assignment?
4. How did any emotional responses to the feedback you received on the first assignment affect, or not affect, your writing on the second assignment?
5. Please provide any additional comments about how you feel about the feedback you receive on your written assignments from your instructor.

²³ The name was used to associate each participant with their assigned participant number.

Appendix E

Sample Essay

lines up well with

Community Networking for Local Tourism

do you agree that it didn't actually happen?

question marks, not italics

The presentation¹ [Community Networking for Local Tourism] intended to offer some ideas about how humans and natural resources can work together for a long term in order to benefit the local tourism. The key person in the lecture and this task is an entrepreneur who is fulfilling a business opportunity for himself and trying to benefit the community as well. The speech started with the introduction of the idea which is developing³ the community tourism as a continuum from the past through the present to the future. In addition, Professor Peter Murry presented six selected business issues that are critical to the development of local tourism: opportunity recognition, leadership, seasonality, sustainability, human resource development, and finance.

Opportunity recognition is the fundamental factor of local tourism; communities and entrepreneurs should consider global issues and sustainability first⁴. Moreover, entrepreneurs have to research and analyze work places and environment around them to see if these elements are meeting customer expectations as well as to see if there are demands in the tourism market waiting to be satisfied. In addition, entrepreneurs should apply new technology such as environmental scanning techniques to help themselves to make choices. To be specific, external health and social proposal factors such as international events, national socio-econ trend and community interests can influence the future development of a business. As Peter⁵ mentioned, on the international and national scale, (war was coming.)⁷ It was not a good time to start a novel tourism business, yet the opportunity was there and even wartime could bring

30

opportunities.

Leadership is important in business field, it is not easy to be a good leader, but it must be done. Peter set Victoria Harbor ferry as an example in his speech. Paul Miller, the founder of BC Ferry, started the business in 1990; by the year of 2002 he already had a fleet of 10 ferryboats, a staff of 32, and handled around 150,000 passengers a year over an extended summer season. Paul's success came from his excellent leadership skill. In particular, Paul changed the company's focus right after the first year of his business. When he was in charge, he successfully helped the company went through the hard time of dull season by carefully recruiting and managing. More importantly, Paul knew when to take over and when to step aside, and that's what lead a businessman to even greater success.

A common problem in most tourist destinations is the hard time of slack season. It can cause local tourism to lose profits even to suffer a deficit. Therefore, local tourism must find a way to overcome it with a variety of ways. What a successful entrepreneur should do is to turn the problem into an advantage or address this dilemma. For instance, many tourists do not like to travel during the winter time, in order to attract more tourists, a scenic spot in Japan successfully built a new "storm-proofed" hotel as close to breaking waves as they could go. Each sea-view room has a reinforced glass panoramic window and an open wood fireplace. When the waves come pounding the wall, it is an amazing spectacle.

Sustainability means meeting the needs of the present without compromising the need of future generations. Geographers generally think long-term, which focus on

natural sustainability and look more at global issues such as climate change, resource depletion and quality of life. However, business is usually shortsighted, which focus on financial sustainability and organizational longevity. For example, resorts are remarkably sustainable over the centuries; one key reason is their adaptability. Roompot Vakanties is a family who focus on the business of resort chain and at the same time attempting to secure a sustainable future. Their idea and action can help tourists spend their holidays in a more healthy and natural way. As a result, sustainability is not just an idea; it is also a way to help local tourism to become more environmentally friendly and capable to adapt new conditions.

In the end, Merry briefly explained human resource development and finance.

Although both of them are essential to local tourism, they are the biggest challenge to entrepreneurs. As a consequence, to be a successful entrepreneur in the field of tourism, one should follow six aspects that list above to appraise resources and ensure competitive position of local tourism market.

It's clear to me that you appreciated Merry's insights, and your summary tells me that you came away with a solid grasp of his ideas. Your writing isn't very smooth, though: some subjects are introduced too abruptly, and there are more errors than there should be.

(+167)

context
would be
helpful
21

rears a 22

23 of in to 24

25

the 24 28 and 27

30

31

29

28

Appendix F

*Background Information***Department of Linguistics**

University of Victoria
 P.O. Box 3045 STN CSC
 Victoria, BC V8W 3P4
 (250) 721-7424 (phone)
 (250) 721-7423 (fax)

**Examining Emotional Responses to Feedback
 in Second Language Writing**

Fall 2012

Name: _____

Email: _____

Participant # _____

Please provide the following background information. This information will only be used as part of the data analysis for the research study. All personal information will be kept confidential. Thank you.

Date: _____

Age: _____

Gender: M F (circle one)

1. Language first learned as a child and still used as your **primary** language:

2. Age when you first started learning English: _____

3. How long have you been using English on a regular basis (in years and/or months)?

4. How would you classify your English language learning level? (circle one)

Beginner

Intermediate

Advanced

Expert

5. What is your program of study or major? (*e.g., Linguistics, English, Psychology, Physics, etc.*) _____

6. Two written assignments *from the same class* will be used in this study. Please name the class and instructor that your written assignments are from:

Instructor: _____

Class: (e.g., *ENGL 101*) _____

Appendix G

Feedback Categories and Definitions for Coding Feedback

Category	Subcategory	Definition and Examples
Organization ^{a b}		Refers to feedback on the flow of information and where within the essay information appears, including remarks on the length of paragraphs and/or the entire essay e.g. “[paragraph number] is overlong and problematic due to TS [transition] and path
Formatting ^{a b}		Feedback on the physical appearance of the essay including comments on margin size, paragraph indentations, titles, and citations e.g. “1” margin”
Content	Criticism	Feedback indicating an error or problem with the essay content
	Criticism with Suggestion ^{a b}	Content feedback indicating an error or problem with the information in the essay, paragraph, or sentence that includes remarks indicating ways to correct, or change the information referred to in the feedback e.g. Comment written at the end of the paper: “too many little problems – proof read carefully”
	Criticism without Suggestion ^{a b}	Content feedback indicating an error or problem with the information in the essay, paragraph, or sentence, but no comments on ways to improve, correct, or change the error are included in the feedback remarks e.g. “I fear you have missed [the author’s] intent”
	General Criticism with or without Suggestion ^b	Participant refers to feedback given in relation to content errors, but the participant does not include information with respect to the presence or absence of information on how to make improvements e.g. “No compliments whatsoever”

Complimentary or Encouraging Comment	Remarks that comment on the information in the essay in a positive way and are not recommendations or suggestions
Specific Compliment or Encouraging Comment ^{a b}	Positive commentary that makes a pointed remark about either specific parts of the essay or the essay in general e.g. “There are some really lovely moments in this essay”
General Compliment or Encouraging Comment ^{a b}	Positive commentary that is not specific in nature, but may or may not refer to particular portions or the essay e.g. “well done” “nice”
Acknowledgment without Comment ^{a b}	Feedback indicating that the instructor read a section of the essay, but no remarks are included i.e., checkmarks after a sentence or paragraph
Clarity and Coherence ^{a b}	Feedback that corrects or suggests a change in a phrase or sentence in order to improve the comprehensibility of the sentence or paragraph, including the addition or removal of extraneous or redundant information as well as feedback in the form of a question about the information or ideas expressed in the essay e.g. “The <u>reason</u> why Wikipedia has survived this long is because it is...” “Is he [the research article author] saying this?”
Style ^{a b}	Remarks that correct or suggest a change in a word, phrase, or sentence based on stylistic preferences rather than grammatical errors; feedback on redundant words, phrases, or sentences are not included here because the writing level of the participants is such that occurrences of redundant information are not stylistic and exemplify difficulties with clarity and coherence in their writing was rendered e.g. “The gate had already been uneven...”

Mechanical and Grammatical	Feedback referring to punctuation, spelling, vocabulary or appropriate word choice, and grammatical errors
Punctuation ^{a b}	Feedback that adds or removes commas, periods, capitalization, semi-colons, etc.
Spelling ^{a b}	Feedback that corrects or notes errors in spelling e.g. student wrote “socio-econ” and instructor added “OMIC” to the end of the word
Vocabulary or Word Choice ^{a b}	Feedback that corrects a problematic word or recommends a change in the word selected based on contextual meaning, not stylistic choice, where the word used by the participant does not communicate the appropriate meaning in context e.g. student wrote “formidable” and the instructor added: ‘means fearful’; this was an incorrect meaning for the context of the sentence
Grammar ^{a b}	Feedback that corrects or indicates a grammatical error including errors with verb tense, article use, comma splices, third person singular ‘s’, pluralization, prepositions, and run-on sentences
Grade ^b	The grade assigned by the instructor
Non-Specified Errors ^b	Participant refers to errors or mistakes, but not in sufficient detail to identify a particular type of error (i.e., organization, content, mechanical, grammar, etc.) e.g. “The type that saying all the mistakes only”
Writing Skills – General ^b	Participant refers to feedback given in relation to overall writing ability or general comments e.g. “When feedback is saying that I...have some huge problems bigger than grammar and spelling”
All Feedback ^b	Participant refers to all types of feedback e.g. “All feedback is useful”
Other ^b	Participant refers to feedback that could not otherwise be categorized; typically very specific or personal comments e.g. “Even though I spent a lot of time on my writing I still get a negative feedback”
Unknown ^a	Feedback that is unclear due to difficulties in reading the instructor’s handwriting or where it is not evident why the comment or marking had been made e.g. a word is circled for no discernible reason

^a Category used for coding essays

^b Category used for coding open-ended SLWFAI, interview, and online questionnaire questions

Appendix H

EWAT Survey Responses

#	Statement	Agree	Disagree
1	I avoid writing in English (when possible).	31.3%	68.8%
2	I have no fear of my writing in English being evaluated or graded.	43.8%	56.3%
3	I look forward to writing down my ideas in English.	75.0%	25.0%
4	I am afraid of writing essays in English when I know they will be evaluated.	37.5%	62.5%
5	Taking an English writing course is a very frightening experience.	56.3%	43.8%
6	Handing in an English composition makes me feel good.	62.5%	37.5%
7	My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on an English composition.	31.3%	68.8%
8	Expressing ideas through writing in English seems to be a waste of time.	0.0%	100.0%
9	I would enjoy submitting my English writing to academic journals for evaluation.	43.8%	56.3%
10	I like to write my ideas down in English.	37.5%	62.5%
11	I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in written English.	25.0%	75.0%
12	I like to have my friends read what I have written in English.	75.0%	25.0%
13	I'm nervous about writing in English.	68.8%	31.3%
14	People seem to enjoy what I write in English.	33.3%	66.7%
15	I enjoy writing in English.	43.8%	56.3%
16	I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas in English.	37.5%	62.5%
17	Writing in English is a lot of fun.	37.5%	62.5%
18	I expect to do poorly in English writing classes even before I enter them.	43.8%	56.3%
19	I like seeing my thoughts on paper in English.	81.3%	18.8%

20	Discussing my English writing with others is an enjoyable experience.	56.3%	43.8%
21	I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in an English writing course.	81.3%	18.8%
22	When I hand in an English composition I am sure I'm going to do poorly.	18.8%	81.3%
23	It's easy for me to write good English compositions.	12.5%	87.5%
24	I don't think I write in English as well as most other people.	75.0%	25.0%
25	I don't like my English compositions to be evaluated.	25.0%	75.0%
26	I'm not good at writing in English.	75.0%	25.0%

Appendix I

SLWFAI Open-ended Questions Results (Questions 13 to 19)

SLWFAI Open-ended Questions Results Questions 13-14

<u>Category</u>	<u>Emotion</u>	<u>Question 13</u>	<u>Question 14</u>
Pleasant	Enjoyment	0	1
	Hope	3	7
	Joy	0	0
	Relief	2	0
	Pride	0	0
	Satisfaction	1	4
	Surprise	1	0
	Confidence	0	2
Unpleasant	Motivation	1	0
	Anxiety	6	1
	Hopelessness	0	0
	Sadness	1	1
	Disappointment	3	1
	Shame Guilt	2	0
	Surprise	0	0
Neutral	Confusion	1	1
	Acceptance	3	2
Total		24	20
Pleasant		8 (33.3%)	14 (70%)
Unpleasant		13 (54.2%)	4 (20%)
Neutral		3 (12.5%)	2 (10%)

SLWFAI Open-ended Questions Results Questions 15-19

<u>Category</u>	<u>Sub-category</u>	<u>Question 15</u>	<u>Question 16</u>	<u>Question 17</u>	<u>Question 18</u>	<u>Question 19</u>	
Content	Criticism	Criticism with suggestion	2	0	0	7	0
		Criticism without suggestion	0	0	0	1	4
	Content - general criticism		2	7	2	1	2
	Compliment	Specific compliment	8	0	0	3	1
		General compliment	5	0	0	3	4
	Other Content	Acknowledgment without comment	0	0	0	0	2
		Clarity and coherence	0	0	0	0	0
		Style	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Content Total</i>		<i>17</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>14</i>	
Mechanical/Grammatical	Punctuation	0	0	0	0	0	
	Spelling	0	0	1	0	0	
	Vocabulary	0	0	1	0	0	
	Grammar	0	1	3	1	0	
<i>Mechanical/Grammatical Total</i>		<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	
Organization		<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	
Formatting		<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	
Grade		<i>1</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	
Writing Skills - general		<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>3</i>	
Non-specified errors		<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>4</i>	
No category	Other	0	3	1	0	0	
	All feedback types	0	0	1	0	0	
	Unknown	1	0	0	0	2	
<i>No category Total</i>		<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>2</i>	
Grand Total		21	19	19	26	24	

SLWFAI Open-ended questions

13. When my graded English composition is returned to me I feel...
14. The feedback my instructor provides on my English compositions makes me feel...
15. What type of feedback makes you feel positive about your English writing?
16. What type of feedback makes you feel negative about your English writing?
17. What type of feedback makes you feel nervous or anxious about writing in English?
18. What type of feedback on your writing in English is most useful to you?
19. What type of feedback on your writing in English is least useful to you?