

THESIS

STUDENT IDENTITY, WRITING ANXIETY, AND WRITING PERFORMANCE: A
CORRELATIONAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

STUDENT IDENTITY, WRITING ANXIETY, AND WRITING PERFORMANCE: A CORRELATIONAL STUDY

While identity research has recently become popular in the field of language acquisition, most of the research conducted in this area has been qualitative in nature. Possibly due to the lack of quantitative identity research, few language acquisition studies have attempted to find relationships between identity and other individual differences. The purpose of this study is to fill these gaps in the literature by answering the questions: 1) Is there a relationship between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance? and 2) What is the nature of this relationship if it exists?

Participants in this study were 33 international undergraduate students of advanced English proficiency enrolled in an introductory university writing course. This study defines student identity as the degree of student integration into the culture of an American university. This construct was measured through participant responses to open ended journaling prompts about their educational experiences in their home country and in the United States. These qualitative responses were read and scored by four raters, converting the data to a single, quantitative score for each participant. Writing anxiety was measured with the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) and writing performance was measured with the scores participants earned on the papers

submitted for their writing class. The linear relationships between these variables were explored through correlations.

Inverse relationships were found between student cultural integration and writing performance and between student cultural integration and writing anxiety for students who showed changes in writing performance over the course of the semester. The implications of these findings, limitations of this study, and suggestions for future research are considered.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An essential part of language learning is exposure to the culture of the target language. In the twenty-first century, foreign languages and cultures are readily accessible. The internet has allowed people from varied cultural backgrounds to interact and share information. Also, the globalization of education and business has increased interest in foreign languages and cultures and made them more available (Block, 2007; Canagarajah, 2007; Rickard, 1994; Singh & Doherty, 2004). Technological advances and globalization change not only how people see the world, but also how they see themselves.

Modern globalization, aided by new technologies, has come with the necessity of communication between people of different language and cultural backgrounds. English has developed into a lingua franca, or language of communication. According to Canagarajah (2007), English is the language used most commonly in multilingual and transnational contexts for communication. The use of English as a second language or as a lingua franca exposes English users to foreign cultures through their English language interactions (Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011). Through language learners' exposure to new cultural ideas and norms, they become more aware of their own cultural beliefs by recognizing intercultural differences (Block, 2007; Clark, 2007; Li, 2007). Li (2007) stated,

All the variables involved in the construction of self lead to the conclusion that identities are constructed through difference 'in the process of change and transformation.' [Identities] are positions that individuals are obliged to take up while recognizing that they are merely representations constructed from the place of the other and through differences. (p. 25)

The cultural exchange that results from language learning creates opportunities for recognition of intercultural differences on a personal level and a reconstruction of identity.

Identity became an area of interest for researchers in the field of language acquisition in the late 1970's and 1980's (Giles & Johnson, 1987; Kabakchy & Rivers, 1978). Language acquisition researchers built upon the identity research that had been conducted by psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists and applied it to linguistic expression and language learning (Block, 2007; Mantero, 2007). The current view of identity in language fields is derived from poststructuralist theory, which regards identity as multiple and fluid (Gu, 2009). Identity is fluid in that it is constantly changing based on one's experiences and multiple in that people adopt different identities depending on their environment.

One of the environments that all international students find themselves in is a classroom. In a classroom setting, students assume the role of student. The combination of classroom norms and the attitudes a student has towards these norms determines the student's behavior in their student role (Hogg, 1996). According to social identity theory, identity is derived from group membership (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The attitudes and behaviors a student takes on in their students role affects the social value they associate with their membership in the student social category (Hogg, 1996; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). So, while student identity is an individual difference and

highly variable between individuals, most people attending school at any level will incorporate a student identity into their social identity. According to Stets and Burke (2000), “In social identity theory and identity theory, the self is reflexive in that it can take itself as an object and can categorize, classify, or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classifications” (p. 224). Although an individual may adopt different student roles in different classroom settings, depending on factors like the instructor’s teaching style and the engagement of other students, all students will have a student identity because they categorize themselves as students (Canagarajah, 2007; Hogg, 1996; Tajfel 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Undergraduate international students’ experiences living and learning at a foreign university can create the opportunity for them to simultaneously reconstruct their position as a member of a new cultural community and their position as a student. Many undergraduates choosing to study abroad do so to gain cultural and language experiences that will enhance their education. The exposure that undergraduate international students have to new cultural norms and ideas generally makes them more aware of differences that exist between their native culture and the foreign culture in which they are studying (Block, 2007; Clark, 2007; Dolby, 2004; Li, 2007). As Li (2007) pointed out, awareness of difference forces self-evaluation and reconstruction of identity. For undergraduate international university students, this means a reevaluation of student identity, considering both the student norms in their native country and the student norms in their chosen country of study.

Undergraduate international students’ education abroad brings them into contact with students native to their chosen country of study. The amount of contact a language

learner's social group has with speakers of the target language and an individual language learner's feelings towards the target language group determine whether a language learner will acculturate to the norms of the target language group (Schumann, 1986). Schumann (1986) defined acculturation as, "the social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language group" (p. 379). Undergraduate international students are exposed to the cultural norms of the country in which they are studying, which is often the culture of a target language group. These students may choose to negotiate the cultural norms of their native country and the norms of the target language culture. In addition to larger cultural norms, undergraduate international students will encounter classroom norms, which they will conform to or reject to varying degrees. Many researchers have used acculturation as a measure of identity (Cortes, Rogler, & Malgady, 1994; Giles & Ogay, 2006; Ramirez, 1984; Szapocznik, Kurtines, and Fernandez, 1980). The current study will follow this tradition, conceptualizing student identity through acculturation to student norms.

Language acquisition researchers and language teachers have explored identity through a variety of methods, including case studies (Cekaite, 2007; Lam, 2000; Peirce, 1995; Schechter & Bayley, 1997; Stakhnevich, 2005; Stephen, 2006), introspective techniques (Williams, 2007; Liggett, 2007; Miyahira & Petrucci, 2007), elicitation techniques (Rell & Rothman, 2007), and ethnographical studies (Baynham & Simpson, 2010; Chavez, 2007; Ellwood, 2008; Lee, 2007; Kabakchy & Rivers, 1987). The vast majority of this research has been qualitative in nature. By definition, the construct of identity resists quantification; however, a limited number of studies have succeeded in quantifying identity through surveys or discourse analysis (Allen, Dristas, & Mills, 2007;

Bosher, 1997; De Costa, 2007; Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid, 2005; Harumi, 2010; Hyland, 2002a; Yihong, Yuan, Ying, & Yan, 2007).

Possibly due to the relative lack of quantitative identity research, few studies in language acquisition have attempted to find relationships between identity and other individual differences that affect the acquisition of a foreign or second language. Despite this fact, anxiety and identity are inextricably connected. Guiora stated, “Language learning itself is a ‘profoundly unsettling psychological position’ because it directly threatens an individual’s self-concept and world view” (as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 125). As identity and anxiety are both individual differences, every language learner will experience the self-evaluation that can accompany language learning differently. However, for many, learning a language forces a reevaluation of self-perceptions which can be anxiety provoking.

In addition to the anxiety produced through the changes in identity that language learners experience by becoming aware of intercultural differences (Li, 2007), language learners also face situations that challenge their self-perceptions as they attempt to communicate in a foreign language, further adding to their anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).

Because individual communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-cultural standards, second language communication entails risk taking and is necessarily problematic. Because complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic. (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128)

The challenges that learning a language poses to undergraduate international university students’ self-perceptions advances reconsiderations of identity. An undergraduate

international student's reconstruction of identity, be it through recognition of intercultural differences or gaps in knowledge of a target language that inhibit self-expression, can cause anxiety.

Language learning anxiety is a specific anxiety reaction that occurs only when a language learner is thinking about language learning, participating in a language class, or studying a language (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Language anxiety can manifest as: self-evaluation, excessive concern about failure, concern about what others think, apprehension and worry, avoidance of the target language, careless errors, and excessive studying (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) identified three types of language learning anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Most studies on language learning anxiety focus on communication anxiety and deal primarily with speaking anxiety. General anxiety measures, like the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, 1986), tend to concentrate on speaking anxiety over anxiety caused by the other language skills (Cheng, 2004). Yet, some researchers have begun to make distinctions between anxieties produced by the four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and the focus of this study, writing. Analyses of measures of writing anxiety show that these scales have moderate correlations with general language anxiety measures, but clearly measure a different construct (Cheng, 2004; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). This demonstrates that while writing anxiety is related to general language anxiety, it is a separate, more specific construct.

Fear of negative evaluation and communication apprehension are the types of anxiety produced by writing in a second or foreign language. Anxious second and

foreign language writers often fear not being able to express themselves clearly in their writing and worry about how others will perceive them after reading their writing.

Writing anxiety manifests itself much as general language anxiety: through excessive worry, self-evaluation, fear of others' judgments, and avoidance or excessive time spent on the composition process (Cheng, 2004; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

Many studies have explored the relationship between language anxiety and performance in language classrooms (Cheng, 2002; Cheng, 2004; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996). There is generally a negative correlation between anxiety and measures of performance in language classrooms, such as assignment scores, test scores, or final course grades (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) found that language anxiety interferes with cognitive processing. Anxiety's effects in the processing of language are quite pervasive and impinge on language processing at the input, processing, and output stages. It is likely that anxious language learners' cognitive loads are much heavier than those of relaxed students. Attention to worry, rather than language, could explain the negative correlations that have been found between language anxiety and classroom performance.

Less is known about the relationship between writing specific anxiety and written performance. While some studies show a negative correlation between writing anxiety and the quality of composition produced (Chen & Lin, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996), others do not find statistical significance in this relationship (Cheng, 2002; Pajares & Johnson, 1994). The studies that did not show a strong negative correlation between

writing anxiety and writing performance reveal that students' self-perceived writing abilities may be a mediator in the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance (Cheng, 2002; Pajares & Johnson, 1994). Some studies have found that writing students who perceived themselves as good writers performed better than students who perceived themselves as poor writers. While writing confidence was statistically related to writing anxiety in these studies, perceived writing abilities were predictive of writing performance and writing anxiety was not (Cheng, 2002; Pajares & Johnson, 1994). The contradictory findings regarding the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance indicate that more research in this area is needed.

Research in the fields of language acquisition has explored the issues of identity, writing anxiety, and written performance separately (Baynham & Simpson, 2010; Cekaite, 2007; Chavez, 2007; Cheng, 2002; Ellwood, 2008; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Lam, 2000; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Schechter & Bayley, 1997; Stakhnevich, 2005; Stephen, 2006; Williams, 2007), but there are no studies investigating these constructs together. Quantitative identity research represents only a fraction of the qualitative research conducted in this area. For this reason, few studies have been conducted to determine how identity is related to other individual differences, such as anxiety and classroom performance. Additionally, the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance is unclear. This study is an effort to fill these gaps in the existing literature on identity, anxiety, and writing.

The central purpose of this study is to better understand the nature of the relationship that exists between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance in non-native English speaking undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory

university English writing course. The data interpretation and analysis of this study were guided by the following set of hypotheses

1. An inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.
2. An inverse relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing performance.
3. A direct relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

The theoretical framework which guided the formulation of these hypotheses and the operationalizations of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance is presented in Chapter II. The participants, instruments, and data collection procedures used in this study are outlined in Chapter III. Chapter IV includes the statistical analysis of the data collected through the procedures described in Chapter III. As this is a correlational study, the Chapter IV reports Pearson correlation coefficients as a measure of the linear relationships that exist between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance. This paper concludes with a discussion on the meanings and implications of the results of the study in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter II provides information on the theories and research that informed the methodology and hypotheses of this study. The chapter opens with a brief description of the context and global trends which give this study exigency. As discussed in Chapter I, the constructs of concern for this study are identity, anxiety, and writing performance. Identity and anxiety are explored in separate sections of this chapter. The discussion of these constructs flows from broad to narrow, beginning with histories of research conducted in these areas and progressing to the specific aspects of each construct that have led to the operationalization of these variables and to the development of the protocols used in this study. After identity and anxiety are explored separately, the relationships that researchers have found between writing anxiety and writing performance and between cultural integration and anxiety are considered. The review of studies conducted on these relationships forms the basis for this study's hypotheses. This chapter concludes with the rationale and potential applications of this study.

Context

The end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century have seen a dramatic rise in globalization. Globalization is the mixing of societies and cultures from around the world. According to Rickard (1994), globalization has been occurring for centuries and is caused by new technologies, wars, political oppression, economic

pressures, and environmental influences. Additionally, Rickard (1994) cites the expanding international job and education markets as major contributors to the globalization of the modern world.

Globalization since the start of the 21st century has been primarily due to advancements in technology, which can be seen in the speed and volume of information exchange happening today (Singh & Doherty, 2004). High speed internet can be found in virtually every country in the world allowing people to quickly and easily access information about foreign languages and cultures (Block 2007; Clark, 2007; Dolby, 2004; Jewett, 2010; Li, 2007).

Due to the intercultural contact created by globalization, communities around the world are becoming increasingly multilingual (Canagarajah, 2007). English is used by many multilingual communities as a lingua franca (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011). Canagarajah and Wurr (2011) stated, “Language diversity is the norm and not the exception in non-western communities. In such communities, people are always open to negotiating diverse languages in their everyday public life” (p. 2). Additionally, according to Canagarajah (2007), “Even Western communities are beginning to acknowledge the diversity, hybridity, and fluidity at the heart of language and identity” (p. 935). While English has developed into a language of communication in many multilingual communities, it is also commonly used more formally in international education and business.

The advancements in technology that allow communication between countries separated by thousands of miles have created an international job market and a global culture, which “serves as a ‘magnet attracting people’ to particular ideas ‘regarding

economic opportunity and consumption” (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p. 16). As a way of making themselves more viable in the international job market, many university students are choosing to study abroad (Dolby, 2004; Jewett, 2010; Singh & Doherty, 2004). As Singh and Doherty stated, “Students seeking the cultural capital of global cultural forms...are proactive agents, purposefully and advantageously imagining and positioning themselves in global flows” (2004, p. 36). A study abroad experience can offer students the ability to learn a foreign language, experience a foreign culture, and learn in a foreign educational system. Many students choose to study abroad in the United States due to its reputation as one of the best educational systems in the world. Additionally, education in the United States operates almost exclusively in English, which has become an international language of communication, and thus, is required of those who wish to work internationally. Many students from around the world are taking advantage of the opportunities presented by their universities to study in the United States. During the 2008-2009 school year 671,616 international students were enrolled in American colleges and universities (Carter, 2010).

Undergraduate international students’ experiences living in a foreign country and negotiating a foreign culture will inevitably expose them to new cultural ideas and norms. Through learning about and living in a different culture they become more aware of their own cultural beliefs by recognizing intercultural differences (Block, 2007; Clark, 2007; Li, 2007). According to Dolby (2004), “Study abroad provides not only the possibility of encountering the world, but of encountering oneself – particularly one’s national identity – in a context that may stimulate new questions and new formulations of that self” (p. 150). She further asserted, “Despite the rhetoric that focuses attention on students’

encounter with ‘the other’ and the subsequent increase in cultural competency and understanding, in actuality students’ primary encounter during the study abroad experience is with themselves as national and global actors” (Dolby, 2004, p. 154). Undergraduate international university students gain insight into their identity through encountering unfamiliar perceptions of their native country and through experiencing new cultural norms (Dolby, 2004). This insight can lead international students to question and reconstruct their identity.

Identity

Historically, identity has been a construct explored in the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and philosophy (Block, 2007; Gordon, 1964; Mantero, 2007; Norton, 1997). Each of these fields of study contains a variety of definitions of identity: socio-cultural identity, which views identity as developing out of social interaction; ethnic identity, which is a person’s identification with a particular ethnic group or groups; personal identity, which deals with who a person is and how this changes over time; and the foci of this study, cultural identity and social identity, which are a person’s identification with a particular culture or cultures and the multiple identities a person takes on in different social situations, respectively (Block, 2007; Gordon, 1964; Norton, 1997).

Early second language acquisition (SLA) research did not concern itself with the social and psychological factors related to language development, such as identity (Pavlenko, 2002). Chomsky’s work on universal grammar had a strong impact on the field in the 1950’s and 1960’s and SLA research focused primarily on biological, rather than social, factors (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011; Pavlenko, 2002). Over time, researchers

became increasingly interested in the relationship between social factors and language learning, and began exploring factors like age, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and identity (Pavlenko, 2002).

Identity research conducted in the field of SLA prior to the 1990's followed a structuralist paradigm, believing that "universal and invariant laws of humanity [operate] at all levels of human life" (Block, 2007, p. 12). Identity as conceptualized from a structuralist view is a "fixed and measurable phenomenon," like other more easily measurable constructs such as age or IQ (Block, 2007, p. 72). Few studies within the structuralist paradigm focused on identity. In fact, from the 1960s until the 1980s identity was not the focus of any study in the field of SLA; however, it was discussed and alluded to in several studies from this time period (Block, 2007; Guiora, Brannon, & Dull, 1972; Pavlenko, 2002).

One of the first studies that dealt with identity peripherally was a study on the effect of empathy on an individual's ability to approximate the pronunciation of a native speaker of the target language conducted by Guiora, Brannon, and Dull (1972). The researchers used the construct of empathy to approximate the "flexibility of psychic processes" or "language ego permeability" of 411 foreign language students studying Japanese, Mandarin, Thai, Spanish, or Russian in a three month intensive language course. Guiora, Brannon, and Dull stated (1972), "Since pronunciation appears to be the feature of language behavior most resistant to change, we are led to suspect that it is probably the most critical to the individual's identity" (p. 113). In this study, the researchers were interested in identity, but operationalized the self through pronunciation and empathy, constructs which were easier to measure quantitatively. This indirect

treatment of identity characterizes the research on the self conducted under structuralist theory.

The structuralist approach has received criticism for its use in the study of constructs that are dynamic and situated in complex social contexts (Block, 2007; Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011; Pavlenko, 2002). Pavlenko (2002) presented several criticisms of the structuralist approach to the study of social factors including: its monolingual bias, which divides the world into homogeneous monolingual cultures, and in turn, results in the conceptualization of language learning as the acquisition of a new language and the abandonment of an old language; its assumption that assimilation or integration into the target language culture is the ultimate goal of all language learners; its view of culture as static and unchanging; its ill-defined and incomplete conceptualization of social constructs; its assumption that the relationship between individual differences and social contexts is unidirectional and causal, when in reality individual differences and social contexts are constantly changing due to the influence they exert on one another; and its separation of individual factors, like age and race, from social factors, when in reality individual factors are interpreted through social contexts. Structuralism's attempts to make complex social factors easily measurable and quantifiable created assumptions about social variables that were simplified, idealized, and decontextualized, and as a result, largely inaccurate.

Poststructuralist theory was developed from the objections that were raised to the structuralist approach to the study of social factors. According to Pavlenko (2002), poststructuralist theory "is understood broadly as an attempt to investigate and to theorize the role of language in construction and reproduction of social relations, and the role of

social dynamics in the processes of additional language learning and use” (p. 282).

While the field of SLA is beginning to transition to the poststructuralist paradigm, much research conducted in SLA today retains structuralist assumptions. According to Canagarajah and Wurr (2011),

The assumptions modern linguistics is based on reflect homogeneity and monolingualism, and fail to take account of multilingual realities in diverse contexts and communities. The search is on to develop more complex models that explain not only the ways in which nonwestern/multilingual communities acquire language competence, but how all of us are compelled to learn and use languages in late modernity. (p. 1)

The poststructuralist paradigm that is emerging in language learning research is often referred to as multilingual or bilingual language acquisition (MLA and BLA), rather than SLA.

Within a poststructuralist framework, language is viewed as the means through which identity is constructed (Gu, 2009; Pavlenko, 2002). Particularly relevant to this study’s conceptualization of identity is the view of the identities of language users as multiple and fluid. Identity is fluid in that it is constantly changing based on one’s experiences and multiple in that people adopt different identities depending on their environment (Block, 2007; Gu, 2009; Pavlenko, 2002).

It was not until the late 1970’s and 1980’s that SLA, BLA, and MLA researchers interested in identity began taking findings and theories from the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and philosophy and applying them to linguistic expression and language learning (Block, 2007; Giles & Johnson, 1987; Kabakchy & Rivers, 1978; Mantero, 2007). Within language acquisition a multiplicity of definitions of identity exist. SLA, BLA, and MLA researchers have borrowed the conceptualizations of socio-cultural identity, ethnic identity, personal identity, cultural identity, and social identity

previously discussed (Block, 2007; Gordon, 1964; Norton, 1997). Within these frameworks, identity has been operationalized as anything from voice to pronoun use to code switching to language choice to media portrayals of foreign cultures to students' views of themselves as a writer or speaker of a foreign or second language to identification as a monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual (DeCosta, 2007; Fernsten, 2008; Lee, 2006; Lee, 2007; Mantero, 2007; Nelson & Malinowski, 2007; Nero, 2005; Pennycook, 2003; Rell & Rothman, 2007; Sarkar, Low, & Winer, 2007; Shiyab, 2007). Language acquisition identity research has led to new insight into the relationship that exists between identity and language learning and use.

A systematic review of SLA, BLA, and MLA identity research was conducted for the purposes of this study to examine the scientific processes followed by studies that have been published on identity. A sample of six journals was selected for the research synthesis: *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *The ELT Journal*, *Language Teaching Research*, *The Modern Language Journal*, *Second Language Research*, and *TESOL Quarterly*. These journals were selected for their influence in the fields of SLA, BLA, and MLA and ease with which their back issues could be searched for relevant articles. Subsequently, these journals were browsed for articles directly addressing social or cultural identity. 34 relevant articles were located and included in the research synthesis.

Of the 34 selected studies, 18 were case studies, 7 were qualitative quasi-experiments or discourse studies, 5 were quantitative studies, 3 were theoretical papers, and 1 was an article on teaching methodology. This research synthesis shows that the vast majority of research conducted on identity in the fields of SLA, BLA, and MLA has been qualitative or theoretical in nature.

By definition, the construct of identity resists quantification, however, a limited number of studies have succeeded in quantifying identity data through surveys or discourse analysis (Allen, Dristas, & Mills, 2007; Boshier, 1997; De Costa, 2007; Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid, 2005; Harumi, 2010; Hyland, 2002a; Yihong, Yuan, Ying, & Yan, 2007). Of the five quantitative studies located during the systematic review, two used discourse analysis to operationalize identity (Hyland, 2002a; Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid, 2005) and three used survey or questionnaire data to operationalize identity (Boshier, 1997; Harumi, 2010; Yihong, Yuan, Ying, & Yan, 2007). One of the goals of this study is to add to the small body of quantitative identity research that has been conducted in the study of language acquisition.

Social Identity

Within identity research, social identity is one aspect of identity that is especially difficult to research quantitatively due to its multiplicity and fluidity. Perhaps, the most influential notion of social identity can be attributed to Tajfel and Turner's social identity theory (1979). Identity, as explained by social identity theory, is derived from group membership (Hansen & Liu, 1997; Tajfel 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Tajfel and Turner (1979) stated,

Social categorizations are conceived here as cognitive tools that segment, classify, and order the social environment, and thus enable the individual to undertake many forms of social action. But they do not merely systematize the social world; they also provide a system of orientation for *self*-reference: they create and define the individual's place in society. (p. 40)

The groups in which an individual categorizes people they come into contact with allows that individual to make comparisons between themselves, based upon their membership in certain social groups, and others, based upon their group memberships. This means that

social groups are assigned value; some social groups, by the individual's evaluation, are inherently better or worse than others (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Due to the values that are assigned to social groups within the framework of Social Identity Theory, social identity can be positive or negative. Tajfel and Turner believed that an individual's positive or negative evaluations of their membership in the social groups comprising their social identity play a large part in an individual's self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). If an individual has a negative self identity, they will either attempt to leave the social group which has been negatively evaluated or attempt to make that social group better (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Social identity theory assumes that outward behavior reflects internal attitudes; however, this is not always true (Hogg, 1996; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social and cultural norms are often better predictors of behavior than attitudes (Hogg, 1996). People may wish to outwardly follow behavioral norms, but internally may not agree with them (Hogg, 1996). An individual's adherence to the social and cultural norms surrounding them may not be evidence of an internal attitude shift. This makes the measurement and quantification of social identity especially difficult. Identities cannot be separated from the social contexts in which they exist and, thus cannot be measured through behavior alone.

Structuralist thought is the basis of social identity theory. Structuralist values can be seen in social identity theory's treatment of social groups as relatively static and measurable. Since the recent move towards post-structuralist theory, new models of social identity have appeared. In general, two competing conceptualizations of social identity exist in the literature. Abrams (1996) termed these two views of social identity

self-regulation and self-process. Self-regulation follows a structuralist approach to the self, conceptualizing an individual's self concept as constant and relatively unchanging. In this view, a stable, relatively fixed self-image drives an individual's actions and provides the filter through which behavior is judged (Abrams, 1996). In contrast, self-process adheres to the post-structuralist paradigm. Self-process views the self as changing with contexts and with the development of new goals (Abrams, 1996).

Due to their foundations in discrepant theories, self-regulation and self-process are generally considered to be in conflict with one another; however, Abrams (1996) argued that these two models of social identity may very well work in conjunction with one another. Despite the criticisms that have been made of structuralist theory, Abrams (1996) cited the many psychological studies on personality that have evidenced the existence of stable self-descriptions and argues that theories of self-regulation should not be thrown out altogether. Abrams (1996) suggested that relatively constant categorizations of the self into social groups may work in union with decision making processes, allowing people to decide whether to accept or reject the norms of a particular social group to which they belong in different social situations.

Both self-regulation and self-process theories came from the field of psychology. Giles and Johnson (1987) were some of the first researchers to apply social identity theory to language in their ethnolinguistic identity theory. The basic assumption of ethnolinguistic identity theory is that language is an important indicator of group membership and social identity (Hansen & Liu, 1997). Using a group of Welsh speakers living in a community in Wales with a high population of Welsh bilinguals, Giles and Johnson investigated the complex relationships existing between the strength of an

individual's cultural identification, perceived cultural vitality, perceived alternatives to Wales' current position in respect to Britain, group memberships, attitudes towards the Welsh language, and patterns of Welsh use. The researchers found that perceived alternatives to Wales's current position in respect to Britain and strength of cultural identification were the best predictors of short-term language maintenance (Giles & Johnson, 1987). Through many statistical analyses of all of their variables, Giles and Johnson developed models of the language maintenance strategies likely to be used by individuals who act in terms of ethnic solidarity and by individuals who act in terms of conformity to the norms of the dominant group.

This work by Giles and Johnson laid the foundation for Giles' later communication accommodation theory (Giles & Ogay, 2006). Communication accommodation theory is concerned with the speech style modifications different individuals adopt. In a conversation, interlocutors converge or diverge from the speech style of their conversation partner. Convergence means that an interlocutor changes their speech style slightly to be more in line with that of the person they are conversing with. Divergence means that an interlocutor changes their speech to emphasize differences between themselves and the person they are conversing with (Giles & Ogay, 2006). While convergence generally results in social acceptance and social rewards, it can also result in a loss of social identity (Giles & Ogay, 2006). Divergence is often used to accentuate a particular social identity (Giles & Ogay, 2006).

Peirce (1995) extended the theories of Tajfel and Turner (1979) and Giles and Johnson (1987) to the context of language learning. Peirce (1995) argued that social identity can only be understood in the context of the social structures which surround it.

She presented her argument through data collected from the diary entries, questionnaires, and interviews of five women in an English language class who had immigrated to Canada. Pierce (1995) showed that participants were positioned as members of minority groups in their social interactions, and thus had unequal social power in interactions with native Canadians. Participants worked through feelings of inferiority, embarrassment, and isolation in order to avoid marginalization and operate effectively in Canadian society. Pierce (1995) stated, “It is through language that a person negotiates a sense of self within and across different sites at different points in time, and it is through language that a person gains access to—or is denied access to—powerful social networks that give learners the opportunity to speak” (p. 13).

It is through the work of researchers in the field of language acquisition, like Pierce (1995), and sociolinguistics, like Giles and Johnson (1987), that the connection between social identity and cultural identity becomes clear. Cultural heritage, which can include common history, a common language, or a common ethnicity, dictates membership in a particular cultural group or groups, which is one component of an individual’s larger social identity. Membership in a cultural group is one way in which an individual organizes and navigates their social interactions. This is evidenced in Giles and Ogay’s (2006) communication accommodation theory and Tajfel and Turner’s (1979) social identity theory.

Membership in a social group based upon cultural background becomes particularly relevant to social interactions when one is abroad. As Li (2007) stated, “[Identities] are positions that individuals are obliged to take up while recognizing that they are merely representations constructed from the place of the other and through

differences” (p. 25). Many undergraduate international students have spent the majority of their lives in a social context where most everyone shares their cultural heritage. Due to this relative cultural homogeneity, they were most likely unaware of their membership in a particular social group based upon culture. However, when international students choose to study abroad, they are removed from this context and enter a foreign country where they are constantly faced with cultural differences. Undergraduate international students in America often strongly identify with their cultural background, where in their native country they may not have.

Cultural Identity

Block (2007) defined cultural identity as, “a form of collective identity based on shared cultural beliefs and practices, such as language, history, descent, and religion” (p. 28). Historically, cultural identity has been synonymous with ethnicity; however, cultural identity is much more complex than this. Abou (1997) stated, “Since 1981 we have put the emphasis on the triple dimension – historical, sociological, and psychological – of cultural identity, on its dynamic and relational character, on its mobility and metamorphoses” (p. 4).

A study conducted by Marshall (2010) examining English as a second language (ESL) students’ cultural identities and attitudes towards taking a university level ESL writing class asked students to respond to the open-ended survey question, “Please describe your cultural background and identity.” Through their responses participants provided information both on their cultural identity and their concept of cultural identity. Marshall (2010) found that 91.6% of participant responses included identification of countries a participant had lived in and 37.3% of participant responses included some

aspect of time. Other information that was commonly contained in responses to this survey question included: languages spoken, legal status in Canada, family, physical appearance, education, and religion. Clearly, the definition of cultural identity needs to extend beyond ethnicity to encompass all the elements that describe an individual's cultural experience and history.

Psychologists have created several scales designed to measure cultural identity. The Cortes, Rogler and Malgady Bicultural Scale (CRM-BS) uses ten items to measure identification with the US culture and ten similar items to measure identification with Puerto Rican culture. These items are designed to probe the participants' behaviors, values, and beliefs (Cortes, Rogler, & Malgady, 1994). Likewise, the Bicultural Involvement Questionnaire was developed by Szapocznik, Kurtines, and Fernandez (1980) in order to research the effectiveness of a Hispanic counseling model, which taught Hispanic high school students bicultural survival skills. Ramirez's (1984) Bicultural-Multicultural Experience Inventory was created in order to "identify subjects with pluralistic orientations to life" (p. 82). All of these measures operationalize cultural identity through acculturation.

While cultural identity has been measured and quantified with relatively objective measures of acculturation in the field of psychology, this is not the case in SLA, BLA, and MLA. Similarly to psychologists, researchers in these fields often conceptualize identity through acculturation (Giles & Ogay, 2006; Stakhnevich, 2005; Williams, 2007). Cultural identity is a critical individual difference in language learning and is a topic that has recently become prevalent in language acquisition journals; however, it is usually investigated through qualitative means, like case studies or discourse analysis.

The majority of studies on cultural identity in disciplines related to teaching ESL have been in the field of sociolinguistics. As cultures come in contact through globalization, languages have mixed. English has become a world language, and has been combined with languages from around the globe, creating world Englishes. Many sociolinguistics studies focus on how English is used by different groups of people in a variety of social contexts (DeCosta, 2007; Lee, 2006; Lee, 2007; Nelson & Malinowski, 2007; Pennycook, 2003; Rell & Rothman, 2007; Sarkar, Low, & Winer, 2007; Shiyab, 2007).

Despite their relative scarcity, there have been quantitative SLA, BLA, and MLA studies conducted on cultural identity. Harumi (2010) conducted a study on classroom silence with 196 undergraduate Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) students and 110 English language instructors in Japan. Silence is a cultural influence that affects the in-class participation of Japanese students. Harumi (2010) identified five highly valued functions that silence serves in Japanese cultural: 1) “silence as truthfulness,” 2) “silence as social discretion,” 3) “silence as embarrassment,” 4) “silence as defiance,” and 5) “silence as a sense of sharing” (p. 2). The cultural salience of silence in Japanese society means that silence is also used in Japanese English language classrooms, although it can cause misunderstandings with foreign instructors and can inhibit language learning (Harumi, 2010).

Harumi’s work clearly illustrates the involvement of cultural identity in language classrooms. Students bring cultural standards and expectations into language learning situations. For undergraduate students studying abroad, these cultural norms may have to

be negotiated with the norms of the new culture, where the student has chosen to study abroad.

As SLA, BLA, and MLA are fields often affiliated with language education, research on cultural identity often happens in the context of language classrooms. Because many language acquisition researchers hope to draw pedagogical conclusions from their work, student identity is of interest in many studies of cultural identity.

Student Identity

In addition to cultural identity, student identity becomes a crucial site of social identity awareness and reconstruction for undergraduate international students. Student identity is one of the social identities that language learners use in the classroom. According to Turner and Tajfel's (1979) social identity theory, being a student means categorizing oneself in the student social category. All social groups have behavioral norms associated with them. Turner and Tajfel (1979) alluded to this when they stated that, "[social categorizations] enable the individual to undertake many forms of social action" (p. 40). The behavioral norms of the groups an individual belongs to play a part in dictating their actions in a variety of social contexts. As Abrams (1996) suggested, membership in the student social category works as a framework for the behaviors of students. However, within this general framework of student norms, students choose which norms to accept and which to reject in different contexts.

Undergraduate international students' student identities are constructed initially through their educational experiences in their native country, and once they begin their study abroad experience, through their educational experiences in a foreign country. International students will invariably encounter differences between academia in their

native countries and the countries they choose to study in. Through journal entries, participants in this study discussed these differences, citing contrasts in: the amount of work required, the type of work required, the type of relationship students had with teachers, and the type of thinking required in classes. Because undergraduate students encounter new, foreign aspects of classroom culture when studying abroad, it is likely that some international students will experience shifts in their student identity from their negotiation of these differences.

Many of the studies that have been conducted on identity in language acquisition fields involve student identity, at least peripherally, as much of the research performed in this field has been carried out in university settings. The language classroom is one of any number of contexts in which undergraduate international students become aware of cultural and intergroup differences.

Students' negotiation of self-expression and institutionalized academic expectations has been termed academic socialization (Morita, 2004; Hawkins, 2005). Hawkins conducted an ethnographic study of four ESL kindergarten students' identity construction, literacy development, and affiliation to school. In this study, she explained academic socialization:

Students come with diverse histories and understandings, and interact within an institutional setting that privileges certain ways of using language, thinking, and interacting over others. Situated environments (in this case, schools) have their own institutionally and culturally defined categories, ranked hierarchically through the community's values, beliefs, and practices. Newcomers to these communities enter into a complicated dance in which they present themselves as certain sorts of people (either consciously or unconsciously), while being invited or summoned into certain categories and positions, in part based on how their self presentation aligns with reified categories. Their emergent understandings of what these categories are and the social significance and desirability attached to them—who they can be and want to be in this space—are mediated through filters formed by past histories and experiences. (2005, p. 62)

Hawkins (2005) claimed that learning how to operate within institutions, particularly academic institutions, is a personal choice and a useful skill. Part of academic success involves students' abilities to understand and negotiate the necessary student identities through their writing, class participation, and speech.

In contrast to Hawkins' (2005) view of academic socialization, Fernsten (2008) asserted that this process is hegemonic and imposes identities on ESL students. Fernsten conducted a case study of one undergraduate ESL writing student through critical discourse analysis. Fernsten's (2008) case study revealed that the ESL student's writing attempted to integrate the many philosophies and world views that composed her student identity. A site of continued struggle for this particular student was negotiating the expression of her ideas in a manner that did not betray the way she thought about them, but that was also academically acceptable. Fernsten (2008) stated,

Poststructuralists view language as the site of both social and political struggle, but many students lack the awareness that it is possible to contest the voices of authority, instead of accepting as truth traditional responses to their writing, and thus, to their perceptions of who they are in the academy. (p. 50)

Fernsten (2008) used the data she collected during this case study to argue that ESL writing students may have student identities imposed on them through academic conventions that do not allow for their natural expression of ideas.

Similar to Fernsten (2008), Canagarajah (2007) and other researchers in the emergent bilingual and multilingual paradigms view academic socialization as an imposition of values on students by the dominant academic community (Alsheikh, 2011; Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah, 2011; Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011; Kiernan, 2011). Canagarajah (2011) stated, "EAP (English for Academic Purposes) adopts the normative

attitude that the discourses of academic communities are not open to negotiation or criticism. If a student doesn't adopt the established discourses of a discipline, then she simply loses her claim for membership in that community" (p. 32). Many undergraduate international students enter into academia in their chosen country of study as members of multiple language communities. BLA and MLA researchers argue that in academia, the writing of these students is often perceived as "disadvantaged," "deficient," or "incompetent" when they try to mix the discourse features of their different language communities (Alsheikh, 2011; Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah, 2011; Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011; Kiernan, 2011). Canagarajah (2007) called for a reevaluation of the goals of traditional language instruction by stating, "Although enabling students to join a new speech community was the objective of traditional pedagogy, we now have to train students to shuttle between communities by negotiating the relevant codes" (p.936).

Undergraduate international students in American universities have been academically socialized in the educational systems of their native countries. Upon arrival in American universities, American institutionalized academic norms are immediately imposed on these students. As undergraduate international students become accustomed to these new academic standards, they may begin to negotiate the new academic norms and incorporate them into their student identity. International students will become academically socialized to varying degrees depending upon their initial student identities and their academic goals (Abrams, 1996).

This study explores student identity through international students' journal entries on their educational experiences in their home countries and in America. The journal prompts used in this study attempt to tap into international students' perceptions of the

norms in both contexts, attitudes towards these norms, and behaviors in both of these social contexts. The goal is to gather a comprehensive picture of the cultural norms and personal choices that influence international students' behavior and attitudes. According to Abram's (1996) model of self-regulation and self-process, the combination of these factors is indicative of student identity. Like the psychological cultural identity scales discussed, this study's operationalization of student identity is based on acculturation and is termed student cultural integration. A student's cultural integration with American university culture can serve as a measure of cultural and student identity, which is also capable of taking social context's influence into consideration. It is hypothesized that integration into American university culture has an inverse relationship with anxiety and a direct relationship with writing performance.

Acculturation

According to Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok (1987),

Acculturation is a term which has been defined as culture change which results from continuous, first hand contact between two distinct cultural groups. While originally proposed as a group-level phenomenon, it is now also widely recognized as an individual-level phenomenon, and is termed psychological acculturation. (p. 492)

The cultural changes that occur during an individual's process of psychological acculturation include: environmental changes, like a new kind of housing or a new community setting (urban, suburban, rural); physiological changes, like different nutrition and exposure to new diseases; cultural changes, through exposure to new political, economic, linguistic, and religious ideas and concepts; social changes, like new status as an in-group or out-group member; and psychological changes, which can be seen in new

behaviors and changes in mental health as a result of acculturation (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987).

Studying abroad introduces undergraduate international students into a new culture with a set of cultural practices that are often foreign to them. It is a “critical experience,” or one in which “belonging does not come naturally” (Block, 2007, p. 20). Because identity is generally only considered when it is disturbed through difference or uncertainty, the “critical experience” of study abroad is one that results in a reconstruction of identity (Block, 2007; Li, 2007). Over the course of a semester, year, or college career abroad, undergraduate international students come into contact with the cultural and classroom practices of the country in which they are studying and may even adopt some of them, integrating them into their social, cultural, and student identities. These changes in cultural student identity are the same as changes that Berry states occur due to acculturation. For the purposes of this study, the degree to which students adopt the classroom culture and norms of American universities is called student cultural integration.

A number of acculturation models exist in the psychology literature on acculturation. The most widely cited models include: Gordon’s uni-dimensional model of acculturation (1965), Berry’s bi-dimensional model of acculturation (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987), and the interactive acculturation model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997). Schumann (1986) brought the idea of acculturation to the field of SLA with his pidginization hypothesis. The influence of his theory spurred an interest in acculturation that has lasted for 25 years.

Gordon's Uni-dimensional Model of Acculturation

Gordon (1964) proposed a uni-dimensional model of acculturation, which views acculturation as a continuum with the retention of a minority culture at one extreme and conformity to a majority culture at the other. Gordon used examples from American history to present the four social factors which he believed form sub-societies or minority groups in America: ethnicity, social class, rural or urban residence, and region. Gordon (1964) stated, "While the factors are theoretically discrete, they tend to form in their combination *a functioning unity which has an integrated impact on the participating individual*" (p. 47). This impact influences an individual's social and cultural identity.

Gordon (1964) discussed three theories of acculturation that express three varieties of identity change historically seen in groups immigrating to America: anglo-conformity, the melting pot, and cultural pluralism. Anglo-conformity assumes that maintenance of American life, including the English language and American culture is advantageous and requires members of the minority culture to conform to the norms of the majority culture. Gordon (1964) asserted that, "It is quite likely that anglo-conformity in its more moderate forms has been, however explicit its formulation, the most prevalent ideology of assimilation in America throughout the nation's history" (p. 89). The melting pot metaphor illustrates the mixing of cultural norms that can occur through cultural contact. The result of the melting pot model of acculturation is a blend of cultures; however, Gordon's model was not capable of specifying the contribution made by each culture in the mix or if that contribution is proportional to a group's size, power, or some other factor (Gordon, 1964). Cultural pluralism is the model which Gordon (1964) claimed characterized America in the 1960's. Immigrant groups began

resisting the process of “Americanization” and started to form cultural communities in which their native language was used and their cultural practices upheld. Anglo-conformity, the melting pot, and cultural pluralism can be viewed as points along Gordon’s uni-dimensional model of acculturation (see Figure 1).

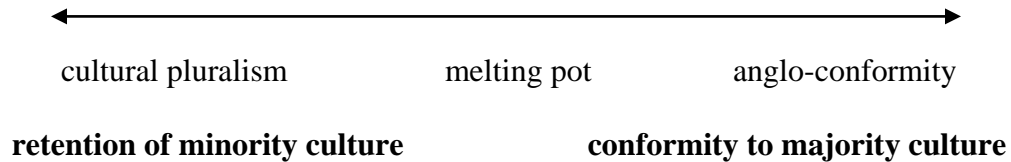


Figure 1. Gordon’s acculturation model.

Gordon’s theory is based around the acculturation patterns of groups: religious groups, ethnic groups, social groups, et cetera. However, even within Gordon’s work on group acculturation, it is acknowledged that individuals’ psychological states and personal activities contribute to group acculturation. Gordon (1964) supported his line of inquiry by stating:

For these 190 million Americans are not just individuals with psychological characteristics. They belong to groups: primary groups and secondary groups, family groups, social cliques, associations or formal organizations, networks of association, racial, religious, and national origins groups, and social classes. And the nature of these groups and their inter-relationships has a profound impact upon the way in which people of different ethnic backgrounds regard and relate to one another. (p. 234)

While Gordon (1964) discussed the many groups that make up an individual’s identity, the historical examples his acculturation model was based around primarily consider cultural and ethnic identity. An individual belongs to a multiplicity of social, cultural, religious, and family groups, so the acculturation pattern of one of these groups, which can be accounted for by Gordon’s theory, cannot fully explain any individual’s acculturation. Everyone belongs to multiple groups which most likely fall in different places along the continuum of acculturation.

Additionally, Gordon's model has received criticism for being overly focused on minority groups. While it is most commonly the minority group that experience the greatest changes during the acculturation process, Gordon's model gives little consideration to the changes the majority group may experience due to contact with immigrant groups (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997).

Berry's Bi-dimensional Model of Acculturation

By far the most widely cited acculturation model is Berry's model of acculturation. This bi-dimensional model conceptualized acculturation as the retention or rejection of a minority culture along one dimension and the acceptance or rejection of the majority culture along the other dimension. In this model, Berry identified four types of acculturation: integration, which is the retention of a minority culture and the acceptance of the majority culture; separation, which is the retention of a minority culture and the rejection of the majority culture; assimilation, which is the rejection of a minority culture and the acceptance of the majority culture; and marginalization, which is the rejection of both a minority culture and the majority culture (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987) (see Figure 2).

		Acceptance of Majority Culture	
		Yes	No
Retention of Minority Culture	Yes	Integration	Separation
	No	Assimilation	Marginalization

Figure 2. Berry's Acculturation Model (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987)

Unlike Gordon's (1964) acculturation model, Berry did not claim that his model was exclusively an explanation of group acculturation. Berry (1997) stated,

Cross-cultural psychology has demonstrated important links between cultural context and individual behavior development. Given this relationship, cross-cultural research has increasingly investigated what happens to individuals who have developed in one cultural context when they attempt to re-establish their lives in another one. The long-term psychological consequences of this process of acculturation are highly variable, depending on social and personal variables that reside in the society of origin, the society of settlement, and phenomena that both exist prior to, and arise during, the course of acculturation (p. 5).

Additionally, much of Berry's (2001) research was concerned with individual differences in psychological well-being and acculturation style. Berry's model takes into consideration individual identity, where Gordon's does not.

Despite the popularity of Berry's acculturation model and the continued influence it has on today's research in acculturation, it may be too simple a theory to fully explain the process of acculturation. While acculturation is a process that can affect both majority and minority groups in a society, Berry's model focuses exclusively on the experiences of the minority group. Berry (2001) defended his conceptualization of acculturation by stating, "The contact experiences have much greater impact on the nondominant group and its members" (p. 616). However, Berry (2001) additionally stated, "It is obvious, however, that immigrant-receiving societies and their native-born populations have been massively transformed in the past decades. Recent trends in acculturation research have come to focus more on the process of *mutual* change, involving both groups in contact" (p. 616).

In addition to Berry's (2001) own critique of his acculturation model, it has received extensive criticism from other researchers in the field of psychology. Rudmin (2003) wrote an extensive review of Berry's acculturation model. His criticisms of Berry's model included: its lack of ability to explain individual differences in

acculturation, its misoperationalization of marginalization, and its exclusion of majority culture's opinion of the minority group in question.

Among the most important criticisms of Berry's acculturation model is its lack of consideration of the attitudes of the majority culture towards a specific minority group. Later models of acculturation have incorporated comparisons of the acculturation preferences of the minority group and majority group, including Berry's own psychology of immigration (2001) and Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, and Senecal's interactive acculturation model (1997).

The Interactive Acculturation Model

In the interactive acculturation model, the acculturation orientation of a minority group is compared with the acculturation pattern the majority group would like that particular minority group to follow (1997). Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, and Senecal (1997) used the four acculturation orientations identified by Berry as the starting point for their scale and added individualism, which is an orientation in which people identify themselves and others as individuals rather than categorizing them into groups. The acculturation orientation preference of the minority group and the orientation the majority culture would prefer the minority group to adopt were compared for their degree of agreement or disagreement (see Figure 3).

Host Community Acculturation Orientation	Immigrant Community Acculturation Orientation				
	Integration	Assimilation	Separation	Anomie	Individualism
Integration	Consensual	Problematic	Conflictual	Problematic	Problematic
Assimilation	Problematic	Consensual	Conflictual	Problematic	Problematic
Segregation	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual
Exclusion	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual	Conflictual
Individualism	Problematic	Problematic	Problematic	Problematic	Consensual

Figure 3. The Interactive Acculturation Model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997, p. 382)

According to the interaction model, if the acculturation orientations of the majority and minority groups are similar, the acculturation is consensual. When the immigrant and host communities share an acculturation orientation, positive relational outcomes result, including effective cross-cultural communication, positive intergroup attitudes, low intergroup tension, low stress resulting from the acculturation process, and low discrimination (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997). When the immigrant and host communities are in partial agreement as to their preferred acculturation orientation, problematic relational outcomes result. Problematic relations can cause cross-cultural communication breakdowns, intergroup stereotypes and prejudices, discrimination, and moderate levels of stress resulting from the acculturation process (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997). Conflictual relational outcomes occur when there is little or no agreement between the immigrant and host communities on acculturation orientation preference. Conflictual relations result in a breakdown of cross-cultural communication; negative stereotyping, which can cause discriminatory practices in housing and employment, and in extreme cases, attacks against the immigrant group

meant to force them from the host community; and high levels of stress resulting from the acculturation process (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997).

Although the interactive acculturation model offers a more comprehensive view of acculturation than that provided by Berry's model, it is unclear how the acculturation orientations of the immigrant group and the host community are determined. It is unlikely that entire communities are in agreement on the ideal acculturation outcome. Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, and Senecal (1997) do not differentiate between the levels of intra-community agreement on preferred acculturation orientation in their study, making the accuracy of the interactive acculturation model questionable.

Schumann's Pidginization Hypothesis

Schumann was the first SLA researcher to apply the acculturation work conducted by psychologists to language learning. Schumann's conceptualization of acculturation most closely resembles Gordon's acculturation model (1964) in that acculturation is viewed as a continuum.

Schumann (1986) theorized that a language learner will only become fluent in a foreign language if they acculturate to the target language group. Schumann (1986) stated,

By acculturation, I mean the social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language (TL) group. I also propose that any learner can be placed on a continuum that ranges from social and psychological distance to social and psychological proximity with speakers of the TL, and that the learner will acquire the second language only to the degree that he acculturates. (p. 379)

The general concept of Schumann's pidginization hypothesis predicted that the more culturally integrated an individual, the better their command of the target language would be (see Figure 4).

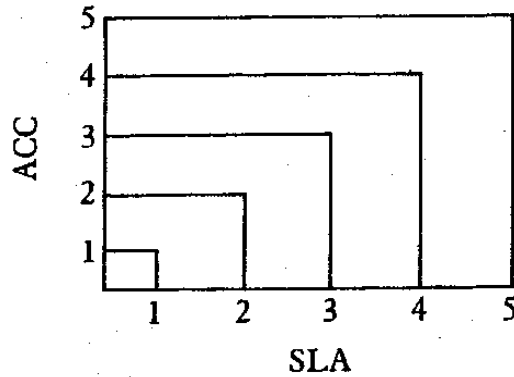


Figure 4. Schumann's Pidginization Hypothesis (Schumann, 1986, p. 384)

However, in reality, the relationship between acculturation and language proficiency is never one-to-one, as this simple illustration depicts.

In keeping with the tradition of language acquisition research, this study utilizes a uni-dimensional model of acculturation. An acculturation continuum has been employed not only by Schumann (1986), but also by prominent psychologists like Gordon (1964) and Tajfel (1978). This study's conceptualization of student identity will be based upon students' acculturation to the cultural classroom norms of the United States and will be termed student cultural integration. While Schumann's pidginization hypothesis was influential in the development of this study's operationalization of student identity, this study will not include any discussion or consideration of participants' level of English acquisition. Instead, this study will explore the relationship between students' identity, or cultural integration, and another individual difference, anxiety. It is hypothesized that participants who are highly integrated into American university culture will have lower anxiety and higher writing performance than participants who are less culturally integrated.

Anxiety

Acculturation is a stressful process. In addition to the psychological distress that can be caused by the intergroup tensions and discrimination described in the interactive acculturation model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997), the changes in identity that individuals in the acculturation process undergo are inherently distressing. Guiora stated, “language learning itself is a ‘profoundly unsettling psychological position’ because it directly threatens an individual’s self-concept and world view” (as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 125). The threat that language learning and studying abroad present to an undergraduate student’s identity often results in anxiety.

Studying a language forces students to express their identity through a new means. By learning a new language, students are exposed to a foreign culture and have the opportunity to identify cultural differences. Exposure to new ideas and cultural norms can challenge the language learners’ opinions and unsettle their identity (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Li, 2007). Additionally, when negotiating communication in a foreign or second language a language learner may not be able to fully express their ideas and personality (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). This can further disrupt an individual’s self-perceptions. The reconstruction of identity that language learners face, through the recognition of intercultural differences and gaps in knowledge of a target language that inhibit self-expression, can causes anxiety.

Like identity and acculturation, the SLA, BLA, and MLA research on identity borrows largely from the field of psychology. In psychology, anxiety is broadly defined as, “the awareness of threat” (Tyrer, 1999, p. 11). Tyrer (1991) states, “At very mild levels of anxiety, the word ‘threat’ may be a little strong, but it indicates some degree of

uncertainty that has a negative option attached” (p. 11). Early anxiety research focused on the treatment of nervous disorders, the category of psychological disorders anxiety belongs to, with special diets (Cheyne, 1734; Whyte, 1765). However, Kierkegaard, an existential philosopher, was credited with the discovery of anxiety in 1844. Kierkegaard believed that anxiety was caused by the freedom of personal choice (Goodwin, 1986).

In modern psychology, a distinction is made between normal or state anxiety and pathological or trait anxiety. Anxiety measures used by psychologists generally aim to distinguish normal anxiety from pathological anxiety and are used in the diagnosis of anxiety disorders. Popular anxiety scales include the Spielberger State/Trait Anxiety Scale, which is used by researchers to measure both state and trait anxiety; the Clinical Anxiety Scale, which is used by clinicians to rate patients on seven symptoms of anxiety; and the Irritability, Depression, and Anxiety Scale, which allows patients to rate themselves on 18 symptoms of irritability, depression, and anxiety (Tyrer, 1999). In contrast to the anxiety commonly measured by psychologists, language acquisition fields are generally concerned with normal or state anxiety.

Anxiety in Language Acquisition

Anxiety is one of a multitude of individual differences studied in language acquisition. Individual differences, such as motivation, aptitude, IQ, self-esteem, and the focus of this study, anxiety, influence language students’ language learning behaviors and affect learning outcomes. Anxiety is an individual difference that is typically associated with negative learning outcomes.

The type of anxiety that language acquisition researchers are concerned with is language learning anxiety. Oxford (1999) defines language learning anxiety as, “fear or

apprehension occurring when a learner is expected to perform in the second or foreign language” (p. 59). The anxiety produced by language learning is considered normal or state anxiety, because it stems from an easily identifiable source and may result in useful action (Goodwin, 1986). Anxiety over language learning makes attending or studying for language classes unpleasant (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Language learning anxiety can manifest as: self-evaluation, excessive concern about failure, concern about what others think, apprehension and worry, avoidance of the target language, careless errors, and excessive studying (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

Despite the fact that language learning anxiety is generally conceptualized as a negative phenomenon, Kleinmann (1977) discussed facilitating anxiety in his seminal article “Avoidance Behavior in Adult Second Language Acquisition.” Prior to Kleinmann’s research, avoidance of specific syntactic structures was generally approached through contrastive rhetoric or error analysis. Kleinmann measured the comprehension, confidence of comprehension, and use of four English syntactic structures of 33 international undergraduate students of intermediate English language proficiency. Twenty-four participants’ native language was Arabic and 15 participants’ native language was either Spanish or Portuguese. Additionally, participants’ English language anxiety and strength of desire to be successful and avoid failure were measured. The results revealed that use and avoidance of specific syntactic structures could be explained by affective factors, in addition to contrastive analysis. Kleinmann’s findings suggested that avoidance of a particular syntactic structure due to its absence in the native

language is a group level phenomenon, however, the use of these commonly avoided structures is due to facilitating anxiety levels of individual group members.

Beyond the general state anxiety, be it positive or negative, that can be produced by language learning, anxiety can be produced by specific tasks one is required to complete in a foreign language. This type of anxiety is called language-skill specific anxiety and is only associated with performance in speaking, listening, reading, or the focus of this study, writing. Far less is known about language-skill specific anxieties than is known about general language learning anxiety, due to the far smaller body of research that has been conducted in these areas.

Writing Anxiety

Writing is a language skill essential for academic success and a skill required in many occupations. The experience of composing a piece of writing and having it evaluated by an instructor or peers is anxiety provoking for many students. According to Daly and Wilson (1983), “[Writing anxiety] refers to a situation and subject specific individual difference associated with a person’s tendencies to approach or avoid situations perceived to potentially require writing accompanied by some amount of perceived evaluation” (p. 327).

The study of writing anxiety has its roots in first-language acquisition. As such, first-language acquisition research plays an important role in understanding second-language writing anxiety. Hyland (2002b) stated, “The field of first-language writing has informed much of what we know about texts and composition and has provided a theoretical basis for L2 composing pedagogy and research” (p. 212). Daly and Miller

(1975b) pioneered writing anxiety research with native English speakers writing in their first-language.

In their seminal study of writing anxiety, Daly and Miller (1975b) examined the SAT-verbal scores and writing apprehension scores of 246 English speaking university students enrolled in a basic composition course or a remedial composition course in their first language. Daly and Miller's (1975b) results showed that students in the basic and remedial courses did not differ in their levels of writing anxiety, although, not surprisingly, they did differ significantly on their SAT-verbal scores. Participants with high writing apprehension scores reported lower perceived likelihoods of success in writing courses and less willingness to take writing courses than participants with low writing apprehension scores (Daly & Miller, 1975b).

According to the researchers, the most crucial finding of this study was that participants with high levels of writing anxiety also reported significantly less success with past writing experiences than participants with low levels of writing anxiety. Although this was a correlational study, Daly and Miller (1975b) drew the conclusion that previous lack of success in writing may be the cause of writing anxiety. Anxious writers often avoid writing because they expect to fail (Daly & Miller, 1975b). As a result these students avoid writing intensive courses and careers that require composition (Daly & Miller, 1975b). The avoidance of situations in which writing is practiced means that these students will most likely never improve or develop their writing skills. Daly and Miller (1975b) stated, "No matter how skilled or capable the individual is in writing, if he believes he will do poorly or if he doesn't want to take courses that stress writing then those skills or capabilities matter little" (p. 255). Basically, even if a student has the

potential to develop into a brilliant writer, writing anxiety may inhibit this by dissuading the student to practice their writing skills.

Writing anxiety is common among first, second, and foreign language writers (Cheng, 2004; Daly & Miller, 1975a; Daly & Miller, 1975b). Second and foreign language learners, who experience feelings of anxiousness associated with writing, often fear not being able to express themselves clearly in their writing and worry that readers of their writing will judge them negatively as a result. Writing anxiety manifests itself much as general language anxiety: through excessive worry, self-evaluation, fear of others' judgments, and avoidance or excessive time spent on the composition process (Cheng, 2004; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

Language acquisition researchers have developed several tools to measure writing anxiety based around these common symptoms. These measures have been used extensively, both by writing researchers and by writing instructors hoping to identify anxious students in order to provide these students with instruction and feedback suited to their individual needs.

Measures of Writing Anxiety

Many measures of the state anxiety produced by language learning have been created by language acquisition researchers; however, these measures have been primarily concerned with the anxiety associated with speaking in a foreign or second language (Horwitz, 1986; Cheng, 2004). Measures of general language learning anxiety may not be valid or reliable measures of the task anxieties related to listening, reading, or writing in a foreign or second language. Recently, measures have been developed to distinguish between the anxieties produced by the four language skills (Chen & Lin,

2009; Cheng, 2004; Cheng, 2002; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Daly & Miller, 1975a; Daly & Wilson, 1983; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Pajares, Johnson, & Usher, 2007).

The first widely used measure of writing anxiety was the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (WAT). This survey was initially designed for use with native English speakers; however, later the English Writing Apprehension Test (EWAT) was developed for use with English language learners (Cheng, 2004). The WAT is the most widely used measure of second language writing anxiety in language acquisition research (Cheng, 2004). However, concerns have been raised about the validity of this measure. The WAT was developed as a unidimensional measure of writing anxiety. This means a factor analysis of this measure should reveal all of the items loading on one factor. Contrary to this, Cheng (2004) found that the items load on three factors: low self-confidence, aversiveness of writing, and evaluation apprehension. Other analyses of the WAT have identified items addressing a range of issues including: positive feelings towards writing, writing self-efficacy, perceived value of writing, and writing behaviors (Cheng, 2004). These findings indicate that the WAT may not be valid measure of writing anxiety, as it confounds writing anxiety with other variables.

The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was developed to address the concerns raised about the validity of the WAT (Cheng, 2004). The SLWAI was designed to measure three dimensions of writing anxiety: physiological, behavioral, and cognitive (Cheng, 2004). The SLWAI consists of 22 statements which respondents rate on a five point Likert scale, which ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Cheng (2004) developed the SLWAI with three groups of undergraduate and graduate

Taiwanese English majors studying in an EFL context. The first group of 67 participants responded to an open-ended writing anxiety questionnaire. The responses to this survey were used to generate 33 potential survey items. Next, the initial scale was piloted with 56 participants. Factor analysis of the 33 items revealed 22 items that loaded on factors corresponding to the physiological, behavioral, and cognitive dimensions of writing anxiety the SLWAI was designed to measure. The items that did not load on these factors were discarded. The scores of 421 undergraduate Taiwanese English majors on the 22 item SLWAI were used to check the validity and reliability of the measure (Cheng, 2004). Based on Cheng's (2004) analysis, the SLWAI appears to be a valid, reliable measure of second language writing anxiety and is used as the measure of writing anxiety for this study.

Anxiety and Performance

Facilitating or Debilitating Anxiety

Many studies have explored the relationship between language anxiety and performance in language classrooms (Chen & Lin, 2009; Cheng, 2002; Cheng, 2004; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Daly & Miller, 1975b; Daly & Wilson, 1983; Horwitz, 1986; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Pajares & Johnson, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996). While most research in both first language writing and second or foreign language writing concurs that anxiety negatively affects scores on written assessments, there is some ambiguity in this relationship (Horwitz, 2001; Kleinmann, 1977; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Oxford, 1999; Saito & Samimy, 1996).

The Yerkes-Dodson law demonstrates the relationship that exists between anxiety and performance. When an individual is completely calm, as in asleep or extremely

drowsy, he or she is functioning at a low level and most stimuli will not result in any action from the individual (Tyrer, 1999). As physical, emotional, or intellectual demands increase, anxiety increases, which increases the individual's ability and desire to respond to stimuli, thus increasing performance (Tyrer, 1999). However, a plateau is eventually reached when the individual cannot perform at a higher level. At this activity plateau, anxiety increases with demands without any increase in performance (Tyrer, 1999). If demands continue to increase, anxiety will increase and become unmanageable, causing a rapid decrease in performance as perceived control over the task at hand is lost (Tyrer, 1999).

MacIntyre and Gardener's (1994) investigation into the effects of anxiety on cognitive processing offers a convincing explanation of the Yerkes-Dodson law. MacIntyre and Gardener (1994) found that anxiety affects the processing of language across all stages: the input stage, the processing stage, and the output stage. Because anxious language learners expend cognitive resources worrying and self-evaluating, it is likely that their cognitive loads are much heavier than those of relaxed students. This means that anxious students may be paying attention to their apprehension, rather than linguistic input; attempting to simultaneously process both linguistic input and anxious thoughts; and producing poorer output due to the reduced amount of input processed.

The patterns of findings in language acquisition studies conducted on facilitating and debilitating anxiety validate the Yerkes-Dodson law. Facilitating anxiety results in minor feelings of apprehension that keep students awake and alert in class or motivate them to study. The studies substantiating the existence of facilitating anxiety investigated the effect of anxiety on simple learning tasks (Kleinmann, 1977; Oxford,

1999). However, the overwhelming body of research that has been conducted with undergraduate ESL, EFL, or foreign language (FL) students supports the idea that anxiety is debilitating, or results in negative learning outcomes (Chen & Lin, 2009; Cheng, 2002; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996). Because the research outcomes supporting facilitating anxiety have been primarily based around relatively un-demanding tasks, these results cannot be generalized to more demanding learning activities, like the summarizing and synthesizing involved in the writing process.

Writing Anxiety or Lack of Writing Self-Efficacy

Although anxiety is a construct that has been explored extensively in language acquisition, it is not fully understood. Anxiety is inextricably connected to a multiplicity of other individual differences, making it almost impossible to determine its true effect on performance. One of the constructs that anxiety is consistently linked to is self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy is an individual's beliefs about their capabilities on a particular task (Chen & Lin, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1997). Self-efficacy is developed through: self-evaluation of one's previous experiences with a task, observing others' experiences with a task, others' evaluations of one's performances on a task, and physiological and emotional reactions one has to a task (Pajares, Johnson, & Usher, 2007). One of the physiological and emotional states that a person may associate with a task is anxiety. People gauge their confidence of success on a task by examining their feelings about it. If they are anxious about a task, this lowers their self-efficacy (Pajares, Johnson, & Usher, 2007). Research on first language, second language, and foreign language acquisition consistently shows that a relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy.

A study conducted by Chen and Lin (2009) on the performances on the General English Proficiency writing test of 120 Taiwanese undergraduate university students studying in an EFL context found that writing anxiety was negatively correlated with writing self-efficacy. Additionally, this study indicated that writing anxiety was negatively correlated with score on the General English proficiency writing test, while writing self-efficacy was positively correlated with test score (Chen & Lin, 2009).

Several studies have found that writing anxiety has a clear effect on writing performance. Studies by Chen and Lin (2009) and Saito and Samimy (1996) indicate that writing anxiety is negatively related to performance on writing tasks. More specifically, anxious writers: “score lower on writing portions of standardized tests, write less, write less effectively, and create written products that are evaluated as lower in quality than less anxious writers” (Daly & Wilson, 1983, p. 328).

Saito and Samimy (1996) conducted a study on the anxiety levels and the language performance of 257 American undergraduates studying Japanese at three proficiency levels. The findings of this study supported the theory that anxiety has a negative effect on performance. Additionally, results showed that this effect became more pronounced at levels of more advanced language instruction (Saito & Samimy, 1996).

Other studies, however, suggest that writing self-efficacy acts as a mediator in the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance (Chen & Lin, 2009; Cheng, 2002). Results of these studies indicate that writing anxiety may not be directly linked to performance on writing tasks. Instead writing anxiety could, potentially, be related only to self-efficacy, which is related to writing performance.

Cheng (2002) conducted a stepwise multiple regression analysis to measure the effects of English writing motivation/attitude, extracurricular effort to learn English, confidence in English writing, and English writing achievement on the English writing anxiety of 165 undergraduate English majors in Taiwan. The results of this study indicated that confidence in English writing was the best predictor of English writing anxiety.

A meta-analysis of the Chen and Lin (2009), Cheng (2002), and Saito and Sammimy (1996) studies was conducted in order to get a more comprehensive understanding of the statistical magnitudes of the relationships existing between writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy, writing anxiety and writing performance, and writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy for undergraduate language learners. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) reported in these studies were weighted, averaged, and compared (see table 1).

Study	Subjects	n	r		
			writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy	writing anxiety and performance	writing self-efficacy and performance
Chen & Lin (2009)	EFL undergraduates	120	-.92	-.76	.85
Cheng (2002)	EFL undergraduates	165	-.58		
Saito & Sammimy (1996)	FL undergraduates	257		-.33	

Table 1: Summary of studies used in meta-analysis ($p < .01$ for all studies)

The meta-analysis revealed that the weighted average correlation between writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy was $r = -.72$, the weighted average correlation between writing anxiety and writing performance was $r = -.47$, and the only correlation between

writing self-efficacy and writing performance was $r=.85$. This meta-analysis shows that there are moderate to strong relationships between all of these variables. The strongest relationship appears to exist between writing self-efficacy and writing performance and the weakest relationship appears to exist between writing anxiety and writing performance, however this relationship is still considered moderate.

Most of the research exploring the relationships between writing anxiety, writing self-efficacy, and writing performance are correlational in nature, making it impossible to determine the causal relationships between these variables in undergraduate ESL, EFL, and FL students. However, it is clear that writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy are inextricably connected.

Other Confounding Variables

Studies by Charney, Newman, and Palmquist (1995) and Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) reveal that further complicating the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance are variables like writing enjoyment and self-regulation ability. Although both of these studies were conducted with undergraduate students writing in their first language, the results may provide insights into the experiences of ESL, EFL, and FL writers and inform future research in language acquisition.

Charney, Newman, and Palmquist's (1995) study was primarily focused on epistemological styles of American students and their attitudes towards writing in their first language. However, some of their findings are applicable to the discussion of writing self-efficacy. The researchers found that students who enjoy writing also believe they are good writers, and that students who believe they are good writers receive higher grades in writing courses (Charney, Newman, & Palmquist, 1995). If, as this study

indicates, enjoyment is associated with self-efficacy, this could be an additional factor in the complex relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance.

Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) used a social cognitive framework to explore writers' self-regulation. Self-regulation is a student's ability to control the cognitive, motivational, and affective aspects of their intellectual functioning (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). This skill is positively correlated with academic success (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). One of the affective aspects directly relevant to self-regulation is anxiety. Anxious writers generally avoid the writing process for as long as possible, and as a result, may have difficulty self-regulating their writing processes. The researchers stated, "Writing presents special challenges to self-regulation. This is because writing activities are usually self-scheduled, performed alone, require creative effort sustained over long periods with all too frequent stretches of barren results, and what is eventually produced must be repeatedly revised to fulfill personal standards of quality" (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994, p. 858). Writing success is particularly influenced by a student's ability to self-regulate because it is often a self motivated activity. Self-regulation is yet another factor influencing on the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance.

The review of the literature on writing anxiety and writing performance reveals that the relationship between these two variables is complex and not fully understood. The current study will add to the body of research that has been conducted on this relationship. Additionally, this study hopes to understand student identity's relation to these variables. It is hypothesized that participants who report high levels of writing anxiety will show low levels of writing performance and low levels of cultural

integration, and likewise, participants who report low levels of writing anxiety will show high levels of writing performance and high levels of cultural integration.

Extensive research has been conducted by psychologists on cultural integration, which for the purposes of this study is indicative of international student identity, and psychological adjustment, which anxiety is an aspect of. While the results of these studies have informed the hypothesis that student cultural integration is inversely related to writing anxiety, the psychological research that has been conducted on acculturation and psychological adjustment has a much broader scope than the current study.

Acculturation and Psychological Adjustment

The changes in student identity that come about through the negotiation of differences between a student's native culture and the foreign culture in which they are studying, are often accompanied by some amount of psychological distress. International students may experience homesickness, feelings of isolation, and difficulties adjusting to the demands of academia in a new country. All of these factors can contribute to stress and anxiety.

Many studies in the fields of psychology have been conducted on the relationship between acculturation and stress. Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok (1987) stated,

The concept of acculturative stress refers to one kind of stress, that in which the stressors are identified as having their source in the process of acculturation; in addition, there is often a particular set of stress behaviors which occurs during acculturation, such as lowered mental health status (specifically confusion, anxiety, depression), feelings of marginality and alienation, heightened psychosomatic symptom level, and identity confusion. (p. 492)

While there is a large body of psychological literature on the relationships between acculturation and stress, these studies often focus on a group of culturally homogeneous immigrants to a particular country and rarely address the stress symptom of anxiety. This

means the results of these studies, while relevant to the current study, cannot be generalized to this study's participants, setting, or construct of writing anxiety.

Berry's (2001) influential bi-dimensional acculturation model and the interactive acculturation model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997) have been widely used in psychology to investigate the relationship between acculturation and the psychological effects of this process. The majority of acculturation studies published in psychology journals use Berry's model to conceptualize acculturation.

Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok (1987) compared the acculturation styles and psychological adjustments of individuals from various ethnic groups residing in Canada. They found that "native groups" had the highest stress levels, followed by sojourners and refugees, with immigrants reporting the lowest levels of stress. Participants from countries culturally similar to Canada (like European countries and the United States) experienced less stress than participants from countries culturally dissimilar from Canada (like Malaysia and Korea). The acculturation style adopted by individuals also appeared to be a significant factor influencing stress. Generally, people who participated in the dominant Canadian culture to a greater degree experienced less stress. Integration and assimilation correlated negatively with stress, while separation and marginalization correlated positively with stress (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987). Despite all of these cultural and acculturative factors, education was found to be the strongest predictor of acculturative stress. Individuals who had more education experienced lower stress levels (Berry, 1987).

Mana, Orr, and Mana (2009) used Berry's acculturation model (1987) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) as the framework for a study set in Israel,

examining the social identities of immigrants from Ethiopia and the former USSR and how Israelis perceived the identities of these groups. The researchers used Berry's acculturation model (1987) to operationalize cultural exchange and used social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) to address intergroup social status and power relations. Combining these two models, the researchers developed four identities resulting from the acculturation process: 1) extended identity, which indicated immigrants felt empowered accepting some new cultural norms of the dominant group, 2) rivalry identity, which indicated immigrants wanted to retain their cultural identity and were willing to fight for this right, 3) secluded identity, which indicated immigrants separated from dominant society (this may have been self-motivated or due to rejection from the dominant society) and, 4) identity loss, which indicated immigrants wanted to give up their cultural identity and assimilate with the dominant culture, but this desire was accompanied by a sense of defeat (Mana, Orr, & Mana, 2009). The analysis of data revealed that both the Ethiopian and USSR immigrant groups followed similar patterns of acculturation, despite their unequal social statuses. Israelis overestimated both immigrant groups' secluded identity and identity loss and underestimated their extended identity and rivalry identity (Mana, Orr, & Mana, 2009).

Ward and Kennedy (1994) used Berry's acculturation model to compare the psychological adjustment of people with different acculturation styles who were sojourning in New Zealand. They found that sojourners who integrated, and strongly identified with both their native culture and New Zealand culture, scored higher for psychological adjustment than any other group. Participants who assimilated to the host culture experienced fewer social difficulties than those who identified with New Zealand

culture to a lesser degree, however these participants reported low levels of psychological adjustment. Separation and marginalization produced the greatest social difficulties for participants, however participants who separated had higher levels of psychological adjustment than those who assimilated (Ward & Kennedy, 1994). These results show the inter-workings of the relationship between acculturation and psychological adjustment and social adjustment during the transition to a foreign culture. Ward and Kennedy (1994) stated,

Although there is some evidence that integration, overall, is the most adaptive acculturation strategy, modes of acculturation are differentially associated with the two adjustive domains. More specifically, assimilation is linked to enhanced sociocultural adjustment but to diminished psychological wellbeing. Separation, by contrast, is associated with effective psychological adaptation but is related to decrements in sociocultural competence. (p.340)

Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, and Schmitz (2003) used the interactive acculturation model (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997) to examine Russian immigrants' adjustment to the cultures of Finland, Germany, and Israel. This study determined the acculturation orientation of the Russian immigrants and examined the interaction of this acculturation strategy and the acculturation strategy the majority culture would prefer them to follow. The perceived discrimination and stress symptoms of the Russian immigrants were also measured (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003).

The researchers found that there were complex relationships between assimilation orientations of the majority and immigrant groups, perceived discrimination, and stress symptoms. Overall, both hosts and immigrants preferred an integration acculturation styles. This pattern held true for Israel and Germany, but in Finland hosts preferred assimilation while immigrants preferred integration (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind,

Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003). This means that Finland was the only setting in the study in which consensual relations did not exist. According to the interactive acculturation model, immigrants and hosts in Finland were likely to experience problematic relational outcomes, resulting in poor psychological adjustment, especially for those in the immigrant group (Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997). However, the immigrants in Israel perceived as much discrimination as those in Finland. In addition, it was the immigrants in Israel, and not in Finland, who reported the highest stress symptoms (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003).

In Israel, Germany, and Finland, the immigrant groups preferred more separation and marginalization and less assimilation than the hosts. Immigrants who had a separationist acculturation styles experienced fewer stress symptoms than those who assimilated or integrated with the majority culture; however, immigrants who preferred separation also perceived more discrimination than immigrants who preferred assimilation or integration (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003). These findings align with the conclusions drawn by Ward and Kennedy (1994): adherence to one's native culture results in greater psychological well-being, but more social difficulties, while acceptance of the host culture results in social ease, but psychological maladjustment.

This review of the psychological literature on the associations between acculturation and psychological adjustment reveals some common themes. First, individuals who retain their native culture are psychologically better adapted to their new cultural environments (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). Second, individuals who accept the host culture are more socially

adjusted to their new cultural environments (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). However, there is some discrepancy on these points, as Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok (1987) pointed out that people who participate in the dominant culture experience less stress. Ward and Kennedy's (1994) and Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, and Schmitz's (2003) results support this assertion for individuals with an integrationist acculturation orientation, but not for those who adopt an assimilationist orientation. Third, taking psychological and social adjustment into consideration, individuals who integrate, keeping aspects of their native culture while accepting aspects of the host culture, are the best adjusted overall (Berry, 1987; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). Fourth, more individuals wish to adopt aspects of the host culture through assimilation or integration, than who want to remain separate from it (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Mana, Orr, & Mana, 2009).

While extensive research has been conducted on the relationship between acculturation and adjustment in the field of psychology, virtually none has been conducted in the fields of SLA, BLA, and MLA. As identity is often operationalized as acculturation in quantitative studies, the qualitative paradigm that identity research in these fields usually follows has most likely contributed to the lack of research into this relationship. In the systematic review of the language acquisition identity literature, only one of the articles located investigated identity in combination with another individual difference (Yihong, Yuan, Ying, & Yan, 2007). Yihong, Yuan, Ying, and Yan (2007) used quantitative data to explore the relationship between identity and motivation, but as far as this study's review of the literature revealed, no study in the fields of SLA, BLA, or

MLA has research the relationship between identity, anxiety, and writing performance, a gap which this study strives to fill.

Rationale and Applications

As discussed throughout Chapter II, the review of literature revealed no study to date that has investigated the relationships that exist between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance. The identity studies that have been conducted in language acquisition are primarily qualitative in nature, thus this construct is rarely related to other individual difference variables in the field. This study attempts to discover, quantitatively, the nature of the relationship existing between student identity and writing anxiety. Additionally, while there have been many studies in the field of language acquisition conducted on writing anxiety, there is ambiguity in this individual difference's relationship with writing performance. This study endeavors to make clear the relationship that exists between writing anxiety and writing performance. Finally, language acquisition researchers have examined identity's effect on writing, however, these studies do not measure the quality of writing, only analyze the discourse and language choices made. This study aims to discover if a relationship exists between student identity and writing performance and the nature of this relationship, if it does exist.

Student identity and anxiety are both individual differences of interest not only to language acquisition researchers, but also to language instructors. Williams and Burden (1997) stated, "In a comprehensive review of the literature on this topic, Oxford and Ehrman suggest that teachers of a second language need to identify and comprehend significant individual differences in their learners if they are to provide the most effective

instruction possible” (p. 88). In order for instructors to most effectively teach their students a second or foreign language, they must understand how and why students differ in their language learning behaviors and performances, so that they can tailor their instruction and feedback to fit the needs of their students. A better understanding of the variables of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance and the relationships that exist between these variables will facilitate ESL writing instructors’ ability to make informed choices in pedagogy. Increasing the amount of quantitative data available to improve this understanding is the ultimate goal of this study. Chapter III discusses the procedures undertaken in the current study to collect data for the purpose of achieving the aforementioned goals.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter III describes the design of this study. The participants, the instruments, and the procedures used to conduct the study are explained. The purposes of this study are expressed in the following hypotheses:

1. An inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.
2. An inverse relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing performance.
3. A direct relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

This chapter's description of the study is explained with reference back to these hypotheses.

Participants

Participants were 33 international students enrolled in the ESL sections of College Composition (CO 150) at a state university in the western United States. According to the university's writing studio website,

CO 150 – College Composition – is a common experience for most CSU students. CO150 focuses on initiating students into academic discourse and developing composing practices that will prepare them for success as university students and as citizens. Therefore, the course focuses on critical reading and inquiry, writing for a variety of rhetorical situations, and enabling effective writing processes. (Palmquist, Salahub, & Zimmerman, 2011)

The purpose and procedure of this study and the confidentiality of data collected were explained to the 38 students enrolled in the ESL sections of CO 150 through a consent form approved by the Internal Review Board. 33 students consented to participate in the study.

Participants came from a wide variety of countries including: China, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Venezuela, Mexico, Iran, Sudan, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Kuwait, Ghana, Taiwan, and Vietnam. All of the participants in this study were undergraduate students studying a range of majors including: finance, fashion, veterinary medicine, biomedical science, watershed science, business, economics, biology, theater, food and nutrition science, computer information systems, mechanical engineering, biological engineering, chemical engineering, psychology, pre-pharmacy, radiological technology, accounting, construction management, and art. 17 participants were female and 16 participants were male.

All participants in this study were advanced English language learners. Participants were all enrolled in university level courses taught exclusively in English, which means they had either earned a score above a 71 on the internet-based TOEFL form, a score above a 525 on the paper-based TOEFL form, a score above a 6 on the IELTS, or had graduated from Colorado State University's Intensive English Program (CSU). Two participants had been studying English since birth in their home countries, due to having an American parent or a parent who was employed as an English teacher, while one participant began studying English a year and a half prior to this study. The remainder of participants' duration of English language study fell everywhere in this time frame. Similarly, participants had been in the United States anywhere from seven years

to two weeks. Students who had been residing in the United States for several years all moved to America when they were over the age of 17 years old.

For this study, participants were required to give a brief explanation of why they were choosing to study English in one of their journal entries. Participants reported an assortment of reasons for their interest in the English language. Several participants cited popular culture as the reason they initially wanted to study English, to understand song lyrics or to be able to understand American movies and television shows. Several other students discussed the fact that English is a universal language and is useful for travelling and learning about foreign cultures. The most common reasons participants had for studying English involved its facilitation in getting a high quality education in the United States and to prepare them for the international job market. Interestingly, one participant identified the topic of this study, identity, in her justification for learning the English language by stating, “learning a foreign language is learning a new way of thinking,” and followed this by stating that language learning is fun.

Data Collection

Student Cultural Integration

As discussed in Chapter II, for the purposes of this study, student identity is operationalized as cultural integration with American university culture. One of the instruments of this study was a student cultural integration survey. The student cultural integration survey was created by modifying an interview protocol created by Williams (2007). Williams’ (2007) interview questions were developed to prompt international graduate teaching assistants to discuss their teaching identity in an interview. The probe used for the current study was adapted to elicit international undergraduate students’

perceptions of their student identities (see Appendix A). The participant responses gathered through the student cultural integration survey were used to investigate the hypotheses:

1. An inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.
2. A direct relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

CO 105 utilizes an online learning module called The Writing Studio. The student cultural integration survey, consisting of open-ended journaling prompts, was administered via this online workspace over the course of the semester. Participants in the study were introduced to The Writing Studio and created a Writing Studio account during the first week of the semester, which allowed them to access the workspace where their weekly journals were written. Participants were instructed to write about one page or 300 words in response to each journal prompt. Participants responded to the first prompt of the student identity survey during the second week of the semester. Participants responded to one prompt from the survey each week for the next ten weeks of the semester. These weekly journaling assignments were completed as homework outside the classroom.

The data collected in the Williams (2007) study, which used the interview protocol that was the basis for the student identity survey, was qualitative in nature. The current study used the extensive qualitative data collected from participants' journal entries to rate participants on a cultural integration scale ranging from 1 to 4, thus creating a quantitative score for student identity. Participant responses to the journal

prompts were analyzed by four raters to determine where participants fell on a Likert Scale of student cultural integration (see Appendix B).

Analysis of the journal entries of each participant was conducted by four raters, who were either master's students in the TEFL/TESL program or worked in the English department at the university where the study took place. Raters participated in a 2 hour training session, during which the study was explained, the rating process was clarified, and rater norming occurred (see Appendix C). These raters did not know any of the participants and had no knowledge of the grades participants had received in the course. Analysis began by counting the number of positive statements each participant made about the United States, the number of negative statements each participant made about the United States, the number of positive statements each participant made about their home country, and the number of negative statements each participant made about their home country. Raters used this objective data in combination with the subjective impressions they had of each participant's ability to cope with the demands of operating in a foreign educational system and feelings of homesickness, isolation, and loneliness based on the participant's written responses to items on the student cultural integration survey to locate participants on the Likert Scale of student cultural integration. An interrater reliability analysis was conducted to determine the consistency among raters' interpretations of the participants' journals.

Second Language Writing Anxiety

The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was used to measure writing anxiety. This probe was completed by students three times over the course of the semester to get a comprehensive measure of writing anxiety and to measure changes in

writing anxiety. The data collected from the repeated measures of writing anxiety was used to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. An inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.
2. An inverse relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing performance.

The SLWAI was used to measure participants' writing anxiety in this study (Cheng, 2004) (see Appendix D). The SLAWAI approaches writing anxiety from a multidimensional perspective, with items about the somatic, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions of anxiety. Reliability analysis conducted by Cheng (2004) determined that test-retest reliability of the SLWAI was high ($\alpha=.91$). Validity analysis of the SLWAI showed that the construct measured by the SLWAI was distinct from writing self-efficacy; that the SLWAI correlated more strongly with scales of L2 writing anxiety, like the second language Daly-Miller WAT and Rose's Second Language Writer's Block Questionnaire, than with general measures of anxiety, like the English Use Anxiety Scale and the English Class Anxiety Scale; and that the SLWAI correlated negatively with criterion-related measures, like writing motivation ($r=-.32$), willingness to take English writing classes ($r=-.21$), and performance on a timed English writing task ($r=-.17$) (Cheng, 2004).

The SLWAI (Cheng, 2004) was administered three times over the course of the semester, during the 1st, 7th, and 15th weeks. Participants completed the surveys during the first ten minutes of class time during these weeks.

Writing Performance

Writing performance was measured by participants' grades on the four papers they wrote for CO 150. The writing performance data was used to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. An inverse relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing performance.
2. A direct relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

In CO 150, students are required to complete four major writing assignments over the course of the semester. Scores on these major assignments make up 90% of a student's grade in the course. Each assignment was evaluated with a grading rubric, which was made available to students prior to their submission of each assignment (see Appendix E).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter IV includes the statistical analysis of the data collected through the procedures described in Chapter III. As this is a correlational study, the results report Pearson correlation coefficients as a measure of the linear relationships that exist between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance. The findings provide insights into the three hypotheses of this study:

1. An inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.
2. An inverse relationship exists between writing anxiety and writing performance.
3. A direct relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

This chapter begins with a description of each construct. It then moves to the statistical analyses of the relationships between these variables.

Student Identity

The responses participants provided to the open-ended prompts of the student cultural integration survey were used to rate each participant on a cultural integration scale, which provided a quantitative measure of student identity (see Appendix F). Four raters read participants' responses and rated participants' cultural integration. The

interrater reliability was determined by calculating Spearman's rho for all possible pairs of raters and calculating the average correlation. Reliability between the four raters was $\rho=.45$, which is considered moderate agreement. While the interrater reliability is only moderate, there were significant positive linear relationships between the scores raters assigned participants, indicating statistically significant levels of agreement among raters. The cultural integration scores assigned to each participant by the four raters were averaged to obtain a mean cultural integration score for each participant. One participant did not provide sufficient data in his journal entries to allow raters to assign a cultural integration score and was excluded from the analysis. The mean student identity score was 2.88 with a standard deviation of .57. The distribution of student identity scores meets the requirements of normality for correlational tests.

Writing Anxiety

The repeated measures of the SLWAI were averaged to obtain a mean writing anxiety score for each participant (see Appendix F). Both mean writing anxiety scores and scores on the three administrations of the SLWAI were considered in the statistical analyses included in this chapter. The distributions of mean writing anxiety scores and scores on each administration of the SLWAI meet the requirement of normality for correlations (see Table 2).

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
mean writing anxiety	58.68	13.80	33
SLWAI 1	61.07	14.00	29
SLWAI 2	58.66	14.66	33
SLWAI 3	55.55	14.77	28

Table 2: Means and standard deviations of writing anxiety measures

A repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted to determine if significant differences existed between participants' scores on the three administrations of the SLWAI. A Greenhouse-Geisser test of with-in subjects effects showed that significant differences existed between participants' scores on the three administrations of the SLWAI ($F=8.016, n=24, p=.002$). Pairwise comparisons were conducted to identify which administrations of the SLWAI produced significantly different participant scores (see Table 3).

	Mean Difference	Standard Error	<i>p</i>
SLWAI 1 – SLWAI 2	3.208	1.260	.018
SLWAI 2- SLWAI 3	2.875	1.486	.065
SLWAI 1- SLWAI 3	6.083	1.771	.002

Table 3: Differences in scores of writing anxiety on three administrations of the SLWAI ($n=24$ for all values)

Differences in scores on the first and second administrations of the SLWAI and on the first and third administrations of the SLWAI were significant, while the differences in scores on the second and third administrations of the SLWAI approached significance. The largest difference observed existed between the first and third administrations of the SLWAI, which can be explained by the time period between administrations. The

elapsed time between the first and second administrations and second and third administrations of the SLWAI were approximately the same, while the time elapsed between the first and third administrations of the SLWAI was twice as long. The significant differences and differences approaching significance between administrations of the SLWAI indicates that participants experienced substantial changes in writing anxiety over the course of the semester.

Writing Performance

Participants' grades on the four assignments written for CO 150 were used as the measure of writing performance for this study. A mean writing performance score was calculated for each participant by averaging the grades each participant earned on these four assignments (see Appendix F). Writing performance scores did not meet the requirement of normality for correlational tests. The distributions of average writing performance and performance on each individual assignment were negatively skewed. Average grades on the four assignments were between 81% and 89%, corresponding to an average in the B range. Additionally, due to large standard deviations and extreme outliers of the data for assignment 2, the distribution of scores for this assignment is leptokurtic (see Table 4). Despite the violation of assumptions of correlations, measurements of writing performance will be included in the data analysis.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
mean writing performance	85.07	7.86	33
assignment 1 grade	81.98	7.88	33
assignment 2 grade	84.76	18.00	33
assignment 3 grade	85.41	9.21	33
assignment 4 grade	88.00	6.39	33

Table 4: Means and standard deviations of writing performance measures

Student Identity and Writing Anxiety

The relationship between student identity and writing anxiety was measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*). There were no significant correlations between student identity and mean writing anxiety or individual SLWAI scores (see Table 5).

	mean writing anxiety	SLWAI 1	SLWAI 2	SLWAI 3
student identity	-.189 (<i>n</i> =32)	-.226(<i>n</i> =28)	-.253(<i>n</i> =31)	-.130(<i>n</i> =28)

Table 5: Correlations between student identity and writing anxiety scores (*p*>.05 for all values)

Due to the lack of significant linear relationships found between student identity and writing anxiety, the relationship between these variables was explored further with the use of grouping variables. Participant sub-groups were formed with 16 grouping variables: increase in writing anxiety between the first and second administrations of the SLWAI, decrease in writing anxiety between the first and second administrations of the SLWAI, increase in writing anxiety between the second and third administrations of the SLWAI, decrease in writing anxiety between the second and third administrations of the SLWAI, increase in writing anxiety between the first and third administrations of the SLWAI, decrease in writing anxiety between the first and third administrations of the

SLWAI, increase in writing performance between assignments one and three, decrease in writing performance between assignments one and three, increase in writing performance between assignments one and four, decrease in writing performance between assignments one and four, high writing anxiety (one or more standard deviations above average mean writing anxiety), low writing anxiety (one or more standard deviations below average mean writing anxiety), high writing performance (one or more standard deviations above average writing performance), low writing performance (one or more standard deviations below average writing performance), high student cultural integration (rating of three or above), and low student cultural identity (rating of two or below). Correlations between all variables of interest in the study were conducted for each of these sub-groups.

Mean writing anxiety and student identity were significantly negatively correlated for participants whose writing performance decreased from assignment one to assignment three ($r=-.759, n=10, p=.018$) (see figure 5). Strong negative correlations existed between student identity and scores on the second administration of the SLWAI ($r=-.814, n=9, p=.008$) and between student identity and scores on the third administration of the SLWAI for this group ($r=-.811, n=8, p=.015$).

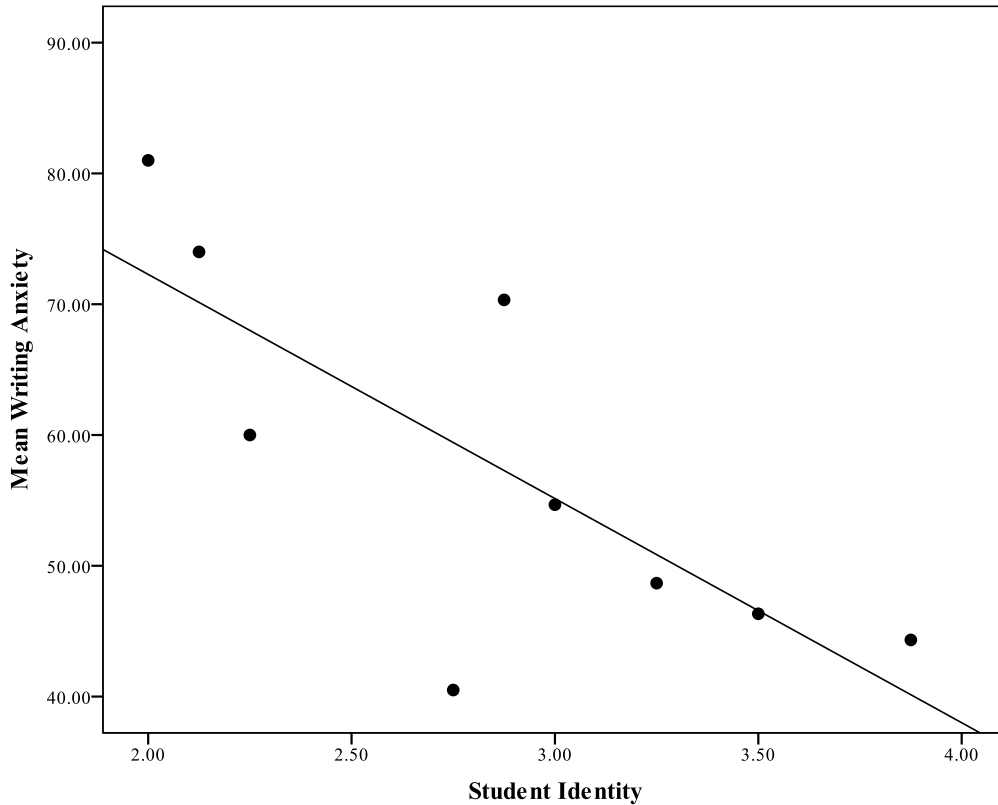


Figure 5: Relationship between student cultural integration scores and mean writing anxiety for participants whose writing performance decreased between assignment 1 and assignment 3

The relationship between student identity and writing anxiety was negative for participants whose writing performance decreased over the course of the semester. These findings lend some support to the hypothesis that an inverse relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.

Writing Anxiety and Writing Performance

The relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance was measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient (r). There were no significant correlations between mean writing anxiety or individual administration of the SLWAI and mean writing performance or grades on individual assignments (see Table 6).

	mean performance	assignment 1 grade	assignment 2 grade	assignment 3 grade	assignment 4 grade
mean anxiety	.028(<i>n</i> =33)	-.121(<i>n</i> =33)	.077(<i>n</i> =33)	-.043(<i>n</i> =33)	.113(<i>n</i> =33)
SLWAI 1	.154(<i>n</i> =29)	-.004(<i>n</i> =29)	.083(<i>n</i> =29)	.083(<i>n</i> =29)	.150(<i>n</i> =29)
SLWAI 2	.033(<i>n</i> =32)	-.138(<i>n</i> =32)	.130(<i>n</i> =32)	-.083(<i>n</i> =32)	.146(<i>n</i> =32)
SLWAI 3	.178(<i>n</i> =29)	-.187(<i>n</i> =29)	.066(<i>n</i> =29)	-.280(<i>n</i> =29)	.179(<i>n</i> =29)

Table 6: Correlations between writing anxiety scores and writing performance scores ($p > .05$ for all values)

As a result of the lack of significant correlations found between writing anxiety variables and writing performance variables, further investigation was conducted using the same grouping techniques described in the previous section, “Student Identity and Writing Anxiety.” Linear relationships between writing anxiety and writing performance emerged for groups formed based on levels of writing anxiety.

Mean writing performance and score on the third administration of the SLWAI were negatively correlated for participants who reported an increase in writing anxiety between the first and second administrations of the SLWAI ($r = -.885, n = 5, p = .046$). This same group of participants showed a significant negative correlation between assignment three grades and score on the third administration of the SLWAI ($r = -.926, n = 5, p = .024$). The group of participants who experienced an increase in writing anxiety between the second and third administrations of the SLWAI showed a positive correlation between assignment four grades and score on the third administration of the SLWAI, ($r = .693, n = 9, p = .039$). Additionally, participants who reported low writing anxiety, which was defined as a mean writing anxiety score more than one standard deviation below the average mean writing anxiety, showed a significant negative correlation between grade

on assignment three and score on the second administration of the SLWAI ($r=-.924$, $n=5$, $p=.025$) and a positive correlation approaching significance between grade on assignment four and score on the first administration of the SLWAI ($r=.873$, $n=5$, $p=.053$).

These findings express contradictory relationships between writing anxiety and writing performance. Writing anxiety and writing performance appear to be negatively related on measures taken towards the end of the semester for participants who reported an increase in writing anxiety during the first half of the semester. However, for participants who reported an increase in writing anxiety during the second half of the semester, writing anxiety and writing performance appear to be positively correlated. Further obscuring this relationship, correlations for the group of participants reporting low writing anxiety exhibit both positive and negative relationships between writing anxiety and writing performance. These conflicting results neither support, nor contradict the hypothesis that writing anxiety and writing performance are inversely related.

Student Identity and Writing Performance

The relationship between student identity and writing performance was measured using the Pearson correlation coefficient (r). No significant linear relationships were found between student identity and mean writing performance or performance on any individual assignment (see table 7).

	mean writing performance	assignment 1 grade	assignment 2 grade	assignment 3 grade	assignment 4 grade
student identity	-.125	-.110	-.105	-.014	-.203

Table 7: Correlations between student identity and writing performance ($p>.05$ and $n=32$ for all values)

As a result of the lack of significant correlations found between student identity and writing performance measures, further investigation was conducted using the same grouping techniques described in the section of this chapter titled, “Student Identity and Writing Anxiety.” Negative linear relationships between student identity and writing performance emerged for the group of participants who showed improvement in writing performance between assignments one and three.

Student identity and mean writing performance were negatively correlated for participants who showed improvement in writing performance between assignments one and three ($r=-.492, n=23, p=.017$) (see figure 6). Additionally, a significant negative correlation existed between student identity and grade on assignment 2 for this group of participants ($r=-.438, n=23, p=.037$).

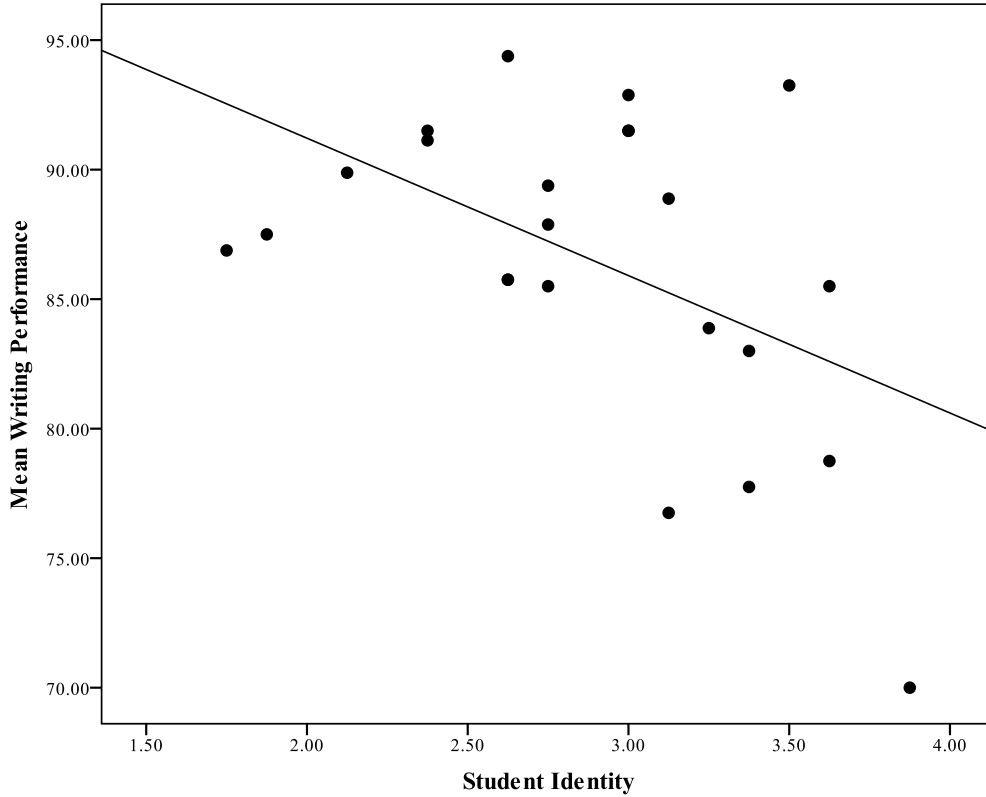


Figure 6: Relationship between student identity and mean writing performance for participants whose writing performance improved between assignment 1 and assignment 3

These findings reveal that a negative relationship exists between student identity and writing performance for participants whose writing performance improved over the course of the semester. This relationship contradicts the hypothesis that a direct positive relationship exists between student cultural integration and writing performance.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Chapter V is a consideration of the results of the study. This chapter opens with interpretations of the significant results reported in Chapter IV and a discussion of the practical applications of these findings to ESL and EFL instructors. Next, the limitations of the study are presented. This chapter concludes by looking forward and giving suggestions for future research.

Discussion and Interpretation of Findings

Although none of the hypotheses for this study were directly supported by the findings, relationships between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance emerged when correlations were conducted on sub-groups of participants formed based upon their scores on the various measures of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance used in this study. The correlations between the variables of interest in this study were investigated using sixteen different grouping variables, but change in writing performance over the course of the semester was the only grouping variable which consistently resulted in significant correlations. Negative linear relationships between student identity and writing performance and between student identity and writing anxiety were apparent for groups of participants that experienced changes in writing performance during the semester this study was conducted.

A strong negative correlation was found between student cultural integration and writing anxiety for the group of participants whose writing performance decreased over the course of the semester. This finding lends support to the hypothesis that student cultural integration and writing anxiety are inversely related.

However, this finding diverges from the results of the majority of psychological studies on the relationship between acculturation and psychological adjustment, which found that immigrants and sojourners who retained their native culture were psychologically better adjusted than people who did not retain their native culture (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). The discrepancy between the findings of this study and the findings in psychological research on acculturation and stress is most likely due to the different scopes of the studies. While Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, and Schmitz's (2003) study and Ward and Kennedy's (1994) studies were focused on identity and anxiety at a societal level, the current study was concerned only with these constructs in the context of a writing class.

Due to this study's focus on undergraduate students' experiences at university, specifically with academic writing, Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, and Schmitz's (2003) and Ward and Kennedy's (1994) findings that cultural integration was associated with social adjustment can help explain this study's findings. Although anxiety is generally considered a component of psychological adjustment, writing anxiety may be more closely related to social adjustment when considered in the context of academia. Writing is a method of communication and as Alsheikh (2011), Canagarajah (2007 & 2011), Canagarajah and Wurr (2011), and Kiernan (2011) discussed, an understanding

and adherence to the rules and conventions of academic discourse generally results in academic success. It is likely that participants in this study who were more culturally integrated to American university culture were better able to negotiate the requirements of academic writing.

A moderate negative correlation was found between student identity and writing performance for the group of participants whose writing performance increased over the course of the semester. This finding contradicted the hypothesis that high student cultural integration is related to high writing performance and low student cultural integration is related to low writing performance.

This finding also challenges the assumption that students who are more culturally integrated to American university culture have a better understanding of the rules and conventions of academic discourse and are better able to negotiate the requirements of academic communication than students who are less culturally integrated (Alsheikh, 2011; Canagarajah, 2007; Canagarajah, 2011; Canagarajah and Wurr, 2011; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Horenczyk, & Schmitz, 2003; Kiernan, 2011; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). However, these seemingly contradictory results were found for two different groups of students, one group whose writing performance improved over the course of the semester and one group whose writing performance decreased over the course of the semester.

Many of the students who showed the largest improvements in writing performance during the semester had recently arrived in the United States as foreign exchange students at the beginning of this study. The survey responses of most of these students revealed evidence of difficulties meeting new people and integrating into the social environment of an American university. The journal responses of many

participants compared the active social life they had back home to the relatively quiet social life they were experiencing in the United States. These students' responses also discussed the increased time spent in the library and time spent studying in America, due to having fewer social commitments. Students who are less culturally integrated with American university culture may spend more time on their writing assignments than international students who are more culturally integrated because they are not socializing as much.

Anxiety level and changes in anxiety level over the course of the semester emerged as grouping variables that resulted in significant correlations between writing anxiety and writing performance. However, the significant results included both positive and negative correlations between these variables, making interpretation of the results difficult.

It is likely that the inconsistencies in the direction of the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance found in the results and the general lack of significant results found in statistical analyses of the entire sample of participants were due in part to the diversity of students included in the sample of this study. It was hoped that the diversity of the sample would provide results that would be generalizable to a wide variety of undergraduate ESL writing classes in American universities. However, it is likely that this study did not consider the social orientations of participants to an extent that research in the poststructuralist paradigm would deem acceptable. Due to the diversity of the participants included in this study, more attention needed to be given to the backgrounds of students, particularly their L1 literacy; their identification as

monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual; and their English language learning history and goals. According to Canagarajah (2011),

We are also realizing that communities may be hybrid, characterized by a heterogeneous set of values and discourses. Thus one community may not be separated from another according to unique unchanging values. Members could hold diverse values and ideologies, enjoying membership in multiple communities. Therefore, it may be difficult to pin down the identity of a person as belonging exclusively to one community or as characterized by homogeneous values. (p. 31)

In retrospect, the design of this study included structuralist assumptions inappropriate for the investigation of social factors like identity and anxiety.

The analyses of the data revealed that complex relationships exist between the variables of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance for different groups formed based on individual differences. These findings substantiate Williams and Burden's (1997) assertion that in order to most effectively instruct language learners, instructors must have a comprehensive understanding of their students' individual differences.

Pedagogical Implications

The ultimate goal of the current study was to conduct a quantitative analysis of the relationships between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance, an area previously unexplored in the field of language acquisition. Despite the lack of support for the hypotheses found during the study, this goal was accomplished. The results of this study provide researchers and instructors with a better understanding of the variables of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance and the relationships that exist between these variables for different groups of students. This

information can be used by ESL and EFL writing instructors to make more informed choices in their classroom practices and pedagogy.

Change in writing performance over the course of the semester was the most meaningful grouping variable identified in this study. This finding indicates that ESL and EFL instructors should be aware of changes in their students' performances on assignments, as these changes may be indicative of shifts in other individual differences.

Cultural integration and writing performance were inversely related for participants whose writing performance increased during the semester. This finding was surprising, as it was in direct contradiction to the hypothesis that student cultural integration would be related to high levels of writing performance. A review of participant responses to the student cultural integration survey prompts was conducted to find an explanation, and as discussed in the previous section, "Discussion and Interpretation of the Findings," the majority of participants whose writing performance improved over the course of the semester had recently arrived in the United States. Based on these students' journal entries, many of them feel more socially isolated in the United States than they felt in their home countries. As a result of having fewer social obligations, many undergraduate international students who had recently arrived in American at the beginning of this study spent a lot of time studying.

ESL and EFL instructors strive to help their students' language skills improve and it is rewarding to know that students are invested enough in their language learning to dedicate time outside of class to their studies. However, excessive studying, which may manifest as drastic improvements on assignments, may indicate that a student is socially isolated. ESL and EFL instructors need to be aware of the importance of social support

during an inter-cultural transition. The language classroom can act as a social support system for students who are struggling to make social connections in their new community.

Cultural integration and writing anxiety were inversely related for participants whose writing performance decreased over the course of the semester. This finding supported the hypothesis that high levels of student cultural integration are related to low levels of writing anxiety and low levels of student cultural integration are related to high levels of writing anxiety. These results highlight the necessity of ESL and EFL instructors' understandings of the individual differences of their students. While instructors are generally aware of sharp decreases in students' class performances, they may be unaware of how outside factors, like anxiety or cultural integration, may be contributing to the falling performance. Instructors should be aware of their students' acculturation process if they are in the midst of an inter-cultural transition, as this may influence classroom performance and psychological adjustment.

The results of this show the importance of being conscious of student individual differences. The individual differences of student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance are related in different ways for different groups of individuals. Understanding the complex interconnections between these variables can allow ESL and EFL instructors to meet the needs of their students in the classroom and help them with their inter-cultural transitions outside of the classroom.

Limitations of the Study

This study included several limitations that could have contributed to the relatively few significant results found. Limitations in the sample size, the properties of

the distribution of the assignment grades, the operationalization of student identity, the validity and reliability of the SLWAI, and the background information collected from participants were all present in this study.

First, the sample size of 33 participants for this study was relatively small. Data collected from one participant had to be disregarded and several participants failed to fully complete all administrations of the SLWAI, further reducing the sample sizes for the various statistical analyses conducted. Sample sizes of the groups created with the use of grouping variables were often quite small; sometimes as few as five participants' data was included in an analysis. Due to the small samples sizes used in this study, it is unlikely that the samples were representative of a larger population of international students studying at American universities and the results may not be generalizable to this larger population.

Additionally, the distributions of writing performance scores violated the assumption of normality for correlational tests. Correlations are only valid statistical procedures for variables that are normally distributed. Grades on some assignments were significantly skewed and leptokurtic, which could have affected the outcomes of the correlations involving this variable.

The biggest challenge during the planning and development of this study was the conceptualization and operationalization of student identity. Consistent with most quantitative measures of identity, this study operationalized student identity through acculturation. While a not limitation in itself, this conceptualization of identity posed challenges to interrater reliability. This study used a simple acculturation continuum as the scale for student cultural integration; however, many other possible acculturation

scales exist. The selection of a different acculturation model as the basis of the student cultural integration rating scale may have yielded greater interrater reliability and more statistically significant results.

This study employed a uni-dimensional scale to measure student cultural integration; however, two dimensions of integration were included in this scale: retention of aspects of the native culture and acceptance of aspects of the new, majority culture. A scale based on Berry's acculturation model, on which participants are rated separately on each of these dimensions, has the potential to be a more accurate measure of student cultural integration or student identity.

After observing this study's participants' responses to the SLWAI, it is clear that the SLWAI was not a reliable measure of writing anxiety for the population of students included in this study. In his validation of the SLWAI, Cheng (2004) reported a test-retest reliability of $\alpha=.91$; however, paired t-tests of the different administrations of the SLWAI used in this study revealed significant differences in scores between administrations. Participants reported large changes in writing anxiety between administrations of the SLWAI, up to 26 points on the 110 point scale. Language learning anxiety is a type of state anxiety; however the anxiety related to language learning and specific language learning tasks is generally a fairly stable state anxiety. It is likely that outside factors, like requirements for other classes, progress on the current CO 150 assignment, or personal issues, influenced participant responses to the SLWAI items.

Additionally, the validity of this measure is questionable when some of the procedures employed its development are considered. First, the SLWAI was developed with a sample consisting exclusively of Taiwanese EFL undergraduate and graduate

students. While Cheng's (2004) analysis of the validity and reliability of the SLWAI may be generalizable to a population of Taiwanese EFL university students, it may not generalize beyond this limited population. Next, some of the items included on the SLWAI may have produced demand characteristics in some participants. Participants from some cultures could have found certain SLWAI items face-threatening (for example, item 8 reads, "I tremble or perspire when I write in English under time pressure."), which could have influenced responses to these items. Finally, the 22 items included in the SLWAI were selected based upon factor analyses conducted on an initial 33 item SLWAI piloted with 56 participants. A factor analysis is only an appropriate statistical procedure for sample sizes over 100, thus the results of Cheng's (2004) factor analysis may not have been accurate.

Insufficient background information was collected from participants to fully take into consideration the diverse backgrounds participants came from. As such, assumptions were made that did not allow this study to fully conceptualize identity and anxiety in a way that corresponded to the poststructuralist paradigm of language acquisition research. The student cultural integration survey needs to be revised to include questions that more clearly ask participants about their identification as monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual and their history with and goals for learning the English language. Additionally, the inclusion of a questionnaire on participants' past writing experiences in their first language, past writing experiences in second or foreign languages, and attitudes towards writing could give a more comprehensive picture of writing anxiety. More attention to diverse student backgrounds could have allowed for more accurate statistical analyses and, possibly, more significant results.

It is hoped that the limitations of this study can serve as catalysts for continued research on the relationships between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing performance in the future.

Suggestions for Future Research

The initial motivation for this study came from the lack of quantitative identity research that had been conducted in the fields of SLA, BLA, and MLA. This study added to the meager body of quantitative identity research that exists in language acquisition literature. Much more quantitative research is needed for even basic insight into the nature of the relationship that exists between identity and other individual differences variables of interest to language acquisition researchers. This study examined student identity exclusively in relation to writing. Exploration of identity in relation to second or foreign language performance on other language skills like speaking, listening, reading, vocabulary knowledge and use, or grammatical choices offers extensive possibilities for future research.

Chapter III highlighted some of the controversies surrounding the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance apparent in language acquisition literature. This study did not accomplish its goal to provide data to clarify this relationship. If anything, the contradictory relationships between writing anxiety and writing performance revealed in this study make this relationship more ambiguous. This is an area in which more research is needed and in which research potential abounds.

Furthermore, a follow up study to the current research has the potential to clarify and add support to the relationships discerned between student identity, writing anxiety, and writing anxiety in this study. Any follow up research should take into consideration

the limitations of this study and make appropriate improvements to the measures and sampling procedure employed by this study.

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- *articles included in the systematic review of language acquisition identity literature
- **articles included in the meta-analysis of language acquisition anxiety studies

APPENDIX A

STUDENT CULTURAL INTEGRATION SURVEY

1. Write about your education. What country are you from? When did you begin learning English? How long have you been in the United States? Why are you studying in the United States? Why are you studying English? What is your major? Did you study in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at CSU before this course? Anything else I should know?
2. Write about being a student in the country you are from. Do students work together in class and out of class? How were class taught? How much studying did you need to do to prepare for classes and tests? Anything else you would like to write about your experiences as a student in the country you're from? Give examples.
3. Write about being a student in the United States. Do students work together in class and out of class? How are classes taught? How much studying do you need to do to prepare for classes and tests? Anything else you would like to write about your experiences as a student in America? Give examples.
4. How are teachers from your native country and United States the same or different? Do they teach differently? Do they treat students differently? Do they have different expectations of students? Any other differences you've noticed? Give examples.

5. Describe the qualities that make a good student in the country you are from.
Describe the characteristics that make a good student in the United States. Which of these qualities do you have? Give examples of your actions that show these qualities.
6. How do students from your native country and the United States differ? How are they the same? Give examples. Are you more like a student from your native country or from the US? Why do you think so?
7. Describe how your role as an American student is the same or different than your role as a student in your native country. Describe specific events to show the similarities and/or differences.
8. Does being an international/nonnative English speaker influence your experiences as a student? Does using English as a second language affect how you act in your classes? Do you feel different in your classes in the United States than you did in your native country? Give examples.
9. What things do you do well as a student in the United States? What things do you find difficult or frustrating? What things did you do well as a student in the country you are from? What things did you find difficult or frustrating?
10. Do you think you are better at being a student in the country you are from or in the United States? Why? Do you enjoy being a student better in your native county or in the United States? Why?

APPENDIX B

STUDENT CULTURAL INTEGRATION RATING SCALE

1=student perceives them self as adhering more to student norms in their native country than student norms in the US

2=student perceives both student norms from their native country and the US in their student identity but adheres slightly more to student norms of their native country

3= student perceives both student norms from their native country and the US in their student identity but adheres slightly more to student norms of the US

4 = student perceives them self adhering more to student norms of the US than student norm in their native country.

APPENDIX C
RATER TRAINING MATERIALS

How to Access Journals

1. Go to <http://writing.colostate.edu>.
2. Scroll down to the “Classes Taught” tab.
3. Select CO 150.68 or CO 150.74 (depending on which section you are working on).
4. Select the “Forums” icon that appears on the right side of the CO 150 class page.
5. Click the “Manage your class Forums” link that appears at the top of the page.
6. At the top of the Manage you class Forums page is some text. At the end of the text that starts with the bolded phrase “**Forum Statistics**” is a link titled, “the entire class.” Click on it.
7. At the top of this page, you will see a gray box with several links in it. Select the middle link, “View forum posts organized by student’s name.”
8. This will allow you to easily access each student’s journals.

Student Cultural Integration Survey

1. Write about your education. What country are you from? When did you begin learning English? How long have you been in the United States? Why are you studying in the United States? Why are you studying English? What is your major? Did you study in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at CSU before this course? Anything else I should know?
2. Write about being a student in the country you are from. Do students work together in class and out of class? How were class taught? How much studying did you need to do to prepare for classes and tests? Anything else you would like to write about your experiences as a student in the country you're from? Give examples.
3. Write about being a student in the United States. Do students work together in class and out of class? How are classes taught? How much studying do you need to do to prepare for classes and tests? Anything else you would like to write about your experiences as a student in America? Give examples.
4. How are teachers from your native country and United States the same or different? Do they teach differently? Do they treat students differently? Do they have different expectations of students? Any other differences you've noticed? Give examples.
5. Describe the qualities that make a good student in the country you are from. Describe the characteristics that make a good student in the United States. Which

of these qualities do you have? Give examples of your actions that show these qualities.

6. How do students from your native country and the United States differ? How are they the same? Give examples. Are you more like a student from your native country or from the US? Why do you think so?
7. Describe how your role as an American student is the same or different than your role as a student in your native country. Describe specific events to show the similarities and/or differences.
8. Does being an international/nonnative English speaker influence your experiences as a student? Does using English as a second language affect how you act in your classes? Do you feel different in your classes in the United States than you did in your native country? Give examples.
9. What things do you do well as a student in the United States? What things do you find difficult or frustrating? What things did you do well as a student in the country you are from? What things did you find difficult or frustrating?
10. Do you think you are better at being a student in the country you are from or in the United States? Why? Do you enjoy being a student better in your native county or in the United States? Why?

Rating Scale

0=no perception of student differences between their native country and US

- In the student's journals, there is no acknowledgement that the educational expectations and norms in the US and their native country are different in any way.

1=student perceives themselves as adhering more to student norms in their native country than student norms in the US.

- Student has significantly more positive things to say about their home country than the US and has significantly more negative things to say about the US than their home country (these comments may be related to education systems or life in general).
- Student reports difficulty in classes in America, specifically meeting and understanding expectations.
- Student displays feelings of homesickness.
- Student reports feelings of loneliness, isolation, and difficulties meeting other students.

2=student perceives both student norms from their native country and the US in their student identity but adheres slightly more to student norms of their native country

- Student writes more positive statements about their home country than about the US and writes more negative statements about the US than about their home country (these comments may be related to education systems or life in general).
- Student may report slight difficulties in classes in America, but overall they seem to be coping with the challenges of operating in a foreign educational system.
- Student may report feelings of loneliness, isolation, and difficulties meeting other students.

3= student perceives both student norms from their native country and the US in their student identity but adheres slightly more to student norms of the US

- Student writes more positive statements about the US than about their home country and writes more negative statements about their home country than about the US (these comments may be related to education systems or life in general).
- Student does not report any major difficulties coping with the demands of classes in the US.
- Student may report enjoying the social aspects of college life in America, but may also report slight feelings of loneliness, isolation, or homesickness.

4 = student perceives themselves adhering more to student norms of the US than student norm in their native country

- Student has significantly more positive things to say about the US than their home country and has significantly more negative things to say about their home country than the US (these comments may be related to education systems or life in general).
- Student reports that transitioning to classes in America was easy.
- Student probably reports enjoying working with other American students, meeting people, socializing, and overall enjoying their study abroad experience.

Name	Section	+ US	- US	+ Home	- Home	Rating
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A's Journals

Journal 1

Hi everyone,

My name is A. I am originally from Uzbekistan which is located south east of Russia. Back home we have two official languages which are uzbek and Russian. On top of that students start learning third optional foreign language in the middle school. Ever since my childhood i was interested in English so i started studying English in the middle school, but i was taught British English, which i believe significantly different from American English.

First time i came into the US, when i was 17 years old so basically 7 years ago. At that time, i was attending Financial University of Tashkent in Uzbekistan and then i transferred to the Loretto Heights University which is located in Denver. In 2007 i got my first bachelor degree in International Business from that university. And at the beginning of this year i have started working on my second bachelor in CSU. My current major is finance with emphasis on the investment analysis. I love working with the numbers. I never had a chance to study in Intensive English Program (IEP). But i am enjoying our English Composition class and i believe it will make up for IEP classes that i missed. And i am sure that knowledge that i will acquire from this course will help me in my studies and will be beneficial over all. I think literacy in writing one of the most important factors in the job force.

Journal 2

Like i mentioned in my first journal i am from Uzbekistan and Uzbekistan used to be a part of Soviet Union for very long time. So probably that's why we adopted Russian

style and legacy of education. I have to admit it is completely different from being a student in US.

Let me start first with elementary, middle and high school even though we don't have that kind of divisions, it is still similar to US schools. I guess the main difference is the kids stuck in one building for eleven years. There are 20 to 25 pupil in one class. And most of the time the student do not work in groups unless there is special assignment .It is not like students are isolated, i think it is just culture matter.

Besides that, Classroom culture is totally different from US classes. Student have to wear formal clothes (white shirt,black tie) to every single class as well as teachers. No food,drinks or anything like that allowed in the classrooms. And most of the time teachers explain new materials and shows the examples on the chalkboard. And there is no way that you can choose classes, classes are fixed for everyone. I think that the only one bad part about our education, because some students interested in one subject more than in another , so if they had a chance to take more classes to that related subject ,they would have succeeded greatly.

Unfortunately the student don't really get together to do their homeworks, unless they signed up for some kind of tutorial classes when they get to do their homeworks. But usually if students have question they can approach the teachers without any problems and ask for help, and it is most common.

The higher education differs from US's as well. The class that you get are fixed too, so you can not choose what class you going to take. And universities mainly are not that big. For example, if you want to study business you going to attend business university but if you want to do history as your major then you will have to go to history

university. In order to get an admission in university you have to pass really hard test, which most of the time consist of question in math, English, physics or chemistry, and uzbek (which is our one language). So preparations for the test usually starts when students in their 10th and 11th grade. And a lot of students hire personal tutor to help them in one subject or another. And i have to say that 10th and 11th grades in school are really tense. But once you enter the university life becomes much easier and more beautiful.

Journal 3

As we all know the education system in United States one of the best and most sophisticated system's in the world. Firs table i want start of this journal by saying that it is privilege for me to be a student in United States. It is very unique and completely different experience. But at the same, honestly it is not an easy to be a student here in US. It demands a lot of self motivation and incredible amount of hard work. When i first came into the states, i noticed that students work in a group a lot and it is initiated by the teachers. I found that it is really good idea and it pays off with good results (good grades). And on top of that i found out that we have tutors (out side of class) if we need them to help us to succeed in our classes.

In Uzbekistan classes taught slight in different way, there is not much interaction between students and teachers. Most of the time teacher come to the class and reads the note he brought with himself. But here in states most of the teachers try to interact with student and teach a lot of side materials what is not included in text books. And sometimes we don't even use textbook but instead professors use their own real life experiences.

Even though classes are taught in really professional manner i sill need a lot of time to prepare for homeworks, and especially for test. And this journal is time consuming as well. But overall i love to be a student in United States.

Journal 4

I would say that back in Uzbekistan, we had different relationship between students and teachers. And teachers are dissimilar to US teachers in the way how they stand in student and teacher relationship. Most of the time we had really formal relationship , so to say you could never call your teacher by their first name or so, you have to call them by their doctrine. Teachers are usually distinct from students, in a sense they do not get involve in students personal lives.

I went to the public school, so i can judge by that and say that teachers treat students with respect and equality. But sometimes they could be hard handed and teach you not only academic matters but also how to behave in society and be a good human being another words, they teach you morals of life.

When it comes to expectations, yes they do expect more from you. They mostly expect you to be broad minded and know almost everything. They take for granted that we know at least two languages and they always expect you to be aware of every current news that going on not only in Uzbekistan but also in Russia.

The biggest difference that i noticed so far is that teachers here in US, get to close relationship with students and treat them almost like friends, and i think it has its own advantages and disadvantages. Yes it takes any pressure from your studies and stuff like that but at the same time i think students have to realize and give the honors to the professors for teaching them and it is really important.

Journal 5

I think the most important quality of a student in my country is that, student has to have the will to acquire the knowledge of any kind in order to be successful person in the future. Of course it is the broad statement, but the general idea is that all students have to be open-minded and willing to learn as much as one could in his or her student years. So you would have to have a strong motivation in everything you do, not only in terms of academic studies but also in yours personal lives.

And i think in the US emphasis made on being independent and self confident student and a person in the future. You can acknowledge that by seeing how the school system is made. For example back in Uzbekistan we could not chose the classes we are going to take but instead all classes were fixed for certain majors. But here in US you can see how the system promote independence by letting you to choose what classes you want to take and you think are most beneficial for you.

After experiencing both student cultures, i can certainly say that i posses all of those qualities. Another words i am independent and at same time i have limitless dreams that i want to achieve, so i do have extremely high motivations in my studies.

Journal 6

Firs table, I think there is a significant difference between American and Uzbek students. Because whole Uzbek education is based on Russian education and it is more social, even though we are democratic country for almost 20 years. I guess what i am trying to say is that Uzbek students are not so liberal in expressing their mind and whole free speech concept is not developed in the way you want to. And in the US, being the most democratic country in the world, it express itself in their students. As far as i know

here in schools emphasis on expressing them self are made since early stage of education. And i think this promotes further the whole capitalism style of life.

The major similarities between students here and my country is that all of them are hard working and motivated youth of the future. And i think students in both countries realize since their early students years that they are the future of the country. So they feel the responsibility and behave according to it.

I think i am in the middle of American and Uzbek student, kind of hybrid student. Since i have been in the US for a long time, i learned how to express my ideas in the freely manner. And i developed a lot of skills, one of those are how to think outside of the box. But i still inhabit major elements and features of Uzbek students, which are embedded to me for the rest of my life. And i think that our culture and religion believes played a big role in it. Anyway I am happy.

Journal 7

Sometimes i feel that my role as an American student different in many ways then my role as Uzbekistan student. As an American student i have a lot of opportunitiues to be involved not only in academic activities but also in community activites. For example the event on the last week amazed me the most, i dont know if you guys heard about it or not but there was can gathering event. And our accounting professor gave us incentive in the form of bonus 5 points for the test if we would bring 5 cans. I was surprised and pleased by this and i brought cans, but i can not imagine this happening in Uzbekistan. Over all i think here in states student lifes are really important, and i mean not only academic lives but lives outside of campus. When i think about similarities i mostly think about the way students are motivated in both countries, and work really hard to achieve

the best possible scores. And another big difference of Uzbekistan student is that we usually do not work while our college life, and parents mostly supports the student whole 4 years. But here states you can see that student work through out the college.

Journal 8

Honestly, when i first started my studies in United States as international student it had a huge influence on me as a student and generally in my studies. It was hard for me to adapt to the US educational system, which is not that formal like the one back in Uzbekistan. And especially being a student in CSU was hard, because most of the student are Americans, and i believe only 8 percent are international students. So the moment i walk in the classroom i would stand out. But i mean that not in the bad way, because most of my peers are really nice and helpful. I believe, if anyone says that using English as a second language does not affect how he or she acts in the classes, would be lying. Because when i first started attending lectures i was shy about my English, and i rarely asked question, when something was not clear for me. Instead i studied at home and read the textbook multiple times. And back home we never had such a big classes, that was new for me as well, and honestly it is really hard for a instructor to interact with students. And yes, sometimes i feel different in classes. I think, it is just cultural and social norms differs so much so it has direct affect on students academic lives. Back in Uzbekistan, we had only small groups of students who are in same major, let say 30 people and we study together for 4 years in same group, so within those four years the students develop such a close relationship so they almost become as family members to each other.

Journal 9

First of all, I think that the United States education system is so intense, so it would require a lot of hard work and devotion not only from international students, but also from any students. I think, I excel as a student overall. But of course, I became really good about certain things, such as to be on top of every assignment or the homework. And sometimes I find this frustrating, because you do not really have time for anything else except your studies. And back home I had more flexible schedule in terms of school. I did not have such a big load of classes and obligations that follows with them. But I still think that US system is one of the best in the world and it is beneficial for students as a whole. Back in my country, I was really active and social person. And I organized many events, and I attended almost every game or show that was held on campus. But here in states, I barely find the time for myself. And it makes me think twice before every time I go out. The worst part about our school in Uzbekistan is that, everything is in theories and not in practice. But here in classes, we have real case that we work on and gain relevant experience. And I think that the most amazing and useful thing.

Journal 10

I really have not thought about if I am better student here or in my native country. If we are talking from academic stand point, I would definitely say that I have better GPA here in states than I had in Uzbekistan. And I would think that any international student would work hard to get better grades. I do not know why but it has some kind of special feelings, back in Uzbekistan it was just an ordinary thing to get straight A's in all classes without even studying for them. And I felt that when I strove for the best grade in class, I competed only among my classmates but here I have a feeling that I compete among the

best students around the world. And believe me it feels good when you are in top five percent of your class. And on top of that i really do not think that our education system is so intense, and make the students work so hard, but here in states every student and professor approaches every course with passion . That is probably the most important aspect that i respect and appreciate about United States education system.

I think, i enjoyed more being student in my native country, and i believe most international students would agree with me. Because when you grow up in the certain city you are automatically know everything that you should know, you know where to go to have fun, you know where to go to meet people and you know where to go and get some stuff if you know what i mean. But when you get to the US, you only know your way to the library and i am serious about that. But still i enjoy and i am grateful that i have privilege to be a student here in Colorado States University and i mean that.

Thanks God thats the last journal i am just kidding, i honestly enjoyed writing them and sometimes reading my classmates journals. Thank You.

Rating A's Journals

1. As I read, I kept a tally of the positive and negative statements made about the US and about Uzbekistan.

Name	Section	+ US	-US	+ Home	-Home	Rating
A	68	10	2	3	1	3.5

Overall, A avoids making value statements about the US and Uzbekistan. The student includes a lot of explanation about both educational systems, but rarely says that something is good or bad about either system. It is important not to place outside judgments on statements in which the student does not clearly indicate positive or negative feelings towards some aspect of the educational system. For example, in Journal 4 A wrote, "I went to the public school, so i can judge by that and say that teachers treat students with respect and equality. But sometimes they could be hard handed and teach you not only academic matters but also how to behave in society and be a good human being another words, they teach you morals of life." Personally, I wouldn't want a teaching imposing their morals on me; however, I do not know A's attitude towards this teaching style, so I cannot count this statement as positive or negative.

2. As I read, I also made note of A's ability to meet academic expectations in Uzbekistan and in the US. A clearly feels that he/she is a more successful student in the US than he/she was in Uzbekistan. Also, A obviously highly respects the educational system in the US and takes pleasure from being a successful student here. It appears that A still follows some of the norms for Uzbekistan in his/her approach to education (like showing

teachers a lot of respect), and believes he/she is a “hybrid student.” This shows that he/she has not adopted all the attitudes and behaviors of an American student, but is currently having little difficulty adapting to the demands of education in the US.

3. While reading, I also made note of how A feels about social life in the US and Uzbekistan. In this category, A clearly favors Uzbekistan. It seems that he/she had a rather full social life in Uzbekistan, but studying occupies more of his/her time now. However, A does not express feelings of isolation or loneliness and he/she does say that he/she goes out on occasion (indicating that he/she has friends to go out with).

4. When rating A’s journals it is important to consider all of the above factors. A said more positive things about the US than about Uzbekistan, and although he/she did say one more negative thing about the US than about Uzbekistan, overall he/she made relatively few negative statements. A believes he/she is a good student in the US and enjoys succeeding in the US educational system, although he/she does adhere to some of the student norms from Uzbekistan. A is not as social in the US as he/she was in Uzbekistan, but he/she does not seem to be homesick. Taking all of this into consideration, A is somewhere between a 3 and a 4, so a score of 3.5 is appropriate. (scores with a .5 are fine, but don’t give scores of 3.2 or 3.9)

B's Journals

Journal 1

My name is B, and China is my motherland. City born and City brought, I have more chances to broaden my sight, so at an early age I have understood the importance of English if I really want to get in touch with the whole world.

My English study began in my primary school, and I still remember the scene that we first learned how to pronounce "A,B,C,D". Time flies, now I can use English to write this article.

I have been the USA for three weeks, and I really like the life in Fort Collins. The weather here in summer is nice except some sudden rain. The people here are friendly, especially when I am lost in the street. Actually this is my second time to America, last summer vacation I travelled to New York, which also impressed me a lot.

The reason I study in America attributes to the partnership between Colorado State University and Hunan University ---students in Hunan University have chance to continue their undergraduate study in Colorado State University. It is an excellent opportunity for me to learn more advanced knowledge, so that to study in America emerges in my mind. After the application, I become a transfer student of CSU.

My major is business, and finance is my concentration. Interested in analyzing the financial and capital market with statistical method, I am sure I will learn more information and skills in my future study.

In addition, this is my first semester in CSU, and I didn't take any Intensive English Program before.

To tell the truth, English study, as to me , is a long way to go. Now I still feel difficult in expressing myself fluently in a logical and native way, and I think it is a tough task. A Chinese writer Fan Shen ever said that writing in English redefines his ideological and logical identities .[The Classroom and the Wider Culture :Identity as a key to learning English Composition ,published in 2006] In my opinion ,it is difficult because change myself to another identity is not only required in English composition class ,but also in other classes. As a result ,I cannot adapt myself into the atmosphere of class immediately .Though hard it is, I am still confident that I would overcome these troubles and eventually succeed both in learning English composition and other major classes.

P.S. I write this passage in Word 2007 , then I copy it in to here.

Journal 2

I started my education in China , and I experience the education from the primary school to college of China.As a result, I do perceive a lot in the teaching style and class learning style in China.

Generally speaking, the teaching style in Chinese high school education is distinct from Chinese college education .Teachers in high school pushes students to forward, not allowing one to fall behind .However, the professors in college just shed a light on the road to the knowledge treasure, which means to show the direction of study and never care about how you reach the academic destination .Due to this different attitudes,high school teachers emphasize the study habits and thus leave a lot of assignments in order to check our understanding of knowledge .Take my experience as an example, When I studied in the high school ,usually I couldn't finish my homework

until midnight .Maybe this situation varies from different parts of China, but there is no doubt that a lot of homework are assigned to high school students.

On the other side , the professors in Chinese colleges always leave few homework .Instead ,they focus on educating our critical thinking to the field we study. For example, when I took macroeconomic class in Hunan University last semester ,my professor Dr Chen always leaved one problem which closely relates to our daily life to let us think about after class .Such questions like “Check March’s CPI (consumer price Index) in Chinese statistical website, and think about the reasons which lead the vegetable price to go up.”After a semester study, I acquired various skills to analyze economic phenomena. However, the premise of acquire knowledge in Chinese college is that you own have motivation to study and can do well at self-study.

As to the workshop, which means students come together to discuss several problems, is not popular in Chinese classes .In class,especially for the math and chemical classes,teacher would like to deliver as much as knowledge instead of workshop ,because they think in workshop we will talk about other topics which have no relations to class contents. What’s more, there are so many students in a class in china, so it is a hard work for teacher to control the workshops.After class, actually we do have some discussions about what we have learned in class, but we do it not in a fixed time such as one or two weeks .Traditionally, we are costumed to solve problem by ourselves.

When talking about the exam and test , our country’s education system is ever considered as educate students for examination.Stated in another way, the purpose for teaching is to let students get a good mark in the exam ,ignoring to educate students'creativity and critical thinking pattern .To tell the truth ,I really feel my high

school study is to learn for the tests because all the Chinese students are all under the heavy press of the National Pass Exam in order to get into a high quality university .Otherwise,I feel free to the college tests because they are not so hard to pass as in high school,and usually we only have one final exam for each class. As a result, we usually paid one and half an hour for per credit every week

Journal 3

Been in the U.S. for almost one month, I find it interesting to study here. It is a totally different style for both teaching and studying from where I come from.

In the Cell Biology class, professor ask us to study the tutorials before we get into the lecture and in the class we spend time do i-clicker questions to review the content we learned. Furthermore, students have much more tests than I have had in China. Professors usually provide five to six tests for students in one semester whereas in China we have only one test.

For the studying part, it is an interesting phenomenon that many more American students study in the library in the test week though they will not do it in the normal days. Additionally, American students like group study rather than study alone. Therefore, when it comes to the test week, the whole library is full of talking.

As for me, I have two tests in the week, and I've already had the chemistry test. With two days preparation, I've got 96 while the average score is 66.5. I'm so glad that I did well in the first exam. However, for the next exam of Cell Biology I will have tomorrow, I'm not confident with it. Most because of the short answer question, sometimes I can not express myself though I know what it means. But I will conquer the problem within this semester.

Journal 4

Owing to my one month studying experience in CSU, I find that teachers of the United States are different from those of China.

Firstly, teachers from China require students to get the ability to calculate more than ability to create. Whereas, teachers from the United States may consider creativity is more important. For example, in my Cell Biology lab class in CSU professor Frida always asks students to think about the next step to carry out after finishing this experiment. In my Organic Chemistry lab in China professor Wang asks students to make sure the calculation we did is accurate.

What's more, the way of teaching is also different from place to place. In China, professors always teach knowledge in a two-hour class. While teachers here ask students to study the tutorial at home and finish the quiz on the internet, and then when we get to class what we should do is raising questions and answering some i-clicker questions.

However, teachers both from China and the United States are patient to students no matter how many questions students ask and no matter how many times they need to explain. I think teachers from all over the world should be like this. They'll only do good to students and help students solve problems. All they want to do is tell students all the knowledge they know.

After all, I like the teachers from both countries and I like to study in the United States. Of my 36 days experience here, I feel busy with classes and homework but also happy due to the new friends I make with.

Journal 5

As far as I know, there's apparently different ways to judge whether someone is a good student or not. To begin with, studying is the first thing students do. So, the scores he or she gets are of great importance. In addition, the ability on both communication and presentation is also a key point. Furthermore, finding a job is one of the reasons why we study in the university, someone who has a high score but cannot find a job is probably not a good student. It seems that all the students want to be good students, but what qualities make lead us to be a good student? From my perspective, a good student should have some same qualities in both China and America. For instance, learning the knowledge makes a good student happy, while some others feel terrible to study. Also, a good student is able to set down and focus on study and will not be disturbed by others.

However, there are some differences from one place to another place as well. In china, a student who could learn by analogy and infer other things from one fact is absolutely a good student. In the Chinese education system, exam is the almost the only way to determine the ability of a student. So, there are inevitably many questions students should take. The ability to learn by analogy is the most significant quality makes a student successful. Whereas, as for the U.S., I find the creativity is of more importance. Both professors and students focus on extending the content rather than spending much time on questions. It makes the student more competitive in the American society.

As for me, I'm confident with the ability makes a successful student in China, otherwise I won't get the chance to study here. But I' m still trying to be more creative as I'm not educated in this way. So I will spare no effort to become a good student in the U.S. as well.

Journal 6

As I've written in the last journal, my home country and the U.S. have a different education system, this makes students from these two countries different. Firstly, students in China study much harder in the high school than in the university. Because of the competitive university entrance exam, we students spare no effort to get into a better university. Because we have only one chance, otherwise, we will have 30 points minus in our total score. And our parents and teachers tell us that if we could get into a good university, we will have more relax time. So, when we get into a university, we do not study that hard like before. Whereas, students in the U.S. have much more leisure time in their high schools. A classmate of mine in the U.S. said that she can not handle the exams in the university because they aggregate in one week. But in her high school time, her exams are distributed in two or where weeks. This makes the university study harder than high school.

However, students from two countries apparently have some common characters. For instance, we all prepare for the exam in the library till mid night. Also, we like the same sports like Ping Pong ball and volleyball. What's interesting, most of the students like to finish up the assignment one day before the due day. That's some of the same points between students from two countries.

As for the question that which students I like more, it really hard to say. Firstly, I like to study with American students because I like the way of group study. They helped me a lot when I prepared for the Globalization exam. However, I still like to hang out with Chinese people, because we could do some Chinese foods which taste better for me.

So, I think I like both American students and Chinese students. And I will spend different time with them.

Journal 7

As a college student in both America and China, I realize that I need to focus on different aspects of study in different country. In my two years college life in China, I paid more attention on putting knowledge into practice. For example, after acquiring the knowledge in the class I spent at least one hour per day to get familiarize with them. Afterwards, in the lab class, I accomplished the required experiment first and then talked about my designed experiments with the instructors. This designed experiment could help me in certifying the contents in lecture. In all, I need to find my own way of studying. However, in these 55 days studying in the U.S., the homework and lab reports take most of my time spare time. The professors here probably want to ensure the time students spend on studying, so they give many assignments to students to make sure the time on that subject study is enough. Therefore, I spend most of my time in the Morgan library. As English is not my first language, the more time I spend on study then more quickly I will get improved.

But there's still something that I need to do but not yet. Making friends and talking with them is a way to practice my oral English. It could also help me in adapt to the culture and environment here. Furthermore, I should create more chances to talk with the professors. If possible, I should get a job in a lab to get the practicing experience next semester not next year.

Journal 8

It is a significant step in my life when I get on the airplane to San Francisco from Beijing. This might a step changes my life, because I will stay in China, get a job and have my own family if I do not choose to study abroad after two years college life in China.

However, it is also of great challenge to me since English is not my first language. It's difficult when I need to spend two hours on reading before going to the class while it only takes a native English speaker half of an hour. It's also hard when I cannot understand what the professors are talking about in the first few lectures. It's even harder when I cannot express myself to ask the professor questions.

But I don't allow the language problems affect me for long, and I have come through all of them. There's an old saying in China, "there's no one can beat you except yourself". So I spend much more time in the library studying than the native students, and I slept merely 6 hours as well. Luckily, I'm rewarded. I got my result above 90 for the first exam of both Chemistry and Cell Biology.

After getting through the difficulties, I still find my action here is different from my home country. We do not usually ask questions when the professor is giving us the lecture in China, whereas, students are encouraged to ask questions in the U.S. So I still cannot do the same as the native students. I still prefer to ask question after the professor finishes his/her lecture. What's better, the professors in CSU always give students the key words before the exam which makes the students easier to review the concepts. While in China, we students find the key words ourselves. In addition, we have 4 or 5 exams per semester for the major required classes. While in China, only one exam will be taken

every semester. Students need to review for the whole textbook before taking the final exam. This is more difficult than exams in the U.S.

Journal 9

As for me, I spend most of the time in the library to study. Since I have just been to the U.S. for 68 days, I'm not familiarized with the key terms in English. Therefore, I study hard because I want to catch up with American students and hopefully do better than them. I am not saying that I'm ambitious; I'm saying that I have my dreams. That's why I choose to leave my parents and my family to study abroad. What's more, it might be the attitude of mine towards study which makes me get the satisfied scores in the exams. For instance, I try my best to not miss any lesson and spare no effort to accomplish the homework. This makes me feel I'm doing what I'm supposed to do in the U.S. However, I still feel frustrated when I cannot understand what the classmates mean for their questions. What's worse, I'm embarrassed when everyone in the class laughs at the jokes the professor says while I do not understand. I know that some background and culture are essential to understand the jokes, but I'm still frustrated by that. Additionally, I still need to take part in more activities to make friends with natives, so that I could learn more about the American culture. As for the lecture, I should probably raise my hand when I do not understand. But it needs a lot of courage to do that since my pronunciation is not standard.

Compared to my college life in China, I'm more active in the activities and organizations. Both learning ability and talking ability are important in my university. So I participate in many activities to practice my organization ability. What's more, I'm the outstanding student journalists in China Agricultural University. In the experience of

being a student journalist, I know many professors and officials in my university. It is also helpful to my study since I'm familiarized with the format of writing an China article especially for news. The difficulty to study in China is that students should take exams in the last week of the semester. That is to say, students need to remember everything learned for the whole semester before the exam. What's worse, most of the exams all held in the last week, thus students should remember more than one subjects' content when preparing to take the exam. However, it is a kind of short time remembering. Most of the students cannot remember what they should one month after the exam.

Journal 10

As a student studies in two countries, I find it's easier at being a student in the United States than in China. I've introduced the education system in both countries in the last some journals. The most different place in both countries is the way of taking exams. Students have 3 to 5 chances of exams for one subject in the U.S. while only one final exam will be held in China. That is to say, students need to study for the whole book and remember them before the final exam. What's more, most of the professors in the U.S. will give the study guide to students which makes students prepare better for the exam. As for me, I consider myself doing better in the U.S. since it's easier. However, I still need 3 to 6 months to adjust myself to all the culture here.

Every corn has two sides. Being a student in both America and China has the advantages which make me enjoy. In the U.S., all the professors are so patient and the contents they introduce are of great value. Further, I'm able to meet with friends all over the world rather than Chinese merely. It helps wide my horizon and know more about the world. Different cultures of different countries are also important to know the world.

However, in China, there's no doubt that I will feel convenient and comfortable to be a student. I do not need to struggle to learn English if I don't want. What's more, it's much freer and less competitive as a student in China.

Since I'm now studying in the U.S. I will spare no effort to get as much knowledge I could as possible. And I like to study in a competitive condition.

C's Journals

Journal 1

My name is C, and I'm from Saudi Arabia in city that is called Almadinah. I graduated from high school in 2008. I started studying English seriously 3 years ago in a private institute. I planned to come to the U.S since I was in the first year in high school. I chose America because it has one of the best educations in the world. I came to the U.S in 2009, and i started studying English in University of Houston. I made alot of friends there, but I noticed that my English wasn't improving quickly, so I decided to move to Fort Collins in Oct 2009. I this city so much because people here are more friendly than houston. I studied at the Intensive English Program at Colorado State University, and I finished studying English in July. I will study in major chemical engineering at CSU. This is my first semester at a university, and I hope that I make good grades. Also, I hope that I have good time in Fort collins.

Journal 2

I would talk about education in Saudi Arabia. There are many differences in education between Saudi Arabia and U.S. First, men and women go to school separately, and the subjects differ depend on the major. second, the classes are different on how they're designed and how many students on the class, on Saudi Arabia most classes have

around 30 students which make it hard for students to understand. Most students work individually because we got used to do that from the beginning. Some students have chance to work together for class activities. The subjects focused on math and sciences and religion which are good ,but the way we are taught isn't good because it depends on memorizing not exactly.

Journal 3

Being a student in the United States was my ambition when I was in high school. I planned to study in America 5 years ago, and I did what I want. The education here is high, and they have the ability to make the students work together not just individually. Also, the students here used to work together in high school. The classes aren't taught, but the only obstacle is the language. Sometimes, I have difficulties with some classes in English because I just graduated from the IEP. Preparing for tests isn't hard as what I used to in Saudi Arabia. In America way of teaching is better than in my country because the teachers here have to make sure that all students understand and make groupwork. However, the way of teaching in Saudi Arabia is hard for students.

Journal 4

There are many similarities and differences between teachers in Saudi Arabia and US. In Saudi Arabia, teachers are different on the way of dealing with students. Some of them are nice and helpful, and they care about the students if they understood or not. Also, we will say that there are some of them are tough and not helpful with students. In America, most teachers deal well with students and respect them. Also, they show students the best way to get good benefits, and they give the students chances to improve their grades.

Journal 5

In Saudi Arabia and America, the qualities of good students are same and different at the same time. In Saudi Arabia, students have to work out class hard to get a good grade because teachers there just explain some main point without giving examples for all the situations, so students have to figure. In America, good students have to be aware on class and do homework because teacher give them specific thing to study. I like the way of American education, so I have the ability to have this quality to get good grade.

Journal 6

Students in Saudi Arabia and America are similar on the way of studying. They all study hard and strive to get a good grade. Also, they work out class to make a project or group work for class. Also, they share on school activities, such as sports, trip to the important places in the city. In addition, they help the school to be from the best schools in the city by doing a great job with studying.

Journal 7

I see many similarities and differences between Saudi Arabia and America for students. In Saudi Arabia and America, I should work hard to get good grades. Also I participate with my classmates to some activities. Also, I do some sport activities in school because I like these kind of activities. In addition, I used to go with my classmates for trip to museum or park or national activities.

The differences between Saudi Arabia and America in school are a lot. In Saudi Arabia, it's hard to talk to teachers after class because they don't give us office hours to talk with them. However, in America all teachers give us the office hours, I can talk

with them. If I have any difficulty, so they they would explain it to me. Also, in America, I can go to tutors for math for free and ask what I want. However, In Saudi Arabia, there is no tutors for free and difficult to find.

Journal 8

learning a new language is a challenge for people. It's more challenging for international students here because they have to be familiar with English in short time. I faced some difficulties when I started learning English, such as talking with other people, and using English most of the time. When I started learning English I was shy to speak English in front people or in public because I was making many mistakes while speaking, so I didn't want other people to hear me when I speak. However, I learned that the best way to improve English is talking wherever you are, and this way helped me much. I remembered when I came to America. Someone told me that if I wanted to improve my English faster I have to think in English. Also, it gave me the chance to know about American culture, and how they behave in public. Also, being familiar with English helps me when I travel to some foreign countries because English is the first language in the world, so you will find English speakers wherever you go. Finally, I think that learning English is more easier than other languages.

Journal 9

Being a student in the United States was my wish, and I did it. First, when I came to the US, I can say that I discovered myself or my abilities for many things. I could improve my English well and fast, and I became able to write well in English. Also, I was worried about my starting my first semester and how can I be a good student in my classes, but I'm going well with my classes and adapted with this new experience. Also, I

have a new experience in doing homework online, and this is a good way to use technology for education. However, I found some frustrated things here in America, such as involving in a new culture and deal with it. Also, sometimes I can't understand something because the language and I can't find anyone to help, so this can be a challenge for me, but I hope that I can overcome them. In Saudi Arabia, Almost everything is good because it's my culture and language, so I can adopt with all rituals. In addition, I join with school activities, and they gave me more experience and get to know many people. The bad thing when I was in Saudi Arabia is that I was a lazy student in doing homework.

Journal 10

I'm happy to be a student at the United States. United States has high and better education, and they care about how to deal with international students who come to America. I was planning to come to the United states since the first year in high school. I faced some difficulties when I came here, but after that I adopted to live in this country. Also, my government supports the students to study in America and get the benefits to help improving the education in Saudi Arabia in the future. I enjoy in both places because in Saudi Arabia i would be with my family and friends and people who I know, here I made a lot of friends around the United States not just in Fort Collins. In addition, I visited many places in the US that most people wish to visit them. Also, I feel that the way of teaching here is better than what is in my country, because here universities care about students and how to make the education improved by years.

APPENDIX D

SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING ANXIETY INVENTORY (CHENG, 2004)

Indicate your feelings by checking the appropriate box next to each statement. Please give your first reaction to each statement. Please mark an answer for EVERY statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feelings Either Way	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. While writing in English, I'm not nervous at all. (R)					
2. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
3. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.					
4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in English. (R)					
5. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.					
6. My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.					
7. I don't worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others'. (R)					
8. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.					
9. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.					
10. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English.					

11. My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
12. Unless I have no choice, I would not use English to write compositions.					
13. I often feel panic when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
14. I'm afraid that the other students would think my English composition was terrible if they read it.					
15. I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.					
16. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.					
17. I don't worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions. (R)					
18. I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class. (R)					
19. I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when I write English compositions.					
20. I'm afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.					
21. I'm not afraid at all that my English compositions would be rated as very poor. (R)					
22. Whenever possible, I would use English to write compositions. (R)					

Strongly disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, No strong feelings either way = 3, Agree =4, Strongly agree =5 (R = reverse scoring)

APPENDIX E

CO 150 GRADING RUBRICS

Assignment 1: Academic Summary and Analytical Response

Overview: Throughout your academic career you will be asked to summarize and respond to the materials you encounter and use. This assignment will ask you to choose a text, capture its message in a summary, and explain how the message of the text is conveyed to its potential audiences. As we read and discuss these texts, we will practice various strategies for summarizing and responding.

Purpose: Your purpose for writing this essay will be to accurately represent the ideas of the text, to critically examine and analyze the text, and to thoughtfully respond to the text, deciding if it is effective or not. Choose one of the following texts to examine critically, summarize accurately and objectively, and respond to with a thoughtful analysis.

Readings:

- "The Classroom and the Wider Culture" by Fan Shenn
- "Intercultural Communication Stumbling Blocks" by Barna
- "The Argument Culture" by Deborah Tannen

Audience: Your audience for this assignment is your instructor and your classmates. Although your readers are familiar with the text you've chosen, you should represent its main ideas and key points, and provide accurate textual evidence in the forms of paraphrases and quotes.

Requirements: Your **summary** should accurately and objectively represent the authors' purpose and main ideas in less than 300 words (about one page).

To achieve your purpose with your audience, use the following strategies in your summary:

- Introduce the text in the beginning of your summary so your readers know which text you are summarizing. Include the author's name, the date of publication, and the publication title within the first few sentences;
- Focus on the writer's arguments by reporting the text's thesis and supporting ideas. Show that you understand the "big picture"—the writer's purpose and how he or she supports it;
- Avoid giving examples and evidence that are too specific, to maintain the focus of the overall argument of the article. Feel free to generalize about types of evidence,

kinds of examples, and rhetorical strategies used by the authors to support their argument;

- Use author tags so that your reader understands that you are reporting authors' ideas;
- Use an objective tone and a mix of paraphrased and quoted source material.

Your **response** should be at least 300 words (about one page) and should answer the following question: *Was the author successful at reaching his or her purpose with his or her intended audience?* Your response should answer this question by including a thesis, reasons to support your thesis, and evidence to support your reasoning. Critically Respond to the text's effectiveness by analyzing one or more of the following rhetorical features. Choose **at least one** of the following features on which to focus your response:

- Purpose: Are the text's aims clear?
- Audience: Will the intended audience accept the author's claim?
- Occasion/Genre/Context: Does the author effectively respond to the occasion?
- Thesis/Main Ideas: Do the main ideas support the thesis?
- Organization & Evidence: Did the author support his or her contentions in a logical order?
- Language & Tone: Did the tone and style support the author's purpose?

Overall Strategies:

- Begin your essay with a summary of the article and then lead into your response with an effective transition from an objective academic summary to an analytical response that is well supported with textual examples. Although writers have successfully combined summary and response, it's best to keep them separate for this assignment;
- To improve credibility with your audience, avoid spelling and grammar mistakes;
- Type your essay in a readable, 12-point font and double-space it. Submit your essay in a pocket folder along with any process work.

Paper Length: 600-700 words (about 2 pages double spaced)

Due Date: Thursday September 16

Worth: 20% of your final course grade

Assignment 1 Grading Rubric

	Excellent (5)	Satisfactory (4)	Unsatisfactory (3)
Summary (6)	The summary convinces the reader that you have read the article closely and understand its argument because the summary accurately and objectively represents the author's central claim and key supporting points. The summary does not merely list the main ideas but shows how the reasons support the claim. The summary is selective about details and examples, choosing only ones that help to illustrate a key point.	The summary convinces your reader that you have read and understood the key points of the article. It could, perhaps, improve in showing the connection between the main claim and how it is supported. The summary may have some extra, unneeded details from the article. There may be parts of the summary that are inaccurate, incomplete, or subjective.	The summary doesn't convince the reader that you have read the article closely because its argument is not clearly represented and/or there may be inaccuracies. The summary may provide a list of points rather than any sense of a larger claim supported by reasons and evidence. The summary loses focus through inclusion of minor or off-topic points. Your opinions and judgments are included in the summary.
Response (6)	The thesis of the response is clearly stated and separate from the summary. You support your thesis with clear reasons and textual evidence. Your argument is based on an examination of the text's rhetorical effectiveness. The response convinces the reader that you have a strong sense of the author's rhetorical choices and how effectively they were at reaching the intended audience—including what assumptions the authors make about their audiences and how each audience will respond to the implications of the article.	The thesis of the response is stated, although it could be more clearly defined and/or supported. Your separation between summary and response is difficult to identify. Your determination of the text's effectiveness could be more logically explained. You evaluate the content of the article at the cost of a clear analysis of the rhetorical effectiveness. The response convinces your reader that you have read and understood the rhetorical choices the authors have made in the article, but it could better connect the author's rhetorical choices to the intended audience. The response should include more on the assumptions and implications that the text makes.	There is no clear thesis guiding your response. There is a lack of organization that contributes to making it difficult to distinguish summary from response. Your reader may question whether you have read the article closely because there is no discussion of the text's audience or the author's rhetorical choices. The response includes irrelevant textual content and/or does not consider the rhetorical elements.
Quotations and Paraphrases (3)	The essay contains both paraphrases and quotations. The paraphrased and quoted passages are chosen appropriately and integrated into the summary and response.	The essay needs a better balance of paraphrasing and quoting. It needs to choose and integrate quotations more effectively. The summary may have quotations and paraphrases from the text,	The essay is mostly quotations strung together, or there are few textual examples from the article. The material used may be poorly chosen and integrated, or it lacks appropriate balance between

		but either the summary or the response does not integrate textual material well.	paraphrase and quotation.
Attribution (3)	The summary cites the author, title, date, and place of publication. The whole essay (both summary and response) uses author tags so that it is clear when the writer is referring to his or her ideas and the ideas presented in the text. Every sentence containing borrowed information is appropriately attributed. There is variety in the kinds of author tags used.	The summary may not present all of the necessary publication information. Generally, your reader can tell that you are referring to the author's words and/or ideas, but there may not be an appropriate author tag in every sentence containing borrowed information.	It is not clear whose ideas are being presented (either from the article or the student writer). Because of the lack of author tags, the reader is often unable to identify borrowed material.
Conventions and Style (2)	You have followed all the guidelines on the assignment sheet. You have made appropriate choices for an academic essay. The essay is carefully proofread and edited for accuracy and clarity.	While you follow most of the guidelines on the assignment sheet, sometimes your writing is too informal for an academic essay. The essay as a whole would benefit from careful proofreading and editing for clarity.	It is not clear whose ideas are being presented (either from the article or the student writer). Because of the lack of author tags, the reader is often unable to identify borrowed material.

Assignment 2: Investigating a Research Question (Annotated Bibliography)

Overview: There are many interesting, controversial issues in the world today. You'll start by choosing and narrowing an interesting research question. It will be in your best interest to choose an inquiry question which you can later turn into a thesis statement for your argument (you should choose to do research on an issue that is debatable and narrow). Next, you will go about answering your research question through reading a variety of sources with information about your question. You will compile the sources you've found that have helped you answer your inquiry question in one document.

Annotated Bibliography Overview: You will ask a question you are genuinely curious about. Once you have asked an inquiry question, you will be responsible for finding sources that best answer your research question. You will document your sources with an annotated bibliography entry, consisting of an MLA citation, a summary of the source, and a response to the source. Once you have found 4 sources that help you answer your inquiry question, you will compile your annotations into 1 document and post it to our class's Writing Studio page. In order to accomplish these things, you should:

- Look for informative sources as well as opinionated sources
- Research thoughtfully—*don't just take the first four sources you find*. Be critical, evaluate your sources, and choose authoritative, credible, current, and relevant ones
- Provide a diverse representation of the various opinions people have on your issue
- Read closely. Write an academic summary of each source
- Read critically. Provide a thoughtful, thorough evaluation of each source's reliability, credibility, and authority
- Keep track of where and how you found your sources so that others may refer to them as needed (collect complete citation information and cite sources in MLA style)

Requirements for the Annotated Bibliography:

- For each source you use in your annotated bibliography (at least four), provide a *citation* (MLA style) and an *annotation*. The annotation will be approximately one page long (double-spaced) and include a *summary* of the source, an *evaluation* of the source's credibility, authority, and an *explanation* of the source's usefulness to answering your inquiry question.
- A Works Cited page at the end of your annotated bibliography which contains citations for the 4 sources you are annotating and citations of any sources that you used to research the author or publication for your evaluations.

Purpose: The main purpose of the **annotated bibliography** is to keep track of and share your research. The research you do for your annotated bibliography will also help you

choose a stance to take in your academic argument assignment. The secondary purpose of the annotated bibliography is to demonstrate your research skills as well as your ability to closely read and critically evaluate the sources you find.

Audience: Yourself, your classmates (who may be interested in investigating the topic themselves), and your instructor (who will evaluate your research and reading).

Details:

- Annotated Bibliography should be MLA style
- Each of your sources needs an MLA citation, followed by an annotation (summary, evaluation, and explanation).
- Double-space each entry and organize them in alphabetical order (by the author or first word/s of each citation)
- Works cited page is formatted correctly and in alphabetical order.

Submitting Assignment:

- Your annotated bibliography will be posted on the writing studio, so your classmates can look at and use your sources as they continue their inquiry process for the Academic argument assignment.
- You will also turn in a paper copy of your annotated bibliography in class.

Percentage Value: 20% of semester grade

Due: TBD

Assignment 2 Rubric

	Excellent (5)	Satisfactory (4)	Unsatisfactory (3)
Annotated Bibliography as a Whole (6)	The annotated bibliography presents a collection of high quality sources that provide enough relevant information about your issue and offer differing views on the inquiry topic to develop an informed position about the issue. The research comes from reliable sources.	The bibliography presents sources that provide information and opinions on the inquiry issue, but it needs a greater number of different views on the issue to develop an informed position. There may be some question about the reliability of some sources, but for the most part, the research is reliable.	The bibliography does not have enough sources to develop an informed position because it lacks important information, does not include differing views on the issue, and/or is made up of low quality sources. The bibliography may have sources that are unreliable or only from one database or web source.
Annotations (6)	Annotations demonstrate critical reading by accurately and objectively summarizing the sources. Author tags are used. There is a balance of paraphrases and quotes. Annotations effectively evaluate each sources' credibility, authority, and usefulness to the project.	Annotations do a good job of summarizing the source, but need to develop the evaluations more. Author tags may need to be used more frequently to keep ideas accounted for. More work on source evaluations is needed.	Annotations have weak summaries and/or do not provide support for source evaluations. Summaries may be adequate, but evaluations are missing.
Citations (5)	Citations follow MLA style, contain no errors, and use correct format. A works cited page that includes citations for the annotated sources and sources used in evaluations is included.	Citations are present, but have minor errors. A works cited page that includes citations for the annotated sources and sources used in evaluations is included.	Citations do not follow MLA style and/or contain a lot of errors. No works cited page included.
Conventions and Style (3)	The annotated bibliography is correctly formatted (double spaced, entries are in alphabetical order, aligned to the left except for a hanging indent on citations, no extra spaces between entries). There are few editing errors in grammar, punctuation, and spelling.	Some editing errors are present. The format is usually followed, but there are a few formatting errors.	Annotations contain repeated, distracting errors in grammar, punctuation, or spelling. Formatting errors are present.

Assignment 3: Academic Argument

Overview: Now that you have researched an issue, you are ready to write an argument. The argument you write for this assignment will be an academic, source-based argument. You may use the sources you and your classmates found in the annotated bibliographies, but you should continue to find new sources to support your argument and represent the conversation on the issue. Furthermore, your argument should add something unique or new to the conversation and not just repeat someone else's argument.

Preparation: Prior to beginning your argument, you will write a 0-draft of your argument in which you will very briefly organize your research into a coherent summary of the argument you plan to make. You will need to:

- have a central claim
- have reasons
- develop your reasons
- show me that you understand how to synthesize research and organize an argument

You will bring your 0-draft to a conference with me, where we will discuss your plans for your argument. The 0-draft is worth 5% of your final grade.

Purpose: The purpose for this assignment will depend on your intended audience. It will most likely fall into one of the following general categories.

- To convince undecided readers to accept your thesis.
- To make opposing readers less resistant to your thesis
- To convince readers who agree with you to take action

Audience: The audience for this argument has two levels to it. First, there is your general academic audience who expect a clear, logical argument that remains focused on proving a thesis. These readers, being in some way connected to the academic community, expect that an argument is well-researched and that the argument is supported with reasons and evidence. They want to see that you are familiar with the conversation on the issue and how your argument contributes to that conversation. In addition, such readers require full citations for all sources you use. Your audience also expects your writing to be free from errors. You'll need to consider these readers' expectations as you write your argument. The second, more narrowed aspect of your audience will be a specific group of people who share a similar view of the issue.

Issue & Sources: Write your argument about the issue you just investigated. You may use the sources from your annotated bibliography or those of your classmates, but you should continue to find sources to fit the rhetorical situation (which will change as you make rhetorical choices about purpose and audience specific to this assignment). You should include a total of 5 sources.

Author: Present yourself as a knowledgeable, fair-minded, credible and, as appropriate, empathetic person. You do not need to be an expert on your issue to write an argument, but you do need to have confidence in what you *do* know and believe about it. Show that you approach the issue with enthusiasm, intellectual curiosity and an open mind.

Strategies: An effective argument achieves its purpose with its audience and is appropriate for an academic context. To achieve your purpose with your audience, be sure to:

- Be active in class as we discuss sample arguments, argumentation techniques, and work on writing this paper as a process.
- Conduct an effective research process by continuing your annotated bibliography and selecting the best sources for your argument.
- Spend time developing a thesis statement and reasons and be sure you have gathered enough credible and convincing evidence to support your reasons.
- Rely on appeals to facts and reasons (*logos*) and character (*ethos*), avoiding logical fallacies. You may, however, use some appeals to emotion (*pathos*) in your introduction and/or conclusion to show the significance of the issue and motivate readers to read on.
- Organize your argument effectively to best support your claims and reasons.
- Use appeals that suit the rhetorical situation.
- Become well-informed on other stakeholders in the conversation, including viewpoints different from your own. Accurately and fairly represent and respond to such alternative viewpoints on the issue.
- Demonstrate that you have conducted effective inquiry into the issue by summarizing, paraphrasing and quoting appropriately and by documenting sources correctly in MLA style. This will bolster your character appeal with your audience.
- Give yourself enough time to draft, revise and polish your argument.

Format: Your paper should be formatted according to MLA conventions. This includes MLA-style heading and page numbers, parenthetical citations within your paper for all sources used (quotes, paraphrases, facts, ideas, etc.) and a Works Cited page at the end of your paper.

Submit your argument in a pocket folder with your process work.

Length: 5 to 7 pages, double spaced (not including Works Cited).

Due: TBD

Worth: 30% of your course grade

Assignment 3 Grading Rubric

	Excellent (5)	Satisfactory (4)	Unsatisfactory (3)
Logos (6)	Appeals to logic in this argument are effective because: Central claim is clearly stated and appropriately qualified, reasons effectively support central claim, and concrete evidence develops reasons. Connections between claims and reasons, and between reasons and evidence, are clearly stated. Argument is organized in a coherent, linear fashion. Background information and definition of key terms meets the needs of intended readers.	The appeal to reason is generally effective but would benefit from revision to clarify reasoning and/or to provide additional evidence and/or to explain how and why reasons and evidence supports your claim.	The appeal to reason is not effective because your reasoning is unclear or faulty and/or the argument lacks sufficient support, sufficient, relevant evidence, or connections between claim and support. The claim may change or is not maintained.
Ethos (5)	Appeals to character in this argument are effective because: Source authority and credibility is included in the paper and cited formally. Tone and language are fair and evenhanded.	While your readers may have moments of doubt about your character, they will find you trustworthy.	Readers will be skeptical about your character because of the sources you cite, a lack of citation, how you deal (or don't) with other perspectives.
Alternative Arguments (3)	Specific alternative viewpoints are fairly represented and responded to effectively	Alternative viewpoints could be better represented OR receive a more effective response.	Alternative viewpoints are not represented, are misrepresented, and/or do not receive an effective response.
Conventions and Style (2)	A well-informed, academic audience's expectations are met effectively because: Correct MLA citations are used, in text and in Works Cited page. Prose is clear, direct, and free of sentence-level errors.	Your paper is generally readable but would benefit from more careful proofreading & editing and/or correct MLA citation.	Readers will have difficulty understanding your meaning or accepting your claim because your paper needs to pay closer attention to conventions and to readers' needs.
Overall Effectiveness (4)	Your argument is thorough and cohesive. You carefully consider your audience's needs, so they will accept your claim.	Your audience will be inclined to consider or accept your claim, but the argument and/or appeals you use to connect with them could be more effective.	You have not made choices in your argument to suit the needs of your audience, and as a result, your audience will probably not accept your claim—you may not have a clear sense of audience and/or purpose.

Assignment 4: Rhetorical Analysis of Writing in Your Major

Overview

A rhetorical analysis is an examination of how a text persuades us of its point of view. It focuses on identifying and investigating the way a text communicates and what strategies it employs to connect to an audience, frame an issue, establish its stakes, make a particular claim, support it, and persuade the audience to accept the claim. It is not an analysis of what a text says but of what strategies it uses to communicate effectively.

In this paper you will analyze a published work from your field of study. The text you choose to analyze should be representative of the writing you will be required to do in your major courses. For example, if you are an education student, you could choose to analyze a lesson plan or a relevant journal article. The goal of this assignment is two-fold: to gain an understanding of the distinctive features of a genre of writing common in your field of study and to begin establishing the rhetorical analysis skills that will help you recognize the distinctive features of other kinds of writing as well.

Purpose

Your purpose in composing this assignment will be to research the genre of writing you choose to analyze, describe the major features common to the genre, and examine a specific text in relation to these features. In your examination of your chosen text, you must explain how your text follows the features of its genre and/or strays from these and you must discuss why the text is constructed in the manner it is. In other words, you must analyze HOW the text is written and WHY it is written that way. Additionally, in your introduction and conclusion, you should reflect on your writing background within your major and the significance writing has within your field.

Audience

Your audience for this assignment is your instructor, classmates, and members new to your academic community who may be unfamiliar with the type of writing done in your field.

Requirements

Your paper should be accurate and objective. You are not to critique the text you choose, just analyze it. Your final paper should be 2-4 pages, double-spaced. To be successful in this assignment you will need to:

- Give some background on what you are studying and the type of writing you've done in this field. Explain why you are doing your rhetorical analysis. How will it help you in your academic career?
- Research the genre of your chosen text. Provide background on what this type of writing typically looks like. Information can include, but is not limited to: citation styles, sections/headings common to the genre, linguistic features (like passive voice, incomplete sentences, or technical terminology), and organization.
- Identify the particular text you will be analyzing, including the author, title, and date of publication. Briefly summarize the text.

- Analyze the rhetoric of your chosen text. This means you will first have to identify the audience and purpose of your text; then discuss how the author has attempted to achieve this purpose with their audience via their rhetorical choices. This analysis should be done with reference back to your description of the genre. How does the text you are analyzing adhere to and stray from the features you identified? Why did the author choose to write this way?
- Conclude by reflecting on what you have learned. How is this information relevant to you in your continued involvement in your academic community?

Worth 20% of your final grade

Due: TBD

Assignment 4 Rubric

	Excellent (5)	Satisfactory (4)	Unsatisfactory (3)
Description of Genre (6)	It is evident the writer has familiarized themselves with the genre they are writing about (either through research or by reading various texts in the genre). Critical reading of texts in the field is apparent due to a complete and descriptive discussion of the genre.	An attempt has been made to thoroughly examine the genre. Research and critical reading are apparent; however, discussion of the genre is incomplete and does not include enough information to truly familiarize the reader with the genre.	Description of the genre is superficial and incomplete. Research and critical reading are not apparent.
Rhetorical Analysis (6)	Audience and purpose of the text are identified. Discussion of the rhetorical choices the author has made to accomplish this purpose with this audience is the focus of the paper.	Attempt has been made to analyze the rhetorical choices made in the text, but discussion shows a lack of understanding of the concepts.	Paper is mainly focused on summary, rather than analysis.
Reflection on Writing as a Member of an Academic Community (4)	Reflection is thoughtful and successfully contextualizes writer as a member of an academic community and ties the research on genre and rhetorical analysis to their academic experience.	Reflection is present, but not substantial. Student fails to recognize the significance of their research and analysis in relation to their academic experience.	Part of the contextualization is missing. Student either does not identify themselves as a part of their academic community or does not reflect on chosen genre and/or text.
Organization (2)	Ideas are ordered logically, guiding the reader through the text. The paper has a smooth flow due to the use of transitions. Each paragraph has one well supported main point.	Ideas could be more logically ordered, or readers could be guided more effectively through the paper. The flow of the paper is somewhat choppy. Paragraphs may not have a clear main idea or support of the main idea may be lacking.	Ideas do not progress in a logic order. Paragraphs are not centered around an identifiable main idea. Transitions are not used
Conventions and Style (2)	Student has made appropriate choices for an academic essay. The essay is carefully proofread and edited for accuracy and clarity.	Student has attempted to write an academic paper, but the writing is at times too informal for an academic essay. The essay as a whole would benefit from careful proofreading and editing for clarity.	The rhetorical choices are inappropriate for an academic essay. Presentation is unclear and proofreading and editing are necessary due to the inclusion of distracting errors.

APPENDIX F

RAW DATA

participant	cultural integration	mean writing anxiety	mean writing performance
1	3.38	70.00	77.75
2	2.63	84.00	85.75
3	2.00	81.00	80.00
4	2.75	48.50	85.50
5	3.13	76.33	88.88
6	3.13	40.67	76.75
7	3.25	57.67	83.88
8	3.63	74.33	78.75
9	3.00	52.00	91.50
10	3.50	51.33	93.25
11	2.63	62.67	94.38
12	3.25	48.67	89.38
13	3.50	46.33	86.00
14	2.13	67.33	89.88
15	2.38	68.67	91.50
16	3.38	68.67	83.00
17	2.38	59.33	91.13
18	2.75	40.50	79.38
19	2.75	50.00	87.88
20	3.63	28.00	85.50
21	2.88	70.33	87.88
22	3.88	58.33	70.00
23	n/a	56.33	59.25
24	2.63	53.00	85.75
25	2.25	60.00	67.38
26	2.75	71.50	89.38
27	1.88	53.00	87.50
28	3.00	54.67	91.25
29	3.00	49.67	91.50
30	2.13	74.00	87.88
31	1.75	36.00	86.88
32	3.00	79.33	92.88
33	3.88	44.33	89.75

Table 8: Mean scores for cultural integration, writing anxiety, and writing performance

participant	SLWAI 1	SLWAI 2	SLWAI 3
1	69	71	n/a
2	85	83	n/a
3	82	83	78
4	45	52	n/a
5	78	77	74
6	44	39	39
7	56	52	65
8	69	82	72
9	n/a	49	55
10	47	54	53
11	71	64	53
12	52	50	44
13	56	49	34
14	64	71	67
15	73	71	62
16	65	70	71
17	64	60	54
18	37	44	n/a
19	56	43	51
20	32	25	27
21	72	68	71
22	60	53	58
23	58	55	56
24	n/a	61	45
25	66	60	54
26	72	n/a	71
27	n/a	62	44
28	58	53	53
29	61	53	35
30	n/a	69	79
31	41	37	30
32	87	79	72
33	51	38	44

Table 9: Writing anxiety scores

participant	assignment 1 grade	assignment 2 grade	assignment 3 grade	assignment 4 grade
1	74.0	75.0	82.5	75.0
2	79.0	85.5	91.5	87.0
3	85.5	83.5	65.0	86.0
4	84.0	90.0	86.0	82.0
5	80.0	95.0	91.5	89.0
6	70.0	69.0	83.0	85.0
7	76.0	87.5	79.0	93.0
8	74.0	86.0	75.0	80.0
9	90.0	86.0	98.0	92.0
10	89.0	97.0	94.0	93.0
11	90.0	94.0	98.5	95.0
12	87.5	92.0	87.0	91.0
13	87.0	89.0	82.0	86.0
14	81.5	95.0	88.0	95.0
15	82.5	94.0	94.5	95.0
16	63.5	94.0	78.5	96.0
17	80.0	97.0	94.5	93.0
18	72.0	89.5	70.0	86.0
19	83.5	83.5	94.5	90.0
20	87.0	83.0	92.0	80.0
21	90.0	87.5	85.0	89.0
22	64.5	61.5	79.0	75.0
23	83.5	0.0	69.0	85.0
24	83.0	86.0	86.0	88.0
25	67.5	57.0	66.0	79.0
26	85.5	98.5	97.5	76.0
27	86.0	86.0	91.0	87.0
28	91.5	93.5	87.0	93.0
29	90.0	91.5	97.5	87.0
30	87.5	86.0	84.0	94.0
31	81.5	94.0	83.0	89.0
32	85.5	97.5	88.5	100.0
33	93.5	92.5	80.0	93.0

Table 10: Writing performance scores