

國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班碩士論文

指導教授：許炳煌 博士

Advisor: Ping-Huang Sheu, PhD.

教師回饋對新竹縣國小六年級學童英文句型寫作影響之研究

An Investigation into the Effects of Teacher Feedback on English Sentence Writing of  
Grade Six Elementary School Students in Hsin Chu County



研究生：許淑芬 撰

Name: Shu-Fen Hsu

中華民國 102 年 3 月

March, 2013

An Investigation into the Effects of Teacher Feedback on English Sentence Writing of  
Grade Six Elementary School Students in Hsin Chu County



A Master Thesis  
Presented to  
Department of English,  
National Chengchi University

In Partial Fulfillment  
Of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Master of Arts

by  
Shu-Fen Hsu  
March, 2013

To My Dear Parents & Ping-Huang Sheu, PhD.

獻給我親愛的爸媽及恩師許炳煌教授



## Acknowledgments

It would not have been possible to finish the thesis without all the support and help of the generous people around me, to only some of whom it is possible to give particular mention here.

First of all, I am thankful to my professor Ping-huang Sheu, who always guides me patiently and leads me to think in different perspectives. I am also grateful to dear committee members, Ming-chung Yu and Yi-ti Lin, for offering me great advice and precious comments.

Secondly, I deeply appreciate the help from my dear colleague, Lee-ron Wong for changing the teaching schedule and handling all the students during the experimental process. I also thank the enormous help of my dear brother-in-law, Duan-ren Lee for the statistic counseling.

Finally, my sincere thanks to my dear parents, Yin-fu Hsu and Mei-yu Chang, this thesis is the result of your support and encouragement. Special love and thanks must go to my dear husband, Ren-hong Wang, who always believe in me.

## Table of Contents

Dedication Page.....	iii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures.....	ix
Chinese Abstract.....	x
English Abstract.....	xi
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
Background and Motivation.....	1
Purpose of the Study.....	5
Research Questions.....	7
Definition of Terms.....	8
Significance of the Study.....	10
Chapter Two: Literature Review.....	13
The Concept of Writing.....	13
Writing Models.....	15
Writing Pedagogy in Taiwan.....	20
Grammatical Errors and Corrections .....	22
Common Grammatical Errors in EFL Writing .....	23
Different Correction Ways of Grammatical Errors.....	26
Teacher feedback .....	29
The Concept of Teacher feedback.....	29
The Error-oriented Feedbacks.....	30
The Content-oriented Feedbacks.....	32
The Combination of Two Feedback Types.....	33

Different Teacher Feedback Formats.....	35
Related Studies on Teacher Feedback.....	38
Studies in ESL Context.....	39
Studies in EFL Context.....	43
Studies Related to Students' Attitudes.....	47
Chapter Summary.....	49
Chapter Three: Methodology.....	51
Participants.....	51
Instrument.....	52
English Writing Proficiency Test (EWPT) .....	52
English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (ELAQ) .....	57
Procedures.....	60
Treatment.....	65
Five Targeted Errors.....	65
Two Types of Teacher Feedback.....	66
Data Analysis.....	68
Chapter Four: Results.....	69
The Effect of Indirect Teacher Feedback(IDF).....	69
The Effect of Direct Teacher Feedback(DF).....	73
The Comparison on Post- and Retention Test of IDF and DF Groups.....	76
The Comparison of the Student Attitudes toward Two Feedback Types.....	77
Chapter Five: Discussion.....	87
Research Question1: Did the DF group perform better in the post-EWPT than in the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways?.....	87
Research Question2: Did the DF group perform better in the post-EWPT than in	

the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways? .....	90
Research Question3: Did the IDF group and the DF group perform differently in the post EWPT? Besides, did the two groups perform differently in the retention EWPT? If yes, in what ways?.....	91
Research Question4: Did the IDF group and the DF group express different attitudes toward the treatment? If yes, in what ways?.....	92
Chapter Six: Conclusions.....	97
Main Findings.....	97
Pedagogical Implications.....	97
Limitation and Suggestions.....	99
References.....	102
Appendixes.....	112
Appendix A: English Writing Proficiency Test.....	113
Appendix B: English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (Chinese Version).....	115
Appendix C: English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (English Version).....	117
Appendix D: Suggestions for English Writing Proficiency Test.....	119
Appendix E: Suggestions for English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire.....	120
Appendix F: Essay Correction Code (ECC).....	121

## List of Tables

Table 1 Sample Questions of EWPT.....	55
Table 2 A Correction Guide.....	62
Table 3 Paired T-Test on Pre- and Post-EWPT of IDF Group.....	70
Table 4 Paired T-Test of Each Error Type on Pre- and Post-EWPT of IDF Group.....	71
Table 5 Paired T-Test on Post- and Retention EWPT of IDF Group.....	72
Table 6 Paired T-Test of Each Error Type on Post- and Retention EWPT of IDF Group.....	73
Table 7 Paired T-Test on Pre- and Post-EWPT of DF Group.....	74
Table 8 Paired T-Test on Post- and Retention EWPT of DF Group.....	74
Table 9 Independent Sample T-Test on Post- Tests of IDF and DF groups.....	76
Table 10 Independent Sample T-Test on Retention Tests of IDF and DF Groups.....	77
Table 11 Independent Sample T-Test on Main Section of IDF and DF Groups.....	78
Table 12 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 1 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups.....	79
Table 13 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 2 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups..	80
Table 14 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 3 and 4 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups.....	82
Table 15 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 5 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups..	83
Table 16 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 6 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups..	84
Table 17 Independent Sample T-Test on Section 7 of ELAQ of IDF and DF Groups.....	85



## List of Figures

Figure 1 <i>Flow Chart of the Study</i> .....	60
Figure 2 <i>Revising Procedure of the Unsuccessful Revision</i> .....	62
Figure 3 <i>A Sample of IDF</i> .....	67
Figure 4 <i>A Sample of DF</i> .....	67



國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班  
碩士論文提要

論文名稱：教師回饋對新竹縣國小六年級學童英文句型寫作影響之研究

指導教授：許炳煌 博士

研究生：許淑芬

論文提要內容：

本研究在探討兩種不同教師回饋對新竹縣國小六年級學童英文句型寫作之影響以及此兩種回饋對學生英語學習態度與動機的影響。此研究以來自新竹縣某國小六年級兩個班級學生為研究對象，此二班級隨機指派為實驗組及控制組。實驗組實施習作批改時的間接回饋而對照組則實施傳統直接回饋，每週均批改一次習作。經過 14 週的回饋後，兩組皆進行英文句型寫作測驗並施以英語學習態度與動機問卷；3 週後再進行英文句型寫作延宕測驗。研究結果顯示，學生受過教師的間接回饋批改後在英文句型寫作之正確率上有顯著進步，此顯著進步也表現在延宕測驗中的介系詞題型；但其對訂正習作上錯誤則表現顯著焦慮。希望本研究能為英語老師在教學實務上提供助益。

## Abstract

The present study mainly aimed at investigating the effects of two different types of teacher feedback on English sentence writing accuracy. Meanwhile this paper also aimed at examining learners' attitudes of the two different types of teacher feedback, and the changes of learners' attitudes and motivation towards English learning after the implementation of different teacher feedbacks.

Two sixth-grade classes in Hsin Chu County were randomly assigned to be the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group received indirect feedback (IDF) on their workbook while the control group received traditional direct feedback (DF) once a week. After the 14-week treatment, an English writing proficiency test and an English learning attitudes and motivation questionnaire were administrated to examine learners' sentence writing accuracy and their learning attitudes and motivations respectively. Finally, a retention test was conducted in 3 weeks later to know the retention effect of two types of teacher feedback.

The findings showed that the IDF had helped students gained significant progress on sentence writing accuracy. Moreover, the significant improvement was also presented on the aspect of preposition in the retention test. However, the IDF group expressed significant anxiety towards correcting errors on workbooks after the treatment of IDF. Hopefully, the findings of the present study may provide English teachers with some useful pedagogical implications.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The study aimed at investigating the effects of different teacher feedbacks on students' sentence writing performance and their attitudes. This chapter consists of four sections. The first section explains the background and motivation. The second section states the purpose of the study, followed by the research questions and the definition of terms; the significance of the study is listed out at the last section.

#### **Background and Motivation**

Writing is regarded as the most difficult language skill (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Since writing requires a variety of skills, such as generating ideas, spelling words, completing sentences with accurate grammar and organizing information properly, writing becomes an uneasy task for learners (Martlew, 1983). Though writing is hard work, it is important for communication (Kent, 2002). Writers need to integrate the above skills precisely; otherwise, the inaccurate writing may hinder the reader's understanding and cause the communication breakdown (Kent, 2002). While writing with correct grammar is an essence of communication, it has been suggested that effective grammar learning takes place while students receive teachers' error correction on their writing works (Ferris, 1995b; Rahimi, 2008; Ehrlich & Zoltek, 2006; Santos, López-Serrano & Manchón, 2010). When learners access to teacher's error correction and revise their grammatical errors accordingly, the grammatical knowledge thus will be learned (Chandler, 2003; Frantzen, 1995). In view of this, it is better to provide the teacher feedback on their grammatical errors (Chandler, 2003; Ehrlich & Zoltek, 2006; Ferris, 1997; 1999), and help students figure out the correct forms by themselves (Ferris, 2004), so that they can learn the accurate grammar usage better.

Although the important concept of offering error correction is widely known to primary school English teachers in Taiwan, most of their feedback is still direct and teacher-centered, giving students the correct answer to follow, without leading them to think. Copying and memorizing teachers' feedback dominate the process of correction. On student workbooks nowadays, learners just receive markings and correct answers from teachers without being involved in active thinking and learning process. The memorized grammatical knowledge consequently is easily forgotten and is hardly maintained by learners. To solve this problem, more effective error correction way should be adopted to provide students with a meaningful revising process.

In recent years, researchers (Truscott, 1996; Sheppard, 1992; Burstein, Chodorow & Leacock, 2004) have been discovering effective ways to help learners with different types of error correction. They found two major issues: one was the repeating correction on grammatical errors (Truscott, 1996; Sheppard, 1992; Burstein, Chodorow & Leacock, 2004). In other words, students tend to repeat the same grammatical errors after receiving correction. Teachers constantly corrected the same grammatical errors because students made errors in the original and rewriting works. Correcting the similar errors over again became a labor-intensive correcting process (Burstein, Chodorow & Leacock, 2004). The other was the effect of their feedback (Polio, 1998; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992; Truscott, 1996). That is, the doubt on the effect of teacher feedback came after the repeating grammatical errors; since students duplicated the similar grammatical errors, teachers started to question the effect of teacher feedback (Polio, 1998; Sheppard, 1992) and considered it was ineffective (Truscott, 1996; Semke, 1984).

In Taiwan, some studies have dealt with the relationship between teachers' error correction and student revision. Huang (2009) noted senior high school students did not have significant improvement on overall writing accuracy after receiving teacher error correction in both indirect and direct ways on grammatical features for 5 months. But on tense and punctuation, students did have a little improvement. On the contrary, Chang (2005) found that the feedback on form and the feedback on content both facilitate senior high students' writing. Huang (2006) corresponded to the similar idea that college students improved significantly in accuracy after receiving underlining with coded feedback. These related studies in Taiwan discussed the effect of error correction from 16 to 22 years-old learners and reported the positive and negative outcomes from different experiments.

Moreover, while student attitude towards error correction was taken into consideration, Huang (2009) noted that students appreciated the coded correction and considered themselves learned well from it. Besides, Wu (2006) proposed that students showed their preference on teacher feedback than the peer feedback the content or grammatical errors and also reported that participants were willing to incorporate teachers' feedback into their revisions. To reduce the grammatical errors, learners acknowledge the value of the error correction, expect it from their teachers (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1990) and demonstrate a desire and a consistent expectation from their teachers (Radecki & Swales, 1988).

Having the results of prior studies in mind, whether to offer error correction or not is still controversial. Learners highly value the error correction but the effect of it remains uncertain. Additionally, the previous research focused on junior high to adult learners but those young participants aged 7 to 12 years-old have not received attention. Also, the attitudes of young participants towards different teacher feedback

types still need to be investigated. Thus, the current study attended to conduct teacher feedback in primary school in EFL context, explore its influence on the sentence writing accuracy of young learners and probe into their attitudes toward such feedback.



## **Purpose of the Study**

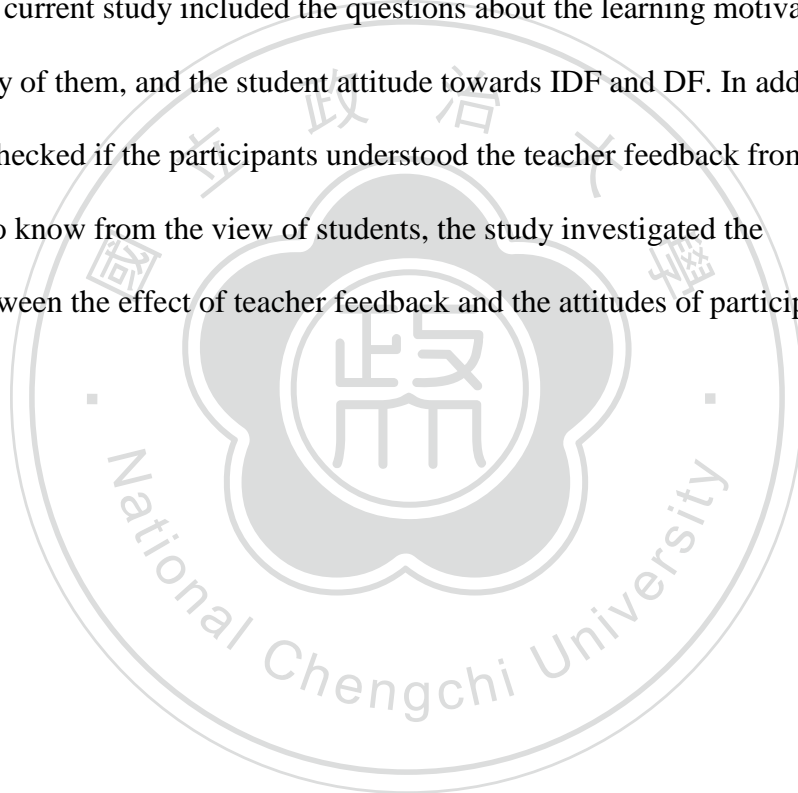
The study explored the effect of two different teacher feedbacks on young students' sentence writing performance and their attitudes.

In the present study, two types of feedback were conducted; the direct feedback (DF) with underlines on target errors and circles only on untargeted errors, and the indirect feedback (IDF) under the underline with concept feedback in Chinese. The pre- and post- writing tests were employed before and after a 15-week treatment to know the different improvements from the IDF and DF groups; one questionnaire was utilized after the experiment to know the difference of the participants' attitudes between the two groups. Finally, a retention test was held three weeks after the treatment to probe into the retention effect of different feedback types.

Two main purposes of the present study were included in the current study. The first purpose was to find a more beneficial teacher feedback between IDF and DF. As mentioned in the previous section, students repeat the same error and this phenomenon leads teachers to doubt the effect of the teacher feedback. This study analyzed the score changes of two phases, from the pre- to the post-test and from the post to the retention test, to know either IDF or DF helped students with more improvement and less backslides during the different phases. In addition, this study compared the results of the post-tests to see if two types of teacher feedback help participants perform differently. The comparison of the retention tests was also conducted for the same purpose. The students' sentence writing accuracy was examined and compared in both groups to see if there was any significant change after the treatment. In short, to explore the more beneficial teacher feedback for reducing more grammatical errors and helping students learn more efficiently was the first purpose of this study.



The second purpose of the current study was to know about the student attitude towards IDF and DF. Knowing about the attitude could be helpful to detect the relationship between the effect of teacher feedback and the attitudes of participants. According to Wu (2006), the efficacy of teacher feedback is varied by the student belief and attitude, when learners highly value the feedback, the teacher feedback becomes more influential. Liu (2010) also noted the related idea towards the teacher feedback, while the participants fully understood; the effect of teacher feedback is great. Thus, the current study included the questions about the learning motivation of students, anxiety of them, and the student attitude towards IDF and DF. In addition, the study also checked if the participants understood the teacher feedback from their perspectives. To know from the view of students, the study investigated the relationship between the effect of teacher feedback and the attitudes of participants.



## Research Questions

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the effect of teacher indirect feedback (IDF) and direct feedback (DF) on elementary school students' sentence writing accuracy. The study also aimed at examining their attitudes toward English learning after the treatment. The questions of the study were as follows:

1. Did the IDF group perform better in the post EWPT than in the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways?

2. Did the DF group perform better in the post-EWPT than in the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways?

3. Did the IDF group and DF group perform differently in the post-EWPT? Besides, did the two groups perform differently in the retention EWPT? If yes, in what ways?

4. Did the IDF group and the DF group express different attitudes toward the treatment? If yes, in what ways?

## **Definition of Terms**

### ***Teacher Feedback***

Teacher feedback is defined as any response from the instructor to inform learners that what the right or the wrong was (Kepner, 1991). The similar definition is proposed that teacher feedback is any response a teacher may give for the students' need (Ferris, 2006).

Teacher feedback in the current study was defined as the written feedback from the researcher on student workbooks. The format of teacher feedback was differentiated by different groups. In the IDF group, the researcher underlined five target errors and provided Chinese concept hint beside the errors. While in the DF group, the correct answer was directly provided beside the underlines. The untargeted errors were marked with circles without any other feedbacks in both two groups.

Since the present study focused on sentence writing accuracy, the teacher feedback was provided on the sentence exercise on the workbook, including filling in the blanks and short questions.

### ***English Sentence Writing***

A sentence is defined as a group of words that included a subject and a verb, and it also presents a complete thought (Hartmann & Stork, 1972). Meanwhile, writing is defined as a process including various skills such as handwriting, spelling words, contextualizing the conventions, planning ideas and segmenting information properly (Martlew, 1983).

Combining these two definitions together, sentence writing is to generate a group of words with conventions and express a complete idea (Crystal, 1980). In the current study, English sentence writing was referred to produce a complete and correct English sentence; it was defined as a sentence in English consisting of a subject and verb with

correct spelling and proper conventions.



## Significance of the Study

This study was conducted to explore the effect of different teacher feedback types and to investigate the attitudes of the young participants. The results of the research provided the following contributions to English language teaching and learning field.

First, the study provided a pedagogical contribution to the primary school English teaching field; it suggested teachers in primary schools to apply IDF in sentence writing teaching. Since IDF had significant effect on three grammatical error aspects, such as plural/ singular noun, verb tense and spelling; English teachers can try to apply IDF on more specific grammatical errors to help students with more efficient feedback.

Second, from the perspective of research field, the study provided a new vision for the future study since it narrowed down writing from the whole passage to the small parts. Most of previous research investigated the effect of teacher feedback on the whole writing work, the study was different from others because it concentrated on the accuracy of sentences instead of the accuracy of the whole passage; it offered the teacher feedback only on the targeted grammatical errors and tested the improvement of participants with grammar-focused tests. In all, this research offered researchers a new way to detect the effect of teacher feedback.

Finally, the result of this study suggested that the attitudes of the primary school students were not in accordance with their improvement, thus, the result implied that the teachers could adopt the IDF into an easier format in the authentic teaching context, implement the IDF for a longer time or apply the clearer explanation on IDF concept hint during lessons to help student become accustomed to the IDF and gain more improvement in English sentence writing in the meantime. To be clearer, though participants showed more anxiety receiving the IDF during the 15-week treatment,

they presented better improvement than the DF group; this result showed that it was worthwhile trying IDF again with more care about the primary school students' anxiety.





## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Human beings are not born with writing competence (Martlew, 1983). Whether native or foreign language users, people develop their writing competence via learning (Kent, 2002). To know more about writing, this chapter consists of four sections. The first section defines writing, reviews the change and development of writing models and refers to the implementation of writing pedagogy in Taiwan. The second section discusses the grammatical errors in writing works and lists out common grammatical errors and different correction ways. The third section defines the concept of the teacher feedback, analyzes the types of teacher feedback and at last presents the related studies on teacher feedback by different characteristics in the fourth section.

#### **The Concept of Writing**

Writing is defined as a complex process involving various skills such as handwriting, spelling words, contextualizing the conventions, planning ideas and segmenting information properly (Martlew, 1983). Instead of incorporating these skills and applying the words, conventions and their ideas into writing, writers have to go through a series of procedures for composing a piece of work.

Hayes and Flower (1980) propose the three main steps to composing written passages to be planning, generating and reviewing (cited in Martlew, 1983). Planning is the process of creating new ideas, arranging related ideas sequentially and setting goals for the writer to achieve while composing text. Generating includes producing words and selecting the proper ones in the authentic language context and organizing sentences. Reviewing refers to reading the text again, editing the paragraphs, revising the errors that were found and to rechecking the cohesion of context. To compose the written works, writers need to utilize the three-staged writing process aptly (Hyland,



2003). However, the inexperienced writers seem to be incapable of managing the process with ease (Stoke, 2007), because they cannot generate writing ideas clearly, cannot separate the writing information appropriately and cannot revise their statement to meet the cohesion in their written works (Shaughnessy, 1979). As a result, writing pedagogy becomes important to help them improve their writing competence.

Furthermore, writing in a foreign language involves the knowledge of foreign language. Writers need to be familiar with the foreign linguistic knowledge such as knowing about foreign words, syntactic patterns and cohesive devices that link up the key sentences and main ideas in contexts (Hyland, 2003). Beside word and syntax knowledge, writers need to convert their thoughts into the target language with appropriate grammar rules (Anderson, 1985). This means, to write in a foreign language, writers need not only go through the three-staged writing procedure with various writing skills, but also know the foreign language well. These two tasks are challenging for foreign language writers (Hung, 2007), and thus, writing in a foreign language depends on the instruction to know where to and how to improve the writing skills (Purves, 1987). Writing instruction helps writers deal with the foreign linguistic knowledge, be skillful at the writing procedure and compose articles matching their intellectual abilities (Leki, 2005); for these reasons, writing instruction is essential to learners.

A system of instruction teaching students how to write (Zamel, 1987) and improving writing skills efficiently (Leki, 2005) is defined as writing pedagogy. According to Badger and White (2000), the writing pedagogy consists of two main teaching models: the product and the process models.

## ***Writing Models***

In the past 30 years, product and process approaches have been taken as two influential models for writing instruction in the EFL classroom (Badger & White, 2000). The following section defines these two models and then discusses their strengths and weaknesses respectively.

*Product Model.* In this model, writing is seen as using the linguistic knowledge accurately, including the vocabulary, syntax and cohesive devices (Pincas, 1982b). Learning to apply the linguistic knowledge appropriately, students develop their writing skills in four steps: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing (Pincas, 1982a).

During the first stage, familiarization, students become familiar with particular traits of the writing format, for example, the format is suggested as three parts, introduction, body and conclusion (Williams, 1998). Learners are taught with the fixed formats at the start. In the second stage, controlled writing, students practice writing with the instructor's support. The instructor may offer partial information about the writing topic, such as the first paragraph, and the learners continue writing in the same genre. The third stage is guided writing. It means students gain increasing writing freedom with teachers' guidance. Teachers provide the instruction before writing and learners try to compose articles with the guide. In the last stage, the free writing stage, students express themselves in the writing passages without instructions from teachers. In the first three stages, students practice writing skills under teachers' instruction, learn the designed context and try to practice new words. That is, learners construct sentences in set-up patterns and arrange cohesive devices with their instructors' support. Moving on to next stages, writers become more skillful and gain increasing freedom to write; for instance, writers start to generate their own writing ideas and

develop their own voice (Pincas, 1982b).

The main concern of this model is the structure of language (Badger & White, 2000). In other words, good writing means correct writing (Williams, 1998). Teachers emphasize the correct usage on the sentence level, focus on the exercise of grammar drilling and expect that students can learn from the error correction provided by teachers (Applebee, 1986). Since teachers focus on training students to write accurately and expect them to follow the writing format; this model is considered teacher-centered and product-oriented (Huang, 2009). Students can learn from teachers' samples, duplicate the format and add their thought into the writing work by their competence. In the product model, teachers provide the text form and language input, acting as a presenter demonstrating the accurate format while learners are the followers to learn what teachers provided (Pincas, 1982b). With teachers' instruction, writing ability is developed and the students' written works are monitored by teachers and under control as products (Huang, 2009).

The advantage of this model is that students can learn to write via teachers' prescription (Zamel, 1985). Under this condition, this model mitigates the cognitive burden of learners and helps them work on the smaller and manageable parts, focusing on language structures, receiving error correction, and revising their written work according to teachers' feedback first (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008). While inexperienced writers concentrated on one issue at a time, their learning load is eased off. Students concentrate learning on language structures and after they can handle the grammar rules, students work on the content and add new ideas when these issues are cognitively affordable to learners. That is to say, this model supports learners with error correction feedback and helps them first work on the manageable part, the sentence level (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008).

However, two disadvantages are proposed (Applebee, 1986; Hyland, 2000; Sokolik, 2003; William, 1998; Zamel, 1985; 1987) as below. The first disadvantage of the product model is that students learned limited understanding of writing (Zamel, 1985). Because the product model focuses on the correct usage of grammar, students' writing work turns in mainly for the purpose of correction (William, 1998). Students do not receive the feedback on the content at the beginning of learning writing so they gain limited understanding of writing (Zamel, 1985; Sokolik, 2003). This model is criticized for the overt emphasis on the sentence-level errors instead of improving the content (Applebee, 1986). Secondly, since teachers mainly provide the corrections and grades (Zamel, 1987), students keep receiving the error correction pointing out weaknesses of their writing work. Gradually, in students' perceptions, the error correction is connected to their negative feeling (Hyland, 2000). The negative feeling lessens learners' confidence and interest toward writing (Zamel, 1987) because they always receive the corrections instead of the encouraging comments (Sokolik, 2003).

*Process Model.* In this model, writing is considered as a process of discovery (Zamel, 1985). Badger and White (2000) define writing as a procedure to apply linguistic skills and student writing is regarded as the exercise for sharpening linguistic skills in this model. As the writing works are composed, the writing competence is developed unconsciously (William, 1998).

A 3-staged writing procedure is proposed as follow: pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing (Winterowd & Murray, 1985). First, in the pre-writing stage, writers planned ideas for the specific purpose and the audience; then, in the while-writing stage, the planned ideas are written into words and the articles are composed as drafts. Writers pause, review and revise the content if it does not correspond to the main purpose. At last, in the post-writing stage, writers do the final review and fix the errors

on the sentence-level.

The process model focuses more about the process of writing than the outcome of writing (Sokolik, 2003). This model emphasizes on the function of communication and fixes the grammatical errors in the last writing stage (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008). When writers are able to express their ideas clearly and to communicate with the readers, the writing work is considered successful and acceptable. During the while-writing stage, the revision is made if the content does not match the main purpose (Winterowd & Murray, 1985). In this stage, both the teacher and the peers act as the audience to offer feedback to the writers (Kroll, 2001). While the peers provide their feedback as the audience, they offer their background knowledge, e.g. the writing ideas or their feeling after reading. With various backgrounds and different viewpoints, students bring diverse information into the classroom (Kroll, 2011). Because of the feedbacks, multiple drafts are needed for the global changes, such as the changes on the content or on the organization (William, 1998). In the revising process, students develop their writing skills (Badger & White, 2000) and the student texts are considered works in progress (Zamel, 1985). In the other words, the content and the student revisions are emphasized in this model (Applebee, 1986).

The merit of this model is providing opportunities for learners to develop the metalinguistic ability while composing. Metalinguistic ability refers to the awareness of the writers have toward the knowledge of language (Gombert, 1992). Camhi and Ebsworth (2008) noted the metalinguistic principles are put into practice via analysis and exploration. In this model, students analyze the peers' writing work with teachers and offer feedback. At the same time, they receive the feedback from others and improve their writing work. They explore their writing skills in the revising process, and help learning process become more efficient. Thus, in the process model, students

enhance their metalinguistic abilities while receiving feedback from teachers and peers (Kroll, 2011).

The process model acknowledges the contribution of what learners bring into the classrooms, such as the background knowledge and metalinguistic ability; this model considers the knowledge besides the linguistics as beneficial and realizes the importance of the revision process, and thus, positive outcomes are showed on writing fluency and comprehensibility (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008).

On the opposite end, the weakness of this model is regarding all writings as being produced by one uniform set of procedure as pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing. Zamel (1985) pointed out that the process model did not offer fixed writing forms but expected learners to learn from experience and revisions. Badger and White (2000) even argued that any corrective feedback was pointless and any overt concern to linguistic form was needless (Camhi, 2004). That is, it has been criticized of offering inadequate input to learners and neglecting the value of writing accuracy and rhetorical clarity.

In conclusion, in the product model, students learn with teachers' prescriptions and error corrections (Zamel, 1985), emphasize the writing outcome (Pincas, 1982b) and care about the accuracy of sentence structures. While in the process model, writers develop writing skills by receiving feedback on content (Kroll, 2001), emphasize the revision process (William, 1998) and fix the grammatical errors on the sentence level in the last writing stage (Winterowd & Murray, 1985). Therefore, these two models differentiated from what they emphasized and the main concerns were affected by the writing procedures.

### ***Writing Pedagogy in Taiwan***

In Taiwan, writing pedagogy was implemented more often from junior high schools to colleges than in primary schools (Hung, 2007). Unlike the primary school students, the students from junior high schools to universities know more vocabulary and have authentic purposes for writing, such as preparing for entrance exams, writing reports, and practicing writing skills in the composition classes (Hammill & Larsen, 1988). Thus, teachers implement writing pedagogy more often from junior high to university level than in the primary grades (Hung, 2007).

From junior high schools to college, most teachers admitted the benefit of the process model, but when carrying out the writing classes, teachers put the product model into practice more often in classrooms (Huang, 2009). Most teachers acknowledged the main features of the process model such as peer feedback and the revision process (Kuo, 2004); they also considered teachers should play different roles in the writing class, such as the roles of the audience and the instructor (Wu, 2006). However, in the in-class observation, the product model activities, played the main role such as grammatical drilling practice, discussion of the writing format and error correction on the sentence-level (Hsu, 2005; Kuo, 2004). In other words, teachers agreed upon the value of the process model but conducted more activities related to the product model (Huang, 2009).

Taiwanese teachers chose to carry out the product model which offered more samples and focused more on grammatical error correction for two possible reasons below (Chen, 2001; Kuo, 2004; Wu, 2006; Huang, 2009; Ferris, 1995b):

First, both instructors and learners in Taiwan considered that error correction should be done and had an expectation for it (Chen, 2001; Kuo, 2004; Wu, 2006; Huang, 2009). Chen (2001) noted that most Taiwanese teachers considered that error

correction could help students write better. About seventy percent of Taiwanese teachers believed that the grammatical errors should be corrected (Kuo, 2004; Wu, 2006) and students took a positive view toward error correction (Huang, 2009; Leki, 1990).

Second, if teachers do not focus on grammatical errors, the ignorance toward errors leads students to undervalue the importance of accuracy and have them lose the opportunity to develop their error-detection skills (Ferris, 1995b). To prevent students from typical grammar errors, Taiwanese teachers tend to point out the grammatical errors more often than working on the content (Kuo, 2004).

Because of these two main reasons, grammatical instruction and error correction received attention in writing pedagogy in Taiwan. Though teachers agreed with the advantages of the process model (Huang, 2009), they still modified their teaching into a grammar-focused way and altered their feedback to meet students' expectations (Kuo, 2004; Wu, 2006).

Teachers who choose to carry out the process model and apply the recursive revision process might face confused parents asking the reason for not pointing out the grammatical errors in every draft. Since students cannot gain good grades on writing exams, the teachers are also questioning the effect of the process model. As a result, how to deal with grammatical errors becomes a crucial issue.



## **Grammatical Errors and Corrections**

After discussing the concept of writing and the discussion of writing models, this section defines grammatical errors, common grammatical errors in EFL writing and different ways toward correcting.

According to Weinreich (1953), errors are considered as the phenomenon of interlingual identifications, and thus, are defined as interlanguage (IL). It is the misuse of the phonemic, grammatical or semantic features between two languages (Lennon, 1991). That is, errors happen in phonemic, grammatical or semantic ways. For example, when errors happened in grammatical aspects, they were considered as errors in relation to the syntax, word structures and semantic rules (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002), and often were the inaccurate language production that reflected the language competence of the learners (Corder, 1967). If a student repeated the same error, this means that he or she does not understand one certain grammar rule, and this repeated error then caused the concern of fossilization (Han, 2001).

The concept of fossilization emerged from repeating errors (Han, 2001), and is defined as a lasting mental and behavioral status representing linguistic segments and grammatical conceptions (Selinker, 1972). The incorrect application happens habitually in productive competence, especially speaking and writing; in a long term, even when it seems eliminated, it still returns incidentally (Selinker, 1972). Furthermore, Selinker (1972) noted that if errors are not corrected on time, learners might internalize the incorrect forms. The incorrect usage becomes a rhetoric habit and will be reproduced unconsciously again and again.

The main concern of fossilization is to greatly hinder the comprehension of readers and block the written communication (Liu & Qi, 2010). To reduce this phenomenon, Li (2009) proposed one solution: to offer the accurate language input.

Offering the accurate input refers to pointing out the students' grammatical errors and reinforcing their awareness of errors. While errors are pointed out repeatedly in written works, learners can more easily see the fact that they are duplicating the similar errors again and again. For this reason, teachers tend to point out the grammatical errors in students' writing.

### ***Common Grammatical Errors in EFL Writing***

Students made different types of grammatical errors at different ages or competence levels (Chiang, 1992; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In this part, the writing errors from university, senior high, junior high and primary school students are listed out, and then, those grammatical errors are compared in order to show the most common error in different contexts.

In a university context, Ferris and Roberts (2001) proposed that the most common error in university students' writing was in the verb category. The verb category refers to all errors related to verb tense, form and subject-verb agreement, e.g. He *go* swimming yesterday; the cake is *eat* by the boy and she *want* the flowers. Since different errors stand for particular domains of language knowledge (Corder, 1967), the most common error means that the university students lack the knowledge of verb utilization the most.

In a senior high school context, Huang (2009) proposed that the most frequent error was misspelling. Misspelling contained the misspellings of past tense verbs, past participle verbs, plural nouns, blanks for missing words and Chinese characters, e.g. John *want* hiking yesterday. In Huang's (2009) study, the error ratio of misspelling, ranking the greatest number, was 3.14 words per 100 words; this number almost doubled the second error type, tense. Furthermore, the misspelling errors were not decreased after the teacher feedback treatment; on the contrary, it increased to 3.66

words; it showed that the teacher feedback did little to help with students' spelling abilities.

From the junior high school contexts, Huang (1994) and Chiou (2005) noticed that the errors related to the future perfect construction are the most frequent errors; the future perfect construction is used to express what will occur by a particular time in the future, for example, we'll have finished the assignment by tomorrow. According to Huang (1994), the possible reason for the most common error is due to the interference of L1 and the suggested solution is to clarify the relationship between the notional time and linguistic time to learners.

As to the primary school context, Hung (2007) analyzed the common errors related to students' writing work in a primary school and categorized the errors according to James' (1980) classification, such as the substance, the text and the discourse level. According to Hung (2007), the grammatical errors found in the text level had the greatest proportion among all the errors; furthermore, the grammatical errors were analyzed again and divided into seven morphological features, e.g. subject-verb agreement, article, preposition and adjective, infinitive, noun and conjunction. The subject-verb agreement was defined as the errors on either the subject or the verb, for example, *he* like carrots or where *are* he going? The errors in articles focused on *a* and *an* since these two articles were emphasized in the teaching content such as *a* apple or *a* uniform. The errors of preposition and adverb were in the same category, i.e. he *happy* danced *in* the beach. The adjective errors meant the misuse of adjectives, for instance, she likes *flowers* dresses. The infinitive errors were the omission or redundancy of infinitives, e.g. go *to* camping or Billy *wants* go swimming. The noun errors were defined as the inaccurate use of plural or singular noun; such as, an ice *creams* or two *tree*. The errors of conjunction were the omission

or improper use of conjunctions, for instance, she studied hard *and* got a bad grade. Among these seven error types, Hung (2007) concluded the error of the subject-verb agreement was 28.5 percent, reaching the maximum frequency of all the errors, followed by the error regarding article, preposition and adverb, representing 16 and 10 percent respectively.

Besides, Hung (2007) also included two types of error from the substance level, punctuation and misspelling, named as the most common errors since these two types were 43% and 34% of all the errors from the substance level. Punctuation errors were defined as the misuse or omission of the punctuation. The lack of the period was most commonly found in primary students' writing, i.e. this is my brother. The misspelling meant the erroneous spelling of the words, such as, *Firday* and *teather*.

Taking the errors from the text and substance levels into account, the eight most common errors in the primary school context were listed in a descending order as follows: punctuation, misspelling, subject-verb agreement, article, preposition and adjective, infinitive, noun, and conjunction. Since the primary school students did sentence writing instead of paragraph writing in most of the time (Hung, 2007), fewer discourse errors were found in the study. To reduce the top eight common errors, Hung (2007) suggested teachers to do more spelling exercises to improve students' spelling ability and to point out the common errors to clarify the accurate grammatical rules.

Though the error categories differentiate between different ages and competence levels in different contexts, the similarity of all the learners was that writers in different levels tend to make errors in their writing works (Ferris, 2004). Comparing these four contexts in Taiwan, the researcher found that the errors related to verbs were the most common errors in three contexts, the primary, the junior high and the university. Misspelling errors were also found in the senior high and the primary

school levels. To deal with those similar grammatical errors, teachers have been trying to identify them and provide corrections in different ways (Ferris, 2004).

### ***Different Correction Ways of Grammatical Errors***

According to Chandrasegaran (1986), the correction of grammatical errors was to correct the inaccurate usages in writing works, e.g. the misuse of tense and verb forms. Corrections of the grammatical errors were highly valued by students (Wu, 2006; Leki, 1990) and widely provided by teachers in different contexts (Furneaux, Paran & Fairfax, 2007). In this section, three different error correction ways are discussed first; then, the differences among them are compared.

The first correction way (Chandrasegaran, 1986), can be divided into two steps: one was to identify the defects of the text, and the other was to correct and compose the new content which is grammatically and coherently acceptable. The purpose of this correction way was to confirm that the learners know what the error was, had them replace the error with accurate words and help learners revise their original writing.

In the second correction way, the procedure (William, 1998) is that teachers marked the errors on student text, gave summative comments, and offered grades. The purpose of this correction way was for teachers to point out the errors, for instance, teachers circled the error in the writing passages. In this way, teachers provided grades presenting how students have done in the writing piece, such as, an A for a fine piece and an A plus for a well-done writing work. The instructors also provided the overall feedback to the learners and the feedback aimed mostly on the content of the work, for example, rich details or full of creativity.

The third correction way (Krashen, 2005) is that teachers discussed the errors with the whole class without pointing out the individual errors on the student writing work; in this way, writers discovered and corrected their own errors by themselves; the

purpose was for learners to explore errors on their writing works on their own while teachers played a minor role in this way.

Comparing these three correction ways, they are different in purpose, teachers' role and procedures. First, regarding the purposes, the first correction way aimed on confirming that students know the accurate usage (Chandrasegaran, 1986); the purpose of the second correction way was to let students know where the error is (William, 1998); and the third correction way focused on helping learners explore errors and accurate usages by themselves (Krashen, 2005).

Secondly, teachers were involved in different levels and played different roles in these three correction ways. In the first two means, learners modified their work with written instructions from teachers and corrected errors with teachers help (Chandrasegaran, 1986; William, 1998). But in the last correction way, the teacher played a role of facilitator (Krashen, 2005) and only discussed the common errors which teachers considered important with the whole class; in this way, teachers told students to think and revise according to the discussion instead of pointing errors out for specific students.

Thirdly, different procedures can be seen in these three correction ways. In the first correction way, errors were identified and the accurate usages were written by teachers; in the second correction way, the errors were marked without the accurate usages but the comment and grade were given by teachers for helping students know how to revise. In the third correction way, the discussion was held and students handed in their revisions for several times.

Among these differences, teachers tended to choose one of the correction ways and modify it for the students' needs (Ferris, 2006). Besides the different correction ways on the grammatical errors, students need not only the corrections but also the

teacher feedback on the content (Huang, 2004; Huang, 2009; Kepner, 1991). For meeting students' needs, teacher feedback is not only for error correction but also for offering comment and suggestions, thus, various kinds of feedback are provided for helping students with their writing works.



## **Teacher Feedback**

Teacher feedback refers to teachers' written words after reading students' writing works. The section defines the concept of teacher feedback, explains the error-oriented feedback, the content-oriented feedback and the combination of two feedback types. In addition, the different teacher feedback formats are reviewed at last.

### ***The Concept of Teacher Feedback***

To meet students' needs, teacher feedback is an important pedagogical tool in writing teaching (Beanson, 1993, cited in Ferris, 1997) and can result in successful revision (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1992). Teacher feedback is defined as any response from the instructor to inform learners of what the right usage or the wrong one is (Kepner, 1991; Huang, 2004). Ferris (2006) propose the similar definition that the teacher feedback was any response a teacher may give for the students' needs. Teacher feedback serves a function of raising the learners' achievement and moving them into the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Sheppard, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978). Revising with the feedback from teachers, learners can reach a higher level of accomplishment, like better organization of text or more skillful writing ability. In other words, feedback from teachers helps students know how they have done and what they have to do to be in line with the main ideas they intended to express (Goldstein, 2004).

When it comes to writing in a foreign language, teacher feedback becomes more important because foreign language learners are not familiar with the linguistic knowledge and the writing process. Without the teacher feedback, students are unable to see their errors and do not know how to improve their writing (Liu, 2010; Huang, 2004); for example, students tend to think in their native language and translate into the target language, hence it results in awkward expressions and the writing idea



becomes unclear. If teachers do not point out the grammatical errors and the unclear points, students might take them for granted and cannot find out by themselves.

According to the students' needs, teacher feedback consists of two main types: the error-oriented and the content-oriented feedback (Hyland, 2003). The focus of the feedback is affected by the trend of writing models and shifts with the change of the product and process models. As the trend goes on, a combination of the error-oriented and the content-oriented feedback is proposed as follows; the advantages and disadvantages of these three types of teacher feedback are reviewed as well.

### ***The Error-oriented Feedbacks***

In the 1980s, writing was understood according to the product model and feedback in this model was defined as error identification (Freedman, 1984, cited in Liu, 2010). Since the main idea of the product model was to follow proper linguistic form, the feedback tried to meet the accurate grammar rules (Brown, 2000). Thus, it targeted the grammatical features on the surface form and the sentence-level; because of its focus, it was named error-oriented feedback (Hyland, 2003).

Error-oriented feedback focused on grammatical and lexical features (Zamel, 1985). It dealt with the syntactic forms and emphasized the accuracy of student writing in a foreign language. Since the grammatical errors hindered the readers' understanding toward writing passages (Ferris, 1995b), feedback on form played an important role in solving such problems (Ferris, 2006; Zamel, 1985).

The advantage of the error-oriented feedback was to offer precise feedback toward grammatical errors (Sheppard, 1992). Error-oriented feedback pointed out where the error was and offered the accurate usage beside the error (Kim, 2004). This feedback helped students identify the errors consciously and know how to solve the erroneous usage (Freedman, 1984, cited in Liu, 2010). Therefore, learners could easily

understand and apply the teacher feedback (Sheppard, 1992). While learners were offered error-oriented feedback, they gained significant progress in eliminating grammatical errors (Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1997; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Ferris (2004) notes the error-oriented feedback did help student writers with immediate improvement and it also provided opportunities for students to learn to self-correct.

However, error-oriented feedback was considered to have the disadvantage of being judgmental (Kasper, 1995). Since the teacher feedback focused on the errors, more feedback meant more errors (Truscott, 2001). When students saw teacher's feedback, they received the discouraging signal telling them that their writing passages were not fine works. More errors connected to the inferior writing performance (Ehrlich & Zoltek, 2006). The teacher feedback became judgmental because it judged the writing work as right or wrong (Kasper, 1995; Dinnen & Collopy, 2009). Representing the negative association, the error-oriented feedback hurt learners' feelings (Truscott, 1996), made them less confident, reduced interest to write (Zamel, 1987; Ehrlich & Zoltek, 2006) and persuaded students to reduce the complexity of sentences (Sheppard, 1992).

In conclusion, both advantages and disadvantages of the error-oriented feedback could be seen in the reviewed research. The error-oriented feedback had its credits for the clear and easily-applied feedback, significant improvement after utilizing it, and for enhancing the ability to self-correct. However, it was criticized for being judgmental, hurting learners' feelings and persuading learners to reduce the sentence complexity.

### ***The Content-oriented Feedbacks***

During 1990s, writing was understood according to the process model. The main concern in this model was to communicate through writing. In this way, the feedback was defined as offering comments on the content of writing; hence, it was called the content-oriented feedback (Hyland, 2003).

For improving the content of students' writing work, the content-oriented feedback gave praise, criticisms and suggestions on writing ideas, organization, and paragraph arrangement (Ashwell, 2000). Content-oriented feedback emphasized more on the meaning of the text than grammar accuracy and it also encouraged writers to express their own opinion for communicating with audience via writing (Hyland, 2003).

Three advantages of the content-oriented feedback were proposed as follows. First, the content-oriented feedback guided learners to revise from holistic aspects (Goldstein, 2004). In the process model, the content-oriented feedback saw writing as a whole, and suggested advice for improving the content, such as clarifying the idea in the paragraph by using examples (Hyland, 2003). Secondly, the content-oriented feedback encouraged writers to express their own perspectives more clearly to avoid vague writing ideas (Goldstein, 2004). It took the writing as a means of communication with the audience, and encouraged the clear writing ideas to help successful communication (Ashwell, 2000). Thirdly, writers know their writings better from readers' viewpoints through the content-oriented feedback (Harmer, 2001). The content-oriented feedback expressed empathy and appreciation to the content (Harmer, 2001) and it also highly motivated writers to write (Zamel, 1985). With these three advantages, most related studies reported positive results while implementing the content-oriented feedback (Ferris, 1997; Zamel, 1985; Huang, 2009).

The weakness of the content-oriented feedback was its inability to create the successful revision. Some students could not apply the content-oriented feedback into their revision when the feedback was beyond students' comprehension level (Wu, 2006). Specifically, underachievers could hardly realize the content-oriented feedback and then they did not pay attention on it. To facilitate the efficiency of the content-oriented feedback, Wu (2006) suggested a face-to-face conference between teachers and underachievers to help them compose better revisions.

In sum, content-oriented feedback was well-known for providing suggestions from the holistic aspect (Goldstein, 2004), encouraging writers to express their own opinion (Hyland, 2003; Goldstein, 2004; Ashwell, 2000) and guiding writers to know the feedback from the audience (Harmer, 2001). On the other hand, the drawback was that the feedback could not be understood and utilized by the underachievers (Wu, 2006).

### ***The Combination of Two Feedback Types***

Since both the error-oriented and the content-oriented feedback had their own merits and defects, researchers proposed a type of feedback that combines these two feedback types (Ashewell, 2000; Camhi, 2001; Camhi, 2004; Fathman & Whalley, 1990 ; Zamel, 1985). The combination feedback was considered to concentrate equally on the sentence-level grammar and the content (Camhi, 2004) and provided suggestions on both the form and the content (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008).

One advantage of the combination feedback was being flexible (Eisenstein, 1983). It could be adjusted for various student types. The combination feedback varied for fitting in different learners' background knowledge and learning habits, for example, for inductive learners, the combination feedback offered samples for them to explore the rules and skills; on the other hand, for those who learned deductively, it provided

principles to apply (Eisenstein, 1983). The other advantage of the combination feedback was its efficacy (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008). According to Camhi and Ebsworth (2008) participants receiving the combination feedback showed better passing rates than others on an institutional test. Furthermore, students' positive attitudes toward the combination feedback were also revealed in the same study (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008).

The first weakness of the combination feedback was confusing for students (Zamel, 1985). In Zamel's (1985) study, the participants considered the combination feedback as difficult to interpret. Since providing the marks on the grammatical errors and the comments on the content at once, the combination feedback was criticized for being arbitrary and caused participants to be out of focused. The second weakness was increasing learners' insecurity (Fathman & Whalley, 1990). Participants showed more anxiety when receiving the combination feedback since they were not sure whether they could understand and apply it into revisions at once (Fathman & Whalley, 1990). The third weakness came from the learners' distraction (Ashewell, 2000). While students were receiving the combination feedback, they paid more attention to the form feedback than that of the content feedback, thus, the content feedback was relatively ignored in the combination feedback (Ashewell, 2000).

All in all, the combination feedback had its own advantages for being flexible to various students (Eisenstein, 1983) and having efficacy in a case study (Camhi & Ebsworth, 2008). Nevertheless, the disadvantages were being confusing (Zamel, 1985), increasing students' insecurity (Fathman & Whalley, 1990) and being distracting to learners (Ashewell, 2000).

These three types of teacher feedback mentioned above are different from their purposes and content. After choosing one type of feedback, teachers may think about

how they can provide feedback and what feedback; for instance, in the direct, the indirect, coded or uncoded way. Thus, different teacher feedback formats were covered in the following parts.

### ***Different Teacher Feedback Formats***

Different categorizations of teacher feedback are reviewed first; then, the definitions, examples and effect of the feedback formats are illustrated in the following. Ferris and Roberts (2001) classified the teacher feedbacks into two categories, the direct and the indirect. Based on these two feedback formats, the indirect feedback was divided into two types, the coded and the uncoded formats (Bitchener et al., 2005; Robb et al., 1986). Furthermore, in Chandler's study (2003), the coded feedback was separated again into two formats, one was for the description alone and the other was for the underlining with description. In addition, Kroll (2001) noted one more detailed categorization including four teacher feedback formats, such as the direct, the indirect, the coded and the marginal feedback. The formats of the teacher feedback were varied to meet the learners' needs (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Bitchener et al., 2005), in the following parts, the feedback formats related to the current study are illustrated in order to know more complete information.

*Direct and Indirect Feedbacks.* The first category of teacher feedback is direct and indirect correction. The former was defined as crossing errors out and providing the correct usage beside the crossed errors, while the latter was to point out errors without giving the correct usage (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Bitchener et al., 2005; Kroll, 2011); As example 1 below, the teacher will underline the error (*have*) and write the correct word (*has*) right under it.

Example 1: John <u>have</u> a pencil. has
--

The indirect correction is that teachers merely point out the errors by giving a hint such as circling or underlining, then, the students should figure out the correct form and revise the errors on their own (Bitchener et al., 2005; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Take the above sentence as an example, the teacher merely underlines the error without offering any written hint (as example 2 below).

Example 2: *John have a pencil.*

Both the indirect and direct feedback serve the same function of reminding students the position of the error. The difference between these two was that the direct feedback provided the accurate usage immediately while the indirect feedback required learners to think and work out the correct answer by themselves (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Bitchener et al., 2005; Kroll, 2011).

Compared with the indirect feedback, it was reported that students preferred the direct feedback since it was easy to understand and effortless to apply (Ferris & Roberts, 2001), to be clearer, receiving the direct feedback, learners only needed to read the teacher feedback, transcribed it into revisions without working out the accurate usage (Kroll, 2001). As for the efficacy of these two feedbacks, direct feedback showed better error-reduction ratio in the accuracy of students' revision (Chandler, 2003) but when it came to the long-term effect, the indirect feedback showed superior retention (Ferris, 2004).

*Coded and Uncoded Feedbacks.* Lalande (1982) defined coded feedback as to give a correction code to point out the types and locations of errors. For example, the code SV represented the subject-verb agreement, as shown in example 3. Students need to memorize the codes or look it up from a list (see Appendix F).

Example 3: *My mother have a pen.*  
SV



As for the uncoded feedback, it was defined that teachers only pointed out the error with markings such as underlining or circling (Bitchener et al., 2005). The format of the uncoded feedback was similar to the indirect feedback mentioned above.

For both the coded and uncoded feedbacks, teachers played a role of facilitators but not the answer providers (Lalande, 1982; Chandler, 2003); the learners needed to work out the accurate form of the sentence on their own. Receiving the coded and uncoded feedback, students showed different performance in different revisions. In the immediate revision, the students receiving coded feedback showed better improvement, but with the uncoded feedback, students did better in the subsequent revisions. In addition, students' attitude was not in accordance with the accuracy of their revision, they preferred the coded feedback to the uncoded feedback (Chandler, 2003). The participants considered that they learned the most from the coded feedback, but in fact, they performed better while receiving the uncoded feedback. Chandler (2003) stated the positive effect of the uncoded feedback. However, the negligible effect between the coded and uncoded feedback was noted in Ferris and Roberts' (2001) study.

*Description-alone and Description with Underlining Feedbacks.* These two formats of teacher feedback were both provided in the margins. One was for the description alone in the margin and the other was for the marginal description with underlining (Chandler, 2003). For instance, the feedback with marginal description alone is shown as example 4.

Example 4: *She said Love was very important.*

Capitalization

The other format of the marginal description feedback was that teachers provided the description with underlining (Chandler, 2003). Take the above sentence as an example: teachers underline the error and offer the description of the error type in the



margin (as example 5 below). These two marginal feedbacks were written beside the text in the margin, delivering the information for revision (Ferris, 1997) or indicating the incorrect use of meaning (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Example 5: *She said Love was very important.*

Capitalization

Comparing these two formats, the marginal description feedback with underlining helped students gain better improvement than the marginal description feedback (Chandler, 2003). Participants gained more accuracy over the 10-week treatment and nearly half of them expressed their preference for the marginal description feedback with underlining. Students considered it to be the most helpful teacher feedback to help them know the error types (Chandler, 2003).

Since the participants in the current study were in the elementary school level and English is their foreign language, the writing works were defined as sentence writing in the student workbooks and the teacher feedback focused on the form instead of the content. Thus, to offer teacher feedback in the study, the researcher adopted the first type of the feedback as the indirect feedback (IDF) with the concept hint in Chinese under the error, and the second as direct feedback (DF) with the correct form right under the error.

### **Related Studies on Teacher Feedback**

Different feedback implementation leads to various effects (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1995b; Santos, López-Serrano & Manchón, 2010; Rahimi, 2008). This section includes the different feedbacks conducted in ESL and EFL contexts. Then, the impact on the current study is listed as follows. At last, the related studies covering students' attitudes are reviewed and their influence on the present study is finally discussed.

### *Studies in ESL Context*

Numerous studies had explored on the effect of different teacher feedbacks on learners' writing (Ferris, 2004, 2006; Semke, 1984; Kepner, 1991); four studies are discussed in this part. First, Ferris' (2004) review article and his experiment (Ferris, 2006) were proposed since these two studies included the related research from the year of 1984 to 2006. His review article covered what other researchers did in the field of teacher feedback and helped the current study work from the foundation of the previous studies. Furthermore, his study in 2006 stated a specific experiment to support his viewpoint. Secondly, Semke's (1984) study was brought out because he compared more types than other related studies. His study covered four types of teacher feedback, including comment feedback, error correction, the combination of comment and error correction, and error identification. Moreover, his treatment was similar to the current study, that is, the error correction was the same type as the direct teacher feedback in the present study while the error identification represented the indirect style. Thirdly, Kepner's (1991) experiment was mentioned because it divided the participants into two groups according to their verbal ability. This experiment provided an example for grouping students according to their language proficiency.

Ferris (2004) proposed that researchers should keep providing the error-oriented teacher feedback for three major reasons: (1) the research data had not been sufficient for the conclusion of abolishing the error-oriented feedback; (2) since the experiments holding the negative view of error-oriented feedback were lacked of consistency of design, the results were incomparable and could not be used against the error-oriented feedback; (3) the existing studies predicted the positive result of the error-oriented feedback. In his study, 92 university students in an ESL class were provided five different error-oriented feedbacks, such as, the direct, the indirect with standard code,

the indirect with no code, the indirect with nonstandard code and the unnecessary feedback. Since the feedbacks were provided by 86 teachers instead of one researcher, some of the feedbacks were considered unnecessary. The writing errors were calculated before and after receiving these five feedback types. Eighty-eight percent of all the errors corrected by the direct feedback were revised successfully. On the other hand, 77 percent of the errors corrected by the indirect feedback were revised accurately. The participants had even better revisions after receiving the unnecessary feedback; the participants changed 80 percent of all the marked words and improved their writing. The findings suggested the positive effect on both direct and indirect feedback. Ferris (2006) proposed the error types with significant improvement, such as, spelling, singular and plural noun, verb tense and subject-verb agreement.

On the other hand, Semke (1984) included four types of feedback, such as, the content-oriented, the error-oriented feedback, the combination feedback, and the error identification. One hundred and forty-one German university students participated in a 10-week study and were divided into four groups: teachers' comments and questions on the content, markings on all errors with correct form, both comments and error corrections, and the error identification. The last group, receiving error identification, was expected to correct errors on their own and rewrite the writing after receiving teachers' markings on their works. The result showed no significant difference on writing accuracy among these four groups. One crucial point that should be noted was that the group receiving both comment and error corrections significantly lower scores and negative attitudes than the other three groups. This result implied that teacher feedback on errors was not helpful and even caused detrimental effects on learning. There are two issues to be reconsidered. First, there was only one group required to rewrite the assignment but all the participants replied on the attitude questionnaire.

The negative attitude from group four might be because of the rewriting labor instead of the correction style. Second, the pre-test scores were not provided in the study. While the researcher claimed there was no significant improvement after the treatment, only the post-test result was presented. Thus, the test result, the insignificant improvement, was not supported by statistic data.

Another study included the students' verbal ability in the experiment design, but it was found that students' verbal abilities were irrelevant to the application of error correction. Kepner (1991) divided 60 Spanish college students into two groups. One was for the error-oriented feedback and the other was for the content-oriented feedback. In the former group, the researcher offered correction on sentence-level errors and provided a brief explanation via concise rules. As for the latter, the researcher provided comments with four elements: student name, summarization of the main idea, evaluative description and a question or one piece of suggestion about the content. Besides the two feedback forms, the researcher divided the participants by their English verbal competence into higher and lower verbal ability groups. In the error-oriented group, the result showed negligible difference between higher and lower verbal ability groups. Also, the error correction and the brief grammar note were ineffective on improving students' writing accuracy. However, the content-oriented comment presented effectiveness on improving the quality of content and the accuracy of surface-level in both higher and lower verbal ability groups. The outcome of this experiment highlighted the unsuccessful application of error correction and grammar rule explanation, but promoted the function of content comment. The first uncertain point was argued by Ferris (2004). In the post measurement, the error-oriented group reduced 15 % more errors than the content-oriented group but the result was interpreted as ineffective; secondly, the other unsure point was the pre-test data, it was

not listed in the study so that the improvement between the pre- and post-tests cannot be compared. Third, another doubtful point was that the experiment considered the journal entry written at home as the instrument of the post-test, the assignment at home could include various variables.

In brief, the above mentioned studies held positive and negative views toward the teacher feedback. Ferris (2004) noted that the error-oriented teacher feedback should not be excluded. Moreover, the direct and the indirect feedback helped students improve significantly; that is, the direct feedback had better effect in the short-term but the indirect feedback showed better retention in the long-term (Ferris, 2006). However, Semke (1984) and Kepner (1991) proposed the negative viewpoint toward the teacher feedback. After providing the content-oriented feedback, error-oriented feedback and the combination of these two, they found negligible improvement from students' writing (Semke, 1984; Kepner, 1991). These studies provided not only the different viewpoints towards teacher feedback but also that it had great impact on the experiment of the current study.

According to Ferris (2006), after receiving the direct and indirect teacher feedback, the error types had significantly reduced, such as, spelling, singular and plural noun, verb tense and subject-verb agreement. These error types were included in the current study to see if they could be reduced in the primary school context as well. Besides, Ferris (2006) suggested the positive effect on both direct and indirect feedbacks. This conclusion brought the inspiration to the current study to explore the effect of these two different teacher feedbacks in the EFL context. Moreover, since Ferris (2006) stated that the participants had better retention with the indirect feedback than the direct feedback; the current study conducted a retention test for detecting whether these two teacher feedbacks benefit on students' retention differently.

As for Semke's (1984) study, only one group was required to rewrite the assignment and the pre-test scores were not provided. With these two concerns, the current study required both two groups to rewrite sentences after receiving feedbacks and the pre-test scores were also collected for the comparison between the pre- and the post-tests.

Taking Kepner's (1991) study into consideration, his study was questioned because the error-oriented group reduced 15 % more errors than the content-oriented group but the result was interpreted as ineffective; in addition, the experiment considered the journal entry written at home as the instrument of the post test but the assignment at home could include various variables. With these speculative points in mind, the current study listed out the data of the pre-test and post-test to clarify the difference between these two scores. Moreover, the researcher required participants to do all the assignment at school, including the workbook, the correction work and the pre- and post-tests.

In short, the current studies was designed with the impact from the ESL studies, for instance, the direct, the indirect feedback and the retention test were included. Besides, both two groups of the participants were asked to rewrite the erroneous sentences to avoid any differences between the two groups. Lastly, when it came to data analysis, the pre-test data was compared with the post-test for gathering more convincing data.

### ***Studies in EFL Context***

Besides the research in the ESL context, several studies had been conducted in the EFL contexts, to investigate the efficacy of different teacher feedbacks on learners' writing. Three studies conducted in different places of the EFL context are reviewed in this part, e.g. in Japan, in China and in Taiwan.

Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986) conducted a study in Japan. 134 Japanese college students enrolled in a period of 23 English composition classes over 8 months, and were divided into four groups. The first group received explicit correction on errors while the second group received the correction codes, indicating different error types. The third group received no written feedback but their errors were highlighted and the fourth group got the numbers of error in the margin by sentence. Among these different ways of correction, there was no significant difference to support the effect of error correction. What worth seen as a concern was that the lack of the control group; four groups received different feedback forms and all of them could be seen as the experimental groups, one group receiving no error correction should be conducted in this experiment so that the result could be more convincing. The result reported that the progress in four groups were similar, meaning all the four feedbacks had the same influence on the participants, thus, it was hard to tell which feedback was ineffective. Therefore, the interpretation of the result was worth reconsidering.

The similar data was noted in Chinese EFL context by Wang and Hu (2010). 95 Chinese university students were grouped into two; the experimental group received the indirect error correction, defined as underlining the problematic words and pointing out the error type in Chinese, such as, spelling (拼字), tense (時態), or preposition (介係詞用法); while the control group had no error correction. After the 12-week treatment, the experimental group outperformed on self-repair ability, writing accuracy and overall composition quality. To be more specific, the indirect feedback helped students improve significantly.

Huang (2009) shifted the age of the participants into Taiwanese senior high school level. Thirty-six third graders participated in the experiment for five months. Twelve error types were decreased in ratio after receiving teacher feedback though the



writing accuracy had not been significantly improved. As for the students' attitude, learners preferred the coded correction than the direct correction because of the concern of being lazy. They expected the coded correction would lead them to learning autonomy. Huang's (2009) study had made influence on the current study with the 12 targeted errors.

To conclude, these three studies were conducted in different places of EFL contexts and gained different results for the efficacy of teacher feedback. Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986) noted that there was no significant improvement among four groups after receiving different teacher feedbacks. On the other hand, Wang and Hu (2010) stated that the indirect feedback helped participants significantly on three following aspects: The self-repair ability, writing accuracy and the overall writing quality. In Taiwan, the finding was that though the overall writing accuracy has not been significantly improved, the 12 targeted errors were reduced in different degrees after receiving the teacher feedback (Huang, 2009). These studies proposed different findings and also stated different experiment designs. Bearing the concerns of the previous research in mind, some changes had been made in the current study.

Firstly, Robb, Ross and Shortreed's (1986) study brought up a controversial issue which was the lack of the control group. That is, the researchers did not include one group receiving no teacher feedback as the control group. The same limitation was also seen in the current study. In Taiwanese primary school contexts, the error-oriented teacher feedback was obligatory, in other words, it is necessary for teachers to correct the students' errors and it is not permitted to ignore the student errors; therefore, the current study included two groups of participants with different teacher feedbacks without any group receiving no teacher feedback on the writing errors.



Secondly, based on Wang and Hu's (2010) study, two adjustments had been made in the current study. For one thing, since this study conducted the Chinese error feedback describing the error types, the current study conducted the similar error feedback in Chinese to help the primary students fully understand the teacher feedback. For another, this study brought up the issue of self-repair ability; the current study added the related question into the questionnaire to know more about the participants' attitude toward the self-repair ability.

Thirdly, on the basis of Huang's (2009) study, two modifications were made as following. The first modification is the selection of the targeted errors in the current study. Huang (2009) noted that 12 errors were reduced after receiving teachers' feedback and they were the "treatable errors" (cited from Ferris, 2006). According to Ferris' definition, treatable errors were defined as the errors that can be reduced with teachers' correction. Among these 12 treatable errors, four of them were related to the teaching content of the current study, including preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement. These four error types were selected as the targeted errors in the current study. Besides, the researcher added the misspelling error into the four error types in reference to Hung (2007) and Huang (2009). According to Hung (2007), the misspelling error was 34 percent of all errors in a primary school context. Huang (2009) corresponded that misspelling was the most common error in a senior high school; therefore, the researcher added misspelling into the targeted errors. The number of the targeted errors became five, including misspelling, preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement. The second modification was to analyze the reducing ratio of errors. Huang's (2009) study analyzed the reducing ratio of errors in order to be familiar with the different improvements on different errors. The current study also focused on the reducing ratio of the targeted errors for investigating the

effects of the two teacher feedbacks.

In a word, these three studies in the EFL contexts had four major effects on the current study. First, since Wang and Hu (2010) applied the Chinese error feedback describing the error types, the current study conducted the similar error feedback in Chinese to help the participants understand. Second, the questions related to the self-repair ability were conducted in the questionnaire of the current study because Wang and Hu (2010) brought up the issue of the self-repair ability. Third, Huang (2009) suggested 12 targeted errors and investigated the different effects on different errors; this inspired the researcher to include 5 targeted errors according to the teaching content. Fourth, considering Huang's (2009) data analysis, the current study also analyzed the data by the five targeted errors to know the different effects of two teacher feedbacks.

#### ***Studies Related to Students' Attitudes***

As shown in previous discussion, the efficacy of teacher feedbacks varied because of the different types of teacher feedback or different contexts. Wu (2006) noted that the learners' attitudes could have a great influence on the efficacy of the teachers' feedback. The studies related to the student's attitude are discussed in this part to know more about the perception of the students.

Huang (2009) conducted a questionnaire to know students' attitude after receiving different teacher feedbacks. Though receiving different teacher feedbacks, students considered their motivation and confidence were raised and they improved in three aspects: the grammar, the organization and the content of writing. Moreover, they favored the combination of the coded feedback and the direct feedback because the coded feedback helped them have a better understanding toward the error types and the learners could receive the accurate usage from the direct feedback. The

participants took a positive view toward the teacher feedbacks and thought of the teacher feedback as a learning motivation. Combining the test result of Huang's (2009) study, the overall writing quality was improved 1.36 points from the pre to the post test. It showed that the preference of the interviewees was in accordance with the test result.

Huang (2004) echoes the idea that students acknowledged the teacher feedback; 38 third graders in a senior high school were divided into two groups according to their English proficiency. After receiving the coding correction for one semester, most participants showed their preference on coding correction, the indirect error correction type, indicated the most successful correction categories were spelling, word usage and sentence structure. All participants considered teacher feedback was beneficial on grammatical aspect. Regarding the holistic scores of four compositions, the scores improved at a steady pace in both groups and the  $p$  values showed significantly difference ( $p = .013 < .05$ ;  $p = .012 < .05$ ) in both groups. The statistical result corresponded to the learners' attitudes.

Considering the students' preference towards the formats of the teacher feedback, Huang (2006) noted that the indirect feedback, the coded feedback with underlining, was favored by the senior high school students since they had higher English proficiency and tended to find out solutions by themselves. In his study, 67 freshmen and sophomores in a college were randomly divided into two groups for the underlining feedback or the coded feedback with underlining for 16 weeks. The test result showed that the group receiving the coded feedback with underlining had significant improvement on accuracy while the other group had negligible progress. The participants' preference was corresponded to the test result on the accuracy, which means, the students' attitudes were in accordance with the efficacy of indirect teacher

feedback.

Wu (2003) conducted one attitude questionnaire to 94 senior high school students and proposed that most students were fond of the direct feedback. They preferred teachers to mark on their writing errors and provide the accurate usage as an example for them. The study did not include any experiments so it only revealed the students' preference toward different types of teacher feedbacks.

In sum, the previous studies showed that the student's attitude was positive toward the teacher feedback (Huang, 2009; Huang, 2004; Huang, 2006; Wu, 2003), in other words, students believed the teacher feedback was needed and was considered as a motivation of learning (Huang, 2009). The students' attitudes were in accordance with their performance on tests (Huang, 2004), that is, when learners considered the teacher feedback was beneficial to them. The test score also showed the significant improvement. While the students highly valued the teacher feedback, it was beneficial on their revisions at the same time. Since these articles were concentrated on the participants from the senior to the college level, the current study conducted survey questionnaire with the primary school students to see their attitude toward the different teacher feedbacks.

### **Chapter Summary**

Based on the discussion in this chapter, most of previous studies (Ferris, 2006; Sheppard, 2005; Goldstein, 2004; Huang, 2004) stated that teacher feedback had an influence on students' writing work. Meanwhile, some researchers (Hyland, 2003; Ferris, 1995b; Liu, 2010) also suggested that teachers might adopt different types of teacher feedback to meet their learners' needs and to facilitate their writing. Additionally, a few studies (Huang, 2004; Huang, 2006; Huang, 2009; Wu, 2003) have suggested that students' preference toward different types of teacher feedback.

Students preferred different types of teacher feedback but most of the study results showed that learners tended to consider the teachers' feedback beneficial.

However, most of the previous studies on teacher feedback were conducted to higher levels, such as, senior high, college and university students. Hardly any studies focused on the effect of teacher feedback in elementary school contexts in Taiwan. Though Hung (2007) had analyzed the errors on student writing in a primary school context, he only analyzed the frequency of different errors instead of focusing on the effect of teacher feedback. Besides, Huang (2009) had investigated the efficacy of different types of teacher feedback. The context in his study was in a Taiwanese senior high school and the student writing work in Huang's study was defined as the composition writing. Moreover, Huang (2004), Huang (2006) and Wu (2003) had explored on the students' attitudes toward teacher feedbacks, but the contexts were all in senior high schools.

After reviewing these previous studies, there is a necessity of more studies to investigate on the effect of teacher feedback in the primary school context. Since one of the major goals of the new language policy for elementary level set by the MOE is to enhance learners' sentence writing ability. The present research aimed at investigating the effect of teacher feedback on learners' sentence writing. Also, the attitudes and motivation toward English learning through the implementation of different types of teacher feedback were investigated in this study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter starts with the aims of the study. Then, the focus is on a discussion of the instrument used for collecting data and the procedure of the experiment, followed by the methods of the data analysis.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the effect of teachers' indirect feedback (IDF) and direct feedback (DF) on elementary school students' sentence writing. The study also aimed at examining their attitudes toward the implementation of IDF and DF on their English learning.

#### **Participants**

The participants in this study were two classes of sixth graders from a public primary school in Hsin Chu County, and one class was the IDF group and the other was the DF group. The IDF group was the experimental group that comprised 33 students receiving the indirect teacher feedback. Another 33 students served as a control group receiving the traditional teacher feedback which was the direct teacher feedback. English Writing Proficiency Test (EWPT) was conducted to examine whether the two groups were at the similar language proficiency level at the beginning, and there was no significant difference in the results ( $t = -6.28$ ).

During the experimental phase in 2011, all the participants had three 40-minute lessons per week, taught by the same English teacher, and were using the same textbook. It should be noted that all the participants had English classes at school from grade one to grade five, that is, two 40-minute lessons per week and most of them had participated in different private English learning institutions after school.

## **Instrument**

This study employed two types of instrument to achieve the purpose of this study: an English writing proficiency test (EWPT) and an English learning attitudes questionnaire (ELAQ), the face validity and reliability of these two instruments were examined respectively as following.

### ***English Writing Proficiency Test (EWPT)***

In order to measure the effect of IDF and DF on subjects' sentence writing accuracy, an English writing proficiency test (EWPT) (see Appendix A) was used as the pre-, post- and retention test in the study. It included 35 questions and was divided into four parts: circle the correct word in sentences, multiple choice questions, revising the error and short questions as discussed below.

The first part in EWPT was to circle the correct word in sentences. The purpose was to know if learners could apply the grammatical knowledge correctly. The question was presented as a sentence with two optional words, for instance, How are/is Mark? Learners will read the sentence and will circle one word from the two options and the circled word should make the sentence grammatically correct. Regarding the scoring criteria, one point was given if the accurate word was circled. Zero point for inaccurate answer and no answer. The sentences were designed according to five targeted error types, such as, misspelling, preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement. Two sentences were designed for one error type to confirm if the participants actually knew the grammatical knowledge, thus, 10 sentences were distributed and the total score was 10 points in this part.

The questions in part two were multiple choice questions. According to William (1998), students should be able to find out where the error was, then, they could try to correct the error. The purpose of this part was to know if learners were able to

recognize the targeted error in sentences. The format of question was presented in the sample below.

(     ) 1. How is the girls?  
(A)            (B)            (C)

The participants read each sentence and chose the error from three options. As for the criteria, one point was given for each question when the accurate option was chosen, otherwise, zero point would be provided. The questions were designed in reference to the five targeted errors, two questions for each error type; therefore, 10 questions were conducted and the total score of part two was 10 points.

As for part three, revising the error, the purpose was to assess students' self-repair ability. This part required students to correct the error with the other word. The sample question was showed as below.

\_\_\_\_\_ 1. How is the girls?

Participants need to think and revise one word from the three options; the revised word should make the sentence grammatically correct. Considering the scoring system, one point was given to each sentence when the revised word was correct. On the other hand, zero point would be given for the wrong answer or no reply, thus, 10 points were the total of this part. What is worth to know was that 10 sentences in this part were the same sentences in part two. Since the only difference between these two parts was the students' reply. When the participants scored differently in these two parts, the score showed their self-repair abilities in different levels. For example, if student A could answer part two correctly but not in part three, this meant that he or she has the ability of recognizing the errors instead of the ability of correcting them.



Part four was designed for short questions. Since the study focused on the sentence writing ability, the purpose of this part was to know how they improved on sentence writing. Five questions and pictures were provided as the sample question below.

Q: What does David like to do in the park?

A: \_\_\_\_\_



Participants read and answered with complete sentences. Two points were given on each question if the answered sentence was correct. One point was given if the sentence was partly correct. Zero point was given for three situations, including, no answer, the sentence that could not be understood or the sentence with any errors from the five targeted errors. In this part, two points per question so that the total score was 10 point.

Adding these four parts together, 10 points from each part, the total score of EWPT was 40 points. As for the number of the question, 10 questions from the first three parts and 5 questions from part four, 35 questions were conducted in total. The sample questions, number of question and score of each part were listed as table 1 as below.

Table 1

## Sample Questions of EWPT

Part	Question	Number of question	Score
1	How are/is Mark?	10	10
2	( ) <u>How</u> is <u>the</u> <u>girls</u> ? (A) (B) (C)	10	10
3	_____ <u>How</u> is <u>the</u> <u>girls</u> ?	10	10
4	Where are you going?	5	10
Total		35	40

*The Face Validity of EWPT.* The EWPT was examined by the face validity; the purpose was to revise any questions that were unclear or hard to answer for the participants. The EWPT was assessed through the expert validity. Two English teachers from primary schools and two professors from universities evaluated the instrument; with their advice, the modification of the EWPT was made in week 1.

Regarding the advice from teachers, three advices were proposed below, first, part one, unscramble, might be too difficult to understand, such as, Mark? are is how. The question format was revised into circling the correct word in sentences, like, How are/is Mark? Second, the sequence of parts should be arranged from easy to hard, the sequence of part one and two should be exchanged. Since part one was already revised into circling the correct word, the original sequence of these two parts was kept. Third, in part four, No. 2, the hospital picture was unclear, and thus, the revision included a red cross symbolizing the hospital



Where are you going?



In the professors' perspective, three suggestions were noted as the following. First, in part one, No. 6, two possible answers could be responded for this item, They are to going at the zoo. The possible answers could be *they are at the zoo* or *they are going to the zoo*. Thus, the revised question was as follow: They are to/ at the zoo. Second, in part one, No. 9 and No. 10, two questions for spelling, the professor was wondering the objective of them. Since the format of two questions was not in accordance with the format of part one, the professor was wondering if these two had different objectives from the others. To deal with this concern, No. 9 was revised as we are at the beach/ baech (海灘); and No. 10 was fixed into he is in a restaurant/restuarant (餐廳). Third, in part two, find the error. No. 9, ( )\_\_\_\_ (A) Peter is in the resturant. The professor suggested that spelling was scarcely to be seen (B) (C) in this test format, consequently, this item was revised as ( ) 9.選出對的字。

(A)palying (B)playing (C)paly. The suggestions from teachers and professors were summarized in Appendix D.

In a word, the EWPT was modified with the advice of two English teachers and two professors. In addition, the EWPT was examined by the internal consistency reliability as follows.

*The Internal Consistency Reliability of EWPT.* The internal consistency reliability of the EWPT was tested by Tester 2.0 and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient respectively. The purpose was to revise if there were any items with low internal consistency reliability. After conducting the EWPT, the data was collected and tested in week 3 of the first

semester. The internal consistency reliability of the EWPT from part one to four, were 0.81, 0.78, 0.87 and 0.8 respectively and the internal consistency reliability of the EWPT was 0.82.

### ***English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (ELAQ)***

An English learning attitude questionnaire, adapted from Carreira's (2006) Motivation and Attitudes toward Learning English Scale for Children (MALESC), was used to investigate the learners' attitudes after the experiment. In order to make the questionnaire more suitable for the context of primary schools, the modification had been made with reference to the English Writing Attitude Questionnaire of Haung's (2009) and the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire of Chang's (2011) for the current study.

The ELAQ (see Appendix B) included 2 parts: background information and the attitude towards English learning. In the first part, there were 2 items used to find out the students' English learning experience. In the second part, 21 items were included and divided into 7 sections (as shown in Appendix C): interest in foreign countries (3 items), motivation of future school or employment (3 items), parents' encouragement (3 items), instrumental motivation (3 items), anxiety (3 items), attitudes about the treatment (4 items) and self-evaluation after the treatment (2 items).

According to Dörnyei (2003), an even number of response options were created to avoid the participants from choosing the neutral category without expressing their own opinions. Therefore, this research applied a four-point Likert scale to the response options (*i.e. strongly agree = 4, agree = 3, disagree = 2, strongly disagree = 1*).

*The Face Validity of ELAQ.* The ELAQ was also examined by the face validity; the purpose was to revise any questions that were difficult to understand by the participants. The ELAQ was evaluated by two English teachers from primary schools

and two professors from universities for the expert validity; the modification of ELAQ had been made with the experts' opinions (see Appendix E) and the English version of ELAQ was shown as Appendix C.

According to the teachers' advice, five points were modified. First, in part two, section one, No. 2, I want to know many foreign friends. The description was revised as follow, if it is possible, I would like to write e-mail and contact with foreign friends. Second, in part two, section one, No. 3, I want to write the complete and correct English sentences since I want to contact foreign friends via written words. The wording was revised as: I want to write the complete and correct English sentences since I want to communicate with foreign friends with written words. Third, in part two, section four, No. 1, English class at school is so fun and it makes me to be interested while doing the work book. Since whether the English class is fun or not, it might not be the cause to affect the attitude of doing work books. The description was revised as: I like doing the work book. Fourth, in part two, section seven, No. 3, the way that teachers correct the work book has an influence on me about the motivation of English learning. The wording was simplified for students to understand as follow: the way that teachers correct the work book affects my English learning. Finally, all the question numbers were suggested to be changed into 1 to 22 to avoid confusion.

When it came to the suggestions from professors, three concerns in the ELAQ were pointed out, first, from the holistic aspect, the ELAQ emphasized on the workbook correction instead of the teaching and exercise in class, however, since none of teaching and exercise was special designed for the treatment, the related questions were not included in the ELAQ. Second, in part one, No. 1: Have you ever had any English classes outside of the school? One example was added in the description to make clearer, thus, the revision was as follow: Have you ever had any English classes

outside of the school (such as in the cram schools)? Secondly, in part two, the original section one was the interest in foreign countries and section three was the extrinsic motivation; both of them were considered as the extrinsic motivation, so that the topic was revised as, section one, the interest in foreign countries. Section two was revised as motivation of future school or employment. Thirdly, in part two, section two, No. 2: I learn English because it is important while I grow up. The question was suggested to revise as: I learn English because I can use it while traveling abroad.

In short, after the ELAQ was modified, the ELAQ was examined by the internal consistency reliability as below.

*The Internal Consistency Reliability of ELAQ.* The internal consistency reliability of ELAQ was examined by using Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient and the data was shown from section one to seven as follow: section one =.768; section two =.801; section three= .745; section four =.75; section five =.773; section six =.812; section seven = .281 and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient of the total was .892. Since Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient in section seven was lower than the average, one problematic question, question 22, had been deleted. Thus, the revised ELAQ had 21 questions in total.

## Procedures

Eight stages were included in the research procedure and each stage was discussed (as shows in Figure 1 below).

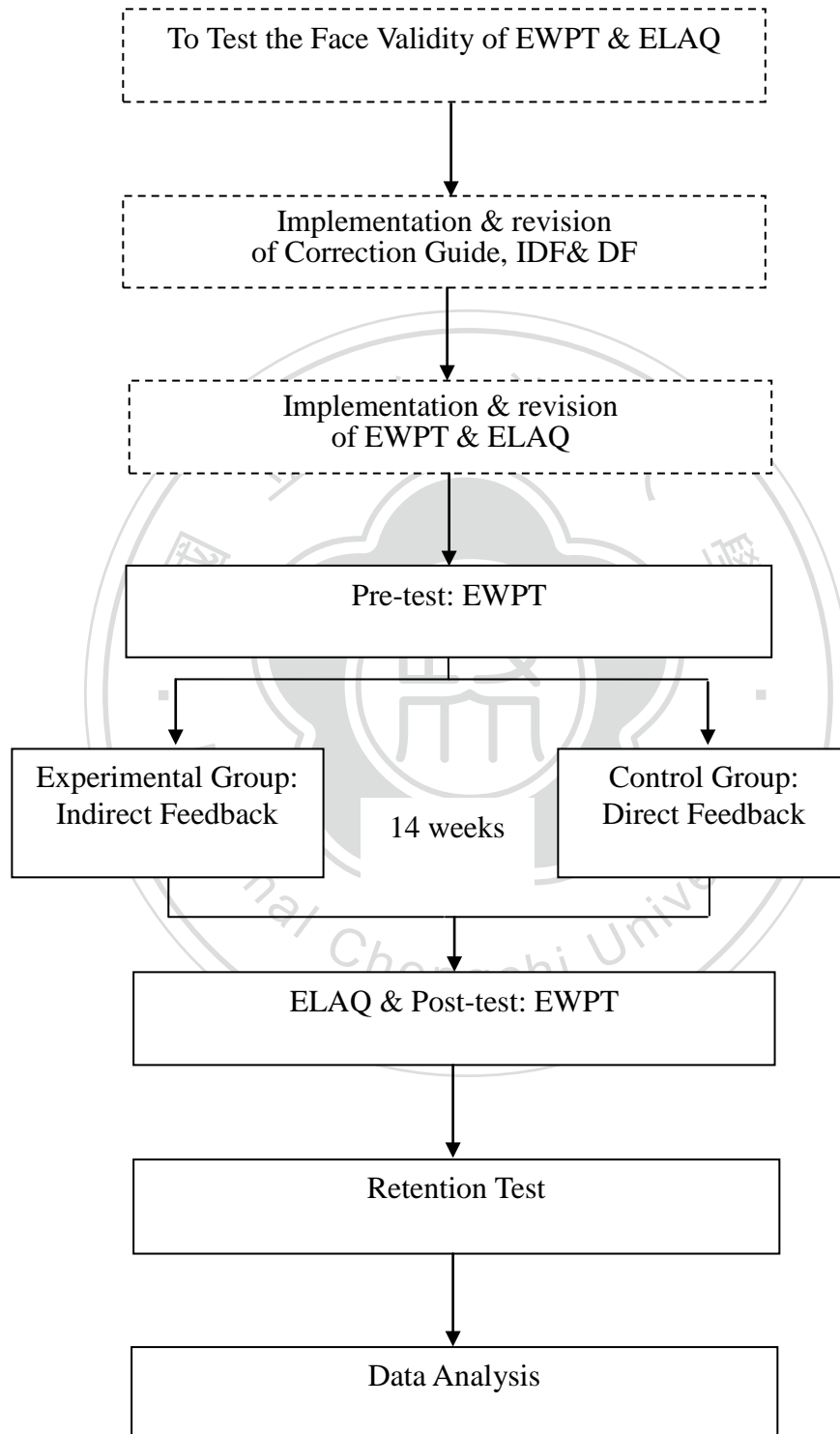


Figure 1 *Flow Chart of the Study*

### ***Step 1. The Face Validity of EWPT and ELAQ***

The purpose of this stage was to revise any questions that were unclear or too difficult to understand by the participants. The EWPT and ELAQ were evaluated by two English teachers from primary schools and two professors from universities for the expert validity; the modifications of these two instruments were made in reference to the experts' advice.

### ***Step 2. The Implementation and Revision of Correction Guide, IDF and DF***

The purpose was to implement the correction guide, IDF and DF to see if there were any points needed to be revised according to the students' response. Two sixth grade classes were participated three weeks before the main experiment. All the participants had three English lessons per week with the same English teacher.

In week 2 of the first semester, the correction guide (see Table 2) was passed out as a supplementary by the researcher without lecture on it. Students could ask questions if they did not understand the guide. The students were asked to glue the correction guide on the student workbooks in case that students need to make sure their understanding of the teachers' feedback. Following the correction guide, the IDF or DF was provided in different groups on the participants' workbooks in the second and the third classes during week 2.



Table 2

## A Correction Guide

Type	Chinese Correction	Sample Sentence
1. noun endings	名詞 (含單複數，集合名詞)	*They are my <u>friend</u> . *milks
2. prepositions	介系詞	* They have watermelon <u>in</u> Thursday. * The robot is <u>on</u> the table.
3. misspelling	拼錯字(含使用中文字)	*I like to <u>paly</u> . *She is my <u>firend</u> .
4. tense	時態(含現在簡單式、現在進行式)	*She <u>riding</u> a bike. *I'm <u>ride</u> a bike.
5. subject-verb agreement	主詞與動詞一致性	* She <u>have</u> a kite. * He <u>like</u> playing basketball. *They <u>is</u> singing

When the participants repeated the errors in the revision, the accurate answer would be provided by the researcher; then, the participants were asked to copy the accurate sentence once (shown as Figure 2). In this step, the student revisions of both groups were checked by the researcher and found no unusual response from the two groups of participants, thus, no adjustment had been made on the IDF, DF and the correction guide.

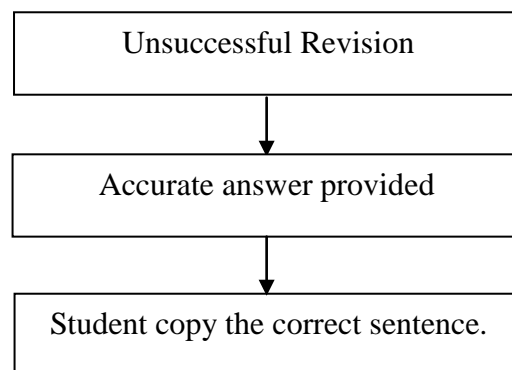


Figure 2 Revising Procedure of the Unsuccessful Revision

### ***Step 3. The Implementation and Revision of EWPT and ELAQ***

This step was to conduct the instruments, the EWPT and the ELAQ, and the purpose was to see if the participants could understand the questions of them. The EWPT and the ELAQ were conducted in week 3 and both groups were given 20 minutes for taking the EWPT, 15 minutes for the ELAQ respectively. Then, all the data was collected by the researcher. Since no noticeable problems while reviewing the students' response, the wording of the EWPT and the ELAQ were kept for the main study without revision.

After collecting the test result of the EWPT and the ELAQ, their internal consistency reliabilities were examined, the internal consistency reliability of the EWPT was 0.82. However, one of the questions in the ELAQ was problematic and caused Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient in section seven to be .281. The problematic question, question 22, had been deleted. Thus, the revised ELAQ had 21 questions in total.

### ***Step 4. Pre-test: EWPT***

The pre-EWPT was employed one week before the experiment, November 8<sup>th</sup> in 2011, so as to examine the English writing proficiency level of the two groups, the data of the pre EWPT was tested by the independent t-test and the t-value was -.628 which presented no significant difference between these two groups.

### ***Step 5. The Implementation of IDF and DF***

The IDF and the DF were conducted to two groups respectively for 14 weeks. The IDF group received the concept hint feedback in Chinese on student workbooks while the DF group received the accurate words under the errors. Both groups were expected to revise the sentences on their workbooks according to teacher's feedback. The participants were asked to return their correction, and then the researcher would correct their revision, provided the accurate answer if it was an unsuccessful revision.

The participants were asked to copy the accurate sentence for once.

***Step 6. ELAQ and Post-test: EWPT***

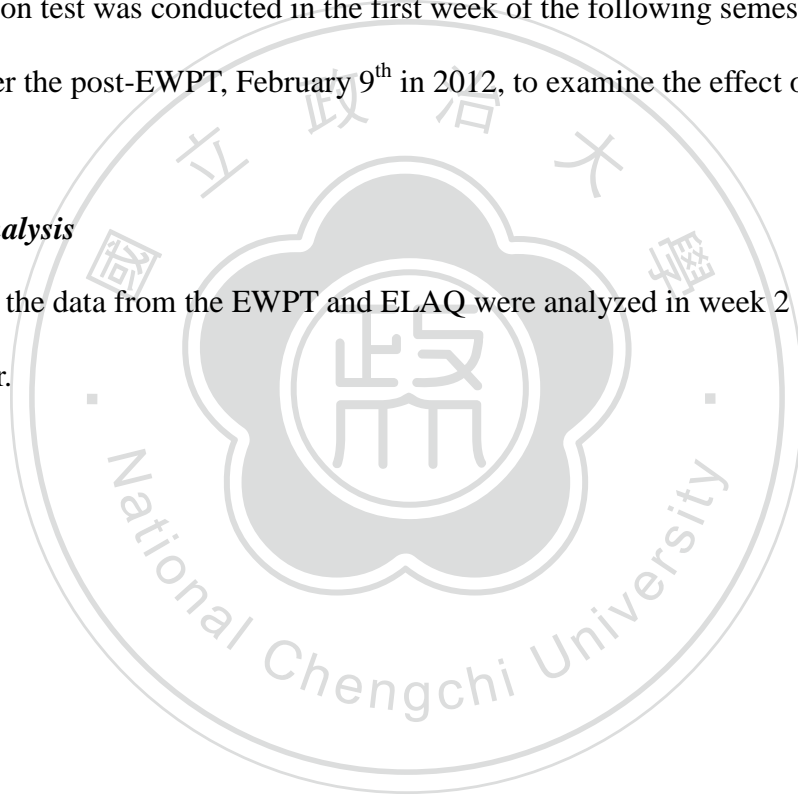
After the implementation of the IDF and the DF for 14 weeks, the post-EWPT was used to assess the subjects' learning progress and the ELAQ was conducted to know the students' attitudes toward the different teacher feedback types on January 13<sup>th</sup>, 2012.

***Step 7. Retention Test: EWPT***

The retention test was conducted in the first week of the following semester, i.e. three weeks after the post-EWPT, February 9<sup>th</sup> in 2012, to examine the effect of the treatment.

***Step 8. Data Analysis***

Finally, all the data from the EWPT and ELAQ were analyzed in week 2 of the second semester.



## Treatment

This section explains the five targeted errors and the two types of feedback (i.e. IDF and DF) in the study.

### *Five Targeted Errors*

The present research was in reference to Hung's (2007) study and adopted the "treatable errors" (p.13) from Huang's study (2009) as the five targeted errors. Five targeted errors were misspelling, preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement and followed by the reason why the researcher adopted them into the primary school context. The examples of the five targeted errors were listed as well.

According to Huang (2009), 12 errors were reduced after receiving teachers' feedback and they were the "treatable errors". Among these 12 treatable errors, four of them were related to the teaching content of the current study, including preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement. These four error types were selected as the targeted errors. Besides, the researcher added the misspelling error since Hung (2007) noted that the misspelling error was 34 percent of all errors in a primary school context. Huang (2009) corresponded that misspelling was the most common error in a senior high school, therefore, the number of the targeted errors became five, including misspelling, preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement.

*Misspelling Error.* The misspelling error was defined as the incorrect spelling, such as *paly* for play, *resturant* for restaurant.

*Preposition Error.* The preposition error was defined as the inaccurate application or ignorance of the preposition, for instance, *on* the morning for in the morning and *I went outside Thursday* for I went outside on Thursday.

*Noun Error.* The noun errors were defined as the errors of plural/singular noun to be clearer for participants to understand, for example, *playing card* for playing cards

and *a books* for books.

*Tense Error.* The tense error focused on the present continuous tense since it was the key point of the teaching material, for instance, *what do you doing?* for the question: what are you doing? *Where are they go?* for the question: where are they going?

*Subject-verb Agreement Error.* The error of subject-verb agreement was regarded as the subjects which were not matching with their verbs, or on the contrary, the verbs which were not in accordance with their subjects. Take two sentences for example, *how is the girls?* for *how is the girl?* *He go to the bank* for *he goes to the bank.*

Consequently, the five targeted errors in the present experiment were misspelling, preposition, noun, tense, and subject-verb agreement. Apart from these five errors, other errors will be marked merely by circling without any written feedback in both two groups.

### ***Two Types of the Teacher Feedback***

Three units and one review unit of the student textbook and the workbook were used as the teaching material, that is, in English Book 7, unit 2, review 1, unit 3, and 4.

The IDF and DF were conducted once per week and the researcher confirmed all the correction works, and both groups received feedback from the researcher and they were expected to revise their sentences according to the marks and written feedback, as presented below.

*Indirect Feedback (IDF).* Indirect feedback (IDF) was defined as the underlining with the concept hint in Chinese right under the error. The students were expected to revise according to teacher's indirect feedback (see as Figure 3). The accurate answer was offered directly when errors repeated again in the unsuccessful revision. The student was required to copy the correct sentence on the workbook for once.

**Indirect Feedback(IDF):** Underlines with a Chinese note explaining the concept

Student Sentence: *They has watermelon in Thursday.*

Teacher Feedback: 主詞動詞要一致 介系詞

Student Revision: *They have watermelon on Thursday.*

Figure 3 A Sample of IDF

*Direct Feedback (DF).* Direct feedback (DF) was defined as the underlining with the accurate answer (see as Figure 4). Since the DF group received the accurate model, there was no need to repeat the revising procedure. Students in the DF group were also required to copy the accurate sentence for once.

**Direct Feedback(DF):** Underlines with the correct answer

Student Sentence: *They has watermelon in Thursday.*

Teacher Feedback: have on

Student Revision: *They have watermelon on Thursday.*

Figure 4 A Sample of DF

## Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 19.0). All the data were classified into two types: the first was collected from the pre-EWPT, the post-EWPT and the retention EWPT, and the second was collected from the ELAQ. The significance level was set at  $<.05$  and  $.01$ .

An independent samples t-Test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the pre-EWPT to make sure there was no significant difference between the IDF and DF groups ( $t = -.628$ ). To answer research question 1, paired t-Tests were conducted to compare the pre-EWPT with the post-, the post- with the retention EWPT in the IDF group. To answer research question 2, paired t-Tests were used to compare the pre-EWPT with the post-, the post- with the retention EWPT in the DF group.

To answer research question 3, an independent samples t-Test was used to compare the mean scores of the post EWPT between the IDF and DF groups. Besides, an independent samples t-Test was used to compare the mean scores of the retention EWPT between IDF and DF groups.

To answer research question 4, an independent samples t-Test was employed for the mean scores and each question of ELAQ between the IDF and DF groups respectively to reveal the difference of the learners' learning attitudes and motivation.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

This chapter provides the experimental findings and discusses the participants' responses to the different teacher feedback types. This chapter includes four sections. The first section analyzes the effect of IDF by comparing the mean scores and the scores of each targeted error type between the pre- and the post-EWPT, the post and the retention EWPT. The second section investigates the effect of DF by comparing the mean scores between the pre- and the post-EWPT, the post- and the retention EWPT, and then compared two feedback groups on the post- and retention EWPTs. Lastly, the fourth section examines the participants' attitudes toward different teacher feedback types.

#### **The Effect of Indirect Teacher Feedback (IDF)**

In order to see how teacher feedback influence on the sentence writing accuracy of the IDF group, a paired samples t-Test was conducted; this section compared the mean scores of the IDF group and the score of each error type between the pre- and the post-, the post- and the retention EWPT.

Table 3 below is the statistic result of mean scores on the pre-EWPT and the post-EWPT for the IDF group. The mean score increased from 24.54 on the pre-EWPT to 29.24 on the post-EWPT, thus, the mean score reached the significant improvement after the experiment ( $t = -4.596, p < .01$ ). The result showed that IDF worked effectively with the participants and the improvement has been showed on the mean score of the post-EWPT (as shown in Table 3).



Table 3

Paired T-Test on Pre- and Post-EWPT of IDF Group

Source	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Pre-test	33	24.54	9.61	-4.596**	32
Post-test	33	29.24	10.78		

\*\*  $p < .01$ 

Comparing the mean score of each targeted error type on the pre- and post-EWPTs in the IDF group, the scores on the three targeted errors were increased significantly as follow: plural/singular noun, verb tense, and spelling. Specifically speaking, in the category of plural/singular noun, the mean score increased from 4.7 on the pre-EWPT to 5.73 on the post-EWPT, that is, the mean score reached the significant improvement after the experiment ( $t = -4.032, p < .01$ ). In the category of verb tense, the mean score was improved from 3.97 on the pre-EWPT to 5.91 on the post-EWPT. This result showed that the mean score improved the most amongst the five error types after the IDF treatment ( $t = -4.103, p < .01$ ). As for the category of spelling, the mean score also had a progress from 4.88 on the pre-EWPT to 6 on the post-EWPT. This means the improvement on spelling had reached the significant level after the experiment ( $t = -3.450, p < .01$ ). In brief, IDF showed the significant effectiveness not only on the mean score of EWPT but also on these three specific aspects (see Table 4).

Table 4

Paired T-Test of Each Error Type on Pre- and Post-EWPT of IDF Group

Category	Pre-test	Post-test	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
SVA	6	6.48	-1.449	32
(Subject -verb Agreement )				
Plural/Singular noun	4.70	5.73	-4.032**	32
Preposition	5	5.12	-.399	32
Verb Tense	3.97	5.91	-4.103**	32
Spelling	4.88	6	-3.450**	32
Total	24.54	29.24	-4.596**	32

\*\* $p < .01$ 

In order to know the retention effect of IDF over three weeks, a paired t-Test was utilized and the data of the post- and retention EWPT were compared in Table 5. The mean score of retention test slightly dropped by 0.48 points which did not reach the significance ( $t = .704$ ), and this result meant the relapse on the mean score of the retention EWPT was insignificant over three weeks after the IDF treatment. In other words, since the mean score of the retention EWPT had merely dropped a little, the test result showed that the participants could maintain what they learned from IDF treatment over three weeks. In effect, the IDF group could still keep the improvement from the post-test to the retention test even after three weeks.

Table 5

Paired T-Test on Post- and Retention EWPT of IDF Group

Source	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Post-test	33	29.24	10.78	.704	32
Retention test	33	28.76	10.87		

Take the mean score of each targeted error type on the post- and the retention test into consideration, one error type, preposition, had improved significantly ( $t = -2.772$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The rest of error types did not change largely in three weeks after the treatment (see Table 6). From the post- to the retention EWPT, the subjects improved significantly on the aspect of preposition. After consulting the English teacher of the IDF and DF groups, the improvement was the result of one review activity in the class. Since their teacher figured out that students were not able to understand the usage of preposition, their teacher lectured and did some related exercises on this specific error type. The review activity was not related to the experiment and it was done in both the IDF and DF groups, thus, the similar improvement of preposition score should be seen in both two groups.

Table 6

Paired T-test of Each Error Type on Post- and Retention EWPT of IDF Group

Category	Post test	Retention test	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
SVA (Subject –verb Agreement )	6.48	6.27	.852	32
Plural/Singular noun	5.73	5.27	1.936	32
Preposition	5.12	5.76	-2.772**	32
Verb Tense	5.91	5.52	1.602	32
Spelling	6	5.94	.268	32
Total	29.24	28.76	.704	32

\*\* $p < .01$ 

In sum, based on the analysis of the IDF group, IDF worked effectively not only on the mean score of EWPT but also on three targeted errors: plural/singular noun, verb tense, and spelling; the regress of IDF on the retention test was insignificant in three weeks later, but in the aspect of preposition, the score has greatly improved.

#### **The Effect of Direct Teacher Feedback (DF)**

To know the effect of DF, a paired t-Test was used to compare the mean scores between the pre- and the post-EWPTs. In addition, to know the retention effect of IDF, a paired t-Test was utilized to mean scores between the post- and the retention EWPTs.

The comparison of mean scores on the pre-EWPT and the post-EWPT was listed in Table 7. In the DF group, the mean score increased from 26.03 points on the pre-EWPT to 27.21 on the post-EWPT. The improvement had not reached the significant level ( $t = -1.383$ ). In other words, DF did not work effectively with the participants on the mean score of EWPT (as shown in Table 7).

Table 7

Paired T-Test on Pre- and Post-EWPT of DF Group

Source	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Pre-test	33	26.03	9.59	-1.383	32
Post-test	33	27.21	10.29		

To detect the retention effect of DF over time, a paired t-Test was conducted; the mean scores of the post- and the retention EWPTs were compared. The mean score increased slightly from 27.21 to 27.24 points but the change was not significant ( $t = -.043$ ) (see as Table 8). The slight progress might be contributed to the practice effect. Since the participants had done the post-EWPT three weeks ago, some of them might learn from the post-EWPT and apply what they learned to the retention EWPT. Although the participants made a little progress, the change of the mean score was insufficient to reach the significant level. The test result meant that DF did not have significant difference on the retention test. In other words, the DF group could maintain the language knowledge they learned well since there was no significant regress on the retention EWPT.

Table 8

Paired T-Test on Post- and Retention EWPT of DF Group

Source	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Post-test	33	27.21	10.29	-.043	32
Retention test	33	27.24	9.80		

According to the result, the DF group maintained the similar scores over three weeks and the score of retention EWPT showed that the DF group could maintain what they learned well.

To conclude, firstly, based on the comparison between the pre- and the post-EWPTs, the participants did not improve significantly after the DF treatment. In other words, DF did not work effectively on the mean scores of the post-EWPT. Secondly, according to the comparison between the post- and the retention EWPTs, no significant relapse could be seen on the mean score of the retention EWPT. The result showed that the DF group could maintain what they learned well over three weeks.



### **The Comparison on Post- and Retention Test of IDF and DF Groups**

To investigate the effect of IDF and DF, the comparison of IDF and DF on the post- and retention EWPTs was presented in this section.

#### ***The Comparison on Post-EWPTs***

An independent sample t-Test was conducted to know if there was any difference on the post-EWPTs of the two groups (see Table 9). On the post-EWPTs, the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 29.24$ ) outperformed the DF group ( $\bar{x} = 27.21$ ) by 2.03 points but the outperformance did not reach the significant level ( $t = .783$ ). In other words, the effects of IDF and DF did not show significant difference on the post-EWPTs.

Table 9

Independent Sample T-Test on Post-Tests of IDF and DF groups

Post Test	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
IDF	33	29.24	10.78	.783	64
	33	27.21	10.29		

#### ***The Comparison on Retention EWPTs***

On the view of retention EWPTs, an independent sample t-Test was used and the mean scores of two groups were compared in Table 10. The data did not show any significant difference between the IDF and DF groups on the mean scores.

On the mean scores of retention EWPTs (see Table 10), the IDF group scored 28.76 points while the DF group scored 27.24 points, the difference between these two grades was not significant ( $t = .595$ ).

Table 10

Independent Sample T-test on Retention Tests of IDF and DF groups

<i>Retention test</i>	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
IDF	33	28.76	10.866	.595	64
DF	33	27.24	9.79		

To sum up, comparing the post-EWPTs from two groups, the mean scores of the post-EWPTs did not show any significant differences. Furthermore, on the retention EWPTs, no significant difference between the IDF and DF groups could be seen on the mean score.

### **The Comparison of the Student Attitudes toward Two Feedback Types**

#### ***The Comparison of the Seven Sections***

This part examines the participants' attitudes toward different teacher feedback types by analyzing the participants' responses toward the ELAQ; an independent sample t-Test was firstly conducted to compare the data of 7 sections and secondly to analyze 21 questions.

Three sections of the questionnaires showed the significant difference between the two groups (see as Table 11). Specifically speaking, the significant different sections were interest in foreign countries ( $t = -2.116, p < .05$ ), motivation toward English learning ( $t = -2.538, p < .05$ ), and attitudes about the treatment ( $t = -2.698, p < .01$ ). The statistic results showed that the DF group had higher motivation than the IDF group in these three aspects. In addition, the DF group presented a more positive attitude than that of the IDF group toward the treatment. That is to say, the IDF group seemed to have lower interest and motivation toward English learning and also



showed less preference to the treatment than the DF group.

One important point to be noted is that the IDF group ( $\bar{x}=8.42$ ) showed more nervousness on the section of anxiety than the DF group ( $\bar{x}=8.21$ ). Though the  $t$ -value has not reached the significant level, the IDF subjects still expressed the feeling of being anxious about the new format of the teacher feedback.

Table 11

Independent Sample T-Test on Main Section of IDF and DF groups

No.	Section	IDF	DF	SD	$t$	$df$
1.	Interest in foreign countries	4.88	5.94	1.55	-2.116*	64
2.	Motivation toward English learning	4.64	5.88	1.76	-2.538*	64
3.	Parents' encouragement	4.58	5.45	1.62	-1.718	64
4.	Instrumental motivation	6.33	7.33	1.99	-1.906	64
5.	Anxiety	8.42	8.21	2.94	0.304	64
6.	Attitudes about the treatment	6.30	7.70	2.05	-2.698**	64
7.	Self-evaluation after the treatment	3.06	3.55	1.05	0.69	64

\* $p<.05$ ; \*\* $p<.01$

### ***The Comparison of the Specific Questions***

To probe the student attitude toward particular questions, the student responses on specific questions were compared with an independent sample  $t$ -Test by sections.

Table 12 listed out the statistic data of section 1.

Specifically speaking, Question 2 showed a significant difference between the two groups; the DF group ( $\bar{x}=2$ ) presented significantly higher motivation than the IDF group ( $\bar{x}=1.52$ ) on contacting with foreign friends via e-mail. ( $t=-2.617$ ,  $p$

< .05). On question 3, the score of the DF group was ( $\bar{x} = 2.27$ ) higher than the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.85$ ) and reached a significantly higher level ( $t = -2.015, p < .05$ ). The results of question 2 and 3 implied that the DF group had higher motivation on being willing to write complete and correct English sentences because they wanted to communicate with foreign friends with written words (see as Table 12).

Table 12

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 1 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

Section 1: Interest in foreign countries						
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Q1.	I would like to travel to many countries.	1.52	1.67	.71	-.746	64
Q2.	If it is possible, I would like to write e-mail and contact with foreign friends.	1.52	2	.90	-2.617*	64
Q3.	I want to write the complete and correct English sentences since I want to communicate with foreign friends with written words.	1.85	2.27	1.01	-2.015*	64

\* $p < .05$

In section 2, motivation toward English learning, the DF group ( $\bar{x} = 2.12$ ) expressed higher motivation than the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.67$ ) on question 4; and the difference was significant ( $t = -2.032, p < .05$ ); that is, more participants in the DF group considered their motivation toward English learning was to help with their employment in the future, but less participants in the IDF group thought their motivation toward English learning was for their employment in the future. When it

comes to question 6, the DF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.88$ ) presented significantly higher motivation than the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.42$ ) because more students in the DF group thought learning English now is to make the junior high English easier ( $t = -2.238, p < .05$ ) (as shown in Table 13).

Table 13

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 2 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

Section 2: Motivation toward English Learning						
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Q4.	Learning English now is for future employment.	1.67	2.12	1.02	-2.032*	64
Q5.	I learn English for using it while traveling abroad.	1.55	1.88	.75	-1.602	64
Q6.	Learning English now is to make the junior high English easier.	1.42	1.88	.93	-2.238*	64

\* $p < .05$

In section 3 and 4, there was no significant difference between the IDF and DF groups on particular questions, the statistic data is listed in Table 14. IDF and DF performed alike on the sections of parents' encouragement and instrumental motivation. What worth to know was, from question 7 to 11, DF group presented more positive attitude than the IDF group. On the contrary, the IDF group expressed more positive attitude on question 12. To be more specific, the DF group agreed more than the IDF group on question 7: my parents encourage me to work hard on English. On

question 8, students in the DF group considered their parents have more expectation from them to write complete and correct English sentences. On question 9, the DF group regarded learning English as more important to their families than the IDF group. As for question 10 and 11, the DF group also expressed more preference whilst doing work book and writing activities than the IDF group. From question 7-11, the data showed that the DF group had more encouragement from their families than the IDF group. The DF group also enjoyed writing activities more than that of the IDF group.

However, on question 12, the last question in section 4, the IDF group considered English classes at school were more fun than the DF group. This response implied that the IDF group liked English classes at school better than DF group. Adding the results from question 7 to 12 together, although the DF group represented more encouragement from parents and liked doing the work book and writing activities, the IDF group showed more preference for English classes at school.

Table 14

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 3 and 4 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

<b>Section 3&amp;4: Parents' encouragement &amp; Instrumental motivation</b>					
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i> <i>df</i>
Q7	My parents encourage me to work hard on English.	1.36	1.67	.55	-1.715    64
Q8	My parents expect me to write complete and correct English sentences.	1.52	1.73	.56	-1.136    64
Q9	At home, I and my families consider learning English is very important.	1.7	2.06	.73	-1.805    64
Q10	I like doing the work book.	2.33	2.58	.89	-1.058    64
Q11	I enjoy participating in the writing activities (ex., filling in the blanks, unscrambling or finding the errors in sentences...etc.) in English classes.	2.24	2.61	.87	-1.609    64
Q12	English classes at school are fun to me.	2.91	2.82	1.07	.359      64

As for section 5, one issue that should be noticed is that the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 2.15$ ) expressed more anxious feelings than the DF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.76$ ) on question 13, correcting the errors on workbooks always makes me nervous. The difference reached the significant level ( $t = 2.186, p < .05$ ). This result might be attributed to the implementation of a new feedback style since the DF group showed lower anxiety

with the traditional correction method on the same question (shown as Table 15).

Table 15

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 5 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

Section 5: Anxiety						
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Q13	Correcting the errors on workbooks always makes me nervous.	2.15	1.76	.83	2.186*	64
Q14	I feel anxious if there are many errors happen during doing the work book.	2.48	2.61	1.25	-.429	64
Q15	Doing work book always makes me anxious.	3.03	2.79	.98	.925	64

\* $p < .05$

In section 6, on question 18, I can understand the markings and the written feedback from the teacher; the DF group ( $\bar{x}=1.97$ ) expressed more confidence than the IDF group ( $\bar{x}=1.48$ ) on understanding the teacher's feedback with the significant difference ( $t = -2.915, p < .01$ ). As for question 19, I can understand the teacher's correction style, participants in the DF group ( $\bar{x}=1.79$ ) considered that they could understand the style of teacher feedback while participants in the IDF group ( $\bar{x}=1.45$ ) were not sure if they could understand the style of teacher feedback (see as Table 16). The difference between the two groups was significant ( $t = -2.058, p < .05$ ).

Table 16

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 6 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

Section 6: Attitudes about the treatment						
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Q16	I like the way that teacher correcting my work book.	1.7	2	.68	-1.620	64
Q17	I highly value the feedback that teacher provides on the work book.	1.67	1.94	.69	-1.586	64
Q18	I can understand the markings and the written feedback from the teacher.	1.48	1.97	.73	-2.915**	64
Q19	I can understand the teacher's correction style.	1.45	1.79	.74	-2.058*	64
* $p < .05$ ; ** $p < .01$						

Lastly, in section 7, on question 20, the teacher feedback is helpful for me to self-detect the errors, the DF group approved more of the help of teacher feedback and they agreed more on the fact that teacher's feedback was helpful for the ability of error-detection. The DF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.94$ ) outperformed the IDF group ( $\bar{x} = 1.55$ ) with significant difference ( $t = -2.335, p < .05$ ) on this question (as shown in Table 17).

Table 17

Independent Sample T-Test on Section 7 of ELAQ of IDF and DF groups

Section 7: Self-evaluation after the treatment						
No.	Question	IDF	DF	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Q20	The teacher feedback is helpful for me to self-detect the errors.	1.55	1.94	.79	-2.335*	64
Q21	According to the teacher feedback, I understand how to correct the errors.	1.52	1.6	.61	-.628	64

\* $p < .05$ 

To conclude, in the seven sections, the DF group showed more interest and motivation on 3 main sections: interest in foreign countries, motivation toward English learning, attitudes about the treatment. That is, the DF group had more interest and motivation on English learning than the IDF group.

As for the specific questions, the DF group scored higher than the IDF group almost on most of questions on ELAQ instead of question 12, 13, and 15. Among these three questions, the IDF group surpassed the DF group only on the question 13 and the difference was significant ( $t = -2.186, p < .05$ ). The result showed that the IDF group felt more anxious receiving the teacher feedback than the DF group. The DF group scored highly on 7 questions with significant difference, such as, question 2, 3, 4, 6, 18, 19 and 20. This outcome presented that the DF group had more motivation on learning English, more confidence on understanding teacher feedback and agreed more on the help of teacher feedback.





## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION

This current study aimed to exam the effects of teacher's indirect feedback (IDF) and direct feedback (DF) on elementary students' sentence writing accuracy and to investigate learners' attitudes and motivation towards different teacher feedback types after the treatment. Based on the results, this chapter presents the discussion on the research questions.

**Research Question 1: Did the IDF group perform better in the post-EWPT than in the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways?**

In the present study, EWPT was conducted to examine the effects of IDF and DF after the treatment in two groups. The findings were twofold. First, by comparing the results of pre- and post-EWPT of IDF group (as shown in Table 3), the improvement between two tests reached the significant level. Second, by comparing the results of retention and post-EWPT of the IDF group (as shown in Table 5), the regress of the retention test was insignificant. The findings were reported and the possible reasons were listed as below.

It is important to note that the significant progress was found on the total score of the post-EWPT and three specific aspects: plural/singular noun, verb tense, and spelling. The positive result in the present study was correspondent to the previous studies which conducted in different contexts (Huang, 2009; Wang & Hu, 2010; Abedi, Latifi & Moinzadeh, 2010; Lalande, 1982). In addition, adding the rewriting process after receiving teachers' correction, the current study corresponded to the test result of Lalande's (1982) research since the IDF group gained better score than the DF group. The significant improvement of the IDF group in the current study might reflect that

while getting involved in the process of implementing IDF, learners can gain advantages of enhancing their sentence writing ability in several ways.

First, IDF was to assist them by noticing the grammatical errors and making them aware of the linguistic forms (Ferris, 1999). While noticing the grammatical errors, students knew where to start and what the learning objective was (Schmidt, 1990). By correcting the error, students knew more about their deficit and the error type that they should pay attention to it. Based on the information processing theory (Gagné, 1985), the learning process began with gaining attention and informing learners of the objective (Lalande, 1982). Moreover, Schmidt (1990) stated that if learners were not aware of the grammatical errors; they would not know where and how to improve. In the current study, the implementation of IDF was correspondent to Gagné's learning process; it drew students' attention on the error and informed students to learn the error type. In addition, IDF offered students with proper contexts to examine what they need and where their language knowledge needs to be improved. This function connected Schmidt's statement since it guides learners to know about their deficit. In short, IDF helped students notice the grammatical errors and linguistic forms with their awareness and this might be one of the reasons to cause the significant improvement on the post-EWPT.

Secondly, learners were actively involved in the guided learning and problem solving process because IDF required learners to work out the accurate form on their own (Lalande, 1982). In order to work out the correct form successfully, students needed to follow the teacher's guidance which was written beside the error. This provided students great opportunities to link the prior knowledge with the new content, create authentic chances for them to learn the linguistic forms and apply what they have learned. According to Lowen (2004), the connection of the prior and the new

knowledge improved the efficiency of learning. Similarly, Chuang (2003) also pointed out that searching for the accurate form caused the interaction between the student and the written feedback. Thus, IDF has created the active learning process (Lalande, 1982) which can make connections between the prior and the new-learned knowledge and encouraged students to solve the grammatical problem on their own.

Third, IDF provided a series of systematic feedback (Lalande, 1982). In IDF, various teacher feedbacks were structured into a system that consisted of six types of error: the five targeted error types and the untargeted errors. Students consistently received these six types of teacher feedback and learned the categorized grammatical knowledge. According to Higgs (1979), the teacher feedback would be the most beneficial to learners when teachers systematically use error codes to remind learners what and where the error was. In the current study, IDF provided a systematic feedback that consisted of six types of teacher feedback, it systematically helped participants focus on the targeted five error types and the systematic function might benefit on students' learning effect.

Furthermore, the comparison of the retention and the post-EWPTs was insignificant, and this might relate to the teacher's review activity since the teacher taught both the IDF and DF groups and did the same review activity with two groups. However, it is noted that the preposition of the retention EWPT was significantly increased three weeks later. The result was correlated to the previous studies (Lalande, 1982; Ferris, 2006; Li, 2010). The significant improvement showed that the IDF group learned well from the review activity and was able to maintain what they learned three weeks later.

In short, to answer research question 1, the IDF group performed significantly better in the post-EWPT than in the pre-EWPT on the mean score and on three specific

error types: plural/singular noun, verb tense and spelling. Secondly, based on the comparison of retention and the post-EWPT, the IDF group performed better in the post-EWPT than in the retention EWPT on the mean score. Then, a significance was found on the aspect of preposition between the post- and retention EWPT.

**Research Question 2: Did the DF group perform better in the post-EWPT than in the pre-EWPT? In addition, did the group perform better in the retention EWPT than in the post-EWPT? If yes, in what ways?**

Comparing the post- and pre-EWPT, as well as the retention and the post-EWPT, the results were insignificant and accordant with the previous studies (Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992). The insignificant effect of the DF group in the present study might have related to the following two aspects.

First, based on the meaningful learning theory, if students derived DF, the correct form, without understanding, it would be difficult for them to internalize the correct form (Ausubel, 1978). In the implementation of DF, the teacher offered the correct usage form beside the errors, and students read and revised it. When the learners did not understand why they need it and how to correct, it was a possibility for students to copy the correction directly without understanding and this might have related to the insignificant effect of DF. According to Lin (1990), the meaningful learning only happened when students explored the knowledge themselves; otherwise, the learning was meaningless to students. As Willingham (1990) also stated, students learned better from working out solutions and fixing the grammatical errors by themselves. DF did not encourage students to work out or to fix the grammatical errors; on the contrary, it provided the accurate form beside the error for students' convenience (Huang, 2009). By reading and following DF for 14 weeks, students might be accustomed to receiving

answers from the teacher instead of thinking and understanding. As a result, students lost excellent opportunities of being actively engaged in the learning process, connecting the new knowledge to the prior knowledge and constructing knowledge on their own. As Gagné (1985) proposed, knowledge is constructed by the learner, not derives from the environment; students would have learned better if they construct the grammatical knowledge by thinking and exploring on their own.

Second, the very nature of DF entailed a high number of modification, as was the case in the current study: DF led to many different changes to the students' original sentences than in the IDF group, which in effect meant that, even though students understood all the teacher feedback in both groups, the number of DF they had to remember was much higher than that of IDF. Students were likely to forget the grammatical knowledge since DF did not provide learners with a simple and systematic feedback. While students received the different correction feedbacks, they learned different new information without knowing that they should pay attention to one concept. From the students' view, DF was not systematic and might be too much and discrete to remember. Therefore, teachers should provide a more systematic feedback for getting students involved into the learning process instead of passing discrete language knowledge (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Zamel, 1985).

To answer research question 2, the DF group did not perform significantly better in the post-EWPT and in the retention EWPT.

**Research Question 3: Did the IDF group and DF group perform differently in the post-EWPT? Besides, did the two groups perform differently in the retention EWPT? If yes, in what ways?**

Comparing the mean scores on the post-EWPTs, as shown on Table 9, there was no significant difference between these two groups. The result showed that the effects of IDF and DF were not significantly different, that is to say, the effects of IDF and DF were quite similar on the mean score.

On the view of the two retention EWPTs, no significant difference between the IDF and DF groups on the mean scores was found. According to Table 10, the IDF group gained 28.76 points while the DF group gained 27.24 points on the retention EWPTs. The comparison result did not reach the significant level, that is, the retention IDF and DF was similar on the mean scores.

To answer research question 3, based on the comparison of the post-EWPTs and the retention EWPTs, the IDF and DF group did not perform differently on the mean score.

**Research Question 4: Did the IDF group and DF group express different attitudes toward the treatment? If yes, in what ways?**

Comparing the replies of the seven sections of ELAQ, the DF group showed more interest and motivation on 2 sections: interest in foreign countries and motivation of future school or employment. The DF group also expressed more positive attitude toward the treatment. This result was supported by the statistic evidence as follows.

In section one, interest in foreign countries, the DF group showed more interest than that of the IDF group on the questions of contacting foreign friends with e-mail and writing correct English sentences. In section two, motivation of future school or employment, the DF participants agreed more on the description of learning English is for future employment and making junior high English easier. It showed that the DF group had more learning motivation than the IDF group. The significant difference in

section one and two might be because of the encouragement from their parents or families. According to their teacher, the parents of the DF group were mostly from higher social status than that of the IDF group. In other words, the parents of the DF group were mostly working in the technology industry while that of the IDF group were mostly running a store in the traditional market. The DF group might be affected by their families and considered communicating with others via written words in English as important. The positive attitude toward communication facilitated their attitude and motivation toward learning English sentence writing. Besides, the parents of the DF group considered the learning in junior high school and getting a better job as important. On the contrary, that of the IDF group did not, since the parents expected their children to inherit their business. These different values from families might be the possible reason to cause the significant difference of section one and two.

As for section six, attitudes toward the treatment, the DF group also expressed more confidence in understanding the teacher's marking, written words and correction style. The significant difference might be because the DF group was accustomed to DF for years. From grade one to five, students have received DF, the most common and traditional feedback form, for five years. Since students were familiar with the feedback content and the format, DF was easier than IDF to understand and apply to revisions. Students' confidence was boosted because they considered themselves to totally understand DF, write accurate sentences with DF and they considered DF as beneficial on self-detecting errors. Being used to DF became the possible reason of the significant difference in section six.

On the specific questions, the IDF group scored higher than the DF group on question 13, correcting the errors on workbooks always makes me nervous. The result showed that the IDF group expressed the feeling of being nervous while in the process



of implementing IDF. The result of expressing more anxiety was different from the senior high school students in Huang's (2004) and Huang's (2009) study. The participants in senior high school expressed their preference on the IDF since they considered it as more beneficial to learning (Huang, 2004). In addition, Huang (2009) echoed the same idea that the senior high school learners liked IDF better because of the concern of being lazy. In a word, the current finding was not in accordance with the findings in the senior high school contexts, and this different finding might be ascribed to the young participants in the current study. The primary school students were too young to take the effect of the teacher feedback into consideration, they might only express the attitude toward receiving the unfamiliar feedback and this might lead to the significantly different result on question 13.

However, the DF group scored higher than the IDF group on 3 questions, and the results showed the significant difference.

On question 18, I can understand the markings and the written feedback from the teacher; the DF group expressed more confidence in understanding toward the teacher's marking and written feedback. On question 19, I can understand the teacher's correction style; the DF group showed more confidence in understanding the teacher's correction style. As for question 20, the teacher feedback is helpful for me to self-detect errors; participants in the DF group considered DF as beneficial in developing their error-detecting ability. The DF group presented more confidence in understanding the markings and the written feedback, understanding the teachers' correction style and considered the teacher feedback as helpful on self-detecting errors. This finding was correspondent to Leki's (1991) study noticing that students acknowledged the value of error identification and appreciated the direct teacher feedback. Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) proposed the similar result that learners

considered the direct feedback beneficial because of its convenience to understand and to apply; and they expected consistency on direct error correction from their teachers.

In brief, to answer research question 4, the DF group presented more positive attitude toward English learning from section 1 and 2; besides, the DF group showed more confidence toward the teacher feedback on section 6: the attitudes toward the treatment. The possible reason of the positive attitude from the DF group might be because of the stronger learning motivation from students' families and being used to receiving DF. On the other hand, the IDF group expressed significant anxiety on question 13 and the possible explanation of the result was the young learners might not be accustomed to IDF and they were too young to take the learning effect of IDF into consideration. In addition, the DF group expressed that they were confident in understanding the teacher's markings, written feedback, and correction style; they also considered DF as beneficial to self-detecting ability. These positive attitudes toward DF might relate to the use of the traditional teacher feedback style.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CONCLUSIONS**

The chapter presents three sections in regard to main findings, the pedagogical implications of the study; and at last, the limitation of the present study and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

#### **Main Findings**

The present experiment led to four main findings and the findings were listed as below.

1. The IDF group significantly improved after the 14-week experiment on the post-EWPT and the comparison of the retention and the post-EWPTs showed that the retention effect of IDF was satisfactory.

2. The DF group had no significant progress after the 14-week treatment on the post-EWPT while the comparison of the retention and the post-EWPTs showed that the retention effect of DF was satisfactory.

3. No significant difference was found in the comparison of post-EWPTs of the two groups and that of the retention EWPTs.

4. The DF group showed more positive attitude toward English learning and the teacher feedback with significant difference while the IDF group showed significantly more anxiety toward correcting the errors on workbooks. Moreover, the DF group expressed significantly more confidence in understanding the teacher's markings, written feedback, and correction style; participants also considered DF as beneficial to self-detecting ability.

#### **Pedagogical Implications**

The following pedagogical implication can be made from the implementation of two different kinds of teacher feedback. Two implications are based on the findings of

the research that can be provided to EFL teachers and researchers who want to do related studies.

One pedagogical implication was that primary school teachers could try to offer IDF on students' workbooks. The implication was attributed to two following reasons. First, based on the findings in the present study, the IDF group gained significant improvement from the pre- to the post-EWPT; the result supported the positive effect of IDF. Second, from the comparison of the retention to the post-EWPT, no significant difference between two scores was found, that is to say, the IDF group maintained what they learn from the treatment well over three weeks. In addition, what is worth noticing was the significant improvement on the preposition errors; the score had a great progress over three weeks. This influential progress implied that IDF could help students learn better from the teacher's reviewed activity and maintain the learning result over three weeks. Though the reviewed activity did not relate to the treatment, participants in the IDF group still had better performance than the DF group. The result from the retention EWPT implied a positive influence from IDF.

The other implication that could be made was how to utilize the IDF in the primary school contexts. At first, according to the replies of ELAQ, the IDF group expressed significant anxiety while correcting workbooks with IDF; this might relate to their unfamiliarity with a new format of teacher feedback. Teachers can conduct IDF by giving more explanation and practice to help students get accustomed to it. Secondly, since IDF was significantly beneficial on three aspects, e.g. plural/singular noun, verb tense and spelling; it is worth to try to focus on these three targeted error types and to conduct the IDF in other primary teaching contexts, such as grade five or younger grades. Based on the current experiment, IDF could work effectively with grade six participants on these three aspects, if these three aspects of IDF were applied to

younger grades, the possible effective range of IDF might be detected, for example, if the result showed that these three aspects work well in grade four but not in grade three. The effective range of IDF would be detected; teachers would know that applying IDF might be beneficial to grade six, five and four students, if the learners were under grade four, then, it would not be beneficial to apply IDF.

To conclude, as presented in this study, IDF may offer the primary school teachers new perspectives on providing corrective feedback which focuses more on the learning awareness, actively involvement in correction and the systematic feedback framework. Primary school teachers and researchers who want to do the related studies may try to conduct IDF for helping students with more progress on the sentence writing accuracy. In addition, the current study implied that IDF might be utilized to learners with more explanations to ease their anxiety; it might also be conducted with younger learners to see if the range of the effective IDF was existed.

### **Limitation and Suggestions**

The study aimed at investigating the effects of teachers' indirect feedback (IDF) and direct feedback (DF) on elementary school students' sentence writing. The study also explored their attitudes toward the implementation of IDF and DF on English learning. Four aspects were limited in this current study and suggestions were proposed as below.

At first, the present study did not employ the pre-questionnaire to exam the change of student attitudes. The current study conducted the ELAQ after the implementation of the treatment. Since the researcher assumed that students were not able to reply the ELAQ before receiving the different teacher feedbacks, the purpose of the ELAQ was to know about students attitudes towards the treatment. A questionnaire before the treatment was suggested for the future study so as to

investigate the change of student attitudes after receiving the treatment.

Secondly, this research was merely conducted with 66 participants in an elementary school located in the northern Taiwan, and accordingly, the findings cannot be generalized to all the elementary school students. The participants of the present research were from one primary school in the northern Taiwan. It was suggested that future studies can take regional variables into consideration by enlarging the sample size, including subjects from different areas of Taiwan.

Thirdly, there were only three units constrained to the text book utilized in the current study. Future studies may investigate on a wider teaching content. This study offered a limited result since the teaching content focused on the present and the present continuous tenses only. In authentic English writing, various tenses such as the past or the future tenses should be utilized. Also, in English text books, various language focuses, such as, articles, adverbs and conjunctions were included. However, the current study was limited by the duration of the experiment, so the teaching content was limited to the three units. A wider teaching content that includes more language focuses was suggested to be included in future studies.

Finally, the current research only focused on learners' sentence writing accuracy. It was suggested that the future research could investigate the effect of the complexity of writing by counting the frequency with the subordinate clauses. Since Sheppard (1992) noted that a teacher's correction on grammatical errors might have the harmful effect on the writing complexity. The future study was suggested to detect if students shorten their sentences or make their composition simpler after receiving teachers' correction. Moreover, Truscott (2001) also proposed that the teacher correction might lead to the negative attitudes toward English learning, thus, the questionnaire was also suggested to probe into the learning attitude and to know if students choose to avoid

the subordinated clauses when they were not sure about the usage. The investigation on the complexity and learning attitude would provide more information to the EFL teachers for considering how to utilize the different teacher feedbacks.





## REFERENCES

- Abedi, R., Latifi, M., & Moinzadeh, A. (2010). The effect of error correction vs. error detection on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' writing achievement. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4), 168-174.
- Anderson, J. R. (1985). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Ashwell, T. (2000). Patterns of teacher response to student writing in a multiple-draft composition classroom: Is content feedback followed by form feedback the best method? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), 227-257.
- Ausubel, D., Novak, J., & Hanesian, H. (1978). *Educational psychology: A cognitive view* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14(3), 191-205.
- Brown, H. (2000). *Teaching by principles*. New York, NY: Pearson Education Incorporation.
- Burstein, J., Chodorow, M., & Leacock, C. (2004). Automated essay evaluation: The criterion online writing service. *Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence*, 25(3), 27-36.
- Camhi, P. J. (2001). A pedagogic rationale for grammar instruction. *Idiom*, 30(1), 3-4.
- Camhi, P. J. (2004). *Getting it right: An editing text for ESL/EFL students* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt Publishing Co.
- Camhi, P. J., & Ebsworth, M. E. (2008). Merging a metalinguistic grammar approach

- with L2 academic process writing: ELLs in community college. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 12(2), 1-25.
- Carreira, M. J. (2006). Motivation for learning English as a foreign language in Japanese elementary schools. *The Japan Association for Language Teaching Journal*, 28(2), 135-158.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Chandrasegaran, A. (1986). An exploratory study of EL2 students' revision and self corrective skills. *RELC Journal*, 17(2), 26-30.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(3), 267-296.
- Chang, S. C. (2005). *The effect of multi-draft writing procedure on EFL high school students' writing and quality and their attitudes toward writing and revision* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, ROC.
- Chang, T. K. (2011). *A study of vocabulary proficiency and gender differences in English vocabulary learning strategies used by junior high school students in Taipei* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Chen Chi University, Taipei, ROC.
- Chen, D. W. (2001). The identity crisis of EFL composition instruction in Taiwan. In Dept. Applied English, Ming Chuan University (Ed.), *Proceedings of the eighteenth conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 41-58). Taipei, ROC: Crane.
- Chiou, M. H. (2005). *An analysis of tense errors by junior high school students*

(Unpublished master's thesis). National Kaohsiung Normal University,  
Kaohsiung, ROC.

Chiang, P. J. (1992). *How to improve English composition teaching in Taiwan's high schools: A study of error types and learning strategies* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Kaohsiung Normal University, Kaohsiung, ROC.

Chuang, W. (2003). The effect of four different types of corrective feedback on EFL students' writing in Taiwan. *Shih Chien Journal of General Education*, 4, 123-138.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161-169.

Cohen, A. D., & Robbins, M. (1976). Toward assessing interlanguage performance: The relationship between selected errors, learners' characteristics, and learners' explanations. *Language Learning*, 26, 45-66.

Crystal, D. (1980). *A first dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Boulder, CO: Westview. Department of Education, Taipei City Government. (2010). Curriculum guidelines of elementary English language teaching and learning. Retrieved from May, 6<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from <http://etweb.tp.edu.tw/Fdt/D03/share/soushow.aspx?CDE=RSB20101213182433OIA&RESCDE=RES20100920142037OUP>

Dinnen, J. L. D., & Collopy, R. M. B. (2009). An analysis of feedback given to strong and weak student writers. *Reading Horizons*, 49(3), 239-256.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ehrlich, R., & Zoltek, S. (2006). It's wrong not to tell students when they're wrong. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 35(4), 7-10.

- Eisenstein, M. (1983). Native reactions to non-native speech: A review of empirical research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 5, 60-76.
- Fathman, A. K., & Whalley, E. (1990). Teacher response to student writing: Focus on form versus content. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 178-190). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 33-53.
- Ferris, D. R. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 315-339.
- Ferris, D. R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1), 1-11.
- Ferris, D. R. (2004). The “grammar correction” debate in L2 writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 49-62.
- Ferris, D. R. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short- and long-term effects of written error correction. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 81-104). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ferris, D. R., & Roberts, B. (2001). Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 161-184.
- Frantzen, D. (1995). The effects of grammar supplementation on written accuracy in an intermediate Spanish content course. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 329-324.
- Furneaux, C., Paran, A., & Fairfax, B. (2007). Teacher stance as reflected in feedback on student writing: An empirical study of secondary school teachers in five

- countries. *IRAL*, 45(1), 2007.
- Gagné, R. M. (1985). *The conditions of learning and theory of instruction* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Gagné, R. M., & Driscoll, M.P. (1988). *Essentials of learning for instruction* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Goldstein, L. M. (2004). Questions and answers about teacher written commentary and student revisions: Teachers and students working together. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 63-80.
- Gombert, J. E. (1992). *Metalinguistic development*. Harvester Wheatsheaf, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Hammill, D. D., & Larsen, S. C. (1988). *Test of written language-2*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.
- Han, Z. H. (2004). *Fossilization in adult second language acquisition*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Essex, UK: Pearson Education.
- Hartmann, R. R. K., & Stork, F. C. (1972). *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. London, UK: Applied Science.
- Heaton, J. B. (1989). *Writing English language tests*. London, UK: Longman.
- Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1992). Collaborative oral/ aural revision in foreign language writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 1(3), 255-276.
- Higgs, T. V. (1979). Coping with composition. *Hispania*, 62, 673-678.
- Huang, H. H. (2004). *A study of senior high students' response to peer and teacher feedback on EFL compositions* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taiwan

- Normal University, Taipei, ROC.
- Huang, H. S. (1994). *An analytic study on tense errors committed by Chinese learners of English in southern Taiwan* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Kaohsiung Normal University, Kaohsiung, ROC.
- Huang, L. J. (2006). *A comparison of the effects of underlining with coding system and underlining: Teachers' feedback on accuracy and fluency* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Cheng Kung University, Tainan, ROC.
- Huang, S. P. (2009). *The efficacy of teacher feedback on multi-draft writing--a case study in Taiwan high school English class* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Chen Chi University, Taipei, ROC.
- Huang, Y. P. (2006). *The effects of error correction on the English writing of senior high school students in Taiwan* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, ROC.
- Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G.K. (2002). *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hung, Y. H. (2007). *A study on EFL six graders' English composition in an eight-block folio* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, ROC.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching*, 39, 83-101.
- Kasper, L. F. (1995). Applying the principle of nonjudgmental awareness to the ESL writing class. *Journal of Teaching Writing*, 14(1), 73-85.
- Kepner, C. G. (1991). An experiment in the relationship of types of feedback to the development of second language writing skills. *Modern Language Journal*, 75,

305-313.

Kent, D. (2002). *Sharpening your writing skills*. British Columbia, Canada: Technical Communicators.

Kim, J. (2004). Issues of corrective feedback in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 161-170.

Krashen, S. (2005). The composing process and the academic composing process. In Y. J. Chen & Y. N. Leung (Eds.), *Selected papers from the fourteenth international symposium on English teaching* (pp. 66-78). Taipei, ROC: Crane.

Kroll, B. (2001). Considerations for teaching an ESL/EFL writing course. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp. 219-248). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Lalande, J. K. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An experiment. *Modern Language Journal*, 66, 140-149.

Lasagabaster, D. (1998). *Creatividad y conciencia metalinguística: Incidencia en el aprendizaje del inglés como L3*. Bilbao, Spanish: University of the Basque Country.

Leki, I. (1990). Coaching from the margins: Issues in written response. In B. Kroll (Eds.), *Second language writing* (pp.57-68). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Leki, I. (1991). The preferences of ESL students for error correction in college-level writing classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 24(3), 203-218.

Lennon, P. (1991). Error: Some problems of definition, identification, and distinction. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 180-196.

Levy, C. M. & Ransdell, S. (1995). Is writing as difficult as it seems? *Memory & Cognition*, 23(6), 767-779.



- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. D. Bot, R. B. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross- cultural perspective* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam, Netherlands: Benjamins.
- Li, S. F. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 309-365.
- Li, Y. S. (2009). *A computer-aided analysis of spelling errors made by Taiwanese high school English students* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Yulin Technical University, Yulin, ROC.
- Lin, B. S. (1990). *Methodology*. Taipei, Taiwan: Wunan.
- Liu, Y. L. (2010). *The impact of feedback on EFL college students' revising process* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Taipei University of Education, Taipei, ROC.
- Martlew, M. (1983). *Writing in focus*. Berlin, Germany: Mouton.
- Parsons, R., & Brown, K. (2002). *Teacher as reflective practitioner and action researcher*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Pincas, A., (1982a). *Teaching English writing*. London, UK: Macmillan.
- Pincas, A., (1982b). *Writing in English*. London, UK: Macmillan.
- Polio, C., Fleck, N., & Leder, N. (1998). If only I had more time: ESL learners' changes in linguistic accuracy on essay revisions. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7, 43-68.
- Radecki, P., & Swales, J. (1988). ESL student reaction to written comments on their written work. *System*, 16, 355-365.
- Rahimi, M. (2008). The role of teacher's corrective feedback in improving Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy over time: Is learner's mother tongue relevant?



*Read & Writing*, 22(2), 219-243.

Robb, T., Ross, S., & Shortreed, I. (1986). Salience of feedback on error and its effect on ESL writing quality. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(1), 83-95.

Santos, M., López-Serrano, S., & Manchón, R. (2010). The differential effect of two types of direct written corrective feedback on noticing and uptake: Reformulation vs. error correction. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10(1), 131-154.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 209-231.

Semke, H. (1984). The effects of the red pen. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 195-202.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129-158.

Sheppard, K. (1992). Two feedback types: Do they make a difference? *RELC Journal*, 23, 103-110.

Shepard, L. A. (2005). Linking formative assessment to scaffolding. *Educational Leadership*, 63(3), 66-70.

Sokolik, M. (2003). Writing. In D. Nunan (Ed.) *Practical English language teaching*, (1<sup>st</sup> ed., pp. 87-108). New York, NY: McGraw Hill Contemporary.

Tan, H. M. (2007). A study of EFL learners' writing errors and instructional strategies. *Journal of Kun Shan University*, 4, 113-122.

Taiwan Test Central. (2012). Basic competence test. Retrieved from May, 25<sup>th</sup>, 2012 from <http://www.taiwantestcentral.com/Tests/Test.aspx?ID=269>

Tsang, W. K. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: An analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *RELC Journal*, 35(2), 187-209.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes.

- Language Learning*, 46(2), 327-369.
- Truscott, J. (2001). Selecting errors for selective error correction. *Concentric*, 27(2), 93-108.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wang, W., & Dong, Y. (2010). The justification of teacher-guided error correction of Chinese college students' English writing. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 33(3), 63-75.
- Wang, W. H., & Hu, D. M. (2010). A study on the effect of teacher correction on non-English major college students' writing. *Foreign Language Education in China*, 3(1), 41-52.
- Weinreich, U. (1953). *Languages in contact*. The Hague, NY: Mouton.
- Willingham, D. B. (1990). Effective feedback on written assignments. *Teaching of Psychology*, 17(1), 10-13.
- Williams, J. D. (1998). *Preparing to teach writing: Research, theory and practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associations.
- Winterowd, W. R., & Murray, P. Y. (1985). *English writing and skills*. San Diego, CA: Coronado.
- Wu, C. P. (2003). *A study on the use of feedback in senior high school English composition: Students' preferences and teachers' practices* (Unpublished master's thesis). National Kaohsiung Normal University, Kaohsiung, ROC.
- Wu, W. S. (2006). The effect of blog peer review and teacher feedback on the revisions of EFL writers. *Journal of Education and Foreign Language and Literature*, 3, 125-139.
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(1), 79-101.

Zamel, V. (1987). Recent research on writing pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 697-715.



## Appendix A. English Writing Proficiency Test (EWPT)

班級：六年\_\_\_\_班 中文名：\_\_\_\_\_ 座號：\_\_\_\_\_

Part (1) Read and circle the correct word. 灰字二選一，圈出適合句意的字。

例題：How are/is you?

1. How are/is Mark?	6. They are at/to the zoo.
2. Nett is/are going to the park.	7. Harry is paint/painting the wall.
3. We are playing card/cards.	8. They are watching/watch a movie.
4. Jenny is drinking juices/juice.	9. We are at the beach/baech. (海灘)
5. He is going to/in the bank.	10. He is in a restuarant/restaurant.

Part (2) Find the error.

三選一，選出錯誤的地方，每題只有一個錯誤。

例題(B): How is you?

(A) (B) (C)

( ) 1. <u>How is the girls?</u> (A) (B) (C)	( ) 6. <u>He goes the bank.</u> (A) (B) (C)
( ) 2. <u>I is very excited.</u> (A) (B) (C)	( ) 7. What <u>do you</u> doing? (A) (B) (C)
( ) 3. <u>Let's go homes.</u> (A) (B) (C)	( ) 8. <u>I am read a book.</u> (A) (B) (C)
( ) 4. <u>He is eating dumpling.</u> (A) (B) (C)	( ) 9. 選出對的字 (A) palying (B) playing (C) paly
( ) 5. <u>I am going the bookstore.</u> (A) (B) (C)	( ) 10. 選出對的字 (A) excited (B) exctied (C) excteid

Part (3) Revise the error. 把錯誤改成正確的字，寫在空格上。

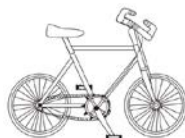
例題 are : How is you?

_____ 1. <u>How</u> is <u>the</u> <u>girls</u> ?	_____ 6. <u>He</u> <u>goes</u> <u>the</u> <u>bank</u> .
_____ 2. I <u>is</u> <u>very</u> <u>excited</u> .	_____ 7. What <u>do</u> <u>you</u> doing?
_____ 3. <u>Let's</u> <u>go</u> <u>homes</u> .	_____ 8. <u>I</u> <u>am</u> <u>read</u> a <u>book</u> .
_____ 4. He <u>is</u> <u>eating</u> <u>dumpling</u> .	_____ 9. 寫出對的字 (A) palying (B) playing (C) paly
_____ 5. <u>I</u> <u>am</u> <u>going</u> <u>the</u> <u>bookstore</u> .	_____ 10. 寫出對的字 (A) excited (B) extctied (C) excteid

Part (4) Short Questions 按照圖片回答問題，請用完整句。

例題: How do you go to school?

答: I go to school by bicycle.



1. How is she at school?



(生氣的)

2. Where are you going?



(醫院)

3. What does David like to do in the park?



(遛狗)

4. What is your brother doing at home?



(唱歌)

5. What are they doing in the supermarket?



(逛街)

測驗結束，謝謝您！

Appendix B. English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (ELAQ)

國小學童英語學習態度調查問卷(正式問卷)

班級：六年\_\_班 中文名：\_\_\_\_\_ 座號：\_\_\_\_\_

各位同學：

這份問卷的目的在於了解你對英文句型寫作的態度。

所有問題都沒有固定的答案，所以請依照你(妳)自己的真實想法回答下面的題目，每一題都要作答。這份問卷只提供學術研究，因此對於你(妳)的資料一定保密，也不會影響英文科成績。謝謝你(妳)的協助。

100 年 十一月

作答說明：請你依照對句子的同意程度，在最符合你的意見下面的格子打 v，每題只能打一個 v。

第一部分：學生背景資料

1. 你(妳)曾經在學校以外 (如美語補習班) 的地方上過英文課嗎？有 ☐ 沒有 ☐
2. 你(妳)在學校以外 (如美語補習班) 的地方，上英文課的時間為\_\_\_\_年。

第二部分：對於英語學習態度

(一)外在動機：對外國文化之興趣

- |   | 非常同意                     | 同意                       | 不同意                      | 非常不同意                    |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. 我想去許多不同的國家。.....                                 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. 如果有機會，我想 <u>寫電子郵件(e-mail)</u> 和外國朋友聯絡。           | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. 我想寫出完整正確的英語句子，因為我希望能 <u>用文字和外國人溝通</u> 。<br>..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(二)外在動機：學習英語的原因(升學、旅遊、就業)

4. 現在學習英語是為了將來的工作。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
5. 我學習英語是因為 出國旅遊 時可以用到。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
6. 我學習英語是為了讓國中的英語學起來更容易。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(三)外在動機:家長鼓勵

- |                              | 非常<br>同意                 | 常<br>同<br>意              | 不<br>同<br>意              | 非<br>常<br>不<br>同<br>意    |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 7. 我的父母告訴我要認真學習英語。.....      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. 我的父母希望我能寫出完整正確的英語句子。..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. 在我家，我們都認為學習英語是很重要的。.....  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

(四)內在動機:學習興趣

- 10 我喜歡寫習作。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- 11 我喜歡參與英語課的書寫活動(如:填空、重組句子、  
改錯練習...等)。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
12. 學校的英語課很有趣。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(五)內在動機:焦慮程度:

- 13 訂正英語習作總是讓我感到焦慮。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- 14 寫習作時，如果錯誤很多我會感到焦慮。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
15. 寫英語習作總是讓我感到焦慮。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(六)內在動機:對教師回饋的感受及看法:

- 16 我喜歡老師批改習作的方式。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- 17 我重視老師對我的英文習作的批改。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
18. 我了解老師在習作上寫的字和記號。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
19. 我了解老師批改習作的方式。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(七)學生對教師回饋及句型仿作的自我評估:

- 20 我認為老師對習作的批改方式能幫助我養成自行發現錯誤和修正的習慣。  
..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- 21 根據老師的批改，我知道該如何訂正。..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

問卷結束，謝謝您!

## Appendix C. English Version Questionnaire

### English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (ELAQ)

Class:60\_\_\_\_\_ Name:\_\_\_\_\_ No.:\_\_\_\_\_

Fill out the following questionnaire, checking the box which best describes whether you agree or disagree each statement. This is for yourself not for anyone else, so answer as honestly as you can. This questionnaire is only for research and will keep your response confidential. Thanks for your reply.

November, 2011

Strongly agree= **SA**; Agree=**A**; Disagree= **D**; Strongly Disagree= **SD**.

#### Part (1) Student's English learning experience

1. Have you ever had any English classes outside of the school(such as in hte cram schools)?.....Yes ☐ No ☐
2. If you have learned English outside of the school,how long have you learned?  
.....I have learned English outside of the school for \_\_\_\_\_ years.

#### Part (2) The Attitude toward English Learning

##### Section 1: Interest in foreign countries

- |   | <b>SA</b>                | <b>A</b>                 | <b>D</b>                 | <b>SD</b>                |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q1. I would like to travel to many countries.....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q2. If it is possible, I would like to write e-mail and contact with foreign friends.....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q3. I want to write the complete and correct English sentences since I want to communicate with foreign friends with written words..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

##### Section 2: Motivation toward English learning

- |   |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q4. Learning English now is for future employment. ....                 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q5. I learn English for using it while traveling abroad.....            | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q6. Learning English now is to make the junior high English easier..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |



### Section 3: Parents' encouragement

- |   | SA                       | A                        | D                        | SD                       |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q7. My parents encourage me to work hard on English.....                        | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q8. My parents expect me to write complete and correct English sentences.....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q9. At home, I and my families consider learning English is very important..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### Section 4: Instrumental motivation

- |   |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q10. I like doing the work book. ....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q11. I enjoy participating in the writing activities (ex., filling in the blanks, unscrambling or finding the errors in sentences...etc.) in English classes..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q12. English classes at school are fun to me.....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### Section 5: Anxiety

- |   |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q13. Correcting the errors on workbooks always makes me nervous.                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q14. I feel anxious if there are many errors happen during doing the work book..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q15. Doing work book always makes me anxious.....                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### Section 6: Attitudes about the treatment



- |   |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q16. I like the way that teacher correcting my work book.....                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q17. I highly value the feedback that teacher provides on the work book.<br>..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q18. I can understand the markings and the written feedback from the teacher..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q19. I can understand the teacher's correction style.....                         | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### Section 7: Self-evaluation after the treatment

- |   |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Q20. The teacher feedback is helpful for me to self-detect the errors..<br>.....    | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Q21. According to the teacher feedback, I understand how to correct the errors..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Thanks for your reply!

Appendix D.                      **Suggestions for English Writing Proficiency Test**  
專家效度審查意見整理(考卷)

題號	建議者	建議	原題目	修後題目
題序	許老師	重組句和選擇題型可互調，以符合從易致難的順序	Part(1)Unscramble Part(2)Choose and correct.	Part(1)改成圈選正確答案，題序不改。
Part(1)	翁老師	重組句子並刪字有點難，可改為圈出正確答案。	Mark? are is How	<u>How are/is Mike?</u> 第一大題改為此題型。
Part(4) -2	許老師	圖案不夠明顯，請加醫院符號	Where are you going? 	將手繪 <u>十字符號</u> 於圖案上 
Part(1) -6	葉教授	會有兩組答案，請修正。 1. They are at the zoo. 2. They are going to the zoo.	They are to going at the zoo.	<u>They are to/at the zoo.</u>
Part(1) -9, 10	葉教授	拼字題和排序題是否目的不同?	9. We are at the _____. (海灘) 10. He is in a _____. (餐廳)	9. We are at the beach/baech. (海灘) 10. He is in a restuarant/restaurant.
Part(2) -9	葉教授	此類題目鮮少考拼字	( ) 9. <u>eter is in the</u> (A) (B) <u>resturant.</u> (c)	( ) 9. 選出對的字 (A) palying (B) playing (C) paly

Appendix E. Suggestions for English Learning Attitudes Questionnaire

專家效度審查意見整理(問卷)

國小學童英語學習態度調查問卷

題號	建議者	建議	原題目	修改後題目
整體	葉教授	問卷偏重「習作」未提及「課堂教學」及課堂中之「練習」。	因未調整任何教學內容及提供練習，所以未提問於問卷中。	未修改
第一部分-1	葉教授	加註解:如美語補習班。	你(妳)曾經在學校以外的地方上過英文課嗎?	你(妳)曾經在學校以外的地方(如 <u>美語補習班</u> )上過英文課嗎?
第二部分(一)標題	葉教授	(一)、(二)皆屬外在動機，(二)可以未來就學(升學)、未來就業及未來旅遊提問。	(一)對外國文化之興趣	<u>(一)外在動機</u> : 對外國文化之興趣
第二部分(二)標題	葉教授		(二)外在動機:學習英語的原因	(二)外在動機: 學習英語的原因 <u>升學、旅遊、就業</u>
第二部分(二)-2	葉教授		我學習英語是因為我覺得長大以後英語是很必要的。	我學習英語是因為 <u>出國旅遊</u> 時可以用到。
第二部分(一)之2	翁老師	外國朋友改為筆友或網友，可以較順利銜接到第三題。	我想認識許多外國朋友。	如果有機會，我想 <u>寫電子郵件(e-mail)</u> 和外國朋友聯絡。
第二部分(一)之3	許老師	改為:能用文字和外國人溝通。	我想寫出完整正確的英語句子是因為我希望和外國人藉由文字溝通。	我想寫出完整正確的英語句子，因為我希望 <u>能用文字和外國人溝通</u> 。
第二部分(四)之1	許老師	英文課的內容和寫習作之間，不一定有因果關係，建議:我喜歡寫習作。	英語課的內容很有趣，讓我寫習作時也充滿興趣。	<u>我喜歡寫習作。</u>
第二部分(七)之3	許老師	學習英文的興趣。建議改為我的英文學習狀況。	老師批改習作的方式會影響我對學習英文的興趣。	老師批改習作的方式會影響 <u>我的英文學習</u> 。
全部題號	許老師	構念編號及題號容易互相混淆	舉例:構念(一)外在動機	所有題號以1-22重新編號

## Appendix F. Essay Correction Code (ECC)

### APPENDIX A

#### ESSAY CORRECTION CODE (ECCO)

Aux	Use of an improper <i>auxiliary</i> verb, e.g., <i>haben</i> in place of <i>sein</i> ; also included may be constructions involving <i>werden</i> or a modal verb (+ infinitive).
C	A part of speech has been assigned the wrong <i>case</i> .
G	Wrong <i>gender</i> assignment to a noun or pronoun, e.g., <i>*Die Mädchen sieht schön aus</i> .
L	A <i>lexical</i> or dictionary error, e.g., <i>wohnen</i> for <i>leben</i> ; includes cognates.
M	The verb has been placed into the wrong <i>mood</i> ; usually subjunctive will need to be replaced by the indicative or vice versa.
N	Incorrect <i>number</i> assignment to a noun or pronoun, e.g., <i>*Er trägt zwei Buch</i> .
Nag	Noun-adjective-agreements are faulty in some way, e.g., <i>*Meiner guter Vater</i> .
NS	A completely <i>new</i> structure is needed to convey the proper meaning, e.g., in the sentence <i>*Paul hatte einen Vetter hieß Eduard</i> —the sentence may be corrected by using any one of several structural alternatives. The structure in need of replacement could be underlined.
PP	Principal <i>part</i> of the verb is incorrect (usually the stem).
R	Rewrite successfully completed.
Ref	If written as a <i>reflexive</i> construction, change to non-reflexive or vice versa. The code may also

indicate use of an incorrect reflexive pronoun.

Sp	Spelling error, e.g., <i>*Gestern kame er mit</i> , or <i>*Ich kenne deisen Mann</i> .
SV	Subject-verb agreement is faulty in some way, e.g., <i>*Er kommen morgen</i> .
T	Tense selection is in some way inappropriate; usually the student has not been consistent, e.g., <i>*Er setzte sich an den Tisch, grüßt und bestellt ein Bier</i> .
UN	UNMÖGLICH! No such word or construction exists in German; includes the use of English words where German versions are not known, e.g., <i>*Ich studierte im Library</i> .
WO	Any error involving <i>word order</i> .
X	One or more words are missing and must be inserted (exception = reflexive pronouns).
+	Any especially nice touch for which the student may be awarded extra points, e.g., use of the subjunctive or passive.
//	Double lines through a word indicate that it is not necessary and must be deleted, e.g., <i>*Ich möchte nach Hause <del>zu</del> gehen</i> .
?	A question mark adjacent to a word, clause, or sentence that is <i>underlined</i> indicates that the reviewer could make no sense of the passage whatsoever. The student should consult a teacher, native speaker, etc.

Please note: If the student commits the exact same error more than two times (e.g., he misspells *Fräulein* as *Fraulein*), then he shall not lose additional points and there shall be no additional tallies entered onto the EASE.

*Note.* This Essay Correction Code (ECC) was extracted from Lalande, J.F.(1982)

Reducing composition errors: An experiment. *Modern Language Journal*, 66, 140-49.