ESL Writing Anxiety, Writer's Native Language, ESL Writing Self-Efficacy and ESL Writing Performance: Insights into the Literature

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Abstract

The purpose of present study is to review and analyze existing literature pertaining English as a Second Language (here onwards, ESL) writing anxiety, writer's native language, ESL writing self-efficacy and ESL writing performance. Specifically, this article is divided into two main sections; first section offers the conceptual review of the concepts involved while second section provides a review of existing literature on the relationship of ESL writing anxiety, writer's native language and ESL writing self-efficacy with ESL writing performance. A keen review of literature illustrates that mixed findings have been reported on above-mentioned relationships. This inconclusiveness of findings in existing body of literature calls for additional research on said area. Therefore, further research is recommended to re-examine the proposed relationships by introducing some moderating factors that may explain the inconsistencies in the relationships in existing literature.

Keywords: ESL writing anxiety, native language, ESL writing self-efficacy, ESL writing performance.

I. Introduction

Many language learners find writing the most difficult of all language skills to master (Kurt & Atay, 2007; Latif, 2007). From the perspective of academics, second language writing can be viewed as "a product constructed from the writer's command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher" (Hyland, 2003, p. 3). Although, the perspective of Hyland on second language writing is straightforward, the actual process involved in second language text composition is very challenging. Writing in a second language is relatively more complicated as compared to writing in native language or L1 because the writing strategies and linguistic knowledge of writers in a second language are not really developed. Rogers (2011) contended that the linguistic knowledge base of second

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language writers is different than that of native writers. Native writers possess a larger size of vocabulary and an innate capability to handle language grammar issues as compared to second language writers. Contrarily, second language writers must undergo the learning process of writing and English concurrently. According to Erkan and Saban (2011), students are afraid to engage in writing tasks due to their poor command of the language. They think it is difficult to learn writing. Also, they see writing as a subject or skill that they simply must take to pass the exam.

Since the beginning of writing across curriculum movements more than three decades ago, scholars have been interested in ways of improving the writing performance of university students (Russell, 1990; Walvoord, 1996). The members of faculty across from various disciplines including the arts, business, science and mathematics, who include writing into the core course requirement, have usually been confronted by the resistance of students for writing; and this resistance may be the outcome of writing anxiety, poor academic performance, and non-recognition of the importance of writing in their lives.

Therefore, keeping in view the significance of ESL writing, the objective of present research is to review the existing literature on ESL writing performance and its relationship with ESL writing anxiety, native language and ESL writing self-efficacy. The rest of the paper is arranged as follows: the error analysis in ESL writing is discussed followed by the conceptual review on ESL writing anxiety, native language and ESL self-efficacy. In the next section, the literature on the relationship of ESL writing performance with ESL writing anxiety, native language and ESL writing self-efficacy has been reviewed.

II. Errors in ESL Writing

The second language linguistic experts and teachers have been showing interest in the study of errors in the field of second language writing. Generally, it is observed that second language writing teachers consistently identify and correct the linguistic and grammatical errors in writings of the students, so that those errors may not be rigidified. The overemphasis on the correction of errors diverts the teaching focus on rules of grammar, which becomes challenging due to the interference of native language. Ferris (2004) reported that grammar instruction with prime focus on the correction of errors have been given much attention in the instruction of second language writing classes. Moreover, the focus of the linguists is directed towards investigating practical explanations and reasons for errors occurrence and the implication of those errors and their causes in teaching and learning process (Darus & Ching, 2009).

In the same line of discussion, Ferris (2002), while mentioning the differences between native and second language writers, emphasized that second language writers make errors related both to undeveloped second language acquisition and the process of transfer from their native languages. She added, "Though L1 student writing is obviously not errorfree, the errors made are different in quantity and nature" (p. 4). In addition, switching back and forth between first and second languages is a source of making errors in second language writers which native writers do not commit and this process of switching between first and second languages is found in second language writers regardless of their skill. Additionally, "L1 was vastly used in the L2 composing process and was more likely to occur in processcontrolling, idea generating and idea organizing activities than in text generating activities" (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2010, p. 132). Furthermore, numerous research have affirmed that first language has been used by second language writers for the purpose of planning (Cumming, 1989; Wang & Wen, 2002), idea generation (Sasaki, 2000) and sentence construction (McCarthey, Guo, & Cummins, 2005). These evidences in the literature support the assertion that first language is inevitably used in L2 writing (Brown, 2000). Following are some of the insights from (Ferris, 2002, p. 5) that are worth considering in understanding the reasons of committing errors in second language learning and writing: "(i) it takes a significant amount of time to acquire an L2, and even more when the learner is attempting to use the language for academic purposes; (ii) depending on learner characteristics, most notably age of first exposure to the L2, some acquirers may never attain native like control of various aspects of the L2; (iii) Second Language Acquisition (SLA) occurs in stages. Vocabulary, morphology, phonology, and syntax may all represent separately occurring stages of acquisition; (iv) as learners go through various stages of acquisition of different elements of the L2, they will make errors reflective of their SLA processes. These errors may be caused by inappropriate transference of L1 patterns and/or by incomplete knowledge of the L2. Written errors made by adult L2 acquirers are, therefore, often quite different from those made by native speakers".

Discussing the errors in second language, Connor (1996) divided the errors into two main categories as; inter-lingual transfer errors and intra-lingual errors. While defining the inter-lingual errors, he stated that the errors that arise from the interference of first language are considered as inter-lingual errors, whereas, the errors resulting from insufficient language learning and inherent difficulties in second language learning are known as intra-lingual errors. It is argued that such errors happen in case when language learner has not really learnt

the second language (Richards, 1974). Despite the fact that many factors are responsible for error occurrence, the interference of first language and insufficient second language knowledge are found to be the most dominant factors affecting second language learning. It is also argued in the studies that second language writers use and transfer the knowledge of their first language for composing in second language (Edelsky, 1982), for planning their L2 writings for generating texts (Jones & Tetroe, 1987; as cited in Raimes, 1985) and for developing ideas, for the production and organization of text contents (Lay, 1982). Furthermore, Wang (2003) confirmed above-stated findings that second language learners having low proficiency usually depend on direct translation from their native language into target or second language in an attempt to handle their linguistic shortcomings, which in turn, produce errors and as a result negatively affect their writing performance.

III. ESL Writing Anxiety

Anxiety is a psychological phenomenon that has been the subject of research for decades. Investigations into the underlying factors that produce anxiety have been based on various understandings of the phenomenon. Anxiety is one of the factors that make the process of a second language difficult for many language learners. Although, its effects may vary from one individual to another, it plays a crucial role in determining learning performance of a language learner in a target language, in this case, the English language (Rahim, Jaganathan, Sepora, & Mahadi, 2016). According to Chastain, (1988), as cited by Vitasari, Wahab, Othman and Herawan (2010), anxiety refers to uneasy feeling or emotion caused by something aggressive that is always associated with nervousness, excessive emotional reactions, apprehension and lack of confidence.

The term writing anxiety, introduced by Daly and Miller (1975) refers to a person's inclination to avoid writing, especially when it is graded (J. A. Daly, 1978). Second language writing anxiety (SLWA) is defined as "a general avoidance of writing and of situations perceived by the individuals to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation on that writing" (Hassan, 2001, p. 4). It also refers to psychological effects faced by learners during a writing task due to learners' excessive fear that are triggered by learners' feelings, beliefs and behaviours (Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012). A description of anxiety related to second and foreign language learning is given by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986, p. 128) as "a distinct complex of self- perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process". They found that when describing negative feelings and

experiences related to foreign language learning, anxious college students tend to use terms such as "tremble, frighten, panic, embarrass, upset, confused, afraid, and overwhelmed." Some research into foreign and second language anxiety has applied a situation-specific perspective, rather than a trait-or-state dichotomy. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, p. 254) claimed that Spielberger's State-Trait Anxiety Inventory "may not be the best way" for measuring anxiety in the contexts of language learning, because language anxiety takes place in interpersonal settings, where students communicate. They proposed two orthogonal dimensions of anxiety: general anxiety and communication anxiety. General anxiety is based largely on trait and state anxiety measures; communication anxiety has a distinct foreign language component. The authors argued that language behavior cannot reliably be associated with the measures of general anxiety. In language learning context, situation-specific anxiety deliberates the apprehension produced due to insufficient knowledge by the language learner (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). It is generally accepted by the language scholars that L2 anxiety is a situation-specific anxiety which is associated with the context of language learning, and variations in individual differences in learning language can be significantly explained with this type of anxiety. In the same line of argument, Horwitz (2001) mentioned that numerous studies claimed foreign language anxiety independent of other anxiety types.

Anxiety towards writing may be displayed by procrastination, preoccupation and nervousness among students. It is maintained from psychodynamic perspective that early experiences of students may be the root cause of the prevalence of writing anxiety (Houp, 2009). Moreover, Barwick (1995), examining case studies, categorized writing anxious students intro three main categories; nonstarters, non-completers, and non-exhibitors. Individuals who show denial, criticism and self-idealization in case of getting anxious from a rejection or a loss are classified as non-starters while individuals who supress their aggressive instincts for avoiding the feelings of rejection and loss are termed as non-completers. However, individuals who have the ability of repairing the pain of rejections and loses using obsession and intellectualization and who can recreate their essays are known as non-exhibitors.

IV. Concept of Writer's Native Language

A voluminous literature advocates the probable relationship between writer's native language and second language performance. Writer's native language is the first language of the speakers in which they communicate and interact. A native language, first language, L1, father or mother tongue or arterial language is a language that a person has been exposed to

since his/her birth (Bloomfield, 1986). In some countries, the language of individuals' ethnic groups is termed as his/her mother language or native language rather than the language he has been exposed to from his birth (Davies, 2003). Children brought up speaking more than one language can have more than one native language and be bilingual or multilingual. The concept of native speakers refers to the people who have a special command over a language and insider knowledge about their language. The native speakers of a language are the stakeholders of their language, they control its maintenance and shape its direction (Davies, 2003).

V. ESL Writing Self-Efficacy

The personal beliefs of an individual about his/her capability to organize and accomplish a particular task required to achieve a target is referred to his/her self-efficacy. However, academic self-efficacy can be described as individuals' beliefs in their abilities to undertake and accomplish a specific academic task and achieve a particular level of academic performance. Bandura (1997, p. 4) defined "self-efficacy as people's judgments or beliefs of their capabilities to organize and execute courses required for attaining designated types of performances. It is not concerned with the skills one has but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses".

A number of definition and explanations on the concept of self-efficacy can be found in the literature. The self-efficacy of an individual is a main factor that affect his/her efforts, in organizing, strategizing and performing well in a given task (Heslin & Klehe, 2006). Self-efficacy, as derived from Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) (A Bandura, 1986a), refers to the beliefs of human beings about their abilities. These beliefs affect individuals' motivation to accomplish a particular task. As declared by Bandura (1986a), self-efficacy of a person strongly affects his/her behaviours, thereby, affecting his/her actual abilities positively. A set of guiding principles to develop the scales of self-efficacy have been proposed by Bandura (2006). He referred self-efficacy to "a set of self-beliefs linked to distinct realms of functioning" instead of a general personality trait. He labeled self-efficacy as a unique trait and differentiated it from similar but independent concepts and constructs such as outcome expectancies, self-confidence, and self-esteem. Furthermore, he mentioned that self-efficacy constructs should measure only self-efficacy, which is different and more precise than self-confidence. Where, self-confidence is a general personality trait that describes how boldly actions are taken by the individuals in different situations, and self-esteem refers to the degree

of individuals' personal evaluation, which is generally developed more enthusiastically than self-efficacy and self-confidence (Heslin & Klehe, 2006).

As far as the operationalization of academic self-efficacy is concerned, it operationally refers to the beliefs of students about their abilities that they can undertake an assigned task and they can achieve targeted levels of performance. Their past experiences, negative or positive, for the basis for developing such self-beliefs, by observing their role models, teachers or their fellow, who perform poor or better and have similar capabilities in similar tasks or situations, by getting negative or positive feedbacks from peers, and by their positive and negative emotional states. Individuals' self-beliefs to achieve success or their perceived self-efficacy, contributes significantly to their levels of aspiration, motivation, and academic achievements (Albert Bandura, 1993). Likewise, Bandura (1989) found a positive relationship between the self-efficacy of a student and his/her performance, no matter what his actual ability is. He explained this positive relationship through enhanced exerted effort due to increased self-efficacy. In addition to that, verbal feedback and past experiences of individuals also affect their writing self-efficacy (A Bandura, 1986b). Writing self-efficacy can be defined as the beliefs of individuals about their abilities of writing. Strong writing selfefficacy of a person refers to his/her strong confidence for the writing. In other words, an individual's self-efficacy strongly determines his abilities to express his/her thoughts in his/her writings effectively.

The rest of the paper provides a review of existing empirical literature regarding relationship between ESL writing anxiety, ESL writing self-efficacy, and writer's native language with ESL writing performance.

VI. ESL Writing Performance and ESL Writing Anxiety

Anxiety is one of the essential factors in second language learning. It plays an important role in determining students' performance in the target language, be it positive or negative. Feeling nervous, uncertain or worry while engaging in a target language may cause students to perform poorly in the class, and this normally results in getting poor grades in their examination.

Theorists and researchers of second language have admitted since long that anxiety affects second language learning. Generally, learners and teachers think that in second language learning, the major challenge is to overcome anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). According to Riasati (2011), anxiety is among key factors that affect second language learning. It influences attention, which may result in poor language performance (Field,

2004). It causes problems for learners of second language attempting to perform in a second language (Hussein, 2010; Kondo, 2004; Marwan, 2007; Riasati, 2011). Studies have shown that when students do not enjoy learning the target language, they will perform negatively in the language (Andrade & Williams, 2009; T. Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Nazime & Huseyin, 2010). Researchers have reported that various language tasks cause varying degrees of anxiety. For instance, Luo (2011) found that college students studying Chinese as a foreign language experienced different levels of listening, speaking, reading, and writing anxiety. In a similar vein, Zhao (2009, p. 22) suggested that "foreign language reading anxiety, foreign language listening anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety are related to but distinct from foreign language anxiety". In this regard, Shehzadi and Krishnasamy (2018) recently proposed the investigation of the effect of ESL writing anxiety on ESL writing performance. Individuals with a high level of trait anxiety report worrying more than individuals with a low level of anxiety (Eysenck & Van Berkum, 1992). The situation becomes even more complex when the relationship between anxiety and learning is considered as reported by King, Heinrich and Stephenson (1976) that achievement might be directly influenced by both trait anxiety and state anxiety. Likewise, Lin, Endler and Kocovski (2001) studied the difference between trait and state anxiety as a function of English proficiency among Chinese and Caucasian students in Canada.

Anxiety within the context of language learning has been an area of interest in research literature such as; anxiety (Bailey & Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Horwitz, 2010; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006) language anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Sellers, 2000), foreign language anxiety (Chen & Chang, 2004; Gregersen, 2005; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Saito & Samimy, 1996), second language anxiety (Horwitz, 2010), language class anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991), anxiety in foreign language classrooms (Horwitz et al., 1986; Kim, 2010), anxiety in foreign language writings (Cheng, 2002, 2004), anxiety in listening comprehensions (Vogely, 1998), anxiety in reading L2 (Y Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999), communication anxiety (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003), and communication apprehension (MacIntyre, 1995).

It is argued that college students often suffer from anxiety (Baez, 2005). A number of factors are responsible for the prevalence of anxiety among college students, yet high expectation for writing also significantly augment second language writing anxiety, which in turn, affects the motivation of students, thereby, reducing their willingness to register and

participate in writing courses. Moreover, poor performance of students in English writing examinations and in jobs that require writing are also related to writing anxiety (Cheng, 2004). As a result, university teachers are concerned with the issue of writing anxiety.

Studies on ESL writing revealed that ESL writing anxiety impart strong impacts on ESL writing performance (Cheng, 2004; Hassan, 2001; Horwitz, 2001). One strand of literature have shown that students having higher level of writing anxiety composed relatively shorter composition and scored lower as compared to their low anxious counterparts did (Hassan, 2001). The writing performance is positively as well as negatively affected from writing anxiety. It has also been shown in the literature that writing anxiety has debilitative as well as facilitative effects on students' writing performance (Brown, 2000). It can either lower the quality of the writing (debilitative effect) (J. A. Daly, 1978; Rezaei, Jafari, & Younas, 2014), or improve the quality of the writing (facilitative effect) (Hassan, 2001).

Many researchers have supported the debilitative influence of writing anxiety who found a negative relationship of writing anxiety with scores in language courses (Aida, 1994). On the other hand, the facilitative effect of writing anxiety on writing performance has also been advocated by some studies (Hassan, 2001). Some people believe that tension sometimes enhances learning despite the fact that they hate learning under stress (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). In addition, Scovel (1978) stated that debilitative and facilitative anxiety serve as a warning and motivation for students to learn or discover new knowledge, respectively. They can either choose not to participate in the learning task (avoidance behavior) or they can participate actively in the learning task (approach behavior) (Scovel, 1978).

Studies that found a negative relationship between levels of anxiety and performance in courses include but not limited to Aida (1994), Horwitz et al., (1986) and Cheng et al., (1999) among others. While investigating the effects of demographic, personality, affective and cognitive characteristics on the acquisition of second language using a sample of 184 college students (Japanese, German, French and Spanish), Onwuegbuzie (2000) found second language anxiety as the second best predictor of second language acquisition after academic achievement of students. Other studies also showed the evidence of negative relationship between writing anxiety and performance in writing assignments (Chen & Lin, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996).

The literature on the effect of anxiety on writing performance is voluminous; however, the conclusions vary to large degrees. For instance, MacIntyre et al., (1997)

mentioned that students with higher anxiety levels underestimate their competencies as compared to their less anxious counterparts. Furthermore, Levine (2003) reported the effect of lingual background of students on their anxiety and revealed that students from monolingual backgrounds experience increased anxiety as compared to students from multilingual or bilingual background. Many research studies have linked language anxiety with a factor defined by actual or self-rated proficiency. The mixed results of various studies may be attributed to different research settings or different research designs used to carry out research.

In addition, writing anxiety can also influence learners' attitude towards doing writing tasks. As Cheng (2002) discovered that students experiencing high writing anxiety have the tendency to avoid taking writing courses as the courses involve a lot of writing activities. Instead, they prefer to take courses with minimal writing tasks. Also, Daly (1978) found that students with higher levels of anxiety avoid classes involving writing assignments. A study conducted by Jebreil, Azizifar, Gowhary and Jamalinesari (2015) discovered that debilitative anxiety causes students to avoid classroom activities (avoidance behavior). The debilitative effect of writing anxiety on writing quality and performance of second language learners is also found in other studies, as posited by Cheng et al. (1999); Kurt and Atay (2007) and (Naghadeh, Naghadeh, & Kasraey, 2014).

Kean, Glynn and Britton (1987) also of the view that writing anxiety negatively affects writing quality in case of time pressure, which is in line with the findings of an earlier research conducted by Faigley, Daly and Witte (1981). Moreover, Cheng (2002) found that writing anxiety is better predicted by perceived foreign language writing competence than writing achievement. Also, the writing anxiety of male students was found to be lower than that of female students, however, juniors, sophomores and freshmen students had insignificant differences in the levels of writing anxiety.

Likewise, writing anxiety can also have facilitative effect on learners' writing performance. Students become motivated to perform well in any given writing tasks (Scovel, 1978). When a learner's level of writing anxiety is low, he or she writes better than a learner with high level of writing anxiety (Hassan, 2001). A study conducted by Hassan (2001) on third year students of the English Department in Egypt revealed that students having low levels of writing anxiety write better essays because of their high self-esteem. These students are confident that they can write, and they enjoy doing the writing (Hassan, 2001). Similar findings were also shown in Jebreil et al. (2015) study on Iranian EFL students with different

proficiency levels. They discovered that students with intermediate and advanced levels, which had lower English writing anxiety as compared to students having low proficiency level, are confident in writing because they do not fear writing.

The negative effect of writing anxiety on academic writing has been well documented in empirical research in the context of United States. Graduate students' writings were found to be negatively affected from writing anxiety in a case study by Bloom (1981) and a quantitative research by Onwuegbuzie (1997) in the courses of research methodology. It has also been found that increased writing anxiety lowered the quality of writing among undergraduate students in writing-intensive classes (J. A. Daly, 1978; J. Daly & Miller, 1975). Additionally, the negative effect of writing anxiety on the grades of university students has been found (Martinez, Kock, & Cass, 2011). Due to different anxiety definitions, unavailability of valid and reliable language and writing anxiety constructs, prior research studies on language anxiety have shown confusing and mixed findings (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986). In mid 1980s, the research on the theory and constructs of second language anxiety emerged (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). The emergence of second language anxiety learning as a distinct field of study in second language learning literature (YOUNG, 1991), and studies that specifically focused on the measurement of anxiety related to language learning (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Saito & Samimy, 1996) have revealed negative relationship between language anxiety and performance in various skills of second language (Horwitz, 2001).

VII. ESL Writing Performance and Writer's Native Language

The effect of first or native language on second/foreign language writing have been documented by several studies at both process and product levels. In terms of writing as a product, research studies on composition conducted by second language authors paid attention to contrastive rhetoric, who analyzed the transfer of the rhetorical patterns from first or native language into second language writings (Kaplan, 1966, 1982). This cross-linguistic effect has taken into account the cultural differences as well as cognitive and developmental factors (Cumming, 1989; Mohan & Lo, 1985; Ringbom, 1987; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989). In this regard, Lanauze and Snow (1989) measured the language performance of 38 fourth and fifth graders enrolled in a Spanish-English bilingual program. They found that L1 academic and literacy skills were used as a helping hand to perform better in L2. Likewise, Cumming (1989) reported that participants in his research having professional-level expertise in L1 writing, the French language, had written significantly better in their second language,

the English language, as compared to those participants who did not have any such expertise in their L1, thus, claiming a positive effect of L1 writing expertise on L2 writing. Furthermore, Friedlander (1990) found that L1 use in planning ESL writing has a positive impact on L2 writing quality of adult students because L1 is used to develop metacognitive awareness by writing a text in L1, analyzing the style of writing, strengths and weaknesses in the L1 composition, and then writing the text in L2. In line with above discussion, Cummins (1981) argued that a threshold level of second language proficiency is necessary for skill transfer between two languages. He maintained that an increased proficiency in second language leads to a higher degree of skill transfer from first language to second language. In the same line of argument, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) examined the effect of native language on writing in second language on a sample of 48 Japanese university students by examining the text production differences between two processes; first writing in native language and then translating it into second language (English), and second is directly composing in second language. Their findings reveal that low-level writers tend to get benefits of translation in terms of style, organization and content, whereas, higher-level writers did not benefit much. While in terms of the frequency of errors, more errors were found in the process of translation as compared to direct composting for higher-level proficiency students, however, there was no difference among low-level proficiency students. Similarly, Sasaki and Hirose (1996) investigated the factors affecting expository English writing of Japanese university students on a sample of 70 students having an English proficiency of low to high-intermediate level using quantitative as well as qualitative analysis. They examined second language proficiency, writing ability in native language, first and second language writing strategies, meta-knowledge of second language expository writing, past writing experience and instructional background. They found native language writing ability as a significant factor in explaining second language writing ability. Likewise, Woodall (2002) examined the extent of L1 use to plan and write in L2 and found that when L1 knowledge is employed to plan for writing in L2, text quality of L2 increases.

Correspondingly, Mukhopadhyay (2015) examined the effect of L1 mediation on L2 writing performance on 34 grade-7 Bengali students of English. She found that the performance of students was better in L1 mediated task for all groups indicating a transfer of academic skills in all groups. The study concluded that L1 academic skills, if used as a resource in a principled manner, can effectively enhance L2 writing skills.

On the contrary, while examining the relationship between the quality of first and second language composition on 48 Chinese students, Carson, Carrell, Silberstein and Kroll (1990) found no correlation between aforementioned variables. However, they found a week positive correlation having coefficient value 0.23 for the essays composed by 57 Japanese students. Likewise, Pennington and So (1993) examined the relationship between native and second language writing products of 6 Singaporean university students, and could not find a clear relationship.

On the other hand, Ito (2004) examined the relationship between writing skills of native language and second language and writing performance on a sample of 262 Japanese English language students. His study found a significant correlation among native and second language writing scores of students and their knowledge in second language. Moreover, native language writing skill is found to be a better predictor of second language writing skill as compared to their second language proficiency. Similarly, another research was conducted by Dweik and Hommos (2007) who investigated the writing skills of twenty bilingual Jordanian students who studied English. They claimed that the native language skills of Jordanian students were positively transferred to their second language English. Also, Alsamadani (2010) examined the relationship between writing competence of Saudi university students in English and Arabic, and found that their writing competence in both languages are strongly correlated. Moreover, a positive significant correlation was also found between the self-regulatory capabilities of students and their native and second language writing competence.

In the same line of discussion, threshold level of second language writing quality was examined by Ito (2009) on a sample of 317 Japanese university students. He claimed that the quality of first and second language essays written by the students was similar and second language writing was found to be negatively affected by second language proficiency. In the same way, Yigzaw (2013) using a sample of 11th grade students, made an attempt to determine the relationship between writing in first language (Amharic) and proficiency of second language (English) and found that L1 writing significantly predict L2 proficiency. In addition, he also found that the reading comprehension, second language grammar and vocabulary knowledge significantly explain their variations in second language writings.

Furthermore, Javadi-Safa and Vahdany (2013) in their study on upper-intermediate learners, studied the relationship between writing skills in English and Persian. They also examined the transfer of each of five major components of ESL composition profile proposed

by Jacobs (1981). In order to achieve this objective, students were asked to write two argumentative essays; one in English and one in Persian. The written argumentative essays were assessed using Jacob's (1981) ESL compositions profile and a significant positive correlation was found between scores of essays in both languages, and among all five writing sub-skills. More recently, Shehzadi and Krishnasamy (2018) also stresses to incorporate native language in the study of the determinants of ESL writing performance among students.

VIII. ESL Writing Performance and ESL Writing Self-Efficacy

A growing body of research has extensively supported the positive role of self-efficacy in enhancing academic performance. Self-efficacy is one of the motivational factors in determining progress in writing. In the past, there were many quantitative research studies focusing on the influence of self-efficacy on writing performance. Pajares and colleagues were among those scholars who had used a lot of correlational studies to show the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement. The effect of writing self-efficacy, aptitude, apprehension and self-concept on writing performance was examined by Pajares and Johnson (1995) using path analysis on a sample of 181 9th grade students in United States. They found a significant effect of self-efficacy on writing performance. Also, they found that writing performance of boys and girls were not statistically different, but boys had statistically high self-efficacy as compared to girls.

However, the results from Pajares and Valiante (1997) investigation were also contrasted with those obtained by Pajares and Johnson (1995), who found higher level of self-efficacy and lower level of apprehension among girls as compared to boys. Their findings strengthen the claim of Bandura (1986) that self-efficacy plays a significant role in human behaviours. In addition, different results found by Pajares and Johnson (1995) may be explained through the development of writing self-efficacy and that the meditational and predictive roles of self-efficacy may in different academic settings and in different samples. There are limited researches (L2 context) available on the effect of assistance provided by the teachers on writing self-efficacy and writing performance of rural learners. Even though some studies on self-efficacy perspective in the education field are available, most research focuses on teachers' self-efficacy in schools (Chew, 2000; Mohamad, 1999), learners' self-efficacy in learning Mathematics and Sciences in English (Wong, 2004) and also the relationship between academic self-efficacy and motivation, self-esteem and self-regulation (Arif, 2007; Yusof, 2005). The findings of studies conducted elsewhere in different cultural and educational context such as, Pajares and Johnson (1995, 1996) cannot be generalized to the

other settings and situations as writing self-efficacy is believed to be situation-specific and domain-specific, and the level of writing self-efficacy has been varying depending on the educational context, for example, teaching practices and facilities provided.

The self-perception of a student about his/her own writing capability, or his/her selfefficacy beliefs, provides an opportunity for more research avenues from the policy perspectives. It is consistently revealed in research studies that there exists significant relationship between individuals' writing self-efficacy beliefs and their writing performance. Mostly research studies focused college undergraduates for examining aforesaid relationship (McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985; Meier, McCarthy, & Schmeck, 1984). Majority of research studies reveal that writing performance is significantly affected by writing selfefficacy as a predictor and it also mediates the relationship between previous and following writing achievements. This mediation has been evidenced in cases where pre-assessed writing ability type powerful covariates are modeled with writing performance. Moreover, selfefficacy judgment affects students' choices regarding the amount of effort to exert, their perseverance, and anxiety. Lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs offer a justification of students' diminishing writing motivation and academic achievement as they pursue their education. The negative perceptions of an individuals' capabilities, once produced, are extremely change resistant, and hinder their success in academic endeavors (A Bandura, 1997). Across all domains, the influence of academic self-concept beliefs on academic performance of students is found to be significant (Skaalvik, 1997).

Therefore, self-efficacy is vital for academic writing as it requires continuous efforts through several revisions for reaching publishable standards (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). In school setting, a correlation has been found between writing achievement and self-efficacy. Efficacious students persist longer when they encounter difficulties (F Pajares, 2009) and use more self-regulated learning strategies for studying English (Anam & Stracke, 2016). Previous studies have shown significant positive relationships among self-efficacy beliefs, self-regulated learning behaviours, and English language test scores (Wang, Kim, Bong, & Ahn, 2013).

Furthermore, it has been claimed that the performance of an individual is more explained by self-efficacy as compared to his/her ability (A Bandura, 1989; Albert Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy has been found to be a strong and significant predictor of academic performance (Bong, 2002; Frank Pajares, 1996). Literature on the motivational role of self-efficacy is also emerging in the context of language learning. In the setting of second

language, the adaptive language learning is also significantly affected by self-efficacy (Woodrow, 2006).

In this regard, writing self-efficacy has been a subject of interest among researchers in the field of self-efficacy as well as in composition. The relationship between writing self-beliefs and writing performance have been examined by a number of research scholars in academic setting; and strong positive relationship is evidenced in these studies (F Pajares, 1997; F Pajares, Hartley, & Valiante, 2001; Frank Pajares & Johnson, 1998). In these research studies, the strongest predictor of writing performance among all factors has been self-efficacy; thereby, supporting the claims of Bandura (1986a) on the basis of social cognitive theory, which emphasizes on the significant role of self-efficacy to predict writing performance of individuals. Similarly, the feelings of poor motivation, poor self-efficacy, and self-doubt will pose a negative effect on the writing capabilities of individuals (Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992). Generally, it is believed that feelings of high self-efficacy contribute to the production of good-quality writing.

In line with the discussion, it is believed that self-efficacy plays a significant role in promoting motivational, behavioral, and cognitive engagements of the students, which in turn, shows its importance in enhancing the writing competence. The findings of Sawyer et al. (1992), Pajares and Johnson (1996), and Bandura (1997) also suggested that individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy have more inclination of pursuing writing opportunities, exerting increased efforts in writing, and are more persistent in improving their writing competence. This finding also coincides with other studies, such as Tan (2006) and Mahyuddin, Elias and Loh (2006). Therefore, it was found that writing performance can be improved by improving writing self-efficacy.

Since the introduction of the construct of self-efficacy by Bandura two decades ago, a voluminous literature has supported the explanatory and meditational effect of self-efficacy such as, Bandura (1997) and Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of existing literature on said field. In addition, Graham and Weiner (1996) concluded the same by maintaining that behavioral outcomes are consistently affected by self-efficacy. In educational research, this concept has received considerable attention, especially in the research of academic motivation (Schunk & Pajares, 2001).

On the contrary, McCarthy et al. (1985) in a follow-up research, reported that many research students could not find a significant effect of self-efficacy beliefs on their writing performance. As Igo, Toland and Flowerday (2002) found insignificant correlation between

writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, researchers also reported a significant correlation of writing self-efficacy with expected outcomes, writing anxiety, processing depth, and performance goals. It was also consistently found that if self-efficacy is included in the models, writing motivation and apprehension became insignificant in predicting writing performance of students. Studies such as Bruning and Horn (2000), Pajares and Johnson (1994, 1996), Pajares and Valiante (2006), Rankin and Bruning (1994), Wachholz and Etheridge (1996), Zimmerman and Bandura (1994) also supported aforementioned results.

Generally, findings of the research studies in this area confirm the predictive as well as meditational role of self-efficacy, thereby, confirming the hypothesis of social cognitive theorists. Typically, self-efficacy and pre-performance evaluations are the only factors that affect writing performance in models including other motivation factors. It is also found in the literature that writing self-efficacy has relation with other motivational predictors such as writing goals, writing self-efficacy for self-regulation, perceived writing value, and writing apprehension among others, and writing self-efficacy is found to be a significant mediator in the relationship of pre-performance assessment and gender with writing performance (Steve Graham & Harris, 1989; Frank Pajares & Valiante, 1997; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994).

Furthermore, it is recommended by some self-efficacy experts and scholars that teachers should focus and develop the competence perceptions among students because it is the perception of students which predicts their motivation and future academic choices (Hackett & Betz, 1989). As Bandura (1986, p. 417) argued that "students who develop a strong sense of self-efficacy are well equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative". Moreover, researchers have also highlighted that the negative effect of writing anxiety on writing performances can be nullified if the effect of self-efficacy beliefs are controlled (Frank Pajares & Johnson, 1998; Frank Pajares & Valiante, 1997). These findings are in line with Bandura's (1986) argument that self-efficacy beliefs mediate anxiety; which means that the anxiety feelings are mainly due to lack of confidence in doing a particular task.

Furthermore, Salami (2010) investigated the effects of psychological wellbeing, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence on academic attitudes behaviours of students. Their research found that highly self-efficacious and emotionally intelligent students actively participate in academic activities, which results in improved academic performance. In the

same way, the effect of stress and academic self-efficacy on academic performance was modeled by Zajacova, Lynch and Espenshade (2005) who found that academic success is more explained by academic self-efficacy than stress.

IX. Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Research

A careful examination of existing body of literature on said area revealed that the research on the relationship of ESL writing anxiety, writer's native language, ESL writing self-efficacy and ESL writing performance is still inconclusive in nature. The effect of ESL writing anxiety and writer's native language on ESL writing performance has been positive and negative as well. This inconclusiveness of findings in existing body of literature calls for additional research on said area. Further research may be conducted to examine the reasons of above-stated inconclusive findings. In this regard, it is recommended to introduce a moderator that may explain the inconclusiveness of above-mentioned relationships. A possible moderator that may explain this inconsistency of findings is ESL writing self-efficacy as it is related to ESL writing anxiety, writer's native language and ESL writing performance as well.

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