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在英文為外國語言之情境下教師回應對學生寫作修正之影響

The Influence of Teacher Response on Students' Revision
in an EFL Setting

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中文摘要

由於外語學習的熱潮與各國國際學生的日益增加，第二外語寫作 (Second Language Writing) 在過去數十年間已迅速發展。就英語而言，許多第二外語寫作的理論除了源自於母語寫作 (First Language Writing) 的概念，同時也自行發展出許多更適合英語為外國語言 (EFL) 之學習者的理論與教學法。此外，由於「過程導向」(Process Approach) 的寫作觀點廣被寫作研究學者與寫作教師們所推崇與採用，近十年的寫作流程也由過去重視單篇文章中修正文法錯誤之練習方式，轉變成現在的先協助學生透過組織文章內容充份表達自己的想法後，再專注於用字等語言文法錯誤的更正，期許透過多次修改 (Revision) 的過程，讓學生可以提升真正寫作能力。

因此，許多第二外語寫作專家專注於探究教師回應 (Teacher Response) 在學生寫作與修改過程所扮演的角色與其影響力。許多研究顯示，教師回應的模式對學生在文章的內容上有幫助；然而，教師回應對學生在文法更正與掌握上的效果似乎還尚未定論。而這些研究教師回應的文獻中，其研究對象皆為大專程度之學生，鮮少專文探究語言程度較低的高中生。也因此，本研究著重於教師回應對高中生在英文寫作與寫作修改上的影響。

本研究旨在探究兩種教師回應的方式施用在兩組各二十名的台灣高中生之影響，並且藉由各組在英文寫作與修改上的表現、回顧報告 (retrospective protocol)、問卷與訪談等方式，針對這兩種書面回應方式的影響作量化與質化的分析探討。實驗組接受以問題為主的回應方式 (Question-based TR)；對照組則接受直接修改的回應方式 (Direct-correction TR)。這兩種書面回應皆包含針對文法錯誤的回應 (grammar-focused

TR) 與針對文章內容安排的回應 (content-focused TR)。就文法部份，本研究僅探討學生在時式上的錯誤；就內容組織上，本研究著重於學生文章是否含有主旨句 (thesis statement)。

結果顯示，教師回應對學生寫作之修正有立即性的效果：兩組學生在修正版的文章中文法錯誤皆明顯下降。然而，在面對主旨句的使用，接受教師提問的實驗組表現不如對照組好。對另一研究問題，即教師回應在學生修正版本中的影響力是否持續至另一篇新文章中，本研究發現無論實驗組或對照組，大多數的學生在新文章中都出現文法錯誤增加的現象，對於主旨句的掌握亦有退步的現象；而這兩種退步的現象尤以接受直接修改的對照組為嚴重。詳細分析每位學生的三篇文章、回顧報告、問卷與訪談，我們得知多數學生沒有進步主要是在書寫新文章的時候相當粗心大意而非不懂應該使用何種時式，因此在以簡單式的時式項目錯誤最多。此外，多數學生對英文寫作中「主旨句」的概念似乎仍無法通盤理解與確切掌握，顯示中文缺乏時式與時態的使用與不大需要主旨句的寫作風格影響了這群英語為外國語言的學習者。

雖然教師回應的持續影響效果在本研究中不明顯，絕大多數學生在問卷中表示對各自所得到的教師回應則持肯定的態度，認為自己在這三次寫作經驗中學到一些東西，同時也指出有試圖從教師回應中所學到的知識應用於新的文章之中。此外，學生的回顧報告也讓本研究深入地探討學生對教師回應之看法與態度，較為特殊的發現為：實驗組對教師的提問有較多的意見與反駁，而對照組對於教師的直接修改都完全接受。這反映了以提問為主的教師回應讓學生有更多的思考空間，此外，提問也讓學生對個人錯誤較有警覺。

最後，透過這四十位高中學生對這三次寫作流程與教師回應的意見，期能帶給高中教師們有更多寫作教學上的想法與應用，也能為同領域的研究學者們在未來的研究上有更多的參考與建議。

ABSTRACT

The development of second language writing has boomed with the wide spread of foreign language learning and the increasing number of international students over the last decades. In English, many L2 writing theories originate from L1 writing theories but meanwhile more theories and methods have been developed and adapted for EFL learners. In this decade, with the advocacy of process approach by writing researchers and teachers, students' writing procedure has changed, from focusing on error correction in a single draft to focusing on content and organization first and then on grammar in multiple drafts. This process-oriented approach, by means of revising, is expected to improve students' composing competence.

As a result, many L2 writing researchers have investigated the influences of teacher response (TR) on students' writing and revising processes. A large number of studies have shown that TR is of help to content development while the effectiveness of the TR on students' mastery of grammar and error correction seems unfixed. What is more, most research targeted students at the college level, but few studies have investigated students at the lower level such as senior high school students. Therefore, the present study aims at examining the influences of TR on senior high school students' revision and subsequent writing.

The purpose of this study is to analyze two types of TR employed for two groups of students quantitatively and qualitatively via students' writing performances over three drafts, retrospective protocols, questionnaires, and interviews. The experimental group received question-based TR and the control group received direct correction as TR. Both types of TR include grammar-focused TR on tense usages and content-focused TR on the use of a proper thesis statement.

The findings reveal that TR has an instant effect on students' revision: both groups

have lower error ratios in the revision. However, in terms of the use of a thesis statement in an essay, students receiving question-based TR do not perform as well as those receiving direct correction. In addition, the immediate effect of the TR on the revision does not sustain in the new essay: in both groups, most students show more errors in tense usages in the new essay; their ability to use a thesis statement regresses as well, particularly in the direct-correction group. Students' carelessness when they are writing contributes a lot to the increasing error ratios in the new essay. Besides, many students have difficulty using an appropriate thesis statement for their essay, suggesting the use of a thesis statement may be difficult for students at this level. This implies possible first language interference—there is no clear use of tense and aspect in Mandarin and no necessity of using a thesis statement in a Chinese essay.

Although the carry-over effect of the TR is not significant in this study, a majority of the students show a positive attitude towards the TR they receive, pointing out in the questionnaire that they learn something from the TR and also try to apply what they have learned from the TR to the new essay. Furthermore, students' retrospective protocols also reveal students' different reactions to TR. Those who receive TR in the form of a question have more opinions or disagreements while those who are given direct-correction TR tend to revise their drafts simply following the TR. This suggests that question-based TR gives students more opportunities to think over their problems and that asking questions may help student raise their consciousness of their own errors and problems.

Finally, the findings from this study, and opinions proposed by the participants in this study should render senior high school teachers useful pedagogical implications and provide L2 writing researchers with insightful suggestions for further research.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

Second language writing has drawn a great deal of attention in the past two decades. Both theories and pedagogical practices of first language (L1) writing have contributed a lot to the development of second language (L2) writing (e.g., Friedlander, 1990; Edelsky, 1982; Johns, 1990; Raimes, 1985). Inheriting theoretical premises from L1 writing, L2 writing specialists attend to the production of L2 writing, the recursive process of apprentice writers, the incorporation of teacher response (henceforth TR) in students' revision, and the impact of TR during students' composing process.

New trends of L2 writing, on the other hand, gradually emerge focusing on the distinctive nature of L2 learning, such as the role of vocabulary and grammar in L2 writing, L2 reading-writing connection, and genre analysis (Matsuda, 2003). More recently, the advances in computer technology also provide new possibilities for L2 writing and new techniques for incorporating computers into writing instruction. Lastly, academic writing is becoming a booming arena with the flourishing development of EAP writing in North America, which has attracted a large number of researchers to investigate and analyze its distinctive linguistic features in various important genres.

Of all L1 writing power over L2 writing development, the most dominant and influential is the process approach. Introduced to L2 studies by Zamel (1976), writing as a process is the primary notion of the process-based approach. The upholders of this approach advocates "ESL writing teachers need to have students write multiple drafts, to give feedback at intermediate stages of the writing process, to give feedback on content only on early drafts,

saving form-based feedback for the end of the process” (Ferris, 2003, p. 6).

Despite the wide spread of this approach in the academic field, many L2 writing teachers still follow traditional writing pedagogy, regarding students’ writing texts as final products and emphasizing surface linguistic accuracy. With regard to TR, research has indicated that the way a writing teacher responds to students’ work is often inconsistent and vague (e.g., Sommers, 1982). The validity of the teachers’ red mark on students’ writing drafts is inevitably under stringent debate (e.g., Ferris et al., 1997; Zamel, 1985).

Consequently, many L2 writing specialists have worked strenuously to probe into the relation between TR and students’ revision from a wide range of perspectives (see Leki, 1990; Reid, 1994; Silva, 1988), not only attempting to clarify how internal factors (e.g., the focus of the response) and external factors (e.g., students’ attitudes toward the responses they receive) may influence students’ performance on the subsequent writing practice, but also striving for a more viable and practical response system. In addition to the endeavor on the effects of TR upon students’ first draft and revision, many L2 writing experts have also tried to compare different types of TR in depth, with a view to finding effective guidelines for TR in an L2 setting.

The scope of L2 writing investigation on TR includes issues on the types of TR and the nature of TR (e.g., Ferris, 1997; Ferris et al., 1997; Hyland, 1998; Straub, 1996). The former line of the research explores topics such as the effectiveness of direct response (i.e., correcting errors directly) versus indirect response (i.e., indicating the erroneous part) (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Frantzen, 1995; Makino, 1993; Polio et al., 1998). As for the nature of TR, three aspects are examined most frequently: (1) the mode of TR (e.g., static or dynamic), (2) the type of TR (e.g., direct or indirect correction), and (3) the focus of TR (e.g., grammar-oriented or content-oriented). Plenty of studies have compared the effectiveness of different types of TR with different focuses (e.g., Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Russikoff & Kogan, 1996; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992).

Despite many investigations and discussions on TR, the results, unfortunately, seem mixed. The influences of TR on students' writing drafts are still in great dispute, because divergent findings have brought about flaming contentions about the utility of the teacher response on students' writing. As a matter of fact, some L2 writing investigators even strongly recommend the abolition of grammar-focused TR, since they argue that studies have suggested low effect or even negative impact of grammar correction (e.g., Truscott, 1996, 1999). From these perspectives, the effectiveness of TR seems to require further explorations.

On the other hand, ever since 1960s, particularly before 1980s, the development of L2 writing mostly focused on the needs of international students in the U.S. higher education (Matsuda, 2003). Many insights from these studies have contributed a lot to the consolidation of L2 writing research. However, few studies have been conducted aiming at L2 students at the lower level such as high school students of English as a foreign language (EFL). A great need can be perceived for examining this group of students since English writing is also required for high school students in Taiwan.



Rationale of the Study

Therefore, this study is conducted on the premise that little research is performed targeting EFL novice writers at the high-school level. With lower language proficiency than university students', high school students confront more challenges during their writing process; most of them are still at a stage of working hard to master linguistic aspects that are distinctively different from their first language. Some of them may even regard writing an English essay as a formidable task on account of their limited vocabulary and sentence patterns. Thus, we can imagine how revision may further compound their frustration of writing in English if they receive vague or unreadable TRs. To understand more about what exactly happens during the writing process of L2 high-school students and what kind of TR can be effective in facilitating their writing ability, the present study intends to examine the

influences of TR on their writing works.

Additionally, current high-school English writing instruction in Taiwan is often neglected, provided irregularly or with poor design, owing to the constraints of time allotted to the English writing course. Usually, students will wait till their final year to have a couple of opportunities to practice English writing; few of them can receive well-designed, effective writing instruction. It is common that writing teachers merely correct the errors in students' writing drafts directly; such a traditional approach to error treatment, however, seems to have limited effects on students' habitual errors. Some teachers, for the purpose of saving time, would simply mark students' texts with underlines, circles, or question marks. These markers often confuse students, especially as students are not highly aware of their own errors. In a word, it seems hard for novice writers at the high-school stage to have clear ideas about how to revise an English composition without proper responses from their writing teachers. Since TR plays an essential role for novice writers, investigating different types of TR can further shed light on the influences of TR during students' writing process.



Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to examine different types of TR in terms of its influences on students' writing performances in revision and subsequent writing. This study also explores a new type of TR, written responses in the form of a question, which is hoped to be viable and widely adopted in EFL secondary school settings. Since the findings of previous studies on direct correction have been mixed, this study is carried out in the hope to get encouraging results from this question-based TR. Many researchers have indicated indirect response involves more "cognitive engagement" (Ferris, 2002, p. 19); as a result, the question-based response is expected to elicit more thinking process of the students who receive it. Furthermore, this thinking process is also expected to help students improve their ability to notice and tackle their errors in the subsequent writing.

This study, in consequence, attempts to examine two types of TR, delving into each influence on students' revision as well as the new composition. Specific research questions are formed as follows:

1. Does teacher response influence students' revision? If so, does this effect sustain?
2. Do different types of teacher response make differences in students' revision?
3. Does grammar-focused response help reduce students' grammatical errors in revision?
4. Does content-focused response lead to students' writing progress in text organization?
5. What attitudes do students have towards teacher response? How do they perceive different types of teacher response?

Initiated by an interest in L2 writing process, this study casts much concern with the relationship between teachers' commentary and students' writing performance, or more specifically, what impact a writing teacher's response may have on students' revision and subsequent writing. To investigate the influences of different types of TR on students' following drafts, this study, from a more qualitative perspective, also looks into students' thinking process as they were revising and their reactions to the TR they received.

The research design of the present study is as follows. Two groups of high school students were treated with different types of TR—one with direct correction as TR and the other with responses in the form of a question. The students then revised their compositions. Differences in students' revision were analyzed to compare the influences of the two types of TR quantitatively and qualitatively. A new essay was given three weeks after the revision so that whether the effects of the different TRs sustained could be assessed.

To sum up, this investigation hopes to make contribution to L2 writing by providing insights into EFL high school novice writers' performances with the aid of teacher response.

The results from both quantitative and qualitative analyses should offer inspirational pedagogical implications for high-school (writing) teachers in designing applicable writing curricula for writers with lower language proficiency.

In the next chapter, a detailed literature review is provided. After a general comparison between L1 and L2 writing, the difficulties arising from L2 writing process will be briefly discussed. Since this study is intended to scrutinize the effects of TR on students' writing products, the nature of TR is mainly focused, including (1) the mode of TR, (2) the type of TR, and (3) two primary focuses of TR. What is more, as learning involves considerable external and internal factors, relevant factors which may make influences on the progress of students' composing ability will also be discussed in the final subsection of the literature review.

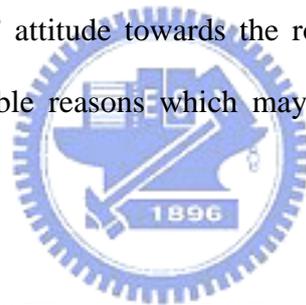
In the third chapter, a thorough description of the methodology adopted in this study is presented. Targeting participants at the high-school level, this study employs different types of teacher response in two groups. The experimental group receives the response in the form of a question and group performances over three drafts are compared with that of the control group, which is treated with direct correction. Students' writing and revising processes are accessed through their retrospective protocol, questionnaire, and interview.

Chapter four displays the findings of this study, arranged in the following sequence: immediate effect on revision, carry-over effect on subsequent writing, and students' perception of the TR they received. The quantitative part of the findings is shown with the support or explanation of the qualitative findings from students' protocols, questionnaires, and interviews, so that the influences of TR can be scrutinized and discussed in depth. The last chapter, discussions, conclusions and implications, starts with a summary of the findings, then discusses pedagogical implications and limitations of the study, and finally, provides suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter gives an extensive review of important studies in the research areas involved in second language writing. Firstly, we offer a general introduction to the development of L2 writing and gradually narrow the focus down to the revision in L2 writing. The effectiveness of teacher response (TR) on students' revising process is discussed, from different types of TR to different focuses of TR. Findings and results related to the present study are highlighted. Besides, we also examine various perspectives on TR, such as teachers' attitude toward TR and students' attitude towards the role of TR in their writing process. Finally, we move to other possible reasons which may affect the effectiveness of TR on students' writing.



L2 Writing and L1 Writing

The development of second language (L2) writing research has received much impact from research on first language (L1) writing. Many L2 writing researchers turned to the theoretical as well as pedagogical practices in L1 writing for guidance (e.g., Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990; Johns, 1990; Raimes, 1985).

Among all L1 writing theories, the *process approach* is the most influential on L2 writing evolution. It has been widely adopted in L1 composition classrooms in the United States since early 1970s when the structuralist view of language was harshly criticized (e.g., Elbow, 1973; Garrison, 1974; Zamel, 1976). Different from product-oriented approach, the process approach focuses on the process of writing and revising and advocates multiple drafting. Upholders for this approach regard writing as a thinking process; it is a “non-linear,

exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas” (Zamel, 1983, p. 165; cited in Silva, 1990, p. 15). Hence, it is believed that “composition means thinking” (Raimes, 1983, p. 165; cited in Silva, 1990, p. 15) and that “content, ideas and the need to communicate would determine form” (Silva, 1990, p. 15). In light of these concepts, both student writers and writing teachers should attend to the composing process rather than the final product.

The process approach soon made waves in L2 writing research field. In many L2 writing conferences in the 1980s, there were an increasing number of studies exploring the practice and effect of the process approach in various L2 contexts (Leki, 1992).

Zamel, for example, is one of the most articulate L2 writing researchers who advocate the application of L1 writing tenets and principles, particularly, the process approach, to L2 writing research and pedagogy. Zamel (1985, 1987) proposed that

ESL writing teachers need to have students write multiple drafts, to give feedback at intermediate stages of the writing process, to give feedback on content only on early drafts, saving form-based feedback for the end of the process, and to utilize teacher-student conferences and peer response (cited in Ferris, 2003, p. 16).

Besides Zamel, Silva (1990) considered this seemingly ubiquitous approach one of the four influential L2 writing approaches between 1945 and 1990. Similarly, Johns (1990) discussed L1 composition theories, including the process approach, and indicated their implications for L2 writing development.

The trend of taking insights from L1 writing for L2 writing research and pedagogy is clearly shown in Silva (1988), who commented on Zamel (1987):

Work in native language composition has had a powerful impact because it has established the prima facie need to examine what writers do, what strategies they employ, what problems they experience, what notions they adhere to, in order that we may determine appropriate and effective instruction (Silva, 1988, p. 521).

On the surface, we have good reasons to believe that there are many similarities between L1 and L2 writing on the grounds that a similar fundamental cognitive process is involved in

both (Farch & Kasper, 1986). However, concerning the linguistic, cultural, and experiential aspects of writing, L1 and L2 writing are very different (Silva, 1988).

First, L2 writers experience a different writing process from L1 writers. Many studies have indicated that “the process of writing in an L2 is startlingly different from writing in our L1” (Raimes, 1985, p. 232). Direct application of L1 writing theories to L2 settings is therefore imprudent and improper (Silva, 1988). A similar conclusion was also made by Johns (1990) who indicated that no theory of L2 writing could be comprehensive merely based on L1 writing insights, because “world views among theorists, researchers, and teachers in both the first language and ESL differ” (Johns, 1990, p. 33). Johns (1990) suggested such difference in the light of four basic writing components which were first mentioned by Berlin (1982): the writer, the audience, reality and truth, and the source of language.

More convincingly, Silva (1993), examining 72 research reports, further revealed the distinct nature of L2 writing from L1 writing. From the perspective of composing processes and features of written texts, his study disclosed salient differences in three sub-processes: planning, transcribing, and reviewing. According to Silva (1993), L2 writers do less planning than L1 writers, spend more time referring to a prompt and consulting a dictionary, exhibit more concern and difficulty with vocabulary, write at a slower rate, and produce fewer words in a written text. L2 writers also show less reviewing involvement, with less rereading and less reflecting on written texts. This further echoes the findings in many studies which have reported that L2 writing involves more revision (Gaskill, 1986; Hall, 1987, 1990; Schiller, 1989; Tagong, 1991). Namely, these research results reflect the fact that L2 writers encounter more difficulties and frustrations at various stages of writing than L1 writers.

With regard to written text features, Silva (1993) also unveiled differences between L1 and L2 in terms of fluency, accuracy, quality, and structure. On the whole, L2 writing is a less fluent process, and tends to contain fewer words than L1 writing. L2 writers make more

errors overall. Even, L2 texts are also regarded as less effective than L1 texts (Campbell, 1987, 1990; Connor, 1984; Hafernik, 1990; Reid, 1988; Xu, 1990). Finally, in information structure, L2 writers' texts manifest different features from the texts by native English speakers (NES) in terms of general textual patterns, argument structures, and narrative structures.

To sum up, as Silva (1993) has pointed out, although both L1 and L2 writers are observed to experience a recursive composing process, "L2 writing is strategically, rhetorically, and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing" (p. 669). These differences, therefore, should be taken into consideration when L2 writing teachers face L2 writers and their writing.

L2 Writing and Revision

With the prevalence of the process approach, writing teachers try to adopt multiple drafting, emphasizing the importance of revision. As part of the writing and thinking process, revising is generally believed to give student writers more chances to practice conceiving their ideas, planning their organization, and thinking about how to iron out the problems they encounter. Thus, the process of revision turns to be valued and many researchers have devoted themselves to exploring the relation between writing and revising.

L2 Writing Revision and Revision Difficulties

As indicated in Silva's (1993) survey, writing in a foreign language is a different and more difficult experience/process in comparison to writing in the native language. An L2 writer's culture, social background, and rhetorical and linguistic conventions can exert considerable and sophisticated influence on their strategies and styles in learning and writing (Silva, 1997). Along with another Silva's (1993) finding that L2 writing involved more revision, L2 writers are confronted with greater challenge in the L2 writing process. The

problem that makes most students challenged may be their poverty of ideas about how to construct a text with logical and persuasive content and their lack of appropriate lexicon and structural patterns.

From this perspective, opportune guidance from writing teachers can be helpful. The role of a writing teacher, as a result, has become a major concern in L2 writing research. Thanks to the development of this trend, the topic of teacher response (TR) to student writers captures much attention, since the provision of TR to students' writing may have a direct impact on their revision as well as their writing proficiency.

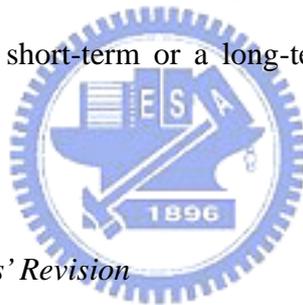
Aside from the aforementioned challenge emerging from the composing process, L2 students may also confront other setbacks. First, L2 apprentice writers are less capable of revising in an intuitive manner of "revising by ear," namely, on the basis of what "sounds" good (Silva, 1993, p. 662). Many L2 writers know where they may err but fail to revise appropriately. This weakness to exploit a more intuitive, native-like manner in revision may mainly result from students' low language proficiency. On account of lower linguistic competence, ESL/EFL writers have to face more inevitable challenges than English-speaking writers in the use of more refined rhetorical skills when writing.

Second, even if L2 writers eventually accomplish their seemingly good composition, they may be frustrated by the hardship of revising processes, during which many L2 writers have been found sticking themselves in the mud of red marks on their texts. Influenced by the process-oriented pedagogies of L1 writing, many L2 researchers highly enthrone multiple drafts for a single writing assignment (e.g., Ferris, 2003; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1982, 1983, 1985). Accordingly, in L2 writing classrooms, more and more L2 students surely face the complicated procedure of writing the first draft, receiving the draft with or without TR, and submitting the revised draft. This "cycle of revision" (Butturff & Summers, 1980, p. 103) sometimes even takes place iteratively for the same writing product, but the effect is relatively limited. This practice is thus often complained by student writers and even writing

teachers (Ferris et al., 1997; Hairston, 1986).

The last difficulty L2 learners may encounter is revision strategies. It seems that both native speakers and non-native speakers are limited to their repertoire of strategies for revising compositions (Cohen, 1987). In particular, when given implicit or inconsistent TR, many student writers might just look at the red marks at their wits end. In view of this, both L1 and L2 writing research have been investigating the explicitness of TR for the sake of making TR more effective and efficient.

To date, the existing research on TR and revision has been discussed in full detail in the following subsections. Generally, three major facets are included: (1) the explicitness of TR, (2) the forms of TR—including response mode, response type, and response with different focuses, and lastly (3) the influence of various types of TR, such as the effectiveness on students' revisions from either a short-term or a long-term perspective, and its impact on students' attitude.



Teacher Response and L2 Students' Revision

Beason (1993) noted that “feedback and revision are valuable pedagogical tools..... the research typically indicates that high school and college students improve their drafts upon receiving feedback” (p. 396). Clearly, students tend to follow their writing teacher's feedback to revise their drafts since TR to some extent serves as a kind of guidance for writing. In Taiwan, it is very common that students depend on TR revising their writing. This is partly because teachers, in a sense, are authoritative, and partly because teachers' instruction usually plays an essential role in students' learning process.

The provision of TR is often regarded as an indispensable job for Taiwanese writing teachers. Writing teachers, on the one hand, feel it their duty to offer commentary on their students' writing; students, on the other hand, expect and follow guidance from their teacher(s). However, as pointed out by Ferris (1995, 1997), while students are expected to

pay attention to TR so that they can make substantial and effective revisions, some students, unfortunately, may sometimes selectively ignore the written responses or avoid correcting based on the TR they received (Beason, 1993; Hyland, 1998, 2003; Sommers, 1982). The effectiveness of TR is thus of interest and concern to writing researchers in Taiwan.

In reality, both L1 and L2 writing research have indicated the inconsistency of TR to students' texts. This phenomenon may partly explain why some students are unable to understand or even disregard the response from their writing teachers. In an ESL setting, Cumming (1983) found that "teachers' response to the same text differ, and that the application of error-identification techniques varies considerably" (cited in Zamel, 1985, p. 85). Similarly, Zamel (1985) reported that, in agreement with much of what had been found about L1 writing teachers' feedback, ESL writing teachers

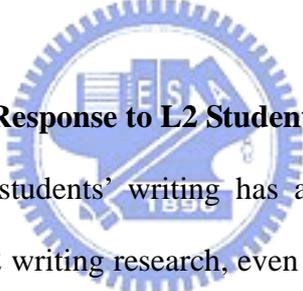
are inconsistent in their reactions, make arbitrary corrections, write contradictory comments, provide vague prescriptions, impose abstract rules and standards, respond to texts as fixed and final products, and rarely make content-specific comments or offer specific strategies for revising the text (p. 86).

Indeed, there is no denying that few writing teachers can provide consistent and systematic responses to students' texts; many may just mark students' errors at will. Interestingly enough, most writing teachers, especially L2 writing instructors, would wonder why students keep making habitual mistakes in their writing. Some experienced teachers even concluded that providing responses has merely slight effect on students' revision; written TR cannot facilitate students' writing development from a longitudinal view.

Numerous studies have investigated the effects of TR on students' revision and subsequent drafts. The findings are mixed, ranging from affirmative recognition to extreme denial: some support the instructive function of TR (e.g., Ferris, 1997, 1999a, 1999b; Ferris et al., 1997; Hyland, 1998, 2003; Lalande, 1984) whereas others report the futility of employing TR (e.g., Hendrickson, 1978; Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984). Despite the controversy, many studies have provided profound discussion over TR with specific focus,

namely, on content or mechanics (e.g., Ferris, 1997; Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984), and have given valuable insights into TR by inquiring different types of responses (e.g., Ferris et al., 1997; Hyland, 1998, 2003).

As mentioned in Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994), “Effective revision in L1 and L2 requires the engagement of the learner, as well as the careful application of feedback practices which can guide the writer to an awareness of the informational, rhetorical, and linguistic expectations of the intended reader” (p. 145). Whatever TR is adopted, the most important and worthwhile to do is whether students can take TR as meaningful input and apply them to their revision; then the effect of TR can be carried over to another assigned writing. Student writers’ involvement in writing and revising processes and their attitudes towards TR thus become pivot in the writing instruction.



Teacher Response to L2 Students’ Writing

Teacher response (TR) to students’ writing has aroused considerable disputes over several decades in both L1 and L2 writing research, even though both writing instructors and student writers may often intuit that written responses “should” have positive effect on writing (also see Ferris et al., 1997; Leki, 1990). However, as indicated earlier, teachers often respond inconsistently; moreover, learners and teachers may not share the same ideas about what kind of feedback teachers should provide for students’ writing (Ferris et al., 1997; Sperling & Freedman, 1987). While some students may call for more direct error correction, others may desire more comments on content or rhetorical advice. In addition to teachers’ personal belief and teaching philosophy, students’ individual belief also affects the effectiveness of TR (Hyland, 2003). Moreover, it was discovered that many TRs might be misinterpreted by both L1 and L2 students (e.g., Hayes & Daiker, 1984; Wall & Hull, 1989). These factors all contribute to the complicated nature of the TR to students’ composition.

In the following subsections, we first explicate the background of the TR shifts during

the last decades, then the roles of the teacher and the students in the process approach setting. After that, different modes of TR are introduced and the nature as well as merits and limitations of each type of TR are discussed. Then the next subsection introduces two types of TR, the central concern of this study. Finally, two main focuses of TR are discussed in depth with a view to providing further information about teacher response.

Background

Research on L1 writing responses dated back to 70s and early 80s, when many L1 writing investigators (e.g., Searle & Dillon, 1980; Sommers, 1982) tended to conclude that written feedback “is of poor quality, focuses on the wrong issues, and is often ignored, misunderstood or misinterpreted by the student writers” (Hyland, 1998, p. 255). Following the development of L1 writing, the investigation of the TR to L2 writing began in the mid-1980s.

During 1980s, many L2 writing teachers tended to concern themselves with “error identification,” namely, paying attention to “the accuracy and correctness of surface-level features of writing” (Zamel, 1985, p. 84). Instead of giving written commentary and using multiple drafts, L2 writing instructors adhered to single-draft, error-focused models when responding to L2 writing texts. This interest in grammatical and mechanical accuracy may probably derive from the in-service training system in 1980s; that is, most L2 teachers did not receive appropriate training in the instruction of rhetoric and composition (Applebee, 1981; Ferris, 2003). Very few curricula were designed to train teachers-to-be to teach writing in second language settings.

However, this model of single-draft, error-focused writing instruction started to change in the beginning of 1990s. Many studies in early to middle 1990s reflected an increasing number of writing teachers who tended to use TR which dealt with more global issues (e.g., Caulk, 1994; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lam, 1991; Saito, 1994). In other

words, rather than focusing on sentence-level errors, more teachers and researchers shifted their attention to the organization of the composition and the idea development.

More recently, a series of studies by Ferris (1997) and her colleagues revealed that of over 1500 verbal comments on 110 ESL students' writing, 15% in the margins and in endnotes focused on grammar and mechanics issues such as spelling, while the remaining 85% of teachers' commentaries centered on students' ideas and rhetorical development. Another case study by Conrad and Goldstein (1999) also reported this shift from local errors to more global issues such as coherence/cohesion, paragraphing, content, purpose, lexical choice and the fluency of the writing.

In a word, thanks to the prosperity of the process approach in the North American academic setting, the way L2 writing teachers respond to students' writing has made the shift over the past 15 years, from offering error-focused TRs in one single draft (product-oriented approach) to providing TRs focusing on a broader spectrum of issues across multiple drafts (response-and-revision writing cycle). Despite some negative pronouncements against the employment of TR, especially in the form of written commentary (e.g., Hillocks, 1986; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981), positive arguments for it have been increasingly reported (e.g., Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hairston, 1986). For L2 novice writers, responses from their writing teachers are always expected (e.g., Leki, 1986) since they can at least receive some comment or advice on their "masterpiece." On the one hand, TR shows a teacher's concern and care for students and their works; on the other, it also serves as a medium of communication and interaction between students and teachers.

The Roles of the Teacher and the Students

With the shifting focuses of TR over the last decades, the role of the writing teacher also changes. According to Kepner (1991), process writing "is subject to formative rather than summative evaluation..... the teacher-as-responder should function as a diplomatic

coach who offers reactions and advice first to content issues.... Correction of discrete errors should occur only at the final stage of editing” (p. 306). A writing teacher who adopts process approach may act as a diplomatic coach in the initiate stage of students’ writing process and students’ revision. However, their role may change to a corrector at the final stage of editing. In other words, the role a teacher plays may vary from draft to draft.

In fact, the prevalence of process-oriented approach in writing classrooms not only affects the roles a writing teacher plays but also changes the roles of the students. Now teachers are expected to expand their roles from an “examiner, critic, and judge” to a “reader, coach, mentor, fellow inquirer, and guide” (Straub, 1997, p. 92). Students, on the other hand, as an apprentice writer though, are anticipated to become an independent writer who can actively plan his/her composing process and can consciously monitor and edit the use of appropriate language for the creation of a writing product.

Advocators of the process approach from an “expressivist” view (see Faigley, 1986) regard teachers as a facilitator who designs in-class activities to promote students’ writing fluency and who encourages students to take power over their writing act (Elbow, 1973, 1981). Another group of process-approach upholders from the “cognitivist” perspective believe that the goal of a writing teacher is to produce good writers and to help them “guide their own creative process” (Flower, 1985, p. 370; cited in Johns, 1990, p. 26). They encourage students to plan their ideas extensively and translate their plans into words; in consequence, the writing process is never considered to be completed until revising and editing are done.

According to Leki (1990), there are three personas for writing teachers: teacher as a real reader (Probst, 1989; Zamel, 1985), teacher as a coach (Purves, 1984), and teacher as an evaluator (Flower, 1988; Land & Whitley, 1989). Combining many writing researchers’ suggestions for the role of the instructor in students’ writing process, Straub (1996) proposed that a teacher can respond “as a facilitator,...as a teacher reader, a guide, a friendly adviser, a

diagnostician, a coach, a motivator, a collaborator, a fellow explorer, a common reader...an idiosyncratic reader, a sympathetic reader, a trusted adult, and a friend” (p. 225).

In fact, the teacher-student relationship and their respective roles are determined by the way in which the teacher responds to students and their writing works. Straub (1996) indicated that the nature of teacher response is “either directive or facilitative, authoritative or collaborative, teacher-based or student-based” (p. 224). As a result, the teacher may act as a director or a facilitator, an authority or a collaborator in some way.

Notwithstanding the wave of the process-oriented approach in L2 writing research, many L2 writing teachers remain to rely on product-oriented approach. They tend to focus on accuracy and correctness of surface-level features on students’ single draft. As Cumming (1983) mentioned, “error-identification appears to be ingrained in the habitual practices of second language teachers who perhaps by reason of perceiving their role solely as instructors of the formal aspects of language” (p. 6). In many cases, it has been discovered that students’ attention was taken away from their original purpose because of their teacher’s error correction (Sommer, 1982). The fact that students shift their “attention [to] the teachers’ purpose in commenting” (Sommer, 1982, p. 149) has led to increasing criticism about teachers’ appropriation.

Given the ingrained power relation in the classroom, teacher’s comments, to a certain extent, are surely “evaluative and directive” (Straub, 1996, p. 247). It is understandable that students revise their writing according to the changes that teachers impose on their drafts. However, as indicated by Hyland (1998) that “writing is a process in which meaning must be given priority” (p. 281), the purpose of writing for students should lie in learning how to express themselves with proper and acceptable language and structure. Therefore, the essence of writing is to allow writers “to make their own writing decisions and learn to make better choices” (Straub, 1996, p. 248).

Accordingly, the most crucial point of learning L2 writing is how to make students an

independent writer and meanwhile make compositions readable for readers (Leki, 1990; Zamel, 1985). If student writers are forced to revise their drafts on the basis of the standards set by the teacher, they are just urged to follow “idealized texts” (Straub, 1996, p. 223); that is, they are imposed by the teacher’s ideas, not conceiving their own ideas. In this sense, teachers are appropriating students’ writing products but not judging and evaluating their texts as a reader or an audience.

As proposed by Zamel (1985), the attempt to over-manipulate the intellectually complex writing assignments may result in “breakdowns or setbacks” (p. 95) of student writers’ efforts in challenging composing tasks. The teachers’ appropriation in terms of content can be avoided if the teacher is highly aware of the “serious aftereffect” of the appropriation. However, in terms of grammar, writing teachers may easily confront the dilemma of whether a grammar correction should be offered, particularly when facing students at a lower level who may require more linguistic corrections and instructions in their grammatical errors.

With overwhelming evidence showing teachers’ attention to surface-level features (e.g., Collins, 1981; Moran, 1981; Murray, 1982; Sommers, 1982), many apprentice writers were subject strictly to their teacher’s “instructions” and some even relied on them very much, valuing their own writing based on these grammar-focused responses. In this regard, students were no longer an author but a secretary who followed exactly the instructions of an authoritative boss. Their writing teachers, on the other hand, were thus criticized for looking upon themselves as primarily language teachers rather than composition instructors (Cumming, 1983, 1985).

In conclusion, no matter which role a writing teacher plays, students’ writing must be respected enough. In this case, students may have more courage to try again and again. Similar to Purves (1984), Zamel (1984) suggested that teachers need to “play a whole range of roles as readers of student writing..... [by] probing, challenging, raising questions, and

pinpointing ambiguities, [we can] help students understand that meaning-level issues are to be addressed first” (p. 96). After all,

to accentuate the role of composing in discovering new knowledge is to show students why their writing matters, therefore to increase their motivation to write, and therefore, ultimately, to increase the likelihood of improvement because they have become more aware of the purpose and value of making meaning (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1983, p. 468).

Finally, as has been noted by Sommers (1982) and Branno and Knoblauch (1982), teachers can choose to “resist taking over student texts and instead to make comments that share responsibility with the writer” (Straub, 1996, p. 224-225) rather than eagerly offer comments or corrections. In reality, it is definitely more meaningful for writing teachers and researchers to meditate what instructional philosophy a composition instructor should hold and what kind of role a writing teacher should play in students’ writing process.

Modes of Teacher Response

In literature, many researchers use “mode” to clarify the status of teacher response: static versus dynamic. Roughly speaking, written TR is static while oral TR is dynamic. Traditionally, written TR is used by most writing teachers for the sake of convenience. In static modes, teachers may offer their responses in the form of (1) direct correction, (2) coding/minimal markers to indicate the error, (3) suggestions for content development, (4) questions asking for more specific description, or even (5) imperatives. On the other hand, oral response lays more emphasis on its interactive nature, and it is therefore highly recommended recently (e.g., Carnicelli, 1980; Sokmen, 1988; Zamel, 1985). Such activities as holding a teacher-students conference or an individual face-to-face meeting are two typical practices of dynamic response.

During the 1970s, many L1 scholars enthusiastically endorsed the dynamic TR such as conference or individual meeting as an ideal approach because this mode of TR was

interactive and instructional in nature (e.g., Carnicelli, 1980; Elbow, 1973; Garrison, 1974). As two-way negotiation, writing conference was favored by L1 experts over one-side written directives (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Sommers, 1982). Zamel (1985) even suggested ESL teachers hold conference because “dynamic interchange and negotiation is most likely to take place when writers and readers work together face-to-face” (p. 97). Indeed, a face-to-face meeting is actually a forum where writing problems, particularly those too complicated to negotiate in a written mode, can be immediately addressed through the dynamic in-person discussion, and where efficiency and effectiveness of feedback can be improved.

What is more, student writers in an ongoing dialogic process may encounter more cognitive challenge such as questions raised by instructors or peers in real time. Ambiguity or questions in the dynamic mode would be immediately clarified because any doubts could be asked in the presence of the feedback giver. In fact, it has been claimed that cognitive involvement benefits students because through “cognitive engagement” (Ferris, 2002, p. 19) students are guided to make reflection and to learn problem-solving by themselves.

As the dynamic feedback is generally more comprehensible than the static feedback, some researchers have suggested that written response along with face-to-face student-teacher conference may be a desirable way to help students with their revision as well as the subsequent compositions (e.g., Hyland, 1998). Hedcock and Lefkowitz (1994) in their survey even reported that 60% of the respondents preferred written feedback combined with writing conferences, while 30% chose written-only feedback as the most meaningful mode and merely 10% selected verbal-only responses.

Considering dynamic and static features of TR, Knoblauch and Brannon (1981) appealed to teachers for more concerns about the ongoing dialogue between students and themselves. If a teacher’s written response could have more interaction in nature, novice writers may be more involved as if there were in a writing conference.

This hybrid mode does not imply that teachers can wantonly intervene in students’

writing process, as we already indicated that teacher should avoid appropriation. Instead, it is high time for teachers to ponder over when responses should be given, just as we would choose a proper timing to interrupt in a conversation. In a study by Ziv (1984), it was revealed that when the teacher intervened appropriately in students' writing and revising process, students' final product got improvement over the intermediate drafts (see also Feedman, 1987).

Zamel (1985) also indicated the importance of establishing the priority of teacher response. Taking a similar view, Straub (1996) proposed that writing teachers ask themselves "what kind of comments will be best for this student, with this paper, at this time" (p. 247).

He further concluded that

the best responding styles will not feature certain focuses and modes of commentary and excluded certain others...[but] will create us on the page in ways that fit in with our classroom purposes...enable us to interact as productively as we can with our students (Straub, 1996, p. 248).

Despite the fact that creating a two-way negotiating channel might do student writers good, a final but also important point is, as mentioned before, whether this intervention of feedback generates benefits to students' success in composing. It is indicated that TRs might be most effective and meaningful if they could be incorporated into the subsequent assignments of the students (Hillocks, 1986; Leki, 1990). However, little research to date has ever expatiated exact means by which apprentice writers can well amalgamate their teacher's feedback with their later assignments.

To sum up, this subsection has suggested that written TR with dynamic nature might be more effective. Besides, writing teachers are also advised to devise feedback which student writers can incorporate into their revision and the subsequent texts.

Types of Teacher Response in Terms of Explicitness

TRs can be categorized on the basis of form, nature, content, or explicitness. In terms

of explicitness, we have direct feedback and indirect feedback. This classification is based on the extent to which a teacher provides clues for the correction or revision of the text. Direct feedback is considered explicit; on the other hand, indirect feedback is relatively implicit. Further analyzing indirect feedback to see its degree of clearness, in the same vein, we can identify coded feedback and uncoded feedback. As mentioned, many student writers have difficulty interpreting TRs due to the lack of consensus with their teachers on the meaning of feedback. Explicitness thus turns out to be an important issue in students' reaction to TRs.

According to Ferris (2002), indirect feedback “occurs when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but leaves it to the student writer to solve the problem and correct the error” (p. 19). Though somewhat vague for some students, indirect feedback has been claimed to be more helpful to student writers than direct feedback (e.g., Lalande, 1984; Ferris, 1995b; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Reid, 1998). On account of more “cognitive engagement” (Ferris, 2002, p. 21) such as reflection and problem-solving during the writing process, indirect response is favored by many researchers either from a short-term or a long-term perspective. Ferris and Roberts (2001) suggested that indirect feedback techniques, such as locating the type of error and asking students to correct error themselves, may be of help for “untreatable” errors, like word choice and sentence structure (Ferris, 1999a, p. 6). In a longitudinal study by Frantzen (1995), compared with grammar-supplementation group treated with direct feedback, students in the non-grammar group receiving indirect feedback showed overall improvement (see also Lalande, 1982). This suggests that implicit response is pedagogically significance: it allows students to learn on their own by thinking over possible errors so that they can correct and revise independently.

On the other hand, direct feedback which “provides the correct linguistic form for students” (Ferris, 2002, p. 19) appears to receive more criticisms. Of all the opponent research against the employment of direct feedback, the strongest argument is proposed by Truscott (1996, 1999), who claimed that grammar correction was often ineffective and even

harmful. Truscott (1996) suggested the abeyance and even the abolition of error correction in L2 writing classes, for substantial research in both L1 writing and L2 writing showed grammar correction did not work (e.g., Hendrickson, 1978; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Krashen, 1992; Leki, 1990). What is more, because many studies had disclosed that there was no difference between the experimental group, who received error correction, and the control group, who received other types of response or even no response (Frantzen & Rissell, 1987; Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992), Truscott (1996) thus claimed that it was “necessary to undermine the intuitions, to show that correction does not have to help and in fact should not be expected to help” (p. 341).

Despite Truscott’s conclusion that “correction was not only unhelpful in these studies but also actually hindered the learning process” (Truscott, 1996, p. 333), Ferris (1999a), one of the strongest grammar-correction advocates, argued that students could improve their language accuracy through feedback on form if the erroneous constituent is “treatable” rule-governed errors such as verb tense, verb form, subject-verb agreement, article usage, plural and possessive noun endings, sentence fragments, run-ons, punctuation, or spelling. As for “untreatable” errors, such as word choice errors, preposition usage, and personal narrating style which is sometimes idiosyncratic and not so idiomatic, a more directive tactic like reformulation or complete correction may help improve (p. 6; see also Ferris, 1999b, 2002).

Another issue related to the explicitness of TR is how explicit indirect response needs to be. Some writing teachers may just underline errors; some tend to mark the problematic items with special symbols or codes. Some may offer a list of coding symbols to students as reference. In terms of indirect feedback, it is clear that responses with a wide range of explicitness are being adopted now.

According to Ferris (2002), indirect feedback is further classified into “coded” and “uncoded” (p. 20). The former is the way in which errors, such as verb tense or spelling, are clearly indicated, while the latter means the writing instructor just circles or underlines an

error but leaves it for students to diagnose and solve the problem on their own. In this sense, coded feedback is more explicit than uncoded feedback.

Whether TR with different explicitness shows more effectiveness has been investigated for long. Robb et al. (1986) examined responses with a continuum of progressively less explicitness. They divided 134 EFL university students into four groups receiving (1) direct correction, (2) coded feedback, (3) uncoded feedback, or (4) marginal feedback, finding that there was no apparent difference among them. The findings of Robb et al. (1986) concur with considerable research studies which indicated that explicitness of feedback did not enable students to improve their revision or subsequent writing (e.g., Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Ferris et al., 2000).

Although no significant difference was found between more-explicit and less-explicit feedback in revision, from a longitudinal perspective, Ferris and Roberts (2001) argued that “this strategy (of giving less explicit response) may not provide adequate input to produce the reflection and cognitive engagement that helps students to acquire linguistic structures and reduce errors over time” (p. 177). They thus insisted on the affirmative function of the more explicit (coded) indirect marking techniques exploited during students’ writing process.

To sum up, in this subsection, many types of TR are introduced on the basis of the degree of explicitness. The most explicit is the direct correction and the most implicit is the uncoded indirect correction; in the middle of them is the coded indirect correction. Although the results of TRs with different degree of explicitness remain mixed so far, each of them has shown respective effects on students in some aspects.

Other Types of Teacher Response

In addition to direct versus indirect feedback and coded versus uncoded feedback, marginal notes and endnotes are two other common types of written TR. Ferris et al. (1997) examined the nature of comments made by the teachers in their study, finding that a high

proportion of marginal notes were characterized by text-based comments (81.3%); besides, many of marginal comments appeared in the form of a question asking for further information. On the other hand, fewer text-specific comments were found in endnotes (67.4%); however, an overwhelming number of endnotes were in the form of statements (rather than questions or imperatives). Generally, marginal notes were used more often than end notes.

Recently, with the promotion of multiple teaching methods to provide students with diverse learning stimuli, a variety of TR types are employed by teachers, inclusive of peer response, teacher-student conference, audio-taped commentary, and computer-based commentary. In particular, face-to-face discussion has been widely recommended on account of its prompt interaction (Hyland, 1998); therefore, relevant investigations have been conducted in both L1 and L2 writing research (e.g., Carnicelli, 1980; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Sokmen, 1988; Walker & Elias, 1987).

Notwithstanding manifold types of TR available now, handwritten commentary remains the primary form of response more accessible for students (Ferris, 1997); it is still the most viable and common form of TR on students' compositions (Ferris et al., 1997). Since the purpose of the present study is to investigate the written response, further discussion will focus on only written TR.

Focus of Teacher Response

In history, the focus of TR fluctuated between form and content is never stopped. In the 19th century, rhetoric was taught and little attention was centered on grammatical correctness (Connors, 1985). This trend of using content-oriented feedback did not change until the end of the 19th century; in the 20th century, with the growing interest in grammatical correctness, form-focused TR was commonly used. Particularly from 1976 to 1986, a fair amount of research related to error feedback in L2 classes (Ferris, 2003). However, in recent years,

emphasis seemed to turn back on content again thanks to the prominence of the process-writing paradigm in ESL writing classes.

A large number of studies on teacher's intervention in both L1 writing (e.g., Freedman, 1984; Hillocks, 1982) and L2 writing (e.g., Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991) have indicated that some types of the teacher response indeed affect text quality more positively than other types (Ferris, 1997, 2003). The focus of TR at different phases also makes a difference between meaningful response and ineffective feedback for apprentice writers (Ferris, 2003). However, there exists great dispute on how a writing teacher is supposed to respond (Fathman & Whalley, 1990). The conflict is mainly over (1) whether teacher response should concentrate on form (e.g., grammar, mechanics) or on content (e.g., organization, the amount of detail), and (2) "where we should focus our attention" (Griffin, 1982, p. 299), namely, when the TR is supposed to intervene.

For example, the case conducted by Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) unveiled a process completely opposite to the notion of process approach. In their study, EFL students had more concerns with the overall content in their final drafts but paid more attention to grammar in initial drafts. This finding further suggests that the provision of feedback is not just the teacher's business; it has much to do with students' belief, need, and preferences (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995a; Leki, 1996).

In the next two subsections, we take a closer look at some studies which examined TR focusing on form or content. These surveys provide us with useful information and guidelines for designing a valid, reliable, and consistent system of teacher response.

Form-focused Response

Form-focused response means feedback focusing on lexical errors and mechanical errors (Ferris 2003). It is used "for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" (Truscott, 1996, p. 329). L2 writing teachers adopted form-focused TR mostly

because of their students' lingering problems in writing accuracy (Ferris, 2003).

On the whole, research results over the past three decades on the effects of form-focused TR seem mixed. A majority of research examining the effectiveness of TR focusing on the form correction, i.e. grammar and mechanics, suggest that there is little effect of error correction (Bitchener et al., 2005; Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke; 1984; Truscott, 1996; Zamel, 1985). On the other hand, there are still studies bolstering the benefit of corrective feedback (e.g., Cardelle & Corno, 1981; Hendrickson, 1980; Herron & Tomasello, 1988; Lalande, 1984).

Cohen and Robbin (1976) studied the writing from three advanced ESL students, concluding that error correction on verb forms did not seem to have any significant effect on students' errors. Hendrickson (1978) treated students with (1) direct correction and (2) selective correction, finding that both types of correction did not show significant reduction of errors. Frantzen and Rissell (1987) examined the self-correction ability of 14 Spanish FL students after they were provided with indirect, uncoded feedback over three papers, only to find students' ability to self-correct varied dramatically ranging from 100% accuracy to only 20%.

More recently, Makino (1993) conducted an experiment with students' sentences in terms of accuracy. With the amount of correct forms in sentences from three groups, provided with (1) no feedback, (2) indirect uncoded feedback, and (3) indirect coded feedback, he concluded that receiving feedback may not make more contribution to error correction. Another study with a similar conclusion was conducted by Polio et al. (1998); 65 ESL university students were required to write an in-class essay as posttest after they were treated either (1) with direct correction of errors or (2) without feedback over a 7-week duration. The results of the posttest showed that no significant differences in accuracy between the two groups. In other words, students' writing treated with form-focused TR seems to have no advantage over those without any TR treatment.

Despite the aforementioned results claiming the ineffectiveness of error correction, still some studies suggest approval of correction on grammatical errors. Lalande (1984) studied 60 German FL college students, comparing (1) traditional error correction system (direct correction of all errors) and (2) guided problem-solving approach (indirect coded feedback). He found that students who used error code on their revision made significantly greater gains over time. In Sheppard's (1992) study, 26 EFL college students received either (1) general marginal comments or (2) comprehensive indirect coded error feedback. The results indicated that in terms of accuracy—verb forms and sentence boundary markers—both groups improved over time.

Ferris et al. (2000) examined 92 ESL university students with indirect coded feedback which contained 15 error categories. It was found that a high percentage of error feedback (92%) was incorporated into students' rewrites. Besides, these revision drafts also showed that up to 80% of the changes in response to feedback were correct. This finding discloses that students would make use of the TR to correct their errors on subsequent texts. Following Ferris et al. (2000), Ferris and Roberts (2001) conducted a quasi-experimental study. They assessed differences among (1) coded, (2) uncoded, and (3) no-feedback treatments in 72 ESL students' composing process. The results demonstrated that although there was no significant difference in editing success ratios between students in coded-feedback group and uncoded-feedback group, students in no-error-feedback group were indeed significantly less able to find errors and make correction.

In a case study, Hyland (2003) explored the relationship between teacher response and students' revision by examining 6 ESL university writers in a 14-week English proficiency program course qualitatively. She noted that all of the participants had made good use of form-focused feedback on their immediate revisions. They highly valued these responses because they deeply believed "without the feedback they would fail to note the errors and improve" (p. 228). This implies that not only teacher's belief but also students' belief affects

the effectiveness of TR on writing. In this case of these 6 student writers, grammar-focused response was adored and incorporated in students' following revision; all these reactions can be attributed to students' belief that feedback can improve their error correction.

Gascoigne (2004) replicated Ferris' (1997) study in a beginning L2 class. The participants were 25 college native English speakers who just started to learn French. The findings showed that teacher response devoted to grammar and mechanics had a profound effect, and that 88% of all such comments led to successful correction, 8% led to an incorrect change, and mere 3% were ignored by the students. The result not only reflected the importance of grammar-focused feedback on L2 beginners' composition, but also implied the necessity of grammar instruction for learners at lower level of proficiency.

Frantzen (1995) compared 44 Spanish majors who received either (1) direct correction on essays along with additional in-class grammar instruction or (2) indirect uncoded feedback on errors without in-class grammar instruction. The result showed both the grammar-supplement and the non-grammar groups significantly improved their grammatical accuracy. This interesting finding further implies that students might make improvement in grammatical accuracy whether a grammar instruction was specifically provided or not.

Despite the discrepant findings in the studies discussed above, we can reach the following conclusion: error correction is probably not a major factor to the improvement that occurred in students' writing (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Krashen, 1985; Mukattash, 1986; Semke, 1984); likewise, it might not be the only factor which leads to students' failure in their revision. Student writers' improvement in writing can be determined by many factors, such as students' composing and revising process, students' language proficiency, writing instruction, teacher's belief, and even students' belief.

Content-focused Response

Different from findings in research on form-focused response, the studies examining

the effect of content-focused TR on students' revised or subsequent drafts all displayed positive results: student writers show significant enhancement in terms of writing content after they received content-focused response(s).

Semke (1984), for instance, compared four groups of German-as-a-foreign-language students, each of which received either (1) comments only, or (2) direct correction, or (3) direct correction with comments, or (4) indirect coded feedback. Semke indicated that comments focusing on content significantly contributed more to students' writing in terms of fluency and progress in their general language proficiency than other groups. Semke also concluded that "corrections do not increase writing accuracy...and they may have a negative effect on student attitudes" (p. 195).

Similarly, Fathman and Whalley (1990) conducted a study in which 72 intermediate ESL college students received four TR treatments: (1) content-oriented feedback (2) indirect uncoded feedback, (3) feedback on both content and grammar errors, and (4) no feedback. Students were required to write a descriptive article in class and to make revision after receiving response from the teacher. The results showed that two groups receiving content-based TR improved their scores substantially more than the other two groups. The same result regarding increase in content scores was also revealed by Russikoff and Kogan (1996) who replicated the study by Fathman and Whalley (1990): all four groups improved their content scores and the two receiving content-based TR improved the most.

Kepner (1991) compared two groups of Spanish-as-a-foreign-language students, each of whom were either treated with (1) message-related comments or (2) direct error corrections. She found that the message-comment group produced a significantly greater number of higher-level propositions in their guided journal entries than the error-correction group.

Discussion on Teacher Response with Different Focus

To sum up the aforementioned research, it may be suggested that students receiving content-oriented TR showed undoubted improvement in their subsequent writing, but form-focused TR, on the other hand, turned out to have uncertain effects. The reason for this drastic discrepancy, however, is still unanswered. In this subsection, we try to propose some conjectures, hoping to offer another perspective on the issue of the TR with different focuses.

First, it is known that second language acquisition (SLA) takes time and occurs in stages. Different linguistic constituents such as vocabulary, morphology, phonology, and syntax may be acquired in different phases of acquisition (Ferris, 2002). In other words, students' mastery of different linguistic structures generally corresponds to different learning stages. In a recent study by Bitchener et al. (2005), significant variations in accuracy across the writing times were found. Following early SLA researchers who found that L2 learners may show instable learning process in terms of linguistic accuracy as they were just learning a new linguistic form (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Pienemann, 1989), Bitchener et al. (2005) explained their results in this way: "there was not a linear and upward pattern of improvement from one time to another...[Students] may perform with accuracy on one occasion but fail to do so on other, similar occasions" (p. 201).

Accordingly, as learners undergo stages when different elements of the second language are acquired, the errors they make reflect their different SLA processes. From this view, the access to students' linguistic accuracy is surely relatively more difficult and this also helps explain why the results of a large body of investigations on form-focused TR have been mixed and its effectiveness has been questioned.

On the other hand, it seems that, for students at a certain SLA stage, gaining a higher content score or enhancing the writing content is easier than improving accuracy based on error counts. For instance, in Fathman and Whaley (1990), it is interesting to note that in addition to the group which was treated with content-focused TR, the other three groups also

improved significantly in their content scores even though they had not received any comment on the content. This study reported that these three groups receiving other types of TR performed even better than students receiving content-oriented comments. These findings suggest that the effects of content-focused TR and form-focused TR need to be further explored.

Besides, Kepner's (1991) study manifested no significant difference in error-count scores between the group of direct error correction and the group of message-related TR. Comparing the studies by Fathman and Whalley (1990) and by Kepner (1991), we can find Fathman and Whalley conducted the experiment by providing students with indirect uncoded feedback—the most implicit type—whereas Kepner treated students with direct error correction—the most explicit type. With such tremendously different error treatments, both studies, however, revealed the same finding: low effectiveness of grammar-focused response on students' writing products.

Instead of jumping to the conclusion that form-focused TR is ineffective in most cases, this result could be interpreted from another perspective: there may be other contributing factors to, or constraints of, the effectiveness of TRs. In the light of this, there may be other need to reconsider the effectiveness of form-focused TR. For example, it is suggested that grammatical issues are more challenging for students at the lower level due to the limitation of their SLA sequence. Thus, the effect of form-focused TR may diminish as a result of students' incapability to comprehend or master the forms suggested in the TR. Writing teachers should be more conscious of their students' language proficiency, if it is highly related to the stage of students' SLA development.

In conclusion, to make teacher response consistent, readable, and particularly workable in different phases of the composing process, writing teachers should make a schedule in advance, meditating over which mode, type, and focus of the TR can be implemented at appropriate time. A future issue is whether the effect of TR can be carried over to subsequent

writings. A detailed review of the studies on this issue is given in later subsection.

Students' Revision

Students' Reactions to Teacher Response

The results from a large body of research exploring students' reaction to TRs also seem inconclusive. While some students think highly of commentaries from their teacher and incorporate these responses into their revision, some may just care about the score of their writing, discarding whatever the teacher advised (e.g., Burkland & Grimm, 1986; Freedman, 1987). Students' divergent attitudes towards TR are also reflected in many studies examining the focus of TR; L1 students expected more comments on content, whereas L2 learners wanted every error indicated clearly. Besides, it is worth noticing that students, both L1 and L2, have encountered difficulty interpreting teacher's commentaries (e.g., Hahn, 1981; Sperling & Freedman, 1987).

With respect to this, Straub (1997) made three claims concerning students' reaction. First, students actually read the TR and make use of them (Burkland & Grimm, 1984). Second, students have the ability to discriminate TRs with various focuses (Odell, 1989). Third, students would appreciate responses which reflect their teacher's involvement in their composing and which engage them in making their writing better (Beach, 1989; Straub, 1997).

Interestingly, while facing teachers' critical and inflexible judgments—always in the same form, L1 students and L2 students have slightly different reactions. Native writers tend to show more disagreements with the comments and even reject them due to their mastery of the native language (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). On the contrary, L2 writers tend to accept and follow their teachers' comment instead of insisting on their original ideas with much effort. In many cases it has been observed that, on the ground of avoiding disapproval by their teachers (Schwartz, 1983), student writers incorporated their teacher's responses in their

revision but failed to clarify their primary intentions (e.g., Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982; Freedman, 1984).

Leki (1990) reviewed studies exploring students' responses to teachers' annotations on their paper, reporting that L1 students may "not read the annotations," "read the grade and simply discard the paper, often in disgust," and even "do not understand the meaning of comments on their paper;" consequently, they "often have no idea how to respond to it" when they were deciphering a comment (p. 61-62). Similarly, Sperling and Freedman (1987) in their study on a "good girl" writer also reported that their "good girl" writer had no idea about the rationale behind the TR, thus unable to correct the same type of error in another part of her paper. What is worse, some students even showed their hostility, speaking of their resentment of their teacher's suggestions (e.g., Burkland & Grimm, 1986; Sperling & Freedman, 1987). In another L1 study by Burkland and Grimm (1986), they reported that students thought "praise neither helped them improve nor made them want to improve more" (cited in Leki, 1990, p. 62).

Regardless of the negative results from some studies, positive attitudes towards TRs have been reported as well. For instance, when positive feedback such as praise was given, many students feel better and encouraged (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Gee, 1972; Semke, 1984; Straub, 1997). But interestingly enough, students, especially in L2 writing settings, generally wanted to have every error marked; they valued TR focusing on form, approving of written cues from their writing instructors so that they can improve their writing and learn from highlighted grammatical errors (Ferris, 1995a; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; 1996; Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1986). Similar findings are shown in a survey by Leki (1991), who reported that ESL students at the surveyed university wished to have their errors corrected by their teachers. Even, some students viewed error-free work as highly desirable (Cumming, 1995).

Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) compared ESL and EFL writers in terms of their

viewpoints on writing itself. In their study, ESL students thought writing in English was an important task to express ideas while EFL writers regarded writing as a means of practicing the language. For ESL writers, writing is often evaluated in the form of an academic task for non-language purposes; however, for EFL students, the goal of writing is to refine their language (skills). Consequently, ESL students usually concern themselves more with matters of idea sequencing, rhetorical organization, fluency and writing style than with grammar and sentence structures, whereas EFL students are more concerned with lexico-grammatical issues.

Another study by Ferris (1995a) showed that students were interested in receiving comments on both grammar and content. However, in the study by Radecki and Swales (1988), their ESL writers criticized their writing teachers, whose TRs were more limited to grammar correction and explanation. They doubted their teacher's ability to comment on ideas and organization because of the teacher's lack of expertise in the subject area.

Straub (1997) made a survey inquiring 142 college writing students' perceptions about teachers' comments on a writing sample and concluded that students favored detailed responses with specific and elaborated commentaries, but they did not like comments which would lead to appropriation and which failed to improve their composition. In a word, the clarity and validity of TR seem to be student writers' first priority, for they welcomed the TR that clearly pinpointed problems and indicated directions to improve their writing in a moderate way—"responses that offered help or direction but did not take control of the writing" (p. 112).

As an old saying goes, "It takes all kinds." Since "tastes differ," perhaps this "hodgepodge" section could be best concluded in this way: even though some student writers respond with somewhat negative comments to TRs of different styles, some students are "by and large satisfied with their instructors' response behaviors" (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, p. 155). In other words, whether or not the TR brings forth help and effect, most apprentice

writers still give weight to their writing instructors' responses.

Effects of Teacher Response on Between-draft Performance

The findings of many investigations have revealed that the effects of the TR between drafts vary from study to study. In a classic L1 survey on the effects of TR, it was reported that feedback in L1 writing generated “no significant” improvements in students' subsequent writing (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Leki, 1990); similar findings were also obtained in the study by Hillocks (1986). In the same vein, L2 research on the impacts of TR aiming at surface-level errors (e.g., Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985; Robb et al., 1986; Fathman & Whalley, 1990) reached similar conclusions.

However, there are some possible reasons for the negative results of studies. First of all, students may read and comprehend the comments on their paper, but they rarely write “subsequent drafts in which they can act upon the comments, and thus the improvements desired by their teachers rarely occur” (Ziv, 1984, p. 362). Secondly, the TR may not really match what student writers actually need. As discussed before, L1 students may directly ignore TR they are offered because they think their original expression is better than their teacher's red ink (Hyland, 1998; Zamel, 1985). Furthermore, L2 students may have different concerns for the usefulness of the TR from L1 students at different composing stages; ESL and EFL students may also have different goals in writing, as indicated earlier (Hedgcock and Lefkowitz, 1994). Thirdly, the explicitness of the TR may also influence students' willingness to rectify their problems. As a matter of fact, the TRs are often inconsistent. Even when students have managed to decipher a comment or a feedback code, they often have no idea how to respond to it (Sperling & Freedman, 1987).

Despite Truscott's (1996) conclusion that “correction had little or no effect on students' writing ability” (p. 330) and some other researchers' arguments against the effectiveness of the written feedback (e.g., L1 researchers such as Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Hillocks,

1986; L2 researchers such as Hendrickson, 1976; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Truscott, 1996; Zamel, 1985), some scholars questioned these conclusions. Leki (1990), for example, pointed out that it was the whole pedagogical environment that caused the failure of the TR but not the teacher's annotation itself. She believed that "careful annotation of papers actually helps student writers improve" (Leki, 1990, p. 60).

In fact, an increasing number of empirical studies have noted that comments on intermediate drafts which are to be revised subsequently are useful in facilitating writing (e.g., Freedman, 1987; Krashen, 1984). In many cases, it has been demonstrated that the TR on preliminary drafts do help students to revise effectively (e.g., Chaudron, 1983; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Zhang, 1985).

More recently, Ferris (1997) examined 110 pairs of essays written by 47 ESL college students, analyzing five types of comments to see their influences on students' revised drafts. It was found that students took up and utilized these comments to make positive changes in their revisions. In particular, marginal comments in imperative forms led to positive changes with the highest percentage; 72% of this type of feedback succeeded in benefiting students' revision. Replicating Ferris' (1997) study, Gascoigne (2004) also obtained similar results that certain types of TR actually contributed to successful revision. However, she also indicated that "successful feedback type was dependent upon the composition environment" (Gascoigne, 2004, p. 71).

Revising Strategies Used by Students

When receiving responses from the teacher, different students may react with greatly different attitude, thus adopting different strategies in revision. Hyland (1998) in his case studies reported that students' revisions could be related to the TR in three different ways: "Firstly, revisions often closely followed the corrections or suggestions.... Second, feedback could trigger a number of revisions.... A third response to feedback was to avoid the issues

raised in the feedback by deleting the problematic feature” (p. 263-265). Clearly, the ideal situation is that students can follow the response making corrections on their revised version. Furthermore, if TR can act as an “initial stimulus” (Hyland, 1998, p. 264), facilitating students to deal with issues beyond the feedback itself, the TR to students’ intermediate drafts are more likely to have instructional benefits—that is, with the help of TR during their writing process, students could develop their writing proficiency gradually.

However, the behavior of directly deleting the problematic chunk is also observed commonly; this implies that when teacher’s authority remains powerful but students still have no idea about how to correct their errors, apprentice writers tend to avoid the problems by direct deletion of the problematic text. As Ferris (1997) reported, “students are not always sure how to interpret teachers’ questions or how to incorporate successfully (in a revision) the information requested” (p. 325). To many students, therefore, this deletion strategy provides an expediency.

Furthermore, it is also reported that students’ revisions are sometimes unrelated to the TR they receive. This interesting phenomenon, according to Hyland (1998), may be caused by students themselves or may result from the interference of the response in other forms such as oral feedback. From this view, novice writers might need clear instruction to identify errors in their writing texts and to develop the ability of understanding various types of TRs—again, the inconsistency of the TR can be a major problem hindering students from revising successfully.

Actually, in a great deal of research on revising strategies (e.g., Beach, 1976; Faigley & Witte, 1981; Rubin, 1983; Sommers, 1980), it has been noted that “it is surface-level features of writing that inexperienced writers attend to” (Zamel, 1985, p. 81). This implies that student writers may still fail to identify in their texts problems or errors beyond the level of grammar and mechanics, such as cohesion, coherence, and organization.

In conclusion, students may revise their paper in the following ways. They completely

follow the TR but there is no knowing whether they truly understand why such a TR is given. Secondly, they make the revision only partly based on the TR because they may have problems interpreting the TR they receive. A third way is to delete the erroneous parts, choosing to ignore TR. Finally, inexperienced writers tend to focus on grammatical problems and expect to receive form-based TR, which is an interesting point to look into.

Longitudinal Effects on L2 Students' Writing Proficiency

Most studies which have reported positive effects of TRs on students' writing only examined short-term effects of TRs (Bitchener et al., 2005; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1997; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Gascoigne, 2004; Hyland, 2003; Lalande, 1984; Robb et al., 1986; Sugita, 2006). Few studies have demonstrated positive results of the TR based on long-term investigation (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984). Of the findings claiming the effectiveness of TR on students' writing products, the majority obtained the results from groups which were treated with responses on content development; namely, little research has reported the instructive function of grammar-focused TR. Similarly, little research has shown teacher response actually improved students' sustained writing ability.

Nonetheless, although a number of studies which compared error corrections—direct correction, indirect correction, coded correction and uncoded correction—found no significant difference among different types of correction, they have indicated that grammar-focused response actually decreases students' overall ratios of errors over time (e.g., Lalande, 1984; Robb et al., 1986; Sheppard, 1992). For instance, Sheppard (1992) compared comprehensive indirect coded error feedback with general marginal comments over 10 weeks, finding that both groups improved in accuracy over time. In reality, many teachers are still implementing error correction on students' drafts, regardless of the divergent findings from research.

Other longitudinal studies which investigated students' improvement in terms of

accuracy after error correction was provided also suggest that students who receive error feedback over a period time do improve their language accuracy (Polio et al, 1998). Perhaps the key to such an improvement is as what Zamel (1985) indicated, students must be provided the time and opportunity to incorporate teacher response into revision and apply TR across writing assignments.

Other Factors Relevant to Students' Revision

Students' Language Proficiency and Needs

Previous studies have indicated language accuracy is an important focus for writing teachers to respond to and that the focus of TR should change depending upon students' different language proficiency (Hyland, 2003). Writing instructors are inclined to treat lower-level students with more comments on grammar and mechanics (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). Similar tendency was also found by Ferris et al. (1997); they reported that “the ‘weak’ group received the most comments on grammar, while the ‘strong’ group was addressed with the fewest imperatives” (p. 174).

Since “certain students have certain types of problems that need to be commented on” (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990, p. 172; see also Hyland, 1998; Leki, 1990), it seems necessary for writing teachers to tailor the TR to meet students' proficiency and need. However, clearly, it is impossible to provide responses that cater for all students' expectations (Hyland, 1998), because individuals have divergent perceptions as for what constitutes “good, useful” feedback. Nevertheless, a clear agreement between what students want and what the teacher can provide is also a way which may help bring forth more productive and enjoyable composing process (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990).

Time Factor

It is known to every learner and teacher that “Practice makes perfect.” The same

applies to learning how to write in a foreign language. Many studies have concluded that it was writing practice that helped students make progress in writing (e.g., Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984). Research pointing out the important role of “time” in students’ writing process also implies that novice writers absolutely require more time to assimilate the new information given in the TR they are provided with.

Summary: Relationship between Revision and Teacher Response

Integrating the aforementioned discussions, we seem unable to reach a conclusion as to the effectiveness of teacher response on students’ revision and subsequent writing. The relations between the TR and students’ performance on revision and subsequent drafts are much intertwined. That is, besides the TR itself, other factors should be accounted for (Ferris, 1997). The reasons are as follows.

First of all, it will be ideal if agreement can be reached by student writers and their writing instructor as to the type and focus of the TR. In this way, risks can be reduced that students misunderstand their teacher’s responses; consequently, successful incorporation of the TR into revision can be expected. Besides, the relationship between the writing instructor and the individual student should be a more equal one than it traditionally used to be. With the goal that “learning to write entails developing an efficient and effective composing process” (Silva, 1990, p. 16), the role of a writing teacher is to facilitate students in developing viable strategies for getting started, drafting, revising, and editing. As a result, the teacher is no longer an evaluator; instead, they act as a facilitator and meanwhile a reader. Playing these two roles simultaneously can balance teacher’s authority and affinity with students, which further helps alleviate students’ anxiety and increase their willingness to take the TR in their composing process.

To sum up, to avoid inconsistency in offering responses, L2 writing teachers should make plans in advance, prioritizing various types and focuses of the TR. Then these

responses are more likely to fit to students' current learning phase. Hence, student writers might have higher possibility to succeed in revising their texts and making advance in second language writing. Finally, as suggested by Ferris (2003), "the influence of teacher feedback can be a two-edged sword" (p. 30). Every writing teacher and investigator cannot be too much careful in dealing with TR on students' writing products.



CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

The present research aimed to investigate the effects of two types of the teacher response (TR) on students' revision and subsequent writing qualitatively and quantitatively. To access students' writing performance in terms of grammar and content, participants were separated into two groups, one of which received TR in the form of a question whereas the other group, direct correction as TR. Unlike previous studies which targeted college learners, this study examined EFL students at a senior high school. With three rounds of writing, students wrote an essay, then revised this essay after one week based on the TR they received, and finally wrote a new essay three weeks later. They were also asked to make a retrospective protocol. After finishing this writing cycle, they filled out a questionnaire in which items were designed to access their attitude towards these three writing experiences.

Participants

This study was experimented in a public senior high school in Hsinchu City. The participants are 40 male 10th graders, who had already learned the usages of tense and subjunctive mood when this study was undertaken. They had also been taught the need of using a thesis statement when writing an English essay. In this study, they were randomly categorized into two groups, 20 receiving TR in the form of a question and 20 receiving direct correction as TR. The English proficiency of the two groups was roughly equal based on the average English grade in the high school entrance exam, 58 and 57 respectively¹, and their English academic performances of the semester this study proceeded. Moreover, except

¹ The total score of the English exam in the entrance examination is 60.

for personal few writing experiences in junior high school, all participants had no other experience to write an English essay in class; that is, English writing was new to them.

Types of Teacher Response in the Study

As discussed in the previous chapter, L2 writers, unlike L1 writers, are prone to focusing on grammar concepts. Because of L2 students' shortage of vocabulary and lack of thinking in target language, L2 students' essays—take Taiwanese students for example—are often rife with Chinglish and insipid description. In the present study, although the participants have studied English at least for six to nine years, they just start to learn to write short essays. As a result, the written TR adopted in this study focused on both local and global issues.

Generally, participants in the experimental group were treated with TR in the form of a question and those in the control group received direct correction as TR. The former were given questions focusing on tense usage (local issue) and thesis statement (global issue) (see Appendix A). In contrast, the latter were directly given answers to their problems with tense usage and thesis statement. Then, the performances of the participants in two groups were compared.

In detail, for students in the experimental group, errors related to tense were indicated in questions and students were asked to revise their first draft based on these questions. Since there might be other grammatical errors, the teacher had not marked them until students turned in their revision, so that students would not think their first essay was error-free. The same criterion was applied to the control group: errors in relation to tense were corrected directly; other grammatical errors would be untreated in the first draft but they were corrected in the revised draft.

As for the TR centering on the thesis statement, students' essays in the experimental group without or with an inappropriate thesis statement were given a question which asked

them where the thesis statement was. In contrast, those in the control group were directly presented a thesis statement if it was missing in their essays (see Table 1).

Table 1 *Research Design: Two Types of TR in the Two Groups*

Focus of TR	Group of Question-based TR	Group of Direct-correction TR
Grammar-focused TR	Ask a question based on the error type related to tense.	Directly correct errors related to tense usage.
Content-focused TR	Ask the question “Where is your thesis statement?”	Directly offer a thesis statement.

More specifically, grammar-focused TR was used when students made mistakes in the following forms: (1) a wrong tense was used and (2) a correct tense was used but written in the wrong form. For instance, in the experimental group, a question was prompted as students were found using simple present tense in a subjunctive clause in which simple past tense should be used, or as they used the wrong verb form (see Table 2).

Table 2 *TR for Errors in Tense Usage*

Error Types in Tense	Example	Question-as-response
1. A wrong tense was used.	If I <u>am</u> rich, I would travel around the world. (am → were)	How do you make a hypothesis for something that does not really happen in the present?
2. A tense was written in the wrong form.	I <u>have been study</u> English for 10 years. (study → studying)	What verb form should be used when you use present perfect progressive tense?

Procedure

In the first week of the study, participants were asked to write an English essay of 90 to 110 words in class. During this 50-minute span, they were allowed to use dictionaries for spelling-check but not allowed to consult other reference books such as English textbook or grammar manuals. Additionally, before they started to write, the teacher spent several

minutes reviewing how to construct a short essay, indicating specifically that an English essay should contain a clear “thesis statement.” The first essay was entitled “*A Day of Bad Weather.*” This title was adopted because it may elicit the use of various tenses. For example, while recalling one personal experience in a rainy day, students must use past tense.

In the second week, all students received their own drafts with written TRs on them; in class, they were asked to revise the essay according to the responses they received. Again, they were not allowed to consult grammar books. In addition, while they were making their revision, they were also asked to make a retrospective protocol (see Appendix B).

The protocol contains two parts: part A mainly focuses on students’ immediate response to the TRs on their first draft as soon as they read them. In detail, students were asked to find out sentences with errors of tense usage; meanwhile, they wrote down their reaction to the TR on their first draft in response to the question “*How and what do you think about the teacher’s response?*” Besides, students were also asked in the part A to recall why they used the wrong tense(s) in the context(s) of the essay². In part B, students’ retrospective thinking on how they organized their first draft is focused. In detail, they were asked to recall whether they organized their essay on the basis of their thesis statement³.

In both groups, the revised drafts were returned to the students the next week with all errors directly corrected by the teacher. This was done because most participants in this study were inexperienced in English writing and errors should be pointed out for these novice writers, or they were very likely to make the same grammatical mistakes next time. Besides grammatical correction, a proper thesis statement was offered in the revision in the hope of showing participants how to write a thesis statement for an essay.

Three weeks after they made their revision, a new essay was assigned in class. The second essay was entitled “*An Experience that Affects Me a Lot,*” which was anticipated to

² Students were asked “Why did you write it with this tense?”

³ Students were asked “How did you organize your essay?” and “Did you follow an organizational pattern?”

elicit past experiences of the students. Also, students may describe in the essay how their personal experience has influenced them. Moreover, when writing “*A Day of Bad Weather*” in the first essay, students were told that one possibility to develop their essay was the use of hypothetical statements such as “*If yesterday had been a sunny holiday, I*” In this new essay, they were also suggested to write their reflection as a kind of wish statement such as “*If I were able to reset my life, I*”

Finally, once students received their new essay with TRs, a survey (see Appendix C) was conducted using a questionnaire to access their attitudes towards this writing cycle. Some students were interviewed individually if the information written in the earlier retrospective protocol was insufficient or unclear.

Data Analysis

The data of the present study include students’ three writing drafts, their retrospective protocols, the questionnaires and the interviews. From these data, we hoped to extract (1) group performances of the three drafts, (2) students’ writing process and revising process, and (3) students’ attitudes towards teacher response.

In general, group performances were accessed by examining students’ three drafts as well as their error profile⁴ quantitatively. The error profile was made based on students’ three drafts (see Appendix D). The qualitative analysis of the error profile provided plenty of raw data which helped scrutinize the writing process of the participants. Students’ revising process was accessed via retrospective protocols which were analyzed qualitatively to support or further explain not only the statistics obtained from the analyses of the three drafts but also students’ perception of the TR they received. Finally, students’ attitudes towards TR and this writing procedure were gained by analyzing the questionnaire quantitatively and

⁴ The error profile was made to record every student’s errors in tense usage and whether the error was corrected with the help of grammar-focused TR. Besides, it also recorded the drafts with or without a proper thesis statement. In other words, the error profile serves as a database for further qualitative analyses, if necessary.

qualitatively. The interview was conducted, depending on whether the information gathered from above data was sufficient or not.

In detail, we gathered qualitative information from students' three drafts of two essays and their error profile. The error reduction as a result of grammar-focused TRs over the three drafts was first analyzed; therefore, every student's ratio of the amount of errors in tense usage to the amount of total clauses in the first essay, in the revised draft, and in the new essay was calculated respectively. The error ratio served as an indicator of the effectiveness of the grammar-focused TR; a lower ratio suggested greater effectiveness of the grammar-focused TR. In addition, the number of drafts containing a thesis statement over the three drafts was recorded. The increasing number in the revised draft would mean the effect of the content-focused TR. The more essays were found to have a thesis statement in the revised drafts, the more effective the type of the TR was.

With above statistics resulting from grammar-focused TR and content-focused TR, we then compared students' performances between first draft and the revised draft so that we could obtain the immediate (short-term) effect of the TR with the different focuses in quantitative terms. Therefore, in each group, the fluctuation in students' error ratios between the first draft and the revision because of grammar-focused TR helped answer the research question "*Does grammar-focused TR help reduce students' grammatical errors in revision?*" In the same vein, within each group, the change in the number of essays containing a thesis statement between the first draft and the revised drafts answered the question "*Does content-focused TR lead to students' writing progress in text organization?*"

Second, to see the immediate effect of two types of TR—TR in the form of a question versus direct-correction TR—we compared two groups in terms of (1) group decreasing error ratios in the revised draft and (2) group increasing numbers of the draft with a thesis statement in the revision. These two comparisons reveals the effect, from a quantitative perspective, of the two types of TR on students' revision, thus answering the research

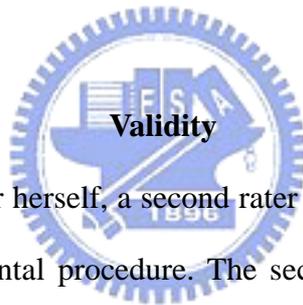
question “*Do different types of TR make differences in students’ revision?*”

After the analysis of immediate effect of two types of TR with two different focuses, we next probed into whether this short-term effect could sustain in the new essay. Therefore, we examined the participants’ new essay, hoping to find that both types of TR would show their carry-over effects of the grammar-focused TR and of the content-focused TR. The same analytic procedure was applied in the new essay: errors in tense usage as well as the existence of a thesis statement in the new essay were calculated and checked. The results were compared with those from the analyses of the two drafts of the first essay; the findings in the new essay were used to answer the research question, “*Does the effect of TR on students’ revision sustain?*”

Besides quantitative comparison, students’ writing and revising processes were explored by means of a qualitative analysis in students’ retrospective protocols. The protocol was designed to elicit students’ reflection on (1) how they responded to TR upon reading them, (2) why they used tense incorrectly or improperly in the first essay, and (3) whether they tended to misuse certain tenses in certain contexts. As a result, analyzing students’ retrospective protocol helped penetrate how participants understood the TR they received, and answered the research question “*How do they perceive TR (they received)?*” Additionally, examining the protocol could see whether students organized their essay with a thesis statement so that we could further understand why students would not place a proper thesis statement after they received the content-focused TR. In brief, the qualitative analyses of the retrospective protocols revealed students’ cognitive activities when they were revising. It is anticipated that from protocol, we could probably find the reason for which or the context in which students used wrong or improper tense, or were unable to provide a proper thesis statement. Besides protocol, students’ error profile was also referred to timely so as to provide useful detail for additional explanations of students’ writing and revising process.

Finally, the questionnaire served an access to students’ attitudes toward this writing

cycle. The questionnaire was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively to understand (1) students' attitudes towards the writing procedure of the three drafts; (2) their perception of the TR and attitudes towards the TR they received; and (3) their self-evaluation of the usefulness of the TR as well as their ability to apply TR to the new essay. The rating of each question in the questionnaire provided the quantitative perspectives on the research question “*What attitudes do students have towards TR?*” On the other hand, we also analyzed in a more qualitative way; as a result, students' answers to open-ended questions in the questionnaire, their written information in the protocols, and their responses in the interviews which were arranged with some students in order to fully understand their replies on the protocol and the questionnaire were all adopted to help us understand how students perceived TR and how they were influenced by the TR they received.



In addition to the researcher herself, a second rater was invited to ensure the inter-rater reliability in the whole experimental procedure. The second rater is an experienced senior high school English teacher who has taught English at least for eight years. Good at English writing and English writing instruction, the second rater helped double-check the TRs implemented in this study. Thus, the inter-rater reliability was confirmed before each of the three drafts was returned to the participants.

The construct validity of the responses used in this study is based on the agreement of the researcher and the second rater. All question-based TR were designed by the researcher and then checked by the second rater. They collectively discussed and checked whether the questions were clear enough and understandable for senior high school students. The content-focused TR used in the direct correction group—thesis statement—was also confirmed based on the discussion between the researcher and the second rater.

As mentioned previously, the corrected items in the present study were limited to errors

resulting from the misuse of tense and the neglect of a thesis statement. Thus, other grammatical errors were not identified in the first essay in order not to distract students from the focused grammatical items⁵. The second rater also assisted in double-checking the counting jobs. The counting of clauses with errors throughout the three drafts and the tracking of students' error profile were reconfirmed by the same rater as well.



⁵ In revising the first draft, participants were reminded that they should double-check their spelling and word choice. They were well informed that even though the teacher did not respond to these errors, other errors might still exist on their paper. These errors would be corrected by the teacher in their revised draft.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The present study was conducted with forty participants divided into two groups: twenty in the group of question-based TR (N1-N20) and twenty in the group of direct-correction TR (N21-N40). Students' performances across their first essay, revised draft, and the new essay were all recorded in their error profile. On the basis of the data gathered from students' error profile, protocols, questionnaires, and interviews, the findings in this study are presented in the following subsections in the sequence of immediate effects of TR, carry-over effects of TR, and students' attitudes toward TR. More specifically, quantitative results are shown first, followed by qualitative findings to further support or explain the data from quantitative analyses. These qualitative findings are mainly excerpted from students' responses in the interviews.



The Influence of TR on Students' Revision

First, group performances in terms of reduced error ratios are compared. Table 3 shows the error ratios of the two groups in the first draft and its revision.

Table 3 *Error Ratios in the First Draft and Its Revision*

Group	First Draft	Revision	Decreasing Rate
Group of Question-based TR (QB Group)	10.5%	2.5%	- 8%
Group of Direct-correction TR (DC Group)	14.6%	0.5%	- 14.1%

Table 3 shows that students in the experimental group had a decrease of 8% in error ratios in the revision (from 10.5% to 2.5%). The lower error ratio in the revision in the

question-based group thus reflects that TR had an immediate impact on students' writing, facilitating their revision. On the other hand, with a reduction of 14% in tense errors, the error ratio in the direct-correction group drops even more drastically across the two drafts (from 14.6 % to 0.5%), which suggests almost all students in this group, after receiving direct correction, had properly dealt with their errors in tense.

In fact, it is reasonable that the group of direct-correction TR performed better than the group treated with question-based TRs. With teacher's correction of tense errors, there are better chances that students in this group copied every red mark from their first draft to the revised one. However, students who received questions as TR had to spend some time pondering on how to correct their errors.

In order to understand the reason why some students in the group of question-based TR failed to correct errors, a small interview was conducted. Seven out of eight students said they knew how to answer the questions but somehow they were careless about their revision. They had to make their revision and meanwhile they were also asked to make their retrospective protocol. *"My time seemed to run out fast in that class. I was too busy doing two things new to me. I was distracted,"* said one student (N15). Some of them even confessed that they just wanted to hand in their revision as soon as possible, because the bell for the next class rang when they were writing revisions. One (N13) said what came to his mind at that time was whether the verb 'join' and 'attend' were synonymous, which left him unable to manage tense problems simultaneously.

On the other hand, Table 4 below shows the effectiveness of both types of TR on students' revision in terms of thesis statement. Again, it is apparent that all students in the direct-correction group included a thesis statement in their revision, while only one more student in the question-based group added a proper thesis statement in their revision. However, we can also observe that in the first draft, the direct-correction group in fact had 6 more essays with a thesis statement than the question-based group. Therefore, in terms of the

increasing amount of a proper thesis statement in the revised draft, Table 4 shows a similar result from Table 3: directly giving students a thesis statement ensures a higher possibility for students to successfully add a thesis statement in the revision than indirectly informing them by asking a question. Two possibilities can be offered for the low improvement rate: one was that students in the question-based group were confused about the TR provided; second, students did not know how to generate a thesis statement.

Table 4 *Amount of Drafts with a Thesis Statement in the First Draft and the Revision*

Group	First Draft	Revision
QB Group	11	12
DC Group	17	20

Scrutinizing the essays of those who were asked “*Where is your thesis statement*” but failed to write down a thesis statement on the revision, we discovered two types of students’ responses to this question. First, some (N12, N13, N16) rewrote their first draft as their revision, completely ignoring their lack of a thesis statement. They later told the researcher in the interview that they really had no idea about how to ‘create’ a thesis statement based on their first draft. Some students responded that they wrote their essays with intuition as they usually did in Chinese writing.

Second, some other students were perplexed with the question “*Where is your thesis statement*” because they did not think their thesis statement was missing. One student (N20) lengthened one of his sentences, and then underlined it, trying to refer to it as his thesis statement. Similarly, three students (N14, N17, N19) marked their concluding sentence as a thesis statement. One student (N19) in the interview even strongly argued for his judgment, proclaiming that his concluding sentence was exactly what was called the thesis statement, the main idea of his masterpiece. He even felt annoyed and complained about the teacher’s high and stubborn checking standard.

These responses reflect that students did understand the TR they received, but the problem lay in their inability to grasp the concept of the thesis statement in English writing. In addition, Chinese-speaking students may have difficulty distinguishing thesis statement from concluding sentence. While Chinese writing oftentimes summarizes important messages in the conclusion section, English writing often shows readers the most essential ideas in the beginning. Besides, many students at this learning level of English writing seemed upset about the conventional model of English essay writing. They did not understand why they had to follow this framework: point out the main idea with a thesis statement at first, and then write the extension with supporting ideas.

The aforementioned results partly answer the first research question “*Does TR influence students’ revision?*” The answer is “*Yes.*” TR in this study shows obvious influences on students’ revised draft. Different types of TR also make differences in students’ revision. In terms of students’ improvement in the revision, the group of direct-correction as TR outperformed the group of question-based TR. More specifically, the decreasing error ratios in both groups further suggest that grammar-focused TR helped reduce students’ linguistic errors in tense usage. On the other hand, comparing the two TR focuses, we may suggest that content-focused TR on students’ revision seemed not effective as a result of students’ problem with what a thesis statement is and how to generate a proper thesis statement. Interestingly, the question-based TR has aroused many responses, which are of great value for future exploration and provide pedagogical implications for future curriculum design in English writing.

The Influence of TR on Students’ New Essay

While there were various degrees of influence of TR on students’ revision, whether this influence could carry over to a new essay is also an important point investigated by this study. Table 5 exhibits students’ error ratios in the revision and the new essay, which serve as an

index of the carry-over effect of the grammar-focused TR.

Table 5 *Error Ratios in the Revision and the New Essay*

Group	Revision	New Essay	Increasing Rate
QB Group	2.5%	15.8%	+ 13.3%
DC Group	0.5%	14.9%	+ 14.5%

In Table 5, both groups show the increase of error ratio in the new essay in comparison to the ratio in the revision. The error ratios of both groups in the new essay mount drastically, with an increase of 13.3% in the question-based group and 14.5% in the direct-correction group. This increment means that the improvement shown in the revised draft was not carried over to the new essay; in other words, the instant power of grammar-focused TR in terms of tense management did not sustain over time.

To further understand the phenomenon of this increasing error ratio in the new essay, we analyzed students' error profile in the hope of finding the types of error that most students made easily. Table 6 below lists students' error types in their first essay and in the new essay. The hierarchy of the error types in each group is based on the amount of the errors in the new essay.

From Table 6, it is clear that the reason students failed to manage tense in the new essay is that they did not use past tense correctly. In the group of question-based TR, 57 out of 67 tense errors were contributed by past tense, reaching nearly 85.07% (see Table 7 below). In the other group, except for four errors, the rest were all ascribed to past tense, up to 92.98%.

Further comparing the ratio of errors in the past tense across the first essay and the new essay, as shown in Table 7, we find that the problem of the past tense has been a great issue for students in both groups, since over half of the tense problems in the first draft was past tense, 68.18% in the group of question-based TR, and 54.72% in the group of

direct-correction TR. This situation continued and even deteriorated in the new essay, for both groups have shown great regression in dealing with past tense, with the direct-correction group (92.98%) greater than the question-based group (85.07%).

Table 6 *Error Types in Tense in the First Essay and the New Essay*

QB Group			DC Group		
Error type	First Essay	New Essay	Error type	First Essay	New Essay
Past tense	30	57	Past tense	29	53
Present perfect	1	4	Present tense	5	3
Present tense	3	3	Verb form	6	1
Past perfect	3	2	Subjunctive mood	7	0
Subjunctive mood	2	1	Future tense	4	0
Future tense	1	0	Past perfect	1	0
The usage of auxiliary	1	0	The usage of auxiliary	1	0
Verb form	3	0	Present perfect	0	0
Total	44	67	Total	53	57

Table 7 *The Ratios of Errors in Past Tense in the First Essay and the New Essay*

Essay	QB Group	DC Group
First Essay	68.18%	54.72%
New Essay	85.07%	92.98%
Increasing Rate	+ 16.89%	+ 38.26%

The reason why students in the direct-correction group showed such great regression can be accessed from the interview with the students. For those who did not show any error in the first draft (N22, N24, N26, N27, N29) and those who did not make the error of past tense in the first draft (N33, N39, N40) but in the new essay, they all indicated that they did not double-check whether they had changed verbs into the correct form of past tense. Following the way they wrote their first essay to write the new essay, they thought they could handle this draft better than the previous one, for the topic of the new essay was much easier for

them to conceive ideas. However, unguarded attitude and hasty writing made them forget to take heed of tense marker. In addition, one of them noted that he never thought of using past tense when he was writing because he had hard time concentrating on grammar checking. For him, how to express his ideas in English had given him great trouble, not to mention meditating on tense usage within such a limited time.

So far, Table 6 and Table 7 have revealed that “past tense” was the common problem that the majority of the students in both groups need to tackle. Students’ error profile and interviews have shown that most errors in the past tense are due to the fact that student writers forgot to convert bare verbs or verbs with present tense marker to verbs with correct tense marker for simple past tense.

However, turn back to Table 6, which further infers that participants may also have problems choosing proper tense and aspect in different contexts. In Table 6, students in the group of question-based TR also made other tense errors in the new essay such as simple present, present perfect, and past perfect. Students in the group of direct correction were found using simple past tense for present events.

Analysis of the error profile of students in the group of question-based TR revealed students’ problems, as demonstrated in the excerpted sentences in Table 8 below. Two students (N3, N6) failed to correctly use present perfect in the new essay because they didn’t place a proper auxiliary before a participle; one student (N10) not only failed to use a proper participle after an auxiliary—*had ‘make,’* but also misused past perfect—*‘had’ made*—for present perfect. Likewise, this misuse occurred in other students’ new essay: three (N2, N7, N11) used past tense for present tense, and one (N5) used past tense for past perfect whereas one (N9) used present perfect for past perfect.

Interestingly, except for two students (N3, N6), those who made errors in either simple present, present perfect, or past perfect all made errors of past tense. This phenomenon is also found in students (N24, N29) in the direct-correction group, suggesting that these students

have problems with not only one tense but all tense usages.

Table 8 *Extracted Sentences with Problems from Students' Error Profile*

Student	Sentences
N3	I know many music celebrities in the world and what they <u>done</u> . (<i>have done</i>)*
N6	Studying in Hsinchu senior high school, I <u>can met</u> so many new friends. (<i>have met</i>)
N10	Since my brother and I <u>had make up</u> our mind to learn how to swim, ... (<i>have made up</i>) Because of this experience, it <u>had made</u> me get a lot of medals.... (<i>has made</i>)
N2	I become more careful when I <u>was</u> in the bathroom.... (<i>am</i>) ... just like in the area which <u>was</u> filled with landmines. (<i>is</i>)
N7	Now... I <u>felt</u> sorry to her. (<i>feel</i>)
N11	It <u>was</u> the boldest thing that I've ever done. (<i>is</i>)
N5	I regret for what I <u>did</u> in the junior high school. (<i>had done</i>)
N9	Having forgot how long it <u>have past</u> , I keep my room bright.... (<i>had passed</i>)

* Italic words in parenthesis are corrective forms for errors which are underlined.

Although students in both groups showed little progress—in fact, regression—in the new essay in terms of error reduction, their error profile and interviews have disclosed two findings. First, students' inadvertent attitude towards English resulted in many errors which may be avoidable. Second, first-year students in senior high school had difficulty dealing with tense and aspect, even though they had learned the concepts of tense and aspect and they had been reminded many times in various reading contexts. The difficulty may be due to the fact that their mother language, Chinese, does not have tense markers. On the other hand, the results also suggested that “to know is one thing but to do is another.” Therefore, raising consciousness of appropriate grammatical usages in writing would be a major concern for high school writing teachers.

Now that the carry-over effect of the grammar-focused TR is not significant, the answer to the research question “*Does the effect of grammar-focused TR sustain in the new*

essay” is negative. Despite that, from the interviews with the students and the inspection of their error profile, we obtained valuable information which helps us understand more about students’ writing problems.

Next, we turn to discuss the result of content-focused TR in the new essay. Table 9 below reveals the amount of drafts with a thesis statement across three essays.

Table 9 *Group Amount of Drafts with a Thesis Statement Across Three Drafts*

Group	First Essay	Revision of First Essay	New Essay
QB Group	11	12	12
DC Group	17	20	11

In Table 9, for the direct-correction group, the apparent effectiveness of the content-focused TR on students’ revision disappeared in the new essay. In this group, the number of drafts with a thesis statement dropped from 20 in the revision to 11 in the new essay. While all of the students included a thesis statement in the revision, many of them seemed to forget the need of a thesis statement in their new essay. Even those who originally had a thesis statement in the first essay later failed to put their thesis statement in the new essay. On the other hand, the number of drafts with a thesis statement in the question-based group remained the same in the new essay.

As discussed earlier, students in the direct-correction group all had a thesis statement in their revised paper, while only one student in the group of question-based TR added a thesis statement in his revision. Therefore, in terms of the revision, the prompt influence of the content-focused TR on students in the direct-correction group surpassed students in the group having questions as TR. This finding proves the immediate influence of the direct correction but it also suggests that merely copying the thesis statement provided by the teacher may not help raise students’ consciousness of the requirement of a thesis statement in every formal essay. Therefore, the compliance in the direct-correction group did not lead to a higher

number of drafts that had a thesis statement but bring about greater regression from students' first essay to the new essay. The decrease of drafts with a thesis statement further suggests that to manage a thesis statement remains difficult and challenging for students.

As shown in Table 9, students in the group of question-based TR performed steadily across the revision and the new essay in the use of a thesis statement. The number of drafts with a thesis statement in group of question-based TR was 12 in the new essay, slightly more than the number in the first draft. One student (N20) who did not include a thesis statement in both the first essay and the revision wrote a thesis statement in his new essay. Another student (N5) who received the question “*Where is your thesis statement*” in the first essay added his thesis statement in the revision; in his new essay, a thesis statement was also found. These two students in the experimental group did show that they became aware of the need to include a thesis statement after the provision of question-based TR about thesis statement.

That is to say, compared with direct correction, the effect of TR in the form of a question seems to carry certain influence on students when they were composing their article. While a great number of students in the direct-correction group merely copied teacher's correction when revising their first draft, students in the question-based group seemed to have more chances to meditate on the question posed by the teacher, and this thinking process may affect the way they conceive their new essay.

In the interview with one student (N5) in the question-based group, he mentioned that

“In the beginning, I thought writing, no matter in which language, should be a way to express ourselves, rather than following a certain format just in order to catch the corrector's attention. In my first draft, I wrote at will, in the way I'm used to composing a Chinese essay. However, the question posed on my essay surprised and somewhat annoyed me. I thought I wrote well, at least compared with other classmates. Then I started to think about this question: where is my thesis statement in this article. Indeed, there is no denying that my essay lacked a sentence to convey the main idea of

my article. And this thought seemed to have embedded in my mind; I therefore tried to think about a thesis statement when I was beginning my new essay. I hoped people could understand what I was about to say in no time.”

Actually, this thinking process also occurred to a student (N31) in the group of direct correction who had once asked the question about thesis statement in class. In his questionnaire, he noted that he learned some ideas of how to construct an English composition in this writing activity, especially by making good use of a thesis statement. This student in his interview pointed out that though given a thesis statement by the teacher in the beginning of his first essay, he did not realize the function of this sentence until he actively “asked” the teacher. Without this “inquiry,” he would not have thought of a thesis statement for his new essay.

In a nutshell, content-focused response, though showing little significance in this study, carries certain impact on students. This answers positively the research question “*Does content-focused TR contribute to students’ writing progress in content organization?*” From a longitudinal perspective, directly offering a thesis statement for students leads to more reliance upon TR, helpless to student writers’ ability in constructing an essay. On the other hand, asking a question may spur students’ thinking process, which may further help raise consciousness of errors or problems.

In the next subsection, we discuss students’ points of view on how the thinking process of the TR affected their English writing. By interviewing with students, we hope to access whether the thinking process leads to progress in English writing.

Students’ Viewpoints on Thinking Process

To confirm the role of the thinking process as a response to TR, ten students in the question-based group were randomly chosen to have an interview with the researcher. They were asked to recall how they responded to question-based TR as they revised their first draft

and whether the thinking process evoked by the TR led to more contemplation when they were writing the new essay. At first, many of them responded with uncertainty, though, because they did not realize the link between TR and the thinking process.

Some students in the question-based group, for instance, mentioned that they just tried to answer the question. Generally speaking, questions as TR are friendly to them and most of them are easy to handle. However, a number of students indicated that those TRs that confused them would bring about more thinking. These students were further asked whether questions that may perplex them, such as content-focused TR or TR asking about past perfect, gave rise to more consciousness of their problems or errors. One student (N11) said frankly,

“When I saw the teacher’s question, I was confused for a while. I didn’t know why my expression was incorrect. Yes, I spent much time on my erroneous sentence⁶, but the fact is that, even if I know how to correct the error, I still don’t know why the teacher provided me with such a question, asking me to change present perfect to past perfect⁷. For me, asking questions is a good way to offer response, but a detailed elaboration or explanation might be better. Otherwise, I just answer the teacher’s question rather than understand why. Next time I’ll still have no idea about how to use proper tense and aspect in similar contexts.”

Another student (N13) also replied that he did not write a thesis statement on his revision because he never considered it important to put a thesis statement in the beginning of an essay. On seeing the question “*Where is your thesis statement,*” he felt confused. It was very difficult for him to produce an appropriate sentence which can serve as what is called the thesis statement.

The responses from these two students reflect that high school students seem to care about whether they can answer the teacher’s question rather than whether they understand

⁶ Original is “*My friends and I have been prepared for this camping trip for months.*”

⁷ It should be changed into “*My friends and I had prepared for this camping trip for months.*”

their problems by thinking on their own. For many of them, spending more time pondering should lead to an answer to the question the teacher asked not the point the teacher intended to draw attention to. This reveals the fact that Taiwanese students seldom associate the relationship between thinking process and knowledge building. That is why the interviewees were unsure whether more thinking process resulted in more progress in writing. For them, more thinking process results in more correct sentences, probably not better grammatical consciousness. Therefore, their correct answers may not be the outgrowth of more thinking.

The above discussion may explain the deficiency of this study. Students in the question-based group merely answered the question rather than thinking about the meaning beneath each question. It seems to high school students that connecting the surface meaning of a question with its intended instructional meaning is hard and even out of the question.

Take one student (N6) for example. He wrote his sentence in this way: *“After we overcame it, we will never [be] afraid of it.”* Thus he was asked *“How do you express an event which happens at present⁸?”* This student later in the revision correctly changed his sentence into *“After we overcome it, we will never [be] afraid of it.”* Undoubtedly, he answered the question correctly. However, it is ironic that he commented in the interview with the following statement: *“I can answer the question because the question itself is clear and easy to reply. However, in fact I don’t know why my original sentence is wrong; I can’t identify which tense I should use for this sentence! I don’t understand why I should change the past tense to the present tense. Is it a new sentence pattern I’ve never learned or some other exceptional usage?”*

On the other hand, one student (N16) said, *“My problems were literally easy to deal with; I was just careless. I know why the teacher gave me such questions. However, while I was writing my second (new) essay, they were simply out of my mind. Time was a big problem! I tried in vain to write a thesis statement on my new essay. I really do not know how to make*

⁸ Chinese: 「克服它」這件事發生在現在，應該如何表示？

a so-called thesis statement. But I think recalling what happened last time (in the revision) helped me a lot. At least, the second time of writing went much more smoothly than the first one. I think I can do much better next!”

As a matter of fact, a majority of students in the interview responded that, on account of limited time, they had hard time contemplating the exact rationale of every correction. For example, one student (N35) from direct-correction group said, *“As I was revising my first draft, I was busy copying the corrections made by the teacher. The grammatical errors were actually my fault due to my indiscretion.... Regarding the thesis statement, I think the teacher’s addition of the thesis statement was perfect because it truly made my passage more fluent. But to be frank, it never crossed my mind to understand how the teacher came up with that. I just followed what the teacher gave me.”*

Additionally, in both essays, many students spent too much time striving for translation: students translated their ideas, which were conceived in Chinese, into English. Hardly did try to recall what had happened in their last writing. Therefore, many interviewees confessed that they had no idea about whether more thinking process would make them write an essay more easily or write a better essay.

To sum up, students’ answers in the interview provide many reasons for the seemingly unreasonable phenomenon on the surface. First, to answer a question is easy for most students, so many of them did not really think over the intended question provided in the TR. As a result, they were not sure whether more thinking contributes to more progress in writing. Second, limitation of time when students wrote an essay has made many students uncomfortable and uneasy. After all, writing an English essay was a new experience to them and they needed more time and guidance as for how to construct their ideas.

Students’ Attitude toward Teacher Response

So far, the present study has revealed that TR had an immediate influence on students’

revision but this effect did not sustain to the new essay. While the carry-over effect of TR was relatively less significant than the immediate effect, the findings from students' attitudes toward TR may render different insights of the TR adopted in this study. Therefore, in the next two subsections, how participants in the two groups perceived different types of TR and what attitudes they had towards the effect of TR are discussed. Some students' opinions in the interview are also presented in order to support explanations.

The Protocols

Participants in both groups were asked to finish a protocol which consists of two sections. In the first part, students had to write down their immediate reaction as they read the TR on their first essay; besides, they were also asked to recall why they made such mistakes. In the other part, they were asked to recall how they constructed their first essay—focusing on whether they followed their thesis statement to develop their essay.

Table 10 exhibits students' retrospective protocols in the question-based group. Generally, there are three types of responses to the TR in the form of a question. The first one is awareness and reflection: "*Oh! (There's) something wrong with tense. I shall have noticed it.*" Eleven out of twenty students in this group noted in their protocol with this or a similar comment. No doubt, they were aware of the grammatical item they had problem with. This further suggests the TRs in the form of a question adopted in this study were clear and comprehensible for these students in the question-based group. Since most students have no problem interpreting this type of TR, the accuracy rate of tense usage in the revision boosted in consequence.

The second type of response is a statement like "*I was too careless!*" or "*I just did it by intuition.*" Six students confessed that they did not double-check tense usage in their first essay. Four said they wrote their first essay by intuition (N4, N9, N12, N15); one hurried to finish his writing without re-reading or checking before he handed it in (N11). Nonetheless,

one student denied his carelessness; instead, he complained that it was the teacher that was too meticulous, because he, confident as he always is, thought the teacher paid too much attention to unnecessary details (N19).

Table 10 *Retrospective Protocol of the Question-based Group*

Type	Responses	Number of Students
Type 1	“Oh! Something wrong with tense. I shall have noticed it.”	11
Type 2	“Hmmm. I was too careless!”	6
	“I did it by intuition.”	4
	“It’s all time’s fault.”	1
Type 3	“What is this?”	1
	“I couldn’t get it. I still didn’t know how to correct my error!!!”	3
	“What is the difference between simple tense and perfect?”	2

Although what occurred to most students as soon as they read questions as TR was mainly self-blaming for carelessness, some students also replied that they had difficulty correcting errors by themselves. Thus, the third responsive type is confusion: two students (N10, N16) expressed their confusion in the protocol. *“Hmmm... I can’t understand. I would like to express something which ‘has happened’ at that time, so I used past perfect,”* said one student (N16) whose sentence was corrected into past tense. Another student (N10) noted, *“This sentence is a little bit difficult for me to correct. I wanted to express I worked hard to prepare for the test before the day of the exam, so I used past tense.”* However, his sentence was corrected by the teacher into a sentence with past perfect.

Similarly, one student (N6) also confronted the same problem of mixing tense and aspect up. His two errors are misuses of past perfect and past tense respectively. Though teacher’s questions led him to correctly change past perfect into present perfect and past tense into present tense, he still felt confused and noted, *“For some sentences, I’m really unable to identify which tense or aspect is correct for this context.”* Indeed, using the correct tense in

the revision, this student’s response reveals an important and critical message: even if TR is clear enough for student writers to successfully deal with errors by themselves, students may still lack the correct concept of certain tense usage. Consequently, the same mistake is made next time when they encounter a similar context.

Again, the same issue remains unsettled—students knew how to answer the question but did not think over the rationale beneath the question. They know their writing teacher had them deal with “past tense” but it seems that they did not make a connection to “why” the teacher asked them to use “past tense” in this “context” or “occasion.” The purpose of asking questions is to arouse more thinking and knowledge (re)building or application. However, in this study, students’ consciousness and failure to understand the rationale underlying the question seems to be a great obstacle for them, especially as inexperienced apprentices, to make progress in writing.

Now, let us turn to the other group who were treated with direct correction. Table 11 lists students’ comments on the correction directly made by the teacher in their first draft.



Table 11 *Retrospective Protocol of the Direct-correction Group*

Type	Responses	Number of Students
Type 1	“Oh! I see.” “Hmm... I got it.”	4
Type 2	“I’ll keep it in mind next time.” “I’ll be more cautious.”	3
Type 3	“My English is so poor!”	3
Type 4	“I’d like to know why it was corrected.”	1
Type 5	“I might write correctly... but...?”	4
Type 6	“I don’t know what the teacher intended for.”	1

Generally, while reading teacher’s direct correction, there are four students uttering with the agreement such as “*I see*” or “*I got it.*” They accepted teacher’s correction and also succeeded in revising their essay (N30, N32, N34, N40). Besides, similar to students in the question-based group, many students in the direct-correction group attributed their mistakes

about tense to their carelessness (N28, N31, N35). Interestingly, three students (N36, N37, N39) spontaneously thought aloud “*Oh! My English is so poor!*” This utterance suggests novice writers’ lack of self-confidence in English writing; meanwhile, it also implies that students in direct-correction group seemed more obedient to the TRs they received. On the other hand, one student (N30) expressed that he hoped to know the reason why his sentence was corrected.

Those who responded with “*I see*” or “*I got it*” all corrected their sentences successfully. They followed TRs because they admitted their teacher’s correction was indeed better than their originals. However, if a student whose English is actually above the average said his English was very poor after seeing the teacher’s red ink, this may suggest other connotations.

There is one student (N37) who used “*always be effect*” for “*is always affected.*” He responded, “*Uhhh... Just the same as I predicted! I knew it must be wrong!*” His response suggests that he knew he had trouble in making this sentence and that he had been aware of his errors. Thus, it did not surprise him as he saw the teacher’s red mark. However, this student spontaneously sighed, “*My English is so poor*” for another of his error he made: he used past tense for a habitual experience⁹. As a matter of fact, the errors this student made, compared with errors made by students who also exclaimed their “poor English,” are relatively more readable and predictable. What is more, this student’s English grade, according to their English teacher, is above the average. He had no reason to say he had poor English on the ground of his flawed sentences in the first essay.

In fact, it can be observed that most students in the direct-correction group always followed the TR they received without further thinking over why they made those errors or how they may avoid those errors in future writing works. Such a student as the case just

⁹ Original: “I couldn’t go out to play basketball in a rainy day....” (which was corrected by the teacher into “I can’t go out....”)

discussed (N37) has moderate English proficiency but humbly expressed that his English is so poor and then followed the teacher's correction to revise his article. This may help explain why students in this group had serious regression in the new essay.

These two types of responses—“*Oh, I see*” and “*My English is too poor*”—convey an important message: students in the group of direct correction are more ready to accept TR than students in the other group who received question-based TR. Even though they might have confusion or hesitation, as will be discussed in the following, they did nothing but accept the TR offered by the teacher.

Finally, like students in the question-based group, a few students in the group of direct correction also showed their disagreement with the teacher's red marks. Four students said, “*I think I wrote correctly*” (N28, N35, N38, N39). In spite of this retort, all of them revised their essay adhering to the responses made by the teacher. One student (N30) asked, “*I'd like to know why it was corrected*” as response to the TR he received. Another student (N33) replied, “*I didn't know what the teacher intended for.*” They both followed the teacher's correction to revise their paper without further inquiry.

A comparison of students' reaction to TR shows that students in the question-based group have more opinions about the teacher's judgment or the way the teacher provided TR. Students in this group complained that the teacher focused too much on details; they had more confidence in their writing, considering their essays easy to read and to understand. On the other hand, students in the direct-correction group seem to be more conservative and showed more respect and compliance to the teacher's correction, even if they felt perplexed at TRs or they thought the teacher might have misunderstood their ideas.

Despite different degrees of compliance to TR discovered in different groups, students in both groups have one thing in common: many of their responses to TR are self-blaming remarks for their carelessness, particularly on certain tense concepts which should have been managed well. That is to say, students at this level may have acquired the grammatical

knowledge of tenses and may be aware of their own inability to apply the knowledge to real language use, in this case, in essay writing. Their “competence” in basic usages of tense and aspect is undeniable. However, how to raise their awareness of the usages of tense and aspect in their “performance” remains a big issue for high school English teachers in Taiwan.

The Questionnaires and Interviews

A questionnaire was conducted to assess students’ attitude toward this writing activity. This questionnaire consists of three main subsections to ask students’ opinions about different aspects of writing. First, Question (1) to (3) asked students to make a general evaluation of whether they had learned something from the whole writing cycle and whether they tried to apply what they had learned from the first draft and the revision to the new essay. Then in the second part, students were asked to indicate what attitude they held towards this writing experience (Q4-Q8) and whether the teacher’s responses influenced them on the revision and the third writing process (Q9-Q12). In the rest from Question (13) to (19), students were treated with relevant questions to the TR, such as what kind of TR they favored and expected, whether the TR they received helped them think over their problems, and other alternative TR or writing techniques they hoped to receive in their writing class.

In the following, students’ self-evaluation of whether they had learned something from this writing activity is discussed. Figure 1 below shows students’ overall impression of this writing activity. Apparently, a large proportion of students in both groups—19 students in the question-based group and 18 students in the direct-correction group—agreed with Question (1) “*In general, I learned some writing concepts from these three writing experiences.*” In the question-based group, only one student (N12) disagreed; on the other hand, two students (N32 and N36) in the direct-correction group also showed disagreement with this question.

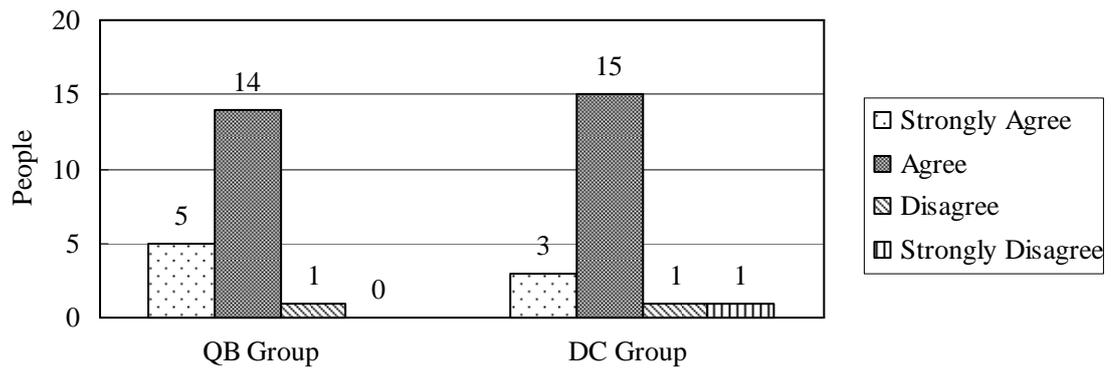


Figure 1 *Students' Overall Impression on Whole Writing Activity*

More specifically, we further investigate whether it is teacher's responses that affected students on learning something from this writing activity. First, we access students' general attitude towards the influence of two types of TR. In Table 12, it is evident that both groups showed agreement about the TR they received, with the mean¹⁰ up to 3 for Question (8) and (9) in both groups. In reality, approximately 80% of the students in this study agreed the influence of TR in terms of grammar-focused TR and content-focused TR.

Table 12 *Students' Attitude toward the Influence of the TR*

No	Question Item	Group	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
8	The teacher's responses gave me a clearer concept about how to organize my article.	QB	3	14	3	0	3.00
		DC	3	13	4	0	2.95
9	The teacher's responses gave me a clearer concept about tense usage.	QB	3	13	4	0	2.95
		DC	5	11	4	0	3.05

Although a majority of the students in both groups, 32 out of 40, accredited the

¹⁰ The mean of each question item in the questionnaire is measured by the average score of all students in the same group. Those who answering "strongly agree" got 4, "agree" got 3, "disagree" got 2, and "strongly agree" got 1.

influence of TR they received, disapproval against the effectiveness of TR was also shown. Regarding Question (8) *“The teacher’s responses gave me a clearer concept about how to organize my article,”* three students in the question-based group disagreed and four in the direct-correction group showed their disagreement. On the other hand, for Question (9) *“The teacher’s responses gave me a clearer concept about tense usage,”* eight students showed their disapproval, with four from the question-based group and four from the direct-correction group. This situation will be discussed later.

We further narrow down to students’ attitudes toward the influences of TR on revision and the new essay (see Table 13 below). In Table 13, it is obvious that most students agreed that the TR they received had helped them deal with tense and organization not only in revision but also in the new essay. In terms of the revision, 16 students in the question-based group agreed that *“(10a) I felt I had a clearer concept about tense usage in the revision”* and 15 students in the direct-correction group responded with approval. Besides, with mean score 3 in both groups, 18 students in the question-based group and 16 in the other group expressed their agreement with Question (10b) *“I felt I had a clearer concept about how to organize an English article in the revision.”*

In terms of the new essay, again, over 70% of the students in both groups thought they had a clearer concept: 14 students from the question-based group and 16 from the direct-correction group showed their approval of Question (11a) *“I felt I had a clearer concept on tense usage in my new essay.”* A similar response is found in students’ opinion about whether content-focused TR affected the way they organized their new essays, for Table 13 has shown that a majority of the students in both groups positively answered Question (11b) *“I felt I had a clearer concept about how to organize an English article in my new essay;”* 15 students in the question-based group and 16 students in the direct-correction group gave a positive response to this item, making the mean score of two groups at least 3.

Integrating the aforementioned, we can conclude that most students in this study

acknowledged the value of these three writing experiences. This is consistent with the result of Question (12a) “*I felt that I had made some progress in English writing from these three writing experiences,*” which was agreed by 32 participants (80%).

Table 13 *Students’ Attitude toward the Effect of the TR on the Revision and the New Essay*

No	Question Items	Group	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
10a	I felt I had a clearer concept about tense usage in the revision.	QB	6	10	4	0	3.10
		DC	4	11	5	0	2.95
10b	I felt I had a clearer concept about how to organize an English article in the revision.	QB	6	12	2	0	3.20
		DC	5	11	4	0	3.05
11a	I felt I had a clearer concept on tense usage in my new essay.	QB	4	10	6	0	2.90
		DC	6	10	4	0	3.10
11b	I felt I had a clearer concept about how to organize an English article in my new essay.	QB	5	10	5	0	3.00
		DC	7	9	4	0	3.15
12a	I felt I had made some progress in English writing from these three writing experiences.	QB	1	15	4	0	2.85
		DC	2	14	4	2	2.70

However, while students’ self-evaluation reveals acknowledgement of the influences of TR, their poor performance in the new essay, as have been discussed in the previous subsections, seems contradictory to these responses in the questionnaire. In the following, four students who did not think teacher response had influences on their writing were interviewed, and their perspectives perhaps shed light on this contradiction.

Table 14 lists the students from two groups who denied the influences of TR they received. Students who denied the effect of TR on both the revision and the new essay are

listed prior to those who denied TR’s influence on either the revision or the new essay.

Overtly, in Table 14, four students were entirely opposed to the impact of TR, showing disagreement about the influences of both grammar-based and content-based TRs on not only the revision but also the new essay. They are students (N2) and (N19) from question-based group and students (N34) and (N37) from direct-correction group.

Table 14 *Students Showing Disagreement with the Influences of TR on Tense or Organization*

Group	Focus	Revision	New Essay
QB Group	Grammar	N2, N19, N11, N20	N2, N19, N11, N20, N7, N12
	Organization	N2, N19	N2, N19, N4, N7, N12
DC Group	Grammar	N25, N34, N37, N38, N33	N25, N34, N37, N38
	Organization	N34, N37, N40, N36	N34, N37, N40, N38

First of all, the case of student (N2) is understandable, because this student did not make any error in the first draft and the revision. Receiving no TR, this student surely denied the value of the use of teacher response on students’ writing. However, in the interview he replied that he had expected some written responses on his draft. Even though there was no error in his writing, he still hoped the teacher could give him comments, such as an overall remark on how to make his essay closer to the style of an authentic writing.

On the other hand, student (N19) indeed felt distasteful to the TR he had received. *“I don’t think this could help me make progress in writing. First, I don’t know why I had to write. Second, I don’t know why the teacher is always picky about something trivial. Third, I really hate to follow the so-called ‘convention’ of English writing! For me, writing is a way to express myself, including my thinking style, creativity, and originality.”*

This student's comment is worthy of being discussed. His doubt about his being forced to write reveals his lack of motivation for English writing. Unquestionably, first-year students of senior high school have no urgent need to learn to write formally. Thus, their attitude toward this writing activity turned to be not so serious. In the beginning, they actually felt writing was novel and interesting. However, they gave a try, only to find it difficult to meet the teacher's requirement—for example, start an essay with a thesis statement. It is, hence, understandable that some students might feel uncomfortable and even antipathetic to the later writing practices.

What is more, this student's annoyance at the TR focusing on errors in tense suggests that focusing on tense usage for every sentence seems too frivolous for students at this level. This student strongly suggested that the teacher pay more attention to guiding them, who are novice writers, to have a good start in English writing instead of asking questions focusing on tiny tense problems. Additionally, he also intensely argued against the conventional techniques of English writing, because these conventions would kill his thinking and creativity.

This student's accusation indicates probably the limitation and unexpected results of this study. First, examining the writing performance of novice student writers in the first year of high school may be risky. Most of them are not ready for English writing. Assessing how they performed and whether they made progress in only three writing experiences may be difficult to be reliable, especially when their motivation is not high.

Second, students' motivation, to some extent, plays a role in their writing process and their writing performance. Asking students to write by following the conventions of academic writing—start with a thesis statement or a topic sentence—may lower their motivation to write an English essay, since it might be very challenging and unimaginable for students at a lower level. Accordingly, this may explain the reason why many students in this study had difficulty coming up with a thesis statement in their revision and the new essay. In fact,

students at this stage may not be aware of the importance of a thesis statement in an essay. In addition, students, even if they are aware of the need to provide a thesis statement for their essay, may be still unable to write an appropriate thesis statement.

The third point is that students' English proficiency is not good enough to write English essays. They not only had a hard time writing a thesis statement but also faced problems with tense usage. It is reasonable that some special usages of tense and aspect may confuse Chinese-speaking students due to the lack of clear markers for tense and aspect in Mandarin. This language interference also accounts for students' inability to use a thesis statement, since Chinese writing does not require a thesis statement. On the other hand, as indicated earlier, the findings showed that many students made errors in tense simply because of their carelessness; most of them made mistakes about past tense not because they had no idea of when to use this tense but because they forgot to double-check tense markers in each sentence. From above perspectives, how to make students conscious of the differences between L1 and L2 and how to raise their awareness of correct tense usages for different contexts and avoid habitual errors as a result of their carelessness are two vital issues which must be taken into account in designing a writing course for senior high school students.

Now turn back to the other two students (N34) and (N37) from the direct-correction group. According to the interview with student (N34), his responses also showed some interesting clues. He thought that he was "very earnest" (i.e., hardworking) in writing his composition. However, he had trouble understanding the teacher's responses. Therefore, he hoped the teacher could offer some Chinese comments, telling him why it was corrected. Furthermore, he also pointed out that colloquial responses with examples were even much better.

As for student (N37), his responses to the TR he was treated with were harsh. In the interview, he was very frank with his attitude toward this writing cycle. He indicated that originally he hoped he could make progress during the three writing activities; however, he

remained frustrated regarding how to write in English. The most crucial factor was that he was completely unable to figure out the responses made by the teacher, because he did not think the teacher's direct correction gave him any hint or idea to reduce his errors or to organize his article.

He said, *“The teacher should have instructed us first. For example, she could explain how to organize paragraphs with the skills we had learned before instead of leaving us seemingly abandoned. I was confused with the topic. I was not sure what on earth the teacher would like me to write. To be frank, I don't think I had learned anything from this writing experience, especially when I also found the TR I received was different from my neighbors', which were questions. I thought mine was very dreary and meaningless.”*

These two cases reveal that students needed more instructions before they began their English writing for the first time. When they were writing their first English essay, most students, though did not know how to set off their writing, followed their teacher's command and finished their draft with great uncertainty. One week afterward, they received their essay with another type of expectation—longing for feedback clearly and definitely pinpointing their strengths as well as weaknesses. What they expected, however, turned into nothing but some red corrections without any reason or detailed explanation. Their disappointment and complaint may further explain why many students regressed in the new essay. Students' expectation of the new essay may alleviate because they might assume that the same type of TR would be used again. For those who had distrusted the TR they received, their low motivation would be reflected along with their low expectation for the TR.

As a matter of fact, this student (N37) is the very case we discussed in the previous subsection. With English proficiency better than the average, he had replied in his protocol that *“My English is so poor.”* If he had really considered his English poor, he would not have thought he learned nothing from this writing process, neglecting the value of teacher's responses. The reason is that students at the lower English level tend to take whatever their

teachers give for granted, following the instruction with fewer dissenting views. The paradox in this case is that on the surface this student said his English is poor and also followed the teacher's correction but in practice he dissented from the responses he received in mind. Even though showing his obedience to the TR, this student, like some students in the question-based group, demonstrated his stance in a different way.

This case also suggests students in different groups had different attitudes toward the TR. For students in the question-based group, responses in the form of a question seem rather friendly: some students did not answer the question, leaving their errors uncorrected. On the other hand, all students in the direct-correction group readily corrected their errors by following the direct correction made by the teacher.

It seems that explicit responses such as direct correction may lead to passive learning without reflection or consciousness among high school students. In theory, clear and explicit responses are easier to understand and follow. In practice, explicit TR, as indicated by some students (such as N34 and N37), may also cause more confusion of the students, if they are unable to understand the rationale beneath the seemingly lucid corrections.

In conclusion, the interviews with these four students have revealed their perspectives on this writing cycle. Their comments on this study have rendered many valuable ideas for further improvement of the research design on TR. Pedagogical implications for EFL senior high school writing curriculum in Taiwan are discussed in the next chapter.

Other Information from the Questionnaire

In the previous subsection, how students perceived the TR they received, how they reacted to the TR, and what opinion they had about the TR have been discussed. In the following, a general self-evaluation of students' attitudes toward the writing activity is shown. Table 15 below lists students' general attitude toward the three writing processes of this study. Significantly, the mean score of each question item is over 3.2 (agree), suggesting positive

attitudes towards this writing cycle. Most students expressed that they worked hard when they wrote their first essay (Q4), took the teacher’s responses seriously in the revision (Q5), and hoped to write better in the new essay (Q6): over 90% of the students from both the question-based group and the direct-correction group answered Q4 to Q6 positively.

The responses in Table 15 are largely expected. For most of the participants in this study, this is their first experience to write a formal, complete English essay in class. They took this writing exercise seriously; they also had self-expectation for their “debut.”

Table 15 *Students’ Attitude toward Three Writing Processes*

No	Question Items	Group	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
4	I worked hard when I wrote my first essay.	QB	10	9	1	0	3.45
		DC	8	9	3	0	3.25
5	I took the TR seriously in the revision.	QB	9	11	0	0	3.45
		DC	8	11	1	0	3.35
6	I hoped to write better in the new essay.	QB	12	6	2	0	3.50
		DC	13	5	2	0	3.55

Now, let us move to more specific questions. Students’ self-evaluation of the ability to apply what they had learned in the first two drafts to the new essay and the progress they felt they had made is first discussed. Then, the expectations for teacher response are shown. Finally, other alternative methods or techniques students hoped to adopt in facilitating their writing are discussed.

Generally, students’ positive responses to the following questions were overtly more than negative ones. In other words, most students thought they would apply the learned knowledge to the new writing. Besides, they also thought highly of the TR, believing that TR was useful for them to cope with their problems and helpful to their subsequent writing.

Specifically, for Question (3a) “*I would apply what I learned in previous two writing experiences to my new essay,*” 19 out of 20 students in the question-based group showed their

agreement (with the mean score 3.1) and 15 out of 20 in the direct-correction group (mean score 3). Four more students in the direct-correction group indicated that they had not tried to apply the concepts learned from two previous drafts to their new essay. With the answers directly offered, students in this group might tend to simply follow the correction without further understanding. The interactivity of the direct correction is by nature lower than the response in the form of a question. If students in the direct-correction group did not try to realize why the teacher gave such corrections, they basically did not have a chance to understand the exact reason of each error, not to mention the application.

For Question (12a) *“I felt like I made progress in English writing during these three writing experiences,”* 16 out of 20 students in the question-based group (mean score 2.85) and 14 in the direct-correction group agreed with this statement (mean score 2.70). For Question (15) *“I think the responses from the teacher are of help to my subsequent writing,”* 100% of the students in the question-based group gave a positive answer (mean score 3.81); in the direct-correction group, 19 students out of 20 answered positively (mean score 3.05). Similarly, 18 students in the question-based group (mean score 3.71) and 17 in the direct-correction group (mean score, 3.20) gave, respectively, agreed that *“(17) The teacher’s responses in my English writing helped me think about my problems.”*

From students’ responses to these questions, we can find a slight difference in the number of students in the two groups who agreed with the statements. With the mean score higher than that of direct-correction group in above Question (3a), (12a), (15), and (17), question-based TR group seems to value this writing cycle more than direct-correction group. Participants in the question-based group thought they had made some progress during this writing activity; they thought the TR in a form of a question is helpful to their following writing; and most importantly, they approved that question as a TR helped them “think” in order to cope with their errors. Even though the difference in mean score between two groups is not statistically significant, these higher positive acknowledgements still reflect the

viewpoints of students in the question-based group and further suggest the implicit influences of the question-based TR utilized in this study.

Finally, we turn to students' expectations for teacher response (see Table 16) and their suggestions for alternative ways of TR or corrective methods (see Table 17). Table 16 is summarized by students' answers to Question (14a) "*I thought the teacher should have offered _____ responses in my English writing*¹¹," listing students' responses from Top 1 to Top 9.

Table 16 *Students' Expectations for TR*

No	Students' Answers	QB Group	DC Group
1	Offer students TR which can help manage writing organization	1	4
2	Offer students TR in Chinese	3	2
3	Offer students TR which facilitates their writing and correcting	0	4
4	Offer students more detailed TR	2	2
5	Offer students more encouragement	3	1
6	Indicate incorrect sentence patterns and supply authentic practices	3	0
7	Offer TR related to tense in details	1	1
8	Offer negative TR to point out errors or disadvantages	1	1
9	Offer overall comment	1	0

In Table 14, five students replied that they hoped to be offered TR which can help them organize their writing (No.1), especially students in the direct-correction group. That is to say, students who were directly given a thesis statement did not understand why the teacher placed a new sentence in their writing. They were bewildered, still unable to write their essay with a proper thesis statement; they did not think they had learned how to organize their composition. They thus hoped their writing teacher could supply some instructions guiding them how to generate a thesis statement for their articles.

In addition, both groups hoped the teacher could respond in Chinese (No.2). Actually,

¹¹ Original: 我覺得老師應在我的英作中做_____的回應。

students in the question-based group were treated with grammar-focused questions in Chinese, but with the content-focused question “*Where is your thesis statement?*” in English. After further inquiry with these five students, we found that what they meant was a more detailed explanation or an overall comment written in Chinese, because many of them were not sure whether their conjecture of the reason why the teacher gave such a correction was correct or not. They hoped the teacher could provide an explanation for their errors.

A similar concern is also expressed by some students in the group of direct correction. As shown in Table 16, there are four students who hoped to receive TRs which could facilitate them to construct an English essay as well as correct their errors (No.3). This means that many students in the direct-correction group, even though being given correction directly, were also eager for further explanations and some instructions.

Finally, expectations such as offering more responses in detail (No.4) and offering responses related to detailed tense usages (No.7) also reflect students’ need for explanations not only of their errors but also of English writing. This further echoes some students’ request for indicating other incorrect sentence patterns and for providing more practices of highly related sentence patterns (No.6) before they started writing.

Table 16 not only shows students’ expectations of TRs but also suggests students’ needs for instructions before the writing process began. The findings shown in Table 16 are in high accordance with the information disclosed in Table 17 below, which lists other helps students hoped to have from teachers for their writing drafts. The alternatives to written TRs are collected from students’ responses to “(19b) *I hope the teacher could exert other ways to instruct us English writing, such as _____.*”¹²”

Apparently, 16 students suggested the teacher implements a pre-writing instruction: 9 students hoped that guidance was offered before they started their writing (No.1) and 7 students hoped to have a chance to read a model essay as reference (No.2). Besides, three

¹² Original: 我希望老師用其他方式來指導我們寫作。請『舉例』。

students declared their hope to know common problems students tend to have (No.3). Similarly, they also hoped the teacher could spare some time elucidating these errors. Listed as No.4, giving examples to guide students as for how to use tense properly also serves as an index that students in the first year of senior high school need an in-class grammar instruction before they started their English writing for the first time.

Table 17 *Other Methods Students Hoped to be Treated with in Their Writing*

No	Alternatives Suggested by Students	Amount
1	Offer guidance before having students start writing.	9
2	Give model essays for reference.	7
3	Elucidate common problems after students get their first writing.	3
4	Give some examples for tense usages.	2
5	Be tutored in the middle of the writing and revising process.	2
6	Offer sufficient time to write.	2
7	Have brainstorming before writing.	1
8	Write with comic strip.	1
9	Give oral response.	1

Some students hoped to have a tutorial instruction for guidance (No.5), to be given an oral response for more interactive and immediate reactions (No.9), and surely, to have a brainstorming in which they could grasp some ideas about how to write (No.7). Finally, because of being new to English writing, students' request for more time to write their essay (No.6) is also in expectation.

Summarizing this subsection, we find that students' poor performance in the new essay may result from the lack of instruction during this writing cycle. In general, many students were earnest in this writing activity; they also tried their best to understand the TRs they received. They expected to learn something from this writing experience. However, while they found the teacher merely offered written responses without further explanations and instructions, they showed their disappointment, which may also be a factor contributing to

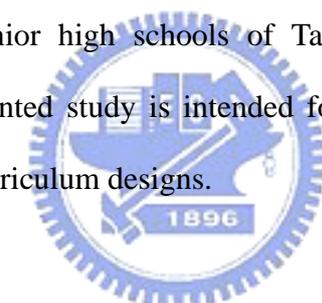
their poor performance in the new essay. In other words, while students are not well equipped with sufficient writing skills from teacher’s instruction, steady performance that shows their competence—in this case, in writing essays—may not to be expected.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The quantitative findings in the present study were based on the analysis of students' performances over three drafts of two essays. The qualitative information, on the other hand, was gathered from the 40 participants' protocols, questionnaires and interviews. In the following, findings are summarized, highlighting answers to the research questions. The more significant findings are presented prior to less significant ones which are followed by extended discussions. The discussion is hoped to elicit viable pedagogical implications for EFL writing curriculum in senior high schools of Taiwan. Finally, the analysis of the limitation in this pedagogy-oriented study is intended for providing useful suggestions for future L2 writing studies and curriculum designs.



Summary of the Findings

In terms of participants' short-term performance, both groups have shown enhancement in tense error reduction and the use of thesis statement. Students' error ratios in tense usage diminished in the revised drafts; students who were treated with direct correction outperformed those treated with questions as TR. Furthermore, while only one student in the question-based group added his thesis statement in his revision, all students in the direct-correction group wrote their thesis statement in the revision. Thus, the immediate effects on students' revision in the direct-correction group answer the first research question, "*Do different types of TR make differences in student's revision?*" As a whole, direct correction shows more instant influence on students' revision than asking questions as TR.

Nevertheless, the interview with almost 14 students in the question-based group during

the whole study reveals that students receiving this type of TR showed more autonomy and interaction with the TR; they may choose not to follow the teacher's question, or they may respond to the question by marking something in their revised drafts—they tried to tell the teacher that their thesis statement was not missing. The interactive nature of the question-based TR, though generating a lower ratio of error correction and fewer drafts with a thesis statement in the revision than direct correction, did give rise to more thinking about the meaning of the question provided in TR. On the contrary, students whose essays were directly corrected all accepted the teacher's red marks; even though a couple of them objected to teacher's correction, they still revised on the basis of the teacher's direction. More obedience and less thinking were observed in the direct-correction group, which suggests the uncertain effect of the direct-correction TRs.

Therefore, we may conclude that question-based TR provides more interactive and consciousness-raising feedback to students while direct correction exerts immediate influence by providing correct answer to students' errors or problems. The obedience to the TR in the direct-correction group results in greater progress in the revision in terms of tense error reduction and the use of thesis statement.

In view of the effect of grammar-focused TR, students in both group all performed well, suggesting that teacher response itself must have taken effect in some way, though the decrease in error ratio in the revision in the question-based group is lower than that of the direct-correction group. This positively answers the research question "*Does grammar-focused TR help reduce students' grammatical errors in revision?*"

On the other hand, with respect to content-based TR, although only one student in the question-based group added an appropriate thesis statement in the revision, his response in the interview reveals the impact of the question, "*Where is your thesis statement?*" His meditation on this question later reminded himself of placing a thesis statement in the beginning of his new essay. In the case of this student, the content-focused TR in the form of

a question actually stimulated this student's thinking process, which raised his consciousness of the need of a thesis statement in an essay. Therefore, despite the poverty of quantitative significance in the effect of content-focused TR on the revision or the new essay, qualitative analysis reflects a more sophisticated answer to the research question, "*Does content-focused TR lead to students' writing progress?*"

However, in terms of carry-over impact, the effectiveness of the grammar-focused and content-focused TRs in the revision, overtly, did not carry over to the new essay, which answers the research question, "*Does the effect of TR on students' revision sustain*" with a negation.

As a matter of fact, little research has provided direct and absolute evidence of sustainable effect of the teacher feedback (Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984). In addition, as discussed in the chapter two, the positive findings from previous research were concerned with the effects of content-focused TR (e.g., Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991; Russikoff & Kogan, 1996; Semke, 1984). In other words, little research has reported the carry-over effect of the grammar-focused TR. Since this study has reported that the carry-over effect of the TR failed to sustain in the new essay, possible reasons for this result are thus scrutinized in the following.

Generally, it can be expounded from three perspectives: students' attitude, students' language proficiency, and time limitation. Students' attitude includes their expectation for TR, their perception of the writing process and their motivation to write in English. Students' language proficiency is involved because it partly determines students' mastery of tense and their stance towards English writing convention. Finally, as time limitation hinders most students from thinking more thoroughly, students' carelessness and Chinglish in their drafts turned to be understandable. The following are the above three aspects which are discussed in detail so as to explain students' failure to apply what they learned from TRs to the new essay.

Students' Attitude

As found in the previous chapter, most students took their first time of English writing seriously. They also showed their obedience to TR, particularly when facing teacher's direct correction. Therefore, their attitude toward TR is undoubtedly friendly and compliant. However, from students' expectations for TR and alternative methods to writing instruction, there seems to be no common ground regarding TR shared by the students and the teacher. That is, students expected different TRs from what the teacher had offered. Though students had reflected they knew what the teacher would like to focus on via TR, they still hoped to obtain other types of TR, such as responses accompanied with more detailed accounts or holistic comments. Some of them even hoped to have a face-to-face meeting, tutored by the teacher so that they could realize why they misused tenses in some more complicated contexts.

In addition, most students at this level were unable to use a thesis statement properly. This also reflects students' different attitude from the teacher's toward how to write an essay. Most students in the first year of the senior high school could not understand why they had to supply a thesis statement in the initiative part of an English essay. Some of them even argued that students at this level should "be encouraged to create" their own writing rather than "be forced to follow" the convention of essay writing. This is indeed a gap between L2 novice writers and L2 writing teachers.

The students' unawareness of conventional rules was also reflected in their carelessness in writing process. Apparently, most students did not regard this writing cycle as a formal practice of academic writing but creative writing. In the cases of many students' first essays, they referred to a day of bad weather as their gloomy moods or state of minds. It is clear that many students tried to express their feelings instead of describing what happened in a raining day. While the sentimental facets are highly focused, it is really hard for a novice writer to lay equal emphasis on the rule-governed aspects such as grammar checking and the use of a

thesis statement.

This also elicits another interesting issue which can determine the quality of a writing draft—motivation. With lower motivation to get a full score, which is always decided on the basis of the number of grammatical errors in a test, participants in this study turned to view this writing experience as a practice of creative writing. This also explains why some students expected to receive comments regarding how to improve their writing skills. They hoped to learn how to express themselves in English instead of learning how to correct grammar as they are always treated with¹³, since the requirement of grammatical accuracy has been highlighted in the regular English class.

Students' Language Proficiency

According to the theory of SLA (Second Language Acquisition), students may show different language proficiencies at different phases; namely, their language proficiency is not always so fixed. The participants in this study also showed their unsteady ability to master the usage of tense, especially when they had just learned the tense usages several months before this research was conducted. With insufficient reading input and restricted practices of tense, students were found to perform inconsistently with regard to tense usage over the three drafts.

What is more, their shortage of input in English also impeded them from grasping the core of writing conventions of the target language. For students at a lower level, they are still struggling for language differences between L1 and L2. Expressing themselves in L2 has been a challenging task for them, not to mention the requirement of a formal writing format. In consequence, a novice writer is actually less likely to narrate an error-free essay with a clear and proper thesis statement in the beginning of his/her writing career.

¹³ The participants in this senior high school are used to practicing Chinese-to-English translation after a lesson is finished. Their English teacher would ask them to correct their grammatical errors by themselves. After that, their translation practices are always double-checked by the teacher again.

Time Limitation

Since students at the lower language level are mostly unable to make error-free sentences in that language, they definitely have trouble writing an essay within a limited time span. To survive from this time limitation, many students turned to scratch their article in Chinglish. To complete their revision in time, students in the direct-correction group copied the teacher's direction and on the other hand, students in the question-based group would ignore the question if it was too hard to answer. To finish the third essay in a 50-minute class, students wrote their passage in the way they did in Chinese writing, completely forgetting what they might have learned from TR. Indeed, under such time restriction, it rarely occurred to these novice writers that they should recall what they just learned from the TR and apply it.

Time limitation also explains students' carelessness across the three drafts and some students' unwillingness to compose the new essay better than the first one. The pressure from limited time may result in students' unconsciousness of their grammatical errors and their inability to think about how to generate a proper thesis statement for their essay. As listed in the retrospective protocols, time constraint led students make tiny mistakes which they could have eschewed and made many of them tend to write their new essay with a more reckless attitude. Their willingness to perform well in the two previous drafts seemed to disappear in the new essay.

Interestingly, students' positive attitudes in the questionnaire seem contradictory to the aforementioned. While most students self-evaluated their attitudes towards this writing cycle and even acclaimed that they had learned something and even made some progress because of the TR they received, what they actually did during the three drafts, by contrast, resulted in non-significant findings in this study. Silva (1993) has mentioned that L2 students showed less reviewing involvement, less rereading and less reflecting on written texts. Perhaps the results of this study can be explained from this perspective: students in this study did not involve themselves very much in reviewing and rereading their drafts and did not actually

reflect on their attitudes towards real writing and revising processes when filling out the questionnaire.

Finally, the study span also plays an important role in this investigation since this research intended to examine students' writing performances between drafts. Students' improvement may hardly be evident during this study span of less than two months. Moreover, participants were just treated with TR "one time" and they were never informed of the exact reason why they had to write English essays in the middle of the semester. In other words, the possible effect of the TR may be eliminated or reduced as a result of time limitation.

To sum up, perhaps the key to facilitating students' L2 writing is what Zamel (1985) has indicated: students must be provided the time and the opportunity to incorporate TR into revision and to apply TR across writing assignments. While students, novice writers in particular, are under constraint to do something new to them, they are unready to act in expectation.



Pedagogical Implications

As this research is pedagogy-oriented, implications from this study are discussed in this subsection. First of all, there is no denying that students at the lower level need a suitable revising setting to incorporate TR into the revised draft. Time restriction has been a great obstacle for students in this study; many students felt anxious and then turned to be careless during their writing process. Besides, the pressure from time limitation further aggravated students' less capability of revising in an "intuitive manner," i.e., revising on the basis of what "sounds" good (see Silva, 1993, p. 662). As a result, many students in the direct-correction group only copied the answers given by the teacher instead of further pondering on the problematic parts and making their passage more effective and natural. Likewise, in the question-based group, though answering the question as TR correctly, many

of the students still failed to understand the real reason why the teacher asked such a question. Consequently, it is improbable that students could “revise by ear” (Silva, 1993, p. 662) and revise in an intuitive way that native speakers always do as they are revising.

Secondly, TR is apparently indispensable for novice writers to revise their drafts. The participants in this study, in some way, indicated the need for more detailed TRs. When they were revising their first draft, they were inevitably depending upon the TR they received because they had no other resources to query. In this regard, the TR with the instructional nature is suggested. In other words, when oral instruction is unavailable, the key to success in facilitating students’ writing consists in whether the TR contains instructional messages. TR with detailed explanation, for instance, brings about more instructions for students. As face-to-face meetings are difficult for a 40-student class, the written TR with clear and informative instructions must help students with the problems or errors in their drafts. Therefore, no matter how tight the schedule is, senior high school writing teachers still need to provide appropriate TR which could help students know where they may err and make them revise their drafts appropriately.

From this perspective, thirdly, TR which is embedded with an instructional message clearly pinpointing student’s problem in writing should be better than direct correction. In consequence, the value of the question-based TR adopted in this study turns to be more prominent since it implies the instructional potential, compared with the direct correction which may still confuse students who did not know why their sentence was corrected in the way it received. Asking questions can elicit students to think. As mentioned in the chapter four, question-based TR actually aroused many students’ awareness of their errors and problems. If this type of TR could be further amended to have more instructions such as explanation and clarification, this question-based TR must be able to facilitate more students’ writing ability.

What is more, thanks to the interactive nature of the question-based TR, students are

more likely to argue for themselves, whereas direct correction seems more authoritative for students because the standard answer has been directly given. This interactive nature also contributes to a closer relationship between students and the teacher; students felt more relaxed with the TR in the form of a question than those who received direct correction.

Fourthly, according to the participants' questionnaire, curriculum design should conform to their needs. For students at the lower level, the pre-class activity must be well-organized in advance. Take brainstorming for example; by mutually sharing and discussing the possible direction and the content of the essay, novice writers could organize their ideas easily. Furthermore, brainstorming also helps elicit a thesis statement for an essay because via this activity, the teacher can facilitate students in constructing their article with a main idea followed by many supporting ideas.

In addition to prerequisite activity such as brainstorming, many students also responded that they expected a sample writing as a reference before they started their first draft. Offering sample passages is a common technique in the writing class, especially when students are new to writing a certain genre. The reason why the teacher in this research did not provide any writing sample is that students may turn out to be limited to the writing style of that passage. However, as mentioned earlier, the sample writing can be a passage which shows students what grammatical item is focused and where the thesis statement should be placed in the essay. Accordingly, students are more likely to know what they should attend to in this phase of the writing process. In reality, a sample passage can also serve as a kind of post-writing activity. Since a well-organized passage with a thesis statement in the beginning can be demonstrated and expounded by the teacher, a passage with common errors that most students make frequently could be also openly discussed after writing. These are of great help for novice writers to improve their writing.

The last but not least implication is the role of a writing teacher in the English class of the senior high school. The teacher in this research is actually the English teacher of the

participants. Therefore, the essays adopted in this study were all written in the English class. More specifically, there is no extra writing class for these participants. Without formal writing instruction, the participants wrote their essays mainly with the impression on English writing mentioned by their English teacher in class. As many students confessed that they wrote with intuition, it turns to be understandable that the results in this study did not turn out as expected.

As a result, how to incorporate writing instruction into a general English class and how to help students raise their consciousness of their errors effectively are two crucial issues for high school English teacher to contemplate. This is also highly related to another more complex issue: whether it is necessary for students at a lower level to take English writing class.

The necessity of offering an English writing course to first-year high school students requires a more comprehensive investigation and discussion. For example, the motivation of students in the first grade may be relatively lower than that of students in the final year of the senior high. However, in an EFL environment, high school students in Taiwan have few chances to write in English. Most of them do not start to practice English writing until they need to write an English essay on the exam. The test-oriented learning strategy of Taiwanese students has troubled many English teachers in Taiwan, which further influences the effects of writing instruction.

Moreover, students' learning effect of the English writing may be also discounted due to the heavy pressure from their everyday bombardment of exams on other subjects. Many high school students in the final year have English writing class but oftentimes it is used for other purpose such as quizzing or reviewing. Since writing requires a long span of time conceiving and composing, it might be better if writing learners are supplied with a proper writing setting, as pointed out in the beginning of this subsection.

English writing instruction, therefore, is suggested to start earlier than the third year of

the senior high school. With or without a formal writing class allotted, English teachers in senior high should take double roles, trying different teaching strategies to incorporate writing concepts into general English courses. Only when students are reminded again and again in class and during many times of writing practices are they probably more aware of some required writing conventions or basic writing principles.

Limitations of the Study

The present study was mainly limited to time factors: the tight schedule of the students and the short span of the research. The findings have shown that time constraint in writing and revision made some students unable to correct their errors in time. Actually, with very tight schedule, these students had been forced to squeeze their time to complete the three writing drafts. Their uneasiness and discomfort thus influenced their writing performances. As indicated, writing is a process; a more comfortable setting must be favorable for writing in a foreign language than tight and stressful surroundings. In addition, the short research span also limits the results of this study. The immediate effect of the TR can be accessed by means of examining students' revisions but the carry-over influences of the TR should be obtained and analyzed from more subsequent writing drafts. Then, the carry-over effect of the TR can be scrutinized in depth from a longitudinal perspective. Since this study was conducted in the middle of a semester, it is difficult to collect data especially when students' schedule is too tight to spare more time for this research. Nevertheless, this study has tried to present the reality of high school students' L2 writing situations, hoping to shed light on TR used in a senior high school setting from a more qualitative perspective.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future studies are suggested to extend the research duration so that more writing drafts and revisions can be carried out. Therefore, students' between-draft performances and the

longitudinal influences of the TR can be more thoroughly examined.

Besides, more investigations on students at a lower level are suggested. The qualitative analysis of this group of students' cognitive activities and perception of the TR during the writing and revising process helps shed light on how TR possibly affects students' texts and facilitates their writing proficiency.

Furthermore, the role of the TR in students' writing should be ascertained through further exploration. The effectiveness of different types of TR with different focuses would grow more and more transparent only when more factors contributing to the effectiveness of TR are examined and discussed in depth. Once more contributive factors can be controlled, then, the role of the TR in a writing curriculum could be clarified.

Finally, question-based TR could be explored in the future. As mentioned, this type of TR helps elicit more thinking and raise more awareness of errors. Future research could focus on how to make the question as TR lucid enough to arouse students' thinking over the rationale underlying the question itself. Then, whether TR with more instructional messages has more influential impact on students' writing performance can be further confirmed.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Teacher Responses for Question-based Group	
Content	1. Where is your thesis statement? 2. Do you think your thesis statement is clear enough?
Grammar	前提： 1. 倘若前後文語境無法明確分辨時態，會先問學生『這裡描述的事件/動作是發生在何時？那麼，該如何表達該時態？』 2. 倘若語境清楚可分辨時態，則視情況採用下列問題提問。
Present tense	1. 事件/動作發生在現在，應該如何表示？(He <u>smiles</u> .) 2. 正在發生的事/動作，應該如何表示？(He <u>is smiling</u> .) 3. 對於現在還尚未發生的事/動作，該如何做假設使之成立？(If it <u>rains</u> ,) 4. 與現在事實相反，主要子句中該如何表達可能發生的事/動作？(would/could/should/might + 原型動詞) 5. 表示恆常事實，該如何表示時態？ 6. 表示習慣性的經驗，該如何表示？
Past tense	7. 事件/動作發生在過去，應該如何表示？(He <u>cried</u> .) 8. 與現在事實相反，該怎麼做假設？(If he <u>did not cry</u> ,) 9. 若許的願望是與現在事實不合/相反，該如何表達？(I wish I <u>were</u> a bird.) 10. 對過去肯定之推論，該如何表達？
Future tense	11. 事件/動作發生在未來，應該如何表示？(He <u>will</u> come back.) 12. 永遠不可能發生的事，該如何做假設？(If the sun <u>were to rise</u> ,)
Present perfect	13. 從過去到說話時間為止都持續發生的事/動作，該如何表示？(He <u>has worked</u> hard since then.) 14. have/has後應該用哪一個動詞三態？(They have <u>chatted</u> for long.) 15. 過去該做但實際沒做，應該如何表達？(should/would/could/might have p.p.)
Past perfect	16. 站在過去時間點A上，去看更早之前發生的B時間點上所發生的事，應該用怎樣的時態表達B時所發生的事件/動作？(He <u>knew</u> she <u>had learned</u> music for long.) 17. 與過去事實相反，該怎麼做假設？(If I <u>had worked</u> on my job at that time, ...) 18. 與過去事實相反，該如何許願？(I wish I <u>had worked</u> hard last night.)
Verb in the wrong form	19. (某動詞)在(e.g., have been)之後該以怎樣的動詞型態出現？(have been <u>study</u> → studying) 20. 助動詞之後應該用怎樣形式的動詞型態？(原型動詞)

Appendix B

Retrospective Protocol

Class: _____ No. _____ Name: _____

Part A: 請同學們仔細回憶『當初為何用這個時態』寫這個句子 (Why did you write it with this tense?) ; 並寫出對『老師的回應』的想法(How and what do you think about the teacher's response?)。

有問題的原始句子	當初為何寫出這樣的句子?(如:為何用這個時態?)	看到老師的 feedback 時,想到什麼?有什麼感覺?
		

Part B: 請同學們回憶你『如何構思』這篇文章(How did you organize your essay?)。與是否有依照某種邏輯來思考怎麼寫這篇作文(Did you follow an organizational pattern?)。

Question 1: 原始文中是否有『主旨句』(thesis statement)?

Answer 1: Yes / No / Unknown (請打圈)

→ 回答Yes 者，請回答下列問題：

Question 2: 你是否根據『主旨句』行文? Yes / No (請打圈)

Question 3: 請寫出你的『主旨句』: _____

Question 4: 請寫出你如何依據『主旨句』，寫出該篇文章的具體細節。

→ 回答No/ Unknown 者，請回答下列問題：

Question 4: 請寫出你如何架構全文的具體細節。



Part C: 對於這次的寫作經驗是否有其他想法或任何建議?(Any ideas or comments?)

以上皆為學術研究之用，有任何公開之書面資料也將以匿名方式呈現，請各位同學放心。謝謝您的合作。

Appendix C

Questionnaire

請各位同學依這段時間內的寫作經驗回答下列問題，並依您個人的同意程度劃記。 班級：_____ 座號：_____ 姓名：_____

說明：第一次寫作經驗為同學所寫的第一篇英文作文(*A Day of Bad Weather*)。
第二次寫作經驗為同學根據第一篇英文作文所做的修改版(revision)。
第三次寫作經驗為同學重新寫的另一篇英文作文(*An Experience that Affects Me a Lot*)。

- | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------|-------|--------|----------|
| 1. 整體而言，我在這三次的寫作經驗中學到一些寫作的概念。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| 2. 我會試圖把過去學過的寫作概念用在自己的英文作文上。 | | | | |
| (a)先前中文寫作的概念 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (b)先前英文寫作的概念 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (c)先前英文課時老師講過的概念 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (d)此次作文經驗所學到的概念 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (e)老師在第一次英作中所給的回應 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (f)上述(a)至(e)中，比重由高至低依序為？ | | | | |
| 3. (a)我會想把前兩次寫作經驗學到觀念運用在新的文章中。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| (b)請『舉例有哪些』觀念？ | | | | |
| 4. 第一次寫作時，我很努力想把文章寫好。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| 5. 第二次寫作時，我認真地看待老師給的回應。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| 6. 第三次寫作時，我希望可以把文章寫得比前兩次好。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |
| 7. 整體而言，我對這三次的寫作態度是_____的。 | | | | |
| 8. 老師的回應使我在如何組織文章上變得更有概念。 | (A)非常同意 | (B)同意 | (C)不同意 | (D)非常不同意 |

9. 老師的回應讓我在寫作時對時態更有概念。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
10. 到了第二次寫作時，
 (a)我覺得自己對英文時態運用比較有概念。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
 (b)我覺得自己對英文文章組織比較有概念。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
11. 到了第三次寫作時，
 (a)我覺得自己對英文時態運用更有概念了。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
 (b)我覺得自己對英文文章組織更有概念了。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
12. 從這三次的寫作經驗中，
 (a)我覺得自己的英文作文能力有進步。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
 (b)請『舉例在哪方面』的能力有進步。
 (c)請『實際說明為何』會覺得自己這些方面的能力進步了。
13. 我看不懂老師在我的英作中所做的回應。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
14. 在這三次的寫作經驗中，
 (a)我覺得老師應該在我的英作中做_____的回應。
 (b)為什麼？
15. 我覺得老師在我的英作中所做的回應有助於我之後的英文寫作。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
16. 我覺得老師在我的英作中所做的回應是清楚易懂且一致的。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
17. 老師在我的英作中所做的回應幫助我去思考我的問題。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
18. 在這三次寫作中，我喜歡這種方式的回應。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
19. (a)我希望老師用其他方式來指導我們寫作。 (A)非常同意 (B)同意 (C)不同意 (D)非常不同意
 (b)請『舉例』。



以上皆為學術研究之用，有任何公開之書面資料也將以匿名方式呈現，請各位同學放心。 謝謝您的合作。

Appendix D

Students' Error Profile

Question-based Group

1	No error	1. ...I <u>study</u> (started) hard. 2. Finally I <u>realize</u> (realized) my dream. 3. ... when the semester <u>starts</u> (started), the scenery goes (went) into my eyes <u>is</u> (was) just only men. 4. After a few days, I <u>change</u> (changed) my mind.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「因為沒有 TR，感到很疑惑，好像沒有什麼錯，但似乎又不大對勁。文法有錯嗎？用字有錯嗎？語意有錯嗎？不知道...」 ● no error
2	No error	1. If I wasn't taken to the hospital..., I <u>may died</u> (might have died) at that time directly. 2. I become more careful when I <u>was</u> (am) in the bathroom... 3. ...just like in the area which <u>was</u> (is) filled with landmines.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「沒什麼想法」 ● no error
3	1. But I think that affect us the most in common <u>was</u> A Day of Bad Weather. 2. ... when I finished my homework and <u>be going to play tennis</u> , suddenly, it <u>rains</u> . 3. it <u>must make</u> me feel disappointed.	1. ...what has been affecting us the most in common <u>is</u> a day of bad weather. (o) 2. For example, when I finished my homework and <u>went</u> to exercise. Suddenly, it <u>rain</u> (rained). (o) (x) 3. It <u>must have made</u> me feel disappointed. (o) 4. ...I know many music celebrities in the world and what they <u>done</u> (have done).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「這是啥？文法好討厭！記得老師好像教過...」(1：第一印象就寫下來了) ● 「好像知道要怎麼寫了」(2：用第一印象寫) ● 「恩...在文法書上讀過」(3：那時尚未學到助動詞的用法，所以就照中文的概念寫)
4	1. No TS 2. I <u>don't</u> know who is the girl. 3. When I <u>finish</u> reading the letter... 4. ...I <u>can't</u> feel anything. 5. I <u>want</u> to cry but I <u>can't</u> make any noise. 6. He <u>ask</u> me what <u>happened</u> . 7. I <u>am</u> just smile.	1. No TS (x) 2. I <u>didn't</u> know who the girl is. (o) 3. When I <u>finished</u> the letter... (o) 4. ...I <u>couldn't</u> feel anything... (o) 5. I <u>wanted</u> to cry but I <u>couldn't</u> make any noise. (o) (o) 6. He <u>asked</u> what <u>happened</u> (had happened) to me. (o) (x) 7. I <u>was</u> just smiling. (o) 8. ... we <u>take</u> (took) care of him and <u>try</u> (tried) our best to help him. 9. Finally, we <u>can't</u> (couldn't) cure him.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS：剛好看了一部小說，書中悲傷的情節有如陰天或雨天。 ● 「恩！應該更細心」(2：沒注意到) ● 「好想哭~」(3：沒注意到) ● 「快哭了！」(4：忘了助動詞也應該配合時態) ● 「應該把自己當作在那個時候來寫這個句子才對」(5：沒注意

			<p>到時態)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「我寫太快了」(6：粗心) ● 「嗚嗚，好多錯！」(7：當時直覺就寫成這樣)
5	1. No TS	<p>1. TS: Rain, however, is normally regarded as an omen of bad luck. It is related to your mind, feelings, and influence of lie, such as traffic jam, drowned rat, to mane just a few. (o)</p> <p>2. I <u>regret</u> (regretted) for what I <u>did</u> (had done) in the junior high school.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS: 「我覺得我有根據主旨句行文阿！可能這樣的寫法不符合學測要求，但我現階段會覺得情感表達應重於事實的敘述，這樣較能顯現個人獨特的見解。」 ● No error
6	<p>1. Even though the adversities <u>had perplex</u> us, we can...</p> <p>2. After we <u>overcame</u> it, we will never...</p>	<p>1. Even though the adversities <u>have been perplexing</u> us, we can ... (o)</p> <p>2. After we <u>overcome</u> it, we will never... (o)</p> <p>3. Studying in Hsinchu senior high school, I <u>can met</u> (have met) so many new friends. (x)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「我想到混亂(perplex)是一直發生在我們身上，所以要用持續來表示」(1：對於某些句子的時態我當時不是很清楚。) ● 「世...我找不出錯耶！」(2：無法辨別句子中所描述的時態)
7	<p>1. But I <u>don't</u> know when I <u>will</u> do that.</p> <p>2. At that time, if I <u>were</u> sad, I <u>might</u> <u>suicide</u>.</p> <p>3. But that <u>do happen</u> in the future.</p>	<p>1. But I <u>didn't</u> know when I <u>will</u> (would) do that. (o) (x)</p> <p>2. At that time, if I <u>were</u> (had been) sad, I <u>might have committed</u> <u>suicide</u>. (x) (o)</p> <p>3. But that <u>will happen</u> in the future. (o)</p> <p>4. ... she <u>doesn't</u> (didn't) do anything to me.</p> <p>5. I <u>don't</u> (didn't) know what she <u>is</u> (was) thinking.</p> <p>6. She <u>doesn't</u> (didn't) tell me what I should do.</p> <p>7. I <u>want</u> (wanted) her to tell me the truth no matter the result <u>is</u> (was).</p> <p>8. I thought I <u>will</u> (could) take it.</p> <p>9. Now.... I <u>felt</u> (feel) sorry to her.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「阿！時態用錯了。」(1.2.3：我把當下的自己融入當時，所以覺得應該用現在式)
8	1. The bad weather <u>will affect</u> my mood, but other people may think it is terrific.	<p>1. The bad weather always <u>affect</u> (affects) my mood, but other people may think it is terrific. (o)</p> <p>2. No TS</p> <p>3. ... our homeroom teacher took us to a special place where some people <u>is</u> (were) taking care of "vegetables."</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「恩，對習慣性的經驗的用法需多注意」(1：一時想不出來該如何用)

		4. There, we saw many people who can't live by themselves. But they still <u>face</u> (faced) the reality hopefully!	
9	1. A day of bad weather... but also <u>can</u> <u>means</u> a sunny or windy day. 2. Somebody <u>may thought</u> that the sunny day is great for him...	1. A day of bad weather... but also <u>can be</u> a sunny or windy day. (o) 2. Somebody <u>may think</u> that the sunny day is great for him... (o)	● 「阿！對吼！」(1.2：直覺反應之下寫出來的)
		3. It can date back to 1999 when there <u>is</u> (was) a much more important experience that affects me a lot. 4. ... a big earthquake <u>strike</u> (stroke) me! 5. What a big earthquake it <u>is</u> (was)! 6. It <u>shake</u> (shook) me down from my bed... 7. ...I had found there <u>is</u> (was) a power cut so... 8. And the battery put in my room <u>are</u> (were) all useless. 9. ... till my Mom and Dad came to find me with a candle and <u>bring</u> (brought) me out of the house. 10. Having forgot how long it <u>have past</u> (had passed), I <u>keep</u> (kept) my room bright...	
10	1. When the computer class' ring <u>rings</u> , it <u>means</u> my nightmare <u>has came</u> , but when I saw the questions it seemed not so difficult for me. 2. Then I passed the exam, so the most important thing for me <u>is</u> how to pass the English test... 3. ... even though I <u>have studied</u> it very hard.	1. When the computer class' ring <u>rang</u> , it <u>means</u> (meant) my nightmare <u>is</u> (was) coming, but when I saw the questions it seemed not so difficult for me. (o) (x) (x) 2. Then I passed the exam, so the most important thing for me later <u>was</u> how to pass the English test... (o) 3. ...even though I <u>studied</u> (had studied) it very hard. (x)	● 「該注意時態的！」(1：一時腦袋不清楚誤判) ● 「原來如此」(2：我只想表達如何通過考試，沒想過要用 is 還是 was) ● 「這句話有點難改耶」(3：表示考試那天的前一天有認真準備，所以用了過去式)
		4. No TS 5. ... but he couldn't swim, neither <u>does</u> (did) I. 6. Finally the helper came and <u>rescue</u> (rescued) my brother. 7. Since that my brother and I <u>had make</u> (have made) up our mind to learn how to swim. 8. Because of this experience, it <u>had made</u> (has made) me get a lot of metals in many swimming competitions.	
11	1. My friends and I <u>have been prepared</u> for	1. My friends and I <u>had prepared</u> for this trip for months. (o)	● 「平時沒讀文法，考試只憑語感

	<p>this camping trip for months.</p> <p>2. It was still sunny when we <u>start</u> our journey.</p> <p>3. As we arrived the place, we're all shocked.</p> <p>4. We <u>hide</u> in the tent and nothing we <u>can</u> do. But luckily, one of my friend brought cards with him so that we <u>can</u> play during in the tent.</p>	<p>2. It was still sunny when we <u>started</u> our journey. (o)</p> <p>3. As we arrived at the place, we <u>were</u> all shocked. (o)</p> <p>4. We <u>hid</u> in the tent and nothing we <u>can</u> (could) do. But luckily, one of my friend bought cards with him so that we <u>could</u> play during in the tent. (o) (x) (o)</p>	<p>作答，遇到較複雜之文法就會忘記如何運用正確的句子」(1：當時只想到用完成式表達，沒想到還要用『過去』完成式)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「果然寫作不能趕」(2.3.4：趕時間就忘了時態變化)
		<p>5. It <u>was</u> (is) the boldest thing that I've ever done.</p> <p>6. I was about 10 and I <u>have</u> (had) a relative...</p> <p>7. But the question <u>is</u> (was) that my parents <u>have</u> (had) work to do...</p> <p>8. Therefore, I <u>can</u> (could) only try to get to America by myself.</p> <p>9. ... when I carried a large package and <u>get</u> (got) through the customs, I saw...</p> <p>10. Everything <u>seems</u> (seemed) so unfamiliar that I <u>fall</u> (fell) in a sense of scare.</p> <p>11. Fortunately, the flight attendants <u>can</u> (could) speak Chinese, so I <u>can</u> (could) ask her for whatever I <u>need</u> (needed).</p>	
12	<p>1. No TS</p> <p>2. I <u>think</u> bad weather isn't bad after that event.</p>	<p>1. No TS (x)</p> <p>2. I <u>thought</u> the rainy day is not very bad. (o)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS：憑感覺寫，把中文用淺顯的英文翻出來 ● 「唉！粗心」(1：剛好想到要寫這句話，沒注意到時態)
		<p>3. No TS</p>	
13	<p>1. No TS</p> <p>2. I <u>have woke</u> up at 6:20 a.m.,</p> <p>3. Since I <u>attend</u> the band of pickets...</p>	<p>1. No TS (x)</p> <p>2. I <u>have woken</u> up at 6:20 a.m. (o)</p> <p>3. Since I <u>join</u> (joined) in the club of pickets.... (x)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS：這是敘述文，就用敘述的方式寫 ● 「我猜錯了 wake 的過去式分詞，應該是 waken 不是 woke」(2：突然忘了 wake 的過去分詞) ● 「attend 或許可以改成 join in」(3：參加這個字一時想不到，也不知道怎麼表示，就亂寫上去)
		<p>4. I just knew we <u>have</u> (had) to join the clubs...</p> <p>5. I had <u>thinked</u> (thought) about what club I would like.</p> <p>6. ... I should not sign my name without understanding what data <u>is</u> (was) about.</p>	
14	<p>1. No TS</p>	<p>1. No TS (x)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS：故事體裁該怎麼寫主旨句

	2. Tomy <u>think</u> “Today is my day though it is a day of bad weather!”	2. Tomy <u>thought</u> “that day is my day though it is a day of bad weather!” (o)	● 「對吼！時態用錯了，有恍然大悟的感覺」(2：忘記故事要用過去式)
		3. No TS	
15	1. So I decided to play my computer, but it <u>can't</u> work. 2. I couldn't do anything that I <u>want</u> .	1. ..., but it <u>couldn't</u> work. (o) 2. I couldn't do anything that I <u>want</u> (wanted). (x)	● 「寫的時候應該多思考才對！」(1：念起來很順沒想太多就寫了) ● 「仔細看過之後，我原先想表達的有些錯誤」(2：我當時只想強調這句話)
		No error	
16	1. No TS 2. Then, I <u>had turn</u> back to the foot of mountain.	1. No TS (x) 2. Then, we <u>turned</u> back to the foot of the mountain quickly. (o)	● TS：先想個輪廓，再決定地點，然後創造角色，選定天氣及心情，最後又引用玩樂高的經驗開始交叉組合上述條件。 ● 「恩...我不大瞭解」(2：想表達當時『已』下山，所以用過去完成式)
		3. No TS 4. When I was..., my father <u>give</u> (gave) me a gift... 5. The gift <u>is</u> (was) very large and mysterious. 6. I <u>think</u> (thought) that it might be a boy of toy like... 7. I couldn't believe it because I <u>love</u> (loved) robots, not bricks. 8. So I thank my father a lot because he <u>change</u> (changed) the gift from robots to LEGO.	
17	1. No TS 2. Because it's raining, Dad and I <u>can't</u> go fishing.	1. TS: I hope it is always good weather. (x) 2. Because it <u>was</u> raining, Dad and I <u>can have been gone</u> (couldn't go) fishing. (o)(x)	● TS：依照過去十六年中文作文的經驗加以英文翻譯。 ● 「我錯了」(2：因為那時還沒學助動詞那章，所以就依照中文翻譯，沒想到時態會出問題)
		3. No TS 4. We <u>are</u> (were) talking happily. 5. Other people <u>help</u> (helped) the patients. 6. And the ambulance <u>is</u> (was) coming. 7. I <u>learn</u> (learned) how to help people when they hurt.	
18	1. The ground <u>became</u> wet after raining.	1. The ground <u>becomes</u> wet after raining. (o)	● 「恩，這裡應該用現在簡單式才對，因為雨後，地板總是濕的」(1：當初只覺得雨是在『過去』下的，所以地板也在『過去』濕的)
		2. The girl who I <u>love</u> (loved) <u>betray</u> (betrayed) me. 3. She <u>is</u> (was) my girlfriend. 4. But in fact, she <u>is</u> (was) another boy's girlfriend. 5. It <u>includes</u> (included) sadness and disappointments.	
19	1. No TS	1. No TS (x)	● TS：我覺得我有依據主旨句行

	2. ...we <u>can</u> have heart-to-heart talk with my family members.	2. ...we <u>could</u> have heart-to-heart talk with my family members. (o)	文。第一段先鋪陳下雨哪裡都不能去，第二段在陳述可雨家人做的互動，最後再以 You can get along with your family more. 做為雨天時可與家人多相處的結論。 ● 「看太細了吧」(2：太粗心)
		3. No TS	
20	1. No TS	1. TS: It rained heavily in the morning, and I had to go to school. (x)	● TS：我僅將本人那天的經歷照實寫出，沒有加油添醋。
		No error	

Direct-correction Group

21		No error	自認為認為沒有 TS，僅把這次的寫作練習當作國文作文寫，然後再用淺顯易懂的句子翻譯而已。因為好句子用英文寫不大出來。
		No TS	
22		No error	這位同學是第一次寫作，自言很容易用中文來寫英文句子，因此覺得此篇作文結構很鬆散。
		1. I decided to join the guitar club which I <u>like</u> (liked) before.	
23	1. ... to prepare the things I <u>need</u> . 2. I couldn't <u>went</u> out to play...	1. ... to prepare the things I <u>needed</u> . (o) 2. I couldn't <u>go</u> out to play. (o)	這位同學用日記的方式撰寫，發現最大的問題點在於很難用漂亮的詞句表達。
		3. There <u>are</u> (were) so many things to be careful about that I couldn't convey my opinion very clearly.	
24		No error	這位同學用中式作文思考方式來撰寫，因此在開頭就先用很多問句接著引導出自己認定的定義，正規的英作模式直接破題不同。
		1. No TS 2. I used to be a person who <u>like</u> (liked) to know other's privacy. 3. What a pity! I <u>lost</u> (lose) a friend.	
25		No error	這次的作文經驗讓他體會到一定要多加練習與接觸，才能真正達到對英文學以致用的境界。
		1. No TS	
26		No error	● TS：我先點出我不喜歡雨天的主題，再舉實例一步步寫下去
		1. No TS 2. We all <u>have</u> (had) a hobby in common, basketball	

		<p>3. I always <u>gets</u> (got) up at 5:30 a.m., <u>rides</u> (rode) bike to school, and then <u>play</u> (played) basketball with them.</p> <p>4. ... because the time when I <u>play</u> (played) with them is an experience that affects me a lot..</p>	
27		No error	● TS：先寫出壞天氣像什麼，再寫它對我的優缺點。
		<p>1. No TS</p> <p>2. I thought it <u>is</u> (was) O.K. at that time.</p>	
28	<p>1. I <u>have ever went</u> to school when I met rain.</p> <p>2. I only <u>can</u> pay money to driver. I went to school met many car so I was late for school, then I went to classroom. I found that I <u>haven't do</u> the home work.</p>	<p>1. I once <u>went</u> to school when it was raining. (o)</p> <p>2. I only <u>could</u> pay money to driver. When I went to school, I met many cars so I was late for school. Then when I went to classroom I found that I <u>hadn't done</u> the homework. (o)(o)</p>	<p>● 「我可以說『有一次我做了什麼事』嗎？」(1：我想說明一個親身的『經驗』，於是就用完成式)</p> <p>● 「恩，下次要多注意一點時態」(2：我只想說明我沒有做功課)</p>
		<p>3. I <u>had take</u> (had taken) a part time job in the summer vacation.</p> <p>4. I <u>go</u> (went) to my mother's working firm, which <u>is</u> (was) a lunch box store.</p> <p>5. I <u>help</u> (helped) my mother deliver lunch box.</p> <p>6. It <u>is</u> (was) so tired that I didn't sleep well.</p>	
29		No error	● TS：下午第一節課寫作真的很容易集中精神好好寫。
		<p>1. ... but it deeply <u>affected</u> (affects) me in my life.</p> <p>2. Suddenly, a strange feeling <u>pass</u> (passed) from the floor and soon through my body.</p> <p>3. Then, the train <u>lash</u> (lashed) down in a hurry.</p> <p>4. I <u>can't</u> (couldn't) understand how he could have such...</p> <p>5. ... and why he <u>choose</u> (chose) such a terrible way to end his life.</p>	
30	<p>1. I think that people <u>will feel</u> bad because of they see the weather is dark...</p> <p>2. You <u>will see</u> that weather <u>is</u> dark in the morning.</p> <p>3. Then, you <u>walk</u> to school alone.</p> <p>4. On the way to school you <u>will see</u> people very strange.</p> <p>5. Because everyone <u>has</u> a pair of cold eyes. These cold eyes <u>will make</u> very sad and</p>	<p>1. I think that people <u>feel</u> sad because they see the weather is dark... (o)</p> <p>2. You <u>may have seen</u> that the weather <u>is</u> (was) dark in the morning. (o)(x)</p> <p>3. Then, you <u>walked</u> to school alone. (o)</p> <p>4. On the way to school you <u>saw</u> people wear a very strange face. (o)</p> <p>5. Because everyone <u>had</u> a pair of indifferent eyes, those indifferent eyes <u>made</u> you very sad and terrible. (o)(o)</p>	<p>● 「想知道為何被改」(1：我是站在現在看未來這個角度寫下這個句子的)</p> <p>● 「用過去式的話，一定會更好，更加將讀者帶入過去可能經歷的經驗中」(2：想把讀者帶入那個可能是未來又可能是過去的畫面，所以用了未來式)</p>

	terrible.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「原來是用這種方法阿！」(5：我找不到如何表達冷漠眼神的方法)
		6. Then, I didn't know what's (was) wrong. 7. And she <u>take</u> (took) me away from the room to another room.	
31	1. no TS 2. ...it <u>become</u> to rain. 3. Therefore, I <u>suggest</u> going to my home to play table tennis. 4. ...when I <u>remembered</u> the happening, I still laugh.	1. TS: A day of bad weather reminds me of one of my best friend who experienced something tragic in a rainy day. (o) 2. ...it <u>became</u> rainy. (o) 3. Therefore, I <u>suggested</u> going to my home to play table tennis. (o) 4. ...whenever I <u>remember</u> this event, I still laugh. (o)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「下次記得」(2：一時忘記)
		No error	
32	1. No TS 2. There <u>is</u> <u>become</u> summer slowly, and the weather becomes hot more than more. 3. In the afternoon, I <u>have eaten</u> my lunch. 4. The weather <u>is</u> so hot I <u>wouldn't like</u> to move my body. 5. Some thing <u>fly</u> around me. I <u>feel</u> every boring because I <u>am</u> writing it. 6. I <u>can't</u> understand why I must do this, but I <u>have done</u> . 7. Hot weather <u>makes</u> me feel hot. 8. In the final, I <u>write</u> the last word.	1. TS: For me, today is sunny day but it's also a day of bad weather. (o) 2. Summer <u>is coming</u> slowly, and the weather becomes hotter and hotter. (o) 3. This afternoon, I <u>finished</u> my lunch. (o) 4. The weather <u>was</u> so hot that I <u>didn't like</u> to move. (o)(o) 5. Something <u>flied</u> around me; I <u>felt</u> very bored because I <u>was</u> writing it. (o)(o)(o) 6. I <u>couldn't</u> understand why I had to do this, but I just <u>kept on</u> writing. (o)(o) 7. Hot weather <u>made</u> me feel hot. (o) 8. Now, I <u>am going to</u> write the last word. (o)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● TS：時間不夠，完全依靠直覺寫出來的文章，只能想到什麼就寫什麼。 ● 「完全沒想到」(2：憑直覺寫的) ● 「喔，這樣阿」(3：我想到什麼就寫什麼，天氣太熱了) ● 「原來如此」(4.5：天氣真的好熱)
		9. When I was a child, I <u>be</u> (was) hurt by an accident, which influences me a lot. 10. It <u>is</u> (was) a sunny afternoon, and the sun beat me much. 11. We <u>think</u> (thought) it <u>is</u> (was) a big trouble. 12. But we still <u>do</u> (did) it. 13. As soon as my hand touched them, I <u>find</u> (found) a terrible thing. 14. I <u>jump</u> (jumped) out quickly... 15. There <u>is</u> (was) a big opening on my leg. 16. I <u>press</u> (pressed) on the wound at once and <u>go</u> (went) back home. 17. My parents also <u>feel</u> (felt) very frightened. 18. We <u>go</u> (went) to hospital. 19. The doctor examined the condition. It <u>must</u> (had to) stitch up.	

33	1. ... I hope... so that I <u>will do</u> things I would like to do.	1. ... I <u>can do</u> things I would like to do. (o)	● 「不知道老師在做什麼，我的時態可能真的怪怪的」(1：我希望的後面應該是接未來式)
		2. ...taught me a great deal of important things which <u>makes</u> (made) me determined to be the shortest but best player in my country. 3. For example, when I <u>want</u> (wanted) to shoot, the enemies always <u>block</u> (blocked) me easily...	
34	1. If today <u>is</u> sunny day that I <u>can</u> play basketball with my friend. 2. If today <u>is</u> sunny day that I <u>can</u> go shopping with my friend. 3. If today <u>is</u> sunny day that I <u>can</u> go out with my friend.	1. If it <u>were</u> sunny today, I <u>could</u> play basketball with my friend. (o)(o) 2. If today <u>were</u> sunny, I <u>could</u> go shopping with my friend. (o)(o) 3. If today <u>were</u> sunny day I <u>could</u> go out with my friend. (o)(o)	● 「我錯了」(1.2.3：因為當下我只想到這個時態與文法)
		No error	
35	1. No TS 2. During the time, I <u>feel</u> comfortable. Because I <u>can</u> understand something I <u>want</u> to realize. 3. Although I <u>can</u> realize something, sometimes I <u>will</u> annoy. 4. If it <u>is</u> rain, I will feel sad. 5. That seems I <u>don't be</u> affected by weather. But I still often <u>be</u> affected by weather.	1. TS (o) 2. During the time, I <u>felt</u> comfortable. Because I <u>could</u> understand something I <u>wanted</u> to realize. (o)(o)(o) 3. Although I <u>could</u> realize something unknown, something I <u>felt</u> annoyed. (o)(o) 4. If it <u>rains</u> , I will feel sad. (o) 5. Change into: The weather may <u>affect</u> me. But I think the greatest influence is my mood. (o)	● 「太緊張了，我竟然忘了學過的東西，下次應該更小心，別再犯同樣的錯誤」(2：第一次寫，很多時態都忽略了) ● 「可能是我遺忘這個用法」(4：rain 當名詞時好像可以這樣用)
		6. No TS	
36	1. my mood <u>has been infected</u> 2. I neither <u>bring</u> umbrella with us. 3. The only choice <u>be</u> we <u>have</u> <u>is</u> to go home. 4. I were also unhappy because we originally <u>to buy</u> a new game of rare.	1. My mood <u>is</u> always <u>influenced</u> in a bad weather. (o) 2. But neither my friend nor I <u>brought</u> an umbrella with us. (o) 3. The only choice we <u>have</u> (<u>had</u>) <u>was</u> to go home. (x)(o) 4. I were unhappy because we originally <u>planned to buy</u> a new game of rare. (o)	● 「看到紅色的答案就不爽...因為我竟然錯了」(1.2.3：英文的字彙量和對文法所知太少，所以就只能拿出腦中稀少和破爛的單字硬拼出來)
		5. No TS 6. And he <u>tell</u> (<u>told</u>) me he <u>will</u> (<u>would</u>) take revenge on me! 7. Then, my friend “斯斯” who <u>take</u> (<u>took</u>) revenge on me.	
37	1. In a bad weather day, my mood always	1. In a bad weather day, my mood <u>is</u> always affected. (o)	● 「ㄉ...早就知道會錯了」(1：我

	<p><u>be</u> effect.</p> <p>2. I <u>couldn't</u> go out to play basketball...</p>	<p>2. I <u>cannot</u> go out to play basketball... (o)</p>	<p>想寫雨天對我來說是什麼)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「原來我的英文這麼差」(2：因為詞窮了，只好寫一些無聊的東西充字數)
38	<p>1. If rain not get stop today, it <u>is</u> terrible, everyone <u>think</u> this is terrible things.</p> <p>2. I want to go out with my friends or family, not stay at home or go to school study all day, I <u>excited</u> the sun <u>will</u> <u>appeal</u>.</p>	<p>1. If the rain doesn't stop today, it <u>will be</u> terrible. Everyone <u>will</u> <u>think</u> this is terrible.... (o)(o)</p> <p>2. I want to go out with my friends or family, not to stay at home or study all day. I <u>will feel</u> excited if the sun <u>appears</u>. (o)(o)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「我的構句有問題！我不會用 will」(1：我想形容對『持續的壞天氣』感到可怕，每個人都跟我有同感) ● 「少 feel 真的有這麼嚴重嗎？」(2：我想寫期待放晴的心情)
		<p>3. My mom <u>tell</u> (<u>told</u>) me I was growing up.</p> <p>4. I was so happy and <u>enjoy</u> (<u>enjoyed</u>) this feeling.</p> <p>5. I <u>always like to</u> (<u>used to</u>) play computer games.</p> <p>6. This <u>is</u> (<u>was</u>) bad for my class, so I <u>study</u> (<u>studied</u>) harder than before.</p> <p>7. Then my mom <u>tell</u> (<u>told</u>) me again I was growing up.</p>	
39	<p>1. It's <u>rains</u>! Today is a bad weather means a boring day, too.</p>	<p>1. It's <u>raining</u>! Today is a day of bad weather, which means a boring day, too. (o)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「第一行就錯，表示此文章其爛無比，且看到老師寫 It's raining，我就在思考 rain 的用法，回想國中老師教的，而且我印象中有這樣用...真囧！」(1：看到題目時，我就想到很多小說都寫壞心情等於雨天，加上當時心情不佳，我想寫出極為悲慘的文字，表達心情真的很不好)
		<p>2. No TS</p> <p>3. When I <u>am</u> (<u>was</u>) thirteen years old, I <u>am</u> (<u>was</u>) a student of elementary school.</p> <p>4. They thought I <u>have</u> (<u>had</u>) good quality and good grades.</p> <p>5. ... I fought with a teacher who <u>is</u> (<u>was</u>) hot-tempered too.</p> <p>6. Many teachers <u>wonder</u> (<u>wondered</u>) why I <u>do</u> (<u>did</u>) that.</p> <p>7. The principal found me and <u>talk</u> (<u>talked</u>) about many conceptions...</p> <p>8. Meanwhile, my teacher never <u>give</u> (<u>gave</u>) me up.</p>	
40	<p>1. The heavy rain <u>raining</u> as if the angels' tears.</p>	<p>1. The heavy rain <u>is raining</u> as the angels' tears. (o)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 「加了動詞，感覺更有 fu」(1：靈光乍現寫出來的，當時覺得很有 fu 阿)
		<p>2. No TS</p> <p>3. Anyway, she was so charming for me that I <u>can't</u> (<u>couldn't</u>) help but stop my eyes on her.</p>	