THE IMPACT OF FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS´ WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract. The willingness to communicate in a foreign language is a crucial aspect of language learning. This systematic literature review examines the influence of feedback, including peer-to-peer feedback, teacher’s feedback and computer-mediated feedback on student’s willingness to communicate in foreign language contexts. We included twenty selected studies conducted between 2000-2021, retrieved from the Web of Science and Scopus databases, to explore the role of feedback promoting or hindering students’ willingness to communicate. Our review suggests that factors like the fear of making mistakes and losing face can impede students’ willingness to communicate. We conclude by outlining pedagogical implications for enhancing students’ willingness to communicate in language teaching.

Key words: willingness to communicate, foreign language, feedback, assessment

1. INTRODUCTION

Every communication situation is shaped and influenced by the participants in the communication, their personalities, and reactions, but also by the context of the communication. In teaching, communication is considered an important part of learning, as internal mental processes are activated through a dialogue (Vygotsky, 2004). At the same time, quality communication contributes, among other things, to the creation of a favourable classroom climate, strengthens positive relationships between a teacher and a student or students, and contributes to the development of students’ motivation. Communication in the teaching context may be influenced by the content and goals of individual subjects, the personality of the teacher, student activity, teaching methods and communication rules which are given partly by cultural context of education (Zarei, Saeidi, & Ahangari, 2019), and partly by the requirements of a particular teacher. Beside
pair or group work, initiation, response, feedback (IRF) exchanges, are among the most prevalent pedagogic discourse formats during whole-class discussions (Peng, 2020). Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 81) conceptualized feedback as “information provided by an agent regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding”. This information affects the course of classroom communication, as well as student possible participation. Students who fear possible negative feedback from classmates are less willing to get involved in teaching and often choose indirect ways to communicate with the teacher through nonverbal communication (e.g., using gestures, eye contact or choosing a place in the teacher’s immediate area). On the other hand, interaction between a teacher and a student is one of the most important factors predicting student engagement in the class communication (Weaver & Qi, 2005). Yet, potential negative feedback from a teacher respected by students is not considered criticism influencing student participation in teaching (Myers & Claus, 2012).

Language teachers focus on helping students develop their communicative competence teaching them how to accommodate to a particular situation to be able to communicate their message successfully. However, competence does not equal performance and the most proficient students are not always the most willing to communicate during a lesson (Yashima et al., 2016). MacIntyre et al. (1998) defined second/foreign language (L2) willingness to communicate (WTC) as “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2” (p. 547) proposing a six-layered model that considered the linguistic, communicative, and social-psychological perspectives of L2 learning. It has attracted a variety of L2 research focusing on the study of L2 WTC antecedents with results aligned into three broad categories, i.e., 1) individual characteristics of students (e.g., self-evaluation of communicative competence, 2) the fear of communication in a foreign language and motivation of a student) and 3) situational variables (e.g., classroom climate and the relationship between a teacher and a student(s)). As we mentioned earlier, feedback plays an important role in influencing students’ WTC. Therefore, based on a systematic study of presented studies (described in the methodology part of this article), we attempted to address a research question: What is the role of different type of feedback in students’ willingness to communicate? Based on our results we suggest pedagogical implications for L2 teaching.

2. RESEARCH ON WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

WTC is viewed both as a personality trait and a situational construct. In their work, MacIntyre and Charos (1996, p. 17) suggested that “the intention or willingness to engage in L2 communication is determined by a combination of the student’s perception of his or her second language proficiency, the opportunity to use the language, and a lack of apprehension about speaking.” The model of L2 WTC shows the variables that at some point influence an individual's decision to verbally share their thoughts, knowledge, and opinions with others in an L2 (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Situational variables that correlate positively with the concept of L2 WTC are, for example, a positive classroom climate, a teacher-student relationship, or a language study stay (Clément et al., 2003; Lee, 2018; MacIntyre et al., 2003). The context of a specific teaching situation is completed by the individual characteristics of students and their WTC during lessons (Yashima et al., 2016) e.g., the self-assessment of one's language or communication competence (Halupka-Rešetar et al., 2018; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010), the fear of communication in an L2 (MacIntyre et al., 2003; Yashima et al., 2016), or student
motivation (Peng, 2007; Yashima et al., 2016). Therefore, the feedback students receive from their teachers of classmates may significantly influence their WTC (Myers & Claus, 2012; Weaver & Qi, 2005).

The degree to which communication apprehension and self-perceived competence predict WTC varies with age and sex (e.g., Donovan & MacIntyre, 2004; MacIntyre et al., 2002). Communication apprehension is a significant predictor of WTC among women, while self-perceived competence emerges as a significant predictor of WTC in men. Parallel studies focused on psychological variables. In line with the previously mentioned study of Donovan and MacIntyre (2004), communication anxiety and perceived communicative competence were the strongest predictors of L2 WTC (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre et al., 2001) together with student’s positive orientation towards the L2 community (MacIntyre et al., 2003; Yashima, 2002), and for example, integrative motivation (Peng, 2007; Yashima et al., 2004). (For a recent overview of research on trait WTC see Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2017).

A shift in the research in L2 WTC occurred when it began to capture the dynamic nature of WTC at the state level using mixed research methods. In the last decade the research turned to the study of L2 WTC and contextual factors, e.g., classroom interaction context, security and responsibility (Kang, 2005), the role of a teacher (Zarrinabadi, 2014) or the type of task and its performance (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016). That is the shift from a macro-perspective to a micro-perspective (Zhang et al., 2018) with the focus on students. A common research objective of studies focusing on state WTC is to better understand whether, how, and why learners show more WTC in some situations than in others. Previous review articles focused on differences between trait and state WTC (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2017; Zhang et al., 2018), WTC and in-class and out-of-class learning (Zulkepli & Hussin, 2021) or situational antecedents of L2 WTC (Zhang et al., 2018). The greatest asset of the present article is in its focus on the role of feedback in relation to students’ WTC.

3. METHODOLOGY

The aim of the systematic literature review was to outline the various effect of feedback on students’ willingness to communicate in L2. Thus, we pursued the research question: What is the influence of different type of feedback in students’ willingness to communicate? Following the shift in L2 WTC research, we analysed studies published in English in the Web of Science and Scopus databases restricted to the period from 2000 to 2021. We used a combination of the following key words: willingness to communicate, L2, feedback, anxiety, motivation. A computerized database search generated 101 articles. The process of studies selection is illustrated in PRISMA flow-diagram (Fig. 1).

The search in the Web of Science generated 24 articles that were also found in the search in Scopus database. We were not able to retrieve the full version of other 8 articles. The exclusion criteria was based on review and metanalysis (n = 3), studies focused on different language than English i.e., French, and Chinese (n = 9) and studies describing the adaptation of willingness to communicate scale to another language. Two papers discussing other theoretical issues were not included either. Further, twenty-eight studies did not provide any information on feedback. Following the restrictions, we examined twenty studies (Appendix) that provided information on research methodology and data processing.
3.1. The Analysis of the Selected Studies

Studies selected for the presented systematic literature review on WTC in English with the focus on received feedback included respondents aged 13 to 45. Half of the studies presented results of university students, two studies included adult female migrants to New Zealand attending language courses, and four studies included pupils at lower secondary level of education. Thus, the sample of respondents included students from lower secondary level of education to higher level of education. As for the geographical details students with Asian origin prevailed in the sample of studies (Tab. 1). All studies included both males and females, but four, which included only female participants. (Cameron, 2013; Cameron, 2015; Zare et al., 2020; Zarrinabadi & Dehkordi, 2021).
The Impact of Feedback on Students’ Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Learning

Table 1: Studies included: participants’ nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical area</th>
<th>Number of studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Asia (Iran)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asian (Japan, Korea, Taiwan, China)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe (Norway, Poland)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a prevalence in the choice of mixed methods design in the selected studies (Tab. 2) covering a rather varied area of the role of feedback on students’ willingness to communicate.

Table 2: Studies included: type of research design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research design</th>
<th>Number of studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative approach</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative approach</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix methods</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Various tools employed for data collections can be divided into three categories. Firstly, these were scales adapted for the purposes of an individual research based on MacIntyre et al. (2001) i.e., Willingness to communicate scale measuring the intention of a speaker to initiate communication in a second/foreign language if there is an opportunity (Cao & Philp, 2006; Tai & Chen, 2020; Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2016), and a questionnaire focusing on oral corrective feedback (Zare et al., 2020). Secondly, studies collecting qualitative data used in-depth semi-structured interviews with students and teachers, or/and focus groups with students and class observations. Further, session logs (Kruk, 2019) focusing on computer mediated communication (CMC), a focused essays (Zarrinabadi, 2014) or a video playback software for registering changes in various psychometric constructs (Ducker, 2021). The last category can be united under the topic of CMC and includes a software program Language Educational Chat System, a multimodal immersive web environment Second Life and Google Home Hub.

4. RESULTS

Contemplating our research question, the analysis of the studies was divided into three categories: a) teacher’s feedback within the course of face-to-face communication, b) peer-to-peer feedback within the course of face-to-face communication, and c) feedback received during computer mediated communication. A list of studies providing information on the type of feedback mentioned is provided in Table 3.
Table 3 Type of feedback discussed in studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Type of feedback discussed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Avali and Esmaeilifard (2021)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback through emotional scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameron (2015)</td>
<td>teacher’s and peer-to-peer feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameron (2013)</td>
<td>teacher’s corrective feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ducker (2021)</td>
<td>teacher’s and peer-to-peer feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006)</td>
<td>online and face-to-face feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jajarmi et al. (2019)</td>
<td>life teacher’s vs linguistic teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kruk (2019)</td>
<td>feedback during computer mediated communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee (2019)</td>
<td>feedback during extramural digital activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilakhova (2018)</td>
<td>feedback during CLIL activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montazeri and Salimi (2019)</td>
<td>teacher’s metalinguistic feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myhre and Fiskum (2020)</td>
<td>peer-to-peer feedback in outdoor context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peng (2020)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quinto et al. (2019)</td>
<td>peer-to-peer feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tai and Chen (2020)</td>
<td>feedback during Google assistant language learning activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tavakoli and Zarrinabadi (2016)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zare et al. (2020)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarei et al. (2019)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarrinabadi (2014)</td>
<td>teacher’s feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarrinabadi and Dehkordi (2021)</td>
<td>self-referential, formative, promotion, prevention feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarrinabadi et al. (2021)</td>
<td>teacher’s ability praise vs effort praise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1. Teacher’s feedback within the course of face-to-face communication

Just as students differ in their learning, so do teachers in their teaching (Fenstermacher & Soltis, 2008) and the type of feedback they provide to students. An ongoing pedagogical discussion about the value of IRF-patterned interaction in comparison to dyadic and group interaction inspired Peng (2020) to focus on its relation to students’ WTC. The data showed that there was no significant difference between WTC during IRF interaction and dyadic or group interaction. On the other hand, teacher interaction strategies (open or referential questions, manipulation of wait time, monitoring etc.) play a role in sustaining situated WTC in teacher-fronted interaction (Peng, 2020). Moreover, Zarrinabadi (2014) also emphasized that positive relationship with the teacher, as well as his/her positive and inviting non-verbal behaviour boosts students’ WTC in contrast to the situation when the teacher fails to provide any feedback. Students in his study were willing to communicate with the teacher if they felt safe and/or the teacher showed a genuine interest in their students’ utterances. Teacher’s positive attitude supporting students’ WTC could be conveyed by non-verbal behaviour or by backchannel signals. On the other hand, if a teacher failed to provide any feedback it led to students’ unwillingness to communicate (Zarrinabadi, 2014). Zarrinabadi et al. (2021) later focused on the manner a praise for effort and a praise for intelligence could relate to students’ WTC. Phrases including praise for effort were found to improve students’ WTC beside their growth mindsets and perceived communication competence. Further, students who were praised for effort reacted to a failure as a part of the learning process while students who were praised for intelligence perceived a failure as their setback and a possible problem in future sessions.

Probably the most common feedback is corrective feedback (CF) about how well a task is being accomplished or performed and it can relate to correctness, neatness, or behaviour
The Impact of Feedback on Students’ Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Learning

(Hattie & Timperley, 2007). It can be powerful by itself; however, teachers improperly mix corrective feedback with information at the self-level, e.g., Good boy, that is correct (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), consequently causing language anxiety and hindering students’ WTC. Foreign language anxiety (FLA) may be demonstrated by being shy or nervous, being afraid of mispronouncing or being afraid of making a mistake (Lialikhova, 2018). Immediate error correction worsens students’ anxiety and tends to reduce their WTC, whereas delayed error correction was found to increase students’ WTC enabling them to keep the flow of their talk and deliver the message. CF especially for elementary level language learners can be one of the most stressful processes they can experience (Alavi & Esmaelilifard, 2021). Albeit teacher’s feedback about a mistake is expected (by students) and provided (by teachers) in attempt to improve the learning. However, at a lower language level pointing out students’ errors is rather seen as a threat to their self-esteem negatively impacting their WTC (Zare, 2020), while at a higher language level it may be considered as a practice affecting positively their WTC (Montazeri & Salimi, 2019; Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2016; Zare, 2020). Montazeri and Salimi (2019) reported that metalinguistic CF had a statistically significant effect on students’ WTC because it was intellectually motivating, and it positively affected their WTC by increasing their perceived linguistic competence (Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2016). Nonetheless, cultural context of education is worth considering. As Zarei et al. (2019) pointed out, a considerable focus on authority and the support for hierarchy in the Iranian culture may influence communication during teaching. They reported that teachers’ role was the most frequently mentioned hindering factor in rising students’ WTC and simultaneously teachers’ support and immediacy was the most frequently mentioned facilitating factor. Later Zarrinabadi and Dehkordi (2021) studied the effects of referential feedback (self-referential and normative) and feedback based on comparison (promotional and prevention) on students’ WTC, communicative competence, and anxiety. The promotion-focused feedback aims at approaching desired goal, pushes the students toward achieving something new, and highlights positive outcomes. In their study it increased the sense of feeling of security, lowered anxiety, increased language competence and students’ WTC. On the contrary, a prevention-focused system that involves avoiding undesired endstates resulted in avoidance motivation and lower students’ WTC caused by decreased self-reported communicative competence and increased (FLA). Self-referential feedback is a type of feedback in which “competence is defined in terms of the improvement of a student’s present performance over his or her past performance” (Pekrun et al., 2014, p. 117) and emphasises the process of learning, individual outcomes, and students’ progress over time. Zarrinabadi and Dehkordi (2021) further reported that it had positive effects on students’ enjoyment and positive feelings. It positively influenced WTC by creating some regular checks on performance and enhanced students’ communicative competence (lowering FLA and rising WTC). When students perceived themselves as more competent than before, they were willing to participate and to show their communicative competence. Contrary to self-referential feedback, normative feedback compares student’s competence, outcomes, or progress with that of other students. In the study it positively influenced students’ WTC by supporting positive feelings and reducing negative emotions. Teacher’s feedback made students believe that they performed as well as others in the class and the teacher’s feedback presented “some evidence for acceptability for participation and English improvement and encouraged cooperation and collaboration” (Zarrinabadi & Dehkordi, 2021, p. 14).

To conclude we should mention a noteworthy study of feedback by Jajarmi et al. (2019). They juxtaposed teachers’ linguistic and life feedback comparing its effect on
students’ WTC. The authors suggested that teachers using life feedback, i.e., prioritizing critical thinking, creativity, social and emotional intelligence could better motivate their learners to communicate actively by shifting their attention to the meaning being conveyed rather than the form being employed. Albeit the use of life feedback may support learners’ self-confidence which is likely to promote their WTC. To put it in other words, students’ sensitivity to a particular type of teacher’s feedback may lead to different levels of classroom engagement, depending on the type of feedback received (Wytykowska & Gabińska, 2015).

4.2. Teacher’s feedback within the course of face-to-face communication

Face-to-face conversation can cause an immense (self-induced) pressure on students causing nervousness and FLA that may interfere with their communication competence resulting in their low self-confidence in their spoken language proficiency and in the lack of willingness to communicate (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006; Lialikhova, 2018). Negative effects of a FLA were recurrently described and have been the topic of L2 research (e.g. Dewaele & Dewaele, 2018; Marzec-Stawierska, 2015).

Similar feelings were also depicted in small groups of female Japanese university students who compared online chats and face-to-face settings using spoken language. They described their experiences as disfavouring face-to-face conversations (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006).

Classroom face-to-face communication restricts freedom to interact due to the social rules that ought to be followed, e.g., immediate interaction is expected, and there is also a risk of making a mistake. Both represent face-threatening acts. Such face pressures are generally considered to be more acute in Asian cultures where respectable adult members of society, sensitive to evaluation by others, tend to proceed with hesitancy and caution whenever there is the potential for making mistakes in the presence of others (Wen & Clément, 2003). Apart from social norms, intercultural sensitivity (the mixture of intercultural complex and L1 audience sensitivity) needs to be considered especially when enumerating the positives about studying abroad. During a study abroad stay in the Philippines Korean students experienced cultural and audience sensitivity because of their knowledge of the language context in the Philippines. Since Korean students considered their language skills as incomparable to those of Philippinos, it increased their concerns about their communication in English, increased FLA and unwillingness to communicate (Quinto et al., 2019).

We have already addressed the issue of making mistakes during teaching, therefore we shall now pay attention to the issue of silence during speaking tasks. As both students and teachers may feel uncomfortable when silence occurs, we will approach it from two directions, the silence caused by the lack of knowledge/skill which can be confused for the lack of engagement, and secondly the silence that includes a hidden process. As respondents in the study of Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) described their feelings during student-led discussions, silence was seen as a problem that caused the group members to feel uncomfortable evoking low confidence or/and high anxiety. Nonetheless, silence may also be an effect of lexical or content difficulties. In such situations strategies to overcome negative affect and silence or strategies to overcome vocabulary- or topic-related difficulties can be introduced (Ducker, 2021).

Beside other factors (e.g., social issues, the lack of active vocabulary and topic knowledge, procedural ambiguity, negative emotions related to the lack of peer comprehension or negative feedback), silence negatively affects students’ WTC. Anxiety and nervousness
during oral communication in a class causes reduced WTC and little engagement in whole-
class discussions (in self-conscious students) due to their awareness of being (negatively)
evaluated by the teacher and peers. Unlike that, students seem to demonstrate less or no
nervousness in smaller groups (Lialikhova, 2018). Group work in L2 teaching facilitates
situations that support students’ WTC through limiting teacher-fronted instructions, offering
authentic communication, lowering FLA (students are less concerned about making
mistakes), and thus enhancing their self-confidence. Correspondingly, Myhre and Fiskum
(2020) described positives of including outdoor context in teaching effects on students’
WTC. Based on the analysis of the interview material they assumed that the students felt
more confident practicing speech fluency in an outdoor context than they did in a classroom
setting because they felt being less observed and evaluated. Thus, they focused on fluency
not accuracy of their utterances which supported their confidence during interactions.

To summarize the advantages of outdoor context for language teaching as suggested
by the students we might mention the lack of whole-class audience, the focus on fluency
and task accomplishment and the feeling of being comfortable and self-confident when
talking in pairs or small groups. Teaching in a classroom setting on the other hand brings
about certain expectations in terms of norms or rules e.g., one voice, the expectancy of
being assessed and self-comparison with others that may easily lead to FLA (Lialikhova,
2018; Myhre & Fiskum, 2020).

4.3. Feedback received during computer mediated communication

A third of the studies reviewed in our article discussed the role of feedback received
through computer mediated communication (CMC) on students’ WTC. Focusing on teaching
practice we can describe digital feedback provided by a teacher as “… any information
supplied …with the help of any appropriate software and delivered in digital mode (written,
audio- or video-recorded) (Korol, 2021, 576).” All but one of the reviewed studies included
CMC activities that were both text- and voice-based and included interaction with a real
person (even though anonymous). The list of the mentioned features of CMC is provided in
Table 4. The communicative activities under investigation were designed as a part of teaching
activities.

An online chat serving as a synchronous channel of communication in a language
classroom poses anxiety, power and confidence factors that may favour it to face-to-face
conversation. The absence of immediacy allows students to express themselves without
inhibitions and the fear of evaluation (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006). Freiermuth and Jarrell
(2006) also presented that anonymity reduced the influence of social rules (that are found in
face-to-face settings), as well as the fear of making errors especially linked to pronunciation
problems, thus it did not threaten their self-image and enabled the students to focus on the
content, not the form of their utterance (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006). Nevertheless, time lag
caus ed out of sequence discourse and made the interaction confusing and difficult. The
authors concluded that overall, using chat in a school setting was an enjoyable way for the
students to communicate because it made them curious due to its novelty. They had smoother
and livelier conversations than in a face-to-face conversation. Albeit a chat used for
educational purposes may limit factors inhibiting communication and thus bolsters students’
WTC.
### Table 4 Features of computer mediated communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Types of CMC</th>
<th>Controlled</th>
<th>Text-based</th>
<th>Voice-based</th>
<th>Human interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006)</td>
<td>online chat</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee (2019)</td>
<td>ED activities</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tai and Chen (2020)</td>
<td>GALL activities</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006)</td>
<td>online chat</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study of Tai and Chen (2020) also included the factor of anonymity and on top of that there was no human evaluator. The authors posed a question: To what extent may Google Assistant (GA) applications facilitate WTC in L2 learning? They designed ten Google assisted language learning (GALL) activities that fitted the curriculum and provided opportunities for interactive, self-paced, individualized oral practice of English. The participants worked in groups, were randomly paired, had to interact with GA and also with a partner on topics of their own selection. The authors stated that the participants were willing to use English during GALL activities, they liked talking with chatbots which supported meaningful interaction, reduced their FLA and being afraid of making errors. Further, GALL activities motivated most of the students to use English for real and meaningful communicative purposes. The use of automatic speech recognition was highlighted for its interactive, enjoyable and realistic character. Moreover, immediate feedback to the participants’ utterances was appreciated (in contrast to face-to-face communication) as a possible way how to become aware of errors encouraging self-correction and self-practice. The increased voluntary practice resulted in increased self-esteem.

A step further out of the controlled school environment was taken by Kruk (2019) who investigated changes in two university students’ WTC over a period in a virtual world called Second Life. Virtual worlds users exist in their virtual worlds like avatars and visit places similar to real-life locations. It imitates real time communication both publicly or privately using voice and/or text chat tools. The avatar identity also offers the benefits of anonymity (as mentioned previously in connection to online chats), but at the same time it brings about the risk of messy and off-topic conversations or even insulting and abusive language. This lack of social rules may in result hinder the communication, negatively impact students’ motivation, and reduce their WTC. Beside the anonymity, Second Life offered other factors (e.g., interesting topics, the possibility to discuss common interests, meeting nice and willing to talk interlocutors, having fun) that contributed to higher levels of WTC and motivation and lower levels of boredom and FLA. To utilise the benefits of virtual worlds for L2 learning, and yet to overcome possible unpleasant encounters with rude and unwilling to talk interlocutors, Kruk (2019) suggested to create a virtual world for a particular group of students with restricted access areas.

Extramural digital (ED) activities defined as situations in which “students are involved in autonomous English learning in digital, unstructured, out-of-class environments that are not linked with a formal program … i.e., learners perform English learning activities on their own initiative, but these activities are not structured or assessed by the teacher” (Lee, 2019, p. 694), have a great potential for influencing WTC. Lee (2019) in his study attempted to map possible factors influencing L2 learner’s WTC among Korean students in ED environment, particularly Facebook, KaKaoTalk, and interacting via digital games and virtual communities.
Among the few factors that influenced positively student’s WTC were familiarity with communities, closeness to the interlocutors and the affective and social support that they received from them. On the other hand, regardless of their language competence, the students feared losing their face in public i.e., “they become unwilling to communicate in English in the presence of more proficient English users” (Lee, 2019 p. 706) because they fear the negative feedback they may receive. However, their unwillingness may be assigned to the fear of Asian cultures of losing face in public or in the presence of more knowledgeable person (Wen & Clément, 2003).

5. DISCUSSION

The diverse research on students’ WTC has yielded clear results concerning the influence of perceived communication competence on WTC (e.g., Halupka-Reštar et al., 2018; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010), motivation (Peng, 2007; Yashima et al., 2016) and FLA (MacIntyre et al., 2003; Yashima et al., 2016). Three key areas related to feedback and its influence on students’ WTC aroused during our analysis, namely the existence or the absence of social norms in a classroom, silence and face wants (self-image). We will now discuss the findings according to these areas with respect to the mode of feedback. The teaching of content is interwoven with classroom communication as Yule (1996) aptly described: “A linguistic interaction necessarily a social interaction … is influenced by various factors which relate to social distance and closeness.” (Yule, 1996, p. 59). In teaching, the social distance is determined by external factors (e.g., the status of the participants), while internal factors (e.g., the degree of friendliness) can be negotiated during the interaction. Both “have influence on not only what we say but also how we are interpreted” (Yule, 1996, p. 60). In a classroom setting students are bound by their expectations regarding the rules of communication (e.g., one voice, IRF communication structure, the necessity to respond immediately), their expectations of being assessed by their teacher (and their classmates), and the possible comparison to their classmates. It is not surprising that such an arduous combination hinders students’ WTC and impedes communication in the classroom. Teachers should therefore provide clear and objective criteria for feedback, especially for speaking and writing skills. It is these areas that cause the greatest concern to students, partly because they are considered subjective (Naumoska-Sarakinska, 2023). Although teacher’s feedback about a mistake is expected by students and provided by teachers in attempt to support the student in learning, it may decrease students’ WTC. In order to Even though CF pushes learners forward through pointing out errors (Ellis et al., 2006), it is perceived as a threat to students’ self-esteem. Further, avoidance behaviour in students may be caused by prevention feedback. Thus, immediate teacher’s correction increases FLA in students and decreases their self-perceived communication competence. Gardner et al. (1992) went further and explained that FLA inhibits students’ performance by diverting their attention from focusing on their utterances to their emotional state.

“Whereas positive language attitudes and motivation facilitate second language learning, language anxiety has been shown to impair the language learning process. The effects of language anxiety have been explained by postulating that anxiety consumes attention and cognitive resources that could otherwise be allocated to performance in the second language.” (Gardner et al., 1992, p. 198)
We need to mention that immediate correction can be seen as beneficial, however it was mentioned in connection to CMC where it was delivered by a computer. Hattie and Timperley (2007) suggested that feedback to be effective should be delivered in low-threat conditions and provide “information on correct rather than incorrect responses” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 85) building on previous progress and success. Therefore, a teacher emphasizing positive outcomes (using promotion feedback) helps to reduce students’ FLA and increases communication competence, thereby contributing to a positive atmosphere in the classroom and vice versa. Out-of-class context as well as delayed teacher’s feedback facilitate the flow of communication focusing on the fluency rather than the accuracy of communication. Students appreciate being able to deliver their opinions and ideas regardless of possible grammar errors. Above that, they feel less observed and evaluated during outdoor activities resulting in their increased WTC.

As mentioned earlier the social necessity to respond immediately is expected and in most communicative classroom settings, silence is uncomfortable for teachers as well as students. In such situations hesitant students may be at risk of being evaluated as unwilling to communicate (MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012), and they opt for their native language forcing others to also turn to their native language (e.g., Lialikhova, 2018). On the other hand, anonymous online chats lower students’ inhibition, their fear of making errors and yet offer opportunities to practise L2. However, it bears also possible drawbacks. The time lag, which is expected in CMC allows students more time to react, On the other hand it may cause confusion and disrupt the flow of communication. Further, the anonymity of uncontrolled CMC may include inappropriate content or unsatisfactory communication e.g., vulgar communication, off-topic conversation or partner hesitation reducing students’ initial enthusiasm and WTC. Hesitation refers to the learner’s inability to initiate intended actions from decisions (MacIntyre & Blackie, 2012). Hesitant students tend to be too slow to respond when the opportunity to speak arises in class. MacIntyre and Blackie (2012) reported that hesitation might create reactions from interlocutors, which reinforce the tendency to hesitate more in the future. In some situations, described by learners, the teachers interpreted hesitation to reflect on the message as a sign of inability and unwillingness to comprehend the message. Wait time a teacher offers to students for reflection, considering their thoughts and initiating a response might be the key factor supporting students’ WTC during teaching.

Overall, it is not the feedback itself, but the manner of the feedback that may affect students and their face wants. Yule (1996) defined a technical term face as: “the public self-image of a person. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize” (Yule, 1996, p. 60). In everyday communication people who are aware of that interact in a polite way i.e., they respect other people’s face wants. Thus, “If a speaker says something that represents a threat to another individual’s expectations regarding self-image, it is described as a face threatening act” (Yule, 1996, p. 61). A persistent threat to students’ self-image is either the fear of mispronouncing or saying something wrong (Lialikhova, 2018), self-reported low communicative competence and the possible negative evaluation (Tai & Chen, 2020).

6. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The goal of this paper was to describe the research related to WTC in relation to feedback students of English receive. The presented findings support the link between WTC and the fear of making mistakes, the fear of losing face and the need for meaningful
communication. In the paper, we outlined three broader sources of feedback and their possible consequence for students’ WTC - , teacher’s and peer-to-peer feedback within the course of face-to-face communication and feedback during CMC. Concerning L2 classroom instructions, there are various factors that teachers need to consider in order to enhance both students’ and the teacher’s feedback focusing on positive results, and a delayed correction that facilitates the flow of communication and students’ self-reported communication competence. The use of pair-work and group-work, as well as activities outside the classroom eliminate the feeling of constant evaluation and facilitate authentic communication. On the other hand, immediate feedback provided by CMC (in the absence of human audience) is perceived useful enhancing increased practice resulting in increased confidence.

As MacIntyre (2007) pointed out: “it is the critical decision for language learning success ... that bridges the social processes of interpersonal and intergroup contact, the educational process of language learning, as well as interpersonal communicative processes” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 567). Classroom communication and classroom climate are mutually interrelated factors. Negative feedback, as well as the lack of feedback negatively influences students WTC. On the other hand, teacher’s interest and support positively influence their WTC. Such interest and support can be expressed by providing confirmatory responses (e.g., yes, good), smiling, or by establishing eye contact with students. Hesitant students need to be provided with prompts, in case of linguistic problems or topic-related ideas or coping strategies. As Oxford (1994) confirms L2 learning strategies that are individualized and trained (e.g., risk-taking, paraphrasing, circumlocution, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation) are related to L2 achievement and proficiency.

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The Impact of Feedback on Students’ Willingness to Communicate in Foreign Language Learning


Zarrinabadi, N., & Dehkordi, E. S. (2021). The effects of reference of comparison (self-referential vs. normative) and regulatory focus (promotion vs. prevention) feedback on EFL learners’ willingness to communicate. Language Teaching Research, 13621688211013618. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211013618


APPENDIX

Willingness to communicate – database search January 2022

Key words: willingness to communicate, L2, anxiety, motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Research questions/hypotheses</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Results</th>
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</table>
| Avali and Esmaeilitfard  | n= 56  | H01: There is no statistically significant difference between the effect of teaching English by emotional scaffolding and traditional way of teaching through providing recasts on developing Iranian elementary EFL high and low anxious learners’ language achievement.  
H02: There is no statistically significant difference between the effect of teaching English by emotional scaffolding and traditional way of teaching through providing recasts on developing Iranian elementary EFL high and low anxious learners’ willingness to communicate. achievement.  | KET WTC questionnaire FL CAS | Emotional scaffolding significantly influenced positively both experimental groups’ learning achievement. Its effect on the learners with low levels of anxiety was significantly more than the high ones.  
Emotional scaffolding increased the learners’ tendency to communicate significantly positively. It was more in the learners with high level of anxiety. |
| Cameron (2015)           | n=2    | Which individual factors do Iranian learners regard as influential in their WTC in the English language context, both in Iran and New Zealand?  
How do Iranian learners perceive any contextual variations in their WTC from an non-English speaking country (Iran) to an ESL classroom in their new country of migration (NZ)?  
How do Iranian learners perceive any contextual variations in their WTC over two semesters in two NZ English pre-university classes?  | questionnaire an in-depth interview, class observation | Influential individual factors language learning experiences, personality traits, self-confidence, and motivation.  
Contextual variations led to a change in the students’ situational WTC. The changes in WTC between one semester and another in NZ were due to a developing confidence in the language. Also external factors in personal and family lives influenced their classroom attendance and behaviour. |
<p>| Cameron (2013) | n=3 | From the learners' perspective, what predisposes them towards WTC in the English language classroom context in Iran/NZ? Is the learners' WTC a stable personality-based, trait-like characteristic or does it vary in different learning situations i.e., from an EFL environment in a non-English speaking country (Iran) to a classroom in the learners' new country of migration (NZ)? | In depth semi-structured interview | Self-perceived competence, personality, motivation, anxiety, and learning context, including methods and approaches and the role of the teacher, were all important aspects of their language learning experience, and led to their overall WTC. Therefore, at times these learners' WTC was indeed affected by their context and situation. |
| Ducker (2021) | n=9 | What strategies do learners use to protect and promote their own WTC? What additional benefits does peer—peer strategy sharing confer? | idiodynamic software follow-up review homework post-interview | The ratings of WTC antecedents, anxiety, confidence, and motivation were shown to be volatile and highly idiosyncratic. Factors that had a positive WTC influence: external feedback, task completion, feelings of empathy and improving personal relationships within the group, feelings of personal affirmation, topic interest, feeling of success and enjoyment in carrying out the activity, security. Facors that adversely impacted WTC: silence, the anticipation of their turn, disagreements, the inability to express oneself, the lack of topic knowledge, procedural ambiguity and negative emotions. Justifications for a peer—peer approach to strategy training were that it may correspond closely to the learners' actual classroom experiences and provide insights that teachers may not be aware of. |
| Freiemuth and Jarrell (2006) | n=36 | Which venue is preferred for task resolution? Why is the selected venue preferred? Which venue elicited more second language production? Are there qualitative features in the discourse and from other survey questions that could offer evidence that either online chat or spoken conversation might stimulate a willingness to communicate? | student-produced discourse | The post-test questionnaire data and the discourse produced by students indicate that students were more willing to communicate online. Overall, online chat enhanced interaction and opportunities to interact. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jajarmi et al. (2019)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>What type of feedback do English language teachers use more in their interaction with learners?</td>
<td>WTC questionnaire classroom observation</td>
<td>There was a significant difference between the mean scores for WTC in life teachers’ classes and those in linguistic teachers’ classes. The students who received more life feedback from their teachers during discussions were more WTC their ideas than those who were mostly exposed to linguistic feedback.</td>
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<td>Kruk (2019)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Is there variability in the participants’ WTC, motivation, boredom and language anxiety in the course of a single session in SL and from one session to another? What is the relationship between WTC, motivation, boredom and language anxiety and does that relationship change over time? What influences these fluctuations in the participants’ WTC, motivation, boredom and language anxiety?</td>
<td>session logs self-reflection self-rating of WTC, motivation boredom and language anxiety</td>
<td>On average, the levels of WTC and motivation showed the increasing as well as fall-rise and the rise-steady ones. Both students displayed the decreasing trend in their experience of boredom and language anxiety from the start until the end of sessions. The levels of WTC and motivation generally mirrored in a reversed manner those related to boredom and language anxiety. Factors such as interesting topics, the possibility to discuss common interests, meeting nice and willing to talk interlocutors, comprehending, having fun or a shielding effect of a personal avatar contributed to higher levels of WTC and motivation and lower levels of boredom and LA. Factors such as unpleasant SL users and monotony had some bearing on higher levels of boredom and LA and lower levels of WTC and motivation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lee (2019)</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>What factors may have positive or negative influences on EFL learners’ L2 WTC when engaging with ED activities?</td>
<td>semi-structured in-depth interviews</td>
<td>Drawing on grounded theory, socio-political, contextual, and individual variables emerged as major sources of influence on participants’ L2 WTC. These sub variables appeared to interact simultaneously during L2 communication in the ED context.</td>
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<td>Study</td>
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<td>Lialkhova (2018)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Did the CLIL project help the lower secondary students to be more WTC orally in English compared to regular EFL lessons? What factors motivated and demotivated them to do so?</td>
<td>pre- and post-interviews pre- and post-questionnaire</td>
<td>The students seemed to be more engaged in oral activities during the CLIL intervention, thus showing higher WTC orally. The teacher perceived that the CLIL classroom made the students more motivated to speak English. The main triggering factors: activities employing videos and other visual aids, and group activities, topic familiarity and advance preparation. Students seemed demotivated, and their WTC decreased when having to discuss long subject-specific texts and theory, when showing concern about insufficient content knowledge; and when peers used the L1.</td>
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<td>Quinto et al. (2019)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Do the Korean participants in study abroad programs in the Philippines exhibit willing (or unwilling) to communicate in English tendencies? What factors explain Korean EFL learners’ willingness (or unwillingness) to communicate in English?</td>
<td>in depth focus group discussion</td>
<td>The focus group discussion results indicate that the participants do not seem to engage in random conversations unless necessary, reporting feelings of discomfort when doing so. They do not exert effort to overcome apprehension and introversion in more communicatively demanding situations. Three factors explain their unwillingness to communicate in English tendencies emerged: level of formality, intercultural sensitivity, and subject matter anxiety.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Montazeri and Salimi (2019)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>H01: Metalinguistic CF does not have any statistically significant impact of EFL learners’ motivation to speak. H02: Metalinguistic CF does not have any statistically significant impact of EFL learners’ WTC.</td>
<td>placement test Motivation to speak and WTC questionnaire IELTS speaking test</td>
<td>Metalinguistic CF had a statistically significant effect on EFL learners’ motivation to speak. Metalinguistic CF had a statistically significant effect on EFL learners’ WTC.</td>
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<td>Myhre and Fiskum (2020)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>How do Norwegian secondary school students experience the development of English fluency in an outdoor context?</td>
<td>Semi-structured group interviews</td>
<td>The students found their English fluency to be improved and the outdoors environment increased their confidence and intrinsic motivation for developing their spoken English skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
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<td>Research Question</td>
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<td>Peng (2020)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>To what extent does students' WTC in the whole-class IRF-patterned interaction differ from their WTC in dyadic and group interaction? What are the teacher interaction strategies in the whole-class IRF-patterned interaction that function to sustain students' WTC?</td>
<td>Classroom observation, thermometer-shaped WTC grid, interview</td>
<td>There was no significant difference between students' WTC in whole-class interaction and in dyadic and group interaction. The teacher interaction strategies in the whole-class IRF-patterned interaction: open or referential questions in the I-move and J-move, manipulation of wait time following prompts, monitoring private speech and contextual or multimodal cues played a role in sustaining situated WTC in teacher-fronted interaction.</td>
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<td>Tai and Chen (2020)</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>Does GA significantly promote the adolescent EFL learners' WTC in English? If so, what factors contribute to learners' WTC? What are adolescent EFL learners' favourite GA language learning activities that enhance WTC? What are the adolescent EFL learners' perceptions of GA for English learning?</td>
<td>GALL activities WTC, questionnaire interviews</td>
<td>The mean scores of participants’ perceptions of WTC in English during conventional class time were significantly different from those they perceived during GALL activities. The participants were motivated and excited, they particularly liked ASR, which made the GALL activity more interactive, enjoyable and realistic. ASR provided immediate feedback.</td>
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<td>Tavakoli and Zarrinabadi (2016)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>Does explicit and implicit CF affect EFL learners' L2 WTC? If yes, how does the implementation of explicit and implicit CF influence L2 WTC?</td>
<td>WTC inside the classroom questionnaire Semi-structured interviews recalls</td>
<td>Implicit CF did not alter learners' L2 WTC, whereas explicit CF led to positive effects. There was a direct relationship between the manner of CF presentation and levels of L2 anxiety experienced about classroom communication. Explicit CF was found to affect learners' L2 WTC by increasing their perceived linguistic competence. The participants wanted to know their errors because it provided progress checks of their performance and motivation to perform better in future. They became willing to talk and test whether their grammar has improved.</td>
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<td>Study</td>
<td>Sample Size</td>
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<td>Zare et al. (2020)</td>
<td>n=60</td>
<td>What are the views of EFL learners about teachers’ oral CF and the tie between oral CF and L2 WTC inside the classroom? Do oral CF types significantly affect L2 WTC of EFL learners in the starter, elementary, pre-intermediate, and the intermediate levels of language proficiency, and is there an interaction effect between oral CF types and proficiency levels?</td>
<td>Oral CF questionnaire, WTC scale, semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>The learners believed that they liked their teacher to correct all the errors. They embraced explicit oral CF in dealing with grammatical, lexical and pronunciation errors. There was a preference for immediate correction. The majority disagreed with ignoring the errors and preferred prompts to recasts and explicit correction. The latter was seen as less conductive to WTC than other oral CF types. WTC decreased in learners receiving explicit correction at lower level but increased in the learners at higher level.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zarei et al. (2019)</td>
<td>n=25</td>
<td>What are Iranian EFL teacher’s perceptions of socio-affective and pedagogic strategy use in engendering WTC in the classroom within cultural context of Iran?</td>
<td>A focus group interview</td>
<td>Facilitating factors: developing positive relationship (immediacy, teachers’ support, fairness, teachers’ enthusiasm), choice of topic, teaching style (challenging activities, error correction, teachers’ congruence) Hindering factors: teachers’ role, teaching style, institutional expectations</td>
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<td>Zarrinabadi (2014)</td>
<td>n=50</td>
<td>How can teachers affect learners’ tendency to talk in class?</td>
<td>A focused essay</td>
<td>Teachers’ wait time, error correction, decision on the topic, and support exert influence on learners’ WTC. Higher WTC situations included negotiated topics, students’ choice, focus on student knowledge, awareness and adaptation of error correction, allotment of time for consideration and reflection prior to answering questions, and creating a supportive learning environment through verbal and non-verbal communication strategies on the part of the teacher.</td>
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<td>Study</td>
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<td>Zarrinabadi, and Dehkordi (2021)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>How do self-referential feedback and normative feedback influence WTC among EFL learners? How do promotion-focused feedback and prevention focused feedback influence WTC among EFL learners?</td>
<td>a pre-test/post-test scales on WTC, perceived competence, and communication anxiety, semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Normative, self-referential, and promotion conditions significantly improved the participants’ WTC. Prevention feedback decreased WTC and communication competence and enhanced anxiety. The self-referential feedback positively influenced learners’ WTC. Normative feedback influenced WTC in less perceived anxiety in the class. The promotion feedback influenced the participants’ WTC by lowering their anxiety, providing indications on teacher support, and enhancing motivation in the L2, which led to more classroom participation. The prevention feedback negatively influenced WTC by decreasing communication competence and increasing anxiety.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zarrinabadi et al. (2021)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>How does the implementation of different praise types affect competence, speaking anxiety, and mindset scores of Iranian EFL learners? How do interviews with language learners help to explain quantitative differences in the mindset scores of three praise groups?</td>
<td>Questionnaire on WTC, perceived communication competence, and language anxiety, and language mindset Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>The praise for effort – students improved their WTC, growth mindsets and perceived communication competence. The praise for intelligence – significantly lower growth mindsets, lower WTC, and higher anxiety but no change for their perceived communication competence. The praise for effort group felt more motivated while the praise for intelligence group felt less interested and motivated (it was in both cases attributed to the teacher’s behaviour). The praise for effort participants took a failure as a part of the learning process while the participants in the praise for intelligence group felt stressed and anxious about making a mistake in future sessions.</td>
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