

Korean Heritage Language Learners' Anxiety : Any Changes over a Year?

Jee, Min Jung The University of Queensland

- I. Introduction
- II. Background
- III. Methods
- IV. Results
- V. Discussion and Conclusion

I. Introduction

Since the 1980s, enrollment in Korean language courses in the U.S. has grown rapidly, and most of the classes (80% to 90%) have consisted of Korean-Americans or Korean heritage language (KHL) learners because of the number of second-generation Korean-American students entering universities (Lee & Shin, 2008; You, 2001). Despite significant numbers of KHL students in Korean language courses (Kim, 2001; Silva, 2007; You, 2001), little attention has been paid to these students especially their affective experiences learning Korean as their heritage language. Most universities in the U.S. that offer Korean language courses do not have different programs or tracks for heritage and non-heritage Korean students, even though concerns regarding the issue has been raised during the past decade (Lee, 2001; Kim, 2001). Because of the diverse backgrounds in terms of the proficiency levels of KHL students, many issues such as curriculum, teaching materials, and instructor training have been raised (You, 2001). Moreover, as Lee (2001) suggested, the heritage learners are the optimal target population to meet the “professional” proficiency

level (Superior Level of ACTFL¹ scale or Level 3 proficiency in ILR²) which would allow them to contribute to national security, as Korean has been designated a critical language by the U.S. government. In addition, as language maintenance has become an important issue in heritage language education, substantial benefits of bilingualism have been reported, such as higher grades (Bankston & Zhou, 1995; Lee, 2002; Rumberger & Larson, 1998), greater cognitive flexibility (Cummins, 1981; Hakuta, 1986), and higher standardized test scores (Lee, 2002) than for monolingual students. However, with increased interest in learning Korean because of the social and economic status of Korea internationally, there have been few empirical studies on KHL learners' affect such as motivation, attitude, strategy use, and individual differences. Because anxiety as a critical factor in foreign language learning has been shown by many studies, there is a need to examine KHL learners' anxiety, especially in skill-based anxiety (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing). Moreover, most studies adopted a one-time method investigating the level of anxiety at a certain level and moment, so there is a need to track any changes over a period of time in order to fully explore students' affective domain. Therefore, this study aims to provide a better understanding of KHL learners' anxiety by investigating this in terms of oral, aural, reading, and writing over a year and correlating it with students' achievement as a way of providing insights for instructors and researchers who are interested in teaching and researching KHL learners.

1 <http://www.actfl.org/publications/guidelines-and-manuals/actfl-proficiency-guidelines-2012>.

2 Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR).

II. Background

1. Different Types of Foreign Language Anxiety

There have been numerous empirical studies regarding foreign language (FL) anxiety, especially oral and aural anxiety, in order to investigate the sources of anxiety that could hinder students' foreign language learning. Generally, anxiety can be distinguished into three types: trait, situation-specific, and state (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991), and in foreign and second language education, FL anxiety is considered as state anxiety or situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). After Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), many researchers have been focused on the effect of foreign language classroom anxiety on students' achievement. Most studies reported that anxiety caused negative effects on students' achievement (Aida, 1994; Cheng, 2002; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, 1986; Kim, 2010; Kim, Nam, & Kwon, 2010; Kwon & Kim, 2011; Truitt, 1995; Trylong, 1987; Wu, 1994; Ying, 1993; Young, 1986), showing that students with high anxiety had lower achievement than students with lower anxiety. However, some studies reported that anxiety was not necessarily detrimental (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Jee, 2014; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001), indicating that highly achieving students also had moderate to high levels of anxiety. Even with abundant findings, the question of adequacy of the scale has been raised (Cheng et al., 1999). The studies that used FLCAS took final grades as measures of second language achievement (Horwitz, 2001); however, the problems is that the overall final grades of four skills may not reflect speaking-specific ability of the students. Moreover, the studies were mainly done with students learning English, so there is still room for cross-language differences of the scale. In addition, as Sparks and Ganschow (1996)

claimed, poor language learning may cause the anxiety, and not vice versa. Therefore, interpreting the results are controversial because of numerous variables that may interfere with students' anxiety in learning a foreign or second language. In addition, whereas most studies on FL anxiety focused on the oral and aural aspects of language use (i.e., speaking and listening), some researchers tried to find other types of anxiety, such as reading anxiety (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999) and writing anxiety (Cheng et al., 1999; Daly & Miller, 1975). Saito et al. (1999) developed the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), insisting that while general FL anxiety has been found to be independent of the target language, FL reading anxiety seemed to vary depending on the specific writing system. They also found that FL anxiety and FL reading anxiety showed high positive correlations, implying that students with high FL anxiety also tended to have high anxiety in reading. Most studies on FL reading anxiety have reported negative effects on reading comprehension grades (Hou, 2009; Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000), indicating that students' grades decreased when their perceived reading anxiety level increased. However, like general FL classroom anxiety, reading anxiety has several factors that may influence the students' performance, such as the level of reading materials and specific writing systems (Saito et al., 1999) as well as processing time and students' level of proficiency (Culler & Hollahan, 1980). Regarding writing anxiety, the majority of the studies have been done with first language learners (Cheng et al., 1999), while there are few studies of writing anxiety with respect to foreign or second language learners. Most of the studies on the effects of anxiety on writing performance revealed that writing anxiety, also, is adversely related to students' writing performance (Cheng et al., 1999; Daly, 1978; Lee & Krashen, 1997; Richmond & Dickson-Markman, 1985). However, as with other types of anxiety, there are several factors that should be considered, such as time pressure (Kean, Gylmn, & Britton, 1987) and genre as well as the topic of the writing (Faigley, Daly, & Witte, 1981; Madigan, Linton, & Johnson, 1996).

2. Studies on Heritage Learners' Affect

Recently, as many scholars and teachers in second language acquisition (SLA) have seen with students from a sociocultural perspective, many studies have been done in terms of students' motivation, affect, and strategy use (Kramsch, 2003). However, only a few studies have been conducted focusing on heritage learners. Levine (2003) found that students from bilingual or multilingual backgrounds tended to have less anxiety than students from monolingual backgrounds, indicating that heritage students may have less anxiety than non-heritage students. Mejías, Applbaum, Applbaum, and Trotter (1991) found that some heritage Hispanic students, especially male students, felt anxious when they spoke Spanish in a formal context. Tallon's (2003) study indicated that heritage Spanish speaking students had less anxiety than non-heritage Spanish students in first-semester Spanish classes. In another study, Tallon (2004) found that heritage students in second-semester Spanish classes had relatively low anxiety about speaking Spanish, while they experienced other types of anxiety, such as reading and writing anxiety. Tallon (2009, 2011) also found similar results in different studies: heritage Spanish students had lower anxiety scores than non-heritage students in Spanish, but they had high anxiety in writing (2014). The results were also supported by Xiao and Wong's (2014) study with Chinese heritage students, finding that these students had lower general anxiety than other non-heritage students, but they showed high level of writing anxiety.

Regarding KHL learners, only a small number of studies have been done so far. Lee and Shin (2008) investigated KHL students' motivation, attitude, and instructional needs with 111 undergraduate students who enrolled in first-year Korean, second-year Korean, and third-year Korean courses in two universities in the U.S. They found that KHL students showed high motivation in "heritage ties-related" motivation and low motivation in "school-related" motivation. Moreover, about half of the students (47.3%) answered that their heritage

language was the main connector to their roots and family, and 24.7% said that the heritage language defined their ethnic identity. In addition, heritage Korean students felt anxiety in the actual use of the language because of high expectations on the part of the instructor and peers. Thus, the researchers suggested that heritage learners need to have sheltered contact with native Koreans and other heritage Koreans in a safe and non-threatening way. Kim (2001) also examined KHL students' motivation and attitude toward the heritage language, and the results were very similar to Lee and Shin's (2008) study. The first reason for heritage Koreans to learn Korean was to communicate better with their parents and relatives, and the second reason was to maintain their heritage language. Moreover, the students had positive attitudes toward learning Korean; 68.4% of the students felt Korean language classes were interesting, and 65.8% thought the classes were helpful and useful. Another study by Jee (2011) reported similar findings. Most of the KHL students were studying Korean to communicate with their parents. Moreover, the students thought that becoming bilingual was beneficial because they could develop a broader understanding of other people. Specifically with anxiety, Kim's (2010) study examined KHL students' anxiety, goal orientation, and their relation to achievement in a writing class. She found a negative correlation between anxiety and achievement, as indicated in other studies with non-heritage students (Aida, 1994; Cheng, 2002; Cheng et al., 1999; Horwitz, 1986; Kim et al., 2010; Kwon & Kim, 2011; Truitt, 1995; Trylong, 1987; Wu, 1994; Ying, 1993; Young, 1986). Moreover, there was no association between achievement goals and performance, but anxiety and functional goals were found to predict students' performance. However, in Jee's (2012) study, KHL students had little bit higher levels of anxiety than "true novice" students, and there were positive correlations between anxiety level and achievement. In fact, students with higher anxiety levels tended to have higher final grades, which was contrary to most of the previous studies. However, in a study by Kim, Lee, Baik, Lee, and Kim (2012), KHL students had high-

er levels of motivation and lower levels of anxiety than other American students. Thus, the results are still controversial regarding interfering factors such as learner level and learning environment, so careful consideration is needed to interpret the results.

Based on the current literature, only a few studies have been done with KHL learners' affective domains, especially anxiety, and no longitudinal studies have been conducted to look at changes of anxiety levels over a year. Thus, this study is an attempt to understand KHL learners' anxiety using three instruments, FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986), FLRAS by Saito et al. (1999), and Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) by Daly and Miller (1975), and has three research questions:

- 1) Are there significant differences in FLCAS, FLRAS, and WAT scores between the two semesters?
- 2) To what extent do correlations exist among FLCAS, FLRAS, and WAT?
- 3) How closely are classroom anxiety, reading anxiety, and writing anxiety related to students' achievements?

III. Methods

1. Participants

In order to investigate any changes in different types of anxiety over a year, sixteen KHL learners who took both first and second semester heritage-track intensive Korean courses participated in this study. Ten were male and six were female, and their average age was 20.4. Based on previous studies with KHL students (Kang & Kim, 2012; Lee, 2002), only students who were Korean-American, had parents who were immigrants in the U.S., and had 10 years of education in the U.S. prior to entering college participated. Ten students were born in the U.S. and six students who were born in Korea moved to

the U.S. before age of seven. Only four students who were born in the U.S. had visited Korea during summer vacations before they started formal schooling in the U.S. for a certain period of time (total of one to nine months). None of the students who were born in Korea had visited Korea after immigration. Half of them answered that they use Korean at home often but all of them use English exclusively with other friends or outside of home.

The first-semester Korean class was an intensive course for only KHL students, consisting of 6 hours of a week for 15 weeks, and the second-semester Korean class was the continuation of the first-semester Korean course with the similar class schedule. These two courses focused on the four language skills with special emphasis on formal use of Korean, reading, and writing. The starting speaking level of the first-semester course was intermediate-low, and its reading and writing level was novice-mid. The exit level of the second-semester course was advanced-low for speaking, and intermediate-mid for reading and writing based on the ACTFL proficiency guideline (2012). Culture was also a focus as much as possible during the semesters, such as participating in Korean holiday celebration in a Korean school and telecollaborative project with Korean students learning English in Korea.

2. Instruments

1) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale or FLCAS (Appendix 1) was developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope in 1986. Since then, numerous studies have used the scale. Its internal consistency by Cronbach's alpha was reported as .93 ($n=108$) in Horwitz (1986), and the reliability was $r=.83$ (Horwitz et al., 1986). The instrument consists of 33 items asking about oral and aural skills and general foreign language anxiety. Each item is rated on a 5-Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), and the

instrument has three sub categories: Communication Apprehension, Test Anxiety, and Fear of Negative Evaluation in the foreign language classroom. Since it was originally designed for anxiety related to English language learning, wording changes (“English” to “Korean”) were made whenever necessary. Moreover, nine items written positively were reversed during the data analysis.

2) Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS)

The Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale, or FLRAS (Appendix 2), was developed by Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999), inspired by FLCAS. They reported its internal consistency coefficient as .86 ($n=383$). The FLRAS has 20 items and the items are rated on a 5-Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Wording changes (“English” to “Korean”) were also made whenever necessary. Four items written positively were reversed during the data analysis.

3) Writing Anxiety Test (WAT)

In order to measure students’ writing anxiety, the Writing Apprehension Test or WAT (Daly & Miller, 1975) was adopted (Appendix 3). Wiltse (2002) reported its reliability of .95 ($n=188$); it has 26 items rated on a 5-Likert scale. Because it was originally designed for writing in general, wording changes were made whenever necessary. In addition, positively written items were reversed during the data analysis.

4) Achievement

Students’ grades on oral midterm exams of each semester were used as the oral test grades in order to investigate correlations with anxiety scales. The oral midterm of the first-semester Korean class was a three-minute self-introduction in Korean to the class. That of the second-semester Korean class was a three-minute interview with the instructor. Both tests were evaluated on fluency (4%), accuracy (4%), and posture (2%). Reading and writing grades were also used to explore correlations with other anxiety scales. For reading grades,

midterm grades of both semesters were used. The midterms of the two semesters were designed to evaluate students' reading comprehension based on the textbook. For writing, one section of the final exams was used. The final exam ran for three hours each semester, and the students were supposed to write an essay. Topics were given such as "My last vacation, and "Holidays in America and Korea." The essay was graded based on: accurate grammar use (3%), accurate word/expression use (3%), coherence (2%), and length (2%).

3. Procedures and Data Analysis

Students' consent forms were collected during the second week of each semester, and the first survey on anxiety and the background questionnaire were conducted during the 4th week of the first semester. The same survey was used during the last week of the second semester. For statistical data analysis, SPSS version 21 was used. Because of the small number of the participants, Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test was used to compare any changes over the semester, and Pearson Correlation was used to investigate any correlations among the variables.

IV. Results

RQ1. Are there significant differences in FLCAS, FLRAS, and WAT scores between the two semesters?

Considering that the possible range of FLCAS scores is between 33 and 165, and the theoretical mean score is 99, the heritage students in this study had relatively low level of anxiety (table 1). The two mean scores of the first semester and the second semester were lower than previous studies with non-heritages students (Aida, 1994; Donley 1997; Horwitz et al., 1986; Palacios, 1998; Tallon 2003, Truitt 1995)

and even with heritage students (Tallon, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2011, 2014; Xiao & Wong, 2014). The mean scores were slightly reduced in the second semester, but there were no significant differences between the two semesters. Regarding reading anxiety, the possible range of FLRAS scores is between 20 and 100, and the theoretical mean score is 60. Thus, students in this study also showed slightly low level of reading anxiety. Like the FLCAS, the scores were slightly reduced in the second semester, but no significant differences were observed. With regard to WAT, the possible range of WAT scores is between 26 and 130, and the theoretical mean score is 78. Thus, the students showed moderate level of writing anxiety in the first semester and the score was slightly reduced in the second semester. However, there were no significant differences between the mean scores of the two semesters. Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the three measures

	First Semester				Second Semester			
	Min.	Max.	M	SD	Min.	Max.	M	SD
FLCAS	53	119	83.7	18.53	49	136	82.1	21.96
FLRAS	24	81	50.3	14.63	23	92	48.1	15.57
WAT	52	111	78.5	15.13	26	122	72.3	20.58

Regarding the subcategories of FLCAS, students showed a moderate level or slightly lower level of anxiety and no significant differences were observed between the two semesters. While there were no differences in the mean scores of Fear to Negative Evaluation (FNE), the mean scores of Communication Apprehension (CA) and Test Anxiety (TA) were slightly reduced in the second semester (table 2).

Table 2. Means scores of the subcategories of FLCAS

	First Semester		Second Semester	
	M ³	SD	M	SD
CA	2.9	.77	2.6	.78
FNE	2.5	.78	2.5	.75
TA	2.6	.48	2.5	.74

In sum, statistically, there were no significant differences between the first and the second semesters with respect to FLCAS, WAT, and FLRS. However, there was a tendency of slightly decreasing scores of the anxiety in the second semester.

By items of FLCAS, in the first semester, students had highest anxiety on the teacher's correction (item 18⁴, M=4.37), and it continued into the next semester even with a slight drop of the mean score. In the second semester, students showed the highest anxiety on the item 9, "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in the Korean class." (M=4.06) In addition, students expressed the lowest anxiety level to the item number 26, "I feel more tense and nervous in my Korean class than in any other classes," (M=1.87) in the first semester, and to the item number 21, "The more I study for Korean, the more confused I get," (M=1.56) in the second semester. Thus, as the table 2 indicates, the students had highest anxiety in CA (items of 9 and 18) and lowest anxiety in TA (items of 21 and 26) throughout a year.

With regards to FLRAS, students showed the highest anxiety on the item 2, "When reading Korean, I often understand the words but still can't understand what the author is saying," in both semesters (1st semester M=3.18, and 2nd semester M=3.37). Thus, students had difficulties on processing the meaning of text, which is the high level of reading process (Saito et al., 1999). Moreover, in the first semester,

3 Based on 5-Likert Scale (1 to 5), 3 is the median.

4 I am afraid that my Korean teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

students had high anxiety on reading itself (items of 1⁵ and 3⁶), and later on, they distinguished reading anxiety from other anxieties (item 15⁷) and their expectation grew that they should know everything (item 6⁸). In addition, they showed a moderate level of anxiety on reading out loud (M=2.68). That might be explained by the instruction as when a new chapter began, several students were called to read aloud to the class.

In addition, students showed the least anxiety on the item 11, “I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read Korean,” (1st semester M=2.0, and 2nd semester M=1.81) probably because they were already familiar with the Korean alphabet and they had least problem in decoding the symbols. Furthermore, in the second semester, they expressed a positive view of reading in Korean by marking item 4, “Once you get used to it, reading Korean is not so difficult,” lowest score (Mean=1.81).

Regarding WAT, students showed the highest anxiety on being read and evaluated by others (item 9⁹) in both semesters, similar to FLCAS. Then, students showed low self-confidence in writing in Korean (items of 11¹⁰ and 23¹¹) in both semesters. Considering that self-confidence plays an important role in anxiety (Chen et al., 1999), it explains why the students had higher anxiety levels in writing than in classroom and reading anxiety. However, students seemed to have a positive view of writing in Korean by marking item 8, “Express-

-
- 5 I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I'm reading in Korean (M=2.87).
 - 6 When I'm reading in Korean, I get so confused I can't remember what I'm reading (M=3.0).
 - 7 The hardest part of learning Korean is learning to read (Mean=2.87).
 - 8 I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading Korean (M=2.68).
 - 9 I would enjoy submitting my writing in Korean to magazines for evaluation and publication (1st semester M=3.81 and 2nd semester M=3.87).
 - 10 I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas when writing in Korean (1st semester M=3.68 and 2nd semester M=3.37).
 - 11 It's easy for me to write good compositions in Korean (1st semester M=3.75 and 2nd semester M=3.37).

ing ideas through writing in Korean seems to be a waste of time,” (M=1.81) the lowest anxiety in the first semester, and item 18, “I expect to do poorly in Korean composition classes even before I enter them,” (M=1.93) in the second semester.

RQ2. To what extent do correlations exist among FLCAS, FLRAS, and WAT?

All three types of anxiety were highly correlated with each other as in previous studies (Cheng et al., 1999; Saito et al., 1999). The table 3 reports the results; positive correlations between the first semester anxiety scores and the second semester anxiety scores were observed. In other words, students with high anxiety in all anxiety types in the first semester tended to continue to have high anxiety in the second semester, and students with low anxiety in the first semester tended to have low anxiety in the next semester. Thus, one type of anxiety level in the first semester can be a predictor of the other types of anxiety level in the next year.

More specifically, FLCAS scores had highly positive correlations with FLRAS scores in both semesters. That means students with high classroom anxiety in the first semester showed high anxiety in both classroom and reading anxiety in the next semester, and vice versa. In other words, classroom anxiety and reading anxiety of the first semester can be predictors of those of the next semester. Regarding the writing anxiety, the first semester writing anxiety were highly correlated with classroom anxiety, reading anxiety, and the second semester writing anxiety in a positive way. That means students with high writing anxiety in the first semester were likely to have high level of classroom and reading anxiety in the first semester, and these students also continued their high level of anxiety in the second semester. However, the second semester writing anxiety only showed a high positive correlation with the second semester of classroom and reading anxiety. That is, students with high writing anxiety in the second

semester tended to have high level of classroom anxiety and reading anxiety in the same semester, and students with high anxiety level in classroom and reading in the first semester may not show similar level of anxiety in writing in the second semester.

Table 3. Correlations among the scales

		FLCAS1	FLCAS2	FLRAS1	FLRAS2	WAT1	WAT2
FLCAS1 ¹²	Pearson Correlation	1	.736**	.811**	.588*	.780**	.317
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000	.017	.000	.231
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
FLCAS2	Pearson Correlation	.736**	1	.823**	.880**	.761**	.744**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000	.000	.001	.001
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
FLRAS1	Pearson Correlation	.811**	.823**	1	.727**	.764**	.403
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001	.001	.122
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
FLRAS2	Pearson Correlation	.588*	.880**	.727**	1	.653**	.709**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.000	.001		.006	.002
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
WAT1	Pearson Correlation	.780**	.761**	.764**	.653**	1	.610*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.001	.006		.012
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16
WAT2	Pearson Correlation	.317	.744**	.403	.709**	.610*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.231	.001	.122	.002	.012	
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

12 “1” stands for the first semester and “2” stands for the second semester.

RQ3. How closely are classroom anxiety, reading anxiety, and writing anxiety related to students' achievements?

FLCAS scores and oral test grades showed highly negative correlations between the two semesters (table 4). Namely, students with high classroom anxiety tended to have lower grades in speaking in both semesters.

Table 4. Correlations between FLCAS and oral test grades

		Grade1	Grade2
FLCAS1	Pearson Correlation	-.523*	-.644**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.007
	N	16	16
FLCAS2	Pearson Correlation	-.609*	-.661**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.005
	N	16	16

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regarding reading anxiety, FLRAS and reading test grades showed negative correlations, and only the second semester reading anxiety had highly negative correlation with the first semester reading test grades (table 5). In other words, students with low grades in reading test in the first semester tended to have high level of reading anxiety in the second semester. Thus, the first semester reading test scores can be a predictor of the reading anxiety level in the second semester.

Table 5. Correlations between FLRAS and reading test grades

		Grade1	Grade2
FLRAS1	Pearson Correlation	-.429	-.293
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.270
	N	16	16

FLRAS2	Pearson Correlation	-.568*	-.444
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.085
	N	16	16

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As other anxiety scales, writing anxiety had negative correlations with the writing test grades (table 6). The first semester writing anxiety showed a high negative correlation with the second semester writing test grades. That is, students with higher writing anxiety in the first semester tended to have lower writing test grades in the second semester than did students with lower writing anxiety in the first semester. Thus, the first semester writing anxiety level can be a predictor of the writing performance of the second semester.

Table 6. Correlations between WAT and writing test grades

		Grade1	Grade2
WAT1	Pearson Correlation	-.478	-.507*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.061	.045
	N	16	16
WAT2	Pearson Correlation	-.347	-.352
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.188	.181
	N	16	16

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

V. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study investigated changes of KHL learners' three types of anxiety over a year and their correlations with achievements. As other previous studies, KHL learners showed relatively low level

of anxiety, and the scores of all anxiety scales had highly negative correlations with achievements (Aida, 1994; Cheng, 2002; Cheng et al., 1999; Daly, 1978; Horwitz, 1986; Hou, 2009; Kim, 2010; Kim et al., 2010; Kwon and Kim, 2011; Lee & Krashen, 1997; Richmond & Dickson-Markman, 1985; Saito et al., 1999; Sellers, 2000; Truitt, 1995; Trylong, 1987; Wu, 1994; Ying, 1993; Young, 1986), confirming that students with high anxiety had lower achievement than students with lower anxiety. Moreover, heritage students feared writing more than reading and speaking (Tallon 2014; Xiao & Wong, 2014), suggesting special care for writing instruction for heritage students. In addition, all three anxiety measures showed highly positive correlations with each other (Cheng et al., 1999; Saito et al., 1999), indicating that one type of anxiety can be a predictor of other types of anxiety.

With FLCAS, the students showed relatively moderate to high anxiety level in CA and low anxiety in TA. In writing anxiety, students expressed high level of anxiety in a situation when their writing was shown to others and evaluated. Because both speaking and writing are productive processes, students seemed to feel uncomfortable when their product (either speaking or writing) were presented and evaluated by others, including the instructor. In terms of reading anxiety, students showed high anxiety in processing the meaning of the text rather than just decoding letters. Moreover, they felt anxious when they were supposed to read the text out loud, which is also related to speaking anxiety.

In sum, instructors who teach KHL students should be aware that heritage students have moderate levels of all three types of anxiety, and the instructors need to make effort to reduce anxiety as much as possible because of negative correlations between anxiety and achievement. Positive feedback from the instructor and group work may reduce students' classroom anxiety. Constructing a strong bond with students can also create a supportive environment. With reading anxiety, as Saito et al. (1999) noted, students may feel anxious about reading-aloud activities, so group reading with a small number

of students and limiting corrections are suggested. Peer collaboration or peer correction rather than instructor's correction may reduce anxiety, too. Regarding writing anxiety, giving ample time for brainstorming and opportunities for revision may help to reduce their anxiety. In addition, online writing may increase students' motivation and interest (Lee, 2006; Yi, 2008). Furthermore, extracurricular activities such as working as a "language expert" by tutoring non-heritage students might be helpful for heritage Korean students to motivate them. Lastly, instructors should respect the students' home language. Some students may have dialect accents or fossilized expressions, and it is extremely difficult to correct these conditions. However, these languages are also integral to the students' identity, so instructors should be cautious when correcting these expressions to avoid embarrassing the students.

Like other studies, the study results should be interpreted with caution. First of all, the instruments (FLCAS, FLRAS, and WAT) were not originally intended to measure heritage students' anxiety. Therefore, the instruments might not be the best ones to measure heritage students' anxiety levels. In addition, in this study, the number of participants were small, so the validity of the study may not be secure enough to generalize the results. Moreover, the study was done with a particular group of students in a particular institute, so the results should be interpreted in the context of KHL students who enrolled in Korean classes in a large public university in the U.S. Finally, the present study depended only on quantitative analysis, but in order to fully explore students' psychology of anxiety, other qualitative methods, such as interviews, think-aloud protocols, and students' journals, are recommended.

* Submitted: 2014.10.31.
first Revision Received: 2014.12.04.
Accepted: 2014.12.04.

REFERENCES

- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese, *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155 - 168.
- ACTFL proficiency guideline (2012). American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Retrieved from <http://www.actfl.org/publications/guidelines-and-manuals/actfl-proficiency-guidelines-2012>.
- Bankston, C., & Zhou, M. (1995). Effects of minority-language literacy on the academic achievement of Vietnamese youths in New Orleans, *Sociology of Education*, 68(1), 1 - 17.
- Cheng, Y. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety, *Foreign Language Annals*, 35, 647 - 656.
- Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components, *Language learning*, 49, 417 - 44.
- Culler, R. E., & Hollahan, C. J. (1980). Test anxiety and academic performance: The effects of study-related behaviors, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 16 - 20.
- Cummins, J. (1981). *Bilingualism and Minority Language Children*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Daly, J. A. (1978). Writing apprehension and writing competence, *Journal of Educational Research*, 72, 10 - 14.
- Daly, J. A., & Miller, M. D. (1975). The empirical development of an instrument of writing apprehension, *Research in the Teaching of English*, 9, 242 - 249.
- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of language learning success, *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 67 - 89.
- Faigley, L., Daly, J. A., & Witte, S. P. (1981). The role of writing apprehension in writing performance and competence, *Journal of Educational Research*, 75, 16 - 21.
- Hakuta, K. (1986). *Mirror of language: The debate on bilingualism*. New York: Basic Books.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale, *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 559 - 562.
- _____. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement, *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 21, 112 - 126.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety, *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125 - 132.
- Hou, Y. C. (2000). A study on junior college students' reading anxiety in English as a

- foreign language, Unpublished master's thesis, National Chung Cheng University, Chiayi, Taiwan.
- Jee, M. (2011). Perspectives on the learning of Korean and identity formation in Korean heritage learners, *Teaching Korean as a Foreign Language*, 36, 239-263.
- _____. (2012). Effects of language anxiety on three levels of classes of Korean as a foreign language, *Journal of Korean Language Education*, 23(2), 265-289.
- _____. (2014). Affective factors in Korean as a Foreign Language: anxiety and beliefs, *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 27(2), 182-195.
- Kean, D., Gylmn, S., & Britton, B. (1987). Writing persuasive documents: The role of students' verbal aptitude and evaluation anxiety, *Journal of Experimental Education*, 55, 95-102.
- Kang, H. S., & Kim, I. S. (2012). Perceived and actual competence and ethnic identity in heritage language learning: A case of Korean-American college students, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 279-294.
- Kim, H. (2001). Heritage students' perspectives on language classes, *The Korean Language in America (conference proceedings)*, 6, 315-326.
- Kim, S. (2010). Korean heritage learners' affect and performance, *Studies in Foreign Language Education*, 24(1), 243-267.
- Kim, Y., Lee, S., Baik, J., Lee, S., & Kim, A. (2012). American learners' Korean language acquisition and their cognitive and psychological constrains, *Bilingual Research*, 49, 59-86.
- Kim, Y. J., Nam, S. E., & Kwon, Y. J. (2010). The effect of foreign Language anxiety and classroom climate on learning achievement: Focusing on Korean Language Learners, *The Academy for Korean Language Education*, 85, 381-402.
- Kramsch, C. (2003). What the study of heritage language learners can bring to second language acquisition research, *The Korean Language in America*, 8, 1-2.
- Kwon, Y. J., & Kim, Y. J. (2011). The influence of foreign Language anxiety and risk-taking on the achievement in Korean Language Learners, *Bilingual Research*, 45, 27-49.
- Lee, D. J. (2001). Recent trends in foreign language teaching in the United States: The role of heritage learners, *The Korean Language in America (conference proceedings)*, 6, 203-211.
- Lee, J. (2002). The Korean language in America: The role of cultural identity in heritage language learning, *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 15(2), 117-33.
- _____. (2006). Exploring the relationship between electronic literacy and heritage language maintenance, *Language Learning & Technology*, 10(2), 93-113.
- Lee, J., & Shin, S. (2008). Korean heritage language education in the United States: The

- current state, opportunities, and possibilities, *Heritage Language Journal*, 6(2), 1-20.
- Lee, S. (2002). The significance of language and cultural education on secondary achievement: A survey of Chinese American and Korean American students, *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26, 213-224.
- Lee, S. Y., & Krashen, S. (1997). Writing apprehension in Chinese as a first language, *ITL Review of Applied Linguistics* (115-116), 27-37.
- Levine, G. (2003). Student and instructor beliefs and attitudes about target language use, first language use, and anxiety: Report of a questionnaire study, *Modern Language Journal*, 87, 343-364.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification, *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Language anxiety: Its relationship to other anxieties and to processing in native and second languages, *Language Learning*, 41, 513-534.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language, *Language Learning*, 44, 283-305.
- Marcos-Llinas, M., & Garau, M. J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency level courses of Spanish as a foreign language, *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 94-111.
- Madigan, R., Linton, E., & Johnson, S. (1996). The paradox of writing apprehension, In L. Gregg & E. R. Steinberg (eds.), *Cognitive processes in writing* (295-307), Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mejías, H., Applbaum, R. L., Applbaum, S. J., & Trotter, R. T. (1991). Oral communication apprehension and Hispanics: An exploration of oral communication apprehension among Mexican American students in Texas, In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (87-97). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Palacios, L. M. (1998). Foreign language anxiety and classroom environment: A study of Spanish university students, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX.
- Richmond, V. P., & Dickson-Markman, E. (1985). Validity of the writing apprehension test: Two studies, *Psychological Reports*, 56, 255-259.
- Rumberger, R., & Larson, K. (1998). Toward explaining differences in educational achievement Among Mexican American language-minority students, *Sociology of Education*, 71(1), 68-92.
- Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Garza, T. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety, *Modern*

- Language Journal*, 83, 202-218.
- Sparks, R. J., & Ganschow, L. (1996). Anxiety about foreign language learning among high school women, *The Modern Language Journal*, 80, 199-212.
- Sellers, V. D. (2000). Anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language, *Foreign Language Annals*, 33, 512-520.
- Silva, D. J. (2007). Issues in Korean language teaching in the United States: Recent facts and figures, *The Korean Language in America*, 12, 106-125.
- Spielmann, G., & Radnofsky, M. (2001). Learning language under tension: New directions from a qualitative study, *Modern Language Journal*, 8, 259-278.
- Tallon, M. (2003). The effects of computer-mediated communication on foreign language anxiety in heritage students of Spanish and non-heritage students: A preliminary investigation, Unpublished manuscript, The University of Texas, Austin.
- _____ (2004). The effects of foreign language anxiety on heritage students of Spanish: A preliminary investigation, Unpublished manuscript, The University of Texas, Austin.
- _____ (2009). Foreign language anxiety and heritage students of Spanish: A quantitative study, *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 112-137.
- _____ (2011). Heritage speakers of Spanish and foreign language anxiety: A pilot study, *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*, 15, 70-82.
- _____ (2014). The effects of foreign language anxiety on heritage students of Spanish: A preliminary investigation, *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*, 16(1), 7-42.
- Truitt, S. N. (1995). Anxiety and beliefs about language learning: a study of Korean University students learning English, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas, Austin, TX.
- Trylong, V. L. (1987). Aptitude, attitudes, and anxiety: A study of their relationships to achievement in the foreign language classroom, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN.
- Wiltse, E. M. (2002). Correlates of college students' use of instructors' comments, *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, 57(2), 126-138.
- Wu, C. O. (1994). Communication Apprehension, Anxiety, and Achievement: A Study of University Students of English in Taiwan, Unpublished master's thesis, University of Texas, Austin.
- Xiao, Y., & Wong, K. F. (2014). Exploring heritage language anxiety: A study of Chinese heritage language learners, *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 589-611.
- Yi, Y. (2008). Voluntary writing in the heritage language: A study of biliterate Korean

- heritage adolescents in the U.S, *Heritage Language Journal*, 6(2), 72-93.
- Ying, H. H. (1993). The Effects of Anxiety on English Learning of the Senior High School Students in Taiwan, Unpublished master's thesis, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan.
- You, C. (2001). Heritage vs. non-heritage issues revisited, *The Korean Language in America (conference proceedings)*, 6, 275-284.
- Young, D. J. (1986). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency rating, *Foreign Language Annals*, 19, 439-445.

ABSTRACT

Korean Heritage Language Learners' Anxiety : Any Change over a Year?

Jee, Min Jung

The present study investigated changes in three types of anxiety by Korean heritage language learners over a year and their correlations with achievement. The study population consisted of sixteen Korean heritage students who took two semesters of a Korean class offered by a large public university in the U.S. As other previous studies, Korean heritage learners showed a relatively low level of anxiety in all three different measures and had highly negative correlations with achievement, confirming that students with high anxiety had lower achievement than students with lower anxiety. Moreover, all three anxiety measures showed highly positive correlations with each other, indicating that one type of anxiety can be a predictor of other types of anxiety.

KEYWORDS Korean heritage language learner, anxiety in foreign language learning, learner affect, Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL)

APPENDIX 1

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the Korean class.
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in the Korean class.
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in the Korean class.
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the Korean class.
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more Korean classes.
6. During Korean class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my Korean class.
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in the Korean class.
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my Korean class.
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over Korean language classes.
12. In Korean class, I can get so nervous and I forget things I know.
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my Korean class.
14. I would not be nervous speaking Korean with native speakers.
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
16. Even if I am well prepared for the Korean class, I feel anxious about it.
17. I often feel like not going to my Korean class.
18. I am afraid that my Korean teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
19. I feel confident when I speak in the Korean class.
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in class.
21. The more I study for a Korean study, the more confused I get.
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for the Korean test.
23. I always feel that the other students speak Korean better than I do.
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking Korean in front of other students.
25. Korean class moves so quickly and I worry about getting left behind.
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my Korean class than in any other classes.
27. I get nervous when I am speaking in my Korean class.
28. When I'm on my way to Korean class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the Korean teacher says.
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules one has to learn to speak Korean.
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak Korean.

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of Korean.
33. I get nervous when the Korean teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared.

APPENDIX 2

Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS)

1. I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I'm reading in Korean.
2. When reading Korean, I often understand the words but still can't understand what the author is saying.
3. When I'm reading Korean, I get so confused I can't remember what I'm reading.
4. I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of Korean in front of me.
5. I am nervous when I am reading a passage in Korean when I am not familiar with the topic.
6. I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading Korean.
7. When reading Korean, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word.
8. It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce while reading Korean.
9. I usually end up translating word by word when I'm reading Korean in front of me.
10. By the time you get past the funny letters and symbols in Korean, it's hard to remember what you're reading about.
11. I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read Korean.
12. I enjoy reading Korean.
13. I feel confident when I am reading in Korean.
14. Once you get used to it, reading Korean is not so difficult.
15. The hardest part of learning Korean is learning to read.
16. I would be happy just to learn to speak Korean rather than having to learn to read as well.
17. I don't mind reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read Korean aloud.
18. I am satisfied with the level of reading ability in Korean that I have achieved so far.
19. Korean culture and ideas seem very foreign to me.
20. You have to know so much about Korean history and culture in order to read Korean.

APPENDIX 3

Writing Apprehension Test (WAT)

1. I avoid writing in Korean.
2. I have no fear of my writing in Korean being evaluated.
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas in Korean.
4. I am afraid of writing essays in Korean when I know they will be evaluated.
5. Taking a composition course in Korean is a very frightening experience.
6. Handing in a composition in Korean makes me feel good.
7. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition in Korean.
8. Expressing ideas through writing in Korean seems to be a waste of time.
9. I would enjoy submitting my writing in Korean to magazines for evaluation and publication.
10. I like to write my ideas down in Korean.
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas when writing in Korean.
12. I like to have my friends read what I have written in Korean.
13. I'm nervous about writing in Korean.
14. People seem to enjoy what I write in Korean.
15. I enjoy writing in Korean.
16. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas in Korean.
17. Writing in Korean is a lot of fun.
18. I expect to do poorly in Korean composition classes even before I enter them.
19. I like seeing my thoughts on paper in Korean.
20. Discussing my writing in Korean with others is an enjoyable experience.
21. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a Korean composition course.
22. When I hand in a composition in Korean I know I'm going to do poorly.
23. It's easy for me to write good compositions in Korean.
24. I don't think I write as well in Korean as most other people.
25. I don't like my composition in Korean to be evaluated.
26. I'm no good at writing in Korean.