

**Towards a Contextualised Interpretation of Chinese University Student Engagement
with Teacher Written Feedback**

by

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A Thesis Submitted to
The Education University of Hong Kong
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

March 2024



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Statement of Originality

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Abstract

Teacher written feedback (TWF) refers to the written comments, corrections and responses offered by second language (L2) teachers on students' writing drafts. This practice, being considered common and important in scaffolding L2 students' writing process and improving writing products, has attracted significant research attention.

Among the existing literature, two gaps have been discovered. Firstly, the majority concentrated on written corrective feedback (WCF), indicating feedback exclusively on linguistic and grammatical errors. However, in many English-teaching classes, teachers not only provide linguistic feedback, but also deliver feedback on non-linguistic aspects of writing problems, including content, organisation, genre and linguistic use. Moreover, L2 students were found to expect different aspects of TWF in their writing. Thus, research on WCF exclusively is insufficient to generate a comprehensive comprehension of TWF, does not reflect the teaching practice in authentic classes and ignores the preferences of students. Secondly, research on TWF was mostly quasi-experimental, investigating the efficacy of feedback on writing performance. This overemphasis on the written products as evidence of learning overlooks the learning that could happen during the process where students engage with TWF and the individual and contextual factors that come into play during the process. Thus, there is a call for more research on learner engagement with teacher feedback on all aspects (i.e. local, global and praises) and how various writer-related and contextual factors mediate engagement.

To respond to this call, the current qualitative longitudinal case study tried to fill the gap by investigating how Chinese English-major university students with diverse English proficiency levels engaged with TWF from cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives

in a naturalistic classroom setting as well as examined individual and contextual factors that mediated student engagement. Aiming to generate rich and thick data, the study lasted for two academic semesters and included two teachers and 18 students (9 in each class) of high, intermediate and low English proficiency levels. Multiple sources of data were collected including writing drafts with TWF, students' retrospective oral reports, semi-structured interviews with teachers and students, field notes generated from verbal reports and class observations and lastly, teaching-related materials.

The findings indicated that learner engagement was complex, dynamic and subject to change in all three dimensions (i.e. cognition, behaviours and affect). Additionally, levels of engagement were found to differ among different students, and even within the same student, there could be variations in engagement levels across different writing tasks. Both individual and contextual factors were identified to influence student engagement, with the former pertaining to English proficiency levels, learning beliefs, and L2 motivation and goals and the latter encompassing technological, sociocultural, institutional, instructional, interpersonal and textual levels.

Overall, the study is meaningful since it enhances the understanding of learner engagement with TWF from comprehensive and contextualised perspectives. As such, insights have been gathered on learner engagement with TWF through the inclusion of different focuses of feedback. The study also enriches the subdimensions of affective engagement by including “meta-affective operations” as a sub-category and provides much clearer categorisations and explanations of each dimension of engagement, rendering the abstract concept of “engagement” more researchable for further investigation. In addition, the study also provided answers to how individual and contextual factors influence engagement.

Acknowledgements

There are many people that I would like to express my sincere gratitude to. Without their valuable support, contributions and dedication, this thesis would not have been completed.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my principal supervisor Dr. MAK, Wing Wah Pauline, who has always been there for me whenever I need help. There were many times when I asked for suggestions and advice for my overall research study and specific thesis concerns and then received her encouraging, valuable and insightful feedback very soon.

A special mention of appreciation to the researchers and the anonymous reviewers who provided suggestions, guidance, support and critique in my qualifying examination, the presentations at conferences and the publications of my earlier manuscript.

Many thanks also go to all the research participants involved in my pilot study and my main study, who I had carried out my research with and from whom I had gained valuable insights. During the research period, I developed special bonds with them which allowed me to capture the real teaching and learning moments that I could not gain elsewhere. I was grateful that all my participants tried their best to share their ideas and feelings with me, which was of great significance and value.

I would also like to express my great gratitude to the funding offered by the Hong Kong PhD Fellowship Scheme (sponsored by The Research Grant Council), the Education University of Hong Kong and the Faculty of Humanities (FHM) of the Education University of Hong Kong which allowed me to embark on my PhD journey, joined the international exchange program,

attended academic conferences and collected rich data in a prolonged research period.

Finally, special acknowledgement to my family who had offered constant and unconditional love, care and encouragement throughout my PhD study. To my father (LIU), who I know has always been a strong support for me although he does not like to express his feelings; to my mother (ZHU), who I have learnt from to be a kind and better person; and to my husband (GUO), who I can discuss anything with and has been incredibly caring, understanding and reliable.



Table of Contents

Statement of Originality	i
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iv
Table of Contents	vi
List of Abbreviations	xi
List of Figures	xiii
List of Tables	xiv
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1-Research background	2
1.2-Research objectives and research questions	7
1.3-Significance and implications	8
1.4-Layout of the thesis	10
Chapter 2: Literature review	12
2.1-TWF: importance, prevalence and students' preference	12
2.2-Student engagement with TWF	16
2.2.1-Student engagement as a multi-dimensional construct	17
2.2.2-An operational conceptualization of student engagement	19
2.2.3-Empirical evidence regarding engagement as a multi-dimensional construct	31
2.3-Factors influencing student engagement	39
2.3.1-Individual factors	40
2.3.2-Contextual factors	45
2.4-Summary	56
Chapter 3: Methodology	58
3.1-Research purposes and research questions	58
3.2-Research paradigm	59

3.2.1-Interpretivism	59
3.2.2-Qualitative methodology	60
3.3-Case study approach	63
3.4-Pilot study	67
3.5-Relevant context of the study	71
3.5.1-Instruction of English writing in secondary schools and universities in China	72
3.5.2-Fundamental English Course (FEC)	74
3.6-Participants	76
3.6.1-Students	76
3.6.2-Teachers	78
3.7-Data collection	79
3.7.1-Procedure	80
3.7.2-Trial verbal reports	81
3.7.3-Students' written drafts and TWF	82
3.7.4-Official retrospective verbal reports	84
3.7.5-Semi-structured interviews	87
3.7.6-Classroom observations	89
3.7.7-Classroom documents	91
3.8-Data analysis	92
3.8.1-Pre-analysis during the data collection	93
3.8.2-Primary data analysis after the data collection	93
3.9-Ethical considerations	112
3.10-The researcher's role	114
3.11-Validity and reliability	115
3.12-Summary	118
Chapter 4: Findings	119
4.1-Background information of the students	119
4.1.1-Motivation and learning goals	119
4.1.2-Prior learning experience (high school and first year of university)	121

4.1.3-Students' perception about TWF and English writing	124
4.2-Background information of the teachers	126
4.3-TWF delivered by the participating teachers in the study	128
4.3.1-Focuses of TWF	129
4.3.2-Directness of TWF	133
4.4-Behavioural engagement and mediating factors	136
4.4.1-Introduction	136
4.4.2-Modification behaviours	136
4.4.3-Observable behaviours	147
4.5-Cognitive engagement	182
4.5.1-Introduction	182
4.5.2-Depth of processing (DoP)	183
4.5.3-Cognitive strategies	191
4.5.4-Metacognitive strategies	208
4.5.5-Summary	234
4.6-Affective engagement	237
4.6.1-Attitude	237
4.6.2-Emotion	247
4.6.3-Summary	265
Chapter 5: Discussion	266
5.1-Behavioural engagement	266
5.1.1-Modification behaviours	267
5.1.2-Observable cognitive and metacognitive behaviours	269
5.2-Cognitive engagement	272
5.2.1-Depth of processing (DoP)	273
5.2.2-Cognitive engagement	274
5.2.3-Metacognitive engagement	276
5.3-Affective engagement	280
5.3.1-Students' attitude	280
5.3.2-Students' emotion	282
5.4-Relations among cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions	285

5.4.1-Interaction between cognitive and behavioural engagement	286
5.4.2-Interaction between cognitive and affective engagement	288
5.4.3-Interaction between behavioural and affective engagement	289
5.5-Individual Factors	289
5.5.1-L2 proficiency levels	290
5.5.2-Learning goals and motivation	291
5.5.3-Beliefs	293
5.6-Contextual Factors	297
5.6.1-Technological context	297
5.6.2-Sociocultural context	298
5.6.3-Institutional context	301
5.6.4-Instructional context	303
5.6.5-Interactional context	305
5.6.6-Textual context	307
5.7-Summary	310
Chapter 6: Conclusion	311
6.1-Major findings	311
6.2-Theoretical, practical and pedagogical implications	318
6.2.1-Theoretical implications	318
6.2.2-Practical implications	320
6.2.3-Pedagogical insights	322
6.3-Limitations and suggestions for future study	324
Reference	327
Appendixes	403
Appendix A Conceptualization of student engagement	403
Appendix B Written explanation for oral report	405
Appendix C Photo of Queena's notebook	406
Appendix D Writing prompt 1 (WH1) in Class A	407
Appendix E Writing prompt 2 (WH2) in Class A	409

Appendix F Writing prompt 3 (WH3) in Class A	410
Appendix G Writing prompt 4 (WH4) in Class A	411
Appendix H Writing prompt 1 (WH1) in Class B	413
Appendix I Writing prompt 2 (WH2) in Class B	414
Appendix J Writing prompt 3 (WH3) in Class B	415
Appendix K Writing prompt 4 (WH4) in Class B	417
Appendix L Interview questions	419
Appendix M Coded excerpts of students' drafts with TWF: Class A	427
1) Ruby's coded writing excerpts	427
2) Joan's coded writing excerpts	427
3) Grace's coded writing excerpts	428
Appendix N Coded excerpts of students' drafts with TWF: Class B	430
1) Queena's coded writing excerpts	430
2) Ella's coded writing excerpts	430
3) Tina's coded writing excerpts	431
Appendix O Coded retrospective verbal reports	433
1) Coded excerpts of Bonnie's 1 st verbal report	433
2) Coded excerpts of Helen's 4 th verbal report	434
3) Coded excerpts of Jack's 2 nd verbal report	434
Appendix P Coded interviews	436
1) Coded excerpts of Anna's 3 rd interview	436
2) Coded excerpts of Zoe's 1 st interview	437
3) Coded excerpts of Zora's 1 st interview	438
4) Coded excerpts of Lisa's 2 nd interview	439
5) Coded excerpts of Iris' 4 th interview	441
Appendix Q Corresponding examples for each category of modification behaviours	444
Appendix R Consent form for participants	445
Appendix S Marking criteria for Test for English Majors-Band 4 (TEM4)	456

List of Abbreviations

AF	Accurately followed
AU	Accurate understanding
DI	Deletion
DoP	Depth of processing
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
EFC	Fundamental English Course
HP	High proficiency
IC	Inaccurate correction
IM	Intermediate proficiency
Is	Initial stimulus
IU	Inaccurate understanding
L2	Second language
LP	Low proficiency
N-EI	Error ignored
N-EN	Error noticed
NewC	New content
NU	No understanding
Os	Oversight
RQ	Research question
Rw	Rewriting
SSU	South Standard University
St	Substitution
TEM4	Test for English Majors-Band 4



TWF	Teacher written feedback
WCF	Written corrective feedback
WH	Writing homework
ZPD	Zone of proximal development



List of Figures

Figure 1: Procedure of data collection from all participants in Semester 1	81
Figure 2: Procedure of data collection from all participants in Semester 2.....	81
Figure 3: Example from Pigai.....	176



List of Tables

Table 1: Research on learner engagement with feedback employing the tripartite framework	32
Table 2: Weighing of the five dimensions of the students' final grade of FEC	74
Table 3: Information of the students (N=9) in Class A	78
Table 4: Information of the students (N=9) in Class B	78
Table 5: An overview of the 4 writing assignments	83
Table 6: A summary of the research questions and the corresponding data collected	91
Table 7: Directness of TWF and its examples	97
Table 8: Categories of modification behaviours (adapted from Zhang and K. Hyland, 2018)	100
Table 9: Categories of DoP	103
Table 10: Classifications for coding cognitive strategies	106
Table 11: Categories for coding metacognitive strategies	107
Table 12: 4 dimensions of emotion regulation	110
Table 13: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence and activation	110
Table 14: Overall number of TWF points delivered to each student	128
Table 15: Focus of TWF	130
Table 16: Focuses of TWF among HP/IM/LP students	131
Table 17: Focuses of TWF across the four WH	132
Table 18: Focuses of TWF in the two classes	132
Table 19: Examples of direct feedback, indirect feedback and praise	133
Table 20: Directness of TWF	133
Table 21: Directness of TWF among HP/IM/LP students	134
Table 22: Directness of TWF across the 4 WH	134
Table 23: Types of indirect feedback	134
Table 24: Overall percentages of modification behaviours of all students	137
Table 25: Overall percentages of modification behaviours among HP/IM/LP students	137
Table 26: Overall percentages of modification behaviours across the 4 WH	137
Table 27: Types of modification behaviours	138
Table 28: Types of modification behaviours among HP/IM/LP students	138

Table 29: Employment of the Pigai platform to monitor revision in Class A	175
Table 30: Overall percentages of the six categories of DoP	186
Table 31: Six categories of DoP across the 4 WH	187
Table 32: Six categories of DoP among HP/IM/LP students	188
Table 33: Number of students monitoring the completed draft	216
Table 34: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence	248
Table 35: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence and activation	248
Table 36: Three categories of learner beliefs and its sub-categories	294

Chapter 1: Introduction

I vividly recalled the first time when the idea to pursue doctoral studies first took root, an idea arose from my prolonged disappointment and frustration while teaching English writing to my students.

I used to be an English writing teacher in a private tutoring school. At that time, I was convinced that the most effective way to improve students' writing was to provide comprehensive feedback on each student's writing draft. So, I devoted a significant amount of personal time and energy to reading students' drafts and providing corrections and suggestions on their drafts. Despite these efforts, the outcomes of this teaching practice seemed perplexing. While some students did demonstrate progress in their writing skills, the majority continued to repeat the same or similar writing issues. Conversations with my colleagues revealed that they too faced similar challenges and experienced frustration. We have tried to brainstorm potential mediating factors and discussed with some students to find out the reasons behind this phenomenon, yet we were unable to provide satisfactory explanations. Eventually, we arrived at a perfunctory conclusion: "It was probably because some students were more hard-working than the others".

However, I have consistently pondered whether "hard-working" is the sole explanation for this phenomenon. What exactly defines "hard-working"? Could it be that the students simply happened to benefit from my feedback, leading to their improvement? Was it just pure luck? Bearing these questions in mind, I started to look for relevant literature in the field of L2 writing and feedback research, and ultimately focused on the concept of "student engagement". I started to believe that an investigation into student engagement with teacher

written feedback would play a crucial role in deciphering the bewildering and perplexing phenomenon associated with the provision of feedback and its confusing outcomes.

Thus, fuelled by this initial curiosity and determination, I embarked on my doctoral study to qualitatively investigate how and why English-major Chinese university students behaviourally, cognitively, and affectively engaged with TWF.

This introductory chapter begins by presenting background information of teacher written feedback (TWF) and student engagement with TWF. A summary of the existing relevant studies, especially their limitations and gaps, will be highlighted. Subsequently, research aims and specific research questions guiding the current study will be showcased, in order to acquaint readers with the scope and focus of the study. Then, the significance of the study will be introduced to display its contribution to the body of research on learner engagement with teacher feedback. Finally, an overview of the thesis structure will be provided.

1.1-Research background

According to Mack (2009), TWF refers to the corrections, suggestions and comments made by the teachers within students' writing texts. Despite being employed in second language (L2) writing instruction for a long time and has garnered considerable research attention, scholars tend to focus more on a specific type of TWF—written corrective feedback (WCF)—which deals exclusively with linguistic errors.

However, L2 writing goes beyond accurate language forms, and it encompasses “expressing meaning within formal systems” (Atkinson & Tardy, 2018, p.90). Although Ferris and

Hedgcock (2014) summarised several principles of providing WCF and the ways teachers and scholars could address grammatical errors in students' writing, they highlighted that error feedback was only one component of a bigger picture in L2 feedback research and writing instruction. Scholars should be cautious not to confine writing and feedback research exclusively to the realm of grammar instruction and linguistic feedback (Johns, 2008; K. Hyland, 2013).

Meanwhile, another limitation of research on TWF is its predominant reliance on experimental and quasi-experimental designs, examining how one or multiple variables influence the language accuracy in students' revised writing drafts (Storch, 2010).

Nonetheless, feedback is a two-way practice, including both teachers delivering feedback and students reacting to feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018). Besides the teachers' role, students are perceived as significant learning agents who expect, process and respond to teacher feedback (Winstone et al., 2022). This signifies that the effects of TWF finally lie in students' engagement with feedback (Zhang & K. Hyland, 2022; Zhao & Zhang, 2022). However, to date, the conceptualization of learner engagement with TWF and the operational definitions thereof have remained inconsistent, which created difficulties in comparing specific findings across studies. The findings of the studies also raise questions about what exactly does "student engagement" entail and what specific facets should be targeted by practising teachers who aim to boost the levels of student engagement. Moreover, there has been insufficient exploration of how students engage with both linguistic and non-linguistic teacher feedback, particularly in their teaching contexts.

Student engagement with TWF could be interpreted as the way and degree to which students respond to teacher feedback (Goldstein, 2006; Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018).

Initial investigations have explored learner engagement with TWF from the perspectives of modification behaviours (e.g. F. Hyland, 2003), cognitive learning strategies (e.g. Cohen, 1987), subsequent uptake and retention of TWF (e.g. Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010) and learner perceptions and emotions towards TWF (e.g. Pokorny & Pickford, 2010). Since 2010, when Ellis (2010a) proposed that learner engagement should be understood as a multi-dimensional construct involving cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions, the tripartite conceptualization has gained acknowledgement from various researchers and has been implemented in practice (Han & Gao, 2020).

Despite several initial attempts to examine student engagement with teacher feedback (e.g. Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018; Zheng & Yu, 2018), the overall number was still small (Han & Gao, 2020). Within these studies, several limitations and gaps were detected, rendering the current understanding of student engagement with TWF incomplete.

One notable limitation pertained to the focus of the existing research on feedback. As mentioned earlier, the predominant focus in the existing research was on WCF. Thus, it remains unclear whether students will demonstrate the same or similar engagement behaviours when faced with non-linguistic teacher feedback, such as content, organisation, compliments and criticisms. From the students' perspective, they commonly perceive all feedback as a cohesive entity and report the action of reviewing all the written feedback before initiating revisions (Cheng & Liu, 2022; Liu, 2021). This implies that studies excluding certain kinds of teacher feedback do not give us a comprehensive picture of how students engage with TWF, since a particular engagement behaviour or decision might result from a consideration of more than one piece of TWF. Furthermore, in authentic L2 classrooms, writing teachers commonly deliver feedback addressing both linguistic and non-

linguistic writing issues. This underscores the significance of incorporating a wider range of feedback in the study of learner engagement, for the aim of obtaining more realistic and practical findings.

Moreover, the operational definitions of learner engagement with TWF in the existing research has shown its unclarity and inconsistency (Han & Gao, 2020). For example, in terms of the depth of processing, most studies focused their attention on the dichotomy of noticing and understanding. However, according to Nicolas-Conesa (2016), there exists other possibilities besides the dichotomized categorization of the depth of processing (i.e. noticing vs. understanding). Regarding affective engagement, the majority of studies regarded it as encompassing both attitudinal and emotional reactions to TWF. However, their focus was more about general patterns among students. Common emotions such as disappointment and frustration were frequently documented in the majority of studies, with fewer discoveries on specific emotions generated from particular engagement actions, decisions and during engagement processes (Zhang & Hyland, 2018). In addition, despite Oxford's (2011) assertion that emotions could be monitored and regulated in academic learning, the existing studies lack exploration into whether students take actions to regulate their emotions when processing TWF.

Furthermore, despite a recent trend indicating that learner engagement with feedback varies from individual to individual and from context to context (e.g. Tian & Zhou, 2020; Van der Kleij & Lippevich, 2020; Zheng, Yu & Liu, 2023), existing findings seldom showcase the interplay between individual and contextual factors. This “situated nature” of individual factors (Dornyei, 2015, p.218) has been acknowledged in research across various areas in SLA and L2 writing, with many researchers arguing that the individual traits do not operate

in isolation in influencing learner engagement. Thus, a group of researchers are advocating a dynamic perspective to conceptualise individual variables (e.g. learning motivation, learning styles, linguistic aptitude, and learning strategies) as elements that will interact with the contextual parameters (Han & Gao, 2020). In other words, to comprehensively understand individual factors requires a consideration of the idiosyncratic characteristics of the specific contexts where these factors are situated. Therefore, the current study holds significance as it aims to identify learner and contextual variables that impact learner engagement and to portray a detailed picture to illustrate the interlocking relationship between these two types of variables.

The last limitation relates to the methodological aspects within the relevant research, including participant selection criterion, the duration of the studies and the number of writing tasks. Concerning participants, most studies targeted a specific group of students (e.g. Zhang, 2017; Zheng & Yu, 2018). Despite several attempts to include different groups of students (e.g. Han, 2017; Liu & Storch, 2021), the discrepancies in participant selection criterion impeded the comparability of findings across studies and limited the potential for generalisation. In addition, all relevant studies covered relatively short durations and focused on just one writing task (Bitchener, 2019). Consequently, it was insufficient to identify changes in learner engagement across various writing tasks and over time.

In summary, the current comprehension of learner engagement with TWF is insufficient to paint a comprehensive picture regarding the conceptualization of learner engagement with teacher feedback targeting various writing issues. The deficiencies arise from the predominant emphasis on WCF, the inclusion of students with relatively similar backgrounds, the different criterion for selecting students with different proficiency levels,

unclear and inadequate explanations of operational definitions, and a lack of evidence on how individual and contextual factors interactively shape learner engagement with TWF. Thus, aiming to fill in these gaps, the current study has focused on student engagement with TWF and investigated how individual and contextual factors interactively have mediated learner engagement operations and decisions, encompassing students with various proficiency levels.

1.2-Research objectives and research questions

Informed by the existing learner engagement research in the field of education (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004) and L2 writing (Ellis, 2010a; Han & F. Hyland, 2015), learner engagement with TWF is regarded as a multi-dimensional construct encompassing cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions.

Adopting a qualitative, longitudinal and case study research paradigm and approach, the study seeks to unveil the real-world engagement experiences among tertiary students in China when they react to TWF. Additionally, viewing TWF as a teaching practice embedded in broader contextual settings and mediated by individual factors, the study also concentrates on identifying the mechanisms of individual and contextual factors and their interacting effects on learner engagement with TWF.

Therefore, two primary research questions and five sub-questions have been formed to guide the current study:

1. How do English-major Chinese university students engage with teacher written feedback?

1) How do the students behaviourally engage with teacher written feedback?

- 2) How do the students cognitively engage with teacher written feedback?
- 3) How do the students affectively engage with teacher written feedback?
2. What are the factors that may influence Chinese university students' engagement with teacher written feedback?
 - 1) What are the individual factors that mediate student engagement and how do they work?
 - 2) What are the contextual factors that mediate student engagement and how do they work?

1.3-Significance and implications

The study adds to the body of research in several ways. Firstly, the study embraces a naturalistic approach and avoids unnatural interruptions to the authentic EFL classroom, aiming to maximise the ecological validity of findings (Han, 2019). Specifically, the teacher participants were instructed to exhibit their natural teaching plans in designing writing prompts and delivering feedback. This study also allows changes to the pre-designed research plans, viewing them as occurrences that mirror real-world situations.

With these authentic, rich and in-depth data, it enriches the understanding of learner engagement with teacher feedback on various focuses (i.e. language, content, genre and praise). To elaborate, each dimension of learner engagement with TWF, together with its operational definitions, has been reevaluated and enriched based on previous studies and data in the current study. Through detailed descriptions of various engagement behaviours and decisions, it furnishes future researchers with a clearer understanding of the sub-categories and their corresponding operational definitions of learner engagement with TWF.

Particularly, its significance lies in affective engagement, an area that has received

insufficient attention (Han & Gao, 2020). The current study elicited authentic emotional experience in students' processing of and reacting to TWF and the meta-affective dimensions of affect, highlighting the significance of emotions in improving the efficacy of learner activities.

Secondly, the study pushes the boundaries of the related field further by including a broader aspect of teacher feedback and diverse research participants. The comprehensive data collected in the study increases its generalisation possibilities. Moreover, the longitudinal nature of the study allows the researcher to develop an increased rapport with the participants, especially with the participating students. Thus, it enables the researcher to reflect a more authentic and nuanced picture of how students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively engage with TWF (Ortega & Iberri-Shea, 2005). It also enhances the likelihood of detecting any changes in engagement levels. The collection of this indigenous data reveals the real-world occurrence and confirms that each individual is unique in deciding how they engage with TWF.

Furthermore, the study contributes to the research by probing the fundamental aspects of learner engagement—the individual and contextual factors that may influence the extent of learner engagement. It provides a more comprehensive understanding of how and why a specific engagement occurs (Atkinson, 2010). It justifies that language learning does not solely happen in one's head but through the interactions between individual and contextual factors (Van der Veer, 2007). While earlier studies pinpointed several mediating factors of learner engagement (e.g. Busse 2013; Han, 2017; Zheng & Yu, 2018), the majority focused on one single learner factor. This study, on the other hand, was purposefully designed to uncover the cumulative effects of multiple individual and contextual factors on student

engagement with TWF (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In other words, by observing how each student went about their revisions and analysing his/her immediate verbal reports, the study mirrored the dynamics of how and why different levels of engagement came into existence and confirmed that an investigation of learner engagement from a contextualised perspective could yield more fruitful results.

1.4-Layout of the thesis

This thesis comprises six chapters. The current chapter (Chapter 1) introduces the research background, research objectives and research questions. In addition, the significance of the study is highlighted, followed by an overall layout of the thesis.

Chapter 2 examines the previous research on TWF and student engagement with TWF, along with the relevant individual and contextual factors. Chapter 3 then describes the specific research questions and introduces how the current research has been carried out, including the rationale (based on research gaps and insights from the pilot study) and research questions, research paradigms, specific research approaches, participants, procedure and sources for data collection, data analysis, ethical considerations, the researcher's role and finally the validations and reliability of the study.

Chapter 4 moves on to present the qualitative and detailed findings to answer the five research questions. In the next chapter, major findings extracted from the detailed elaborations on the data will be presented, summarised and discussed to paint a comprehensive and contextualised picture of learner engagement with TWF. Finally in Chapter 6, after a summary of the study, its theoretical, practical and pedagogical

contributions will be demonstrated. Finally, this chapter will be concluded with a discussion of limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter begins by introducing teacher written feedback (TWF), a teaching approach utilised in both EFL and ESL settings. Then, the gaps detected in current TWF research will be presented, which justifies why the current study focuses on learner engagement with TWF. Subsequently, after introducing the conceptualization of learner engagement, empirical evidence highlighting each dimension of learner engagement will be demonstrated, succeeded by a review of literature exploring learner engagement from a multi-dimensional perspective. Further illustrations will include prior studies that revealed the individual and contextual factors mediating student engagement with TWF. Overall, for each main theme, key studies will be presented, with a particular emphasis on the gaps and limitations within these studies.

2.1-TWF: importance, prevalence and students' preference

In education settings, feedback, which refers to the provision of information about the comprehension or performance of a learner's current learning status, is perceived as vital to consolidate and encourage learning (Kahyalar & Yılmaz, 2016; Morris, Perry & Wardle, 2021). Regarding teaching and learning of L2 writing, feedback from teachers, especially in its written format, has been regarded as one of the most common and significant teaching approaches to facilitate the revision of writing drafts and the development of L2 writing. TWF is conceived as teacher comments that address what is working and what is not working in the students' writing drafts (Dressler, Chu, Crossman & Hilman, 2019; Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2008b). Several studies confirmed that TWF provided opportunities for novice writers to revise and enhance the quantity and sometimes the quality of revisions (e.g. Ashwell, 2000;

Sweeney, 1999; Vardi, 2000). Ferris (1997, 1999, 2012) made a general conclusion that TWF contributed to text performance. Specifically, marginal notes, feedback asking for clarification and error corrections all triggered students' revision.

Providing written feedback in students' writing texts is a common approach in the sense that both teachers in ESL (Diab, 2015; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Ferris, Liu, Sinha & Senna, 2013) as well as EFL classrooms (Lee, 2009; Mahfoodh, 2017; Suzuki et al., 2019) responded to their students' drafts through TWF. While the majority of written feedback literature targeted university and adult learners, there were also inquiries that specifically explored other educational tiers. For example, Lee (2008b) observed that teachers in secondary schools were required and relied on written feedback to react to both local and global issues in their students' writing assignments.

Not only did teachers commonly adopt TWF as a writing teaching method, students also endorsed and valued TWF (Lee, 2017). Student writers, especially those who recognized the importance of TWF, wished to receive more TWF (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ruegg, 2015). For example, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1996) examined 316 second-language college students' evaluation of TWF and concluded that the writers acknowledged the value of expert comments on their linguistic errors and content issues. Using a questionnaire, Z. Zhang (1995) involved 61 ESL learners to explore their affective responses to oral teacher feedback, teacher comments and peer evaluation. It was concluded that, unlike English as a first language (L1) learners, English as a second language (ESL) students constantly held TWF in higher regard (Fu & Nassaji, 2016) and attributed higher marks to TWF than other sources such as peer feedback and oral feedback (Yang, Badger & Yu, 2006).

In the EFL context, Chen, Nassaji and Liu (2016) discovered a welcoming stance towards TWF from the writing learners. Zhao (2010) revealed that Chinese students utilised a higher quantity of TWF to correct linguistic errors and improve their written content than peer suggestions. Zaman and Azad (2012) found that EFL learners in Bangladesh were willing to receive local and global teacher feedback from their teachers but were not open to corrective feedback from their peers. Even in secondary educational settings, Lee (2008b) revealed that the students expected more teacher feedback. Over half (51%) of the advanced students wished for more content feedback over language and organisation comments. Conversely, low proficiency students showed a more balanced preference for content (23.8%), organisation (28.6%) and linguistic feedback (28.6%).

To conclude, TWF proved to be a popular and frequently adopted teaching approach in L2 writing and was preferred by student writers, especially when compared to alternative feedback sources such as peer feedback. Hence, a comprehensive comprehension of TWF would be advantageous.

However, findings from prior research were inconsistent and inconclusive (Goldstein, 2006; Liu & Brown, 2015), creating confusion for writing teachers who sought to enhance the efficacy of TWF. In addition, a comprehensive understanding of TWF was deterred since “the pendulum has swung too far towards experimental studies” (Storch, p.29, 2010).

Previous studies had been dominated by experimental and quasi-experimental designs, which assessed the effectiveness of teacher feedback based on the assumptions that student writers were passive receivers who would not exercise control over their own learnings (Storch, 2010). In other words, it took the participants out of their daily studying circumstances. Thus, the results generated from an artificial laboratory setting might not portray the complete

scenario in real-world environments (Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 2016).

Furthermore, this strand of literature has predominantly focused on ESL contexts, where the dominant teaching approach has been process-writing. EFL settings, where teachers' perceptions towards writing and teaching approaches of writing differed from those in ESL context, attracted insufficient attention (Lo & Hyland, 2007). Even when some writing instructors were introduced to innovative writing approaches such as process writing, their real-world practice was different since the broader sociocultural context may exert pressures and preventions (Mak & Lee, 2014).

The limitations in methodology design and research context underscored the crucial and pressing need to explore TWF from an alternative perspective (Goldstein, 2010). Rather than solely examining the learning outcomes of TWF, the process where students responded to, thought of and generated emotions and attitudes towards TWF deserve more attention. This particular process could be conceptualised as learner engagement with TWF (Ellis, 2010a, 2010b). As proposed by Moser (2020), extensive engagement from the feedback receivers is a prerequisite for TWF to be effective. Learning calls for student actions, which is probably the key attribute of learning (Ellis, 2010). It is believed that investigation into learner engagement can foster a comprehensive understanding of language learning since “engagement defines all learning” (Hiver, Al-Hoorie & Mercer, 2020, p.3).

Therefore, in the following section, the concept of learner engagement of TWF, its empirical evidence and the identified individual and contextual factors that influenced the levels of engagement will be presented.

2.2-Student engagement with TWF

From the late 1990s, research on teacher feedback had witnessed an attentional shift from quantitatively measuring the effectiveness of TWF on students' written products (e.g. Hartshorn et al., 2010; Kubota, 2001; Semke, 1984; Storch, 2010) to qualitatively explore the way students responded to TWF (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Walker, 2009; Zyngier, 2008). Recently, researchers became aware that the effectiveness of TWF was contingent more on how students reacted to TWF, rather than the way TWF was delivered by the teachers (Handley, Price & Millar, 2011). According to Ellis (2010a), the way students responded to TWF could be understood by an exploration of learner engagement. Specifically, student engagement with TWF can be perceived as how feedback receivers notice, comprehend, utilise and feel about TWF. A higher engagement level is believed to motivate and foster effective utilisation of feedback, produce better-quality written drafts, and improve overall English writing abilities (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2014; Song et al., 2017; Zhang, 2017).

The current body of research has examined learner engagement with teacher feedback through more specific concepts such as depth of processing (DoP) (e.g., Storch and Wigglesworth, 2010), language analytic ability (e.g., Sheen, 2007), revision behaviours (Goldstein, 2006), employment of learning strategies (Cohen, 1987), learner attitudes and perceptions of teacher comments (e.g., Saito, 1994). Although the studies provided insightful observations to understand how students processed TWF, they shared some constraints and limitations. Firstly, the concept regarding student engagement was inconsistent and sometimes unclear (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004), making it difficult to draw cross-study comparisons. Moreover, this bulk of research concerned solely one facet of learner

engagement, overlooking the intertwined nature of the three dimensions of learner engagement (i.e. behavioural, cognitive and affective engagement) (Han & Gao, 2020).

More recently, with increasing attention allocated to L2 writing research, a consensus had been made by most scholars that learner engagement with TWF included three perspectives: cognition, behaviour and affect (Ellis, 2010a, 2010b; Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004). Illuminated by educational research and second language writing literature, two elaborations of the tripartite conceptualization were mostly referenced in the studies on learner engagement with TWF.

2.2.1-Student engagement as a multi-dimensional construct

In the field of educational research, learner engagement is understood in its broad sense as well as a narrower scope. Its broader sense, which can be termed school engagement, refers to learners' recognition and participation in schooling (Skinner et al, 2009). In the context of higher education, it is explored more often concerning its influence on achievement and success in universities. A tighter definition of student engagement, also termed task engagement (Svalberg, 2017), alluded to how the students engage with a particular learning activity (Kahu, 2013), which provides more insights to the current study. Fredrick et al. (2004) identified the multi-dimensional nature of learner engagement and proposed a fusion of the behaviour, emotional and cognition aspects.

According to Fredrick et al. (2004), cognitive engagement refers to students' awareness and readiness to invest mental exertion to deal with educational activities. Awareness was akin to the practice of cognitive and metacognitive techniques. However, the inclusion of readiness

was controversial, since it points to an intention rather than an action. Behavioural engagement bore similarities with participation. It took into consideration students' engagement in all education-related activities. Affective engagement was interpreted as positive and negative emotions encompassing being happy, interested, sad, anxious and bored (Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Zheng & Yu, 2018).

While Fredrick et al. (2004) provided valuable insights into integrating the trilateral components to understand learner engagement, further elucidations of the definitions of each dimension were needed for investigations specifically exploring learner engagement with TWF. This prompted researchers to refer to Ellis' model (2010a) for more precise insights.

In the domain of L2 writing, F. Hyland (2003) was one of the few pioneers to investigate the degree to which university students utilised TWF. However, the popularisation of learner engagement with feedback was through Ellis (2010a) who discussed more in detail a multi-dimensional conceptualization of learning engagement with teacher feedback.

In Ellis' (2010) descriptions, cognitive engagement referred to depth of processing (initially from Craik & Lockhart, 1972). Behavioural engagement included whether the students modify their errors or not. Affective engagement was perceived as feedback receivers' affective responses to the teachers' comments in their drafts. Recognizing that this dimension lacked research, Ellis (2010a) exclusively referenced two emotions, anxiety and dislike, in his elaborations. For instance, Krashen's (1982) study was listed to illustrate the relationship between feedback and anxiety. Meanwhile, drawing on Storch and Wigglesworth's (2010) conclusion, the mood of dislike activated by the exact form of written comments (reformulation) was also suggested.

2.2.2-An operational conceptualization of student engagement

While the multi-faceted nature of learner engagement has laid the groundwork for empirical research on student engagement with TWF, there remains a scarcity of relevant studies. This was probably because of the challenges in implementing these concepts into feasible data collection methods. Later, Han & F. Hyland (2015) addressed this challenge by formulating a more operational conceptualization of student engagement and validating it with empirical data. To be specific, their findings pinpointed the sub-categories within each dimension (i.e. cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement) and offered directions for researchers interested in conducting experiments in this field. In the following subsections, each dimension is expounded upon with empirical studies, accompanied by the highlight of limitations that justified the need for further research in this domain.

2.2.2.1-Cognitive engagement and the relevant empirical evidence

According to Han and F. Hyland (2015), cognitive engagement included the quality of processing and the employment of cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. However, most prior studies explored the quality of processing by focusing on a differentiation between noticing and understanding of feedback which led to changes in accuracy from original drafts to revised drafts (e.g. Baker & Bricker, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Lee, 2009; Leki, 1990).

Qi and Lapkin (2001) used think-aloud protocols to examine the relations between two ESL adult learners' noticing level of the feedback in reformulation and the improvement of their

written texts. It was found that most students noticed the differences between their original drafts and the reformulation provided by the experts, but the quality of this noticing differed. Perfunctory and substantive noticing were identified as two degrees of noticing, with the former indicating noticing only and the latter referring to noticing and providing justifications. It was revealed that the quality of noticing had a direct influence on the learners' revised writing drafts, since substantive noticing resulted in more changes and improvement in the participants' later written outputs. In addition, they proposed that English proficiency levels were a possible factor in influencing the quality of noticing (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Furthermore, Sheen (2007) questioned whether the comprehensiveness of feedback would influence students' cognitive engagement levels and subsequently included focused feedback (i.e. feedback only targeting one or several linguistic features) as the research focus. The finding revealed that feedback addressing a single linguistic feature prompted deeper cognitive engagement from students, allowing for higher notice frequency and better comprehension of the feedback provided. It was also found that the linguistic analytical ability, as a more specific individual difference, mediated student engagement. Those who were more capable to generate and apply linguistic rules to write new sentences engaged more cognitively with feedback, especially when it was provided directly with metalinguistic explanations.

Sachs and Polio (2007) also suggested that when the students encountered feedback highlighting their linguistic errors, they were more likely to correct them when they knew the metalinguistic rules of this particular error. Relying on pair talk, Storch and Wigglesworth (2010a) examined the interrelation between DoP and learners' uptake of two types of TWF (i.e. reformulation and coded feedback) in revised drafts. One of the general findings revealed that extensive cognitive level with editing feedback (compared to reformulations) contributed

to a higher level of uptake. For instance, errors being noticed were likely to be corrected. In addition, errors for which students could provide metalinguistic explanations were more likely to be corrected.

Suzuki (2012) utilised learners' written verbalizations to explore their cognitive processing of direct written feedback. The students needed to write in a separate sheet because some of their grammatical forms were corrected by TWF. The findings suggested that engaging cognitively with TWF by writing down one's understanding of specific comments created positive changes in revision, where fewer errors were found in students' revised drafts than in their first drafts.

By conducting questionnaires immediately after the revisions of learners' written drafts with TWF, Simard, Guénette, and Bergeron (2015) investigated ESL high school (i.e. the province of Quebec) learners' understanding of both direct and indirect written feedback. The findings suggested that the majority of direct and direct WCF was noticed by the students. However, students were observed to provide more specific metalinguistic rules to direct feedback whereas they offered general or sometimes empty justifications to indirect feedback. The concept of empty justification concurred with the response of "don't know" by one of the participants in Suzuki's (2010, p.10) study, who articulated it as an explanation for not revising his problematic expression.

The findings mentioned above suggested that a dichotomy between noticing and understanding was not sufficient to fully capture the complexity of student writers' DoP. In addition, the reliance on verbal reports or questionnaires solely resulted in a limited understanding of the degree of the processing of TWF. Thus, further explorations on the DoP

triggered by TWF were still needed.

Regarding learning strategies, Oxford (1990) defined them as particular techniques or actions that students employ to mediate the acquiring, storing, recollecting, utilising and applying of learning information and knowledge. It was suggested that a lack of suitable strategies for offering specific explanations could result in less cognitive engagement and inaccurate revision behaviours (Silver & Lee, 2007).

Teng and Z. Zhang (2016) related learning techniques specifically to L2 writing.

Accordingly, cognitive strategies refer to the writers' inner capacity to process their writing knowledge while writing. In contrast, metacognitive strategies inferred the aptitude for administrating the learners' cognition which guided and regulated students' writing behaviours. Oxford (2011) concluded that analysis, comparison, synthesis and reasoning, could be regarded as key patterns of cognitive learning strategies. The necessity of researching students' metacognitive engagement has been highlighted by many researchers (Harris, 2003; Macaro, 2001). Chamot (2004) emphasised that language teachers should direct their attention to students' metacognitive commitment from four facets recursively: "planning, monitoring, managing learning, and evaluating" (Chamot, 2004).

In terms of empirical evidence, most research focused on examining the relationship between explicit instruction of writing strategies and their effects on the writing competencies. In their studies, written feedback was only considered as a part of the teaching practice. Thus, scanty attention was allocated to understanding whether these strategies help students maximise the effectiveness of TWF that contribute to their overall writing performance. For instance, Hammann and Stevens (2003) offered explicit compare-contrast essay writing strategies to

three groups of students (who were taught summarisation skills, structure analysis skills and both separately). The students were then required to write a draft, receive written feedback, and then produce a new written work as a post-test. The findings suggested that students being taught the text structure gained higher scores than other groups. Conversely, some learners demonstrated inability to apply general cognitive strategies (e.g. summarisation skills) to their actual usages in writing compare-contrast compositions.

Graham (2006) meta-analysed 39 studies and concluded that strategy instruction had an overall positive impact on students' writing performance, especially in the quality and length of writing drafts and revisions. They also examined whether the instruction was delivered by the teacher or the researchers influenced the effect of strategy instruction on students' writing quality. Employing Oxford's (1990) pre-designed questionnaire (Strategy Inventory of Language Learning), Aridah and Iswari (2021) categorised their participants into two groups: those adopted direct learning strategies and those utilised indirect strategies. T-test was used to compare the average gradings of these two groups of students to identify whether learning strategies influenced students' revised written products. Their findings revealed that learning strategies did not significantly impact the final performance of their revised drafts. In the above studies, feedback was only considered as a teaching procedure, and no attention was paid to whether and how students utilised the instructed learning strategies and their already-gained learning strategies during the process where students utilised feedback to make revisions.

To conclude, prior studies have revealed that the usages of cognitive and metacognitive strategies were a part of students' processing of TWF and had a possible influence on later revisions and writing performance (Dornyei, 2005). However, the number of these studies

were limited (Bai, 2015; Roca de Larios et al., 2008) and the data concerning the employment of strategies was based on one-time survey or questionnaires depending on general recalls from the students in their learning (Nisbet, Tindal & Arroyo, 2005), rather than being generated from students' actual revision and writing process in authentic classrooms, which was a key element in students' composing stages (Sheen, 2011).

In sum, the studies exploring the DoP still mostly followed the dichotomy categories of noticing and understanding. What appeared even more scanty was the exploration of cognitive and metacognitive operations that occurred during learners' revision process and why certain operations appeared at that specific time targeting the specific errors. Thus, studies addressing these limitations simultaneously and regarding cognitive engagement as a whole construct with multidimensions were needed.

2.2.2.2-Behavioural engagement and the relevant empirical evidence

Behavioural engagement constitutes modification behaviours to specific teacher feedback points, and the visible cognitive and metacognitive strategies activated to facilitate revision (Han & F. Hyland, 2015). Evidence from empirical studies showed various findings concerning both the quantity and the quality of students' modification behaviours. F. Hyland (1998) examined six ESL students' revision processes and their writing outcomes by using questionnaires, interviews, think-aloud reports, written products and classroom observations. The study observed that the students responded to almost 90% of TWF. However, individual differences were also found, since there was one student who only responded to 50% of the teachers' useable feedback. The different reactions by this specific student revealed that the focus of TWF, students' beliefs towards writing tasks and the importance of content versus

grammar could contribute to students' various responding activities. Ziv (1984) concluded that inexperienced learners made more successful revisions when they were provided specific feedback and when they had more concrete revision strategies informing them how to refine. Ferris (2001) found that half of the content feedback highlighting facts and details was successfully revised by the students, whereas only 10 % of those asked for argumentation and ideational reasoning were treated successfully by the students.

According to Oxford (2011), while cognitive engagement was a mental construct, it could be enacted through tangible cues. In other words, students could show visible signs of using cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cohen (2014) also agreed that some cognitive strategies were mental (unobservable) in nature but detectable through observations (observable). For example, a student could plan (unobservable) to focus on grammatical errors in her writing and take notes (observable) to strengthen the memory of some unfamiliar grammatical points. Thus, such strategic behaviours should be included into behavioural engagement. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that such behaviours are still psychological in nature. The strategies follow the “mental-before-observable” process, occurring in the mind first before they manifested observability. (Oxford, 1990; 2011).

Existing evidence manifested that several resources were applied by L2 students to help them deal with specific writing problems indicated by the teacher. Common approaches included consulting dictionaries (e.g. Lei, 2008) and asking for help from their peers or close friends (e.g. Zheng & Yu, 2018). F. Hyland (2003) also observed the usage of notebooks by the students to memorise accurate forms and subsequent reviews of these notes when preparing for a new written draft. Ferris et al. (2013) started a 16-week case study with twelve L2 university learners (with “Generation 1.5” backgrounds) in the U.S. The students relied on

their instincts to revise their drafts, while additional strategies such as rereading some sentences were also observed. This study also revealed an incongruent relationship between the accuracy of revisions and students' cognitive processing since some students successfully revised some morphological problems but had difficulty articulating why those expressions were problematic.

Thus, while the dimension of behavioural engagement with written feedback has been the focus of a multitude of empirical explorations, there were still visible gaps. Much research was devoted to examine primarily the efficacy of TWF by measuring the accuracy rate (e.g. Frear, D., & Chiu, 2015; Shintani, Ellis & Suzuki, 2014) and uptake of students' revisions (e.g. Ruegg, 2015; Santos, Serrano & Manchón, 2010), treating students as passive learners who showed no individual difference. Little attention was distributed to relate each TWF point with its subsequent modifications to reveal why such modifications were decided. Additionally, questionnaires and surveys were more commonly observed as tools to evaluate students' knowledge of cognitive and metacognitive engagement (Appleton, Christenson & Furlong, 2008; Pressley & Harris, 2009). Yet, the way students utilised cognitive and metacognitive tools in facilitating their understanding of TWF, revisions and L2 writing and learning attracted marginalised research attention (Christenson, Reschly & Wylie, 2012).

2.2.2.3-Affective engagement and the relevant empirical evidence

Affective engagement is more similar to Ellis' conceptualization (2010a) of attitudinal reactions to teacher corrections and affective experiences in revision. Comparatively, the attitudinal dimension was not incorporated in Fredrick et al's (2004) model. This realm of studies lay its interest in students' attitudes towards TWF and their emotional status regarding

feedback.

Research on students' attitudes towards TWF can be grouped into learner perceptions towards teacher feedback and their preferences when compared with other types of feedback. Seker and Dincer (2014) employed a questionnaire targeting learner feedback experience and follow-up semi-structured interviews to explore students' perceptions towards the types of feedback they received, the types of feedback they preferred, their assumed efficacy of feedback on language improvement, their affective perceptions and lastly their time to respond to feedback. They found that students appreciated all types of feedback and considered all of them beneficial. Comparatively, feedback on content, language use and lexicon received a higher score regarding their preference.

Before analysing the empirical studies in emotion engagement, there is a need to elaborate on the similar terms of emotion and mood. There have been studies (e.g. Rosenberg, 1998) that distinguished mood from emotion. Emotion referred to the immediate and more intense states of a specific referent while moods indicated feelings of lower intensity and lacked specific targets. According to Pekrun (2006), affect could be an overarching term which incorporates a spectrum of emotions and moods. Since the current study did not aim to differentiate between these two factors, the terms "affect", "emotion" and "mood" were used interchangeably.

Following the social-oriented trend in language learning, affective engagement, specifically the reference to emotion, is briefly discussed in Vygotsky's thinking (1978). However, he did not systematically expound upon this concept and thus left it as a "tantalising notion" that was designated for further discussions (Smagorinsky, 2011, p.339). According to Dewaele

and Li (2020), the exploration of emotions could be grouped into three stages.

Firstly, from the early 1960s till the mid-1980s, when cognitive perspectives were dominating the realm of language learning, affect was regarded as an opposite of scientific cognitive variables, exerting minor impacts on SLA (Prior, 2019). Then the second phase emerged (the mid-1980s to early 2010s) when some scholars continuously recognized the significance of emotion and also the relationship between emotion and cognitive processing. However, the research conducted during this period exclusively examined a specific negative learning emotion: anxiety.

More recently (since the early 2010s), underpinned by the theory of positive psychology, inclinations among researchers were discovered to look at both the positive and negative emotions in language learning and teaching, embracing the value of various emotions in fostering human beings' psychological development (Mok, 2015).

Traditionally, emotions were assumed to be dichotomous in nature, being either positive or negative (Russell & Carroll, 1999). There were also examples in language pairs that imply its bipolarity, such as happy and sad and relaxed and intense. This recognition was later challenged because it oversimplified the nature of emotion, since data generated from qualitative research showed more diverse emotions which sometimes did not fit into the taxonomy (Dewaele & Li, 2020). Ekman, Friesen and Ellsworth (2013) proposed 9 biologically basic emotions, which encompass sadness, fear, shame, disgust, anger, contempt, interest, joy and surprise. According to Ortony and Turner (1990), while the conclusion of the detected-biologically emotions attracted controversy, it might still be worthy for researchers as a starting point when trying to explore human emotions.

Coinciding with the dimensional approach (Ekman, Friesen & Ellsworth, 2013), Pekrun (2006) highlighted the necessity of valence (positive vs. negative) and activation (activating vs. deactivating) as two dimensions to foster a comprehensive view of emotion. Regarding valence, it referred to the pleasant (e.g. excited, passionate and happy) or unpleasant status (e.g. sad, disappointed, anxious). In terms of activation, it denotes the extent to which the emotion is aroused, referring to the inherent activating or deactivating feature of an emotion. Based on the valence-activation matrix (Pekrun, 2006; Russell, 1980), For example, happiness and excitement would be regarded as positive activating emotions, while satisfaction would be regarded as positive deactivating emotions (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012). Anxiety would belong to negative activating emotions whereas helplessness can be included as negative deactivating emotions.

According to Pekrun's study (2006), positive activating feelings were related to more frequent usages of in-depth cognitive engagement such as committing more time to organising and providing explanations. By contrast, positive deactivating emotions resulted in students' more shallow learning strategies such as rote learning.

These findings challenged the commonly-held belief that positive emotion always led to better learning performance and extensive learning commitment (Shao, Pekrun & Nicholson, 2019). It also indicated that solely looking at emotion from its negative and positive dimensions was not sufficient to fully understand students' emotional experience in academic learning contexts (Li, Dewaele & Hu, 2022), since positive emotions did not always bring benefits for students' learning while negative emotions did not necessarily cause damaging results in one's study. Thus, valence and activation were stated to be extremely valuable

when exploring how learners' affective dimension influenced their commitment to learning (Li, Dewaele, Pawlak & Kruk, 2022).

While recognizing the effect of emotions for achieving academic objectives as well as promoting a sense of well-being, scholars were also aware of its detrimental consequence (Li, Dewaele, Pawlak & Kruk, 2022). Hence, the idea of emotion regulation was promoted. Basic dimensions of regulation included emotion-driven, appraisal-driven, problem-driven, and environment-driven regulation (Pekrun, 2006, p.327). Emotion-driven regulation refers to directly addressing the emotions, such as carrying out relaxation activities such as doing meditations. Appraisal-driven regulations include a change of one's beliefs towards oneself and towards the learning activity. Problem-driven regulation could be achieved by enhancing the abilities to tackle specific learning obstacles. The last environmental-driven regulation means the behaviour to stay away from the environment where the emotion was generated.

Concerning empirical evidence, most studies still looked at emotions generated from TWF or responses to TWF based on its positive and negative differentiation. Seker and Dincer (2014) found that students experienced negative emotions when they waited too long for feedback. However, they did not focus on students' emotions triggered during their processing of TWF.

Confusion was found to be a main feeling during the understanding of TWF. Many scholars (e.g. Arndt, 1992; Chi, 1999; Ferris, 1995) revealed cases where students were confused with the teachers' commentary. Their confusion may come from not knowing the underlying reason for the feedback (Crawford, 1992), not being sure about their comprehension (Arndt, 1992) or knowing the feedback but having difficulties in responding to feedback (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999).

In addition, Mahfoodh (2017) found that students revealed a range of specific emotions when reacting to feedback, such as happiness, satisfaction, surprise, disappointment, dissatisfaction and frustration. The study also summarised a non-linear correlation between emotions and feedback revisions, since they were influenced by factors including the quantity of feedback and feedback as criticism. In addition, while the study still treated emotion as either positive or negative, it revealed a finding that was considered surprising to the researcher: some negative feelings (such as feeling disappointed and frustrated) also resulted in accurate revisions in students' drafts. However, there was no specific explanation to explain this point.

To sum up, despite the fact that more systematic conceptualization was formulated in understanding emotion, this line of research, especially focusing on engagement with TWF, was still scanty. The majority of the research associated emotional experience with L2 learning, and relied on surveys or questionnaires to understand self-perceived general emotions (Li, Dewaele & Hu, 2023). Recent attempts (e.g. Ene & Yao, 2021; Saeli & Rahmati, 2023) started to examine affective dimensions following a qualitative paradigm, yet they were still limited in number and yielded inconsistent findings. Thus, research targeting students' affective experience during the process of their learning is needed to capture the authentic and timely affect that occurred when students are implicated in a specific learning activity.

2.2.3-Empirical evidence regarding engagement as a multi-dimensional construct

Compared to studies examining learner engagement from a sole dimension, studies adapting the tripartite framework in a bid to generate a comprehensive and systematic understanding

of learner engagement with TWF are still limited (Liu & Storch, 2021). In the upcoming sections, an overview of these studies will be provided (summarised in Table 1), followed by the limitations within these studies.

Table 1: Research on learner engagement with feedback employing the tripartite framework

Year/Author	Research focus	Student participants	length	Writing assignment
Han & F. Hyland, 2015	WCF	4 intermediate (IM)	5 weeks	1 essay
Han, 2017	WCF	2 low-proficiency (LP) 2 high-proficiency (HP) 2 IM	16 weeks	1 essay
Zhang & K, Hyland, 2018	TWF and computer-generated feedback	1 LP and 1 HP	16 weeks	TWF: 1 essay Computer-generated: 1 essay
Zheng & Yu, 2018	WCF	12 LP	3 weeks	1 essay
Han & Xu, 2019	WCF	1 HP and 1 IM	16 weeks	1 essay
Zheng, Yu & Liu, 2020	WCF	2 LP as focal cases	4 weeks	1 essay

Liu & Storch, 2021	WF	2 IM and 1 HP	Not mentioned	1 review
Zhang & K. Hyland, 2022	Computer-generated, peer and teacher feedback	Total: 33 11 were interviewed	16 weeks	1 essay
Cheng & Liu, 2022	TWF	7 LP and 8 HP	Not mentioned	1 essay

As mentioned before, Han and Hyland's study (2015) was one of the first L2 writing research to investigate student engagement with WCF (i.e. linguistic errors) from behavioural, affective and cognitive dimensions. They included four undergraduate students with diverse major backgrounds and examined their engagement with teacher WCF in a Chinese university. It reported that these non-English major students reacted to WCF superficially, since they seldom provided accurate metalinguistic justification when making revisions. One student showed no attempt in consulting the teacher, even when she had concerns with some feedback. Metacognitive strategies were deployed by some students, but they may not necessarily elicit deeper mental processing. Various particular emotions were found, such as feeling pleased, satisfied, overwhelmed, confused, upset, disappointed and sad. Influencing factors were detected such as L2 abilities, learners' beliefs, goals and expectations. From the contextual levels, the teachers' knowledge about her students and student-teacher conferences showed their impact on learner engagement. Specifically, two students initiated discussions with the teacher, even when a teacher-student conference was not compulsory. These attempts facilitated their understanding of specific feedback points. For instance, one student misinterpreted a piece of indirect feedback as praise, and only recognized its corrective nature

after the teacher's explanation.

Following Han and F. Hyland (2015), a group of researchers started to focus on learner engagement with teacher feedback. Han (2017) delved into the influence of learner factors on six Chinese university students' engagement with WCF and exposed three categories of beliefs that could mediate learner engagement. They were beliefs regarding writing topics, individual elements and strategic considerations. Additionally, the relationship between the three sets of beliefs and engagement were not unidirectional, but reciprocal. Moreover, the beliefs acted as mediators not only for learner engagement, but also for learning motivation and expectations, which subsequently, also affected engagement. Hence, the study enhanced our understanding of individual factors in L2 writing and highlighted the importance of more contextualised studies exploring the complex relationship among individual factors and learner engagement.

Recognizing the influence of L2 proficiency levels, Zheng and Yu (2018) specifically focused on low-proficiency students' engagement with WCF. Twelve low-performing students were examined in terms of their responses to WCF. A general favourable attitude was reported towards the WCF and the teachers, and most students felt positive towards feedback. However, specific negative emotions, such as feeling "intense" and "frustrated", also were also observed. Language proficiency was found to be a major influence on students' understanding of WCF. Furthermore, the directness of WCF, together with the low English proficiency level, constituted two interacting factors that contributed to the lower accuracy rate in students' revised drafts. The study also identified that students' infrequent and unwilling pursuit of external support and their superficial application of learning techniques resulted in unresolved concerns regarding teacher feedback.

The interplay of different factors in influencing learner engagement was also reflected in Han and Xu's (2019) study. They included two Chinese students and explored the processes and reasons for their engagement actions with WCF by encompassing multiple factors within the umbrella term "student feedback literacy" (Han & Xu, 2019, p.2). Building on the definitions clarified by Xu and Carless (2017) and Carless and Boud (2018), they conceptualised student feedback literacy in L2 writing as students' "cognitive and social-affective capacity and disposition" (Han & Yu, 2019, p.3) before they extensively engaged with feedback. As a result, learner beliefs, motivation and metalinguistic knowledge surfaced in the data and were identified as influential determinants of learner engagement.

Overall, the studies discussed above yield valuable insights into L2 writing and feedback research. However, they also shared several common limitations. To begin with, they focused on grammatical feedback exclusively, with non-linguistic elements in students' drafts such as content, genre and compliments being excluded from consideration. However, writing competence extended beyond linguistic accuracy (Hinkel, 2011) and writing teachers addressed more than just grammatical errors (Ashwell, 2000). In addition, students' incorporation of TWF for revision not solely depended on teachers' grammatical comments (Zacharias, 2007). Conversely, in real classroom situations, students sometimes read through all the TWF points before revisions, perceiving both linguistic and non-linguistic feedback as a whole entity. Some even initiated their revisions by giving more priority to content feedback rather than grammar feedback (Cheng & Liu, 2022; Liu, 2021). Thus, there is a need for studies that encompass a wider range of teacher feedback.

Furthermore, while previous studies have included students with different proficiency levels,

the discrepancies in participant selection criterion hindered the comparability of the findings across studies and the generalisation possibilities of conclusions. For instance, both the studies of Cheng and Liu (2022) and Han and Xu (2019) involved high-proficiency students as the student participants. However, in the former study, high-proficiency students were selected based on the English scores in the National College Entrance Examination. In the latter study, more active and effective revision approaches after receiving WCF were criteria for high-proficiency students. In addition, none of the studies indicated the ranking range of the focal university (e.g. Liu & Storch, 2021; Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018), further limiting the comparability of the findings across different studies. For example, a higher-performer in a low-ranking university may only be on par with average or even low-proficiency students in top-tier universities. This distinct sampling criterion and the missing information could partly explain the inconsistency and confusion in the findings regarding student engagement with written feedback. Therefore, a study that includes students with various proficiency levels in the same university setting may address this gap.

Lastly, all existing research exploring student engagement with written feedback lasted for a relatively short period (e.g. five weeks in Han & F. Hyland's study) and contained only one writing task. However, prior studies (Han & Gao, 2020; Han & Xu, 2019) have affirmed that the mechanisms of learner engagement with feedback are intricate, dynamic and subject to be modified. This implies that research featuring a single writing task and a short research period may not be sufficient to detect potential changes in the extent of learner engagement with TWF. Thus, the study aimed to push the boundaries of existing research further by including six writing drafts and spanning two academic semesters (approximately 32 weeks). The purposeful design of the current study sought to uncover any changes in individual students' engagement levels and, more importantly, delved deeply into how and why a

particular engagement pattern occurred.

Besides research on learner engagement with WCF, recent research witnessed initial attempts to explore learner engagement with TWF. For instance, Liu and Storch (2021) concerned not only WCF, but also non-linguistic teacher feedback such as ideas and structure. The findings indicated that, irrespective of the feedback focus, a predominant percentage of TWF (97%) were taken up by the students. The extensive uptake primarily resulted from the power hierarchy, given that the students were aware that their revised drafts would be reevaluated by the teacher. Yet, a greater uptake rate did not necessarily equate to neither a thorough understanding nor accurate amendment of indicated errors. Overall, the study provided insights into students' engagement with both corrective and content-related feedback. However, attributing the exclusion to a lack of specific guidance for revision, the study excluded both in-text compliments and end comments. According to F. Hyland and K. Hyland (2001), praises as written feedback sometimes functioned to soften criticisms and suggestions, thus potentially eliciting positive attitudes from students towards their feedback practice. However, this kind of compliments might lead to students' misunderstanding of certain feedback points (Hu, Van Veen & Corda, 2016). While prior studies on end comments as feedback produced inconsistent findings, there was evidence indicating that it facilitated revision by providing a sense of audience and allowing students to understand their writing from a global perspective (Lee & Schallert, 2008; Pearson, 2022). Therefore, an exploration that excludes compliments and end comments may leave insightful findings concerning TWF undiscovered.

Zhang and K. Hyland's (2022) study were innovative in that their study integrated three feedback types (i.e. automated, peer and teacher feedback) and examined their impact on

fostering engagement. The findings reinforced the multi-dimensional nature of engagement and affirmed the pivotal role of an integrated approach in enhancing learner engagement with feedback. Automated feedback offered immediate writing evaluation and multiple redrafting opportunities while peer feedback alleviated writing anxiety and encouraged collaboration. Nevertheless, the study accentuated the indispensable role of teachers in the feedback integration pedagogical process. Without the teachers' guidance, supervision, and the final step of teacher feedback, the extent and effectiveness of engagement with the integrated feedback would have been compromised. The study yielded promising evidence supporting the viability of integrating different types of feedback as a pedagogical approach to promote engagement. However, a limitation arises from relying on students' final interviews as indicators of their engagement levels. Moreover, the study did not explicitly specify the interval between students' utilising feedback for revision *in situ* and conducting the interview, thereby introducing a potential risk of memory loss, as students' articulation in their interviews may not faithfully reflect their actual actions (Gamlem & Smith, 2013).

Another relevant exploration was from Cheng and Liu (2022), who examined engagement with TWF of fifteen students, with 7 being classified as HP and 8 as LP students. TWF was found to encompass two common patterns, namely local and global. In total, local feedback constituted 67.4% whereas global feedback made up 32.6% of the total feedback points. In terms of cognitive engagement, HP students demonstrated a deeper and more accurate understanding of WCF than their LP counterparts and utilised more cognitive (e.g. categorization error types) and metacognitive strategies (e.g. evaluating and planning). Behaviourally, HP students engaged more extensively, conducting various range of revision operations on WCF and seeking more external resources for refining their drafts. Concerning affect, both groups of students showed their interest, anticipation and willingness to receive

feedback.

To sum, the study enriched the body of research by examining learner engagement with linguistic, content and organisational feedback. Nonetheless, besides sharing similar limitations with the prior studies—such as including only specific student groups and employing only one writing task—the study had other constraints. Despite the claim to address learner engagement with both local and global feedback, the reported findings and discussions primarily concentrated on local feedback. For instance, the study only reported students' revision behaviour on local feedback, which was a sub-category of behavioural engagement. Thus, the study loses some clarity and value in capturing students' feelings, responses and cognitive processes of TWF.

Overall, informed by both the conceptual discussion on student engagement and empirical evidence (Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018; Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018, 2022), the current study perceives student engagement as a multi-dimensional construct containing cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions. Particularly, cognitive engagement involves students' DoP, and the utilisation of cognitive and metacognitive behaviours in processing TWF. Behavioural engagement refers to revision behaviours, and the students' observable actions in employing cognitive and metacognitive skills. In terms of affective engagement, it encompasses learners' attitudes, concrete affect, as well as meta-affective operations (detailed elaboration presented in Appendix A).

2.3-Factors influencing student engagement

To foster more extensive and effective learner engagement with TWF, it was necessary and

important to have supportive conditions (Price et al., 2011). These conditions were often categorised as individual and contextual factors (Ellis, 2010; Goldstein, 2004, 2006).

2.3.1-Individual factors

Reynolds (2010) endorsed the promising role of additional individual differences besides age and L2 proficiency levels as future directions in L2 writing research to explore. Prior studies exploring TWF revealed a plethora of individual factors that influenced how students behaviourally reacted to the written forms of teacher comments and their effects on revisions and newly written drafts. To be specific, these factors included, but were not limited to L2 proficiency (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ishikawa, 1995), students' prior learning experience of English writing and feedback (Han, 2019), beliefs towards learning and learning motivation (e.g. Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a). However, much was needed to know about how these various factors influence student engagement with TWF (Flahive, 2010).

2.3.1.1-L2 proficiency

One of the most significant and commonly explored individual factors that affects students' engagement with TWF is L2 competence. The results from a meta-analysis by Kang and Han (2015) revealed the overall effect of language proficiency on feedback efficacy. This supported Pienemann (1998) and Mansouri and Duffy (2015) that feedback providers should consider the linguistic readiness among students when they made decisions on what to correct. However, Kang and Han's (2015) meta-analysis identified a lack of equal attention given to students with different English proficiency levels. In their review of the relevant

studies, four articles involved high-performing students, twelve addressed intermediate learners and only one study (e.g. Semke, 1984) recruited beginner writers.

Guenette (2007) shared her experience that in spite of the feedback techniques, the high-level students tended to react to feedback more efficiently, while the less proficient learners needed to be compelled and urged to modify their drafts. Findings from some scholars posited that underperforming students had difficulties in reacting to feedback on their own. When feedback was less explicit and thus required higher analytical abilities, it triggered negative emotions such as anxiety and worry (Porte, 1996; Yagelski, 1995).

The mediating role of learner proficiency was also found in the comparison between direct and indirect feedback. For example, Ellis (2009) proposed that direct feedback promoted effective language development among beginner writers since they still needed direct instruction to enrich their language repertoire. However, more advanced students engaged more with implicit feedback since they were sufficiently equipped with linguistic representation to react to feedback. Ferris (2022) also suggested that weaker writers benefited more from direct feedback.

However, a limitation in this trend of studies was that feedback (either in its oral or written form, or it targeted exclusively on linguistic errors) was treated as a learning product.

Learners recruited in most studies (e.g. Guenette, 2007; Mansouri & Duffy, 2015) were treated as passive receivers, since the extent of their efforts in responding to the feedback was neglected (Hyland, 1998).

2.3.1.2-Motivation and learning goals

There was still fuzziness in the concept of motivation and engagement. One key method distinguishing motivation from engagement is execution (Hiver, Al-Hoorie, Vitta & Wu 2021). Motivation could refer to the original motive, planning and intent, whereas engagement is the subsequent execution (Noels et al., 2019). Despite their interconnectedness, previous research has largely examined them as distinct constructs (Latif, 2019). Most studies exploring the relationship between L2 motivation with L2 learning adopted psychometric measurement to generate relationships among scores in questionnaires. For example, Shoaib and Dornyei (2005) proposed to view motivation as an ever-changing construct and kept track of 25 participants' changes in their motivation with biographical interviews. While this study proposed a new perspective to view motivation and shared meaningful results, it was inefficient since it neglected individual differences.

A small number of studies looked specifically at feedback practice in L2 writing and revealed the role of motivation in learner engagement with teacher feedback. According to F. Hyland (1998), one participant became less motivated since TWF focused more on linguistic errors and lacked praise. This decrease in motivation resulted in her perceptions towards feedback as less beneficial than she expected. In Han and F. Hyland's (2015) study, one student showed minimal motivation to improve her writing since she was confident with her current English abilities. This overconfidence resulted in most of her errors being unattended, since she believed that the errors indicated by TWF were due to the teacher's misunderstanding of her argument. She also showed limited evidence of employing cognitive and meta-cognitive operations. However, studies exploring the relationship among teacher feedback, learning motivation and engagement levels were still scarce and inconclusive (Tang & Li, 2018).

Even smaller was the number of research on learning goals and student engagement with feedback, which was probably because most scholars regarded L2 learning goals as a construct of motivation (Elliot & Church, 1997). According to Brown (2014) and VandeWalle (1997), L2 learning goals refer to the desire to grow towards a desirable self. Brown (2007) posited that L2 learning goals had a close relationship with efficient and valuable L2 learning. Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981) proposed that setting goals for learning could breed more strategic behaviours in deciding what to focus on, what to do, and how to achieve those goals.

Empirical evidence of the mediating role of learning goals could be found in some case studies exploring learner engagement. For example, one student in Han and Hyland's (2015) study revealed her goals for fluently communicating with native speakers, since she planned to travel abroad in the future. This goal influenced her motivation in engaging with writing activities, since she valued more on the listening and speaking aspects. Consequently, she demonstrated revision on the surface-level, insufficient cognitive processing TWF and problematic usages of online dictionaries.

To conclude, motivation and L2 learning goals seemed to integrate with each other and together mediate how students process and react to TWF. However, since the evidence was insufficient, more research was called for to investigate the possible relationship between these two individual factors and learner engagement (Han, 2019; Matos et al., 2007)

2.3.1.3-Beliefs

The differentiation between learner beliefs and learner prior knowledge has been controversial among scholars. Some distinguished these two concepts in terms of being subjective or objective (e.g. Wenden, 1998) whereas others saw beliefs as a sub-category of knowledge (Flavell, 1987), or understood the two concepts from an integrative perspective (Cobern, 1993). In addition, scholars following a contextual approach viewed learner beliefs as one's own established theories or knowledge internally situated in and influenced by the multiple dimensions of contexts (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Mercer, 2011).

In the current study, the two terms were used interchangeably to direct more attention to student engagement with these factors, rather than diverted attention to their distinctions. More importantly, a detailed look at my original classification of beliefs and knowledge grounded in the study showed fuzziness and appeared to be emerged and comprehended as a united concept. For example, a student learned from her teacher that the usage of an online writing platform could benefit her writing. It could be understood as knowledge since it was proven scientifically by rigorous scientific research (e.g. Ngo, Chen & Lai, 2020). However, it could also be understood as one's belief in the usefulness of this online tool. Thus, instead of dwelling on their classifications, they were regarded as a united construct. This was also validated by Dole and Sinatra (1994) who proposed that the classification of knowledge and beliefs were not of primary prominence in exploring knowledge development and change.

In terms of empirical studies, only a small number of studies addressed the interaction between beliefs and learner engagement with TWF. The participant in Storch and Wigglesworth's (2001a) study did not believe in the efficacy of the type of TWF in

reformulation, and thus did not react to that specific comment. Processing a higher level of confidence in one's linguistic as well as writing abilities could result in a detectable development in writing skills (Ferris, Liu, Sinha, and Senna, 2013).

The participant in Hyland's (2003) research progressed in her learning when she believed in the potential benefit of TWF and was equipped with the knowledge of certain learning techniques such as using a notebook. Conrad and Goldstein (1999) studied three ESL student's feedback processing procedures by analysing their written papers, teacher comments and student-teacher conferences. In their study, one participant explained his lack of revision behaviours regarding several pieces of content feedback by attributing them to his strong belief in his own argument. This finding revealed that students' beliefs about a particular topic may influence their revision decisions and actions.

2.3.2-Contextual factors

Various research work was attributed to the statement that engagement resides within different layers of context and is contextually specific. However, one main point should be noticed before further discussions of the contextual factors. As argued by Hiver, Al-Hoorie and Mercer (2020), one central characteristic of learner engagement is that it requires an object (i.e. being engaged with something). Thus, when experimental investigations are designed, the situated characteristics (what does it mean by "being engaged with something") as well as its contextual mediators should be given commensurate attention.

Empirical design following this premise confirmed that learner engagement is, to some extent, a reflection and result of social communications, cultures, institutions, classes and

certain academic activities and assignments situated inside the classes (e.g., Christenson et al., 2012; Shernoff, 2013). Furthermore, the nested contexts are perceived to contain different tiers which may impact each other and expand the influence across diverse dimensions of engagement.

2.3.2.1-Sociocultural context and Chinese culture

Research focusing on the sociocultural levels of context had its dominance in investigating feedback in the ESL and EFL context (Chong, 2019; Liu & Feng, 2023).

According to Li (2010) who utilised a meta-analysis approach to include both published and unpublished articles, corrective oral feedback reached higher levels of effectiveness in the context of foreign language, compared to a second language environment. It indicated that writers in an EFL setting had more instances of noticing the feedback and higher intention to modify their linguistic outputs than those in ESL contexts (e.g., Sheen, 2004). However, she did not specify whether the finding could be extended to the written form of teacher responses. In contrast, Kang and Han's (2015) meta-analysed study in written feedback showed controversial results. Writers in an ESL context were found to gain greater benefit from written comments than those in EFL context.

For instance, the context of Chinese EFL education demonstrated some long-assumed characteristics. English writing skills have been regarded as the most challenging task for English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher to teach and for EFL students to master (Wang et al., 2013). In addition, Teng and L. Zhang (2016) postulated that the teaching of English writing in China was test-based and product-centric. Thus, writing teachers were found to pay

less priority to cultivating students' writing enthusiasm and motivation. Neither did they have sufficient time to promote multiple drafts and provide individualised feedback to each of their students' writing drafts (Lam, 2005, 2007).

In the Chinese educational system, Confucian philosophies have continuously underlain the traditional teaching culture. Some entrenched standards such as *zunshizhongdao* (means respecting the teachers and honouring education) and *chuandaoshouye* (transmitting wisdom and imparting professional knowledge) have consistently been attached to Chinese students and teachers (Leng, 2005). Consequently, teachers in China are assumed to carry the responsibility for their learners' overall development (Sheng, 2019). In addition, teachers share an authoritative and principal nature in delivering and transmitting knowledge and embrace a higher status in the schooling system. Chinese students, in contrast, are cultivated throughout their educational experience to show their respect and follow the teachers' guidance (Wu, Zhang & Dixon, 2021). In sum, an unequal power disparity between both parties (i.e. teachers and students) is clear in the Chinese educational schema.

2.3.2.2- Institutional and instructional context

The provision of WCF can be influenced by institutional, programmatic, and curricular goals (e.g., Lee, 2008).

Lee (2008a, 2008b) studied the feedback practice in secondary schools in Hong Kong. She concluded that the feedback practice by the six teachers in the interview was greatly influenced by the requirement from the school panel. All teachers provided comprehensive marking with a larger proportion of direct feedback. As one teacher reported, they were not

allowed to only indicate an error without symbols or specific suggestions. In addition, the institutional contexts not only impacted the way teachers provided feedback, but also the way students perceived and expected feedback (Casanave, 2003).

The instruction context refers to how written feedback, as a part of the class instruction, is influenced, delivered and mediated through classroom instruction. One of the main aspects in the instructional context was how the teaching materials and content were delivered.

Yagelski (1993) found that in a classroom where the teacher highlighted writing techniques on sentence level, it would become a major focus in students' writing and revision and thus produced a higher proportion of sentence-level revisions.

In addition, student-teacher interactions were also included in the instructional context. It concerns how the teaching setting enabled students to initiate interactions with the relevant interlocutors (e.g. the teachers and the peers). Chong (2018) posited that a favourable and cooperative student-teacher rapport can influence how students treated TWF. When they felt safe and assumed fewer power relationships, they were more willing to ask the teachers, which resulted in solving problems and feeling more confident about themselves.

2.3.2.3-Textual level: TWF as the immediate layer of contextual factors

The textual level which mediated learner engagement with TWF could be perceived as the relationship between how TWF was delivered and how students reacted to, comprehended, benefited from and felt about TWF (F. Hyland, 2000; Mujtaba, Parkash & Nawaz, 2020; Qi & Lapkin, 2001). In other words, it concerned learner engagement with the characteristics of TWF, which was mostly explored in terms of the focuses of feedback (e.g. Ashwell, 2000;

Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Fazio, 2001) and the directness of feedback (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). In addition, with more attempts in utilising technology to aid language teaching, some scholars also started to explore electronic feedback to see whether this innovative delivery medium affected students' engagement.

1)-Focus of TWF

The focus of TWF can be comprehended as what aspects do the teachers concentrate on when offering comments (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Yu & Lee, 2014). Generally speaking, writing teachers and relevant scholars (Butler & Britt, 2011; Ellis, 2009; Hayes et al, 1987) categorised their written assessments on students' drafts into local errors (i.e. linguistic aspects), global aspects (i.e. content and organisation-related problems) and praise (supportive aspect that did not expect revision). So far, a consensus on what constituted good feedback that can foster L2 learning was not reached. Some proposed that TWF should address linguistic errors (e.g. Ferris & Helt, 2000; Ferris, 2006), while others argued for a comprehensive approach where feedback should be a combination of content and grammar (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Sommers, 1982).

Several researchers had explored the sequence of providing local and global feedback and their impacts on students' engagement with TWF (Cardelle & Corno, 1981; Cumming, 1985; F. Hyland, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991). However, most findings only concerned behavioural engagement. That was, they examined the amount and the accuracy of students' reactions to the different focuses of TWF

Some scholars discovered that students generated more appropriate revisions following a

sequential approach where content came before form (e.g. Frantzen, 1995; Reid, 1998; Zamel, 1985). A more recent comprehensive comparison among various types of feedback was examined by Ashwell (2000). Ashwell (2000) recruited four groups of students to test the relationship between the recommended sequence of local and global TWF and students' revision behaviours. The first group of students received content comments first and linguistic feedback later. The second group received a reverse feedback pattern: local feedback first and followed by content feedback. The other group was treated with mixed grammatical and textual feedback. Finally, there was a control group with no feedback. The result suggested no significant differences in students' grammatical accuracy and content scores among the groups of students receiving linguistic errors, content issues or a mixture of both regardless of the sequence (i.e. content before form or form before content). As students' revision behaviour was a sub-category of behavioural engagement, this study inferred that the focuses of TWF did not influence learner engagement behaviourally.

Following the discussions on the sequence of providing content vs. grammatical feedback, a small group of scholars also argued that single-draft feedback on both local and global issues was less beneficial to engage students than multiple-draft feedback that addressed accuracy and content problems respectively (Kasanga, 2001). It was suggested that highlighting all aspects of writing issues was daunting for the feedback receivers, which led to the result that not all feedback was attended to and comprehended with deep cognition (Lee, 2008). Thus, many researchers still favoured multiple drafts in writing instruction so that students had more chances to refine their drafts, had a more accurate understanding of teacher comments, and produced better-quality essays (Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1997; Muncie, 2000). However, this recommendation was less applicable when there was a large class size where the teachers had limited time and energy to offer feedback (Bai & Hu, 2017; Pervin & Siraj, 2023). Yet,

little attention could be found which addressed how to engage students more extensively in this teaching context (Han & Hyland, 2015).

In terms of the association between praises and learner engagement, related research was also relatively scarce (F. Hyland & K. Hyland, 2001), and the findings mostly concerned students' affective and behavioural engagement. For instance, Taylor and Hoedt (1966) find no difference in the quality of learners' revision outcomes between the groups that received compliments and those received negative comments. However, the finding suggested that negative feedback affectively impacted students' writing confidence and motivation. In addition, Gee (1972) found that praise generated more favourable attitudes from the students since they recognized their writing strengths by compliments.

Kumar and Stracke (2007) revealed that some PhD students favoured both general and specific praises because these comments indicated that their writing was approved by expert writers and they had reached their goals for specific writing sections. Therefore, their motivation to revise and improve their original draft became high and so was their writing confidence. Brophy (1981) set criteria for effective praise based on the findings that students' written products did not improve when they considered teachers' compliments as insincere. Likewise, one student in K. Hyland's (1998) study voiced dissent towards the teacher's compliments and regarded it a waste of time. In addition, she also questioned the sincerity of those positive feedback, because there was always a "but" after the praise. With these doubts, her trust in the TWF decreased and she ignored this specific kind of feedback.

F. Hyland and K. Hyland (2001) understood TWF by categorising them into praise, critics and suggestions. Collecting the data from the two writing teachers in an ESL context (i.e.

New Zealand), they discovered that an integration of praise-critics, praise-criticism-suggestion or critics-suggestion did not always achieve the mitigation effect of negative comments as they expected. Instead, they sometimes caused confusion, misunderstanding and unclarity during students' processing of TWF and thus did not always trigger appropriate and accurate revisions. Their findings were one of a few that revealed the relationship between the focuses of TWF and the certain sub-categories of the three dimensions of learner engagement (i.e. cognitive, behavioural and affective) (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002).

Several studies also looked at students' attitudes towards the focus of feedback. Straub (1997) surveyed 141 undergraduate students' perceptions towards teacher comments by using questionnaires. He concluded that the participants favoured elaborated TWF on contextual-level matters, such as content and organisation. Zamel (1985) also proposed that students preferred feedback on ideas and contextual levels. However, controversial conclusions were also founded where students specifically required grammatical feedback over content issues (Diab, 2005). Students in Zhang's (1995) study indicated their preference for teacher comment when providing choices of self, peer and teacher feedback. There was also evidence that multiple dimensions of feedback on content, language and organisation were expected by the students (Lee, 2005; Plonsky & Mills, 2006). While these findings revealed students' attitudes towards different focuses of TWF, which was one aspect of student engagement, little has been known about the concrete emotions triggered during students' processing of different focuses of TWF (Han & F. Hyland, 2019; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011).

2)-Directness of TWF

Most prior studies related learner engagement with the directness of TWF by looking at how

direct and indirect feedback affected the quality of students' subsequent revision behaviour (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lalande, 1982). Direct feedback was conceived as teacher comments that not only indicated the writing issues but also offered accurate expressions or concrete solutions (Cheng, Zhang & Yan, 2021). Conversely, indirect feedback occurred when the writing problems were brought to the receivers' focus, but the accurate corrections or remediation was not provided (Ferris et al, 2013; Lee, Mak & Burns, 2015).

Comparatively, indirect feedback was delivered in more diverse forms. They could range from underlining/circling problematic usages, underlining/circling with coded WF (e.g., Tang & Liu, 2018), underlining/circling with metalinguistic explanations and underlining with marginal or end comments (Ferris & Robert, 2001). To date, conclusions regarding the effect of students' processing of explicit and implicit feedback and their outcomes were still inconclusive (Mujtaba, Parkash & Nawaz, 2020).

Semke (1984) concluded that while no distinct differences were found on writing scores on their revised drafts between the groups of students who received direct corrections and coded feedback respectively, students who received indirect feedback still took it seriously, and were more motivated to make corrections. Ferris (1995) indicated that explicit feedback caused less negative emotions such as confusion and resulted in more accurate revisions with alleviated cognitive pressure. Van Beuningen (2010) found that some students internalised accurate forms provided by direct feedback and these newly formed hypotheses on target language benefited students' subsequent writing.

Chandler (2003) found that direct feedback was closely related to accurate revisions and it generated more positive attitudes from the students since it was considered the quickest and simplest way to correct errors. However, students reported engaging more deeply in

cognition since they needed to think of appropriate corrections guided by indirect feedback. Similarly, in Li's (2010) meta-analysis which included published and unpublished articles, indirect feedback was found to promote deeper levels of cognitive processing of teacher feedback. The comprehensive understanding of feedback triggered by expanded cognitive thinking remained a longer effect on students' writing accuracy than direct feedback.

Lalande (1982) identified that the students engaged more metacognitively with implicit feedback in the way that it encouraged students to reflect on their evolving interlanguage system and apply this evolving knowledge into making revisions, which was also an advantage of indirect feedback on learner engagement reported by Ferris and Roberts (2001). In an EFL environment (e.g., in Turkey), Erel and Bulut (2007) also postulated that the group of writers receiving coded feedback committed fewer errors than the groups receiving direct feedback. While the author assumed that one of the possible explanations of the divergence was students' different levels of cognitive engagement, the study itself did not provide any empirical evidence. However, the authors advocated future research to further explore how students reacted to both implicit and explicit feedback during the process so that more solid explanations could be generated to explain the mixed findings in the current research.

3)-Delivery mediums of TWF: hard-copy vs. electronic

As technology-supported teaching modes continued to expand, TWF was found to be delivered through a pen-and-paper medium or electronically through computers (Hyland, 2010). The former indicated feedback written on the hard copy of students' drafts and delivered back to the students physically. The latter indicated feedback written by the teachers, offered through computers (or mobile phones) and delivered to the students

electronically (Heift, 2001, 2010; Ware, 2011). Specifically, the e-written teacher feedback can encompass evaluations and opinions, track changes, or can be offered via online forums or word-processing software synchronously or asynchronously.

Empirical studies investigating the e-written teacher feedback were still underrepresented and most of them investigated pre-service teachers' e-written feedback on students' written interactions in online forums. For example, Martin-Beltran and Chen (2013) analysed one teacher trainee's asynchronous written feedback delivered to two ESL students through an online discussion forum. They found that students engaged extensively with this kind of feedback, proven by their higher response rate of 92% and elevated linguistic cognition. Samburskiy and Quah (2014) also focused on asynchronous novice tutors' written feedback delivered to Belarusian university English learners through the Moodle course platform. Findings demonstrated incongruous patterns in the way students treated teacher feedback. Overt feedback with metalinguistic explanations seemed to result in more revision actions from the students compared to indirect feedback, which reflected similar findings in Heift's study (2004). However, direct feedback alone also attracted some students' attention and led to revisions, while the majority were disregarded.

Ene and Upton (2014) were one of the few researchers examining human teacher e-written feedback on L2 students' essays and their uptakes. The teachers downloaded the students' drafts, provided electronic feedback using the Word function and returned the electronic feedback to the students through the university's course management system. The results showed that the electronic teacher feedback shared many traits with paper-based TWF highlighted in prior studies. The electronic teacher feedback also addressed linguistic and ideational problems; resulted in students' revisions; and was noticeable to the students. Thus,

not much difference was concluded regarding the traits of TWF and e-written teacher feedback.

2.4-Summary

Notwithstanding the considerable body of research on TWF and the rich experimental findings (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Parkash & Nawaz, 2020), student engagement with TWF was still scantily investigated (Ellis, 2010; Han & F. Hyland, 2015). While the definitions of learner engagement were still unclear and there were limited insights on its operational definitions, a consensus was reached to perceive learner engagement with TWF as a multiple-dimensional construct constituting behavioural, cognitive and affective dimensions (Christenson, Reschly & Wylie, 2012; Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018;).

While prior studies touched upon certain aspects of student engagement, it was generally investigated from a single perspective (Fredricks, Reschly & Christenson, 2019). In terms of cognitive engagement, the previous emphasis mostly highlighted the DoP, especially differentiating noticing from understanding. Little evidence was found on what cognition and metacognition were involved in students' processing of TWF (Han & F. Hyland, 2015). Concerning behavioural engagement with TWF, most studies zeroed in on students' revision behaviours, with a focus on the final written products. Other observable engagement with feedback, including revision modifications and the utilisation of cognitive and metacognitive operations lacked sufficient exploration (Han & Gao, 2020). For the last dimension of affective engagement with TWF, the existing focus was primarily on students' perceptions towards teacher feedback, rendering specific affect and its regulation strategies

underestimated and underexplored (Dewaele & Li, 2021; Hiver, Al-Hoorie, Vitta & Wu, 2021;).

Comparatively, qualitative studies on factors influencing learner engagement with TWF garnered even less scholars' interest. Previous evidence provided more quantitative findings generated from controlled research contexts (e.g., Manchon, 2009; Stefanou & Révész, 2015; Xu & Wang, 2023) which veiled individual diversities and had limitations in pedagogical and ecological relevance and applicability (Han & Gao, 2020). Thus, the conclusions derived from this line of research were still inadequate to demonstrate what specific individual and contextual factors were enacted during students' processing and engagement with TWF (Liu & Brown, 2015; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012); Storch, 2010).

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter starts by stating the research purposes and specific research questions. Following this, it provides explanations of why a qualitative research orientation has been adopted as well as the multiple-case study approach. Then the main implications of the pilot study will be presented. After this, an introduction of the relevant contexts (i.e. the sociocultural, institutional and instructional contexts) where the current study has been conducted will be provided. Then, detailed explanations go to the data collection and data analysis sub-sections, followed by a presentation of ethical concerns, the researchers' role and a justification of validity and reliability.

3.1-Research purposes and research questions

Given the pivotal role of learner engagement in L2 learning and writing, this qualitative case study investigates student engagement with TWF from cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives over two academic semesters (about 32 weeks). With the aim to fill current research gaps, the present study is crafted as a qualitative, naturalistic and longitudinal study focusing on TWF in EFL contexts.

The overall research objectives are to obtain a more comprehensive view of learner engagement with TWF in a longer research timespan, and to ascertain the factors that mediate and modulate learner engagement. Therefore, two primary research questions and five sub-questions were proposed:

1. How do English major Chinese university students engage with TWF?

- a) How do the students behaviourally engage with TWF?
 - b) How do the students cognitively engage with TWF?
 - c) How do the students affectively engage with TWF?
2. What are the factors that may influence student engagement with teacher written feedback?
- a) What are the individual factors that mediate student engagement and how do these factors operate?
 - b) What are the contextual factors that mediate student engagement and how do these factors operate?

3.2-Research paradigm

Based on the research questions, the qualitative and interpretative research tradition was considered most appropriate and suitable and the reasons why they were chosen were presented below.

3.2.1-Interpretivism

Research taking an interpretive epistemology assumes that human activities and actions carry meanings inherently. Thus, a social phenomenon should be interpreted from the assumption that each person is part of the ongoing and enduring action that is being explored (Schwandt, 2003). Any attempt to determine the unique and exclusive laws of human behaviours is inappropriate, since human actions are constantly constructed and reconstructed by their perceptions and interpretations of the social events which they engage with (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Meanwhile, their behaviours also impact on the embedded social occurrences which they are implicated in.

Scholars taking an interpretive perspective strive to understand social occurrences through the sense-making processes of individuals (Arsenault and Anderson, 1998). Likewise, the study explored how students reacted to TWF by capturing a comprehensive picture of their engagement process. By self-reporting and external observations, how students made sense of each TWF point and why they decided specific cognitive, behavioural and affective reactions to each teacher comment were revealed.

3.2.2-Qualitative methodology

To illustrate interpretive epistemology, it assumes that the social world is constituted by subjective reality. In other words, every member of the social world makes sense of the world distinctly (Schwandt, 2003). To achieve the fidelity to any social phenomenon in human sciences, researchers need to analyse social events from the eyes of the participants, instead of the investigator. Thus, an overall research methodology needs to align with this assumption.

According to Auerbach and Silverstein (2003), qualitative studies strive to examine social instances in authentic conditions, to come closer to each person's beliefs and perspectives to obtain thorough explications, to study ongoing phenomenon according to the meanings individuals attach to them (Hammersley, 2013), to tackle the intricacies and perplexities of the intensively complex social world that we, as human beings, reside in (Cooper & Glaesser, 2012). These traits all matched with the current research objectives and enhanced the possibility to gain in-depth and rich data to deal with the complexity of student engagement.

Consequently, the study was carried out in authentic classrooms where no intervention was introduced to the contexts. This facilitated the investigation of the natural occurrences of specific learning actions (i.e. student engagement with TWF) in a social setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). It allowed the opportunities to showcase the natural contextual variables (e.g. sociocultural, institutional, instructional and textual contexts) and their potential impacts on how students engaged with TWF. Furthermore, student engagement is understood based on the students' actions, descriptions and explanations, thus gathering insider and subjective perspectives (e.g. their perceptions, experiences, emotions and feelings) from the participants. This established the fact that how students engaged with TWF was an individual-oriented activity, which was mediated by personal variables such as but not limited to L2 proficiency levels, learning motivations, learner beliefs and goals. In addition, the collections from multiple data sources in a prolonged study period allowed opportunities to generate substantial and dense data, making it clearer to understand the rationales (both individual and contextual factors) behind varying actions and the possible changes detected in the study.

Qualitative studies can be longitudinal, where particular participants are continuously observed throughout a prolonged period of time. Longitudinal research design enables researchers to identify and uncover any developments, variations and growths that may happen concerning the research focus (Singer & Willett, 2003). As argued by K. Hyland and F. Hyland (2006c), TWF and how students react to TWF are not fixed and unchanging. If students choose to engage with specific learning activities, it indicates a process that will go through various stages and will undoubtedly be dynamic and complex since it will be shaped by a wide array of factors (Moser, 2020). Recognizing the insufficient attention and evidence concerning changes in learner engagement with TWF (Yu & Yang, 2021), the current study was designed to include a longer timeframe to capture whether the variations occur and what

led to such changes.

According to Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005), SLA studies in a longitudinal sense sometimes engage shorter time spans (compared to studies lasting years or sometimes even decades) because of the restrictions at the institutional level, such as the duration of a specific learning course. Consequently, because the target teaching course (Fundamental English Course, FEC) only lasted for 2 academic semesters, the current longitudinal study fell into the category of “programmatic longitudinal studies” categorised by Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005, p.5).

Generalizability is a continuous concern in the qualitative paradigm. Generalizability is perceived as whether the conclusions from the current study can be generalised to other research contexts (Erlandson et al., 1993). It is agreed that findings from qualitative study have less possibility to be generalised compared to quantitative research, since the latter is assessed in statistics. However, some researchers debated that these statistical results only reflect one dimension of generalizability, since people not only get information from statistics, but also from descriptions of experiences and processes of a certain event (Patton, 1990). By providing detailed descriptions of a particular social phenomenon including its settings, procedures and other relevant occurrences, it might become easier for those who read the research findings to find those similar points that they could apply in their own contexts (Saldaña, 2003). Therefore, as the researcher, I bear greater responsibility for providing adequately in-depth data to the readers so that interested audiences can choose what to apply in their own sites.

To achieve this, purposive sampling and a rich description were two approaches to enhance

generalizability. By conducting research in an average university and including students with various proficiency levels from different classes, I tried my best to diversify the subjects being observed. In addition, by depicting in detail the methodology, the research contexts, the recruited participants and the findings, those interested in relevant concepts such as student engagement and TWF may find it easier to locate and compare what is appropriate and applicable to their own circumstances.

3.3-Case study approach

The study adopted a case study approach and purposely selected SSU (pseudonym), an average university in mainland China (internal document provided by the teacher participant), with an overall of 20 participants. Through close observations and communication with the participants, the study aimed to unveil the intricacies of “how” students engaged with TWF, and “why” they engaged in these ways.

Based on Hood’s (2009) statement, the decision to utilise the case study approach should be made by considering the focus of the research. To connect with the current study, the focus of the research is learner engagement with TWF, which is the process where students commit themselves to reacting to the teacher s’ responses. Supported by van Lier (2005), case study approach could be a suitable tool for exploring the intricate, dynamic and authentic interactions of multiple factors involved in a certain event. Thus, the utilisation of a case study approach suited the core focus of my study.

Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg (2016) stated that case studies allow researchers to recount and uncover the decision-making processes of participants in real-life situations and dissect the

underlying reasons behind these reasons. What distinguishes a case study from other research approaches is the way it offers in-depth descriptions of “a unique example of real people in real situations” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017, p.376). This allows readers to get access to the procedure where ideas are formulated, rather than being presented with numerical analysis and abstract theories. As such, readers become clearer about how data, personal interpretations and abstract theories fit with each other (Yin, 2014).

According to Atkinson (2011a), learner engagement with specific learning activities could be conceptualised as the process where learning subjects constantly make decisions on every instance of their learning opportunities. These decisions can be demonstrated by both observable and mental learning acts, which are not only learner-dependent, but also relate to different layers of contexts (Ellis, 2010b). Yin (2014, p.12) illustrates that the crux of case studies is that it intends to unveil “a decision or sets of decisions”.

Thus, the case study approach aligned with my research aims, which targeted not only the levels of engagement with TWF, but also the underlying reasons for the various degrees of engagement. For instance, an average Chinese university (internal document provided by Zoe) was chosen as the case, with two English teachers and 18 English-major students from the two teachers’ classes as the research participants. The subsequent sections offer detailed explanations of the rationale behind choosing the specific university as the case and the criteria used for participant selection.

The selected university as the case was South Standard University (SSU, a pseudonym), an *erben* (average-level) university situated in a third-tier city in southern China. In mainland China, higher education institutions are generally classified into three categories: first tier

(*yiben*), second tier (*erben*) and third tier (*sanben*). In a broad sense, first-tier universities are more prestigious and attract more well-performing students. Second-tier universities are publicly funded and account for the largest segment of the Chinese higher education system (50.2%) (Ministry of Education, 2012). Additionally, the majority of the enrolled students at these universities are intermediate students. Therefore, given the substantial prevalence of *urban* universities in the Chinese tertiary context, an intentional selection of this university tier may yield meaningful findings that hold potential applicability to a wider array of Chinese universities. This also concurred with Gall et al. (2003) who highlighted the significance of typicality in choosing cases. They proposed that a crucial criterion for typicality is whether the case manifests the average traits of the targeted groups.

In addition, SSU was chosen as the case due to the feedback practices implemented by its teachers. A prerequisite for exploring student engagement with TWF is that the teachers deliver written feedback and require revisions from the students. However, this is not a common practice among many Chinese universities mainly because of the large class size (Yang, Badger & Yu, 2006). Drawing from the pilot study, several teachers in SSU provided feedback and mandated a second draft from time to time, a practice that aligned well with the requirements of the current study.

This relatively uncommon practice was due to an exam-dominated culture in the Year-2 study among English major students in SSU. For these students, one of their major objectives was to pass the Test for English Majors-Band 4 (TEM4). In recent years, SSU intensified its emphasis on TEM4, with a particular focus on writing. This shift was attributed to university leaders' discovery of the students' poor results in TEM4: the passing rate was below average, and the average score for writing was notably low (1st interview from both Anna & Zoe

(pseudonym for the two teachers)).

In terms of the participants, given the dynamic and complex nature of learner engagement (Lo & F. Hyland, 2007; Moyer, 2014), a divergent strategy for sampling was adopted (Verschuren, 2003), targeting different classes and students with low, middle and high proficiency levels. This selection approach aimed to grasp the varying schemes of learner engagement and promote clarity, reliability and consistency of the findings (Gibbs, 2007; Simons, 2009).

In addition, case studies concede that for a single case to operate, multiple variables will come into play. To grasp the ramifications of these factors, more than one data collection tool and sources of evidence are mandated (Verschuren, 2003). Thus, the current study collected various data resources from students' drafts, TWF, interviews, verbal reports, field notes and class documents, contributing to the richness of the data.

Lastly, from a practical perspective, one of the most anticipated and vexing challenges of longitudinal studies involved addressing potential participant attrition (Meinefeld, 2004), given that longitudinal studies necessitate a more extended time period and sustained engagement from the participants compared to studies with shorter durations (Seal, 2016). One feasible strategy to deal with the potential withdrawal and attrition of participants is through including a reasonable number of participants (Charmaz, 2006; Vulliamy, 1990). Informed by the pilot study, two students for each proficiency level were adequate to generate valuable findings. However, considering the longitudinal nature, one more student was added to each proficiency level. Consequently, for the main study, two teachers were chosen, and nine students from each class were included. Thus, for each class, it involved

three high proficiency (HP) students; three intermediate proficiency (IM) students; and three low proficiency (LP) students. In short, there were two teachers and eighteen students participating in the study.

To sum up, in light of the research focuses and questions of the study, the case study approach within the qualitative paradigm was deemed suitable. Furthermore, multiple sources of data collection, diverse sampling as well as practical concerns were strategies to maximise the efficacy and value of the case study approach. The case study served as a test run to modify research aims and questions, illuminate conceptual understandings of learner engagement with TWF, assess the methods for targeting research participants, and detect potential issues in research methods.

3.4-Pilot study

The pilot study primarily explored the cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions of learner engagement and tried to detect possible influencing factors. It was carried out with one experienced writing teacher (Catherine) and six Year-2 university students with low, middle and high English proficiency levels, covering an 8-week period and containing 2 writing homework.

Similarly, the pilot study was conducted at the same university as the main study. From a realistic concern, I knew Catherine through personal contact, so it became easier for me to conduct my research at this particular university. Furthermore, being situating in the same university enabled me to get a general overview of the research context such as the teaching mechanism of this university, the class size and the overall learning atmosphere in the

English department (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Moreover, I could collect information on logistic issues such as where would be a suitable place for verbal reports and interviews.

Additionally, the pilot study also triangulated various sources of data constituting students' writing drafts (both original and revised versions), TWF, semi-structured interviews, immediate retrospective verbal protocols, classroom observations, field notes generated from verbal reports and classroom observations and relevant course materials. Comparatively, field notes were carefully collected since data from the pilot study suggested that the students did not always provide justifications for every move occurring in their revisions. For example, one student was observed to spend more time reading their peers' sample essays, but did not explain this behaviour in the verbal report. With the help from field notes, I can add questions addressing these unmentioned behaviours to the students to gain a comprehensive understanding of students' processing of TWF. The extra learning materials which were reported by the students to aid their L2 writing and revisions were also collected in the main study such as external writing exercise books or some online learning materials.

The usage of students' diaries in the pilot study was discarded in the main study. Originally, the students were encouraged to write down any of their thoughts concerning their receptions, processing and perceptions towards TWF during the research period, especially when they thought the verbal reports did not reflect their thinking comprehensively or they were too shy to report in the face-to-face setting. However, regardless of the researcher's regular reminders, the content in the diaries was mostly short and general or was similar to what they had reported in the retrospective reports or interviews. In terms of data analysis, both text analysis and content analysis were adopted to generate rich descriptions of how the three groups of students responded to TWF (Patton, 2002).

Other differences included that the pilot study included fewer candidates (1 teacher vs. 2 teachers; 6 students vs. 18 students), collected fewer rounds of writing assignments (2 rounds vs. 4 rounds) and lasted for a shorter period (8 weeks vs. 32 weeks). These changes were all made based on the insights from the pilot study explained below:

Firstly, the pilot study located some instances that proficiency levels, as an individual variable, had an impact on certain aspects of learner engagement (e.g. modification behaviours and depth of processing). The piloting research also revealed other writer-related factors such as the students' prior learning environments and feedback experience which contributed to the distinct instance of engagement. Yet, the examples from the prior studies were still insufficient (e.g. Han & Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018), especially in the dimensions of affective engagement and the employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Fredricks, Reschly & Christenson, 2019). Thus, the main study maintained the objectives of recruiting students with low, mid and high English proficiency levels, but expanded the number of students and extended the duration of research.

In terms of teachers, the main study adopted a more diverse sampling technique to include two teachers rather than one because the pilot study and several prior studies (e.g. Goldstein, 2006; Han & Hyland, 2015) demonstrated that the way the teacher taught writing in class and how she delivered feedback in students' writing drafts (e.g. the amount of TWF) bore the possibility of impacting the way students treated their writing tasks and revisions.

Additionally, even within the 8-week period of research, affective changes across writing homework were detected. One student reported being less unhappy when she maintained

poor performance in her second writing homework. This emotional change was due to her elevated faith in the impact of making revisions on her writing skills and the enhanced confidence in herself to do better in the future. This opened the possibility to regard learner engagement as dynamic in nature, rather than static. This finding also validated the longer time span and more rounds of revision cycles to detect any changes in the three dimensions of learner engagement, and more importantly, what triggered these cross-time variations.

Methodologically, a main implication was concerning the verbal report. While a detailed explanation of what students should report was presented before the students conducted their immediate oral reports, some students still reported nervousness and confusion during their self-reporting. For example, in the pilot study, Chang (a pseudonym) raised questions in her first verbal report that she was not sure whether she just explained the specific error in an inaccurate plural form, or she also needed to report her feelings towards this error, since she felt stupid in making such a simple mistake. Thus, acknowledging that this approach was relatively novel, in the main study, a short-written explanation for oral reports was delivered to the students (see Appendix B) and a trial verbal report was included so that students developed a basic sense of immediate retrospective oral reports in a more relaxed atmosphere. In addition, before each verbal report, I also verbally emphasised the key points indicated in the explanation of verbal reports in Chinese to get the students warm up with this technique.

Lastly, the pilot study enriched the sub-categories of learner engagement conceptualization proposed by Ellis (2010a). Specifically, it endorsed the addition of meta-affective operations as a sub-category of affective engagement. The pilot study discovered two students who regulated their emotions by postponing their revisions or adjusting existing expectations.

Notwithstanding the limited number of instances, it demonstrated that students took proactive steps addressing their specific emotions (Dewaele, 2015).

With a larger participant size and more revision cycles, the main study was expected to provide more real-world examples to enrich the scarce research on what emotions were triggered and how students managed their affects in processing TWF and substantiated the proposal to pay more attention to the affective dimension of L2 learning (Dewaele & Li, 2020).

Thus, the pilot study validated and highlighted the importance of exploring learner engagement with TWF and its contributing factors with more diverse research participants over a longer study period. It reinforced the rigour of the methodology and meanwhile exposed some issues when applied in real context. Moreover, it provided conceptual illuminations for the main study. With more rich and novel data gathered, the conceptualization of student engagement from the main study may become more comprehensive and applicable (Gibbs, 2007).

3.5-Relevant context of the study

The research site was an average university in mainland China. Based on existing research, it is of significance to understand learner engagement with TWF by considering the contexts where it belongs to (Han, 2019). Thus, the current sub-section reported the characteristics of the various dimensions of contexts where TWF was situated.

In general, English has a predominant role in the Chinese education system. McArthur (2022)

posited that English is the most prevalent and most likely the sole foreign language taught in China. This language receives high status as a compulsory subject and a medium for international communication, study abroad, global travel and business. When looking at the four basic skills in English learning in China, however, less attention was given to English writing by L2 teachers (Mo, 2012). For many teachers, English writing was believed to be naturally developed once students' overall English competencies enhance and consequently, it was not considered worthy of specific attention in teaching (You, 2004b).

In the following sub-sections, more explanations of the general trends in English writing instruction in Chinese secondary schools and universities are presented. In addition, it introduces the specific course where the study took place.

3.5.1-Instruction of English writing in secondary schools and universities in China

The instruction of English writing in middle schools and high schools is still highly test-oriented and performance-driven (Butler, 2011), with the major and traditional English teaching approaches being teachers' lecturing and exam-oriented practice. Especially students in high schools, who are preparing for the *gaokao* (National College Entrance Exam), they focus more on the practical concerns in English learning (Yang & Gao, 2013). Moreover, in the secondary educational contexts, writing is not treated as a sole aspect, but a product of the constant accumulation of overall English abilities (Yu & Suen, 2005).

Prior studies revealed the instruction of English writing in secondary schools is mostly memorisation-based (Ding, 2007). Writing teachers share pre-designed structures and sample sentence patterns with students, encouraging them to review these materials multiple times

and commit them to memory.

Feedback on students' drafts is often delivered through in-class oral feedback where common problems are outlined by the students (Clarcken, 2017; Zheng & Adamson, 2003). In terms of written feedback, teachers are regarded as the most authoritative and responsible sources for providing feedback on students' writing drafts in Chinese culture (You, 2004a). However, due to the large class size and the extensive energy and time needed in providing corrections and comments, not all students receive individualised written feedback on their specific writing drafts. This was also confirmed by the current students since only three reported receiving written feedback in their secondary studies.

Despite recent reforms from the Chinese Ministry of Education (2007) to promote all-round English abilities, the traditional approach prevalent among secondary schools was still evident in many universities (Wang, 2023; Zhu, 2003). The study from Liu and Dong (2000) revealed that many English university teachers still perceived memorisation of linguistic rules and templates as an effective learning method. Some university teachers were also found to integrate various approaches besides rote learning as supplementary ways to teach (Lam, 2005; Wu & Zhang, 2000). Thus, while these certain themes emerged in the studies of writing instruction in China, it was not suitable to assume every instructional academy carried out the same writing instruction because of the extensive number of schools and universities in China and the heterogeneous population of learners (Lam, 2005; You, 2004a). To be more focused, the aspects of the target university that related to the current study's research purposes are presented below.

3.5.2-Fundamental English Course (FEC)

FEC was a compulsory course for Year-2 English-major students, aiming to develop students' integrated English skills (i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening). It was teacher-driven and considered the most fundamental and important course and took place three times a week, with a duration of 90 minutes per class. Concerning course materials, a textbook and an accompanying exercise book were distributed to the students.

The grading of FEC for each student consisted of class participation, oral presentations, after-class exercises, after-class untimed writing homework and the final exam. The proportion of each section contributing to the final grade was presented in Table 2. Both teachers took notes on the students' performance concerning each section (except the final exam) over the semester, and then generated an average score at the end.

Table 2: Weighing of the five dimensions of the students' final grade of FEC

Five dimensions	Proportion
Class participation	5%
Oral presentations	5%
After-class exercises	15%
After-class untimed writing homework	15%
Final exam	60%

Besides addressing the textbook, another vital responsibility for FEC teachers was to provide feedback on students' writing drafts in preparation for TEM4. This obligation stemmed from

the course arrangement and a shortage of writing teachers at SSU. The English-major students at SSU only started to have a specific English writing course in their second year of study. While the primary teaching objective of the writing course was to develop systematic writing abilities, a shortage of teachers and resources resulted in only one weekly writing class with all grade-2 students (approximately 160 students). In addition, they were taught by the same teacher.

Then, acknowledging the students' limited writing practice opportunities and the heavy workload of the only writing instructor, the head of the Department of English Education required the teachers of the Fundamental English Course (EFC) to share responsibilities for cultivating students' writing expertise, especially concerning students' writing drafts.

Right before the study began, the head of the Department established mandatory and specific principles on how to provide feedback on students' writing tasks, which included multiple drafting. As such, students were engaged in two written drafts of each writing task and teachers of EFC were required to provide feedback on both linguistic and non-linguistic writing issues (e.g. content, structure, genre) on the students' drafts. It was believed that this novel feedback approach could benefit students' writings. Although being an oral statement in a meeting with no specific formal documents followed, the two teachers admitted that they adhered to these specific rules. The pressure on teachers to achieve a higher TEM4 passing rate was also demonstrated by a specific rule. If the class they instructed reached a passing rate of 80% and above, the teachers would receive a bonus of 500 RMB. Conversely, should the passing rate fall below 50%, the teachers needed to submit a report outlining future plans for a higher passing rate.

Therefore, throughout the entire year, the two teacher participants assigned two writing tasks as homework for each semester and provided feedback on students' first and second drafts. In addition, after sending back the students' first drafts with their written feedback, the teachers allocated roughly 30-40 minutes in class to analyse one or two sample essays written by their students and to explain some general writing problems detected among the whole class.

3.6-Participants

Two teachers of Class A and Class B and 18 of their students (9 in each class) were incorporated in the current study. The selection of both students and teachers primarily followed purposive sampling techniques, informed by prior research (Han & Gao, 2020; Yang & Zhang, 2023) and the findings from the pilot study (see details in Section 3.4).

Detailed elaborations on why these participants were involved were presented below. It should be noted that all the students and teachers in the main study were different from those in the pilot study.

3.6.1-Students

As Dornyei (2007) indicated, purposive sampling was considered appropriate since integrated and thick descriptions could be gathered through targeted participants, thus maximizing the possibilities of what could be learnt. The target university adopted a heterogeneous grouping where students of diverse English proficiency levels were kept in the same class, with each class containing approximately 45 students. This allowed me to adopt purposive sampling to incorporate students with high, intermediate and low proficiency levels since it was suggested

by the pilot study and prior findings (Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018) that proficiency levels mediated learner engagement to some extent.

After consulting with the teachers concerning accessible and relevant information, students' proficiency levels were based on the rankings and scores from the students' College Entrance Exam (considered the most authoritative and carefully-designed exams in China to reflect students' overall English competence) (Zhao, 2014) and their writing scores from the Year-1 final exam. According to the teachers, students' final exam papers were randomly distributed and marked by several teachers from the English Department with students' names masked to ensure validity and fairness. Consequently, these sets of information were provided by the teachers to me for the initial identification of suitable students. However, the proficiency levels to which each student belonged remained unrevealed to students to avoid potential discouragement (Vulliamy, 1990). Besides the rankings based on scores from two exams, classroom observations carried out by the researcher to gain insights into students' proactivity in class and discussions with the two teachers were utilised to look for suitable participants. Consequently, 9 students in each class were chosen as potential candidates. In addition, 3 backup students in each class were also identified if the targeted students were not willing to participate.

Fortunately, all 18 targeted students which involved 6 HP students, 6 IM students and 6 LP students were willing to participate and maintained their participation throughout the research period. Table 3 and 4 demonstrated the students' background information concerning their proficiency levels and their positions in the current study. The participants were at the age 19-21 and only one student is a male student, whereas the other 17 are female. Noticeably, all names were presented as pseudonyms.

Table 3: Information of the students (N=9) in Class A

Student	Gender	English score from <i>gaokao</i> (Full score=150)	Ranking in class	Writing score (Full score=20)	Ranking in class	Proficiency level
Ruby	Female	124	1	15	3	HP
Zora	Female	121	2	16	1	HP
Sally	Female	120	3	15	3	HP
Helen	Female	114	18	12	21	IM
Joan	Female	112	24	12	21	IM
Snow	Female	110	28	11	25	IM
Jack	Male	107	35	8	36	LP
Grace	Female	105	38	7	40	LP
Stacy	Female	103	40	7	40	LP

Note: HP refers to high proficiency students; IM refers to intermediate students; LP refers to low proficiency students

Table 4: Information of the students (N=9) in Class B

Student	Gender	English score from <i>gaokao</i> (Full score=150)	Ranking in class	Writing score (Full score=20)	Ranking in class	Proficiency level
Flora	Female	124	1	15	3	HP
Bonnie	Female	122	2	16	1	HP
Queenie	Female	120	4	16	1	HP
Ella	Female	112	20	12	20	IM
Cherry	Female	112	20	11	24	IM
Lisa	Female	111	23	12	20	IM
Fanny	Female	105	34	7	40	LP
Tina	Female	103	37	8	38	LP
Iris	Female	102	40	7	40	LP

3.6.2-Teachers

Informed by Han and Hyland (2015), the study originally planned to recruit one native speaker of English and one Chinese teacher to maximise the heterogeneous nature of teacher sampling. However, SSU only had one native speaker and he was not responsible for any writing-related courses. This situation was not exceptional, since in most average universities located in the non-first-tier cities, there remained difficulty to attract qualified native-speaking English teachers (Jeon & Lee, 2006; Stanley, 2013). As mentioned before, not all the teachers in SSU employed the process writing approach. Therefore, it was necessary to

purposely select teachers who provided feedback and required students to revise.

However, recognizing the benefits of diverse cases to expose dynamic instances of learner engagement with TWF (Ruecker & Svihla, 2019), the study continued to recruit not one, but two teachers. Informed by previous findings (e.g. Goldstein, 2004; Han, 2019) which indicated that the teachers' teaching background and their feedback practice formed layers of contexts and could mediate student engagement with TWF, the current study adopted purposive sampling strategies and tried to locate heterogeneous teachers by considering these possible pre-designed factors (Ward & Delamont, 2020).

With the recommendation from the teacher in the pilot study, two teachers, Anna and Zoe (both pseudonyms) were selected. Both teachers provided written feedback on both local errors and global content-related problems to their students' writing drafts and required revisions, which were prerequisites for exploring learner engagement with TWF.

Comparatively, Anna had about 30-year teaching experience while Zoe had taught English for about 10 years. While they had experience in teaching English courses such as reading and listening, they spent most of their years and energy teaching FEC. In terms of educational background, Anna obtained both a bachelor's and a master's degree in English while Zoe majored in English as an undergraduate student and graduated with a master's degree in Linguistics. An elaborate account of Zoe and Anna's teaching characteristics and feedback practice is presented in Section 4.2.

3.7-Data collection

The whole data collection process for the main study lasted for 2 academic semesters, with

each semester being 16 weeks long. Aiming to collect thick and rich data, the study included a variety of data collection methods and data sources. They encompassed students' writing drafts, TWF on students' multiple drafts, retrospective oral reports from the students, semi-structured interviews, class observations and course-related teaching materials (e.g. teaching slides, after-class exercises and relevant university and department documents).

Other relevant materials mentioned in the students' verbal reports and interviews (e.g. students' notes in their notebooks and in extra sample essays) were also converted to electronic format for further illustrations. For example, acknowledging that Queena (HP student from Class B) consulted her notebook for inspiration in her revision, I obtained her permission to take pictures of several pages of her notebooks and saved the digital copies in my computer for potential needs in the data analysis process (see Appendix C).

3.7.1-Procedure

Concerning the data collection procedure, in the first semester (see Figure 1), it began with a background interview (also regarded as the first interview) to get familiar with all the participants, followed by a mock verbal report with all the students (see detailed explanations in Section 3.7.2).

Then there were two rounds of feedback-revision cycles (1st draft, TWF and the revised draft). The students were required to schedule appointments with me (i.e. the researcher) in advance after they received TWF. Consequently, we met in a quiet library tutorial room, where the students revised their work while I observed their revision process. Immediately after their revision, the students conducted retrospective verbal reports to describe their

thoughts and actions toward specific TWF points. At the end of the semester, another semi-structured interview was carried out with all the participants.

Then, the same sequence was repeated in the second semester, (see Figure 2). except for the mock verbal report which was deemed unnecessary. It should be noted that class observation was conducted throughout the research period.

Figure 1: Procedure of data collection from all participants in Semester 1

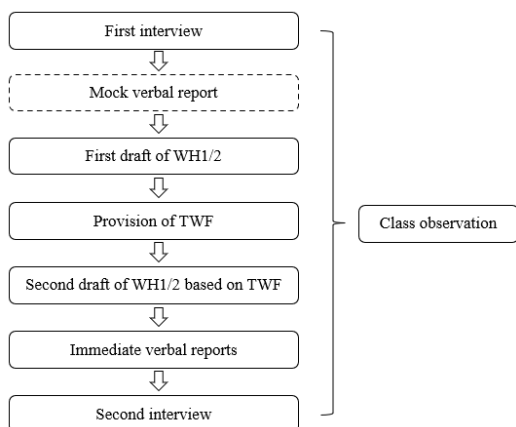
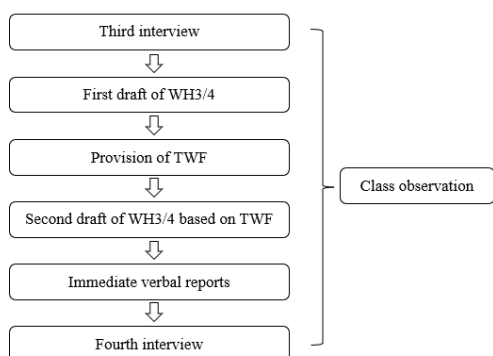


Figure 2: Procedure of data collection from all participants in Semester 2



3.7.2-Trial verbal reports

Influenced by the pilot study which revealed the learners' confusion about carrying out immediate verbal reports, I planned to go through this technique with the students as a practice before their official ones. This familiarised them with the procedure as well as me as the researcher. This round of practice occurred over the first and second weeks of the main study.

However, recognizing that no prior TWF was provided to their writings during their college life, I asked the students to hand in one of their previously written texts and invited an external teacher who had 10 years of teaching experience to mark the students' written texts. I duplicated the revision cycle adopted by the two teachers which included marking the writers' first draft, providing feedback based on similar marking criteria with the teachers, and asking the students to write a second draft. Similarly, they arranged a meeting with me to finish their revisions and afterwards conducted oral reports to verbalise their thinking of the overall revision experience and of each writing issue which received TWF.

3.7.3-Students' written drafts and TWF

All of the students' drafts and their corresponding TWF were photocopied for later analysis. In total, 144 written drafts (72 sets) were collected. These marked written drafts provided explicit evidence of what and how feedback was provided.

All 18 students were required to complete four two-draft take-home writing homework (WH) throughout the research period (i.e. WH1, WH2, WH3 and WH4) (see Table 5). All WH (See Appendix D to Appendix K for full writing requirements) were argumentative essays required by TEM4 and were marked based on the criteria of TEM4, with slight adaptations

from the teachers' writing philosophy. For each writing homework, a revision cycle was employed by the teachers, which included students' submission of their first drafts, teacher comments on their first drafts, and the student's second drafts based on TWF.

Normally, a writing task assigned by the teachers included two types. On one hand, there were 1 to 3 sentences bringing up a topic of debate and then there was one requirement for the writers to articulate their own viewpoints. Examples would be WH1 and WH2 in Class B (Appendix H & I). Besides these two, other writing tasks firstly presented a short reading material (ranging from 2 to 4 paragraphs) (e.g. Appendix F) on a controversial topic and then asked the writers to summarise and express their opinions.

Table 5: An overview of the 4 writing assignments

Semester	Class	WH	Key writing topic	Supplementary reading material
1	A	1	Solution to the Problem of Plastic Pollution: Legislation or Technology?	Yes
		2	The phenomenon of cyber celebrity	Yes
	B	1	Do you agree that modern technology has given us more leisure time than before?	Yes
		2	Some people argue that the government should spend money only on medical care and education but not on theatres or sport stadiums. Do you agree or disagree?	Yes
2	A	3	Online learning	Yes
		4	Should people create and widely use the coined Internet buzzwords?	Yes
	B	3	Should people choose to become indoorsy?	No
		4	Are the environmental problems too big for individuals to solve?	No

One difference concerned the format of written drafts. For the first semester, the students handed in a hard copy of their drafts and received paper-based teacher feedback. In the second semester, since the teachers were required to gather students' homework for administrative purposes from the Department, they requested their students to hand in their drafts in electronic versions. Accordingly, both teachers provided their feedback

electronically. In addition, Anna introduced the *Pigai* platform to the class, which she believed to “help detect basic grammatical errors” (3rd interview) and benefited students’ future writing such as their graduation thesis.

3.7.4-Official retrospective verbal reports

Merely observing or analysing the end product of an academic task is not sufficient for L2 writing researchers to understand how students cognitively made sense of TWF. Therefore, researchers also relied on data from verbal reports to crystalize their silent and sometimes hidden cognitive process (Patton, 1990; Saldaña, 2003).

This approach required students to speak out loud their thinking during or after performing a given academic task (Earle 2004). Think-aloud protocols could be classified mainly as concurrent and retrospective in nature. The former required the participants to verbalise their thoughts while they were working on a given task. Conversely, the latter required students to recollect what they were thinking after completing the task (Yoshida, 2008).

In this study, retrospective think-aloud protocols were adopted for three reasons. First, previous research had already concluded that it posed difficulty to learners, especially those without previous training, to articulate their thinking while writing in their second language. It became more difficult when the language for reporting and for composing the drafts was different (e.g., Cumming, 1989). In the current situation, Chinese is the students’ first language and English their second language. The writing was in English. Thus, it would be difficult to ask them to report in their L2 as well as to write in their L2 (i.e. English). Even when they were allowed to talk in their preferable language, previous studies showed that

students had problems finishing the task. For example, in Whalen and Menard's research (1995), ten out of the 34 participants had to be excluded from the data collection because they could not perform the writing task while doing concurrent reports in a language they preferred.

Second, even if the data collection process went well and valuable data was collected, it had the risk of 'reactivity' (Sasaki, 2002). Previous evidence had pointed out that thinking-aloud methods could pose interruptions to the subjects' cognitive processes during tasks, thus affecting the quality of the original cognitive processing of the tasks (e.g., Janssen, van Waes, & van den Bergh, 1996; Stratman & Hamp-Lyons, 1994).

Realising that retrospective verbal reports might be influenced by the participants' memory loss, immediate stimulated verbal reports were implemented (Roberts, 2020). After students' revision, they were immediately asked to conduct verbal reports to articulate their thoughts on TWF. In addition, the students' revision process was video-recorded as a supplementary tool. If the students could not think of any of their mental processes, the video-recordings of students' revision processes could be played back to them to generate their specific thinking during that learning moment (Robson, 2002). Moreover, any visible tools students mentioned in their verbal reports (e.g. their notebook and their drafting) were photographed with permission and stored in an electronic form.

Overall, in the current study, retrospective verbal reports in its immediate sense were used and audio-recorded to collect students' thoughts occurring during their revision toward TWF. Before the revision, the students were told to bring anything they would need for revision to the classroom. Normally, the students brought their original drafts with the teacher's

comments, and revised accordingly. One exception was Flora (HP student from Class B), who forgot to bring the hard copy of WH1 with the teachers' comments. After checking with her whether she wanted to reschedule the meeting, Flora refused and stated that she would rely on her memories of the teacher's feedback to edit her second draft.

Since the verbal reports intended to capture any thoughts that occurred during the students' revision, no modelling or pre-designed questions were included to promote free thoughts (Merriam, 2009). Although no requirement was provided on the use of language, all students chose their L1 (i.e. Chinese) for verbal reports.

After making a one-to-one appointment with me, the student and I met in a quiet classroom where she/he started the revision. After completion, an immediate verbal report was generated. During the revision, I did not sit too near to avoid letting them feel intimidated, but I was close enough to detect some observable actions. However, the attempts to ask further questions were cautiously considered since I did not want to interrupt the flow of students' immediate verbal report. When I came across some meaningful observations which were not very urgent but still worth further explorations, I marked them in my notebook and asked these questions in the later interview.

For example, when Sally (HP student from Class A) said "I copied this comment in Chinese in my notebook". The researcher asked a further question "Would you review it later?".

However, when the student commented that she was too tired to review her notebook from time to time, the researcher decided not to go further since the explanations were less related to the specific feedback. So, the researcher wrote down "ask her why she was too tired to read her notebook again in the next interview" as her field notes. Then the student continued

to comment on other problems in her draft. This specific question was asked in the later interview. I first described the context to remind Sally of her previous statement (e.g., “In your first verbal report, you said you wrote “weak in grammar” in your notebook and mentioned you were too tired to review your notes from time to time”), and then added further questions (e.g., “Why do you say you are too “tired”?) to collect more information.

3.7.5-Semi-structured interviews

As one of the primary and practical research tools, conducting interview was found helpful in exposing the participants’ knowledge, prior experiences, thinking, beliefs and perceptions about a particular event (Groom & Littlemore, 2012). Semi-structured interviews were chosen with both predetermined questions and spontaneous probes and were all audio-recorded for further analysis (Flick, 2009).

The pre-designed interview questions were driven from an overview of relevant research and insights gained from the pilot study. Also, various detailed and specific questions emerged contingent on the replies from the already-done interviews, prior verbal reports and the flow of the interviews (Richards, 2003). For example, when Sally (HP student from Class A) reported the ineffective utilisation of her notebook, thus an additional question about why she chose to not review her notes constantly was added to the interview list specifically designed for her.

The interview questions and wordings were also discussed with another experienced teacher at the University so that any biased, confusing and leading questions were reduced as many as possible (Al Balushi, 2016). Chinese was preferred by all the participants since they felt

more relaxed using their mother tongue and consequently chosen as the dominant interview language. The setting where the interviews were conducted was either a pre-booked tutorial room in the library or an empty classroom. All interviews were recorded audibly and the researcher took field notes when necessary. A portion of the transcripts were also checked by the members.

The interview questions were arranged and constructed to familiarise and inspire both the students' and teachers' readiness and interests to answer. The questions proceeded from broader inquiries about the participants' background information, overall feedback perceptions and experiences to more narrow and targeted ones addressing specific experiences concerning the writing tasks.

Overall, 4 semi-structured interviews (full questions in Appendix L) with each student and teacher were collected. The first and third interviews took place at the beginning of the semester, while the second and the fourth occurred at the end of the first academic semester.

The first interview was about the students' and teachers' background information, asking mainly about their prior English learning journey, feedback experience, overall objective, goals and motivations to learn/teach English and English writing and their existing perceptions and beliefs towards TWF. Talking about prior experience firstly enabled the participants to get familiar and comfortable with the interviewing context, engendering lengthy replies from those being interviewed (Richards, 2003).

The second interview targeted more specifically at what happened over the semester, including the overall English (writing) learning/teaching experience, perceptions and feelings

towards the writing tasks and TWF that had been delivered, revision experience (for teachers it meant how they felt about the students' revisions) and ideas on future TWF. The third interview adopted similar questions from the first interview, except with the omission of the background information. In addition, it focused more on whether there were any changes concerning students'/teachers' overall learning/teaching goals and their perceptions and feelings towards TWF. Lastly, the fourth interview adopted similar questions from the second interview, with an extra focus on the overall views on TWF the participants encountered throughout the study.

For the first interview, the students were also encouraged to bring along any of their prior writing drafts with teacher comments. From the second interview, the students were reminded to take their writing drafts with TWF with them, which served two aims. Firstly, they can scan the TWF again to refresh their memory towards their experience with the TWF they had received. Furthermore, and more importantly, when they want to illustrate their points, there would be specific examples.

3.7.6-Classroom observations

The adaptation of observation was to procure first-hand evidence *in situ*. It offered authentic contextual data and sometimes uncovered habitual behaviours and actions that would be concealed from more self-conscious research methods (Wellington, 2015). Additionally, it provided real-time checks so that inconsistency between what people articulate and what they actually do (Robson, 2002).

Through the research, there were 96 classes of the Fundamental English Course with each

class lasting for 90 minutes. I attended all classes as both teachers mentioned that they would occasionally deliver instruction on writing based on their teaching progress and their students' learning status. With the teacher's permission, I attended and audio-recorded all of them. Bearing in mind that no interventions were introduced in the study, I always sat at the back of the class and maintained the role of an observer. Classroom observations served multiple functions in the study. Firstly, it served as a portion of evidence when I target potential students (mentioned in 3.6.1). Secondly and relatively importantly, with the frequent and common appearance of myself in the classroom, the students as well as the teachers regard me as a natural and familiar component of their class and their studies (Kuckartz, 2014). Thus, they were likely to display their natural and relaxed behaviours and reactions not only in the classroom, but also when they revised their drafts, conducted verbal reports and performed interviews with me.

The data from class observation also fostered data triangulation and reality verification (Hammersley, 2013). For example, while the teachers reported that they had explained the marking criteria of students' writing drafts to their students, there was disagreement from the students. At that point, I checked the field notes of class observation and confirmed that there were systematic explanations of the marking criteria. However, since they were explained abstractly, it was understandable that some students failed to relate it to their own writing and revision. For example, in one class, the teacher just read the rules of TEM4 and asked her students whether anyone has questions. Furthermore, it also allowed me to observe some student and teacher interactions which aided their comprehension of TWF. However, not all interactions were observed since sometimes the interactions were too immediate to be captured, students might feel uncomfortable being recorded and sometimes they occurred out of class. Thus, the data concerning student-teacher interactions also relied on students' verbal

reports and interviews.

3.7.7-Classroom documents

Documents are often utilised with other data resources for the objective to triangulate, informing researchers' comprehension from other data resources of the same phenomenon (Labuschagne, 2003). This confluence of findings is also beneficial for research credibility. The collection of classroom documents in the current study could also illuminate the exploration of contextual factors where TWF is delivered and explained (Atkinson & Coffey, 1997)

Assorted classroom documents were also collected to aid future data analysis and discussions. They consisted of a general syllabus, teaching slides and Word documents relating to writing and feedback explanations. Teaching slides were similar since they were shared by the Department as reference resources. Since the final exam paper contained a part of writing, the original plan was to ask for a copy. However, the teacher gently rejected it since it was not allowed by the Department and the University. However, the teacher shared the main sections of the final exam and the percentage of scores for each section. For writing, the score accounted for 20 out of the total 100 (mentioned in Section 3.5.3.1).

While the aforementioned information provided detailed explanations of each research method, Table 6 summarised how the data sources matched with each research question.

Table 6: A summary of the research questions and the corresponding data collected

Research questions	Data collected
1. How do English-major Chinese university students engage with TWF?	a) Students' writing drafts and TWF; b) Retrospective verbal reports and relevant field notes; c) Semi-structured interviews with students
2. What are the factors that may influence Chinese university students' engagement with TWF?	a) Students' writing drafts and TWF; b) Retrospective verbal reports and field notes; c) Semi-structured interviews with students and teachers; d) Audio-recordings and field notes from classroom observations; e) Class documents

3.8-Data analysis

The data analysis procedure included two stages: pre-analysis and main analysis stage (Blischke, Karim and Murthy, 2011). Stage 1 included preliminary attempts which occurred throughout the data collection process. Since the data was collected over one academic year, there was a need to keep track of the quantity and quality of data. Stage 2 was primary data analysis, where more serious and systematic analysis took place.

It should be noted that an extra coder who worked at the same English department of the university with a 30-year teaching experience was invited to analyse 10% of all the data. The initial inter-coder agreement was around 86%. Any disagreements were solved through discussions and inquiries from the feedback providers, leading to the inter-coder rate being

100%.

3.8.1-Pre-analysis during the data collection

During the pre-analysis stage, I firstly sorted out multiple sources of data according to the sources where the data were collected, the three groups of students with different proficiency levels they belonged to, and also to each individual file. Then, each data was checked for its clearness. For example, some photographs of students' written drafts were not clear enough, so I would ask the students to take a picture again.

Constant preliminary analysis of students' revisions and teachers' feedback was carried out to familiarise myself with the general trends of students' drafts and TWF. In terms of verbal reports and interviews, the transcribing job started throughout the study. By gaining meaning from these resources, I located relevant research to broaden my knowledge and then continuously reviewed the broader conceptualization of learner engagement that was assumed to illuminate the analysis. Reflections were also done to evaluate how I carried out the specific data collection methods, so that more reliable and rich data could be attained.

3.8.2-Primary data analysis after the data collection

After the completion of data collection, the analysis of primary data was carried out. Before detailed analysis, the sorting of data in the pre-analysis stage was confirmed. All textual data (i.e. interviews, immediate verbal reports and field notes from the researcher) were transcribed verbatim from Chinese to English and organised into the appropriate folders on the computer.

Overall, text analysis and thematic content analysis were the two approaches to tackle the multiple sources of data. Text analysis was utilised to explore the characteristics of TWF (see Appendix M and Appendix N for coded TWF) whereas content analysis identified and located common themes and unique instances of student engagement with TWF. Examples of coded excerpts of verbal report and coded excerpts of semi-structured interviews with students with various language proficiency levels were provided in Appendix O and Appendix P. Despite referencing the conceptualization of student engagement and other relevant coding themes (e.g. Qi and Lapkin, 2001; Zhang and K. Hyland, 2015) during the data analysis procedure, the data in the study was not forced into the existing classifications. All data sets were reiteratively examined and evaluated within each participant and across all cases, so that more appropriate themes would be allocated (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Below were descriptions of data analysis for each research method. It should be noticed that the data analysis was an ongoing process, where these major steps occurred not necessarily in a linear way, but rather recurrently.

3.8.2.1-Text analysis

Text analysis was utilised to gain a general idea of the patterns of TWF and the revision behaviours. The analysis of TWF was an attempt to find out the immediate text-level where TWF was situated. It provided evidence to answer whether different focuses of TWF and the various explicitness of TWF bred various levels of engagement across individuals.

1) Calculation of TWF

Teacher written feedback was firstly identified and calculated based on F. Hyland's (1998) definition of written feedback points. A feedback point refers to a discrete unit of TWF that addresses a certain area of an individual's writing draft. For example, in Fanny's (LP student from Class B) WH1, the teacher commented "less space" at the beginning of each of her first three paragraphs. Although three pieces of feedback were given, they will be categorised as one feedback point, since they all highlighted the same issue. Overall, 72 pieces of drafts were collected from the 18 students for their four writing tasks (i.e. $18 \times 4 = 72$) and an overall of 660 written feedback points were tallied (feedback points for each student are presented in Section 4.3).

In addition, not all feedback points can induce modifications. F. Hyland (1998) differentiated useable feedback from unusable feedback. Useable feedback referred to those that could be employed in the actual revision process to stimulate text changes. Unusable feedback was often delivered as evaluations and praises, or reader responses that expected no subsequent revisions from the teachers. In the current study, all unusable feedback points ($N=79$) were praises, so this category was renamed "praise" to be more targeted and precise. Then, the remaining 581 were regarded as useable feedback points which expected further revisions.

2) Analysis of TWF

Since the current study collected all teachers' written feedback rather than corrective feedback, the first step was to target its focus. A number of scholars (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Ferris et al, 1997; Lee, 2008a) highlighted the different focuses of useable TWF such as

language, content, organisation and praises. The first category concerned grammar-related errors, the second type addressed ideational problems, whereas organisation feedback cared more about paragraph structure and the overall structure. Praises were written responses that highlighted the positive aspects of one's writing.

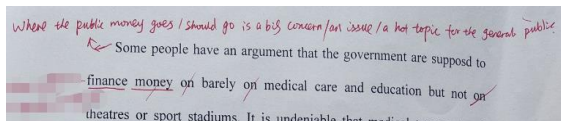
Informed by Lee (2008a) and F. Hyland and K. Hyland (2001), TWF in the current study included four focuses: language, content, genre and praises. The original categorization of "organisation" was renamed to "genre" to emphasise the TEM4 test-specific nature of the teachers' corrections. According to Anna and Zoe's second interviews, both teachers proposed a fixed writing structure for the students to follow, which generally included an introductory paragraph, one or two body paragraphs explaining the pros and cons of a given argument, and a summary paragraph. Zoe (1st and 2nd interviews) even specifically proposed a fixed organisational model for the main body paragraphs. Her students were instructed to put forward a topic sentence at the beginning, then followed by the detailed explanations. Thus, what appeared to be an organisation suggestion was tailored-made to suit the TEM4-oriented context. According to Christie and Martin (2000), genre refers to a distinct language utilisation in a certain context to accomplish typical social functions. Thus, "organisation" was replaced by "genre" in the study.

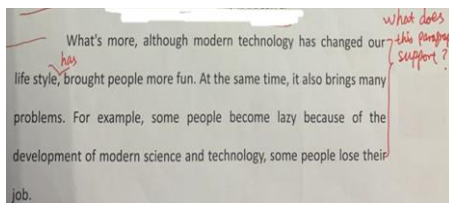
The analysis of content issues should also be illustrated. In some highlighted problematic expressions in the students' draft, they contained both grammatical and content issues. This situation was dealt with by a discussion with the teachers. For example, the teacher underlined the sentence with a question mark "It's not necessary for us to take dozens of hours to go out because of more convenient transportation" in Cherry's (IM student from Class B) WH1. The sentence contained both grammatical (e.g. missing definite article) and

genre errors (e.g. abbreviation) and was not understandable to the reader. When categorising this specific feedback point, I initiated an informal chat with Zoe during class break and she confirmed that her feedback indicated problems in content, since “in the first place, I did not even understand what she intended to say. So I just underlined the whole sentence”. Thus, this was categorised as an indirect content feedback point.

TWF was also coded according to its directness. While it was more common to relate directness to WCF, the study found that this categorization was applicable when it included feedback on content (F. Hyland & K. Hyland, 2001). This categorization was also informed by Liu and Storch (2021) who included directness as a category to analyse feedback on language, ideas, structure and citation. Consequently, the current study revealed various degrees of explicitness in TWF, ranging from direct feedback, underlining/circling, indicating/marking with a question mark and underlining with a comment. Below (i.e. Table 7) presented the explanations and examples of direct and indirect feedback.

Table 7: Directness of TWF and its examples

Directness of TWF	Sub-categories	Explanation	Example
Direct feedback	N/A	Accurate or appropriate TWF was provided directly	<p>Example 1:</p> <p><u>Each single</u> of us is also supported everyone</p> <p>TWF: Everyone</p> <p>Example 2:</p> 

			TWF: Where the public money goes/should go is a big concern/an issue/a hot topic for the general public.
Indirect feedback	Underlining/ circling	TWF was delivered by underlining or circling	<u>not enhance the attractive arts</u>
	Indicating with a question mark	TWF was provided by underlining and a question mark	the opportunity to <u>realize</u> the charm of the drama← TWF: ?←
	Underling with a comment	Problematic issues were indicated with comments	Example 1: send <u>it</u> to others by email← TWF: ? What does it refer to?← Example 2: 

3) Modification behaviours

The students' modification behaviours were based on the comparisons between their first (original) drafts and the second (revised) drafts. While F. Hyland (1998) concluded student revision to be both meaning-based and form-focused, there were fewer elaborations on their

operational implications. Zhang and K. Hyland (2018) was one of the few studies focusing on learner engagement with TWF, and they further expanded the abstract concept of revision categories to include seven specific categories so that the analysis of student revisions could be more specific and operational. Their classification included “correction, no correction, deletion, substitution, addition, reorganisation and rewriting” (p. 93). However, no explanations were provided for each category in their study and thus some confusion occurred. For example, “correction” could be confused with “substitution” since both categories indicated the act of correcting a writing problem. In addition, the category of “correction” arose miscomprehension since it did not specify whether the correction was accurate or inaccurate.

Since the current study also aimed to explore how students reacted to TWF, the categories from Zhang and K. Hyland (2018) were adopted. However, cognizant of the limitations mentioned before, the categories were modified since novel categories were detected in the study. Consequently, accurately followed (AF), inaccurate correction (IC) and initial stimulus (IS) were newly-coined categories to indicate more specific revisions. Addition and reorganisation were combined and renamed as “new content” (NewC) since the evidence on students’ drafts showed that when there was reorganisation, there was always new content required to be added. In addition, the lack of content was a more serious problem than its reorganisation issues. Thus, the wording “new content” was used to indicate these revising traits. The classifications of deletion (DI), substitution (St), no correction (NC) and rewriting (Rw) were maintained.

Overall, eight categories of revision modifications were used as coding taxonomy, which included Accurately followed (AF), inaccurate correction (IC), initial stimulus (IS), new

content (NewC), deletion (DI), substitution (St), no correction (NC) and rewriting (Rw). A detailed elaboration of these categories was presented below (refer to Table 8):

Table 8: Categories of modification behaviours (adapted from Zhang and K. Hyland, 2018) (Appendix Q provides examples for each category)

No.	Modification behaviors	Explanation
1	AF	Writing issues are accurately corrected as the teachers suggest.
2	NewC	The student adds new content based on TWF in order to improve the draft.
3	NC	Writing issues are not treated by the student.
4	IS	Problematic features are accurately corrected informed by TWF.
5	IC	Mistaken expressions are inaccurately corrected.
6	Rw	Rewriting some highlighted sentences or paragraphs in a different way (with the main ideas remaining the same).
7	DI	Writing issues are deleted in response to the feedback.
8	St	Writing issues are accurately corrected but different from the direct TWF.

Note: accurately follow (AF), new content (NewC), no correction (NC), initial stimulus (IS), incorrect correction (IC), rewriting (Rw), deletion (DI) and substitution (St)

While coding, the categories of “deletion” and “new content” received controversy. What presented below was an example of “new content” from Fanny (LP student from Class B):

1st draft: the entertainment industry such as theatre does have enough support from the government ←

TWF:?? ←

2nd draft: Next, I will list some evidences to support my opinion. First of all, the government has more pressing social problems... ←

Originally, I coded this as “deletion” but with hesitation. So, I discussed this with the coder who also encountered this type of correction but coded this type as “new content”. After thorough discussion and resorting to the students’ specific verbal report, we decided to code this type of revision as “new content”, since according to Fanny’s (LP student from Class B)

second verbal report, she stated that “The teacher underlined this part, so I think maybe the content was problematic. Consequently, I deleted these and wrote some new content to support my argument”. Also, we agreed that when we encountered this type of correction, there was a need to compare it with the students’ retrospective reports to detect their purposes when making the revisions.

In terms of behavioural engagement, besides modification behaviours, the other sub-categories (i.e. visible actions in utilising cognitive and metacognitive strategies) were subject to content analysis and will be explained in the next section with cognitive engagement.

3.8.2.2-Content analysis

Since the data concerned how students engage with TWF, some of them were not directly measured, conceptual content analysis was consequently adopted as one of the data analysis techniques. According to Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012), content analysis is beneficial in acquiring descriptive data about a given topic, detecting themes and patterns among the substantial amounts of data, and examining the interactional relationships among the identified data. Roberts (2020) also highlighted that this technique allows scholars to sort through extensive data sets in a relatively manageable and systematic way.

The transcripts of immediate verbal reports, semi-structured interviews and field notes all went through content analysis both within cases and cross-cases constantly which shed light on the three dimensions of student engagement. In the following sub-sections, more specific explanations concerning how content analysis was carried out which aided the coding themes

as well as the identifications of categories were provided, following the sequence of specific research questions (i.e. the three dimensions of learner engagement and its mediating factors)

1)-Behavioural engagement

Besides revision behaviours (the analysis procedure elaborated in 3.8.2.1), behavioural engagement also includes observable evidence when students utilised cognitive and metacognitive strategies. After finalising the coding themes for using external resources and memorisation skills, the overall excerpts where students reported employing observable tools for each homework were analysed.

The researcher's observations were used as a supplementary tool when field notes were taken about an observable action but the participants failed to describe it. For example, the researcher observed Flora (HP student from Class B) reading to herself quietly from time to time in her revision. While Flora did not mention this action in the verbal report, the researcher added the question "I observed you reading to yourself sometimes during revision. Is there a specific purpose for that? ". Then, Flora provided further explanations.

It should be noted that the study was concerned with the number of individuals rather than the frequency of occurrences, since the aims of this study were to detect what cognitive and metacognitive skills were used by whom and how they were used. For example, the same student can consult online dictionaries many times in one revision, but when reporting the data, it would be reported as "one student...". However, if a certain person used an online dictionary for different cognitive and metacognitive purposes, it would be counted as a distinct case. For example, if a student used an online dictionary to check the meaning of a

word, it would be counted as one case of using dictionaries cognitively. Meanwhile, if that student used the dictionary to check her understanding of a specific feedback, this action would also be marked since she used the dictionary metacognitively.

2)-Cognitive engagement

a)-Depth of processing (DoP)

For DoP, each individual's articulation towards a specific TWF drawn from their verbal reports was analysed. Originally, the coding of DoP was informed by Qi and Lapkin (2001) who differentiated between perfunctory noticing (referring to noticing only) and substantial noticing (indicating noticing with explanations). However, the current study detected new themes, which comprised oversight, error ignored, error noticed, accurate understanding, inaccurate understanding and no understanding (detailed explanations referring to Table 9).

Table 9: Categories of DoP

No.↵	Types↵	Sub-types↵	Explanations↵
1↵	Oversight↵	N/A ↵	TWF was not noticed↵
2↵	Noticing↵	Error Ignored↵	TWF was perceived but either deliberately disregard, or remained unchanged due to carelessness↵
↵	↵	Error Noticed↵	TWF was acknowledged but no explanations were provided↵
3↵	Understanding↵	Accurate Understanding↵	TWF was noticed and was justified accurately↵
↵	↵	Inaccurate Understanding↵	TWF was realized but the understanding was inaccurate↵
↵	↵	No Understanding↵	TWF was realized but the reasons cannot be articulated by the learner↵

To begin with, some feedback was not even noticed by the students, which was termed “oversight” as a category. Substantial noticing was replaced by accurate and inaccurate

understanding because some students could provide inaccurate explanations regarding certain feedback. In addition, Similar to Suzuki (2012), the current evidence found that even when sometimes the student noticed a piece of feedback and tried to justify it, their response was “I don’t know”, which was later labelled as “no understanding” in the current study.

Perfunctory noticing was broken down to include error ignored and error noticed. However, the category of “error noticed” was due to a mechanical issue. This category referred to situations where students showed their noticing of TWF, but without offering any explanations. After students’ verbal reports, the standard procedure was for me to point at each feedback on their first drafts, prompting students to report their thoughts regarding each feedback. However, due to my negligence, I missed out 4 feedback points in students’ WH1. I only realised that after the verbal reports were finished and the students had already left. Therefore, there was no data concerning students’ engagement with those 4 particular feedback points. This negligence was noticed when I cross-referenced the candidates’ verbal reports with their revisions of WH1. Thus, from the second verbal report, I became more cautious to ensure that each feedback point was pointed out to the students. Consequently, this category only included four cases and was only found in WH1.

b)-Employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies

Whether and how students utilised cognitive and metacognitive strategies were analysed according to the number of individuals. For example, if the same student reported more than one instance of using memorisation skills during the whole study process, the number of his/her employment of cognitive strategies was still counted as one. Thus, the maximum number of the employment of each cognitive and metacognitive strategies with distinct

purposes was 18, since only 18 students were recruited as participants.

However, the study was also interested in detecting any changes throughout the research period and what contributed to those specific fluctuations. Thus, each instance of students' employment of mental strategies (either observable or unobservable) was also recorded. If a specific technique was used differently by an individual or across different writing tasks, these instances would be reported. They were regarded as changes in the usage of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

As suggested by Weinstein, Schult and Palmer (1987), there were ample definitions of “strategy”. Some scholars differentiated “strategy” from “skill”, with the former indicating conscious and purposive cognitive and metacognitive processing whereas the latter implied automatized behaviours (Hadwin & Winne, 2012). In the current study, the word “strategy”, “skill” and “operation” were used interchangeably to indicate students' efforts in engaging cognitively and behaviourally. The reason was that the study acted as an exploratory study to describe what, why and how these strategies or skills functioned during the students' process, thus whether they were used consciously or unconsciously was not the focus of this study.

Zimmerman and Schunk's (2001) and Oxford (2011) explained cognitive and metacognitive strategies in more detail. Whereas their conceptualization targeted self-regulated learning, it could be adapted in this study since the ultimate goal of TWF was also to boost students' autonomous learning. Zimmerman and Schunk's (2001) proposed that learners regulated their learning by planning, monitoring, evaluating and regulating, which was assumed to enhance the learning quality. According to Oxford (2011), cognitive strategies inferred practising, absorbing messages using resources, reasoning and summarising.

Based on their original concepts and evidence in the current data, some of the terms were modified (see Table 10). Practising was included in the broader category of memorising, since the data in the study showed that when the student participants repeated some sentences or phrases, their cognitive aim was to reinforce memory. Absorbing messages was labelled as “connecting” since the latter term indicated a proactive action for students to look for useful messages and utilised them for improving comprehension.

Table 10: Classifications for coding cognitive strategies

Classifications	Explanation	Examples
Reasoning	Offering justifications for specific revisions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Explaining an error indicated by TWF by providing metalinguistic rules 2. Explaining content arguments in detail
Connecting	Students chose, synchronised and applied related learning contents across various learning materials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Connecting revision with external resources 2. Connecting revision with prior knowledge 3. Connecting revision with other teacher feedback
Memorising	Taking (mental) actions to reinforce memory	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Repeatedly copying key points, important expressions and sentence patterns highlighted TWF 2. Reading quietly 3. Taking (mental) notes (according to their

		verbal reports)
Summarising	Extracted what were considered as key points indicated by TWF	1. Taking notes to summarise writing strengths and/or weaknesses highlighted by TWF

Regarding metacognitive strategies, regulating was relabelled as managing attention to indicate a more specific metacognitive attempt, whereas planning, monitoring and evaluating were all developed to include more sub-categories (as shown in Table 11).

Table 11: Categories for coding metacognitive strategies

Classifications	Explanations	Examples
Managing attention	Prioritising what aspects to focus	1. Correcting what was perceived as more important firstly 2. Deciding beforehand what to focus on in revision
Planning	Sequencing revision steps and/or planning how to solve uncertain writing issues	1. Planning outlines to guide revision 2. Making mental plans for revision steps 3. Planning to consult the teachers after revision
Monitoring	Reassessing the quality and accuracy of ones'	1. Using learning tools to review the accuracy of revisions and the quality of the finished drafts

	comprehension and responses to TWF during and at the end of revision	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Judging one's comprehension of certain TWF 3. Rereading to judge the quality of specific revision 4. Highlighting key words to avoid going off-topic 5. Using tools (e.g. a pen) to monitor thoughts to avoid getting distracted
Evaluating	Making self-reflections	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Evaluating learning habits 2. Evaluating one's writing strengths and weaknesses 3. Reflecting on one's learning status

3)-Affective engagement

Students' affective engagement was studied in 2 dimensions: emotions and attitudes.

Following the conceptual content analysis, major themes were concluded based on careful examination of students' utterances from verbal reports and interviews. In line with the analysis of cognitive engagement, the study focused more on the number of individuals rather than the frequency of the excerpts. The reason was that only looking at frequency did not always indicate the extent of engagement. For example, low proficiency students may consult dictionaries more frequently than the high proficiency students, but such behaviours do not necessarily indicate higher levels of engagement. This is because most low-proficiency students tend to remain superficial, merely looking up the Chinese meaning of specific words. It should be noticed that any change that had been detected within individuals and

across various writing tasks would be reported.

To detect possible emotions, all statements that mentioned specific emotions in the verbal reports and interviews were generated and carefully analysed. However, if there was inconsistency concerning students' emotions detected in the interviews and from verbal reports, I would ask for further clarification from the participants. However, no inconsistent reports were discovered. For reporting, the focuses were also on the number of individuals rather than frequency.

Basic emotions (i.e. sadness, fear, shame, disgust, anger, contempt, interest, joy and surprise) were utilised as guidance in the preliminary exploration stage of analysing affect (Ekman et al., 2013). However, scholars had held debatable opinions towards this approach since it might lose focus on the nuance of similar but meaningful emotions. Thus, the identification of specific affect was also informed by Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia's (2012) framework of academic emotions including valence (i.e. positive and negative) and activation (i.e. activation and deactivation) and grounded in my study.

Informed by existing research (Goldstein, 2006; Li & Li, 2012; Zheng & Yu, 2018), the study perceived language learners not as passive receivers, but influenced and being influenced within themselves and the environment. Thus, the concept of emotion regulation (Pekrun, 2006), which assumed that human beings can take initiative in dealing with socially-embedded emotions, was also utilised to illuminate data analysis. The coding theme is thus informed by the four dimensions of emotion regulation (see detailed explanation in Table 12), but also grounded in the current study.

Table 12: 4 dimensions of emotion regulation

Emotion regulation	Explanation	Example
Emotion-driven regulation	Regulation that immediately targets specific emotion	Distracting attention away from the trigger of emotions
Appraisal-driven regulation	1) Adjusting the beliefs in oneself and/or 2) Modifying the assumed value of the learning target	1) Telling oneself that she/he will be successful in a certain task 2) Reducing one's beliefs in the benefit of a learning practice
Problem-driven regulation	Taking actions to improve the relevant learning skills and abilities	Reading extra books or relevant materials to enhance cognitive comprehension
Environment-driven regulation	Keeping a physical distance from the trigger of emotions	Discontinuing the particular learning activity

Based on students' specific utterances, 112 excerpts were found where the students described their feelings generated in revision. Among them, 17 specific emotions directly drawn from the transcripts were demonstrated. In addition, an external sub-dimension termed "neutral" was found in valence and activation. A clearer presentation of the emotions was presented in Table 13.

Table 13: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence and activation

Valence	Activation	Discrete emotions
Negative	Activation	confused, embarrassed, pressured,

		astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry
Negative	Deactivation	upset, helpless, disappointed
Positive	Activation	enthusiastic, happy, passionate, surprised
Positive	Deactivation	relieved
Neutral	Neutral	calm

It should be noted that indigenous concepts were used (Hammersley, 2013) to directly withdraw words students used in their statements. For instance, Cherry used the word “upset” when she discovered that her friends wrote a better article than hers. According to Weiner (2007), social academic emotions commonly included appreciation, jealousy, disrespect or compassion. Although Cherry’s case implied a certain level of admiration and envy, I decided to use her original word (i.e. upset) to convey a more authentic picture.

In line with Pekrun (2006), the students were found to implement emotion regulation strategies in dealing with some of their emotions.

4)-Mediating factors

Taking into account the limited research on individual and contextual factors mediating student engagement with TWF (Han, 2009), the main categories in these two dimensions of factors were mostly generated from the current study. In sum, contextual factors included technological, sociocultural, institutional, instructional, interactional and textual contexts. Individual factors encompassed L2 proficiency, motivations and L2 learning goals and students’ knowledge and beliefs.

It should be heeded that the study took an exploratory attempt to investigate these two layers of factors. Thus, the factors identified in the current study might be modified and expanded with more systematic investigation in the future.

3.9-Ethical considerations

Research concerning human participants mainly has its ethical concerns in terms of voluntary involvement, consent with full knowledge of the research, confidentiality and anonymity, possibility of negative and positive consequences, and accessibility to research outcomes (Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2013; Nunan, 1992).

The first step for my research was to locate suitable teachers. With the help and recommendations from the teacher in my pilot study, Zoe and Anna agreed to meet with me where I orally explained in the teachers' native language (i.e. Chinese) the objectives and the methodology of my research and how the results would be presented. Since my study was naturalistic in nature, no potential risks were involved. I also stressed there would be no intervention concerning the teachers' course instruction, feedback delivery and any other relevant pedagogical issues. In fact, I encouraged them to show their teaching practice as naturally as possible.

The teachers were also informed that whether to participate or not had no relationship with their performance evaluations. I also highlighted that they had the right to withdraw at any time during the research. Additionally, the data collected remained confidential and pseudo-names would be used for any relevant academic presentations and publications. Finally, the two teachers were given the consent forms and information sheets (both in English and in

Chinese) developed following the template from the Education University of Hong Kong (see Appendix R) which constituted an introduction, the methodology, potential risks of the research and how results were to be disseminated, so were my contact information (i.e. my phone number and my WeChat number (China's most popular messaging mobile application)). The teachers were told to take time to think about the participation decisions and were welcome to ask any questions if they were confused. If they were interested in participating, they could inform me through WeChat and then return the signed consent form to me later. Fortunately, both of them agreed to join my study.

With the assistance from Zoe and Anna, I targeted potential students and approached each of the potential students during class breaks or after class where I explained the research aims, the length and the procedures of the study in Chinese. It was underscored that whether they participate or not would not impact any of their grades and their statements in the study would remain anonymous. Same as the teachers, the confidentiality and anonymity and their rights to withdraw at any time and give feedback when they felt uncomfortable to me were highlighted to the students. Lastly, I also offered them the consent forms and information sheets with a full explanation of my research and my personal contact information (i.e. my phone number and WeChat). In case they felt embarrassed to reject my invitation or ask questions in person, they were told to think about it and felt free to ask me any question and inform me of their decisions to involve or not through WeChat. If they were willing to participate, they were told to return the signed consent forms in the next class.

Concerning the accessibility to collected data, a cloud space platform (*Yunxiezuo*) was utilised where each participant could access to their individualised folder containing all of their collected data at any time. They were also notified that the data would only be used for

academic purposes and they were welcome to ask for a copy if there were any publications.

3.10-The researcher's role

Kuckartz (2014) suggested that researchers needed to clarify their roles in the study to reinforce the trustworthiness of the study, which mainly included how they accessed the research site, whether there were interventions and the impact of the researcher-participant relationship.

Firstly, the reason why I could get into the research site was because of the teacher in my pilot study, who used to be my English teacher in a private tutoring school for about four years. During that tutoring period, I have developed a close relationship with her and up till now, we still meet and chat from time to time every year. So, I know she has been working as an English teacher and course organiser in the English department of SSU. When I needed to conduct a pilot study, I contacted her to see whether SSU was suitable. Since the pilot study went well, I continued to communicate with her about the possibility of conducting my main study at SSU. That was when she introduced me to Zoe and Anna, who were two close friends of hers, so they kept a welcoming attitude towards me and my research. Then I explained my research aims and procedures, specifically emphasising that my study was naturalistic so that there would be no interventions. They did not need to adjust any of their teaching and feedback practices to suit my research. Luckily, both teachers agreed to participate and they have been very nice and supportive throughout the research period, helping me target suitable students, allowing me to audio-record and observe their classes, providing relevant teaching materials unless they were forbidden by the university policies, and expressing their true viewpoints in the semi-structured interviews.

Since I needed to observe the class, Zoe, Anna and I agreed that I needed to introduce myself to the whole class at the beginning of the semester so that students would not feel weird about my presence, although I would usually sit at the back of the class and provide no input during the class period. Thus, I introduced myself as a PhD student from the Education University of Hong Kong and concisely explained that I would sit at the back of the class to gather research data. Since I have already been approved by the teachers, all the students seemed to be open-minded with my presence. Then when I approached the 18 potential students suitable for my study individually and explained my research objectives and procedures in detail, all of them were willing to join my research and have been very cooperative since then. I specifically mentioned that whether they participate or not would have no impact on their final grades in the course. Regarding the other students in the class, as TWF was provided to all students, there were no concerns about potential unfairness.

Since my study lasted for two academic semesters, the participants gradually started to feel closer to me, especially the students. This enabled me to collect more in-depth data on each student since they were more willing to share their engagement experience with me as well as the factors that influenced their decisions on each engagement. However, I was also very cautious about generating stereotypes of each individual. To do this, I clarified some transcripts with the students when there was confusion and constantly checked the coding schemes and the emerging categories generated from the data.

3.11-Validity and reliability

Based on Best and Kahn (1998), the trustworthiness of the research lies in the validity and

reliability. Validity refers to the accuracy and quality of the measurements so that they represent what they are designed to measure. Reliability is how consistently the research approaches demonstrate when they are repeated under the same situations. To alleviate possible threats to validity and reliability, the following procedures were adopted so that the trustworthiness of the research is strengthened.

Firstly, triangulation was used to integrate evidence. Denzin and Lincoln (2003) valued methodological triangulation in the way that it could foster a more rigorous perspective on research queries but at the same time mitigate possible research biases, since it generated data from various datasets to approach a particular research question. It is worth mentioning that triangulation in the study did not only refer to data sources. Various data sources across time and heterogeneous research participants were two means for the strategy of triangulation.

Specifically, various data sources encompass multiple students' drafts, corresponding TWF, immediate verbal reports, semi-structured interviews, class observations, field notes, and class documents. Moreover, the collection of data went through two academic semesters and included 18 students who were classified into three groups depending on their English proficiency levels. Due to the multiple sources, high-quality data can also be generated through cross-checking. Findings from distinct sources and at distinct stages were constantly compared, and so were patterns among various participants. In this way, a comprehensive view of how students engage with TWF is more likely to be formulated. In addition, throughout the data analysis procedure, an external coder was invited to code 10% of the overall data. Any confusion and concerns were addressed by inter-coder discussions, as well as with the help from the teachers' confirmation when necessary

Due to the research target and duration of the study, I had a prolonged involvement with the participants. On the one hand, it allowed me to collect thick data on how they engaged with TWF and why they engaged in the reported way. On the other hand, it held the potential to increase research and personal bias. Being aware of the subjectivity that could be brought to the understanding of textual data, I kept being reflective during the data collection and data analysis procedure. During the study, I remained an open mind so that I did not expect certain answers. In addition, I constantly reminded the participants before verbal reports and interviews that they should articulate any authentic responses they had in mind since my main research target was to find out what was really going on concerning their engagement with TWF and possible influencing factors. After the data collection, I provided a well-structured, logical and transparent presentation of the data collection and analysis procedure to the participants, proving the objectivity, reliability and confirmability of my interpretations (Roberts, 2020).

Furthermore, member checking, also known as participant validation, was another technique to enhance the quality and validity (Silverman, 1993). I created a folder for each participant in a cloud space platform (*Yunxiezuo*) and uploaded related data sources such as the copies of their drafts with TWF, the recording of their oral reports and interviews and the corresponding transcripts. When the respondents had doubts, they were encouraged to refer to their recordings and then discuss them with the researcher.

After the last interview with the participants, I presented them with some portions of my interpretations from the existing data with the aim to check whether there were any biases and misinterpretations from the attendees' perspective (Merriam, 2009). This technique was not adopted during the study since I was worried that once the coding procedure and my

interpretations were presented to them, the participants might become self-aware and articulated according to the themes I had presented beforehand. Moreover, after the completion of the study, the participants could still get access to their individual cloud folders. So if they were interested in how I transcribed and interpreted their relevant data, they were welcome to discuss it with me.

In addition, I also conducted a pilot study (see detailed descriptions in Section 3.4) to familiarise myself with the data collection procedures and the logistics in the target university. More essentially, it was conceived as valuable in promoting the validity and reliability of the conceptualization of learner engagement and the data collection instruments that I intended to use in the main study (Duff, 2008).

3.12-Summary

In this chapter, specific research questions were firstly demonstrated, followed by a detailed explanation of the overall research tradition (i.e. interpretative and qualitative in nature) and study approach (multiple-case study). The insights from the pilot study were also highlighted. Then, relevant contexts where the study was situated were elaborated, and so were the information on the participants, data collection and data analysis. This chapter finished by presenting the researcher's role and the validity and reliability of the study.

Chapter 4: Findings

Acknowledging that learner engagement with TWF is individual-related and context-bound (Ellis, 2010d; Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010), this chapter starts with a comprehensive overview of the background information on the students and the teachers. It encompasses students' current motivation and learning goals, prior experience in L2 learning, writing and teacher feedback, along with their perceptions towards English learning and teacher feedback. Additionally, the teacher participants' L2 teaching background and philosophy, their general teaching practice, as well as the specific TWF patterns identified in the current study will also be demonstrated, aiming to illustrate the context for the upcoming main findings. Following this, the chapter progresses to its main content: in-depth presentations on how students engage behaviourally, cognitively and affectively with TWF, along with the underlying reasons for their engagement.

4.1-Background information of the students

4.1.1-Motivation and learning goals

Motivation could be generally classified into extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Ng & Ng, 2015). Intrinsic motivation in a learning context is defined as undertaking any learning practice for its inherent pleasure rather than for its external consequences. If a student has internal motives, he/she will feel rewarded because of the sheer enjoyment and challenge of that specific learning activity (Kálmán & Eugenio, 2015). Overall, 16 students showed their interest in learning English, and they demonstrated their pleasure and personal satisfaction during their English learning journey. However, more advanced learners tended to demonstrate a more intensive inner-driven motivation, by articulating the phrases such as “I

like English” (from Ruby, HP student from Class A, 1st interview) and “I enjoy English study” (from Bonnie, HP student from Class B, 1st interview). Flora (HP student from Class B) also mentioned in the second interview that in high school, she would resort to some English assignments when she felt pressured from other subjects, since learning English provided her a sense of accomplishment.

Zora (HP student from Class A) stated in her interview that she just loved English learning for no specific reasons. Even in high school, she had already made up her mind to choose English as her major. She exhibited her ambitious targets for her college study in the first interview *“I just want to be very good in English. And in the future, I am going to be an excellent English teacher”*.

Regarding Helen (IM student from Class A), she contributed her enthusiasm for English to her role model-her sister. She stated that her sister was very good at learning and was especially keen on English learning. Influenced by her, Helen (IM student from Class A) used to listen to English songs and watch English movies with her sister from middle school. That was when she developed her curiosity about English and she made up her mind to be as good an English learner as her sister.

However, there were exceptions who described their alternative learning aims besides pursuing English as future objectives. Stacy (LP student from Class A) described that she had to choose English as her major because of her lower score on the college entrance exam. She would have chosen the major of Economics if she had gained a higher score. Joan (IM student from Class A) commented that she was not so passionate about learning English. She only chose this major because this discipline was relatively manageable for her. Therefore,

the two students cared less about her English performance compared to her counterparts.

In terms of extrinsic motivation, since all the students were English-major students, the majority reported their long-term goals to be involved in English-related careers. The most frequently mentioned future work would be English teachers. Jack (LP student from Class A) stated his plans to be tied to English in his future job hunting, however he did not restrict himself to being an English teacher. Ambiguity was stated by Sally (HP student from Class A) who felt conflicted between becoming an English teacher or enrolling in postgraduate studies in Translation. There was one exception from Joan (IM student from Class A), who was indecisive about her future plans. She believed that she would either become an English teacher, or pursue a Master's degree in another major.

While there were variations in students' future objectives, their short-term targets were similar, especially in their second academic semester, in which they needed to take the Test for English Majors-Band 4 (TEM4) test. For English major students in China, they were required to pass the TEM4 as a prerequisite for graduation. The students had two chances to pass the test, one was in the second semester of their Year-2 study, and the other was in their third year. Thus, all the students mentioned their desire to pass this test as their short-term objective. Besides this, there were also some general descriptions of the students' short-term objectives in the interviews, such as "get a higher grade" or "improve overall English abilities" (data from interviews).

4.1.2-Prior learning experience (high school and first year of university)

In terms of teacher feedback, 13 students exhibited that their college teachers would provide

oral instruction to address some common problems detected in the students' drafts.

Nonetheless, no individualised feedback was provided. Only 3 students encountered written feedback in their high school. Ruby (HP student from Class A) stressed that her high school teachers highlighted the importance of reviewing the completed drafts before submission, since there still remained many careless mistakes in the students' revised drafts. Zora (HP student from Class A) appreciated the English teacher in her fourth year of high school. Zora was not satisfied with her first college entrance exam (i.e. *gaokao*), so she took a courageous decision to spend an additional year and retake the *gaokao*. It was in this year that she met a very responsible English teacher: "Only the teacher in my fourth year of high school specifically addressed the writing aspect of English learning. She marked the problematic usages in our writings and also shared some templates to illustrate the structure of the argumentative essay." (1st interview).

It was also manifested that some students gained writing strategies from their high school experience. Sally (HP student from Class A) was required to summarise her weaknesses and strengths in each of her writing drafts. She was also instructed to pause for a moment to reflect on her summaries every time before she started to write. Since she was also the English class representative, she needed to set an example for her classmates. So, she performed proactively to answer questions in class as well as consult the teacher after class: "I had to act more actively to encourage my classmates to get more involved in English learning. So, I often ask the teacher after class...At first, I was a little nervous...but then when I got used to it, it just felt natural...whenever I had doubts, I would ask the teacher for help". Because of this action, most of her uncertainties in certain English aspects became clearer.

Flora (HP student from Class B) and Helen (IM student from Class A) acquired the technique of making outlines to guide their formal writing. Their high school teachers encouraged them to use bullet points to organise their thoughts and then narrow their focuses on the topic.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) shared a learning method gained from high school to improve her overall writing abilities. The teacher would share some articles on current events. Bonnie (HP student from Class B) was told that these articles served to broaden their horizons as well as enrich their vocabulary. Thus, in class, some useful words or sentence patterns were extracted and their usages in students' writing would also be shared. Bonnie (HP student from Class B) found this method very beneficial, so she applied this in her college study.

Stacy (LP student from Class A), Tina (LP student from Class B) and Fanny (LP student from Class B) highlighted that their most impressive writing method shared by their high school teachers was to read aloud sample essays and some fixed templates.

Regarding their college experience of writing, the majority of students stated their status as in the exploratory stage. Some students conveyed that there was limited help from the teacher, especially outside of the class. Sally (HP student from Class A) found it very obvious that there was limited access to the teachers compared to her high school study. In high school, when she had doubts, she went to the office and consulted the teacher after class. However, in college, there was not a fixed office hour to meet the teacher.

Zora (HP student from Class A) was aware that she needed to be more independent and autonomous in her learning, but she found it difficult to locate efficient ways to achieve this goal. Ruby (HP student from Class A) also acknowledged that more self-directed learning

was needed in university. However, she also admitted that she was still exploring how to make her self-regulated learning effective. In terms of teacher feedback, the students stated that they had little chance to practise their writing and receive TWF. Some reported that they only wrote 2 or 3 argumentative articles throughout the first academic year. Meanwhile, some of their drafts were only graded and no feedback was offered.

4.1.3-Students' perception about TWF and English writing

4.1.3.1-Students' viewpoints about TWF

Probably because most students had scarce opportunities to direct their attention to writing exclusively and receive TWF, they all conveyed their expectations of receiving TWF. In terms of feedback focus, they suggested that both their linguistic errors as well as ideational issues should be addressed. They all held the idea that the provision of TWF would be beneficial to their writing abilities and serve as mirrors to reflect on their writing problems.

Helen (IM student from Class A) stressed that TWF should be cherished and taken seriously, since these were the few opportunities that they could receive individualised responses. She believed that “Before we submit our articles, we should try our best to detect the existent errors in our drafts. So, when the teacher corrected our texts, the errors that were difficult for ourselves to detect could be highlighted.” (4th interview).

Six students also believed that TWF can become a driving force for their study. If their TWF were positive, they could conclude that their recent learning has been productive. If the teachers' comments were mostly negative, they would decide to work harder. As conveyed

by Zora (HP student from Class A): “If there were more errors in my draft than expected, I would realise my writing was weak and become more motivated to improve the quality of my drafts.” (4th interview).

4.1.3.2-Students’ viewpoints about English writing

Besides regarding English writing as a part of their daily learning practice, five students also considered it as a way to express opinions. Sally (HP student from Class A) emphasised the difference of English writing between high school and in college: “In college, writing should not only be treated as homework, it is also a way for us to express our perspectives.” (1st interview). Jack (LP student from Class A) conveyed a similar idea that he prioritised content over grammar: “Writing, especially in college, should firstly be about communicating viewpoints. It should not be too exam-oriented. Instead, it was a way to show one’s thoughts. That is why I prefer the content” (1st and 4th interview).” In addition, he believed that the linguistic issues, such as word issues and punctuations, could be improved gradually. However, without in-depth ideas, one’s writing would “lose soul” (4th interview). Stacy (LP student from Class A) accentuated that TWF should provide content comments as well since “writing is also about presenting personal insights” (3rd interview). Cherry (IM student from Class B) believed that once the main idea was problematic, it would be less beneficial to correct the grammatical error firstly. Thus, there should be a sequence in revision where content-related problems should be addressed first and then grammatical errors later.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) agreed with the three students that as a college student, she placed emphasis on her content and logic. She connected it with her final thesis writing: “Afterall, for our graduation, we need to at least write a logical and reasonable thesis.” (4th

interview). However, this did not imply that she cared less about grammar. She stated that improving the vocabulary and sentence patterns were fundamental and should become a habitual behaviour.

In terms of the 4 aspects of English learning (reading, writing, listening and speaking), 13 students had no preference. In other words, they believed that all four aspects were significant in their English learning. In addition, Sally (HP student from Class A) and Helen (IM student from Class A) thought that writing was their weak aspect, thus it deserved extra engagement. In contrast, Ruby (HP student from Class A), Joan (IM student from Class A), Snow (IM student from Class A), Cherry (IM student from Class B) and Stacy (LP student from Class A) identified their weakness in either listening or speaking. Thus, for these 5 students, they might be prone to commit their focus to listening and speaking.

4.2-Background information of the teachers

Both Anna (teacher of Class A) and Zoe (teacher of Class B) were included as the teachers in the study. Anna was more of a follow-the-rule teacher, since she reported in the first interview that “I just followed the Department’s rule and requirement.”. However, this did not imply that she was less responsible and caring. Anna still carefully delivered the learning instruction (based on class observation) and cared about the students (she would chat with some students during class breaks). In comparison, Zoe stressed her orientation in preparing Year-2 students for the TEM4. She believed that teachers needed to be practical in this more and more pragmatic world:

For the students in their second year, their major focus is the TEM4, since this is the

prerequisite for their graduation.... What I should do is to provide them with some effective and practical techniques targeting at TEM4 in order to enhance their English abilities within a short timeframe. (2nd interview)

Concerning the teachers' common feedback practice, both Zoe and Anna offered feedback on local and global issues. In addition, before they returned students' drafts with TWF to their students each time, both teachers delivered a 30-45 minutes oral feedback session to the whole class, analysing some example essays (electronic versions have already been sent to the students in advance) and addressing common writing issues.

Usually in the Fundamental English Course (FEC), three writing tasks as homework (WH) were assigned per semester, where the teachers had the flexibility in choosing the writing topics, deciding the feedback practice (its focus, its explicitness, its delivery medium) and the number of drafts (either single draft or multiple drafts).

However, right before the study began, the Department set out fixed rules for students' writing tasks. The teachers in FEC should assign at least two writing tasks, provide both global (i.e. content, structure and genre) and local (i.e. linguistic) written feedback to each homework, require revised drafts, and provide further feedback accordingly (reasons explained in Section 3.5.2). Realising this requirement, both teachers decided to reduce the number of writing drafts from three to two, since they reported (1st interview) insufficient time and energy to comment on all students' drafts because of the large class size (i.e. 41 in Class A and 40 in Class B). In addition, both teachers used to provide handwritten feedback to the students' drafts. However, in the second semester, because of their department's requirement to collect electronic versions of students' daily assignments, the teachers

required electronic versions of students' drafts and accordingly delivered electronically written feedback to their students. Nevertheless, both teachers admitted that besides the delivery medium, there was not much difference concerning their feedback practice since they adopted the same marking criteria in providing paper-based written feedback and electronically written feedback (3rd interview).

4.3-TWF delivered by the participating teachers in the study

Informed by F. Hyland (1998), TWF could be classified as usable and unusable feedback. Whereas the former indicated writing issues that expected revision, the latter included compliments and reader responses that did not expect subsequent revisions (F. Hyland & K. Hyland, 2001). Unusable feedback was renamed "praise" in the current study since it was the only type identified among students' texts. In total, 660 feedback points were collected and analysed, among which 79 of them were praises and the remaining 581 were usable TWF points. Table 14 showed the overall number of feedback points received by each student participant during the whole research period.

Table 14: Overall number of TWF points delivered to each student

Name	Proficiency level	Class	TWF points
Flora	HP	B	35
Bonnie	HP	B	37
Queena	HP	B	30
Ruby	HP	A	32
Zora	HP	A	38
Sally	HP	A	35
Ella	IM	B	32
Lisa	IM	B	30
Cherry	IM	B	31
Helen	IM	A	37
Joan	IM	A	42

Snow	IM	A	33
Tina	LP	B	36
Fanny	LP	B	40
Iris	LP	B	42
Jack	LP	A	41
Grace	LP	A	49
Stacy	LP	A	40

TWF was then understood according to its focus. Consequently, four focuses were pinpointed: language, content, genre and praise, which were adapted from the categorization proposed by Ferris et al (1997) and Lee (2008a) (see detailed explanations in Section 3.8.2.1). Language feedback concerned errors in lexico-grammatical forms. Content-related feedback tackled problems on ideational problems such as vague, confusing, illogical and irrelevant sentences. Genre TWF highlighted genre-specific issues such as overall text organisation, paragraphing and how specific paragraphs should be structured (Ashwell, 2000). Finally, praises referred to teacher-written responses that underscored the areas of excellence in students' essays (F. Hyland & K. Hyland, 2001).

In terms of the directness of TWF, both direct and indirect feedback were found, which aligned with the findings of earlier studies (e.g. Ferris & Hedgocok, 2005; Liu & Storch, 2021). In addition, indirect feedback was found to be offered in varied forms, such as sole underlining, underlining with a question mark, and underlining with short or complete-sentence comments (Bates, Lane, & Lange, 1993; Lee, 2004).

4.3.1-Focuses of TWF

TWF identified in the current study encompassed four main focuses: language, content, genre and praises. The former three focuses (i.e. language, content and genre feedback) carried a

corrective nature, anticipating corresponding revisions. In contrast, the final focus (i.e. praises) highlighted students' writing strengths and expected no further revisions.

Among the 660 TWF points offered in the first drafts of all students, 88% addressed writing issues in the students' drafts, whereas the remaining 12% consisted of compliments (as shown in Table 15). Language, content and genre focuses took account of 56.8%, 28.6% and 2.6% respectively.

Table 15: Focus of TWF

TWF	No.	%
Language	375	56.8%
Content	189	28.6%
Praise	79	12.0%
Genre	17	2.6%
Sum	660	100%

Table 16 suggested that LP students had more problems at language and genre levels than their peers. In contrast, their content problems became less obvious than the HP and IM students. However, this did not imply that LP students had fewer problems with content. Interviews from Zoe and Anna admitted that LP students sometimes demonstrated more grammatical errors in their writings that prevented them from understanding the students' intentions, so they had to correct more linguistic errors first before shifting their focus to content issues in the future. In terms of praises, HP (17.9%) and IM learners (13.2%) gained a larger proportion of compliments compared to LP students (6%), which agreed with many prior studies (e.g. Razali & Jupri, 2014; Silver & Lee, 2007).

Table 16: Focuses of TWF among HP/IM/LP students

Focus	HP	IM	LP
Content	29.0%	30.7%	26.6%
Genre	1.9%	0.5%	4.8%
Praise	17.9%	13.2%	6.0%
Language	51.2%	55.6%	62.5%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	207	205	248

No major differences in the focuses of TWF were discovered over the research period (suggested in Table 17). Relatively, the feedback targeting language and genre errors recorded declines from 60.1% to 56.4%, and 4.4% to 1.3% respectively. In terms of content-related feedback and praises, they experienced an increase from 24.6% to 30.1% and 10.9% to 12.2% respectively.

Moreover, there was a noticeable growth in the genre feedback from WH2 (1.2%) to WH3 (3.2%). Nevertheless, upon close examination of this shift, it did not necessarily imply that students started to make more genre-related errors. Three students blamed it to the usage of an online writing platform (i.e. *Pigai*). From the third writing assignment, Anna required the students to upload their drafts through *Pigai*. However, the students discovered that while their original drafts were in accurate format, the uploaded versions were somewhat garbled. That was why three students from Class A (two of which are LP students [Jack and Grace] and third one being an IM student [Joan]) received similar genre comments, stressing the importance of proper indentation in the first line of each paragraph.

Table 17: Focuses of TWF across the four WH

Focus	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
Content	24.6%	31.3%	29.1%	30.1%
Genre	4.4%	1.2%	3.2%	1.3%
Praise	10.9%	11.0%	13.9%	12.2%
Language	60.1%	56.4%	53.8%	56.4%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	183	163	158	156

In terms of feedback patterns provided in Class A and Class B (see Table 18), both teachers offered linguistic feedback and non-linguistic feedback (i.e. content and genre), along with praises. Comparatively, Anna from Class A provided more grammatical feedback (58.2% vs. 55.3%) and praises (14.7% vs. 8.9%) whereas Zoe from Class B directed more focus on content (33.9% vs. 23.9%). These differences aligned with both teachers' philosophy of feedback provision. According to their first interview, Anna believed that lexico-grammatical aspects set a foundation for writing. When basic grammar errors were not resolved, it was less effective to deal with content matters. On the contrary, Zoe stated that she prioritised the main arguments and the general ideas of the supporting details first, and then focused on linguistic expressions.

Table 18: Focuses of TWF in the two classes

Focus	Class A	Class B
Language	58.2%	55.3%
Content	23.9%	33.9%
Genre	3.2%	1.9%
Praise	14.7%	8.9%
Sum (%)	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	347	313

4.3.2-Directness of TWF

TWF can also be divided into three categories based on its directness: direct feedback (i.e. provision of accurate answers), indirect feedback (i.e. an indication of what was problematic but without accurate answers) and praises (see specific examples in Table 17). As Table 19 and 20 demonstrated, direct feedback (53.6%) was more commonly found in all students' drafts, compared to indirect feedback (34.4%) and praises (12%). Additionally, this trend remained steady throughout different writing tasks (see Table 21).

Table 19: Examples of direct feedback, indirect feedback and praise

Categories	Source	Proficiency	Class	Examples
Direct feedback	Helen's WH2	IM	A	... <u>each single</u> of us is also supported TWF: underlining with accurate expression “everyone”
Indirect feedback	Fanny's WH1	LP	B	Besides, <u>the 5G Network Era</u> is coming. TWF: underlining
Praise	Ruby's WH1	HP	A	<u>EnviGreen, an Indian start-up...</u> TWF: underlining and comment “good example”

Table 20: Directness of TWF

TWF	No	%
Direct	354	53.6%
Indirect	227	34.4%
Praise	79	12.0%
Sum	660	100%

Table 21: Directness of TWF among HP/IM/LP students

Directness	HP	IM	LP
Direct	50.7%	50.2%	58.9%
Indirect	31.4%	36.6%	35.1%
Praise	17.9%	13.2%	6.0%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	207	205	248

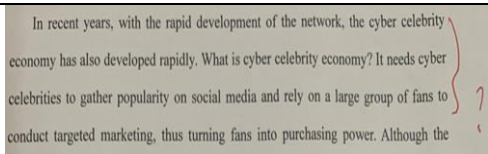
Table 22: Directness of TWF across the 4 WH

Directness	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
Direct	53.6%	54.6%	53.8%	52.6%
Indirect	34.4%	33.7%	35.4%	34.0%
Praise	12.0%	11.7%	10.8%	13.5%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	183	163	158	156

Congruent with prior findings positing that indirect feedback could be delivered in various forms (Aridah & Iswari, 2021; Erel & Bulut, 2007; Eslami, 2014), the current study also detected a distinct degree of inexplicitness when analysing indirect teacher responses. Both teachers delivered indirect TWF in multiple ways: underlining/circling, underlining/markings with a question mark, and underlining with comments (illustrated by Table 23).

Table 23: Types of indirect feedback

Indirect TWF	Source	Proficiency	Class	Example
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Underlining	Fanny's WH2	LP	Class B	<u>We need to know that the prosperity of an industry lies not only in the adequacy of funds, but also in the attention of the government.</u>
Marking with a question mark	Snow's WH2	IM	Class A	 <p>In recent years, with the rapid development of the network, the cyber celebrity economy has also developed rapidly. What is cyber celebrity economy? It needs cyber celebrities to gather popularity on social media and rely on a large group of fans to conduct targeted marketing, thus turning fans into purchasing power. Although the</p>
Underling with a comment	Iris's WH1	LP	Class B	<u>They can't leave their phones for long because the mobile phone not only bring people something about work but also the leisure. The mobile phone give us many entertainment resources, such as videos, games, and shopping, especially the popularity of short videos.</u> TWF: What is your logic?

Irrespective of proficiency levels, all students received over 50% of direct feedback (refer to Table 19). Comparatively, written drafts of LP students received more direct feedback (58.9%) than those of HP (50.7%) and IM participants (50.2%). Furthermore, HP learners were more often praised in their drafts than their peers whereas IM learners received slightly more indirect feedback than students with HP and LP levels (shown in Table 21).

In sum, while the majority of TWF addressed students' linguistic errors (56.8%), it also

contained feedback on content (28.6%), genre (2.6%) and students' writing strengths (12%). In terms of implicitness, direct feedback was more frequently delivered than indirect feedback, regardless of different writing tasks and students with varying proficiency levels. Furthermore, indirect TWF was found to be offered in various forms, such as simply underlining, marking with a question mark and underlining/marking with written comments.

4.4-Behavioural engagement and mediating factors

4.4.1-Introduction

Behavioural engagement was examined through an analysis of students' revision behaviours regarding usable TWF and the observable behaviours exhibited during the implementation of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in revision. In total, the data revealed a total of 581 TWF points that needed addressing in students' first writing drafts of their four writing tasks.

4.4.2-Modification behaviours

The analysis of students' modification behaviours considered two aspects: whether the students had made revisions to TWF and the specific type of revisions undertaken.

4.4.2.1-Revise or not

Table 24 indicated that the majority of writing issues indicated by the TWF were attended to by students (92.43%) compared to 7.57% of no revision. Even among the learners with diverse English proficiency levels (refer to Table 25), writing issues were addressed (94.7%,

92.1% and 91% respectively for HP, IM, and LP students) much more often than being left untreated (5.3%, 7.9% and 9% for HP, IM and LP students).

Table 24: Overall percentages of modification behaviours of all students

Modificaiotn	No.	%
Yes	537	92.43%
No	44	7.57%
Sum	581	100%

Table 25: Overall percentages of modification behaviours among HP/IM/LP students

Modificaiotn	HP	IM	LP
Yes	94.7%	92.1%	91.0%
No	5.3%	7.9%	9.0%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	170	178	233

A look at the patterns along different homework (see Table 26) showed that “no revision” became a less frequent trend (with 8.1 % of WH1 to 6.7% of WH4). Despite fluctuations during the semester, the proportion of writing deficiencies being attended increased from 91.9% to 93.3% at the end of the semester.

Table 26: Overall percentages of modification behaviours across the 4 WH

Modificaiotn	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
Yes	91.9%	93.1%	91.4%	93.3%
No	8.1%	6.9%	9.6%	6.7%
Sum (%)	100%	100%	100%	100%
Sum (No.)	135	145	152	149

4.4.2.2-Types of modification behaviours

Informed by Zhang and K. Hyland (2018) and grounded in the current study, eight types of modification behaviours were discerned: AF, NewC, IS, IC, NC, Rw, DI and St. Table 27 suggested that AF (46%), NewC (19.6%) and IC (8.6%) were the most frequent modifications. In total, these three sub-categories accounted for 74.2% of all the correction types, followed by IS, NC, Rw, DI and St.

Table 27: Types of modification behaviours

Types	No.	%
AF	267	46.0%
NewC	114	19.6%
IC	50	8.6%
IS	46	7.9%
NC	44	7.6%
Rw	29	5.0%
DI	17	2.9%
St	14	2.4%
Sum	581	100%

Explanations of abbreviations: accurately follow (AF), new content (NewC), initial stimulus (IS), incorrect correction (IC), no correction (NC), rewriting (Rw), deletion (DI) and substitution (St).

Table 28 indicated that the top 2 sub-categories (i.e. AF and NewC) were identical, regardless of students' proficiency levels. All cases of AF were results from direct feedback, whereas NewC was responses from both direct and indirect feedback.

Table 28: Types of modification behaviours among HP/IM/LP students

Types	HP		Types	IM		Types	LP
T-AF	45.9%		T-AF	46.6%		T-AF	46.4%
T-NewC	19.4%		T-NewC	20.8%		T-NewC	18.9%
T-IS	12.4%		T-IC	8.4%		T-IC	11.2%
T-IC	5.3%		T-IS	7.3%		T-NC	7.3%
T-NC	5.3%		T-NC	6.2%		T-IS	6.4%
T-Rw	4.7%		T-Rw	5.1%		T-Rw	6.0%
T-St	4.7%		T-DI	3.4%		T-DI	3.0%
T-DI	2.4%		T-St	2.2%		T-St	0.9%
Sum	100%		Sum	100%		Sum	100%
Sum (No.)	170		Sum (No.)	178		Sum (No.)	233

The explicitness of TWF might be one factor prompting students to directly adopt TWF.

Additionally, two other reasons emerged from the data: students' beliefs about how to respond to direct TWF and their reliance on teachers.

For instance, Stacy (LP student from Class A) believed that when direct feedback was offered, the teacher expected her to adopt it and memorise it. Detailed explanations were provided:

I think the provision of direct feedback is to give us an accurate answer to follow. It is like high school...the teacher told us to memorise some accurate answers...even when you did not understand it, you just memorised them...But to be honest, I've become quite lazy at college, so I usually just correct the errors without purposefully memorising them.
(2nd interview)

Influenced by high school learning experience, Stacy believed that direct feedback implied a provision of a model answer and subsequent memorisation. Although the physical context has transitioned from high school to college life, Stacy failed to acknowledge that her role has also transformed from passively reciting answers to proactively seeking them.

Another reason was revealed by Stacy (LP student from Class A):

Well...This one I did not know...But since the teacher already gave me the answer, I just copied it... (3rd verbal report)

Additionally, some of her other verbal reports contained similar statements, a perspective echoed by other LP students and 4 IM students when tackling certain feedback points. This revealed that lower proficiency students relied more on their teachers. When encountering challenges during revision and having accurate answers provided, they were less intended to seek solutions independently.

Nevertheless, the study also discovered possible ways to address this weakness of direct TWF, which was evidenced in Fanny's (LP student from Class B) feedback practice. Fanny used to rely on the teacher's exact suggestions to modify her drafts in writing tasks. However, she immediately altered this habitual behaviour, from directly copying the indicated answers in WH1 to seeking alternatives in WH3. This adjustment was a deliberate action:

I was just aware that the teacher did not want us to copy all her direct feedback, especially when there were other possible accurate forms...From her perspective, we were supposed to reflect on her explicit suggestions as guidance and then generated our own answers....So from WH3, I did not dare to employ her solutions directly...Otherwise, it just felt like I was not listening to her carefully...(4th interview)

Fanny and Stacy's examples suggested that students' dependence on teachers was a common

trait, even among university students. However, in the Chinese learning culture where the teachers hold an authoritative role (Wei, Zhou, Barber & Den Brok, 2015), practicing teachers could take advantage of this unique culture and set specific roles for students to follow.

While prior studies (Erel & Bulut, 2007; Eslami, 2014) found fewer instances where overt feedback resulted in new content, the current data provided fresh evidence. In Grace's WH2 (LP from Class A), Anna underlined a verb error in her last paragraph. In Grace's verbal report, she explained her NewC revision by referring to prior writing knowledge and justified why she changed the content rather than just correcting the phrase:

1st draft: What we should do is ~~rooting in~~ the reality, working hard and improving ourselves.↵
TWF: to root from↵

2nd draft: What we should do is to strengthen the supervision and promote the law and regulations...↵

Here...the verb and also the phrase were wrong...but then I thought about this sentence...For what I have remembered, the teacher suggested to give a summary of what we had argued in the last paragraph...Also, the last paragraph should avoid introducing new argument points... (2nd verbal report)

Utilising knowledge gained from prior instruction, Grace (LP student from Class A) opted to adjust the content instead of rectifying a specific grammatical error. This indicated that even for LP students, if they happened to possess the pertinent knowledge about the problematic texts, they could build upon TWF and improve their drafts independently.

Another noteworthy discovery concerned direct content feedback. The data revealed students' proactiveness in analysing the suitability of TWF before adopting it to their drafts. For example, Flora (HP student from Class B) attributed her revision (categorised as IS) to Zoe's direct content response.

1st draft: Medical care and education are the foundation of society, so it is necessary for the government to invest money...↵

TWF: Not a good way to begin with, for your title is related to "spend money on theatres and sport stadiums". How about "where the public money goes is people's concern/biggest concern"?↵

↵

2nd draft: When it comes to government spending, people have different views.↵

It was surprising that Flora did not directly embrace Zoe's suggestions, but crafted her own revision. Recognizing this unexpectedness, the researcher probed into this action. Consequently, Flora elucidated in her second verbal report that she chose not to replicate the direct answer because it gave the impression of not taking the feedback seriously. Additionally, she stated that by thinking of her own revision, it imprinted more deeply in her memory.

Then, in terms of the third most frequently modified type, HP students (5.3%) demonstrated a smaller percentage of IC compared to their peers. In contrast, they took advantage of the teacher's indications and thought of their own revisions subsequently (i.e. IS=12.4%).

For example, the teacher used an underlining paired with a question mark to pinpoint an error in Flora's WH1 (HP student from Class B). Upon receiving the feedback, Flora firstly analysed her sentence for linguistic errors. After eliminating the possibilities, she concluded that it seemed to be a word choice error. Thus, she took advantage of Zoe's hint and made an

accurate revision, which fell into the category of IS.

1st draft: ...we listen to all kinds of audio and watch videos...↵

TWF: ?↵

2nd draft: ...we listen to all kinds of recordings and watch videos...↵

Flora's case demonstrated her ability in exploring possible errors even when the feedback was indirect. Based on her judgement, she made an accurate revision.

However, this appeared to be challenging for LP students. When faced with indirect feedback, they often struggled to identify what was problematic. Compared to their proficient peers, they made less accurate analyses. Consequently, their modification behaviours reacting to indirect teacher advice included IC and DI. For example, when the same form of feedback (a red line with a question mark) was given to Iris (LP student in Class B) in WH4, she expressed confusion about the indication of feedback and chose to delete the sentence.

1st draft: ...environmental pollution is closely related to our life. We cannot feel that it has nothing to do with ourselves. I think individuals...↵

TWF: ?↵

Furthermore, compared to her classmates, Iris did not consult the teacher during the entire study period. Her hesitancy to approach the teacher for assistance was influenced by a previous unfavourable experience, wherein the teacher's impatience left a lasting impact on her (4th interview). After that experience, she refrained from asking teachers for help.

Iris's example suggested that her insufficient English proficiency levels, together with her

prior learning experience, resulted in her avoidance strategy of TWF. By contrast, the study discovered another example of Tina (LP from Class B), who also shared a negative prior experience consulting the teacher, altered this particular belief due to a positive interaction with Zoe (this example was illustrated in Section 4.4.3.1).

While TWF was expected to be treated carefully, there were still instances where no modifications (i.e. NC) (N=44) were presented. Common reasons included forgetting to make modifications (16%), overlooking indicated errors (25%) and not comprehending the feedback (22%). Additional reasons were found among IM and HP students.

Around 15% of the feedback receiving no responses result from a misunderstanding of feedback as suggestions rather than corrections. For example, Zoe replaced the pronoun “us” with “people” in Ella’s WH1 (IM student from Class B). From Ella’s first verbal report, she regarded her original use of “us” not as inaccurate, but just not as good as the teacher’s advice (i.e. “people”). Thus, she thought the revision was operational and decided to retain her original usage (i.e. categorizing as “NC”).

1st draft: ..., made ~~us~~ spend no time in doing chores.↵
 |TWF: people↵

Two HP and one IM students left the feedback unchanged on purpose after serious analysis of their original drafts and the teachers’ comments, since they believed that their first drafts were more appropriate than the teachers’ suggestions. Anna added “s” for the word “material” in Helen’s WH1, but Helen (IM student from Class A) believed that the teacher misunderstood it since her emphasis was on “resources”. Thus, she maintained her original

usage of “material” (categorizing as NC).

1st draft: ...spends countless talent, material and financial resources↵

TWF: s↵

2nd draft: ...spends substantial financial, material and human resources↵

Another positive discovery pertained to the way HP students handled direct TWF. Not only did they occasionally choose not to copy the feedback, but also brainstormed alternative answers. For example, Anna corrected the usage of “make” to “made” in Sally’s WH2. Sally (HP student from Class A) showed her agreement with TWF and provided an accurate explanation by stating that since the action happened in the past, the verb tense should be past tense. Furthermore, she expressed her willingness to upgrade her vocabulary: “But I thought that ‘make’ was quite simple, so I replaced it with another verb ‘produce’” (2nd verbal report). Thus, her revised behaviour belonged to the categorization of “St” since the finalised version was different from Anna’s suggestion:

1st draft: This celebrity make a video to show↵

TWF: made↵

2nd draft: The celebrity produced a video to show...↵

The same intention was also reported by Flora (HP student from Class B) and Helen (IM student from Class A), who believed that they had identified an improved version than the teacher’s suggestions. However, while there were two instances of substitutions (i.e. “St”) found in LP learners, they could not articulate why they did not follow the teacher’s suggestion. For instance, when asked why not adopting the teacher’s direct feedback (shown

below), Stacy (LP student from Class A) just stated that “Actually...I did not know...Maybe I forgot? I did not know...” (4th verbal report).

1st draft: quite a few merits to use coined Internet buzzwords and...

TWF: of using

2nd draft: quite a few merits of coined Internet buzzwords...

An exception was detected where Fanny, a LP student, also thought of her own revision in WH3 even when direct feedback was provided.

1st draft: Individuals And Governments Need to Make Joint Efforts↵

TWF: How about this title ‘Joint Efforts Needed to Solve Environmental Problems’?↵

↵

2nd draft: Solve Environmental Problems Need Joint Efforts↵

The teacher believed that my original title was not good, maybe because it was like a sentence...But...I could not use hers’ ...Because last time during the class break, I overheard her talking to one of my classmates that it would be better not to directly duplicate her feedback...So I know copying her answers was not suitable...(3rd verbal report)

Fanny’s incidental realisation that her teacher encouraged alternative revisions, even with direct feedback, prompted her to seek answers independently.

To conclude, the students’ revision modifications to TWF were classified into eight types.

For the majority of the students, they followed the teachers' directions when explicit suggestions were offered. Meanwhile, students demonstrated their concern for content-related issues, even when the feedback addressed a linguistic error. LP students were more likely to make inaccurate revisions, suggesting a potential link to their inadequate English proficiency level. Some even tried to avoid the mistaken usages by deleting the original sentences. However, all HP learners, three IM students and one LP learner demonstrated initiatives in generating their own revisions, even when accurate revisions were already provided by their teachers.

4.4.3-Observable behaviours

In general, students were observed to implement their cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In addition, these actions were utilised to achieve different learning and revision purposes.

4.4.3.1-Observable behaviours (cognitive dimensions)

Observable behaviours in the cognitive dimension firstly encompassed the utilisation of external resources, such as online dictionaries (ODs), online materials, peer support, extra teacher support, notebooks, textbooks and software (e.g., Word). Whereas all students employed various types of external resources, their purposes were different. LP students consulted additional resources to aid their comprehension. Comparatively, HP learners took actions for multiple purposes, such as to enhance understanding, to memorise unfamiliar English phrases and word usages, and to summarise strengths and weaknesses of their writing.

Other visible behaviours utilising cognitive strategies constituted note-taking and quiet reading, for the objectives to memorise or/and summarise.

1)-External resources

a)-Online dictionaries (ODs)

Agreeing with previous studies, bilingual ODs were identified as one of the top choices to facilitate students' revision of their work. All students consulted dictionaries from time to time in their revisions. *Youdao* and *Oulu Dictionary* were the Top 2 most popular online dictionaries among students. Both dictionaries provide Chinese-English and English-English definitions, as well as example sentences when users make searches. Normally, the students consulted dictionaries to check the meaning of a certain English word, or type in Chinese to find a suitable English expression. Here is an example from Zora (HP student from Class A):

1st draft: Everyone in the world possesses the responsibility...↵
TWF: bears↵

↵

2nd draft: Everyone in the world bears the responsibility...↵

The teacher suggested “bears”...but I did not know why my original phrase was wrong...So I typed the phrase “bear the responsibility” and also “possess the responsibility” into the Youdao Dictionary. After comparison, I realised that “bearing the responsibility” was a set phrase. (Verbal report on WH1)

However, despite the popularity of online dictionaries among all participants, the way they were employed differed among students with different proficiency levels, agreeing with

findings from Fan (2000). To illustrate, in terms of what to look for in a dictionary, HP and some IM learners used ODs to a fuller extent than their peers. More often, they looked up the words' meaning (both in Chinese and in English), read sample sentences and contextualised the entries into their original drafts. By comparison, LP students tended to study the Chinese definitions only. Additionally, HP learners and IM learners seem to be more aware of and more capable of judging the accuracy of dictionary entries.

When inquired how they employed dictionaries to improve the comments, “sample sentence”, “be cautious”, “to compare” were the phrases frequently mentioned by most HP learners and some IM learners in their verbal reports and interviews. The following conversations drawn from Sally's (HP student from Class A) interviews and verbal reports crystalized how online dictionaries were used:

Researcher: You mentioned the usage of dictionaries, how do you often use them?

Sally: Yes...let me think...Typically, I enter the English word or phrase into the dictionary...look at the Chinese and English definitions...then the sample sentences, to see how the word is commonly used. Another situation...if I do not know how to express certain meanings in English, I type in Chinese and see what the dictionary suggests...In this situation, I am more cautious...because the teacher mentioned before that the translation function of these online dictionaries was not very reliable. (2nd interview)

An excerpt from her first verbal report offered specific instances of her dictionary utilisation:

Here...the teacher underlined 'raise sense', which I believed was a phrasal problem...So, I firstly typed in the Chinese “提高意识” (note: means “raise awareness”

in English) in the dictionary to see the suggestion... the expression “strengthen the awareness” popped up.

But...it still sounded weird...So I input both “strengthen” and “awareness” respectively into the dictionary...I wanted to find more examples...Then I saw this sentence "But more than that, it raises awareness."... I suddenly remembered that I had learnt the collocation “raise awareness” before...That was why finally I changed it to “raise awareness”.

Straightforwardly, it seemed that Sally extracted a fuller potential from online dictionaries. However, what should not be overlooked was that her accurate instincts and her prior knowledge both contributed significantly to her efficient employment of the dictionary.

By comparison, less advanced students exhibited inadequacies in their abilities to fully use dictionaries and evaluate their reliability. For instance, Cherry (IM student from Class B) did not understand why the adjective “powerful” was substituted by “significant”. So she looked up both words in the dictionary. She reported:

1st draft: In fact, individuals can do many small but ~~powerful~~ things to improve the environment↵
TWF: significant↵

2nd draft: In fact, individuals can do many small but significant things to improve the ↵
environment.↵

Well...the dictionary suggested that “significant” meant “重要的” and “powerful” meant “有影响力的”...Both of the Chinese translations had the connotations of being meaningful. So...I really could not tell the difference...But when I read the sentence, her

(the teacher) correction did sound better. So I used it". (4th verbal report)

To make the data more reliable, after the verbal report, I also searched these two words (i.e. “significant” and “powerful”) in *Youdao* Dictionary (the same one used by Cherry). For the word “significant”, the dictionary offered 7 Chinese translations, while 16 Chinese definitions were found concerning the word “powerful”. Thus, it became understandable that the students could not make conclusions.

Despite this, there was an English definition page in the dictionary where “significant” was defined as “having a particular meaning”. The definition happened to be a better fit for Cherry’s intended meaning. As a result, if Cherry adopted more extensive usage of ODs, she might augment the understanding of the two words, and thus making more sense of TWF.

Another example of insufficiently using the dictionary to support the corresponding revision was extracted from the revision of WH4 by Tina (LP student from Class B).

1st draft: A tip-off to the companies which discharge of sewage and such enterprises will be prosecuted[↵]

TWF: This expression means give insider information or advise to if used as a v. . What do you mean here?[↵]

2nd draft: Reporting the companies which discharge sewage to relevant department and these [↵] companies will be prosecuted.[↵]

Tina explained that her original intention was to convey the meaning of “检举” (note: means “to report to legal departments anonymously and secretly” in English). Since she could not recall an equivalent English word, she consulted the dictionary using Chinese, and the word “tip-off” was recommended consequently. Tina articulated:

Just now I searched the word “tip-off” again...yet the dictionary indicated that it could signify “report to someone privately”!... and its collocation was “a tip-off to someone”!... So, I was confused...But anyway, since the teacher thought it was not appropriate, I believed her.... So, I tried to express it in another way. (4th verbal report)

Tina’s example showed her inability to fully understand the information provided by the dictionary. If she examined the illustrative sentence within the dictionary (i.e. “The man was arrested at his home after a tip-off to police from a member of the public,” from *Youdao*), she would recognize that the issue with her original sentence did not lie in the word “tip-off”, but the parts that followed (i.e. “the companies”). With this awareness, she could adjust the object “the companies” and its relevant segments, rather than abandoning the whole sentence.

Cherry (IM student from Class B) was the only student who made use of a novel dictionary *Thesaurus*, which is a monolingual online dictionary recommending synonyms and antonyms of a certain word. She said that it was recommended by the teacher from an online English course about theme-based English:

The teacher provided a list of the dictionary-related websites which was believed to build our vocabulary... When I wanted to substitute the word ‘convenience’, I thought of the websites...So I randomly chose one... Then I searched “convenience”...about 30 words showed up.... I was at a loss for what I should do... I was afraid that if I randomly chose one, it might be incorrect. So at last I just used “convenience” suggested by Zoe in my 2nd draft. (1st verbal report)

Cherry's attempt to utilise a new online dictionary was appreciated, yet this attempt proved unsuccessful because she was overwhelmed by the website. With no guidance, the student was clueless about how to tackle such a substantial amount of vocabulary. This agreed with Chon's study (2009) that strategies should be recommended when using thesaurus-type dictionaries where a list of words were provided.

b)-Peer support

Peer support was found to include two sources: discussions with friends and an analysis of the model essays written by peers. The former type was stressed by two-thirds of LP students and the primary reason for seeking help from friends was its immediate availability. As can be illustrated by Iris (LP student from Class B) who explained her rationale:

1st draft: Secondly, the playground is a place where people can strengthen their body...↵

↵

2nd draft: Secondly, the sport stadium is a place where people can strengthen their body...↵

I asked my friend about this underlining, since I had no clue...I feel that the teacher is very busy, so it would feel embarrassing to occupy her time... But my friend, she sat just next to me...it was more convenient...I could also get the answer right away...So most of the time, I prefer to ask my friend. (2nd verbal report)

This finding was not surprising since some research (Cohen, 2003; Shang, 2017) indicated that one of the reasons why students chose to ask a friend rather than their teachers was because of the accessibility and convenience. However, the current study also detected controversial findings where HP candidates posited their less tendency to approach a friend

for assistance. Queena's (HP student from Class B) explanations provided some hints to this finding:

For most linguistic errors...I can solve it by myself or by consulting the dictionaries...With problems on content or logic, I normally find it less useful to ask my friends. I mean... I will sometimes discuss with them, but normally if we want to make a conclusion, we have to ask the teacher. (2nd Interview)

In addition, more advanced students were discovered to refer to the sample essays more often. In both classes, the teachers would share 2-3 sample essays written by their classmates to the whole class. 3 HP students reported making full use of these articles, by analysing and distilling the strong features which they could apply to their revised work. For example, Sally (HP student from Class A) read through an illustrative article and concluded that she needed more effort in building up her vocabulary:

I was shocked by the advanced sentence patterns and vocabulary in the essay, such as “to crack” and “what hits the headline is that...”. I had to admit that most of these usages were new to me. No wonder the teacher complimented her in class. (3rd verbal report)

In contrast, while Fanny (LP student from Class B) also reported an attempt to comprehend TWF by learning from the sample essays shared by Zoe, her endeavour was inefficient.

In Fanny's WH2, the teacher indicated that her article lacked topic sentences. Since the concept of “topic sentence” was relatively new, Fanny tried to resolve this matter by reading

through a sample essay from her classmate. Accordingly, she concluded that a topic sentence should be at the beginning of each paragraph and covered the main idea of each paragraph. Thus, in her 2nd draft, she added “I will list some evidence to support my opinions” at the beginning of her second paragraph as a topic sentence. However, this was an invalid topic sentence since it provided no concrete information about the author’s argument. Hence, it was also underlined by Zoe.

Two inferences could be drawn from Fanny’s example. Firstly, the effort in using peer essays did not guarantee successful revision. The students’ overall writing expertise could influence the outcome of their revisions. Secondly, when an inaccurate modification was made, it did not always imply that the feedback reader exerted less behavioural effort into comprehending the feedback.

c)-Online materials

Online materials included writing prompts, topic-related articles, grammatical and ideational questions addressed through asynchronous Q&A online forums and some TEM4 sample essays. They were activated by the learners to achieve three objectives: 1) to remind themselves of the writing topic assigned by the teacher; 2) to collect some argument points; 3) to address grammatical concerns and content/logic-related uncertainties.

As previously stated (see Section 4.2), both teachers provided in-class oral feedback for the particular writing task before returning the students’ drafts. During the oral instructions, the teacher revisited the writing prompts with the students. Consequently, only a few students reread the prompts again in their own revision. This was validated by Tina (LP student from

Class B), who, in her revision, proceeded without consulting the prompts. Her second interview mirrored the thoughts of those who took similar actions:

I did not read the requirements again because...the teacher already showed them in class...so it was unnecessary to read it again before my revision...But if the teacher only gave back the written feedback without the oral instructions, I would probably reread the task requirement...since I would have forgotten what was the writing topic. (2nd interview)

Despite this situation where the requirements were already reviewed by the teachers in class, there were still instances of two IM students, two HP students and one LP student who reported rereading the prompts. However, different patterns were revealed in how and why they reread the writing prompts.

Lisa (IM student from Class B) reported skimming the writing instructions to familiarize herself with the topic. This was probably because she made appointments with the researcher 5 days after she received TWF for WH2, since at that time she was too busy, being occupied with some extracurricular activities. In addition, Lisa reported her belief in the unnecessary to read writing prompts in certain circumstances:

I had to read the instruction again, since I did not remember what the homework required us to write...But...if I revised it earlier... I already had a rough idea of the topic...Then reading it again would be a waste of time... (2nd verbal report)

Lisa's articulation stated that although she carried out the action, she did not believe in its

necessity. She simply resorted to the writing prompts because of her personal issues which led to memory loss.

In contrast, Jack (LP student from Class A) referred to the task requirements with specific purposes. In his revision of WH3, he first went through the reading materials provided alongside the writing topic for several minutes, and then started his revision. The following conversation with him in the verbal report revealed interesting findings:

Researcher: I observed you carefully read the reading materials before your revision.

What were you thinking back then?

Jack: Well...the teacher always told us that this kind of writing (i.e. reading materials plus a writing question) required us to stick to the points emphasised by the reading texts...Since my writing was a little off-topic based on the teacher's comments, I thought this was something I should do.

Researcher: Do you always read through the materials before your revision?

Jack: No, I just started this semester...Since the teacher kept emphasizing that it was important to get a clear idea of the reading materials first...Plus the main ideas of my writing were problematic...So I thought I might try it...

Jack also acknowledged that he used to skim the reading materials and focused mainly on the specific topic highlighted in the writing prompt in his revision, especially when the time is limited. Jack's instance proved that students' belief could be altered by the teachers' constant instructions. Once learning belief was amended, subsequent behaviours would be adapted accordingly.

Likewise, influenced by Zoe, Flora (HP student from Class B) also demonstrated a modification of beliefs on rereading the prompts, recognizing the necessity and importance of this strategy:

I remembered the teacher mentioned before that sometimes you might make different conclusions when reading the same materials... I did not agree with it at first... Then when I tried it last time, I did notice I made various inferences from the materials... So now I believe that it is important to read the writing instructions from time to time to check your understanding... Even when there is only a writing topic, I would still read it carefully. (2nd verbal report)

Moreover, in later revisions, Flora reported evidence of carrying out this action. She commented on the skill in the last interview:

Now I am used to reading the writing prompts every time before my revision, to make sure I get the main ideas correct. Also, during the revision, I will refer to the task requirements from time to time to check whether my writing suits the main ideas of the writing prompts.

Flora's statement showed that observable cognitive processing could be influenced by the teaching content. The impact could also be reinforced when the student's practice resonated with the benefits suggested by the teacher's instruction. In addition, Flora's further employment of this skill showed her metacognitive awareness as well. She not only improved her revisions by rereading the prompts, but also monitored her revision by using the same strategy.

Furthermore, students' decisions on whether to refer to the reading materials could be influenced by their specific writing issues. If more problems were detected in content areas, students were more likely to resort to the writing instructions before revision. While revising WH2, Sally (HP student from Class A) was observed to reexamine the writing prompts, a behaviour that was not evidence in her WH1 revision. Hence, the researcher inquired about the rationale behind her changed behaviour. Sally reported:

I did not read the prompts for my WH1 because the main content was fine...Only some grammatical errors needed revision...However for WH2, Anna highlighted many logical problems which I agreed...I had this feeling even when I drafted the first version. So...I read the materials again...to organise my thought again...And then start correcting...

(2nd interview)

It was demonstrated that some students would create their own standards in using the writing prompts. In Sally's case, she believed that it was only imperative to revisit the prompts when content issues were detected in her drafts.

Thus, concerning writing prompts, the data revealed that students held various attitudes towards the significance of revisiting writing requirements. However, this belief could be altered by the teacher's constant instruction, learning beliefs and students' feedback experience.

Besides reviewing the writing requirements, three IM students and two LP students conducted online searches for articles or news, as they believed that they lacked an overall

understanding of the writing topic. For example, due to the unfamiliarity with the topic of “plastic pollution”, Stacy (LP student from Class A) searched the enquiry “use the laws to solve plastic pollution” for inspiration. Fanny (LP student from Class B) searched online to gather ideas for three writing assignments, and elaborated on how and why she adopted this approach:

The teacher commented that my evidence did not seem to support my argument...Since I was not familiar with the topic, I decided to search the Internet for evidence...Then I found an article...It was about ‘technology such as intelligent robots would make the world more competitive, so we have to devote more time and energy to study. Thus, there is less leisure time for us.’...I never thought about this topic in this way, so I utilised this insight as one argument. (1st verbal report)

The popularity of hunting arguments online during revision might stem from the nature of their homework and the guidance by their teachers. Firstly, all writing assignments and revisions were assigned to the students outside of the class and untimed. This allowed the student writers to get access to external resources such as search engines. Secondly, according to class observations, Anna (Class A) endorsed the strategy of conducting preliminary online research before starting to write, particularly when students lacked a clear understanding of the given topic. When Anna provided an oral praise for Ruby’s (HP student from Class A) usage of an example (i.e. EnviGreen, an Indian start-up company) in WH1, Anna emphasised:

Here, Ruby provides a specific example to support her idea. It is very detailed and thus makes her writing more convincing...I could tell that she has done some research before

writing... So if you want to make your text more convincing, you can try searching online for some relevant examples. (Class observation of Class A)

The asynchronous Q&A online forum was another online tool which students got access to, especially when they had doubts about more general linguistic errors. Helen (IM student from Class A) employed *Baidu* (a search engine) to check the appropriate situations to use the plural form of “culture” in WH2:

Actually, I have also been confused about when to add “s” to the word “culture”. So, when the teacher unlined this word, I used Baidu to search “cultures” and found some sample sentences provided in different Q&A online platforms. (2nd verbal report)

After reading through some illustrative sentences, she deduced that “culture” could be a countable noun when referring to a particular civilization. Afterwards, she entered the query “When to use culture in its singular form and plural form” in *Baidu*, and examined several answers in online Q&A forums to verify her previously formed hypothesis.

Thus, TWF demonstrated its effectiveness in pushing students to confront lingering but unresolved challenges. In addition, a specific external resource could trigger both cognitive and metacognitive engagement. In Helen’s instance, she showed both cognitive processing (i.e. searching for the meaning of specific words and drawing conclusions) and metacognitive strategies (i.e. monitoring the accuracy of those conclusions) using online materials.

There was one instance where Flora (HP student from Class B) facilitated her revisions by consulting additional sample essays found by herself. Flora was not aware that her original

draft lacked clear topic sentences until TWF was given. However, since she had little idea of what was a “topic sentence”, she found several sample essays of TEM4 online and analysed them in her revision. Then she drew conclusions on the characteristics of good topic sentences and applied them to her own writing piece:

After some comparisons, I developed a general idea...A topic sentence should not be too broad...So my original summary “The advent of computers have immensely changed the way we worked” cannot be a topic sentence, since it was too general...However, a topic sentence cannot be too specific as well...Not too broad...Not too specific...It was quite difficult...I thought I might just need to try more... (1st verbal report)

Flora demonstrated a deep level of cognitive engagement by looking for relevant learning materials, comparing her texts with these materials, and finally making conclusions. Moreover, she showed subsequent actions to apply the new hypothesis to real learning context.

d)-Software

The employment of Word was only mentioned by Grace (LP student from Class A) and Stacy (LP student from Class A) in their third verbal reports. As per Anna’s requirement for hard copy submissions in the first semester, both students mentioned in the second interview that they employed the note function on their mobile phones for drafting and later transcribed it onto paper. In the second semester, with the requirement of electronic assignments, Grace and Stacy shifted to using their laptops and Word files. Under this circumstance, both students discovered the autocorrective function. As illustrated by Grace:

When I used the laptop to write and revise, I found it useful since the Word file would automatically suggest my problems in spelling... I did not know this function before.... I think for my future writing, I will use the laptop rather than my phone.

It surprised the researcher that only two students brought up the Word function, given its commonality as a writing aid. Thus, a question of “Whether you have used software, such as Word’s auto-correct function, to aid your revision” was posed in the students’ final interview.

The positive findings indicated that the remaining 16 students confirmed their familiarity with the autocorrection function and had integrated it into their regular writing and revision practice. Snow (IM student from Class A) even showed a little contempt towards the researcher’s question by answering: “Certainly I used it, why wouldn’t I?”.

e)-Teacher

While seldom examples of seeking guidance from teachers were found (1 for WH1, 2 for WH3 and 1 for WH4), the data revealed that six students (3 HP learners, 2 IM learners and 1 LP student) from Class B engaged in discussions with Zoe for WH2 concerning the challenges arising from TWF.

This was probably due to the arrangement of the specific class. After the provision of the oral instruction of WH2 in Class B, there were about 15 minutes left before the class was over. Thus, Zoe walked around the classroom and encouraged her students to discuss the writing assignments and raise questions. Ella (IM student from Class B) attributed her consulting the

teacher to this specific opportunity:

I am glad that there happened to be time left to ask questions, since I really wanted to discuss with the teacher about the content of my draft...Otherwise...like previous situations, it was quite difficult to get access to the teacher. (2nd verbal report)

The opportunity to pose queries further shaped the existing belief of consulting a teacher held by Tina (LP student from Class B). Originally, she felt anxious about approaching the teacher with her inquiries since she worried that her questions might sound stupid to the teacher. Yet, this belief was altered:

When I saw even some of my friends seeking guidance from the teacher...I was suddenly braver.... So I also raised my hand...Then I found nothing was like what I had assumed before...The teacher was...very patient! She provided further advice on how to improve my title, my first paragraph and the ending...

Now thinking back, I am still quite thrilled.... Having already tried it, I feel more open to seek help from the teacher in the future. (2nd verbal report)

The evidence proposed that when provided sufficient time and access to TWF, even LP students were encouraged to seek help from teachers. In addition, prior learning experiences resulted in long-standing learning beliefs, which affected students' willingness to seek external teacher guidance.

f)-Textbook and notebooks

Students were less inclined to use notebooks and textbooks to assist their revision. Overall, only three students demonstrated browsing notebooks which contained useful expressions to improve their original drafts. In response to the feedback in WH1 indicating the need for more transitional words, Queena firstly consulted her notebooks for ideas (refer to Appendix C). When this approach proved unsuccessful, she resorted to online searching.

In addition, Zora (HP student from Class A) reviewed her notebook before some revisions, to remind herself of “some sentence patterns or advanced vocabulary” (2nd interview). For instance, she noted “‘as...attest...’ can be used to replace ‘for example’”. Then she also provided an example sentence to facilitate her understanding: Air pollution can have a negative impact on people’s health, as is attested by the rise in respiratory disease in areas with poor air quality. Consequently, she applied this phrase in her revision.

Another example would be Joan (IM student from Class A), who skimmed her notebooks to avoid some already-made mistakes in her prior writing pieces. However, her notebook was relatively casual and unsystematic. Probably because of this, she expressed difficulty in applying what she had concluded as problematic in the notebook to aid her specific revisions (2nd and 4th interview). In addition, Tina (LP student from Class B) referred to the textbook to verify the phrase “a portion of” in WH3, since she was instructed by the teacher to use it mistakenly. Thus, it seemed that the usage of notebooks and especially textbooks were more related to the specific feedback points and the students’ learning habits.

Another interesting finding concerning seeking external help was a disparity between students’ planned behaviours and their actual actions, which was found among half of the IM

learners and five LP students. Their reports included similar excerpts such as ‘I am not sure about this; I would tackle it more extensively later.’ (Iris, LP student from Class B, 4th verbal report) or “This one I really don’t know how to revise, I will ask the teacher later.” (Grace, LP student from Class A, 2nd verbal report from).

However, later casual talks with them proved that there were no subsequent actions taken. When asked the reasons, they either said they were too lazy to ask such a small question or the teacher seemed too busy after class to respond to any uncertainties. For example, Fanny (LP student from Class B) mentioned in the casual chat that “I wanted to ask the teacher after class, but when the class ended, there were many other students surrounding her, so I gave up”.

To summarise, the utilisation of external resources varied not in *what* was employed but in *how* these resources were applied. Essentially, the employment of online dictionaries, peer support, online materials or other kinds of sources did not necessarily indicate deeper levels of engagement. Instead, the extensiveness of engagement may be inferred from the manner in which these resources were utilised. Evidence also uncovered some reasons for why different resources were used in varying degrees. In addition, a disparity emerged between students’ perceived actions and their actual behaviours. This indicated the necessity to observe students’ actual reactions rather than exclusively focus on their utterances.

2)-Note-taking

Note-taking was observed to serve two cognitive functions: summarising and memorising.

Nonetheless, it was less commonly identified compared to the utilisation of external

resources. Students were sometimes observed writing down some key words on their either first or second drafts for multiple purposes.

a)-Summarising

Three HP students took notes to summarise their weaknesses. Sally (HP student from Class A) summarised some weaknesses of her WH1 to guide her revision and for future usage. She further revealed that she had developed this habit since high school:

My Year-3 high school teacher often asked us to take a few minutes to reflect on and recorded our strengths and weaknesses when we received teacher feedback...She also advised us to think about what we had summarised about the prior texts every time before we drafted...I thought this practice was very useful...So I kept this habit till now.

(2nd interview)

Zora (HP student from Class A) also demonstrated a summarisation of her weaknesses. For her, this action had become a subconscious habit, and she could not recall when she developed this awareness. However, the summarisation habit was only detected during her revision of WH1. Later discussion in the second and fourth interviews revealed some influencing factors:

Uh...(looking back at the second homework)...not many serious problems were indicated by the TWF in this homework (i.e. WH2), so I did not think it essential to summarise. (2nd interview)

(pause for a little bit to skim the original drafts of WH3 & WH4) *Here...the teacher had already summarised some problems in my drafts...So I just needed to look at these and make revisions accordingly.* (4th interview)

Moreover, another HP student from Class B, Queena, also compiled summaries of both her original and revised drafts. Three points were synopsized and written at the top left corner of her second draft of WH1, including “insufficient use of advanced vocabulary”, “usages of compound sentences” and “ability to synthesise main points to make a valid topic”. She illustrated in the second interview:

This was the first time I received TWF in my college life...We had writing homework before, but no feedback was given. So I was not aware of my writing problems...Now that I had feedback, I thought I should at least summarise some main issues of my writing for future improvement.

Queenena also illustrated in the last interview the lack of summarising operations in her other revisions. She believed that she had already acknowledged the major issues in her writing. Meanwhile, later teacher comments did not highlight any other new general problems in her drafts. Thus, summarisation operations were not activated.

While the above examples showed students’ successful cognitive engagement in summarising their writing issues, the current data also found that 3 LP students showed the awareness to summarise, but failed to do so. For example, Fanny (LP student from Class B) expressed her attempts to summarise writing weaknesses, but had difficulty locating specific writing issues.

In Fanny's first draft of WH2, the teacher underlined some sentences with question marks to indicate syntax as well content issues. When reading this feedback, Fanny gave them careful thought, and she wrote "Chinglish?" next to these sentences. This behaviour indicated her effort in trying to extract the common features among these problematic sentences. However, her less proficient English abilities impeded her from successfully carrying out this action.

The conversation below (from her second verbal report) illustrated her thought:

Fanny: I analysed these sentences, trying to figure out where their problems were. The sentences seemed to have no grammatical errors, since they all had subjects, verbs and objects. Then I thought about whether they were problems with Chinglish, but it was just hard to identify.

Researcher: Then what will you do?

Fanny: I am going to ask the teacher.

However, a few days after the verbal report, the researcher asked Fanny whether there were follow-ups. She said that she was planning to ask the teacher after class, but the teacher was too busy answering questions from other students. So, she gave up.

Fanny demonstrated her effort in summarising some general writing issues in WH2.

However, since the highlighted sentences by TWF constituted a variety of problems, she did not have the ability to locate all of them. Then, her proposed remedies for solving the problems failed because of the context where it was hard to get access to the teacher. As a result, her revisions of these underlined sentences still remained problematic.

Another relevant example concerning students' summarisation was shown by Grace (LP

student from Class A). While she did not summarise her problems in WH4, she reported concerns about dealing with the summaries provided by the teacher. For her writing, the teacher highlighted some sentences and paragraphs and commented “weak grasp of grammatical points, especially syntactic knowledge” and “lack compound sentences”. While Grace acknowledged her weaknesses in these linguistic points, she expressed difficulties in dealing with these problems: “Now I was aware of these issues, but I didn’t really know what to do with them...I just told myself to double-check my texts before my submission in the future”.

Overall, Sally, Zora and Queena all devoted extra effort to summarising their weaknesses to guide their revisions and future writing. However, they did not display this cognitive commitment for every revision. The mediating factors included the seriousness with which students regard their writing issues, students’ existing learning knowledge and the content of TWF. It is noteworthy that the action and accuracy to summarise one’s writing weakness was impacted by the students’ linguistic abilities. There were signs of students’ reliance on the teachers. As such, when the teacher had already provided summative feedback, the students were less likely to make conclusions by themselves.

b)-Memorising

Regarding the employment of note-taking to memorise, three HP students were found to employ this operation.

In terms of *what* to memorise, the three students mentioned they would jot down some idioms, sentence patterns and phrases on their drafts to accumulate overall language abilities.

For instance, Zora (HP student from Class A) repeatedly wrote the linguistic chunks “bear the responsibility of doing sth.” on her scribbling pad to reinforce her memory in her revision of WH1. Moreover, Sally (HP student from Class A) marked “语法薄弱” (meaning “weak in grammar” in English) and “新词用的少” (meaning “less new vocabulary was used” in English) in her original draft during revision as a way to remind herself of the weaknesses of the current draft and to guide her later revision. She responded:

TWF pointed out that these were the disadvantages of the drafts. So, I wrote some keywords down on the draft in Chinese to memorise and also to direct my revision. (1st verbal report)

The researcher then added a further question to explore whether she would revisit these notes from time to time, she stated: “I didn’t actually refer to these notes frequently. I know I should. But especially recently, I was too tired to do this.”. To avoid memory loss of her revision, the researcher kept “remember to ask why she was tired” in the field note and decided to ask related questions in the second interview which was at the end of the semester.

So far, Sally demonstrated her ability to use note-taking as a way to boost memory. In addition, while she was aware that reviewing the marked content at times would be more rewarding, she skipped doing it. This controversial decision became more understandable upon a closer look at her statements in the second interview. Sally stated that she was a member of the student union and meanwhile a member of the volleyball team, which took up a great quantity of her daily time. So when she wanted to concentrate on studying, she felt it difficult to calm her mind. This demonstrated that Sally’s lack of time management skills led to her incapability to use cognitive strategies (i.e. note-taking).

Nevertheless, associating this conclusion with her first interview, a more underlying reason was discovered. When asked what the major objectives for her current university study were, Sally reported uncertainty. She commented:

Actually... I am a little bit at a loss now. When I applied for the university, I had a very clear goal... to pursue a Master's degree in Translation and became a translator.... However, my family keep telling me that teaching as a career is a very good option...If I were to become a teacher...I might need more comprehensive abilities...not just focusing on my language levels... (1st interview)

Because of this uncertainty, she was not able to decide what to prioritise. Furthermore, Sally's choice of not reviewing the notes was a result of her learning habit. Sally stressed in the second interview that "I like to spend a large chunk of time doing one thing. So, if I want to focus on studying, I need at least 2-3 hours. However, with all the tasks, I did not have enough chunks of time to study.". Clearly, Sally's preferred study model was not permissible in reality.

Overall, Sally demonstrated two traits when reacting to TWF. Firstly, she applied note-taking operations during revision, which showed her behavioural engagement. What deserved special attention was how she utilised these notes. Her statement demonstrated that even when she acknowledged how to make a learning strategy more effective (i.e. review the notes regularly), she did not carry out this action because of her unclear goals and her learning habits.

Another example, Queena (HP student from Class B) also touched upon *how* she tried to maximise the effect of note-taking. She jotted down phrases such as “even if”, ‘it’s universally acknowledged that...’ and “idle it away” from some of her revisions, and she provided additional elucidations on what to record and how the marked materials were used:

These were some phrases or sentence patterns that I believed were useful or novel...So I noted them down to deepen my memory...Also, I would review them from time to time...Oh, one thing I wanted to mention...I would jot down some fixed units rather than one specific word....Because when I only recorded a single word, I could not think of how to use it in my later review....So that was one lesson I learnt before...(4th interview)

3)-Reading quietly

Reading quietly was detected as a memory reinforcement technique in Flora (HP student from Class B). She demonstrated quiet reading of some phrases for memorisation but did not mention this technique in the verbal report. Thus, a question was asked by the researcher, “Did you notice you read to yourself during revision? If yes, could you elaborate on your thoughts at that moment?”

1st draft: ...necessary for the government to invest money ↵
TWF: in them ↵

2nd draft: ...necessary for the government to invest money in them.↵

Flora replied:

I guessed...I developed this habit of whispering to myself out of nowhere...Here, “invest

something in something” is a commonly used phrase...I thought reading it multiple times help reinforce my memory...and build up my language senses...I hoped that next time, when I wanted to express a similar meaning, the phrase “invest in” will pop up in my head.”. (2nd verbal report)

Interestingly, the action of reading quietly was also used by Flora as a metacognitive strategy to monitor her revision, which was discussed in chapter 4.4.5.3.

To conclude, the current study revealed that besides taking actions to summarise, students also engaged behaviourally with TWF to memorise. Earlier studies (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a, 2010b) indicated that students resorted to memorisation strategies in the situations where they were unable to comprehend TWF. The current study contradicted these conclusions since memorisation was resorted to when 1) students accurately understood their mistakes and endeavoured to remember the correct forms, especially regarding set phrases and 2) students aimed to avoid their writing weaknesses in both subsequent revisions and future writing.

4)-Overview

To conclude, the students demonstrated visible evidence of utilising cognitive techniques to reason, connect, memorise and summarise. Both individual and contextual elements were found as contributors to students’ behavioural engagement. More precisely, it comprised the characteristics of TWF, students’ learning experience, English proficiency levels and individuals’ beliefs towards their writing drafts, particular writing strategies, various revision actions, and personal learning goals.

4.4.3.2-Observable behaviours (metacognitive dimensions)

In general, the students revealed metacognitive operations by employing an online writing platform (*Pigai*), annotating their original drafts, utilising ODs, creating outlines and reading quietly, for the purpose of monitoring thoughts and managing attention.

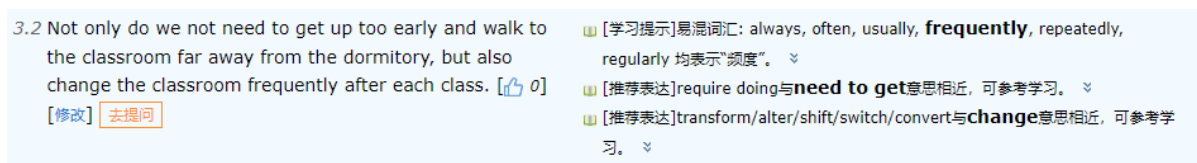
1)-Using an online writing platform (i.e. *Pigai*)

Regarding online writing platforms, none of the students reported using them in the first semester, primarily because they were unaware of those tools. However, after Anna (from Class A) introduced the *Pigai* platform to her class, all students started employing it as a final step before submitting their second drafts of WH3 and WH4. There was only one exception, Jack (LP student from Class A), who only used it for WH3 (see Table 29).

Table 29: Employment of the *Pigai* platform to monitor revision in Class A

Monitoring Using <i>Pigai</i> Platform	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
Number of HPs	0	0	3	3
Number of IMs	0	0	3	3
Number of LPs	0	0	3	2

According to *Pigai*, sentence-by-sentence feedback and synonyms were provided to the students to enrich their vocabulary (see Figure 3). The student's original text was displayed on the left-hand side and the automatic-generated feedback was on the right column. It included "hints for learning" and "recommended expressions". For instance, it suggested that the words "transform/alter/shift/switch/convert" had similar meanings to the word "change".

Figure 3: Example from *Pigai*

On the one hand, Jack recognized the benefits of *Pigai* in enhancing vocabulary in his second draft, expressing, “if the recommended words in *Pigai* were more suitable than the ones I was using, I would change it.”. On the other hand, despite the acknowledgements, Jack was observed to employ this platform exclusively for revising WH3. The researcher thus brought up this distinction in the fourth interview:

Researcher: I noticed you only referred to *Pigai* for your WH3 revision, why?

Jack: (taking out his previous drafts and skimmed them for a few minutes)

Oh...because only for WH3, I felt like my own thoughts were not thoroughly expressed...I had many ideas to say...But even when I wrote the first draft, I felt that the passage did not go very smoothly...Then the feedback agreed with my judgement...Many of the sentences were underlined by the teacher...So for this specific assignment, I felt more incentive to revise...So I used this tool...

As for other drafts, I had already written what I wanted to say, so I did not have much motivation to revise.

Jack’s statement implied that his engagement was impacted by the specific writing topic. If he had many points to express about the topic, he became more engaged during revision. This was found to be in line with his views towards writing assignments:

Well...The writing homework...The first thing that comes to my mind is that I want to express my ideas...I care more about content than grammar...I believe that the major aim of writing is to demonstrate one's thoughts. For grammatical issues, I think they can be improved gradually. (1st interview)

Besides instances of using *Pigai* platform in Class A, an exception arose when Tina, a LP student from Class B, also utilised *Pigai* to aid and monitor her revisions. Tina's roommate introduced *Pigai* to her in the second semester as a helpful writing and revision tool. Encouraged by this suggestion, Tina integrated it in her revision, using it to monitor her completed drafts before submission (Tina's example was more comprehensively discussed in Section 4.5.4.2).

2)-Marking

While note-taking was previously discussed to show visible cognitive commitment, this method could also be employed for distinct metacognitive functions, such as to manage learners' attention, to monitor revisions and to summarise one's weaknesses which are to be avoided in revision. Six HP students were noted to employ this strategy to fulfil metacognitive objectives, utilising specific techniques such as underlining, using parentheses, drawing triangles, circling and jotting down key points.

In terms of managing attention, Sally (HP student from Class A) circled some unsure expressions in her two drafts of WH2 for later inspections. For instance, the phrase "on website" and her temporary revision "in the Internet" was circled. Sally clarified that the

correction to “on website” was based on her institutions, so she intended to check its accuracy later. In addition, she also aimed to explore whether the correction could be replaced by other phrases. Postponing some tentative revisions until the other more significant revisions were done was also observed in Zora (HP student from Class A). Unsure about the accuracy of the term “netizen” while deeming it a minor issue, she marked the word for later confirmation. Another example would be from Queena (HP student from Class B), who underlined “transitional words” in the teacher’s comments. Following this observation, the researcher inquired about the rationale behind this action. Queena (HP student from Class B) elucidated:

I think...it served as a reminder of what I should focus on in my revision. Then I thought about what I should do and what words I can use. (1st verbal report)

3)-Online dictionaries (ODs)

To achieve metacognitive purposes, ODs were still proved to be a sufficient tool. All HP students and 2 IM writers reported that they would use dictionaries to check and evaluate their revision from time to time, especially with those errors they felt hesitant about. However, LP students seemed to be less aware of this function. It seemed that once they settled on a revision, they would not employ dictionaries to reassure accuracy.

When reviewing the completed draft, Flora (HP student from Class B) was torn between following the teacher’s suggestions and holding on to her original usages:

1st draft: With the development of technology, more and more ~~technological~~ products were invented.

2nd draft: With the development of technology, more and more technological products were invented.

My original understanding was...It was deleted because of redundancy...So I followed the advice. However, when I read this sentence again, I just felt uncomfortable with this change... What I wanted to emphasise was “technological products” ... Not “products” in general.... Then I looked up the dictionary...Check the spelling and the connotations it referred to...Both in English and in Chinese...At last, I thought my original writing was accurate. So, I chose to have it remain unchanged. (1st verbal report)

Thus, ODs were discovered to be learning tools that could serve both cognitive (illustrated in the sub-chapter 4.4.3.1) and metacognitive purposes, depending on the rationales when they were being used. In Flora’s case, she evaluated her own comprehension of TWF with the help from ODs, which belonged to a metacognitive operation.

4)-Writing outlines

Three students (2 HP learners and 1 IM student) were observed to write down their main points as outlines to guide their writing and revisions. Coincidentally, all mentioned that this strategy was introduced by their previous teachers in high school. In the second interview, Flora (HP student from Class B) elaborated that she used to go off-topic in writing tasks in high school. After consulting the teacher, she was recommended to write outlines every time before she started to write. Following the instruction, she found this strategy beneficial and thus maintained the usage of this method, especially when her mind was muddled.

Moreover, Helen's (IM student from Class A) statement in the second interview could be representative of how outlines were used for better revision: "Before revision, I wrote down the main arguments, and constantly compared them with the already written texts as guidance. So, during revising, I could see whether the examples I provided could support my arguments or not, and also to check whether my last paragraph had summarised these points".

5)-Reading quietly

Only one HP student from Class B (i.e. Flora) demonstrated her dedication to stay attentive by using a pen to point at the sentences in her drafts while reading quietly to herself during revision. Reflecting on her prior learning experiences, Flora was cognizant of being easily distracted when reading English articles. To mitigate this issue, she gradually cultivated the habit of quiet reading, which has proven to be valuable and effective:

I get easily distracted while doing some reading homework...To avoid becoming unfocused, I often tell myself to read silently, usually with a pen to indicate the location of where I have read...This proves to be a useful tool for me. So, when I needed to read my first draft and make adjustments, I just subconsciously resorted to this habit. (2nd verbal report)

Flora emphasised that the primary purpose of using a pen and reading to herself was to maintain focused, which was a metacognitive purpose. "If the pen lingered for too long in a specific area in my draft, I would notice that I was losing focus and adjust my attention immediately." (2nd interview).

6)-Negative evidence

On the subject of employing strategies for concentration, Joan (IM student from Class A) asserted in her second interview that this posed a challenge for her. When talked about methods to remain focused, Joan recounted a common scenario during her revision:

I remember a time when I found an example text and wanted to draw inspirations from the viewpoints to help my revision...While I was reading, I was attracted to its vocabulary...So I invested a substantial amount of time researching and memorising these words...When I realised my main aim was only to look for ideas, about 30 minutes passed away...At that time I was already tired...

That is also one reason why I have mixed feelings towards writing a second draft. On one hand, I want to make my draft a better one...On the other hand, I know I am the kind of person that could be distracted easily. If I want to revise my draft by learning from other resources, it would need great concentration and more time...

Both Flora and Joan acknowledged the possibility for them to easily lose focus during certain academic activities. In contrast to Flora who actively sought methods to address this flaw, Joan attributed it to an inherent trait in her personality, thus seeking no subsequent solutions.

4.4.3.3-Summary

To conclude, all students showcased observable actions utilising cognitive and metacognitive

skills. Cognitive operations were evident in the utilisation of external resources, taking notes and reading quietly. ODs, online materials, software, peer support, extra teacher help, notebooks and the textbook were all external resources that students with different English proficiency levels got access to. In contrast, taking notes and reading quietly were only detected among HP students.

In addition, individual and contextual factors impacting students' behavioural engagement encompassed learners' English abilities, learning experiences and learning beliefs, the nature of TWF, teaching content, class design, and the time available for revisions. Moreover, merely tallying the quantity of cognitive and metacognitive strategies did not entail how deeply the depth of students' behavioural engagement was. Rather, the key lied in how these strategies were employed to respond to TWF (Griffiths, 2008).

4.5-Cognitive engagement

4.5.1-Introduction

According to the previous conceptualization of learner engagement (see Section 2.2.2), students' cognitive engagement could be investigated through the depth of processing (DoP) and their mental commitment of using cognitive and metacognitive strategies. DoP referred to how well the students noticed and understood TWF (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a). Mental commitment generally denoted the cognitive and metacognitive strategies employed by students during revision, regardless of whether these strategies were consciously applied or not (Oxford, 2011).

4.5.2-Depth of processing (DoP)

4.5.2.1-Six categories of DoP

DoP indicated the extent to which TWF was mentally understood. An exploration of the current data revealed six categories: oversight (Os), error ignored (N-EI), error noticed (N-EN), accurate understanding (AU), inaccurate understanding (IU) and no understanding (NU).

While Section 3.8.2.2 elaborated the general definitions of the six categories, the following section firstly demonstrates concrete examples to illustrate the under-explored categories of AU, IU and NU, and then noteworthy observations will be presented.

4.5.2.2-A detailed explanation of AU, IU and NU (driven from the data)

Before a detailed presentation of the 6 categories of DoP, it would be important to expound on the differentiations among AU, IU and NU.

Fresh revelations emerged firstly concerning the categorizations of AU, IU and NU since relevant research (e.g. Sachs and Polio, 2007; Sheen, 2007) did not demonstrate a clear illustration of these terms. Generated from current data, understanding could include 3 questions: what TWF meant and intended to correct, why TWF was provided and how to revise based on TWF. Any foray to accurately address the three questions would be categorised as AU. In contrast, the occasions where either of the three portions were not addressed or answered inaccurately were categorised as IU. The response “I don’t know”

with no other explanations from the learners would be categorised as NU.

Specifically, the “what” element referred to the (literal) meaning and the teachers’ intentions of TWF. Ella (IM student from Class B) misunderstood the teacher’s correction as a substitution, and thus opted to keep her original feedback:

1st draft: people ~~in the ancient time~~ had no choice...↵
TWF: in the past↵

I thought the teacher just provided me with another option...However, I still thought my original usage was more suitable. So I kept it... But I would remember that these two phrases could be used interchangeably. (1st verbal report)

Ella’s example was classified as IU, since the teacher’s meaning and intention were inaccurately apprehended. Moreover, the student even proposed a hypothesis because of this inaccurate understanding for future usage.

Another instance of IU from Lisa’s (IM student from Class B) WH1 was demonstrated. The TWF she engaged with was presented:

1st draft: ...it is convenient for our lives in quite a few field, cooking tyle, mode of payment and ↵
traffic modes included.↵
TWF: ? the sentence you used to support your viewpoint is not clear↵

When Lisa was asked to articulate this piece of advice, she reported: “She meant that the sentences I used to prove my points were ambiguous, there might be grammatical errors as

well...”. Till now, this was an accurate interpretation. Then proceed to the next two levels, addressing the question “why”, (referring to knowing why the original expression was problematic) and the question of “how” (referring to specific solutions to relevant comments). These were the levels where Lisa could not provide accurate interpretations:

...but I was not really certain which parts exactly were not clear...So I just deleted the latter half of the sentence and remained this part unchanged (i.e. it is convenient for our lives in quite a few field) (1st verbal report)

Lisa’s statement was also categorised as IU, since she only addressed the question of “what”. In addition, her language aptitude could be a reason for her inability to comprehend TWF.

Following is an example where all three questions were accurately responded and thus it was categorised as AU. Flora (HP student from Class B) showed an in-depth DoP of TWF by articulating what the feedback was about, why her original text was inaccurate and how she revised it:

1st draft: We have computers to process documents at office and send it to others by email....↵
TWF: What does it refer to?↵

The teacher suggested that this was an ambiguous reference...Oh...Yes...I used the pronoun wrong....since my original thought was to indicate “documents” ... The pronoun “them” should be used instead of “it” ... Probably because I used the wrong pronoun, the teacher did not understand what I was talking about. So, I changed the pronoun to “them”. (1st verbal report)

Flora accurately explained why the teacher underlined the word “it” and categorised it as a pronoun problem. Then she provided an accurate correct response to the feedback. In addition, she also presented her understanding of the teacher’s quotation mark by stating that because of the misuse of the pronoun, her original content became problematic. Lastly, she proposed an accurate modification where she changed “it” to “them”.

Now that the definitions concerning AU, IU and NU were clarified, additional findings on the degree of cognitive processing were demonstrated.

4.5.2.3-General trends

According to Table 30, the general trend demonstrated that the top three categories of DoP were AU (64.2%), IU (23.6%) and NU (6.4%), which constituted 94.2% of the DoP. Comparatively, a smaller proportion of the teacher comments were missed (2.7%) or neglected (2.4%).

Table 30: Overall percentages of the six categories of DoP

DoP	No.	%
AU	424	64.2%
IU	156	23.6%
NU	42	6.4%
Os	18	2.7%
N-EI	16	2.4%
N-EN	4	0.7%

Total	660	100%
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Note: oversight (Os), error ignored (N-EI), error noticed (N-EN), accurate understanding (AU), inaccurate understanding (IU) and no understanding (NU)

Table 31 demonstrated that more AU were found among the students throughout the research period. IU and NU, notwithstanding some fluctuations, witnessed declines from 23% to 21.2% and 6.6% to 6.4% individually. It was also observed that the percentage of TWF being missed (Os) and untreated (N-EI) went down from 3.3% to 2.6% and 3.8% to 1.9% separately.

Table 31: Six categories of DoP across the 4 WH

DoP	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
AU	61.2%	64.4%	63.9%	67.9%
IU	23.0%	24.5%	25.9%	21.2%
NU	6.6%	6.7%	5.7%	6.4%
Os	3.3%	2.5%	2.5%	2.6%
N-EI	3.8%	1.8%	1.9%	1.9%
N-EN	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Sum(%)	100%	100%	100%	100%
Sum(No.)	183	163	158	156

According to Table 32, distinctions were identified among HP, IM and LP students. HP learners provided more accurate explanations (73.9%), made less inaccurate interpretations (20.3%) and had a richer repertoire of linguistic knowledge. In other words, they seldom encountered instances where they could not articulate the possible causes for their writing issues.

IM students' cognitive processing levels were among the average, since they generated 67.3% of AU and 22% of IU. About 6.4% of the feedback points were out of their metalinguistic realm so that they were unable to justify. For LP participants, they had the lowest proportions of AU (53.6%) and the highest percentages of IU (27.8%) and NU (10.5%). In addition, LP performers seemed to miss (4.4%) and ignore (3.2%) certain TWF

more frequently than their classmates.

Table 32: Six categories of DoP among HP/IM/LP students

DoP	HP	IM	LP
AU	73.9%	67.3%	53.6%
IU	20.3%	22.0%	27.8%
NU	1.4%	6.3%	10.5%
Os	1.9%	1.5%	4.4%
N-EI	1.9%	2.0%	3.2%
N-EN	0.5%	1.0%	0.4%
Sum(%)	100%	100%	100%
Sum(No.)	207	205	248

Overall, language proficiency levels seemed to be an indicator of DoP, especially in its sub-categories of AU, IU and NU. Comparatively, HP writers demonstrated more instances of AU and less evidence of IU and NU of TWF. Now, more specific and detailed descriptions would be presented to enrich the complexity of the general trends.

4.5.2.4-Oversight of feedback

About 2.7% of teachers' comments were untreated due to the oversight of the students.

Regardless of students' proficiency levels, all students seemed to overlook a small proportion of TWF. Two factors were found for its occurrence.

Firstly, it was because of the appearance of feedback, which was less noticeable than others.

Among them, most were about feedback on punctuation, preposition or plural forms. An example was shown below in Jack's (LP student from Class A) WH2:

1st draft: vulgar live broadcasts.. which is harmful to the growth of teenagers. In order to cope...←
TWF←

The second cause emerged when the learners made major content adjustments, as elucidated by Cherry (IM student from Class B):

1st draft:...the availability of medical care can win our loyalty of the country...←
TWF: to←

I didn't pay attention to this feedback...because there were more serious content issues waiting for me...So I deleted the whole paragraph for new content...So I must have missed this small indication... (2nd verbal report)

This agreed with the prior finding (Han & Hyland, 2015) that despite the distinct feature of the written form of teacher feedback, they may still be overlooked unintendedly.

4.5.2.5- Error ignored

By contrast, students of all proficiency levels sometimes neglected TWF on purpose. The current data suggested that 2.4% of the TWF points were left unattended, and the reasons contributing to the choice were diverse.

One popular reason was the assumed triviality of TWF. When the problem indicated by TWF was regarded as trivial by the students, it was less likely to be corrected. For example, Anna put an arrow at the first line of Jack's (LP student from Class A) WH2, which indicated inserting a 4-space indent. This comment was ignored and Jack explained in his second

verbal report: “I did not feel it was a big deal. So, I kind of ignored it.”.

Joan (IM student from Class A) forgot to make revisions to a feedback point on punctuation.

Yet, the underlying reasons for her forgetfulness were threefold: the error’s triviality, her misconception about her grammatical knowledge and her belief in her own personality:

1st draft:

on .Thus it is suggested that improve the technology by producing
environmental friendly plastic products whose convenience and

I forgot...For revision, I usually pay more attention to those more obvious mistakes. For this comma, I thought I already had a rough idea of its usages...So...Well...I admit that sometimes I am somewhat careless in my studies. (1st verbal report)

Joan’s conclusion of her carelessness resulted from her inability to provide a decent explanation of the comma feedback when questioned by the researcher. Furthermore, when queried about potential actions to address her carelessness, she failed to offer any.

Another reason why participants noticed the feedback but did not make corrections was simply due to forgetfulness. For example, the teacher underlined the word “convenient” and suggested “convenience” in Cherry’s (IM student from Class B) WH1. When pointed to the specific comment, Cherry admitted in her verbal report:

1st draft: technology has given us more ~~convenient~~ so that...↵

TWF: convenience ↵

Oh I forgot! “Convenient” is adjective... “convenience” is a noun...If I say “more convenience”, then a noun should be used...I know that...I just did not know why I forgot... (1st verbal report)

Cherry’s verbal report revealed that despite being able to provide metalinguistic explanations for specific errors, there was still a possibility that the error went uncorrected.

4.5.2.6-Exception

One unique situation unfolded as Flora (HP student from Class B) forgot to bring the draft with TWF for her revision of WH1. Consequently, she relied on the electronic version of her first draft and her memory to produce a revised version. In total, she received 13 TWF points and accurately corrected 7 of them. For the remaining 4 unattended, she attributed it to the fact that the feedback did not leave a memory in her.

However, when provided with all feedback points (since the researcher made a copy beforehand), Flora offered precise elucidations to all of them (both linguistic and non-linguistic feedback). This finding was noteworthy as prior evidence has raised questions about the likelihood of students addressing identical errors without a copy of TWF (e.g. Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Truscott, 1996). Flora’s case offered both positive and negative evidence, warranting further exploration in the future.

4.5.3-Cognitive strategies

4.5.3.1-Overview

Besides DoP, cognitive engagement also constituted students' employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies when reacting to TWF (Oxford, 2011). Insights regarding these dimensions were primarily based on verbal reports and interviews, given the fact that these cognitive commitments predominantly occurred within individuals' minds.

Overall, the student participants were observed to utilise cognitive strategies to regulate their mental processes in 3 facets: reasoning, making connections and memorising. To be noted, for each revision action, students can exhibit cognitive effort across multiple facets rather than being confined to just one.

4.5.3.2-Reasoning

According to Moyer (2014), reasoning served as one of the indicators of learners' cognitive commitment. In the context of engaging with TWF, reasoning involved providing metalinguistic rules to address grammatical errors and explaining one's thoughts regarding written content. It should be emphasised that the employment of reasoning often coincided with a recollection of L2 knowledge. Overall, all students demonstrated evidence of providing certain linguistic rules or describing their logic in verbal reports. However, the accuracy of these reasoning attempts varied. HP students were found to offer linguistic rules or arguments for their thoughts more frequently and accurately. This was proven by the data of accurate understanding in Section 4.5.2.

Even some LP students showed their abilities to provide linguistic rules to certain

grammatical points and sentence issues. For example, Jack (LP student from Class A) attributed his errors to his miscomprehension of the part of speech of the phrase “hard to change” in WH1:

1st draft: ..., which is likely to become their hard to change writing habits in the future, ...↵

TWF: 用词不当 (note: it means “inappropriate use of ↵
words” in English)↵

2nd draft: which is likely to become their writing habits that are hard to change in the future↵

Originally, I wanted to express “habits that are difficult to change later on” ... but I misunderstood the phrase “hard to change” as an adjective...So for revision, I changed it by using an attributive clause.

Nevertheless, the accuracy of reasoning was impacted by students’ already-established linguistic knowledge. As illustrated by Grace (LP student from Class A) in her last verbal report:

1st draft: So Internet buzzwords should be limiting.

TWF: inappropriate usage of words. Limited? Banned?

I knew the teacher’s intention was to use the passive voice, since the subject was “buzzwords”. However, I was not sure why the adjective “limiting” was not ok... You can use an adjective after the verb “be”, right? ...And I looked up the dictionary... “limiting” is an adjective...Anyway, I adopted the teacher’s advice, since it sounded more appropriate.

Grace was accurate in interpreting TWF and its underlying rule. However, her insufficient knowledge in judging the word “limiting” caused her confusion. She neglected the fact that the word “limiting” originated from the verb “limit”. Thus, when used in her sentence, it should be used in its passive voice form.

Presented below is another example of Cherry (IM student from Class B), displaying students’ justification for the teacher’s content feedback:

1st draft: Modern technology is making people’s life more comfortable and efficient ↵
 ↵ TWF: and giving them more leisure time. ↵
 ↵
 2nd draft: Modern technology is making people’s life more comfortable and efficient and giving ↵
 them more leisure time. ↵

My original draft did not emphasise the relationship between technology and leisure time. So, with the teacher’s feedback, it has become more relevant to the main points. (1st verbal report)

However, there was one specific category of content feedback which proved challenging for students to provide justifications, regardless of their proficiency levels.

This type featured an indication of the already written sentences/paragraphs, an implicit content comment, and/or a question mark. The specific content comment included “What is your logic?”, “Irrelevant to your title” or “What does this paragraph support?”. Regarding this type of feedback, students’ interpretations were mostly vague and general.

For example, Fanny (LP student from Class B) interpreted the comment “What does this

paragraph support” as “the content was not related to my topic.” (1st verbal report). However, when encouraged by the researcher to explain why her original content was irrelevant, she could not provide more detailed statements.

4.5.3.3-Making connections

Making connections as a cognitive engagement referred to the efforts where the students chose, synchronised and applied related learning contents across various learning materials (Dole, Nokes & Drits, 2014). Making connections as a part of the cognitive processing indicated that students made sense of teacher feedback by referring to available and relevant sources of information to maximise their understanding of TWF.

In particular, the students in the study showed their cognitive effort in making connections with relevant English courses, first and second drafts of writing tasks, and various forms and sources of teacher feedback. In addition, HP students were found to connect with more diverse resources on a deeper level than their counterparts.

1)-With other English courses

The participants made connections by drawing writing knowledge learnt from various teaching courses. To be specific, these courses included the Fundamental English Course (FEC), the TEM4 course and online courses titled Thematic English and College English Writing (recommended by the teachers). In addition, one LP student reported to use writing techniques acquired from high school to facilitate her revision.

The usage of high-school knowledge was found in Tina (LP student from Class B). Zoe underlined several sentences in Tina's first paragraphs of WH2 to indicate an unclarity of her expressions. However, Tina misunderstood the comments as indications of her structural issues. Thus, she reverted to a more fixed but more commonly used structure learnt from high school. She explained:

Zoe indicated that the content of my first paragraph was not sufficient, since I did not provide a brief introduction of the controversial opinions from both sides...I forgot this part when I drafted the text...Actually, this was emphasised many times by my high school teacher...The teacher often said in the first paragraph, you should have background information...and then the controversial topic...then ideas from both sides...then your own viewpoints...So for my revision, I followed this structure...(3rd verbal report).

Tina's (LP student from Class B) usage of high school knowledge was rarely found in prior studies. It might indicate the fact that she relied more on the already-learnt and commonly tested knowledge and was less willing to connect with new knowledge in revision.

Comparatively, more advanced students seemed to connect with knowledge gained from various courses. For example, the TEM4 course and the online course were discovered to be utilised by two HP students and one IM student. Flora (HP student from Class B) applied writing technique learnt from the TEM4 course to help revise the topic sentences in WH4, she replied:

This week the teacher (from the TEM4 course) further explained how to write a topic

sentence. She emphasised that we should revisit the topic sentences as we write, making sure that it was a broad idea to cover the remaining supporting contents. So when I made revisions, I reread my topic sentences on purpose to make sure what I had written suited my main argument. (4th verbal report).

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) joined an online course called College English Writing from *Zhihuishu*, which is a massive open online course platform in China and was recommended by Zoe. The Course aimed to provide systematic writing basics and strategies to help undergraduates write more fluently and effectively.

According to Bonnie, the course introduced writing techniques such as how much should be written for each paragraph in argumentative essays. For example, it was recommended that for the ending of an argumentative article, there should be more than one sentence and could include feasible suggestions on the phenomenon being discussed.

In Bonnie's original draft of WH1, there was only one sentence at the end. During revision, she thought of what she had learnt from *Zhihuishu* and made a revision, where she added a suggestion to the writing issue discussed (i.e. "So we are supposed to embrace the leisure time obtained from modern technology and do many meaningful things"). She stated in her verbal report: "Ever since the course told me that one sentence was not enough to make an ending, I would write at least two sentences in ending paragraphs."

Cherry (IM student from Class B) also made use of *Zhihuishu*, but joined a different English course called Thematic English. This course had a more general purpose to improve students' integrated English abilities. Cherry stated in the second interview that her purpose to join the

course was to enrich her vocabulary so she can present her perspectives more clearly and diversely in writing and speaking.

When revising WH2, Cherry resorted to a synonym dictionary called *Thesaurus*, recommended by the Thematic English course, to identify alternate expressions that can mean “important role”. However, she found that *Thesaurus* cannot provide synonyms for phrasal expressions. Consequently, she adjusted her search to “important”, where the website recommended nearly 50 words such as big, large, critical, bottom-line, front-page, etc. Finding the display of the website too overwhelming, she forfeited this foray and contemplated the revision on her own (revised draft: *Sport stadiums can enrich our amateur life*). Her verbal report illustrated her thoughts in detail:

Well, the course recommended Thesaurus...So I downloaded its mobile application...When I revised the draft, I thought I could give this new tool a try.... However, there were too many suggestions! And some of the suggestions seemed problematic...such as “big” and “large”... Obviously I cannot say “big role” or “large role”...So at last I decided to alter the way I expressed myself instead of changing the adjective. (2nd verbal report)

To conclude, LP students still relied more on priorly-obtained knowledge, rather than stepping off their comfort zone to utilise newly-acquired knowledge. Conversely, HP and IM learners demonstrated more initiative in acquiring learning resources and integrating them into their actual learning practice. In addition, it also demonstrated that language abilities still played a role in affecting the engagement process as students applied their newly obtained knowledge.

2)-With first and second drafts

Whereas it was typical for students to refer to their first and second drafts when understanding and reacting to TWF, four out of six HP students exerted extra effort in using their original drafts to evaluate and analyse TWF, even when the feedback were compliments.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) showed an example of relating teachers' praise with her original draft, and accordingly generated a hypothesis on what counted as a good beginning of a writing piece. Upon reading the compliment "The first paragraph makes a good beginning.", Bonnie immediately re-read her first paragraph and deduced why it deserved the teacher's compliment:

Well probably because I introduced the background first.... Then I put forward the viewpoints from those supporting it and against it...Then I showed my own position toward the writing topic. (1st verbal report)

Moreover, Bonnie also made a hypothesis based on the teacher's comment:

To be honest, my first paragraph served as a trial. Before, I only used this structure in the writing tasks where relevant reading materials were provided first and then a controversial topic was given accordingly...But this task, there was only a topic ("i.e. Do you agree that modern technology has given us more leisure time than before?)". So, I was a little worried when I decided to use this structure.

But because of the praise, I can summarise that this structure was suitable. So, if I encounter this type of writing again, I know how to deal with it. (1st verbal report)

Intrigued by Bonnie's choice to submit the first draft with uncertain knowledge, the researcher asked a follow-up question during her verbal report, encouraging her to explain why she made such an option. Bonnie explained:

To me, writing assignments were like a chance to test my assumptions... We could not consult the teacher every time we had doubts, right? If not using opportunities like this, then when?

Bonnie demonstrated her effort to comprehend TWF by connecting it to what she had written. Moreover, memorisation skill was apparent since she tried to memorise the writing structure for future reference. An individual factor was found which rendered Bonnie's engagement with TWF more meaningful. Her belief that daily assignments provided opportunities to test uncertain hypotheses, with TWF serving as an authoritative judgement, prompted her to boldly employ more novel or unfamiliar writing knowledge in practice. Upon receiving feedback, her ambiguous writing hypotheses became clearer, which she could commit to memory for future use.

3)-With other teacher feedback

When engaging with TWF, eleven students (6 HP, 3 IM and 2 LP students) demonstrated effort in applying teachers' in-class oral feedback instruction to reacting to TWF. In addition,

there were two instances (from the same student, Flora) where teacher feedback on previous writing tasks was used to elucidate current revisions.

Eight students connected in-class oral feedback instruction with TWF in revision, stressing the practicality of this form of teacher feedback. To conclude, they benefited from the teachers' oral instructions in 3 aspects. They gained certain writing techniques; they were inspired by some useful arguments and there were sometimes grammatical instructions on some common linguistic errors made by the students.

Five students reported using teachers' oral instruction to improve their overall writing. In particular, they learned the criteria for a more effective ending, the necessity of incorporating advanced vocabulary, and the value of providing examples to bolster the persuasiveness of their arguments.

For example, Grace (LP student from Class A) mentioned learning to “provide suggestions and advice” in the final paragraph of a text (2nd verbal report). Ruby (HP student from Class A) stated in the first verbal report to edit the last paragraph to sound more smoothly inspired by the teacher's oral suggestion to make the ending connected with previous content. Tina (LP student from Class B) removed several sentences from her ending when she learned not to add new content at the end of a passage (3rd verbal report). Cherry (IM student from Class B) learnt writing strategies such as using detailed examples to make the content more specific and applied these when responding to content feedback in WH2 and WH3.

Likewise, Joan (IM student from Class A) succeeded in making her texts more convincing by incorporating more examples. She explained:

Frankly, when I wrote this passage, I was actually padding the word count...because I did not know what else to write about...Then in the class, the teacher said we should provide specific examples or use statistics, rather than just giving general descriptions of your arguments. (1st verbal report)

Therefore, Joan looked for examples online and successfully located a piece of news about an Indian man inventing technology which benefited environmental protection greatly. At last, she adopted this example in her second draft of WH1. Joan's example indicated that at times, students themselves were aware of their issues, but lacked specific solutions to tackle them. When a feasible solution was provided externally, they would follow it and their concerns would be resolved accordingly.

However, Stacy (LP student from Class A) demonstrated that when teachers provided general advice on improving students' writing, English proficiency levels would influence how learners behaved. During the class, following the analysis of a sample essay of WH2, Anna recommended students to use more sophisticated language as a means to enhance the writing quality. Stacy acknowledged this and admitted that it was one major goal of her revision: "I also concentrated on whether I could make substitutions for some vocabulary, because the teacher said more advanced words should be used in class." (2nd verbal report). Nonetheless, her proficiency level prevented her from making these revisions.

1st draft: However, there are many good effects to people and society↵

↵

2nd draft: ...cyber celebrity has many good effects to people and society"↵

For example, Stacy modified the teacher's underlined sentence (see above) and explained her behaviour:

The sentence was underlined.... So, obviously there was something wrong...The first thing I noticed was the noun "effect", which should be plural...Then, I thought of the teacher's recommendation to use higher-level lexicon...So I looked up the dictionary in Chinese "有好的影响" (note: means "has a positive influence" in English) ... The phrase "have a good effect" was suggested...So I adopted it... (2nd verbal report)

Stacy demonstrated that for LP students, instructions on general advice may be less valuable. Neither was the vocabulary in her second draft more advanced than the first one, nor was it grammatically accurate. Yet, due to the limited proficiency level, Stacy was unable to judge the accuracy of suggestions provided by the dictionary. Therefore, even though she was aware that her vocabulary needed an upgrade, her insufficient English skills could not afford her to make this adjustment.

Only one student (Flora) demonstrated effort in integrating teacher feedback from prior writing assignments with the current writing piece to improve the comprehension of TWF. Flora (HP student from Class B) was complimented by Zoe in class for her well-written passage of WH2. After reading the feedback, Flora took out her WH1 to compare. Drawing on the teachers' comments as reference, Flora summarised that the strengths of her WH2 included a more organised structure and clearer topic sentences.

Inspired by the current feedback, Flora was also the only student who reflected on her

comprehension of the previous writing drafts and feedback. For this example, since it included both cognitive and metacognitive engagement, it was illustrated in more detail in Section 4.5.4.

In summary, the knowledge gained from the topic-specific oral feedback benefited students both in their current revisions and overall writing expertise. More HP students proved to connect with a diversity of teacher feedback sources, such as oral instruction, the current written feedback and their prior teacher comments during revision. It also suggested that while less able students were also aware of connecting relevant materials to help their revision, their linguistic proficiency and their cognitive abilities prevented them from integrating all the resources efficiently.

4.5.3.4-Memorising

Memorisation skills were only reported by HP and IM students. Comparatively, more HP students (5 students) employed this skill than their IM peers (2 students). Primarily, students highlighted two memorisation approaches: reading repeatedly and quietly (discussed in Section 4.4.3.1) and memorising mentally, with the aim of guiding their current revision or/and benefiting their future writing.

1)-Mental notes

The students reported that they devoted mental effort in memorising the feedback which highlighted their writing strengths and indicated knowledge they had not acquired previously.

For example, Ruby (HP student from Class A) shared her ideas about the teacher's comment "Your article is well-organised in structure.":

The teacher affirmed the organisation...So I specifically memorised this as an advantage of my writing...I can use this structure for similar types of writing in the future. (1st verbal report).

In addition, when Helen (IM student from Class A) received a piece of praise, she did not simply memorise the specific sentences. Instead, she immersed herself in deeper cognitive analysis to elicit more fundamental traits about the underlined sentences. Helen explained her thoughts in her fourth verbal report:

1st draft: Undeniably, some Internet catchphrases, notably educational ones like "remain true to the original aspiration" and "On countless roads ahead, safety comes first", make it possible to supplement and update the Chinese lexicon, enriching the language system to some extent. ↵
TWF: Gives a thumbs up↵

The teacher liked this sentence probably because I used a complex sentence structure...and proper examples were provided to illustrate my point...Now I acknowledge that these features would be appreciated, I would bear them in mind and use them more often in the future.

Helen did not simply memorise the phrase or vocabulary that was praised. Rather, she carried out an indicative analysis and made conclusions on the fundamental merits of the underlined sentence. After that, she also showed her plan to memorise.

In addition, the case also suggested the importance of TWF in conveying the teachers' expectations about what constituted well-written articles. Even for more proficient students, they might lack concrete ideas on what counted as a good essay. With TWF, students gained more specific examples of the marking criteria.

Zora (HP student from Class A) and Bonnie (HP student from Class B) memorised what was considered as fresh (usually linguistic) knowledge to them mentally. Before receiving TWF, Zora did not know that the last name of a person's name should be capitalised. So, when she read the feedback indicating this error, she replied:

I did not know that both (the first letter of) the given name and surname of someone should be capitalised...The teacher corrected it...So I took a mental rehearsal to memorise. Otherwise, I thought I might easily forget it. (2nd verbal report).

In addition, Flora (HP student) and Bonnie (HP student) in Class B even mentioned their effort in mentally memorising valuable information more than once in one specific homework. For instance, Flora specifically emphasised that she pored over the feedback several times mentally to avoid making the same mistakes again next time:

1st draft: For example, a news reported that a man was...↵
TWF: Is 'new' a countable noun?↵

Oh, yes...news is uncountable, so I cannot use "a" before it...So I repeated the sentence several times in my head to help me memorise it. (3rd verbal report)

Thus, HP learners seemed to be more sensitive to the gap in their existing knowledge and their memory retention compared to their peers. They were found to deliberately remind themselves to memorise significant information which was considered significant to them.

2)-Negative evidence

While some students undertook measures to enhance their memory of TWF, three LP students presented opposite views towards memorisation. These students noted in either their interviews or verbal reports that they would not devote extra investment into memorising certain errors or feedback.

One reason was that they were confident of their memory retention, as Grace (LP student from Class A) reported:

I would not deliberately memorise some feedback because I had already made efforts in correcting them, such as checking the dictionary and thinking about accurate revisions. I thought I would automatically generate an impression. So, no additional cognitive effort is needed. (2nd interview)

However, when I intentionally checked her memory by presenting her with the same errors she made in WH2 right before the 2nd interview and asked her to provide answers, she was unable to do so.

A conversation in the last interview between Tina (LP student from Class B) and the researcher provided another example:

Researcher: Some students would memorise several teacher suggestions to guide their future writing, have you purposely tried to memorise some TWF?

Tina: I would not intend to memorise them...I read the errors, and then I thought I would have an impression...For some feedback, I thought the teacher only provided suggestions as alternatives. In that situation, it became even less essential to devote cognitive efforts.

Researcher: Can you provide an example?

Tina: Let me see... (after a few minutes) Here, the teacher changed “of” to “to” (note: the original sentence was “I think the solution of environmental issues is connected with individual effort.”). I acknowledged this, but since I thought both “of” and “to” were ok, I did not try to memorise them.

Tina seemed to be strategic when planning different actions towards feedback categorised as corrections and those perceived as suggestions. However, she seemed to have difficulty in differentiating these two types of feedback due to her insufficient English abilities. While the example she provided was a correction that needed revision, she showed no responses since she believed that it was only an alternate linguistic expression.

Examples from Grace and Tina suggested that some LP students seemed to have an inaccurate picture of their memory abilities and their linguistic language, which influenced the way they applied memorisation skills in L2 learning.

4.5.4-Metacognitive strategies

Students demonstrated metacognitive commitments in 4 aspects, including managing

attention, planning, monitoring and evaluating. While monitoring the completed draft was more frequently observed among all students, the way how students carried out the monitoring operations differed. In addition, the efforts to manage attention, plan and evaluate cognition were reported more often by HP students.

4.5.4.1-Managing attention

Only 6 student writers (4 HP and 2 IM students) made decisions on what to focus on before their revisions. They identified the more critical TWF and made revisions accordingly. Meanwhile, other students allocated similar attention to each teacher feedback point and provided subsequent modification. Snow's (IM student from Class A) first verbal report could be representative of this group of students: "Well, the teacher had already provided many suggestions, so I just followed them".

In contrast, Zora (HP student from Class A) decided to focus on grammatical errors and tried to replace some sentence structures before embarking on comprehensive revision since she felt that she had "too many grammatical mistakes" (2nd verbal report). Similarly, although TWF was comprehensive in Flora's WH2, highlighting content problems as well as errors in lexis and syntax, she firstly made the judgement that some of her content problems were results from unclear expressions and wordy language. Thus, she decided to concentrate on making the text more concise.

Managing attention also occurred in the middle of the students' revisions. Some students postponed uncertain feedback in their texts for later revision, with the aim of not losing focus. For example, Sally (HP student from Class A) did not respond to the feedback in the form of

underlining (i.e. raise sense of) in WH1 right away, but came back to this point later. She explained:

1st draft: ..., People in Shanghai raise sense of garbage classification

I think this was a word choice problem, not very serious...But I still wanted to substitute it for a more advanced word...This required time... Since I could not think of a more suitable expression, I needed to rely on the dictionary or online materials...So I wanted to correct some major problems first, then came back to this less serious error later. (1st verbal report)

Only HP and IM students demonstrated that they allocated their attention to a specific type of feedback in revision. In addition, the regulation of cognitive attention not only happened before the students' revisions, it also occurred during the writers' revision processes.

4.5.4.2-Planning

The learners who demonstrated the plan-making technique were more likely to sequence their revision steps before revision. Nine students (5 HP, 2 IM and 2 LP students) reported to design plans for their revision. Moreover, while five students of various English proficiency levels described their plans to ask the teacher sometime after revision, only 2 HP and 1 IM learners were confirmed to implement their pre-plan actions.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) made revision plans when limited feedback was provided, as her original text was already well-written (confirmed by the teacher's oral feedback).

However, she still devoted effort to plan her revision. She decided to correct the errors

indicated by TWF and then upgraded the vocabulary by searching for relevant articles in The Economist. She reported that she searched some environmental-related articles from The Economist, extracted some advanced technology and thought about whether they could be applied to her own writing draft:

Since the feedback was quite good, I can conclude that my logic and content were ok...So I planned to correct the mistaken usages and then tried to substitute some of the vocabulary in my original draft with more advanced words.... Hopefully, it could make the draft into better quality...More importantly, it was useful in building my vocabulary...They were good for my future writing and other aspects of language learning. (4th verbal report)

During the verbal report, follow-up questions were posed about why she chose to dedicate more effort to revise when her original draft was already well-written, and why she specifically mentioned The Economist. Her response was that she did not want to miss the chance to write a second draft, as she could incorporate new but unfamiliar words and expressions into practice and receive feedback. If she did not use them correctly, the feedback on the second draft would reflect that. Regarding *Economist*, it was recommended by her friend:

My friend said that there were many authentic words and expressions that can be imitated and then used in our writing. So, I want to try this method. (4th verbal report)

Bonnie's choice to make plans was influenced by her beliefs towards writing a second draft. She held the idea that an additional draft would be a chance to test unfamiliar language and

accumulate a broader lexicon, rather than only to correct errors. Therefore, her cognitive engagement was not influenced by the number of errors provided by TWF in her first draft. In addition, she also welcomed new learning resources and methods. When she was recommended a new approach to expand her vocabulary, she tried it right away.

Planning as a metacognitive strategy also included students' plan to consult the teacher after revision. Queena (HP student from Class B) was uncertain about the feedback which underlined the sentence "I really object to this opinion" in WH4. So, she marked the feedback and wrote "Can it be deleted?" next to it as a reminder. She explained in the verbal report that since she was used to collecting several questions together and then to consult the teacher, she needed to note down some keywords to remind herself what to ask. In addition, later confirmation was made by the researcher that Queena had asked the teacher about the confusion and decided to delete the sentence accordingly.

In comparison, there were also situations where students reported to ask the teacher later, but failed to do so. Stacy (LP student from Class A) stated that she planned to ask the teacher about some unclear comments in WH1 and WH4. However, follow-up casual chat from the researcher found that she did not do so. The same scenario was found in Cherry (IM student from Class B), Tina (LP student from Class B) and Fanny (LP student from Class B). The reasons were either it was difficult to get access to the teacher, or they were too busy to ask the teachers.

Thus, concerning making plans to ask the teachers, LP students were commonly found to simply describe "to ask the teacher" in their verbal reports. In comparison, Queena, a HP student from Class B, made the necessary preparations and planned specific steps when she

decided to seek guidance from the teacher. These specific actions, in turn, facilitated her to successfully and efficiently reach out to the teacher for help.

While there were some positive examples of planning, what often appeared in students' verbal reports concerning planning was relatively negative. Some students described their revising procedure as "just directly following the feedback" (Snow's 2nd interview). Similar replies were also found among Joan (IM student from Class A), Cherry (IM student from Class B), Tina (LP student from Class B) and Fanny (LP student from Class B). For these students, their revision procedure was often to correct each TWF sequentially.

Yet, Joan's (IM student from Class A) second interview explained her inner conflicts in her unplanned behaviour:

Well, thinking back...I was kind of like a "revising while reading the feedback" kind of person. It felt more freedom...I liked this feeling...and...I might have more inspiration.

But there were situations where I realised my thinking wandered too much...Did we need to have plans, even for revisions? ...Well... I didn't know anymore...

Joan's speech showed that revision without plans was pre-designed. A more profound finding was that, despite being an IM student, she was cognitively aware of her general revision approach. In addition, she became sceptical regarding the necessity of designing plans for modification behaviours. Unfortunately, she did not try to address her reservations and consequently adhered to her original revising habits throughout the study period.

Changes were detected in Tina (LP student from Class B) who originally edited her drafts

with no plans and changed to plan steps for revision. According to her interview, she just “went ahead and amended the draft” because she believed that “the revision was not a big deal” (2nd interview). However, this abrupt attitude towards revision in the first semester changed to a relatively well-considered planning in the second semester, which was impacted by her roommate.

For WH3, the teacher shared a sample essay written by Tina’s roommate. She was shocked to see how her roommate’s writing had significantly improved. This triggered her to initiate a chat with her roommate to find out why:

So my roommate told me that she had devoted much energy to improving her writing, such as regular reading of some foreign articles...purposely reciting some sophisticated words, etc...She especially mentioned that we should take advantage of TWF and the chance to write a second draft...to find out our weaknesses...and to apply unfamiliar words and test its accuracy...

She also introduced me to an online writing platform (i.e. the Pigai platform) which I thought I could start utilising right away. She showed me that the platform could help correct basic grammar errors and proposed alternate word selections...But she also warned me that some recommendations were not valid, so I should check the selected words carefully before I decided to adopt them. (3rd verbal report)

Tina confessed that she gained a lot from the chat, which partially resulted in her making plans to revise in WH3:

I firstly looked at TWF... Corrected them... Then I used the online platform to explore some high-level vocabulary... Once I decided to use them, I looked up the dictionary for their exact meanings... (3rd verbal report)

Inspired and informed by her roommate, Tina took advantage of some novel learning resources and integrated them into the revision routine.

4.5.4.3-Monitoring

Monitoring was detected during and at the end of students' revision procedures. Most frequently, all students demonstrated monitoring of their completed second drafts before submission for certain writing tasks, with the purpose of making a final review of their previous understanding of TWF and the quality of their modifications. However, the frequency and specific approach used to perform the monitoring differed among students with varying English proficiency levels.

1)-Monitoring the finished draft

By reviewing the finalised second drafts at the end of the revision process, almost all students showcased their metacognitive engagement with TWF from time to time, aiming to monitor the overall quality of their written work.

All HP writers confirmed that they checked the revised texts again at the end of revision.

Three IM and five LP students admitted that sometimes they did not go through their second drafts after completion. Diverse factors were found explaining why such different monitoring

choices were made. Table 33 showed the number of students who demonstrated their monitoring operations using their own judgments before submission across the four writing tasks.

Table 33: Number of students monitoring the completed draft

Monitoring the completed draft	WH1	WH2	WH3	WH4
Number of HP students	6	6	6	6
Number of IM students	5	4	5	6
Number of LP students	3	5	4	4

Whereas the majority of students monitored their second drafts, the specific steps they adopted varied, mainly being influenced by their language competency.

The most common method to monitor was to skim read the edited drafts and follow the instincts. The statement from the second interview with Stacy (LP student from Class A) was typical among many students: “*Sometimes I would take a relatively quick look at the text again and see whether it sounds ok. If yes, I will decide that my revision is done.*”. Jack (LP student from Class A) and Iris (LP student from Class B) also agreed that sometimes they would assess the revised drafts by skimming the whole text again. However, Iris’s first verbal report revealed her frustration:

I thought I had done my best....So at the end of my revision, I just skimmed the whole passage. Normally, I could not find anything else that needed to be improved besides those highlighted by the teacher.

Iris’s report showed that her proficiency level shaped the way she treated the revision

process. Based on her previous experience, she held the idea that examining the revised pieces offered less benefits to the overall writing performance. Then it was not surprising to find that she did not always monitor her revised drafts.

In comparison, all HP students proofread their second drafts before submission. Sally (HP student from Class A) expressed that she would “definitely check the draft again” (2nd interview). Ruby (HP student from Class A) indicated that scrutinising the completed drafts was an indispensable part of the revision, and she clarified this in the second interview:

In high school, the teacher would ask us to check again after our revision. At first, I disliked it... It would make the revision process longer... However, during the process, I could always find additional errors... Since then, for every writing and every revision, the act of reviewing before submission became a habitual practice for me.

Another HP student, Queena (Class B), conveyed in verbal reports and interviews that she went over the second drafts twice before submission. For the first time, she prioritised grammatical errors by reading the texts sentence-by-sentence. Then for the second time, she fixated on the general ideas and their coherence.

While some students demonstrated using Chinese (which was the students’ first language) for cognitive purposes, Jack, a LP student from Class A, reported using Chinese as a metacognitive approach. He indicated that he would make a mental translation of the polished revision into Chinese and see whether the translation went smoothly.

Besides proficiency levels, the current study also detected various factors which explained

why some students only reassessed their drafts occasionally. Grace (LP student from Class A) was found to examine her edited text only when her first draft was poorly written. The following statement from her revealed the reason why she spent additional effort in monitoring her revised text of WH1, compared to her other three writing tasks:

The first task...Some sentences were shared by the teacher as bad examples...So I knew they were of poor quality...However, it seemed that the worse my first drafts were, the more effort and attention I wanted to put into improving it....If less feedback was given, I might think that my draft was ok....Then I could spend time finishing other homework...(4th interview).

The statements from Grace showed that the choices to engage more metacognitively depended on the quality of her original drafts and the quantity of TWF. In addition, her lack of reviewing behaviours did not imply a devaluation of this method. Rather, it indicated her belief that her original drafts did not need extra effort in revision.

Five less advanced students (i.e. 3 IM and 2 LP students) shared that they only monitored their second drafts when they had sufficient time. For instance, Cherry (IM student from Class B) stated in her second verbal report that “I was too busy recently with other homework, so I did not spend extra time reviewing the finished draft.” Lisa (IM student from Class B) explained that she was sometimes occupied with other extracurricular activities, so she handed in the revised drafts without a double check (4th interview).

However, the behaviour of monitoring the second drafts could be altered when the students found that the teachers were more serious about their revision than they expected. For

example, Stacy (LP student from Class A) changed from not reviewing the revised draft of WH1 to always monitoring the completed draft of WH2 to WH4.

Originally, Stacy believed that the second draft would not be treated seriously by the teacher. However, the numerous red lines provided on her second draft made her realise that writing a second draft was a serious writing practice. Thus, she became more meticulous about her revision by reviewing her completed second draft in WH2 to WH4.

Stacy's example demonstrated that changes in learning beliefs towards specific learning practices could impact students' cognitive engagement to their learning. When Stacy acknowledged that her teacher was diligent and attentive to provide feedback even on her revised drafts, she started to treat her revision more seriously. One approach she adopted to show her seriousness was by monitoring the overall quality of the edited drafts before submission.

Another change was discovered in Helen's (IM student from Class A) revision operations of WH3. For the first two revisions (WH1 and WH2), she only read through the modified texts. From WH3, she reported rereading the second drafts immediately after completion and then the reassessment took place 2 or 3 times before submission. She argued that "after a few days, your perspectives towards a given topic might be different. So, the revision might become more meaningful" (3rd verbal report). Since only Helen adopted this revision strategy, I kept on asking when she developed this revising strategy. She thus shared her experience:

I learnt it from a public seminar held at our university...The topic was how to improve

your writing skills in academic writing...At that time, the speaker shared her experience of writing a 1000-word essay...She told us not to rush into making corrections of our drafts since sometimes our minds would be stuck... It would be a better way to leave your essay for a few days and then reread them again to get a fresh perspective.

Helen indicated that it was the first time she heard of this way of writing. Although the speaker was targeting a much longer essay compared to her own (about 250 words), she decided to give it a go. So, after the revision of WH3, she set an alarm for two days later using her mobile phone and typed “refine the draft again” as a reminder. A later chat with her confirmed that she did refine the draft again and said that her mind did become clearer during that experience.

2)-Monitoring during revision

Most commonly, all students monitored the accuracy and appropriateness of their modifications using intuitions. LP students, however, demonstrated their exclusive reliance on intuitions to evaluate their revisions. For example, Grace stated in the final interview that “when the revision was made and it sounded ok, I will move on”.

Three HP students, on the other hand, reported appraising their modifications by rereading the corrected sentences several times before settling the revisions. This was different from monitoring the finished draft mentioned before, which normally happened at the end of one’s revision and referred to reading the completed passage. In opposition, rereading normally took place during the revision. The student writers read several sentences more than once when they had concerns about the usage of some words/phrases or content.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) replaced the phrase “protecting the environment” with “environmental preservation” in the second draft of WH4 since she was encouraged by TWF to use more advanced vocabulary. Superficially, one may assume that this slight change required little time and commitment. However, according to Bonnie, more effort was devoted to this modification than it appeared to be.

At first, she intuitively thought of the word “preserve” and thus altered the phrase to “preserving the environment”. However, this modification did not meet her requirements, so she started to reread the sentence and the ones that came before and after the targeted sentence. Bonnie indicated:

When I read the sentences several times, I feel like I am getting the idea soon....Then suddenly, I arrived at the idea that I could change it to a noun phrase....So I checked the dictionary whether there was a noun for the verb “preserve” and it suggested “preservation”. After confirming the noun, I edited the part of speech of the word “environment” to an adjective “environmental” to collocate with “preservation”. (4th verbal report)

Bonnie demonstrated that some feedback readers monitored the effectiveness of their revision by rereading their temporary expressions. She adopted the rereading operations to get familiar with the written texts and get inspiration. When a revision was made, she did not move on to other feedback points, but rethought her revision since it did not meet her requirement. With the act of rereading, the help from her intuitions and online dictionaries, she finally came to a satisfactory adjustment.

Besides monitoring revision operations, some learners monitored their thoughts for the aim of ascertaining whether their comprehensions of certain TWF were accurate.

For example, Anna replaced “about” with “as to” in the sentence “The debate as to this issue polarises the public discourse.” in Helen’s WH4. According to her verbal report, Helen (IM student from Class A) firstly regarded this as a preposition error and thus adopted the teacher’s suggestion. However, she paused for a few minutes since she remembered that she came across this usage in a foreign article. Then to confirm, she firstly entered the word “as to” using the *Biying* dictionary. When the dictionary could not provide solid answers, she searched the question “Is the usage ‘the debate as to’ correct?” online to find out more results. Finally, she concluded:

Originally, I thought the pattern “the debate as to...” did not exist. After an extensive exploration, I found that the phrase existed but it should be collocated with “whether” rather than “to” ... But...if I used this phrase...I need to change the sentences that followed...I did not think it was necessary. So, to save time, I adopted the teacher’s advice. But I think I might try to use “the debate as to whether” next time and see whether the teacher would underline it. (4th verbal report)

Helen (IM student from Class A) showcased monitoring her thoughts and employing available resources to assess her comprehension, which contributed to her final accurate understanding of the feedback. Then she made a strategic revision decision. Upon assessing the potential efforts she might put into if the original expression was maintained, she believed that it was not worthwhile. Thus, she ultimately embraced the feedback, but not forgetting to

make plans about using the original phrase in her future work.

Another HP student, Zora (Class A), also demonstrated her effort in being aware of her thoughts on a certain feedback point. The teacher underlined the word “netizen” in the sentence “an ever-increasing number of netizen show great interest in...” in her WH2. Her original judgement was that netizen was not an authentic word. However, since she could not think of a substitute to replace, she decided to postpone it for later revision.

Later, Zora revisited this error and consulted the dictionary for the word “netizen”. Her thought was “When I came back to this error, I just thought that I do remember there was such a word like ‘netizen’, maybe I just misspell it?. So, I used the dictionary to make sure I understood the teacher’s underlining accurately.” (2nd verbal report). Consequently, she confirmed that the word “netizen” was accurate, and then after carefully reading her sentence again, she suddenly realised that the problem was about plural forms. She added:

It was so lucky that I did not spend so much time searching for alternative words the first time I read the feedback...It was not the word choice problem, but the fact that I forgot to add “s” to this word...From this example, I noticed that I should read the feedback more carefully in the future...You just cannot make judgments instinctively. Otherwise, you would end up like me, spending meaningless time on a very easy error. (2nd verbal report)

Zora demonstrated her metacognitive operations in managing attention as well as monitoring her thoughts. In addition, when she realised that the miscomprehension was because of her carelessness, she also performed a metacognitive act of evaluating her behaviours and formed the conception that she should treat TWF more carefully in the future.

In nature, it could be concluded that all students relied on their intuition to monitor their revision outcomes. When the revised expression sounded ok, they continued with their modification. When the revision sounded problematic, they stopped, checked the accuracy and revised again. However, these intuitions were based on students' overall language abilities. These different English abilities resulted in students' frequency and accuracy to judge the quality of their comprehension of TWF and revision.

To conclude, monitoring usually occurred during and at the end of the revision process, aiming to reevaluate one's comprehension of TWF and the accuracy of the final written products. Moreover, the modification approaches used by students during revision and the extent to which they engaged with these approaches may be influenced by different factors, which included language proficiency levels, the quality of students' writing drafts, the quantity of TWF, previous learning experience and learning beliefs.

3)-Delayed monitoring

There was an exception from Flora (HP student from Class B) who demonstrated delayed monitoring of her comprehension of certain feedback in WH3 when reading TWF in WH4 (shown below).

1st draft of WH3: With the popularization of computer and internet service, more and more people become “indoorsy men” or “indoorsy women”, whether to become indoorsy has widely aroused the public's attention.↵

TWF: Better cross out this sentence. If reading the direction carefully, you will find that summarizing the opinion of both sides is the first step of your writing. ↵

1st draft of WH4: Supporters believe that everyone needs to safeguard the environment. ←

Opponents argue that... ←

TWF: Better use lead-in sentence here. How about ‘Nowadays environmental protection has become an urgent issue for governments and ordinary people’? ←

When reading the comments about the lead-in sentence in WH4, Flora immediately connected it with her WH3. She reminisced about her earlier thinking:

I suddenly became aware that I made a faulty inference from the prior feedback.

According to the feedback in WH3, I thought that I needed to directly describe viewpoints from both sides...No introductory sentences were needed...So that was why there was no lead-in sentence in WH4. (4th verbal report)

Furthermore, she acknowledged that a reassessment of her prior conclusion was needed.

Consequently, a rectified assumption was made about the structure of the opening paragraph in an argumentative essay:

Now I had more distinct insights into how to begin an argumentative essay, especially for TEM4-type writing. Firstly... begin with a lead-in sentence...then perspectives from contrasting standpoints... finally followed by my own opinion. (4th interview)

Flora’s example was a mixture of cognitive and metacognitive processing since she monitored her comprehension of the teachers’ comments by connecting multiple writing drafts. Her instance was also exclusive, since she integrated two WH and its corresponding feedback to generate a more accurate writing hypothesis. This also demonstrated her engagement to constantly checking and refreshing the already-formed conceptualizations.



4.5.4.4-Evaluating

In the context of responding to TWF, evaluation always took the form of self-reflection.

According to Dannels et al., (2008), reflection in learning referred to an action where students conducted an inner and critical examination of the underlying meaning of a specific learning event. The research data revealed that the students reflected on their learning habits/strategies and their writing strengths and weaknesses, aiming to identify how these aspects could better facilitate their engagement with TWF.

1)-Learning habits

Five students (2 HP, 1 2 IM and 1 LP students) showed their evaluating operations by taking a second thought on their commonly-used learning habits. For example, Flora (HP student from Class B) elaborated on what was going on in her mind when interpreting Zoe's praise "You write an organised passage and the topic sentences and their supporting details are closely connected." in WH2:

I wrote an outline before writing the first draft. In fact, I listed more than three reasons as arguments....After serious consideration, I chose the three among them...Maybe because of this, it made my draft a well-organised one and thus was praised by the teacher. So...maybe making an outline before starting a draft was a useful writing method.

For Flora, she did not just try to understand the feedback, but also tried to evaluate the

usefulness of her learning habits which contributed to the well-written portions highlighted by TWF. Based on the feedback and the learning experience, Flora finally reached a conclusion that drafting before writing was a beneficial writing tool.

Flora was one of the three students who had reservations about using external resources to aid their revisions. Her specific concerns were about the usages of ODs. She acknowledged that it was beneficial to use dictionaries in the revision process to check spelling, to look for substitutes, and to make sure of the usage of certain words. However, she also conveyed her worries in the last interview:

ODs were useful when dealing with take-home homework. But I am also thinking about what I would do during an exam. Would I become more reliant on the online tools which may ultimately influence my performance during an exam? So I kind of feel torn between choices. But for now, I just keep using this tool.

From Flora's example, it can be concluded that when students were more cognitively engaged, they would sometimes develop doubts about the effectiveness of the commonly adopted writing methods.

Fanny (LP student from Class B) also demonstrated her doubt about looking for main viewpoints online. She did not search online when revising WH3 and then elaborated on her actions in the third interview:

Although I looked for some viewpoints online for WH1 and WH2, I had doubts...I did not think this was a good habit... since for the exams, there were no chances for us to use the

Internet for help... However, if I did not do so, I would not have enough content to write about...So I would try my best not to do it unless I had no clues on what arguments I should use to support my ideas.

The same question was raised by Cherry (IM student from Class B) when she learnt that some of her classmates would search online for inspiration. She demonstrated a self-inquiry and later on decided to hold this method until she was helpless:

I am wondering whether I should use the same method (i.e. searching online) before I write an essay and also before my revision. If the answer is yes, how do I search for more valuable information, since I have heard that some of my classmates complained that the viewpoints found online were more or less the same...So till now, I have not tried this method yet. (3rd interview)

However, no students in Class A raised reservations about searching relevant materials online. This was because this method was already addressed by Anna when giving an oral instruction of WH1. When Anna complimented a sample essay written by Ruby (HP student from Class A), she mentioned that it was helpful to look for some specific examples online for daily writing practice since it helped students to accumulate writing materials and specific examples which might be used in future writing. Maybe because of this specific emphasis, no one in Class A reported hesitations towards this writing technique.

However, it should be noticed that the highlight by Anna was not due to careful planning. No teacher in the interviews mentioned that they would systematically introduce some writing techniques to the students, since the course was not about English writing exclusively.

Besides the usage of ODs, Queena (HP student from Class B) demonstrated her effort in evaluating her note-taking behaviours in the last interview. When asked how she used note-taking operations to aid her revision, she established a judgement on her common usage:

I think note-taking is a very common learning strategy. What is more important is to decide what notes are worth taking and how we can transform what has been written in the notebook to our own memory. (4th interview)

She kept on evaluating her own way of taking notes. In her belief, she thinks that the good sides of her note-taking habits are that she will jot down valuable vocabulary and expressions immediately on her mobile phone. However, she also acknowledged one weakness that affected the helpfulness of her note-taking was the minimal time spent on reviewing what had been recorded in the notebook from time to time.

2)-Strengths/weaknesses

Students' metacognitive engagement also included employing TWF to evaluate the existent advantages and weaknesses of their texts, and then searching for appropriate solutions.

For example, the teacher praised Flora (HP student from Class B) for her usage of some compound sentences in her WH1. When Flora read this comment, she further analysed the comment and zoomed in on her usages of attributive clauses:

Here the teacher mentioned “compound sentences”, so I looked back at my texts and I

found that many “attributive clauses” were used. So I thought that was what she meant specifically. In my writing, I did notice I used many sentences which were modified by ‘that’ or ‘which’. (1st verbal report)

She continued to evaluate the comment:

Now that this was confirmed by the teacher, I would know that this is a good side of my writing. But I should be aware that more diverse sentence structures should be used in my writing, if I want to get a higher grade.

Flora (HP student from Class B) firstly engaged cognitively by connecting the teacher’s comments to what she had written in the text and summarising a more specific conclusion. Then metacognitively, she evaluated the comment by comparing it with what she had known about her general writing habits and confirmed that it was indeed an advantage of her writing. In addition, she carried out self-reflection and came to the conclusion that her writing would be better if a wider repertoire of sentence structures was employed.

Likewise, inspired by TWF (see below), Queena (a HP student from Class B) evaluated her weakness in writing lead-in sentences in a TEM4-type argumentative essay and reflected on her laziness in recent learning.

1st draft: ~~According to the material, I have got that some people argue that...~~↵

TWF: Where the public money spent is a heated discussion/a hot topic...↵

Queenena acknowledged this specific piece of TWF, recognizing it as an area of weakness in

her writing. She admitted feeling uncertain about what constituted a strong opening, and indicated that this feedback prompted her to engage in self-reflection:

As mentioned before, I frequently use “according to the material...” as an opening in TEM 4 argumentative essays. I know it is not good enough, but it is in the meanwhile not inaccurate... So... I have not felt compelled to search for better alternatives... However, when the teacher provided this suggestion, I recognize that it is much better than mine... This spurs me to overcome my laziness and complacency to find more suitable phrases, which turns out to be less daunting than I have initially thought. (2nd verbal report)

Consequently, she searched online with the keywords “good beginnings for an argumentative essay” and jotted down examples like “Recently, there has been a wave of...” and “There has been a heated discussion about...” in her notebook.

For Queena, the TWF firstly reminded her struggle with crafting an effective opening for an argumentation. Moreover, the teacher’s suggestion of a better opening sentence motivated Queena to confront a persistent issue she had recognized but failed to act upon.

3)-Negative evidence

Nevertheless, students could have misinterpreted TWF, leading to mistaken evaluation of their own writing. For instance, Joan misunderstood one specific feedback (shown below), which reinforced her idea that her writing has been “too formulaic” (1st verbal report). The following statement elucidated her thought process:

1st draft: It is not saying that there is no legislation any more, but it is obvious...

TWF: ?

I think the teacher did not like the sentence pattern “it is not saying that...” , which is too mechanical...since I found myself using this phrase too frequently in my writing, as well as the expressions such as “from my perspective”, “as far as I am concerned”, “to sum up” etc... I picked up these phrases from some sample essays of TEM4... Perhaps reading these articles too frequently had rigidified my thinking, so that I could not think of other diverse expressions... (1st verbal report)

Joan’s misinterpretations of the TWF exposed her insufficient English proficiency levels. While the comment was meant to seek clarification, Joan mistakenly viewed it as a critique of her overuse of a specific sentence pattern. Coincidentally, this happened to align with her own assessment of her writing issue (i.e. using similar sentence patterns excessively). As a result, she concluded that she should minimise the use of these sentence patterns and avoid reading too many exam-oriented sample essays.

This false metacognitive processing hindered her writing development in two ways. Firstly, it solidified an erroneous perception of her writing deficiencies. Secondly, it resulted in her forfeiting a valuable learning resource (i.e. to learn from sample essays), especially at a time when she was preparing for her TEM4 test.

Stacy, another LP student from Class A, also mentioned using feedback to confirm her existing weakness in writing. However, due to her previous learning experience, she showed

an indifferent attitude towards how to refine the specific shortcoming:

The teacher highlighted my spelling issue. I am cognizant of that, but I did not give it much focus. Throughout my study experience, I have never devoted much time to memorising the spellings of words, and I think I am doing ok now.

Stacy acknowledged that the vocabulary learnt in middle and high school seemed much easier and less advanced than those learnt in the current course, yet she still viewed spelling as a minor concern. In addition, she also believed that spending significant time memorising spellings was unnecessary:

Now there are more chances to use computers or mobile phones to write, so you can use online dictionaries or the Word software to check your spelling...So although I have the spelling issue, I do not think it is very serious. There were occasions when I tried to tackle my spelling issues, but every time I started, I was at a loss how to do it.

So...Whatever.... (1st verbal report)

Stacy's account painted a complicated picture. Firstly, her prior learning experience led her to believe that the spellings of words did not require a particular focus. One can gain accurate spellings naturally. Secondly, she formed the perception that modern technology could mitigate spelling concerns in writing. Lastly, her lack of experience in successfully addressing spelling issues and her reluctance to invest time in memorising spellings resulted in her indifferent attitude towards resolving the acknowledged spelling deficiencies.

Stacy's unwillingness to prioritise English writing corresponded with her overall perceptions

towards the English major and English writing. She was the only student who had to enrol in the English major because of her college entrance exam scores. In addition, she prioritised speaking and listening skills over writing, considering herself less competent in the former two areas (1st interview). Taking all these elements into account, even when her reflections on her writing problem (i.e. spelling) corresponded with the teachers' comments, she displayed little enthusiasm in rectifying her spelling issue.

4.5.5-Summary

To conclude, the data confirmed that cognitive engagement with TWF included both DoP and the utilisation of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In addition, DoP was revealed to include six sub-categories, including Os, N-EI, N-EN, AU, IU and NU. Generally, all students demonstrated a higher proportion of AU (see Section 4.5.2), compared to other categories. English proficiency levels were identified to be one major factor influencing DoP. The data also revealed instances where DoP was mediated by both individual factors (i.e. students' beliefs towards the severity of TWF; one's existing English knowledge and proficiency levels; her/his own personalities and students' prior learning experience) and contextual factors (the nature of TWF including its appearance, its focuses and its directness; and teacher instruction).

Students were observed employing both cognitive and metacognitive strategies to evaluate their comprehension of TWF and the effectiveness of their revisions. However, students with different proficiency levels demonstrated differences in the selection and application of specific strategies.

Cognitive strategies were utilised as students provided reasoning in interpreting TWF, making connections with different learning sources and taking mental notes. A noteworthy discovery which was seldom discussed in prior studies, concerned the strategy of reasoning. While all students demonstrated their engagement in providing linguistic or logical explanations of some TWF points, the majority of students found it challenging to present arguments to content feedback, particularly when it was delivered in the form of underlining.

In terms of making connections, it proved to be a prevalent cognitive operation among students. More commonly, students associated TWF with specific oral feedback instructions to enhance understanding. Surprisingly, even when receiving praise, some HP students connected it with their original drafts to ensure the accuracy of their comprehension. Moreover, the findings highlighted how some students integrated feedback from different writing tasks to better comprehend TWF and make more appropriate revisions.

Comparatively, a small number of examples were found concerning memorisation, primarily achieved through mental note-taking and silent-reading. Typically, some students mentally recorded their writing strengths and weaknesses highlighted by specific TWF, as well as linguistic errors that were unfamiliar to them. Furthermore, personal beliefs emerged as major reasons why fewer examples of memorisation were found. Moreover, other factors such as overconfidence in one's memory retention, devaluation of memorisation as an effective learning strategy, and misconceptions about one's language competencies were found to result in the lack of memorisation skills being used.

Metacognitively, students demonstrated their engagement by managing their attention, making plans before and during revision, monitoring the quality of their revisions, and

making self-reflection.

Managing attention often occurred as students prioritised addressing certain writing issues before others. Planning included designing systematic steps before revision, and consulting the teachers after revision. Noteworthy, inconsistency between students' statements and their actual behaviour was found, since some students who reported asking the teachers for help did not carry out this behaviour because of their laziness or the difficulties to get access to the teachers. Changes were found concerning planning in Tina's case. Informed by her roommate, Tina accumulated knowledge on useful online writing platforms and altered her beliefs towards L2 writing, feedback practice and revision. This altogether contributed to the change in her planning behaviour.

Monitoring, a common metacognitive strategy, involved students reviewing their completed second drafts before submission. Interestingly, all HP students reported monitoring all of their second drafts, whereas IM and LP students only monitored some of their revised drafts before submission. Specifically, skimming, reading through the drafts, multiple readings of the second drafts were employed as specific approaches to monitoring. Nonetheless, the implementation of these methods varied across different individuals and across various writing tasks. Additionally, monitoring one's revision outcomes and one's comprehension also occurred sometimes during revision, usually through intuition and rereading. There was also an exception where a student evaluated her comprehension of prior TWF.

Evaluating refers to reflections on one's learning habits and one's writing strengths and weaknesses in the current study. Certain students reported reconsidering the usages of online dictionaries and online searching engines during the research period. Nonetheless, the study

revealed that these reconsiderations and uncertainties could be settled by explicit instructions from the teachers. In terms of evaluating writing strengths and weaknesses, several students constantly compared TWF with their prior perceptions of their own writing, aiming for a more accurate assessment of their writing competencies.

Individual-related and contextual factors were identified as mediators influencing the utilisation of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. These factors included proficiency levels; beliefs in writing techniques; students' perceptions towards the efficacy of monitoring; one's English and writing abilities; the teacher instruction; the authoritative nature of the teacher; the characteristics of TWF and the quality of students' first drafts. It also revealed that when one of these factors changed, a certain aspect of students' cognitive dimension was also likely to be altered.

4.6-Affective engagement

Exploring students' affective engagement entailed examining their perspectives towards teacher written feedback and its related components, as well as the specific emotions triggered when engaging with TWF (Han & Hyland, 2015; Pekrun, 2006).

4.6.1-Attitude

With regard to students' perceptions developed when engaging with TWF, three main themes were identified: 1) their attitudes towards TWF; 2) their perceptions of their teachers as feedback providers; and 3) their views on "writing a second draft".

4.6.1.1-Students' attitudes towards TWF

1)-Overview

Concerning TWF, all students held a generally positive attitude towards this practice. For instance, Stacy (LP student from Class A) reported in her second interview that “overall I was satisfied with TWF”. Cherry (IM student from Class B) expressed her affection for “this unique chance to receive feedback” (2nd interview). All the students held the belief that the major advantages of the teacher feedback were to help them detect unnoticed or unacknowledged writing issues.

2)-Quantity of TWF

In general, the students in the current study seemed to expect more TWF. 15 out of 18 students concretely stated in their interviews that they appreciated more TWF and expected the teachers to comment on various aspects of their writing.

However, caution should be drawn by paying attention to Lisa's (IM student from Class B) excerpts. Her appreciation for the great quantity of teacher comments might be influenced by the context in which TWF was provided, as she specifically mentioned that the current feedback was part of a daily task:

...Even when there are tons of suggestions from the teacher, I do not take them as criticism...I like them...Actually, the more, the merrier (with a smile) ... It is just daily homework...It would be much better if you realise your writing issues during daily

practice than discover them after an exam (4th interview).

In addition, Jack (LP student from Class A) expressed his desire for more TWF to guide his revisions due to his low proficiency English level. He regarded the act of locating errors by himself as “time-consuming and less efficient” (2nd interview). He was even more worried that without guidance from the teacher, he might make misjudgements about his drafts.

Thus, the strong inclination towards more TWF among certain IM and LP students could be attributed to their limited language proficiency levels. Meanwhile, students’ lack of confidence in their own abilities also resulted in their increased dependency on teachers for feedback.

3)-Focus of TWF

Another frequently discussed aspect of TWF was its focus. In other words, some students were aware of whether the feedback was on the grammatical level or on the content level.

Eleven students (5 HP, 5 IM and 1 LP students) distinctly expressed their preference for feedback covering a diversity of focuses. They believed that receiving TWF on both linguistic and non-linguistic issues (e.g. content, organisation and genre) helped them set more specific goals for improving their drafts.

For instance, while Stacy (LP student from Class A) appreciated the teacher’s feedback on her writing drafts, she also expressed a desire for topic-related comments. She conveyed in the third interview that since writing was also about expressing ideas, she still wanted Anna

to critique her content. Zora, a HP student from Class A, shared a similar viewpoint. She stated that having feedback on her logic from the teacher would be more supportive.

Sally (HP student from Class A) also indicated her preference for content feedback. Initially unable to provide a clear explanation of her preference, she later shared some insights upon further inquiry:

Maybe because...reading comments on the content made me feel that the teacher was really appreciating my writing as a written article, not solely as a grammatical assignment...It felt like we were connecting mentally...I know there were linguistic errors in my draft...And I appreciated the teachers' grammatical corrections...But I just felt more like a "writer" when reading content-related comments. (4th interview)

Sally's statement revealed the emotional role of teacher feedback. Apart from its role in correcting grammatical errors, TWF could also be seen as a bridge to connect the students and the teachers mentally.

Another noteworthy finding was made when two HP students reported their perplexity upon receiving no feedback on a specific aspect of their writing. Ruby (HP student from Class A) was puzzled and at a lost when no feedback was provided on her content:

Actually...perhaps I should adjust my content a little bit?... Since there was no feedback addressing this specific aspect, I was not sure whether it meant no issues or if the teacher was too busy to make further comments. (2nd verbal report)

The same confusion was reported by Bonnie (HP student from Class B). However, subsequent interviews revealed that they had assumed zero feedback implied there were no problems with their writing, resulting in no revisions. However, their uncertainty reappeared in later similar situations. In the last interview, when asked why they had not addressed this recurring confusion, both respondents expressed a similar viewpoint, considering the matter was too trivial to bother the teacher with.

Bonnie's (HP student from Class B) and Ruby's (HP student from Class A) opinions inferred a misalignment between the teachers (feedback provider) and the students (feedback receivers). For instance, in cases where certain aspects of students' writing were left without comments, students might feel uncertain about how to interpret the situation. However, neither student proved any attempts to resolve the confusion because of their perception of the triviality of TWF and their perceptions of their teachers. Thus, it may be beneficial for the teachers to provide a brief introduction detailing how the TWF should be interpreted and their expectations from their students.

4)-Praise as TWF

In general, 15 out of 18 students expressed the necessity to receive TWF that addressed both the positive and negative aspects of their writing. However, there were also controversial opinions. For instance, two IM and one LP learners reported indifferent opinions towards compliments, as stated by Snow (IM student from Class A): "I do not really care about praise. As long as the teacher points out my writing issues, that would be fine." (2nd interview).

Despite a common affirmative perspective towards praise, the students' feelings towards

specific compliments still varied. For example, Cherry (IM student from Class B) expressed appreciation when the teacher highlighted her usage of present participle form in WH1. She expressed that “at least I knew there were some commendable features in my writing piece” (1st verbal report). However, Ruby (HP student from Class A) did not regard the comment “It’s wonderful that you can use an appropriate example to illustrate your viewpoint” as very beneficial, since she believed that the example was topic-specific, and could not be applied to future writing.

However, Ruby’s (HP student from Class A) negative evaluation of the specific praise was due to a misunderstanding between her perception of the feedback point and the teacher’s intention. The compliment was intended to advise Ruby that using specific examples was an efficient strategy to enhance one’s writing quality. Therefore, it tended to encourage her to utilise this strategy in future writing tasks. Nevertheless, Ruby misunderstood it as a recognition for her “accurate choice of an example” (1st verbal report).

Likewise, at first, Bonnie (HP student from Class B) expressed a dislike for overly general praise. When the teacher suggested that “...it is wise of you to restate your key point in the last paragraph...” in WH1, Bonnie reported:

I think this praise is too general...it seems like everyone would get this kind of compliment... So, it is less useful for me.

However, this attitude altered, as evidenced by a casual chat with the researcher before her second verbal report:

Last time I said something about the ending paragraph...I have just realised that this aspect of my writing is actually a strength, as not all my classmates are aware to restate their points in the last paragraph.

When asked how she reached this conclusion, Bonnie attributed it to the teacher's practice of sharing peer essays. Through this approach, the teacher anonymously presented both well-written and poorly-written sentences and segments from her classmates to the whole class. This allowed Bonnie to gain insights into the overall writing proficiency of her peers. In this way, Bonnie formed a more accurate understanding of her own writing merits and weaknesses.

5)-Supplements to TWF: oral and peer feedback

Two students suggested an integration of different sources of feedback to aid their writing. Bonnie (HP student from Class B) showcased the trouble in understanding some sentences in her drafts marked as illogical:

Zoe only underlined some sentences and labelled "illogical" without offering a thorough analysis. To be frank, I was not entirely sure why these sentences were illogical. (2nd verbal report)

However, Bonnie recognized that it would be challenging for the teacher to address this issue through the written form of feedback. So, she indicated a blend of oral feedback and written feedback with diverse focuses:

I think it is hard to clarify why she (i.e. the teacher) perceived a sentence or a paragraph illogical through written words...Actually, this particular issue could be more effectively addressed through oral analysis in class...So I think the teacher can decide what to focus on when utilising these two forms of feedback... (4th interview)

Bonnie expressed her desire to delve into the “why” question, rather than only the “what” question. Moreover, her understanding of the distinct traits of different feedback sources shaped her expectations regarding various forms of teacher feedback.

Cherry (IM student from Class B) also shared her ideas on an integration of both peer and teacher feedback. She firstly acknowledged the importance of TWF, and based on her prior experience, she suggested that peer feedback could be used as a supplement:

There is a significant delay between our submissions and the teacher’s provision of feedback...so I think that peer feedback could be a supplement...I just hope we can write more...maybe one draft per week? ... And we get suggestions from our classmates...Then for each month, we can have one draft that receives TWF that is more authoritative and encouraging. (2nd interview)

Recognizing the strengths of both sources of feedback, Cherry (IM student from Class B) advocated an integration of both peer and teacher feedback. She believed that peer feedback could provide more instant feedback while TWF could offer more authoritative suggestions.

4.6.1.2-Students' attitudes towards the teachers

Students showed positive attitudes when appraising their teachers, frequently using words like “responsible”, “careful”, “attentive”, “grateful” and “cherish” (key words from students’ interviews) to describe them.

Three students also noted that this perceived trustworthiness from the teacher in turn encouraged them to be more diligent in responding to the drafts and other coursework in the Fundamental English Course. As stated by Ruby (HP student from Class A):

She is the first teacher to provide such detailed feedback. Therefore, I am so grateful that I have devoted more time to studying the course, writing and rewriting my drafts. (2nd interview) ... I would feel like letting the teacher down if I has not put in more effort. (3rd interview)

Cherry (IM student from Class B) expressed her concerns after learning that some of her classmates had noted “too much homework” in the evaluation form for Zoe’s teaching in the first semester:

Well, before this semester began, I was worried that the specific evaluation comments would influence the way Zoe provided feedback...To be frank, I think that only Zoe is paying such close attention to us...I think this is something we should really cherish...I just do not understand why some classmates provided such comments... It is really annoying. (3rd interview)

It is surprising to note that Cherry held such a positive attitude towards the teacher that she even defended the teacher when there were negative evaluations. Her emotional attachment with her teacher became stronger, as a result of her learning and feedback experience from the first semester.

4.6.1.3-Students' attitudes towards writing a second draft

With regard to the act of “writing a second draft”, mixed feelings and perceptions were detected in five students (2 HP, 1 IM and 2 LP students). However, they were more like inner struggles. On one hand, these students sometimes felt stressed and reluctant to write a second draft. On the other hand, they still wanted the compulsory requirement of “submitting a revised draft” since they acknowledged its benefits. For example, Zora (HP student from Class A) concluded in her fourth interview:

Before these two semesters, when my first draft was low-quality and received a lower grade, I would not read it again...Sometimes even put it away and never looked at it...However, in these two semesters...the teacher provided specific feedback...and the revised draft was mandatory...so I had to deal with it...So sometimes my original draft was low-quality and I felt exhausted at the beginning of revision...but after the revision, I felt rewarded since I did learn a lot from the revision...

Similar contradictory feelings were found in Grace (LP student from Class A), who also tagged writing a second draft as “afraid” but “helpful”. However, a careful exploration demonstrated that the negative feelings could be modified:

I have had mixed feelings...From one perspective, I am a little afraid, since writing a second draft means that my first draft is problematic...That is why it needs to be revised...but from another perspective, I have found the revision process beneficial...It can help improve my drafts and my overall writing abilities...Now at least I have a clearer idea of how to write an argumentative essay...and there seems to be fewer grammatical mistakes in my written drafts. (4th interview)

Grace admitted that without the requirement to hand in a revised draft, she would not have “dwelled on improving the draft too much” (4th interview). Thus, she viewed the mandatory nature of revising a second draft as a supervisor, monitoring the extent she devoted to her revision.

4.6.2-Emotion

Besides attitudinal findings, another aspect of students’ affective engagement with TWF was their specific academic emotions (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012).

4.6.2.1-Overview

In total, 112 excerpts describing the students’ feelings were collected. Seventeen specific emotions were extracted, comprising being confused, embarrassed, enthusiastic, pressured, astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry, upset, helpless, disappointed, happy, passionate, surprised, relieved and calm. In contrast to Ekman’s discrete emotions (1992), 12 more specific types were added, while the category of “disgust” was not found.

If following a dichotomy approach to solely look at its positive and negative dimensions (Watson et al., 1999), there were much more negative feelings than positive feelings (see Table 34). Consequently, one may draw the conclusion that students' feelings towards TWF were unfavourable and this overall negative feeling may negatively affect how students react to TWF. However, the current study revealed that negative emotions could also result in deeper cognitive engagement and successful revision (illustrated in the subsequent chapter). Thus, adopting an alternative perspective that assesses concrete emotions from both valence and activation (refer to Table 35) may yield more comprehensive understanding (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012).

Table 34: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence

Emotions	Categories
Negative	confused, embarrassed, pressured, astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry, upset, helpless, disappointed, surprised
Positive	enthusiastic, happy, passionate, relieved
Not applicable	calm

Table 35: 17 discrete emotions categorised by valence and activation

Valence	Activation	Discrete emotions
Negative	Activation	confused, embarrassed, pressured, astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry
Negative	Deactivation	upset, helpless, disappointed
Positive	Activation	enthusiastic, happy, passionate, surprised
Positive	Deactivation	relieved
Neutral	Neutral	calm

4.6.2.2-Negative activation

Negative activation included eight discrete emotions, which were being confused, embarrassed, astonished, pressured, afraid, annoyed, nervous and angry.

1) Confused

All students expressed feeling confused from time to time during revision, particularly when they encountered conflicting sources of information that challenged their pre-existing linguistic hypotheses or beliefs.

The most immediate source was TWF. For instance, when the teacher singled out certain sentences in Iris's (LP student from Class B) written drafts, she struggled to discern the specific errors contained within those sentences. Iris also reported confusion when she managed to identify issues in her writing but faced challenges in making accurate revisions. However, her motivation remained high when encountered this confusion:

Well, I just try my best to correct them (2nd verbal report) ... I think with more practice in writing, I would become more fluent. In addition, the time I spent looking up the dictionary and the energy I devoted to revising would not be effortless... (3rd interview).

The second cause of confusion was inconsistencies between the knowledge conveyed by TWF and writing techniques learnt from other teachers. For example, Fanny (LP student from Class B) was bewildered about the organisation of an argumentative essay. While Anna suggested that a three-paragraph structure was acceptable, the teacher from another course recommended at least four paragraphs for argumentative writing (2nd verbal report). Additionally, Cherry (IM student from Class B) had doubts about writing a title. Zoe emphasised the necessity of including a title in TEM4 writing tasks, whereas another teacher deemed it optional (3rd verbal report). Despite these confusions, all students solved them by adhering to the suggestions given by the teachers who assigned the writing tasks.

In summary, confusion primarily arose during the cognitive processing of TWF. Nonetheless, this confusion did not always hinder students' motivation to revise. Furthermore, the data revealed that in some instances, students became more eager to delve deeper into the feedback points when faced with confusion.

2) Embarrassed to enthusiastic

Embarrassment emerged as another major negative activating emotion expressed by the students. More often, it seemed to concur with other emotions. Grace (LP student from Class A) mentioned her embarrassment after receiving TWF and then she decided to rely on her own rather than seeking help from her classmates:

For this task, I did not ask my friend for help because there have been too many red lines from the teacher... It is a little embarrassing if my friends find out my draft was too poorly written...So I just try my best to revise on my own. (1st verbal report)

Thus, this negative activating emotion deterred her from reaching out to her friends for help, but meanwhile motivated her to revise independently. Moreover, she stated being passionate during her revision:

After correcting my draft for a while, I just feel enthusiastic since more feedback means more areas to improve. So, I just focus on revising it. (1st verbal report)

An emotional variation was revealed during Grace's revision. Initially, she felt embarrassed

by her performance in WH1. However, during the revision, she became more enthusiastic since she found out that more feedback indicated more room for improvement. Instead of regarding the great amount of feedback as criticism, she revalued it as signs for improvement. This shift in her attitude regarding the value of feedback directed her attention more towards the act of revision *per se*, thereby generating a new emotional response of being enthusiastic.

3) Embarrassed and pressured

There were two cases where being embarrassed and feeling pressured occurred in the same situation. Jack (LP student from Class A) and Flora (HP student from Class B) both experienced embarrassment when their writing drafts, marked as sample essays by their teachers, were shared with their classmates. Jack felt embarrassed because he believed that some of the expressions highlighted by his teacher resulted from consulting the dictionary, and thus did not accurately represent his own writing abilities. Flora, on the other hand, felt embarrassed because she believed her draft was not qualified as well-written due to unnecessary spelling errors.

Moreover, their embarrassment was closely related to another activating negative emotion: feeling pressured. Both Jack and Flora described that they did not want to let their teachers down in upcoming writing tasks. Jack stated in his first verbal report, “Now she thinks that my writing level is high. It kind of puts pressure on me because I would feel uncomfortable if my next writing draft is too weak”. Likewise, Flora also expressed her determination to pay more attention in future writing.

To conclude, Grace’s embarrassment initially deterred her from seeking external help.

However, her emotion changed when she focused on revising her draft. On the other hand, Jack and Flora's embarrassment triggered another emotion (i.e. feeling pressured), ultimately leading to the students' increased motivation to excel in future writing.

4) Astonished

Three students reported feeling astonished when they encountered unexpected TWF points. Ella (IM student from Class B) was astonished by TWF as she discovered that the title of her writing was unrelated to the main idea. This prompted her to carefully re-read her text to analyse the issues. Zora (HP student from Class A) was astonished to find out that much of the content in her writing was illogical. In response, she sought out external learning materials such as books on logical reasoning. Bonnie (HP student from Class B) was astonished that she made too many errors in WH1. However, this feeling diminished when she embarked on her revision process. Bonnie admitted:

When reading the feedback, I was a little astonished since I have made more errors than I expected. Then I just started to revise my draft, and this feeling went away. (1st verbal report).

The feeling of astonishment was commonly linked with students' anticipation regarding their first drafts. When this emotion occurred, it seemed to trigger immediate revision behaviours, such as looking for relevant learning materials and commencing revisions right away.

5) Nervous, afraid, annoyed, and angry

The remaining negative activating emotions were reported only once and generated from Grace (LP student from Class A) and Zora (HP student from Class A) respectively.

Grace described feeling nervous and afraid when she started reading TWF in WH2. These emotions largely stemmed from her prior WH1 experience, where she discovered she had more writing issues than expected. However, these feelings were justified and mediated during revision:

Although I was nervous, I did find TWF beneficial...Especially the revising process of feedback has motivated me to look for accurate answers by myself...When I engaged with the revision process, all these negative emotions just disappear... (2nd verbal report)

Zora also demonstrated this emotional justification in her WH1. She firstly felt annoyed since she thought her draft was subpar. Consequently, she put the draft away for a few days before starting to refine it. During the verbal report, she contributed her change in emotions to the compulsory nature of the second draft:

If the teacher did not require me to revise it, I would probably cast it away...It just... felt annoyed when I read this weak draft again... However, when I put it away for a few days and then started to revise it now...the revision process felt meaningful...I did realise there were many aspects I can improve in the second draft... So I am feeling ok now. (1st verbal report)

Both Grace and Zora acknowledge the benefits of the compulsory nature of revision. This increasing trust in the act of modification helped them overcome the potentially harmful impact of negative activation emotions. Furthermore, Zora tackled her emotions by deciding not to address the feedback right away, but rather setting it aside until she felt more ready to handle it.

To conclude, negative activation emotions seemed to offer less resistance to students' willingness and energy into revising. In addition, these emotions seemed to dissipate gradually. Even when the emotions went on for some time, some regulation strategies were found to be employed by the students, which effectively reduced their potential negative impact on engaging with feedback.

4.6.2.3-Negative deactivation

Negative deactivating emotions mostly took the form of being upset and helpless.

Meanwhile, disappointment was reported only once by an IM student.

1)-Feeling upset

Seven students revealed experiencing upset during revision and four reasons were found to contribute to this emotion. Some students became upset when they concurred with TWF on the poor quality of their writing pieces or when the feedback did not match their expectations. For example, Iris (LP student from Class B) stated in her second verbal report: "I was upset when I read the TWF...There were several simple errors that I should not have made in the first place...". Additionally, Jack (LP student from Class A) also described that he felt upset

because what he had written did not fully capture his initial ideas. Cherry's (IM student from Class B) felt upset after comparing her draft with that of her friend.

Among the cases where "feeling upset" was discovered, there was evidence to show within-case changes from being upset to becoming passionate (positive activating emotion), relieved (positive deactivating emotions), or neutral.

Iris (LP student from Class B) showed another case where there was an emotional change from being upset to becoming passionate. Iris reported being upset when she found that her draft was unsatisfactory according to TWF. Nonetheless, when she embarked on revision, despite sometimes feeling confused, her core emotions became passionate. Iris gave further explanations when she was asked why she reported two contradictory feelings:

Well...the truth is that we had to deal with it eventually... So it is useless to remain feeling sad and did nothing.... Actually...it is good to know my true writing abilities now, rather than when I graduate and start looking for a job...I aim to become a teacher and enhancing my writing skill is a vital step to accomplish this objective...So...I chose to abandon this feeling and just work harder. (3rd verbal report)

Grace (LP student from Class A) also reported this emotional transition from being upset to becoming passionate when revising WH1. Despite the numerous comments that needed revisions, the prospect of improving her second draft to a better version spurred her to delve deeper into the revision process. Ella (IM student from Class B) also reported her upset towards her overall performance of WH3. Conversely, she continued by comforting herself "but knowing where you went wrong is always better than being left in the dark". This

acknowledgement resulted in her becoming less concerned about her poor performance of her original drafts.

Iris, Grace and Ella all reported their effort in dealing with their emotions by attributing positive values to their revision behaviour and TWF. By doing so, the three students diverted their attention from focusing on upset and pushed themselves to get engaged with their revision.

“Feeling upset” was expressed by Jack (LP student from Class A) and the reasons were twofold. The first was more about self-criticism, because he failed to express his intended thoughts. This feeling was accentuated when he discovered problematic sentences underlined by the teacher with a question mark and the comment “rewrite it”. However, his tense state was alleviated when he saw a compliment of “good writing” in the margin of his last paragraph. He conveyed that “at least one of my paragraphs had fewer errors” (2nd verbal report).

Only Jack attributed his feeling of being upset to the recognition that his content did not reflect his own thinking. This was consistent with his belief that meaning transmission was of the most importance in writing. When he found that his draft did not achieve this aim, his feeling became upset. However, the data also confirmed the impact of praise on students’ emotions, since Jack was less upset when he saw the teacher’s compliment.

2)-Helpless

In terms of helplessness, 14 out of 18 students expressed this emotion at certain points of

their revision when they had no clues about how to revise their drafts. LP students reported this feeling more frequently than their HP and IM peers. It should be noted that there were differences between confusion and helplessness. Concerning confusion, although students faced challenges reacting to TWF, their readiness to act was high. In other words, when they were confused, they were keen and motivated to find answers. However, when they experienced a sign of helplessness, their motivations for correcting the drafts became low.

For example, helplessness was stated by Snow (IM student from Class A) when she was clueless about the many red lines with question marks in her writing:

I wasn't even sure the red lines indicated grammatical errors, or issues with my content. I also did not know whether the teacher expected me to revise the whole paragraph or just concentrate on those highlighted sentences. So I just paraphrased the sentences and I will wait for the feedback on my second draft to check my understanding. (3rd verbal report)

The same feeling was detected in Fanny (LP student from Class B) when tackling several red lines (WH2) and when Lisa (IM student from Class B) received indirect feedback on her “logic” (WH1).

These examples above indicated that the indirectness of TWF, which provided limited guidance, sometimes leading to the feeling of helplessness. In addition, when students felt helpless, their behavioural engagement and cognitive processing levels became superficial, and there seemed to be less motivation and willingness to regulate such emotion.

3)-Disappointed

Disappointment with herself was revealed by Helen (IM student from Class A), resulting from her discovery that some of the errors (such as plural forms or capitalization) in WH3 highlighted by TWF would have been avoided if she had been more careful (3rd verbal report).

Helen's disappointment was an integration of TWF and her learning beliefs. According to her first interview, she posited that since it was impossible for the teachers to point out all the writing issues in one draft, one needed to try her/his best to detect her own problems before submitting. In this way, TWF could be more efficient in locating problematic segments which could not be identified by oneself. Thus, when she found out that some errors in her draft were due to her own carelessness, she became disappointed with herself.

4.6.2.4-Positive activation

Three discrete emotions were found to be included in positive activating emotions: being happy, passionate and surprised.

1)-Happy

11 out of 18 students experienced happiness when responding to TWF. Six reasons were detected contributing to this specific feeling. While some described their positive status by attributing to one major reason, there were also cases where happiness was driven by multiple factors. Detailed examples were demonstrated to present how students' happiness was

generated.

Seven students felt delighted when they believed their drafts were a better version than their expectations or their prior homework. Eight students reported that their thrill was a result of receiving compliments from the teacher. In Stacy's (LP student from Class A) WH3, the teacher marked an attributive clause and commented "good" in the margin, she reported: "...*I feel very happy when reading this comment. Afterall it is not easy to gain compliments from the teacher.*".

Stacy's low proficiency level led to the result that her texts rarely received any compliments. Thus, when praise was provided, she proved to be more cherished. This aligned with prior conclusions in Section 4.3.1 that only 6% of all the teacher comments were praises, compared to an average of 12% of compliments indicated in more advanced students' texts.

Tina' (LP student from Class B) happiness was twofold. It was due to the discovery of fewer grammatical errors in her drafts as well as the quantity of TWF. When asked whether a large amount of feedback could make her overwhelmed, her answer was an "absolute no" with the explanation "Why overwhelmed? I would be very happy in that situation. The more feedback just indicated that the teacher paid more attention to me and my writing." (3rd verbal report)

The other reasons contributing to happiness were detected exclusively in HP students. 3 HP students expressed that they were delighted when some excerpts were shared by the teachers in class as well-written. Sally (HP student from Class A) described that:

Since we seldom received teacher feedback, I did not know how the teacher evaluated my

essay... So when the essay was marked as a sample essay, it indicated that the teacher was acknowledging my writing abilities. (3rd verbal report)

Sally's case stressed that before TWF was offered, the students lacked self-awareness of their English proficiency levels and had limited sources on how to judge their writing abilities. In addition, Sally's emotions were firstly generated from the oral instruction from the teacher, and extended when she read the written feedback. Thus, it indicated that the emotions generated from teacher feedback could be transported among different sources of TWF.

Additionally, Ruby (HP student from Class A) described her happiness when responding to the teacher's praise "thumbs up" next to a parallel structure she used (e.g.):

1st draft: They are so succinct that... they are so vivid that...they are so varied that...←
TWF: thumbs up←

I was already happy when the teacher showed my sentences to the whole class... I deliberately used this sentence pattern in the essay, but I was not sure whether they were used accurately...Now with the praise, it just felt like my engagement was not useless...So I would want to work harder...and showing it to my peer was...to be honest, kind of a satisfaction to my vanity.... Now when reading these sentences, I still feel content that I have succeeded in writing such sentences. (4th verbal report).

Concerning Ruby, her happiness was retrieved from the compliments from the teacher as well as the realisation that her deliberate effort was worthwhile. In addition, she also validated the social effect of the teachers' oral feedback when her well-written text was praised among her peers.

Another example, Bonnie, (HP student from Class B) reported her happiness also because the teacher gave credit to her deliberate effort to apply what was learnt in the class to her writing. She adopted the sentence pattern “not so much...but...” in WH2, but used it inaccurately. Instead of solely correcting the error, the teacher highlighted the sentence and commented “Although you did not use the pattern correctly, I am glad to see you try new expressions”.

Bonnie specifically mentioned that when drafting the first version, she was hesitant to adopt this new pattern because she was not that clear about the usage. However, Zoe’s comment also confirmed her belief to treat writing homework as an opportunity to practise:

Honestly, when I was writing the draft, I was worried that if I used too many new expressions and made errors, the teacher would think I was not taking the draft seriously... Now I know this kind of trying was welcomed by the teacher, I can put my concerns aside... (1st verbal report)

Similar to Ruby, Bonnie was delighted when her effort was acknowledged. What was worth more attention was that TWF also confirmed her original belief that she could experiment with unfamiliar phrases in her writing assignments.

2)-Passionate

Three students reported being passionate during revising. Among them, Grace (LP student from Class A) and Iris’s (LP student from Class B) examples were mentioned when discussing the emotion of “upset”. Both students experienced an emotional shift from feeling

upset to passionate.

In contrast, Joan's (IM student from Class A) emotion of being passionate depicted a different image. The situation which contributed to Joan's enthusiasm occurred outside the revision activity but emerged as the primary emotion guiding Joan's revisions of WH4. Joan revealed that she was "extremely excited in today's revision" (4th verbal report) and contributed it to a chat with her friend.

She stated that she was somewhat lost in how to upgrade her writing skills recently, since she did not witness a significant enhancement in her writing competence. So, she chatted with her friend a few days before the revision. Two conclusions were drawn from the chat. Firstly, it was never harmful to refine her writing based on TWF. Secondly, improving writing proficiency was a gradual process, so it took time. Joan's fresh perspective led to her positive emotions even before revision: "Now I am just very excited about making revisions, since I was sure it would do good to my writing eventually" (4th verbal report).

Joan's statement confirmed that responses to TWF were a part of a broader learning context. What happened within this context would in turn influence the specific learning practice of the students.

3)-Surprised

In contrast to feeling astonished, when TWF exceeded learners' expectations, they felt surprised. For example, Fanny (LP student from Class B) was surprised when she found that fewer errors were indicated in her WH4 since she only spent 30 minutes compared to 1-2

hours writing previous drafts. Queena (HP student from Class B) was also surprised when her essay was shared by the teacher as a well-written piece. However, this same emotion generated different cognitive engagement.

Fanny simply concluded that her familiarity with the topic might play a role in producing this fewer-error essay. Then, she started to make revisions based on feedback. In contrast, taking into consideration of TWF, Queena engaged metacognitively to analyse her texts to see why her essay was regarded as well-written and made reflections:

Maybe because compared to my peers, my essay was more well-structured and clearly presented... After all this was the first time our drafts were appraised... But I thought these advantages would be easily acquired once my peers were more familiar with this type of writing. So I still needed to improve other areas of my drafts such as vocabulary and more authentic expressions. (1st verbal report)

Thus, the data indicated that a similar emotion could trigger various behavioural and cognitive engagement. HP students seemed to set a higher benchmark for their second drafts so they devoted more cognitively and metacognitively to improving their original drafts, even when they were perceived as well-written.

4.6.2.5-Positive deactivation

Two students revealed the deactivating emotion of “relieved” in their verbal reports. For example, Joan (IM student from Class A) expressed feeling relieved in her revision of WH3 since no excerpts from her draft were singled out as problematic and demonstrated to the

whole class. Regardless of the anonymity of public discussion, she held the belief that when certain excerpts were chosen from the drafts for class discussions, it implied a sense of severity regarding the problems.

Jack's (LP student from Class A) relief was mentioned earlier when he experienced unhappiness since he did not succeed in conveying what he intended. While he already had a negative impression of his writing based on self-judgement, the praise in his last paragraph soothed his negative feelings and made him realise that his writing was not as bad as he expected.

Feeling relieved was a less common emotion found in the study. However, its occurrence was not only because of specific TWF, but resulted from an integration of factors such as specific TWF, classroom instruction and one's beliefs towards certain teaching practices and towards the performance of his/her first drafts.

4.6.2.6-Neutral

In addition to Pekrun's (2006) 2*2 taxonomy (negative activation; negative deactivation; positive activation and positive deactivation), a novel kind of "neutral" was found where some students expressed feeling "fine" or "ok" in some of their verbal reports. For example, Ella (IM student from Class B) conveyed the feeling of being okay with WH4, since the feedback aligned with her anticipations.

Five additional students reported their calmness when they discovered that they performed on par with their friends. Fanny (LP student from Class B) stated that no specific emotions were

triggered in WH3, especially when she discovered that her friends received similar amounts of TWF as her.

In addition, the majority of students (14 out of 18) reported in their verbal reports or interviews that they normally felt calm when they embarked on their revision. Despite the initial experience of either positive or negative feelings, a general sense of calmness prevailed as students concentrated on their revision.

4.6.3-Summary

In general, a more careful look at these emotions revealed that emotions stemmed from a variety of factors (including proficiency levels, learner beliefs, learning motivation, the characteristics of TWF and teaching practice) and could change within a specific revision, and differed from person to person. Moreover, even for the same emotion, the contributing elements varied. It was also encouraging to detect that students demonstrated regulation strategies to confront their unpleasant emotions so that the level of their engagement was less influenced by these affective components.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter offers a systematic summary of the major findings displayed in Chapter 4.

Firstly, it focuses on illustrating, summarising and discussing the findings concerning the behavioural, cognitive and affective engagement of the students. Specific engagement actions triggered by teacher written feedback (TWF) will be elucidated, and the changes taking place in the three dimensions of learner engagement will also be illustrated.

Furthermore, the individual and contextual factors identified in the study which have mediated learner engagement with TWF are synthesised and evaluated. Mainly, the discussion revolves around presenting the identified individual and contextual factors, and explaining how these factors shape students' engagement with TWF.

5.1-Behavioural engagement

Firstly, the study explored how the students behaviourally engaged with TWF. It included three aspects: 1) the students' modification behaviours; 2) the observable employment of cognitive strategies; and 3) the observable actions in utilising metacognitive skills. Generally, it showed a positive picture that most of the TWF was attended to, regardless of the accuracy of revision. Since the study targeted feedback on both local (i.e. linguistic errors) and global feedback (i.e. content and organisation), new modification behaviours such as creating new content were also found as a modification category (compared to Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018).

In addition, all students were found to achieve cognitive and metacognitive purposes by taking action. Common observable actions included using external resources (e.g. online

dictionaries (ODs), peer assistance, online learning materials and platforms (i.e. *Pigai*), computer software, extra teacher help, textbooks and notebooks), taking notes, reading quietly, marking on writing drafts and writing outlines.

5.1.1-Modification behaviours

In general, a vast majority of TWF (92.43%) were attended to, as opposed to 7.57% being left unchanged. This agreed with Ellis (2010) who affirmed that written feedback was more noticeable and could attract greater attention from students compared to oral feedback.

However, building on Ellis' finding (2010), the study further noted an increase in the proportion of TWF being confronted raised from 91.9% to 93.3% during the research period. Limited evidence was found relating to this finding since previous studies (e.g. Han & F. Hyland, 2015; Zhang & K. Hyland, 2012) concerned only one writing task and a shorter study period. In addition, marginalised gaps were found among all students between the proportion of TWF being attended to and that of TWF being overlooked. Due to the qualitative nature of the study, this finding could not propose a causal relationship between students' modification behaviour and the variables such as the number of writing tasks, the length of the feedback-practice experience and the proficiency levels. Yet, it did propose a possibility that there might be certain relationships between responses to feedback and the aforementioned variables, which required further exploration.

Furthermore, by constantly comparing evidence found in the study with the relevant categories adopted by Zhang and K. Hyland (2018), modification behaviours were finally concluded to contain eight categories, including accurately follow (AF), new content

(NewC), initial stimulus (IS), inaccurate correction (IC), no correction (NC), rewriting (Rw), deletion (Dl) and substitution (St). Regardless of students' English proficiency levels, the top two sub-categories were the same: AF (46%) and NewC (19.6%). According to Chandler (2003), direct feedback commonly resulted in students' duplicating the teacher's feedback. Since half of the TWF provided by the teachers were direct feedback, it could be assumed that the category of AF was influenced by the great amount of explicit TWF (Ferris, 1995).

NewC, ranked second, was a new revision behaviour revealed in the study. Whereas previous studies questioned the provision of direct content ideas to appropriate students' ideas (F. Hyland & K. Hyland, 2001), the study showed a positive impact of direct content feedback on students' processing and responses to TWF. For example, when Flora received direct feedback providing advice on how to start a paragraph, she assessed the quality and suitability of this comment and then made up her own accurate revisions. This evidence also highlighted that the active role of students in learning should not be overlooked (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010b).

The study also revealed that low-proficiency (LP) students occasionally deleted phrases or sentences highlighted by indirect TWF (particularly in the form of underlining), as they were at a loss about how to correct the identified issues. They expressed concerns that even if they dedicated considerable time to finding solutions, their attempts might still be inaccurate. Consequently, they chose to delete the problematic phrases or sentences. This contradicted prior conclusions which endorsed indirect teacher responses. According to Lalande (1982) and Li (2010), TWF, even provided indirectly, motivated students to spend extra effort enhancing their drafts and boosted their confidence in resolving the difficulties. One possible explanation may be related to the participants. The studies included in Li's meta-analysis

predominantly recruited average students, with a few paying particular attention to LP students. Lacking solid language capabilities, LP students would face more challenges when handling less explicit feedback. This finding indicated an interacting impact of both the individual factor (i.e. L2 proficiency levels) and the contextual variable (i.e. directness of TWF) on students' behavioural engagement with feedback. This conclusion was in line with Zheng and Yu (2018), suggesting that for less proficient students, they specifically needed guidance to aid their modification when addressing indirect TWF.

While it was suggested that LP students sometimes made no corrections as an avoidance strategy when they did not understand TWF (e.g. Cheng & Liu, 2022), the current study revealed that this modification behaviour was also sometimes adopted by some HP and IM students but for a different purpose. Specifically, they evaluated TWF, made the conclusion that the teacher misunderstood their original intentions and decided to retain their original expressions. Thus, it provided a warning that when no correction was found in students' drafts, it did not always indicate that students treated TWF less seriously (Liu, 2021).

5.1.2-Observable cognitive and metacognitive behaviours

Regarding observable cognitive behaviours, the usage of external resources, taking notes and reading quietly were three manifestations to show students' cognitive effort. To be specific, external resources encompassed ODs, online materials, peer support, extra teacher support, notebooks, textbooks and software (e.g., Word).

In general, all students demonstrated using a variety of external resources in revision. ODs were proved to be the most frequently used tools to aid students' revision of TWF. Seeking

help from peers was found to include two approaches. Firstly, it was through initiating oral communications with friends or roommates, which was also reported by the participants in Cheng and Liu's study (2022). The second approach was through an analysis of the peers' writing drafts, which was rarely reported before. Tsui and Ng (2000) observed that even for EFL students in a secondary school context, the critical reading of their classmates' well-written work could be positive to their writing. This approach was also found to expand students' knowledge of what contributed to a well-written draft. The evidence in the study concurred with Tsui and Ng (2000) since students also reported utilising sample essays to aid their revision and to inform them of what was lacking in their writing drafts.

Overall, it was concluded that the degree of behavioural engagement in students' revision was not exclusively dependent on what external resources were employed (Han & Hyland, 2015). Rather, in line with Zhang and K. Hyland's (2022) conclusions, it was how these resources were used that impacted the depth of behavioural engagement.

Besides external resources, the current study also exposed students' effort in taking notes and reading quietly to achieve the aim of memorising and summarising during revision. While the former aligned with Yang and Dai (2012) where their students utilised note-taking to reinforce memory, the study revealed a summarisation function where some students summarised their writing weaknesses and noted them down to guide their subsequent revision. Additionally, students were found to differ in what they noted down and how they utilised note-taking as a learning strategy (Slotte & Lonka, 2001). In addition, a newly found approach, reading quietly, was revealed to be an alternative cognitive strategy to enhance memory during revision.

Regarding memorisation skills, the current data argued against the mechanistic view that Chinese language learners resorted to rote learning which proved to be a less efficient approach (Cooper, 2004; Dahlin & Watkins, 2000). The participants in the study were strategic in deciding what to memorise (e.g. phrases and word collocations), both cognitive and behaviourally, and how to memorise (e.g. reviewing from time to time). This intentional memorisation contradicted Brookhart's (2017) conclusion that students tended not to purposely memorise feedback, since it required higher cognitive investigation. The study revealed three possible reasons for the difference: students' proficiency levels, students' beliefs in their own memorisation abilities and memorisation as a learning strategy. HP students, holding similar beliefs that memorisation contributed to their learning, predominantly reported taking either observable (e.g. taking notes in Sally's case and reading quietly in Flora's case) or mental actions to reinforce memory. A contractionary example was from Grace. Due to her belief that she would naturally memorise certain feedback points and that memorisation was not always essential, Grace chose to engage less cognitively with TWF.

Metacognitively, the students demonstrated their effort by referring to ODs, reading quietly, using an online writing platform (i.e. *Pigai*), marking key points and writing outlines.

Moreover, HP learners demonstrated more extensive metacognitive operations to achieve various metacognitive aims such as monitoring cognition, regulating attention and planning.

Noteworthy, the study revealed that the same visible behaviour (such as using online dictionaries, note taking and quiet-reading) could fulfil both cognitive and metacognitive roles (Oxford, 2011). A closer examination of individual cases revealed that the determining factor distinguishing these behaviours was the rationale driving students' selections of

different learning strategies and tools. For example, when Flora read certain expressions in her draft quietly to memorise, it was regarded as a manifestation of cognitive utilisation. Comparatively, when Flora employed quiet-reading to avoid getting distracted, it was understood as a metacognitive behaviour. Thus, when a tool/technique was activated to manage one's attention and reassess one's thoughts, they were regarded as metacognitive techniques (Flower and Hayes, 1981). When they were used to check meaning, reinforce memory and summarise, they served as cognitive tools (Dole, Nokes & Drita, 2014).

5.2-Cognitive engagement

In line with the classification from Han and F. Hyland (2015), cognitive engagement with TWF was found to encompass three sub-dimensions: depth of processing (DoP), cognitive commitment to comprehending TWF and making revisions, and metacognitive processing in regulating cognitive effort.

DoP, also termed the level of noticing, referred to the extent to which TWF was accurately comprehended (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a). Informed by the conceptualization of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies posited by Zimmerman and Schunk (2001) and Oxford (2011), the study revealed that students showed both cognitive and metacognitive engagement throughout the dimensions of reasoning, connecting and memorising as well as managing attention, planning, monitoring and evaluating respectively. More importantly, since little evidence was found concerning how cognitive and metacognition were activated and utilised during students' engagement with TWF, the study provided detailed explanations.

5.2.1-Depth of processing (DoP)

Generated from the current data, the study synthesised a more comprehensive classification of DoP, which included oversight (Os), error ignored (N-EI), error noticed (N-EN), accurate understanding (AU), inaccurate understanding (IU) and no understanding (NU). This supported the proposal from Nicolas-Conesa (2016), who argued that there were other possibilities besides the dichotomized categorization of DoP (i.e. noticing vs. understanding).

Compared to prior studies focusing on teacher oral feedback (e.g. Akbarzadeh, Saeidi & Chehreh, 2014; Taipale, 2012), the proportions of TWF being noticed (94.2%) in the study were higher, indicating that it was less possible for students to overlook the written form of feedback than its oral counterparts (Sheen, 2010). Yet, despite the small proportion of Os (2.7%), the study revealed two factors including the feedback appearance and the learners' carelessness that caused certain feedback to be missed. These factors will be further discussed in Sections 5.5 and 5.6.

Since prior studies seldom provided illustrations on the concepts of AU, IU and NU (e.g. Qi & Lapkin, 2001), the current study tried to advance this field of literature by a display of specific examples generated from the students' authentic learning experience. A general trend was detected where AU continued to increase from 61.2% to 67.9% over the research period. IU, Os and N-EI, despite the fluctuations, witnessed a decline to 21.2%, 2.6% and 1.9% respectively. In addition, AU was observed to be higher among HP students (73.9%), compared to its IM (67.3%) and LP peers (53.6%). Similar to the findings from students' modification behaviours, this general trend indicated that the variables such as students' English abilities, the number of writing tasks, and the length of the feedback-practice

experience may have a certain interaction with DoP.

5.2.2-Cognitive engagement

5.2.2.1-General trends

Broadly speaking, several general tendencies among HP/IM/LP students were found. HP learners connected their revisions with more diverse references and generated more successful revisions with the help of multiple cognitive engagement. In addition, they invested more effort in devoting TWF into memory.

In comparison, LP students not only failed to display evidence of memorising, but also exhibited passive attitudes towards memorisation skills. For some LP students, they seemed to mix up the concept of impression and memory (Ding, 2005). Both Tina (LP from Class B) and Grace (LP student from Class A) conveyed that after revision, they formed an impression of the errors. Thus, no additional cognitive processing should be involved.

For LP and some IM students, their awareness to engage cognitively was sometimes impeded by their L2 knowledge. For example, even when Stacy (LP student from Class A) was aware to enrich her vocabulary in her drafts, she was incapable of evaluating whether a specific word was advanced or not.

5.2.2.2-Reasoning and connecting

In terms of reasoning, all students with diverse language aptitudes were able to provide justifications for some of their linguistic errors. What they had more struggles with was validating their content arguments. The finding was in line with Sommer (1980) and Cheng and Liu (2022) that while the student writers were more equipped with knowledge in handling word- and phrase-level errors, they were deficient in justifying their ideas of their essays. One possible reason would be that L2 learners had less opportunity to reason their thoughts in the target language. Not only did the teachers' instruction focus more on linguistic issues (Wen, 2018), but also the feedback they received mostly emphasised grammatical errors (Lee, 2008a). Another reason might be the underlying difficulty to provide justification for feedback on global issues over local errors. Most feedback on global issues targeted content-related problems, which required higher levels of cognitive abilities and extensive levels of engagement since it inferred an integration of information taken from more than one sentence simultaneously and the abilities to summarise (Yu et al., 2019).

Different proficient students made connections with various resources to facilitate their revision. All the students reported connecting their current written feedback with the oral feedback offered in class. This confirmed Vardi's (2009) statement that the student writers made more modifications when they were exposed to both oral feedback pointing out general problems and written feedback targeting specific errors. This behaviour was also consistent with their perceptions towards oral feedback instruction since all participants considered it valuable and illuminating.

HP writers tended to be more proactive in taking advantage of novel resources and applying

fresh knowledge to their revision. This substantiated F. Hyland's (1998) remark that advanced learners were more prepared to take risks with their linguistic repertoire. In addition, they tended to transfer teacher comments to correct similar writing issues or amend their existing language hypothesis, whether the problematic features were in the current drafts or in prior drafts. A typical example would be Flora (HP student from Class B) who integrated TWF in her WH3 and WH4 to adjust her hypothesis on the necessity of the lead-in sentences in argumentative essays. This also highlighted the statement from Hendrickson (1980) that teachers were responsible for fostering a nurturing learning atmosphere where the students acknowledged that making errors was a normal and vital element in learning language.

5.2.3-Metacognitive engagement

How the students engaged with TWF metacognitively instituted four dimensions: managing attention, planning, monitoring, and evaluating. In a broad sense, it argued against Truscott's (1996, 1999) claim that while corrective feedback had value in students' noticing and correcting surface anomalies, it did not show an impact in fostering students' metacognitive awareness to reassess their linguistic hypothesis. The current study indicated that students employed different metacognitive strategies when tackling the writing issues raised by TWF.

5.2.3.1-General trends

Among the students with various language levels, HP students showed more diverse metacognitive cognition, compared to IM and LP learners. This agreed with Nisbet, Tindal, and Arroyo (2005) who concluded that students with higher English capabilities preferred to

use metacognitive strategies when developing their writing abilities. Specifically speaking, only HP students showed commitment to regulating attention at the beginning and during their engagement with TWF. To facilitate revision, HP students made judgements on which aspects of their writings deserved more attention (Oxford, 2011). Influenced by the assumed severity of their errors, they postponed undecided revisions for later investigation.

According to Macaro (2006), monitoring in the context of understanding TWF referred to going through the finished draft again before submission. Despite its commonality, the way learners reassessed their second drafts seemed to diverge among students with various English aptitudes.

HP learners approved the necessity and usefulness of this action and implemented it for each of their writing pieces, with some of them even monitoring a specific draft multiple times before submission. A segment of IM and LP learners regarded the final monitoring of their drafts as a routine practice, and thus did not implement it as frequently as HP students. Some reasons were found which mediated these metacognitive actions, including the sufficiency of their out-of-class time, the quality of their drafts and their L2 abilities.

It was also encouraging to observe two students who manifested shifts in monitoring their finished drafts in terms of metacognitive engagement. For example, Stacy's (LP student from Class A) casual attitude towards making revisions was modified from WH1 to WH2-4 when she discovered that the teacher still treated their revisions attentively. Consequently, she started to treat her revision more seriously by carrying out an evaluation of her completed draft before submission.

5.2.3.1-Planning

Planning as a metacognitive function in the study included deciding systematic steps for later revisions and planning to approach the teacher after revision. More evidence of planning was found in the form of seeking help from the teachers among students. This concurred with McCurdy (1992) that students utilised various strategies such as seeking help from the teachers when they had difficulties understanding feedback. In contrast, only one HP writer, Bonnie (HP student from Class B), reported designing what and how to revise before revision even when she performed well in her original draft.

However, a shift from no planning to a systematic planning before revision was observed in one LP student. This demonstrated that planning as a learning strategy could be fostered (MacArthur, Philippakos & Ianetta, 2014). This change resulted from a combination of factors including interaction with peers, the knowledge of a writing tool and a change in beliefs regarding revision. Motivated by her classmate, Tina (LP student from Class B) got to know an online platform (i.e. *Pigai*) and recognized the importance of revision. Thus, from WH3, she followed the sequence of looking through TWF, making corrections, uploading it to the platform, using dictionaries to check the suggested substitutions, and finally submitting the revised drafts.

5.2.3.2-Monitoring

Monitoring as a metacognitive operation was found to occur both during and at the end of students' processing of TWF. Concerning its targets, students not only monitored the quality of their revision, but also their thoughts when comprehending TWF.

In line with Han and Hyland's (2015) observations, the students commonly relied on their intuitions and ODs to reassess the accuracy of their *corrections* during revision. Building on this finding, the study revealed a deeper metacognitive engagement where some students reflected on the accuracy of their *thoughts* of TWF during revision. In addition, rereading was revealed to be a useful learning technique employed during the processing of TWF. Dunlosky et al. (2013) summarised from relevant studies on learning strategies that rereading was commonly used by students in their daily learning, but it did not always promote students' learning performance (Carrier, 2003). The study showed a controversial result that rereading was less frequently reported by students when engaged with feedback practice. One possible reason may relate to the nature of this strategy and students' awareness of it. The study relied heavily on students' verbal reports and interviews to explore their mental activities and processes. However, when students were unaware of certain revision strategies, it proved challenging to gather data (Cho, Woodward & Afflerbach, 2020). In addition, it was also demonstrated by some HP learners to facilitate their modifications. Different from randomly looking at several sentences many times during revision, the rereading revealed in the data was employed with specific purposes. For example, Bonnie (HP student from Class B) reread her texts and revision to get inspired whereas Queena (HP student from Class B) reread some excerpts to follow her original train of thought and made judgement consequently.

5.2.3.3-Evaluating

Evaluating was a less commonly mentioned strategy in prior feedback research (e.g. Han & Hyland, 2015 Zhang & Hyland, 2022). In the context of TWF, it is related to the actions of self-reflection on their learning practice and performance (Fredrick et al, 2004). For instance,

the data revealed that some students reflected on the usage of specific writing techniques and their writing strengths and weaknesses, which was triggered by their engagement with feedback.

Swain and Lapkin (1995) suggested that metacognitive processing may not always be accurate, which resulted in subsequent mistaken assumptions and flawed assumptions. The study enriched this finding by positing that limited L2 proficiency level mediated the accuracy of evaluating, which subsequently led to false beliefs, inaccurate writing conceptualization or inappropriate behaviour adjustment.

5.3-Affective engagement

Students' affective engagement included their attitudes in processing TWF, and the concrete emotions towards TWF (Ellis, 2010; Pekrun, 2006). Concerning attitude, the study not only unveiled students' perceptions of TWF *per se*, but also exposed their perceptions towards the relevant components of TWF, including the teachers as feedback providers and the compulsory nature of revised drafts. Regarding emotions, they were found to be diversified, with only a few recurring patterns.

5.3.1-Students' attitude

While the major aims were to see how students perceived TWF in general, the students also revealed attitudes towards their teachers and the practice of "writing a second draft". Overall, an affirmative perspective towards the teachers was discovered among all the students over the research period. In addition, their affirmative attitude was endorsed by their revision

behaviours since 92.43% of TWF points were attended to. This alignment was also reported in F. Hyland's (1998) observation that the students reported their appreciation of TWF by revising about 90% of their feedback-generated problems. Agreeing with Han and Hyland (2015) and Mahfoodh (2017), all the student writers described their feedback providers as responsible and attentive.

Likewise, a favourable outlook on the provision of TWF was found in the aspects of the quantity and the focus of the teacher comments. In general, the students expected extensive TWF, rather than selected feedback. This resonated with Chen and her colleagues (2016) who discovered a general affirmative stance on TWF but disagreed with Lee (2019) who argued for a detrimental influence of comprehensive corrective feedback on learner engagement based on prior studies. However, Lee's (2019) argument only concerned WCF whereas the current study reported evidence derived from TWF. Another factor could be the students' previous feedback experience since most students in the current study had minimal or no prior exposure to TWF on their drafts. Receiving TWF on their drafts during the study was the first time at university for the students to know their writing proficiency levels. Thus, the eagerness to receive more TWF was unsurprising (Lipnevich & Smith, 2009). The finding also extended Straub's (2000) proposition that feedback should be offered on content-related issues as an aim for genuine communication. The students in the study conveyed a preference for comprehensive feedback that constituted both grammatical corrections and content-related advice.

However, it should be noted that this overall supportive stance towards TWF and its related elements may be influenced by the nature of writing assignments (Han, 2019). The writing tasks in the study only served as daily learning practices and accounted for only about 15% of

students' overall course score. A possible scenario would be that as the weight of writing assignments rises, students may undergo a change in their perspectives on TWF.

In addition, some students recognized the limitations of TWF (e.g. the duration gap between submission and return of writing tasks, and its ineffectiveness to elaborate on content-related problems), and proposed suggestions for supplementary feedback sources (i.e. peer feedback and oral feedback). However, agreeing with Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006), the students also emphasised the complementary nature of other sources of feedback. In nature, they still relied on and expected teacher feedback over other sources of feedback. Especially in the Chinese context, students have been instructed to respect and listen to the teachers who are believed to always transmit accurate knowledge. Therefore, students have developed the beliefs that teachers always have the accurate answers (Ho & Ho, 2008; Li, 2012). Therefore, it was not surprising to see students, especially Chinese students, to rely heavily on TWF than other feedback sources.

Additional findings revealed that some students generated mixed perceptions towards the action of revision *per se*. Before they embarked on this action, their feelings were more prone to be negative, such as being annoyed and afraid. However, their common feelings became more positive when they realised the revision could improve their writing drafts and writing skills.

5.3.2-Students' emotion

Taking into account the complexity and multi-dimensional nature of emotions, the current study analysed students' emotions following the dimensional approach (Feldman & Barrett,

1998) and discrete approach (Ekman, 1992; Ekman, Friesen & Ellsworth, 2013). In addition, the categorization of emotion regulation of academic emotions from Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) also informed the current study. It should be noted that the coding and analysis were also grounded in my own study.

In total, 17 concrete emotions were detected. Unlike the 2*2 taxonomy of positive activation, positive deactivation, and negative activation, the study also revealed a novel category of “neutral”, when the students described their feelings with the descriptions such as “fine”, “calm” or “okay”. This overall revelation conflicted with Truscott’s (1996) statement that TWF constantly triggered negative emotions, since the positive experience of being enthusiastic, happy, passionate, surprised and relieved were all reported by the students. In addition, it supported Pavlenko (2013) that besides anxiety, language learners’ emotional world contained multiple opportunities to concentrate on which may illuminate future research (Weiner, 2007).

Generally, positive activation/deactivation, negative activation/deactivation and neutral emotions were found, which contradicted Truscott (1996) that only negative emotions could be triggered by teacher feedback. Specifically, 17 emotions were revealed, including feeling confused, embarrassed, enthusiastic, pressured, astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry, upset, helpless, disappointed, happy, passionate, surprised, relieved and calm. One possible reason why the current study revealed more emotions than Truscott has claimed might be that the current study delved into emotions in a nuanced manner, pinpointing specific emotions throughout students’ entire revision process. Evidence suggested that some students (e.g. Grace’s emotion changing from being nervous to calm) encountered strong negative emotions upon receiving feedback, but underwent changes in these emotions during and at

the end of revision.

Furthermore, such changes in emotions underscored an overlooked role of learner engagement—being as an emotional facilitator. Even when students demonstrated a limited level of engagement during revision, the very act of engaging with a particular learning activity held its importance. Through being engaged during revision, eight students demonstrated emotional changes, transitioning from negative feelings (e.g. embarrassed, nervous, upset etc.) to neutral (e.g. calm) or even positive states (e.g. happy, enthusiastic and passionate). This echoed the viewpoint of Hiver, Al-Hoorie, Vitta and Wu (2021), underscoring that learner engagement extended beyond a mere learning state and acted as a facilitator in the learning mechanism.

No specific patterns were found among students with different language abilities, nor were any general patterns found across different writing tasks. Emotional engagement showed its dynamic nature within individuals, across students and across the research time span. This agreed with Dörnyei and Malderez's (1997) statement that emotions were results from various dimensions alongside the learning procedure, thus it was less possible to find some general patterns, especially investigating them through qualitative methods.

Consistent with the assertion from Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016), the study revealed that an individual can experience both positive and negative emotions independently. It challenged the perceptions of a “seesaw” relationship between anxiety and enjoyment, where one went up, the other one must go down. The study built on statements from Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016) and suggested that students experienced happiness and confusion independently in a learning task. One student (i.e. Grace, LP student from Class A) also expressed feeling

embarrassed and enthusiastic. This validated the claim that emotion studies taking a dichotomy orientation may produce incomplete results.

The study also provided evidence of students' emotional regulation. However, only three types of regulation were revealed (Pekrun, 2006), including appraisal-driven regulation, problem-driven regulation and environment-driven regulation. Appraisal-driven was achieved by reassuring the value of writing and engagement in revision and boosting one's confidence in her/his own learning abilities. Environment-driven regulation was more often manifested in postponing revision time (also reported in Han & Hyland, 2015). Problem-oriented regulation occurred when students realised their learning insufficiencies (e.g. problems in logical reasoning; insufficient knowledge of writing topic sentences) and turned to extra-curriculum materials to directly address the weaknesses in learning (Pekrun, 2006).

Overall, the emotional engagement posed more difficulty to analyse since it revealed fewer general patterns. However, it did support Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia's (2012) argument that valence, activation and regulation should be taken into account. In addition, the study also confirmed that emotion was subject to change and can be mediated, which substantiated the role of learners as active mitigators who can use strategies to maximise the effect of affect in learning (Dewaele & Li, 2020).

5.4-Relations among cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions

Besides the findings on each dimension of student engagement, the current study also detected consistent and inconsistent relationships among the three dimensions. Even when students reported revising their drafts based on TWF, employing cognitive and metacognitive

strategies, devoting cognitive and metacognitive effort and generating emotions in processing TWF, the levels they displayed across these aspects may not always be the same (e.g. Zheng & Yu, 2018). For example, the way students consulted dictionaries differed since LP students tended to only focus on Chinese meanings of certain words while HP learners referred to English meaning and example sentences before they generated certain understandings of words or phrases.

5.4.1-Interaction between cognitive and behavioural engagement

Firstly, the awareness of one's cognition (i.e. metacognition) was the underlying factor when students decided how much attention should be allocated to process feedback (Oxford, 2011).

When students found that they were unable or uncertain about a feedback point, inherently, they made decisions on how to deal with this situation (Tian & Zhou, 2020). If they decided to probe into the confusion, they needed to take actions, which was often manifested through consulting dictionaries, asking friends or teachers, searching online, using computer software or referring to other learning materials (Han, 2019). If they decided to ignore such confusion, their corresponding modification behaviours would commonly be abandoning the feedback, leaving the feedback unchanged or making substitutions (Zheng & K. Hyland, 2018).

Moreover, if a feedback point was considered important/valuable, it also generated observable actions such as note-taking and memorisation.

When students acknowledged that their attention should be allocated and regulated during the revision process, they also adopted visible behaviours to achieve these purposes (Han, 2019). These behaviours included the employment of learning tools (ODs and writing platforms) and

learning strategies (e.g. writing outlines and marking on the drafts). These observations confirmed Oxford's (2011) claim that cognitive and metacognitive effort could be devoted through visible actions.

In addition, evaluating the efficiency of learning tools also impacted behavioural engagement. While Fanny's concern for using ODs did not change her behaviour of adopting this tool in later writing tasks, Cherry decided not to refer to online materials after serious consideration.

DoP was also found to influence students' modification behaviours (Pintrich & Schrauben, 1992; Qi & Lapkin, 2001). For example, students making accurate sense of TWF were more likely to generate accurate revisions. However, inconsistency was also detected since sometimes making mistaken sense or no sense of the teachers' comments still resulted in accurate revisions (e.g. Cheng & Liu, 2022). Three possible reasons were found to contribute to this inconsistency, including the provision of direct feedback (e.g. Han & F. Hyland, 2015), the students' beliefs in treating direct feedback (e.g. Han, 2019) and students' dependence on the teachers.

As mentioned before, when learners decided to tackle their uncertainties with TWF, they often carried out observable actions. These behaviours, in turn, mediated the level of cognitive engagement, since there were cases where students attained a better understanding of TWF by taking advantage of the external resources.

However, it should be noticed that merely observing the students' behaviours may not reveal the real picture of students' thinking (Zhao, 2010). For example, there were instances when

students referred to external assistance but failed to gain inspiration for understanding their TWF because of their English proficiency levels. In addition, this imbalance could also result from insufficient learning knowledge and beliefs. As exemplified by the student participants, Grace and Stacy, they did not refer to the autocorrect function of Word because of their unawareness of this method, not their inability to use this function.

5.4.2-Interaction between cognitive and affective engagement

A general trend was detected concerning cognitive and affective engagement. Despite the initial emotions, the majority of students became more positive and calmer after cognitively engaging with TWF. This provided empirical evidence for the control-value theory proposed by Pekrun (2006).

One of the claims proposed by the theory (Pekrun, 2006) was that students' academic emotions could be mediated and regulated by the value students attributed to a certain learning practice. During the revision process, some students experienced the benefits of engaging with TWF since they witnessed their drafts become a better version. As a result, they started to value the process of revision, which contributed to a modification of their emotions.

As claimed by Truscott (1996), negative emotions (e.g. feeling anxious) triggered by teacher corrective feedback prevented students from reacting to such practice. This study provided opposite findings since even with negative activating and deactivating emotions, students still attended to TWF and made revisions. More specifically, negative activation emotions seemed to generate higher behavioural and cognitive engagement. For example, Zora (HP student

from Class A) resorted to external learning materials to help improve her logic problems when she felt astonished with feedback. This agreed with Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) that highly activating negative emotions sometimes produced successful behaviour in less cognitively demanding activities.

5.4.3-Interaction between behavioural and affective engagement

Overall, a positive attitude towards TWF might not necessarily lead to extensive behavioural engagement. Students showed different types of modification behaviours and various examples of employing cognitive and metacognitive behaviours (Cheng & Liu, 2022).

In terms of how affect influenced behaviour, examples also showed its variety. For example, when students felt embarrassed after receiving TWF, this emotion inhibited them from seeking external help. When negative activating emotions such as annoyed and angry occurred, some students decided to put away the drafts for a few days. This agreed with Linnenbrink-Garcia et al., (2011) that activating negative emotions may deter students from getting engaged with a learning task. However, the current study also suggested that such influence could be temporary when emotion regulation was utilised.

5.5-Individual Factors

In the current study, the individual factors that impacted learner engagement with TWF included students' L2 proficiency levels (e.g. Sheen, 2010), students' motivations and learning goals (e.g. Goldstein, 2006), and learner beliefs towards one's own learning practice, feedback and writing practice, L2 learning and L2 writing (Han, 2017). However, it should be

noticed that these variables had the potential to influence learner engagement both positively and negatively. In addition, their impact on the three dimensions of engagement showed complex variations (Ellis, 2010; Han, 2019).

5.5.1-L2 proficiency levels

Broadly speaking, L2 proficiency levels were observed to be a general indicator of students' behaviour and cognitive engagement but it did not yield a major difference in students' affective dimension (Cheng & Liu, 2022). Extensive engagement among HP students was reflected in their deeper levels of mental processing feedback (i.e. cognitive engagement), a higher percentage of reaction behaviours to TWF (i.e. behavioural engagement) and more diverse and sophisticated employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies to achieve diverse objectives (i.e. behavioural engagement).

Accordingly, 94.7% of TWF was addressed by HP learners, followed by 92.1% and 91% among IM and LP students. Agreeing with Chandler (2003) who argued that language expertise provided the foundation for understanding TWF, the current study revealed that the ratio of an accurate comprehension of TWF reached 73.9% in the HP group, which was 6% and 19% higher than that in IM and LP student groups. A possible underlying reason might be related to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) from the sociocultural theories (Vygotsky, 1978). For more advanced students, their ZPD was different from their LP peers. Thus, there might be a possibility that TWF aligned more closely to the ZPD of HP learners who possessed a richer language base.

In terms of visible mental strategies, although HP students demonstrated a larger amount of

cognitive and metacognitive strategies during revision, the features that distinguished them from their less proficient counterparts were the way these strategies were utilised (Han & Hyland, 2015). This confirmed and extended Cohen's (1987) observation that HP learners not only acquired (either consciously or unconsciously) a larger database of cognitive and metacognitive techniques that awaited utilisation, but they also adopted these techniques in a more extensive way.

5.5.2-Learning goals and motivation

Generally, learning goals were found to be closely related to motivation levels (Csizer, 2021). In the study, when students' learning goals were closely related to English learning, their motivation to engage with TWF was high. Together, these two factors impacted the three dimensions of learner engagement (Goldstein, 2006; Hyland, 1998).

Compared to the non-English major students in Han and Hyland's study (2015), the majority of students in this study revealed that their learning goals were closely related to the English language, and demonstrated a higher motivational level in improving their English abilities either for intrinsic reasons or extrinsic purposes. In total, 16 out of 18 students reported their intrinsic interest in learning English, and 88% regarded English as pivotal for passing exams and for their future job hunting.

Moreover, from a general perspective, the higher the motivation was reported, the more extensive engagement was observed (Han, 2019). Helen (IM student from Class A), Zora (HP student from Class A), Flora (HP student from Class B) and Bonnie (HP student from Class B) reported strong motivation in English learning, and their overall engagement was both

diverse and extensive. This disagreed with Yu, Jiang and Zhou (2020) who revealed that feedback in its corrective function tended to reduce students' motivation and engagement in English writing. Attempts such as reviewing the revised drafts from time to time, jotting down set phrases in the notebook to memorise and resorting to other sources of learning materials were all evidence of their extensive levels of engagement respectively. In terms of affective dimensions, Zora demonstrated efforts in regulating her negative activating emotions by reevaluating the efficacy of the revised drafts, postponing the revision and improving her logical abilities.

In contrast, Stacy (LP student from Class A) and Joan (IM student from Class A) who perceived English as their second choice and had vague English-related learning goals, revealed limited motivation. This resulted in their marginalised cognition since they ignored and deleted the feedback as well as carried out limited actions when they did not understand the feedback. However, changes in Stacy's monitoring engagement were detected. When she realised that the teacher maintained her carefulness in detecting errors in the revised draft, she decided to treat her revision more seriously by conducting a final review henceforth. It also resulted in the formation of beliefs that reviewing a draft was important. While Han (2017) detected a change in beliefs towards L2 writing as a result of a conflict in cognition, the current study expanded the causes to include interpersonal guilt.

In addition, the interaction between motivation and engagement was also modified concerning specific TWF. When some students reported higher motivation to seek help from their teachers as an initial intention, not all of them reported subsequent actions (e.g. Iris, Grace and Fanny). Yet, this inconsistency between utterance and actions did not occur in a vacuum. They might be due to individual perceptions towards the severity of the errors and

their access to the teachers. The latter reason was confirmed by Xu and Want (2023) since one of their participants also attributed her unsuccessful help-seeking to the limited access to the teachers.

The study also revealed possible factors that led to the successful help-seeking from teachers. Queena demonstrated her prior preparation before consulting the teacher, where she highlighted the ambiguous revisions and noted down the specific questions concerning the error. All these initiatives propelled her to engage in a productive interaction with the instructor. This was in line with Egbert (2007) that prior preparation before seeking external help could facilitate the question-asking process. The behaviour of seeking help to understand TWF was defined by Papi and her colleagues (2020) as feedback-seeking behaviours, which was perceived as not only behaviours to address errors, but also opportunities to learn. Thus, the study, agreeing with F. Hyland (2010), argued that a new perspective should be formed which regarded TWF as a learning resource, rather than a learning outcome.

In sum, while L2 learning goals and motivation was discovered to have a possible influence on engagement, it is important to proceed with caution. The presumed impact of emotion on engagement in the study did not imply a cause-and-effect connection, since no students specifically mentioned that it was their high motivation that contributed to their specific engagement.

5.5.3-Beliefs

In the review of learner engagement with TWF, Han and Gao (2020) concluded that beliefs in writing knowledge and the different types of TWF influenced learner engagement. Building

on this statement, three categories of beliefs were detected: person-associated, writing-associated, and strategy-related (see Table 36). In addition, the beliefs could result in both limited and extensive engagement in the three dimensions.

Table 36: Three categories of learner beliefs and its sub-categories

Beliefs	Sub-categories
Person-associated	1) Perceptions towards one's characteristics 2) Perceptions towards peer assistance
Writing-associated	1) Beliefs in grammar learning 2) Beliefs in writing assignment 3) Beliefs in the recommended structures for specific writing genres 4) Beliefs in the types of TWF 5) Beliefs in revision 6) Beliefs in the severity of errors
Strategy-related	1) Beliefs in learning tools 2) Beliefs in writing strategies

Scholars demonstrated that core beliefs about one's traits were hard to change (Aragao, 2011; Mercer, 2011). The current study agreed with this conclusion since when the two students believed that they got distracted easily, their assumptions remained throughout the study. However, the study also provided positive evidence when the student recognized their flaws but identified methods to deal with them. Reflecting on her characteristics of losing focus easily, Flora formed strategies such as reading silently or using a pen to guide her attention to deal with this flaw. This provided empirical evidence in favour of Manchon (2009) who

proposed that central beliefs could be addressed with constant reflections.

Perceptions toward peer assistance, integrated with the focus of TWF and self-perception towards L2 proficiency levels mediated one's behavioural engagement (i.e. seeking help from peers). Queena initiated fewer discussions with her peers since she believed that she herself could solve most grammatical errors and peer support was insufficient to address content problems. This was validated by Bitchener and Ferris (2012) who discovered that some students preferred teacher feedback since they doubted the reliability of peer comments.

Writing-related beliefs also influenced behavioural, cognitive and affective engagement. For example, when grammatical errors (e.g. spelling) were considered less important, limited attention was attained in coping with and understanding them. Han (2017) also stated that mental effort directed to certain TWF was influenced by individual perceptions towards the severity of writing problems.

Perceptions towards revision and writing in general were proven to be changeable (Chen, Nassaji & Liu, 2016), as in the case of Joan. One of the reasons that led to this change was interpersonal communication with peers. Joan became clearer about how to improve writing and how to deal with revision after a chat with her friend. This specific interaction modified her beliefs, which contributed to her multidimensional engagement.

Specific beliefs could also be formulated by teacher instruction (Carless, 2019). To improve students' writing of the Test for English Majors-Band 4 (TEM4), Zoe in Class B specifically mentioned the structure including "lead-in sentence", "topic sentence" and "supporting detail". The information delivered through instruction became the main focus for some

students in Class B during their revision. For example, Flora (HP student from Class B) devoted extra effort to looking for sample essays and analysing key characteristics in good topic sentences. Beliefs in the benefit of following recommended structures resulted in the students' extensive cognitive resources allocated to these aspects, which influenced subsequent revision.

Engaging with TWF impacted one's belief, which again impacted on engagement (Han, 2019). When Bonnie (HP student from Class B) comprehended the teacher's recognition of her attempt to utilise unfamiliar words, she became more confident with her existing belief and incorporated it more in her future writing. Conversely, in Yu and his colleagues' (2021) study, when the student wrote some new expressions, the teacher criticised him/her for not following the basic sentence structures. Thus, the student was demotivated and stepped back into his/her comfort zone by repetitively using familiar language or structures. Thus, the implementation of learning strategies might be influenced by teachers' reactions, which mirror their own teaching philosophy and beliefs. (Zohar & David, 2008).

Beliefs in specific learning tools (e.g. online dictionaries and online writing platforms) and writing strategies helped students judge the accuracy and quality of their revision and writing (Kim, 2018). The strategy of rereading the task questions (Yu & Yu, 2018), summarising one's strengths and weaknesses after receiving TWF, and reviewing after completion of the drafts were all reported to be experiences from prior formal instruction. All this specific knowledge had a direct influence on students' engagement with feedback (e.g. Ard, 1982; Fan, 2003). However, it also revealed an interaction between one's beliefs in using strategies, learning goals and motivation. The unclarity of Sally's future goals was reflected in her demotivation to use the notebooks sufficiently, although she was aware of how to maximise

the effects of using notebooks. As posited by Teunissen (2013), whether one's knowledge and beliefs were carried out as valid actions was mediated by students' learning goals and motivation.

5.6-Contextual Factors

In terms of the second set of influencing factors, contextual factors were found to influence how students engaged with feedback. In line with Han (2019), how TWF was provided, perceived, processed and utilised was situated with different layers of contexts ranging from the micro-level to the macro-level (Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010). To be specific, contextual levels that emerged in the study included technological, sociocultural, institutional, instructional, interpersonal and textual levels.

5.6.1-Technological context

The past decade has brought forth new technology including mobile computing devices such as smartphones and iPad. Contemporary students have been referred to as “digital natives” (Oxford & Lin, 2011, p. 157), who have been surrounded by and exposed to digital technologies and have utilised digital technologies for their everyday life activities. One of the most common digital technologies would be smartphones and the utilisation of mobile phones by university students in their daily life is obvious and undeniable (Chinnery, 2006).

Because of its ubiquitousness, some teachers have included it as a teaching tool. For example, students received email through their mobile phones to attend virtual English lessons in Japan (Thornton & Houser, 2005). Learners in Iran received vocabulary and reading training

through the use of short message services offered on their mobile phones (Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011). In the context of China, smartphones were more often regarded by the teacher as mediums for issuing formal notice or initiating informal chats. The teachers seldom realised that some of their students could solely rely on their mobile phones over laptops or computers to finish their learning tasks (confirmed by interviews from the teachers).

The current study revealed that under this context, the usage of autocorrection function of Word should not be perceived as common sense. Two students revealed ignorant of the basic function of Word (i.e. autocorrective function) on laptops or computers, which explained why they did not resort to this tool in their first two writing tasks. It was until the second semester when they were required to hand in electronic copies of their drafts, they found out about this function. Consequently, they changed to using laptops rather than mobile phones in WH3 and WH4 and the corresponding revisions.

5.6.2-Sociocultural context

While prior students majorly compared EFL and ESL settings, the current study revealed that besides the EFL environment, cultural variables also impacted how students responded to TWF (Rendell et al., 2011).

5.6.2.1-EFL settings

According to Winston et al. (2017), students in an EFL context had less opportunity to receive TWF on their drafts compared to their peers in an ESL context. Especially in the context of China, students were less frequently exposed to multiple drafts in writing and

individualised feedback (Lam, 2015). This was confirmed by the current study that only a small portion of students had feedback experience during their entire English learning experience. The limited exposure to feedback was the major reason why students cherished feedback, critiqued less on the way TWF was provided and reported appreciation to the teachers (Stanley, 2013). Moreover, their appreciation and thankfulness resulted in a higher proportion of responding rate to teacher comments.

Besides confirming the difference between ESL and EFL contexts, the feedback context in mainland China was also observed to be different from that in Hong Kong, which was assumed to bear a similar teaching content. Lee (2008b) found out that the teacher participants in one school were not even allowed to provide indirect feedback with no codes or comments. This confirmed that even within a similar EFL context, the content where TWF was embedded could be different.

5.6.2.2-Chinese culture

Cultural environment also shaped learner engagement in both positive and negative ways. Regardless of students' proficiency levels, most students in China still regarded their teachers as authorities and believed that teachers should be treated with respect (Tan, 2007). Thus, TWF was inevitably understood within this special context where an implicit knowledge of this power relationship occurred.

The advantageous aspect of the authoritative nature in China was proven by Fanny (LP student from Class B). When she was aware that the teacher did not expect them to copy their direct feedback, she instantly started to abandon her original strategy and started looking for

her own answers, which triggered a deeper level of cognitive engagement resulting from autonomous learning. According to Zhu (2022), students in the Confucius-influencing culture were instructed to listen to their teachers and follow the rules. Fanny (LP student from Class B) exactly indicated this deep-rooted norm.

Its negative impact was evident in Iris (LP student from Class B) who perceived the teacher as an authoritative and somewhat threatening figure. She did not dare to consult the teacher for help throughout the research period. However, her unwillingness was also a result of her prior negative experience with an impatient teacher. Even for some advanced students, they feel hesitant to approach the teacher for their concerns. Sally (HP student from Class A) chose not to approach the teacher for help and resolved her confusions independently because she found it hard to get access to the teacher. Due to the large class size, there were always many students waiting to ask questions at the end of class. Bonnie (HP student from Class B) and Ruby (HP student from Class A) did not bother the teacher because they believed that it was disrespectful to consult the teacher with trivial writing concerns. Consequently, their confusion when no feedback was given on certain writing aspects remained unsolved throughout the study. This concurred with Hu (2022) who found that students were serious about consulting the teachers since they did not want the teachers to think they were wasting their time. According to Ferris (2004), a lack of error feedback may cause students' anxiousness and nervousness. The study built on Ferris' conclusion that from the students' perspectives, when feedback was not addressing specific aspects of one's writing, the students did not necessarily understand it as problem-free.

Bonnie (HP student from Class B) and Ruby's (HP student from Class A) instances shed light on why students decided to ask the teachers for some problems but not for others. Learner

beliefs in the severity of errors, their prior experience and the subtle influence from the culture interacted with each other which resulted in a certain decision towards TWF.

5.6.3-Institutional context

In alignment with the findings from Zhang and K. Hyland (2018), institutional factors were identified as potential mediators of learner engagement. Zhang and K. Hyland (2018) revealed a direct relationship between learner engagement and institutional factors, proposing that a lack of revision culture might cause students not to appreciate teacher feedback. However, the current study, while validating the impact of institutional contexts on engagement levels, identified institutional contexts as an indirect determinant. To elaborate, institutional policies impacted the focus of teaching content and the particular teaching activities, and these factors subsequently influenced student engagement (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli & Pickeral, 2009).

University-level policy sometimes aimed to regulate the teachers and promote novel teaching approaches, fostering an environment that encouraged teachers to unlock their full potential (Robinson & McMillan, 2006). In the study, two policies were identified to greatly shape the teaching and feedback practice. Firstly, there has been an increased emphasis on TEM4 by the university in recent years. Secondly, set rules were in place which required the teachers to deliver written feedback and demand revised drafts.

Both teachers complied strictly with the two policies, as evidenced by the way they elaborated on TEM4 writing and how they enforced the compulsory revised drafts. These practices subsequently had a significant impact on the students. The mandate of a second

draft evoked a higher level of behavioural and affective engagement. Clark (1993) stated that demanding students to rewrite the same draft intensively was not conducive to learning engagement. Yu, Jiang and Zhou (2020) also questioned the application of process-oriented writing since it elicited learning anxiety, led to risk avoidance and generated a sense of losing control in writing. The study advocated a more positive perspective on the practice of multiple drafts, as some student participants reported its value in fostering deeper engagement. For example, while mixed feelings were reported by some students upon receiving feedback, most of them reported an emotional trajectory from negativity to neutrality or even positivity. Thus, by exploring learner engagement from a nuanced perspective, different findings may be generated (Duijnhouwer, Prins, and Stokking, 2012; Yu, Jiang & Zhou, 2020).

The study also revealed the possible underlying reasons why the two teachers strictly followed the policies. Lee (2008, p.79) explained this compliance as “accountability” and explained that teachers carried out certain policies because of the accountability built in the context.

The study expanded on this finding to suggest that teachers’ behaviours were also a result of their teaching beliefs (Goldstein, 2004; Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). In addition, different beliefs can breed the same behaviour (Han, 2017). While both teachers explained that one of the reasons for their obedience was that they would be punished if not following the rule, they also revealed their beliefs which concurred with the policies. Anna followed the requirement because she believed that various teaching methods had a marginalised effect on students’ learning, unless the students themselves wanted to learn. Zoe believed in the practical value of the requirement from the Department, and thus followed it.

In sum, institutional context influenced learner engagement through an agent, which was normally the teachers (Han, 2019). Thus, the real institutional context occurred after an integration made by the teachers with their own teaching philosophy.

5.6.4-Instructional context

The instructional context contained the teaching content of the target course (i.e. FEC), the way knowledge and information were imparted and the arrangement of each class.

The content of instruction and the way they were delivered affected students' engagement (Goldstein, 2006). Before assigning the first writing homework, both teachers used Word documents to illustrate the marking criteria for writing to the whole class (see Appendix S). While both teachers mentioned that they highlighted the marking standards (which were primarily based on TEM4) for students' drafts and revisions, a great number of students did not recognize this effort (supported by their interviews) and consequently reported their unclearness about the marking criteria.

As suggested by Joughin (2008), when teachers familiarised their students with the marking standards of learning activities, they often neglected to connect these standards with concrete examples. When these standards were provided from a context-free perspective, it became difficult for the students to produce concrete knowledge representations. This probably explained the discrepancy between the teachers' assumed effect of the knowledge and the students' reception of the knowledge (Hamp-Lyons, 2001). Class observation confirmed that both teachers explicitly explained the writing criteria of TEM4. Even when there were

general marking criteria in each writing prompt, the students seemed to neglect them unless they were elaborated on by the teachers.

Agreeing with Cheng and Liu (2022), information from textbooks was seldom referred to in students' revision process. Possible reasons would be that the content taught in the textbooks had limited connection with the specific writing drafts. However, the study detected that oral feedback instruction, as a part of classroom instruction, was more often referred to in students' revision (Han & Hyland, 2015). Eight students reported gaining benefits from the oral feedback in facilitating their engagement rather than from the textbook instruction. This could be explained by the course design required by the Department of English and the University. When the Department hoped to promote students' writing abilities, they required TWF. However, without careful consideration to integrate the feedback practice with the course content, it limited the chance where students can benefit from teaching content.

As Lambert (2017) and Phung (2017) argued, learning pedagogy should be carefully considered for possible engagement. In general, course designers need to be more attentive to the issue of what could be more engaging for the learners. For specific tasks, they should be delivered in a supportive environment. In this way, the tasks served as additional opportunities where learners could build upon and expand their knowledge.

An asynchronous interaction between individual and contextual factors was found (Han, 2019). While instructional content changed one's beliefs in using an online writing platform (e.g. *Pigai*), an asynchronous interaction was found between the different beliefs and the quality of writing. Jack (LP student from Class A) recognized the need for *Pigai*, but when he found her content was less problematic, he seldom resorted to *Pigai* for reviewing.

Knowledge of using the online platform (i.e. *Pigai*) was a result of Anna's instruction, which subsequently facilitated students' monitoring behaviours. However, its usage was subject to change when interacting with the quality of writing drafts and personal beliefs (e.g. Jack, LP student from Class A, revision for WH3).

The current study also revealed the impact of students' engagement on the instructional context (Hiver, Al-Hoorie & Mercer, 2020). After reading the first and second drafts of the students, Zoe recognized students' insufficiency in organising a TEM4 essay. Thus, she devoted some time in her oral feedback instruction to introduce the concept of "lead-in sentences", "topic sentences" and "supporting details". From the second WH in Class B, there was a drop in students' organisation problems to suit specific writing genres, since they tried to form their paragraphs following the specific organisations. This highlighted the proposal from Goldstein (2004) that for engagement to take place, there should be communication not solely from the teacher to the student, but also in a reverse trend. The engagement patterns found among students should be related to the instructional content (Goldstein, 2006). These tailor-made instructions could improve the effectiveness of learning and generate subsequent engagement.

5.6.5-Interactional context

In terms of the interpersonal context, the study revealed both the student-teacher interactions and the student-student interactions, with both influencing the way students engaged with TWF.

In terms of the student-teacher interaction, asking the teacher for help was a main approach to

enhance feedback comprehension. However, the opportunities to ask teachers for help were influenced by the instructional level of contexts (Kahu, 2013). This was proven by the increasing number of Class B students (i.e. 6 students) consulting the teacher about their WH2, where the teacher left about 15 minutes for open discussions before class completion.

In addition, this relaxed and proactive atmosphere in turn influenced students' immediate engagement with TWF. The specific engagement from Tina (LP student from Class B) also had a subsequent effect in changing her beliefs. Originally, Tina did not dare to ask the teacher, but inspired by her surrounding environment, she carried out the action. Accordingly, she gained a positive teacher-student interaction experience, which altered her belief that asking the teacher was not that intimidating.

Peer interaction was also found to influence student engagement with TWF (Zheng & Yu, 2018). For example, 5 students developed a neutral affect when they found that they performed equally well as their peers. Tina (LP student from Class B) changed her planning technique because of a chat with her friend. This interpersonal interaction also altered her beliefs in the importance of making revision. As a result, her subsequent revision behaviour became more careful and even included serious planning by using tools such as *Pigai*. Joan (IM student from Class A) also benefited from peer interaction where she engaged more enthusiastically with WH4. The chat between her friend and herself modified her perceptions towards revision and L2 writing.

Conversely, peer interaction could also negatively impact affective engagement. Cherry changed her emotion from being neutral to upset when she discovered that her friends wrote a better article than her.

5.6.6-Textual context

Textual level referred to the most immediate level of context embedded by TWF. It encompassed the overall quality of writing drafts reflected by TWF and the characteristic of TWF (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). In the study, the characteristics included the focus of TWF, the quantity of TWF and the corrective or affirmative nature of TWF.

Generally, the quantity of TWF directly influenced the quantity of revision behaviours. However, it did not necessarily lead to successful revision (Carless, Salter, Yang & Lam, 2011). While students in the current study held a positive attitude and seemed to desire more feedback and assumed that more feedback meant more care from the teacher, one of the students from Han and Hyland's (2015) study felt overwhelmed when she received more feedback than she expected. Furthermore, these negative feelings impeded her subsequent revision since she found it hard to concentrate and constantly felt worried about her writing in revision.

According to Ferris (2004), a lack of error feedback may cause students' anxiousness and nervousness. The study built on Ferris' conclusion that from the students' perspectives, no feedback (regardless of error correction or ideational feedback) did not always send the message of doing well in students' writing drafts. When TWF did not address a certain aspect (e.g. grammar or content), it triggered negative activating emotions such as confusion and perplexity. While the two HP students in the study made no revisions because no content feedback was offered, their mind was not put at ease. Their concerns reoccurred when they encountered a similar occurrence. Two reasons were found. Firstly, even for HP students,

they may lack the ability to judge the quality of writing drafts and thus desired content-focused feedback (Chen & Cheng, 2008). Secondly, there was a lack of alignment between the teacher and the students concerning the provision of feedback. However, influenced by the Chinese learning context, they did not want to disturb the teacher with this trivial matter.

The quality of the writing drafts did not induce a general pattern of student engagement. However, together with students' beliefs in the quality of their original drafts (Hyland, 1998), a general trend in the affective dimension was revealed. When the overall quality was higher/below/equal to the presumed performance of the original draft, students' emotions ranged from happy, upset to neutral (Small & Attree, 2016). In addition, it also revealed that when certain TWF exceeded the students' ZPD, their immediate emotion would be negative deactivating. This subsequently resulted in their marginalized attempt to revise and carry out cognitive operations. As Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) argued, correction held great responsibility for language learning. Teachers as one of the major sources of feedback should be cautious about the L2 levels among their learners.

Feedback delivered as praise engaged students differently in the study. Some students felt content with praises and allocated mental attention to memorising the particular praises which highlighted their strengths (Zhou, Yu & Wu, 2022). This agreed with Akbar and Al-Gharabally (2020) who found that the treatment groups receiving praises about their learning effort made greater improvement than the control group who received no feedback. It also confirmed Brookhart's (2010) statement that TWF can have a motivational nature. Because of the teacher's praise, Ruby formed the idea that her prior effort in writing the draft was meaningful. Consequently, she expressed willingness to devote more time and effort to her L2 writing practice in order to foster her writing capabilities. However, when praises were

misunderstood, its effect became limited.

Additionally, praise delivered on students' drafts also triggered students' happiness. This concurred with Bardine (1999) that positive comments assisted students in pinpointing the productive elements in their texts which could be applied for future use. Furthermore, praise was also found to trigger memorisation operations. When students received compliments, they tended to memorise them and tried to apply these into future writing tasks (Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

Limited evidence notwithstanding, writing topics (i.e. particular ideas assigned for discussion by writers), together with one's beliefs in writing, were found to influence learner engagement. Jack (LP student from Class A) engaged more extensively in behavioural (e.g. using *Pigai* to monitor), cognitive (e.g. evaluating and monitoring) and affective dimensions (e.g. relieved) with WH2, because he was not satisfied with the content of his original draft. This corresponded with his belief that he regarded writing drafts as a way to express himself. This finding was seldom revealed in prior studies. Little attempt had tried to detect whether the characteristics of specific writing tasks affected students' responses to feedback. Graham (2006) found no relationship between writing genre and students' writing performance. When comparing written feedback in different genres (i.e. journal, letter and composition), Kang and Han (2016) suggested that the responses to journal writings had a lower effect size. However, the study did not include argumentative essays and the topics for the various genres were also not concerned.

While prior studies comparing various types of feedback with students' processing behaviours yielded inconsistent results, the current study also revealed that engagement with

various characteristics of TWF did not always produce a general trend. Students reacted to various TWF in individual ways (Han & Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018).

5.7-Summary

To conclude, students showed their behavioural, cognitive and affective engagement with TWF in various degrees. The relationships among the three dimensions were also detected, which displayed complexity and changeability. To explain the dynamic, complex and changeable nature of student engagement with TWF, a range of student-related factors and contextual factors that students based their engagement on were detected. It was highlighted that even within the same writing task, and within the same student, their engagement with specific feedback points was different.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

In this concluding chapter, major findings concerning learner engagement with teacher written feedback (TWF) from behavioural, cognitive and affective dimensions will be summarised, together with the individual and contextual factors. Then, the significance of the current study in the theoretical, practical and pedagogical perspectives will be presented. Finally, it ends with a summary of the limitations and suggestions for future research.

6.1-Major findings

The current qualitative and longitudinal study, adopting a case study approach, sought to explore how Chinese English-major university students cognitively, behaviourally and affectively engaged with TWF. The investigation aimed for an in-depth, comprehensive and contextual comprehension of student engagement, examining the individual and contextual factors that mediated learner engagement.

SSU, an average university in mainland China was selected as the case and specifically, two teachers and eighteen of their students of high, intermediate and low English proficiency levels were recruited as participants (nine students in each class). Multiple data sources were employed to triangulate data, including students' writing homework, corresponding TWF, retrospective immediate verbal reports, classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, classroom documents and any teaching and learning materials mentioned in verbal reports and interviews.

The exploration of students' behavioural engagement included modification behaviours and

their observable actions in applying cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Promisingly, the majority of writing problems were addressed by students, regardless of their proficiency levels. Besides solely focusing on whether TWF was responded to or not, eight specific modification types were detected: accurately follow (AF), new content (NewC), initial stimulus (IS), incorrect correction (IC), no correction (NC), rewriting (Rw), deletion (DI) and substitution (St). AF and NewC were the top 2 revision types among all students, but students with high proficiency (HP) levels were found to make less IC than students with intermediate (IM) and low proficiency (LP) levels.

Surprising findings were revealed concerning revision behaviours. Firstly, NC did not always mean that students cared less about feedback, but may appear as a result of serious considerations. Some students in the study decided to leave the feedback unchanged after doing some research and finally decided that their original draft was more appropriate. In addition, disagreeing with Ferris and Roberts (2001) that direct feedback led to students' direct copy without truly understanding the feedback, the current study revealed that some students gave some thought of their own revisions even when direct feedback was provided.

Compared to prior findings (e.g. Han and F. Hyland, 2015; Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018), the study revealed more visible operations. Observable actions in utilising cognitive strategies included referring to external resources (e.g. online dictionaries, online materials, peer support, extra teacher support, notebooks, textbooks and software), taking notes and reading quietly. The utilisation of metacognitive strategies was visible through the use of online dictionaries, online writing platforms, marking on writing drafts, writing outlines and also reading quietly.

Overall, students of various English capacities showed their engagement in employing certain learning tools. It was noteworthy that the usages of a technique/tool should be observed carefully before determining its cognitive/metacognitive nature (Graham, 2006). For example, reading quietly was observed by the same students to memorise as well as to monitor, with the former being cognitive and the latter being metacognitive in nature. The study also suggested that the quantity of external resources and the frequency of memorisation skills did not directly indicate deep behavioural engagement. Rather, it was how these resources were used that impacted the level of behavioural engagement. HP students were observed to utilise both cognitive and metacognitive strategies at a deeper level than IM and LP students. However, the study also revealed that even for the same student, how learning strategies were employed to treat each feedback point did not remain static.

Three aspects were taken into account in exploring students' cognitive engagement, encompassing the extent to which students noticed and comprehend TWF (i.e. depth of processing), students' mental employment of cognitive strategies and their utilisation of metacognitive strategies.

In sum, six levels of processing were found: oversight, error ignored, error noticed, accurate understanding (AU), inaccurate understanding (IU) and no understanding (NU). Overall, students showed a higher percentage of AU than that of other categorizations. In addition, HP learners reported a higher AU rate than IM and LP learners whereas LP students generated more cases of NU than their peers. Noteworthy, in line with the prior finding (Han & Hyland, 2015), it should not be taken for granted that the written format of feedback was always noticeable, since students of various proficiency levels all reported instances where they did not even notice the feedback. In addition, DoP was not always an unconscious

cognitive action. Some students chose how deeply they would like to process the feedback for various reasons. For example, some students chose to neglect a particular writing error rather than explore its underlying reasons because they did not think the error was severe enough to deserve such cognitive engagement.

Regarding cognitive and metacognitive strategies, they were found by all students to achieve different learning purposes. Cognitive strategies were employed to provide reasoning, make connections and foster memorisation. To be specific, reasoning referred to the situations where students justified certain TWF and their revisions. However, what was rarely revealed by previous studies (e.g. Zhang & K. Hyland, 2018) was that all students reported difficulties in explaining their content arguments, especially when the feedback was provided indirectly with only underlining (or sometimes together with a question mark). Making connections was found to be commonly adopted, where students related their current TWF with specific oral feedback, with their first and second drafts and with other teacher feedback. One surprising revelation that surfaced in the data was that even for praises, some students made connections with what they had already written to better understand why their writings deserved those praises. In terms of memorisation, not only did students memorise unfamiliar writing expressions highlighted by TWF, they also tried to remember their strengths and weaknesses in writing which were believed to benefit future writing.

Metacognitive strategies were found to serve the purposes of managing attention, planning, monitoring and evaluating. Specifically, managing attention was adopted when students needed to address what was considered the most important writing issues over others.

Planning included making systematic revision steps to guide their revisions, and make decisions to ask the teacher after revision. Monitoring referred to making an overview of the

finished drafts at the end of revision and monitoring the accuracy of certain revisions and one's comprehension during the revising process. Lastly, evaluating was found to take the form of self-reflection, which was rarely reported in previous findings (e.g. Tian & Zhou, 2020; Zheng & Yu, 2018). Some students reported reflecting on the usefulness of certain learning tools (e.g. ODs and online materials), their recent learning status and their writing strengths and weaknesses.

The third research focus was students' affective engagement, which included students' attitudes and specific emotions generated when engaging with TWF. Generally, all the students expressed positive attitudes not only towards TWF, but also towards the teachers and the practice of writing a second draft. Some students also provided suggestions for oral and peer feedback to compensate for the weaknesses of written feedback, however they still considered TWF to be the most important feedback source they would like to receive.

In terms of specific emotions, the study provided more novel findings. Firstly, more discrete emotions were detected in students' engagement with TWF, including being confused, embarrassed, enthusiastic, pressured, astonished, nervous, afraid, annoyed, angry, upset, helpless, disappointed, happy, passionate, surprised, relieved and calm. This challenged Truscott's (1996) statement that TWF only triggered negative emotions. In addition, the study validated the categorization from Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) that both valence (i.e. positive and negative) and activation (i.e. activating and deactivating) should be considered when analysing academic emotions. Moreover, neutral was detected to be an additional sub-categorization of valence and activation.

While Truscott (1996) posited that teacher feedback only caused negative emotions that

inhibited learning, the current study revealed that negative activating emotions and some negative deactivating emotions triggered students to be more engaged with TWF.

Furthermore, it was also argued that students consciously or unconsciously regulated their emotions so that they could be more engaged with learning (Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011). For example, postponing revision time, adjusting one's beliefs in oneself, and reassuring the impact of TWF on one's learning were all regulation strategies students employed to deal with their emotions.

The study also revealed that the three dimensions of student engagement were interrelated, but their relationship was not always symmetrical. For example, a deeper cognitive engagement level may not always lead to successful revision. In contrast, a successful revision did not always indicate extensive cognitive engagement. A general positive attitude towards TWF did not indicate that each student engaged with TWF at the same level in the cognitive and behavioural dimensions. Negative activating/deactivating emotions could sometimes trigger higher cognitive and behavioural engagement whereas positive deactivation emotions sometimes resulted in limited behavioural engagement (e.g. feeling satisfied with the praises without confirming whether they suited the writing drafts or not).

In addition, through cross-student and within-student comparisons, the study found that there existed many writer-related and context-related factors that influenced EFL students' engagement with TWF, which explained why there were changes in learner engagement.

In terms of individual factors, L2 proficiency levels, students' goals and motivation and learning beliefs were all found to influence student engagement with TWF. Among them, proficiency levels were found to influence more often on behavioural and cognitive

engagement, compared to the affective dimensions of learner engagement. L2 goals were found to be closely related to learning motivation, and together they guided students' reactions to TWF. In terms of learning beliefs, they were found to be person-associated, writing-associated and strategy-related. All these various beliefs influenced students' decisions on how deeply they wanted to engage with TWF. In turn, the engagement with TWF also shaped students' beliefs, which may have a delayed impact on students' subsequent engagement behaviours.

A variety of contextual factors were found to influence learner engagement with TWF, including both macro-level and micro-level. To be specific, it included technological, sociocultural, institutional, instructional, interactional and textual contexts. Technological context included the learning contexts where digital technologies were employed in the teaching and learning of the English language. Sociocultural contexts included both English as a foreign language (EFL) and Chinese culture contexts. Institutions referred to the impacts from the specific learning institutions (i.e. the target university) on the teaching content and teaching practice, which impacted how feedback was delivered. Instructional context narrowed down its focus to the specific teaching course, including what and how teaching information was delivered and the class arrangement of each teaching class. While student-teacher interactions were commonly found to influence student engagement with TWF, student-student interactions were also found in the current study, and these two forms of interactions constituted the interaction layer of context. Finally, it was the immediate textual-level context, indicating the overall quality of writing drafts reflected by TWF and the characteristic of TWF (i.e. the quantity, the focuses, and its corrective or affirmative nature). All these layers of factors were found to mediate student engagement.

However, one significant conclusion of the two sets of factors was that whether their impact was negative or positive was less static, since they were found to be intertwined with each other. For a specific instance of engagement decision and action, they possibly resulted from an integration of several individual and contextual factors.

6.2-Theoretical, practical and pedagogical implications

The study has contributed to the research on TWF in theoretical, practical and pedagogical aspects.

6.2.1-Theoretical implications

Generally speaking, since the current study is one of the few studies that focus on TWF rather than WCF, it expands the existing understanding of TWF, validates the multidimensional nature of learner engagement with TWF and deepens our understanding of the intricacy of learner engagement with TWF. Multiple evidence has been found that students have demonstrated different levels of engagement in behavioural, cognitive and affective dimensions. It has suggested that relying on a sole perspective on engagement with TWF could lead to inconclusive findings. Meanwhile, through a longitudinal study, variations in the levels of engagement with TWF have been observed, affirming the dynamic and intricate nature of learner engagement. More importantly, the thick data collected during the prolonged research period has provided insights into the reasons behind different engagement behaviours and the specific changes. One essential conclusion has highlighted that individual and contextual factors should be recognized as a synergy of elements in affecting specific engagement levels, rather than being dismissed as background noises during learning

processes.

The study holds particular significance in terms of conceptualizing and comprehending students' affective engagement, an area that has not received adequate attention, as highlighted by Han and Gao (2020). To begin with, the study has recognized that students could generate entirely different specific emotions before, during and after the revision process. Therefore, prior findings which only revealed a general emotional status among student participants may portray an incomplete picture of learners' affective engagement. Moreover, the results challenge the conventional theoretical stance towards emotional research, which has primarily concentrated on negative emotions in L2 studies, such as language anxiety—a topic that has been under scrutiny for decades (MacIntyre, 2017). This corresponds with the recent shift in L2 emotional research to embrace a holistic outlook, underscoring an equal consideration of both positive and negative emotions and their intertwined effects on students' learning experiences and outcomes (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

In addition, the study introduces an alternate perspective to explore academic emotions in terms of valence (i.e. negative vs. positive) and activation (i.e. activation vs. deactivation), rather than the original dichotomized conceptualization of emotion research which often presupposes that negative emotions have detrimental effects on L2 learning (Russell & Carroll, 1999). The study has found that negative (activating/deactivating) emotions do not always correlate with limited levels of engagement, as they could be influenced by other emotional status or regulated by individual students. Additionally, it has been found that positive emotions do not necessarily translate into intensive engagement levels. For instance, experiencing happiness and satisfaction with particular written feedback could lead to an

overall contentment with the writing drafts, thereby lacking motivation to engage more with TWF. Overall, the theoretical perspectives on emotional research within academic contexts are not only valuable for feedback researchers, but also for L2 and SLA scholars. It provides future researchers possible directions to explore specific emotions evoked during learning tasks, thereby enriching SLA research with more individual and nuanced findings (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014).

Moreover, the study contributes to a refined conceptualization of student engagement with TWF by adding meta-affective regulation as a subcategory of affective engagement. The students in the study showed that they not only generated specific emotions during their processing of TWF, but also deployed regulation strategies to tackle specific emotions. The findings have provided two insights. First, particular emotions could mediate the extent of students' engagement, illustrating the interplay relationship among behavioural, affective and cognitive dimensions. Second, students have proven to be proactive learning agents who sometimes take advantage of their emotions in helping their L2 writing and learning (Perpignan et al., 2007), rather than getting carried away by their emotions. In addition, the study has also revealed that students' regulation behaviours are not static and random, but could be influenced by certain individual and contextual factors. Overall, by incorporating this new sub-category, the multifaceted concept of learner engagement has become more comprehensive, offering a theoretical framework to generate a more comprehensive understanding of learner engagement with TWF.

6.2.2-Practical implications

Han and Gao (2020) have stated that one of the limitations on learner engagement with

feedback is the unclear descriptions of concepts. The current exploration has provided more detailed explanations of each sub-dimension of learner engagement, serving as potential operational definitions. The provision of detailed information in the data construction and coding and analysis sections (see Appendix O and Appendix P) serves as helpful guidance for researchers who are designing empirical studies on learner engagement, be it with TWF or other specific learning activities. Moreover, the study has identified noticeable examples within the sub-categories of each dimension of learner engagement and has illustrated possible explanations. This facilitates future researchers aiming to compare findings of various student engagement behaviours.

In addition, agreeing with prior conclusions, the study argues for more qualitative paradigm research on learner engagement, especially targeting LP students (Lee, 2017; T. F. Zhang, Chen, Hu, & Ketwan, 2021). In the study, there was great inconsistency between low-proficiency students' cognitive and behavioural engagement. To emphasise, the observable actions may not indicate the true thinking of the students. Future research may explore LP students' attitudes towards particular writing activities and their corresponding behaviours in completing these tasks.

This study is significant for its unique emphasis on TWF. In some classrooms with a large class size, teachers have to provide both content and grammatical feedback in one draft. Thus, research focusing on TWF may yield results more applicable to those specific classroom contexts. Moreover, in contrast to the predominant focus on ESL contexts in feedback research, this study has directed its attention to university students' engagement with teacher written feedback in Chinese universities. Given the larger population of English learners in China, this perspective provides valuable insights into understanding this

particular student population.

6.2.3-Pedagogical insights

One of the major pedagogical implications is that students should be informed that their learning is not driven by a solitary factor, but influenced by the interconnections between both individual and contextual factors. With this worldview, students may become more positive towards their learning, since they will be aware that there are multiple factors that they can alter to influence their learning outcomes.

The study could help relieve teachers' tension in choosing their feedback focuses, since no students felt overwhelmed when provided with mixed feedback highlighting content, organisation and linguistic problems. Some students even preferred a large quantity of feedback. In addition, the study has brought attention to a notable issue – students' insufficient abilities to argue for their own ideas. In light of this, educational institutions prioritise students' writing competence should address this specific weakness highlighted in the study.

Another noteworthy finding that can inform English teachers is that writing a second draft promotes a higher level of cognitive, affective, and behavioural engagement than merely receiving TWF. All participants in the study concurred that the obligatory nature of submitting a second draft motivated them to put in extra effort in revision. Contrary to a feeling of being forced, students' post-revision experiences were mostly satisfactory as they observed improvement in their drafts. Thereby, the very act of composing a second draft has not only yielded cognitive advantages, but has also fulfilled affective roles. Irrespective of

students' initial feelings upon receiving feedback, they would probably become calm, and at times, even more optimistic about their writing as they witness improvements in their drafts. Thus, teachers who have offered feedback but without making a second draft mandatory are recommended to implement this approach.

Findings from the study have uncovered that students commonly generate specific emotions while interacting with TWF. Moreover, these emotions could vary within a specific writing task and across various writing tasks, exerting different impacts on their engagement with TWF. Thus, English teachers should be aware of this affective dimension of their students. Firstly, teachers should acknowledge the potential impact of their teaching behaviours on students, since this influence can be enduring and shape students' beliefs and learning habits. Secondly, instead of accentuating the potential adverse impact of emotions on the learning process, teachers should highlight that students possess the ability to actively modify their emotions, thereby leveraging the emotions to boost their overall learning efficacy. Practically, teachers can acquaint students with emotional regulation strategies so that students gain better expertise in handling diverse academic emotions.

The study has also revealed that even among the teachers who had 10 to 30 years of teaching experience, they may still lack training in providing feedback. Both participating teachers in the study admitted that their feedback approach has been influenced by their own experiences as students, dating back approximately 40 years ago to their time in university or even high school. Thus, universities should provide more systematic training programs to equip teachers with more up-to-date feedback expertise.

In terms of training and instruction, the study has demonstrated that instructing students with

more cognitive and metacognitive strategies may foster more extensive student engagement with TWF. Recommendations of helpful learning resources, whether from teachers or peers, play a role in expanding students' repertoire of writing strategies (Goh, 2002). Therefore, for practicing teachers, offering explicit guidance on learning strategies could be beneficial in augmenting students' understanding of effective learning techniques.

Lastly, the study has confirmed that TWF could be more beneficial when teachers possess a deeper knowledge of their students' writing and language competencies. Ferris (2003) proposed that writing teachers could design homework or exercises (e.g. writing a journal and reading the journal) in the first few weeks of a fresh semester to diagnose students' existing writing knowledge, problems and beliefs in advance. Furthermore, the findings from this study regarding students' experiences, feelings, and challenges in comprehending and incorporating teacher written feedback may offer valuable guidance for English instructors working with Chinese students, especially in situations where there are limited opportunities to know the students' backgrounds beforehand.

6.3-Limitations and suggestions for future study

In spite of uncovering valuable insights, the study is not without limitations. The following paragraphs detail each limitation, along with comments and suggestions for future research.

One limitation revolves around the research participants, particularly the teachers. Contextual constraints resulted in last-minute modifications in both participating teachers' feedback practices, leading to less diversity in their backgrounds than initially anticipated. Despite this, the study has still revealed significant impact of teacher-related factors on student

engagement. This suggests that future research could encompass teachers with more diverse backgrounds and feedback approaches to unveil other insightful findings.

In addition, the students were all English major students, thus it might be inappropriate to apply such results to students with other disciplines. For example, in contrast to Han and Hyland's (2018) study, where none of the non-English major students reported experiencing high activating emotions, the current study identified instances where English-major students reported feeling happy, passionate and surprised. Thus, future efforts could be devoted to comparing English-major and non-English major students' engagement with TWF.

Moreover, while the research was longitudinal, the number of writing tasks was only four rather than six as previously expected. Consequently, the changes alongside a longer time frame in student engagement were not as many as previously anticipated. Thus, future research could include more rounds of writing tasks to see whether the number of writing drafts will trigger more diverse engagement patterns.

Similar to previous attempts on learner engagement (e.g. Zheng & Yu, 2018), the current study targeted daily writing assignments which weighted a small proportion in terms of their final scores in a course. One student (Lisa) specifically mentioned the nature of daily tasks when reporting her engagement levels. Thus, it may be assumed that when writing tasks become a part of the important or formal exams, the level of student engagement may be different.

According to the students' report, students were found to consult their teachers to tackle confusion. The study, unfortunately, could not document the real-time conversations between

the two parties, as they mostly occurred suddenly. Thus, it has relied on the students' reports and memory to elicit how this approach assisted students' engagement with TWF. In contrast, Han and Hyland (2015) captured the specific conversations of one student's conversation with the teacher and concluded its considerable importance in facilitating one's cognitive processing of TWF. Therefore, future research could focus on this source of data to offer extra contextual insights into understanding engagement with TWF.

Finally, the study has included two mediums of delivering TWF: through hard-copy or electronic via a computer. However, no significant disparities in student engagement were detected. This might be associated with the teachers' feedback philosophy, as both teachers indicated no different strategies in utilising these two mediums. However, given the increasing prevalence of e-written feedback, additional research in this area is warranted (Ene & Upton, 2014).

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Appendixes

Appendix A Conceptualization of student engagement

(Modified from Han & Hyland, 2015, Oxford, 2017 and Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012)

Student engagement with TWF	Sub-dimensions	Examples
Behavioural engagement	Modification behaviours of TWF	Students made accurate revisions in response to TWF
	Noticeable behaviour's when utilising cognitive strategies to process TWF	Usages of online dictionaries to check word meaning
	Noticeable behaviour's when utilising meta-cognitive strategies to process TWF	Underlining some words in the original draft for later revision
Cognitive engagement	Depth of processing of TWF	TWF was noticed by the student
	Utilisation of cognitive strategies in comprehending TWF	Understanding TWF by connecting with oral teacher feedback
	Utilisation of metacognitive strategies to regulate mental effort committing to TWF	Reviewing the completed revised drafts

Affective engagement	Attitudes towards TWF	Students expressed appreciations towards the provision of feedback
	Concrete affect and corresponding meta-affect regulation strategies	Feeling annoyed with the original drafts and decided to postpone the revision date

Appendix B Written explanation for oral report

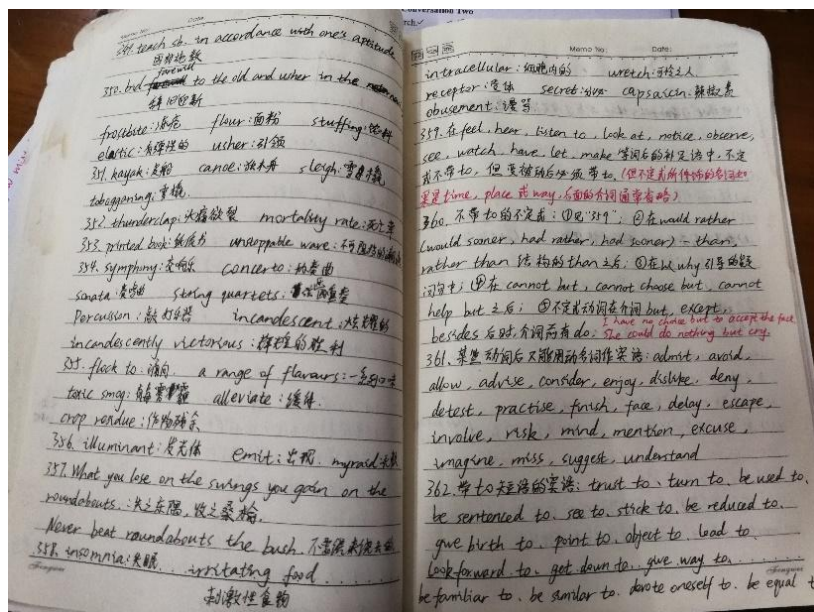
The purpose of the self-report is to discover what you were thinking about when you were attending to every single teacher feedback indication and when you used them in your revision.

I am interested in the authentic thoughts that occurred in your revisions, so you do not need to disguise yourself. For example, when you miss certain feedback, you can just say you have missed it. Even when you are not thinking anything back then, just report you have no thoughts at that moment. What should be cautious is that you need to try your best to recall anything that you are thinking back then (i.e. in the revision), rather than what you are thinking now.

For the procedure, I will firstly ask whether you have some general or overall thinking regarding TWF and your revision. Then, I will point to each piece of feedback you receive in your first draft and the revision you have made in your second draft. Feel free to use any language that you are comfortable with. During the whole process, I will not provide any comments on your articulations, except some short indicating words such as “okay”, “go on”, “anything else” and “next one”. However, if some behaviours are observed but have not been mentioned by you, I might ask questions such as “I noticed XX, can you explain your thoughts back then?” at the end of the verbal report.

So, do you have any questions? If not, let's begin.

Appendix C Photo of Queena's notebook



Appendix D Writing prompt 1 (WH1) in Class A

题目: Solution to the Problem of Plastic Pollution: Legislation or Technology?

(Translation: Topic: Solution to the Problem of Plastic Pollution: Legislation or Technology?)

字数: 不低于 200 字并且不高于 500 字

(Translation: Word Count: no lower than 200 words, no higher than 500 words)

满分: 100

(Translation: Total Score: 100)

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

Recently, a dead whale was washed ashore on the coast of Italy, with nearly 50 pounds of plastic waste in its stomach. Actually, this was one of a series of cases in which sea mammals have been killed by mistakenly eating too much plastic waste produced by human beings. Plastic pollution has now been generally recognized as a serious environmental problem. However, opinions differ as to how to solve this problem. Some people believe that new laws should be proposed and implemented to regulate people's use of plastic materials. Others think it is of primary importance to develop technologies that can prevent such kinds of pollution. What is your position on this issue, legislation or technology?

Write an essay on the above topic in about 250 words and support your view with reasons

and specific evidence.



Appendix E Writing prompt 2 (WH2) in Class A

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

Read carefully the following excerpt on the phenomenon of cyber celebrity, and then write your response in about 250 words, in which you should:

- 1) summarize the main message of the excerpt, and then
- 2) comment on the phenomenon of cyber celebrity.

题目:

(Translation: Topic)

China's online celebrity industry expanded in 2017 and social media personalities are becoming even more skilled at converting their influence into cash, a report said.

"By May 2018, cyber celebrities with a fan base of more than 100,000 increased 51 percent from a year ago and their total followers surged 25 percent to 588 million," said the report titled 2018 China Online Celebrity Economic Development Insight. It was jointly published by market research consulting firm iResearch and social media platform Sina Weibo on Tuesday in Shanghai.

Through posting words, pictures, audio clips, video clips and live streaming online, the celebrities are turning their fame and influence into real cash.

Appendix F Writing prompt 3 (WH3) in Class A

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

Read carefully the following excerpt and then write your response in about NO LESS THAN 200 WORDS, in which you should:

- 1) summarize the main message of the excerpt, and then
- 2) comment on online learning

Excerpt:

China requires colleges, universities to offer online learning after semester postponement

China's Ministry of Education (MOE) has required colleges and universities nationwide to offer online teaching and learning resources following the postponement of school semesters.

According to a set of guidelines recently issued by the MOE, colleges and universities should make full use of all kinds of quality open online courses and laboratory resource platforms to organize online education activities.

Efforts should be made to make sure that online learning can be as efficient as learning in the classroom, said the guidelines.

Official data showed that as of Feb.2, 22 online course platforms had opened more than 24,000 free courses covering 12 undergraduate disciplines and 18 majors of technical and vocational education.



Appendix G Writing prompt 4 (WH4) in Class A

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

With the development of science and technology, especially the extensive utilisation of the Internet, various kinds of new inventions and phenomena have appeared and many new words have emerged. The coined new words are prevalent among young students and the Internet users, but experts worry about their adverse effect on standard language. Should people create and widely use the coined Internet buzzwords? Read carefully the opinion from both sides and write your response in about 200 words, in which you should first summarize briefly the opinions from both sides and give your view on the issue.

Marks will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organisation and language quality. Failure to follow the above instructions may result in a loss of marks.

YES	NO
<p>Internet buzzwords display young people's creativity, and help our language become better and richer. As for some not-so-good ones, they will be washed out naturally.</p> <p>Some Internet words have the same form as characters, and the meanings they have are relatively stable. So we should not factitiously ban the new-born words and terms.</p> <p>Internet buzzwords enrich our communication and contribute a lot to entertaining people. Compared with traditional language, Internet hot words are vivid and funny, and many of them are popular among the young people. Through these buzzwords, people can communicate and interact with each other in a more interesting and effective way.</p>	<p>Internet buzzwords are formed with the popularity of Internet, which means that without the popularity of Internet those words may make no sense. In real life, not everyone is familiar with those words. Some people, especially the old, are puzzled by those words. In other words, Internet buzzwords can only make sense with the context of Internet. They are not supposed to be encouraged.</p> <p>Young people are in the critical period of learning knowledge and forming their values. For them, it is very important to use the standard language. In the virtual world, they may use the buzzwords at will. But if such kind of language is used in news and formal documents, it will do harm to the healthy development of language, even to our traditional culture.</p>



Appendix H Writing prompt 1 (WH1) in Class B

Write a composition of no less than 200 words.

Mark will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organisation and language quality. Failure to follow the above instruction may result in a loss of marks.

Topic: Do you agree that modern technology has given us more leisure time than before?



Appendix I Writing prompt 2 (WH2) in Class B

Write a composition of no less than 200 words.

Marks will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organisation and language quality. Failure to follow the above instruction may result in a loss of marks.

Topic: Some people argue that the government should spend money only on medical care and education but not on theatres or sport stadiums. Do you agree or disagree?



Appendix J Writing prompt 3 (WH3) in Class B

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

The popularization of computer and Internet service has created a group of people called “indoorsy men” or “indoorsy women”. They prefer to spend most of their time at home rather than going outdoors and having face-to-face contact with others. Should people choose to become indoorsy? The following are opinions from both sides. Read carefully the opinions from both sides and write your response in NO LESS THAN 200 words, in which you should first summarize briefly the opinions from both sides and give your views on the issue.

Marks will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organisation and language quality. Failure to follow the above instructions may result in a loss of marks.

Opinions:

YES

In modern times when we can buy everything we need on the Internet, and communicate and even work through the Internet, becoming indoorsy men or women is simply a choice of a different lifestyle. In the past, if you wanted to buy something, you needed to go out of your house, go to the store, and spend an hour or two choosing the product you wanted to buy. But now you can just sit in front of a computer and click your mouse, and the product can be delivered to you. Being indoorsy can save people a lot of time.

Being indoorsy can allow people to think and work in a peaceful environment. For example,

writers can be quite creative when they are alone at home without being interrupted.

Being indoorsy does not mean that people will never go out of the door. Indoorsy men or women are good at making full use of the modern technology to facilitate their life and work.

NO

Some sociologists warn that the indoorsy lifestyle will make people become self-centered and naive. If people stay at home for a long time, they will have little interpersonal contact with others. They do not know how to have face-to-face communication with others, and they may become shy, uncomfortable, or self-centered when they are involved in real-life interpersonal communication. This indoorsy lifestyle will have a bad effect on their normal interpersonal relationship and their normal work.

Indoorsy men or women spend most of their time sitting in front of a computer, and they seldom attend outdoor activities. Watching the computer screen for a long time will do great harm to their eyes. Also, many indoorsy people do not like to attend sports activities, and in the long run, their health will get worse.



Appendix K Writing prompt 4 (WH4) in Class B

要求:

(Translation: Requirement)

Are the environmental problems too big for individuals to solve? This matter has been intensely discussed for years. The following are the supporters' and opponents' opinions. Read carefully the opinions from both sides and write your response in NO LESS THAN 200 words, in which you should first summarize briefly the opinions from both sides and give your views on the issue.

Marks will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organisation and language quality. Failure to follow the above instructions may result in a loss of marks

Opinions:

Yes

No matter how small personal involvement in environmental conservation might be, it is an unshakable obligation for everyone to safeguard the environment.

It is known that environmental contamination and conservation are long-term problems, and no single government or big company can meet this challenge alone. As such, whoever created the environmental problem should be responsible for solving it; environmental protection needs every one of us to continuously participate in.

The public's wills and behaviors have an important influence on government's policies and

companies' strategies. For example, if everyone says "No" to plastic shopping bags and paper cups, then the companies that manufacture such products will switch to environmental-friendly substitutes in order to survive in the market.

In some cases, the lighter sentences might also lead to people's resentment towards the judicial system as victims might argue that these young offenders do not confess what they have done. This could also result in insecurity in our society eventually.

NO

Some severe environmental pollution, such as global warming or sea contamination, might fail to be resolved only by personal effort. In this case, the government plays a challenging but inescapable role in environmental management because the government is the only legalized institution that may formulate legislation related to environmental problems.

The government can enact laws and introduce programs to raise public awareness of low-carbon.

Big companies have outstanding advantages in finance and technology, which give them the possibility to reduce pollution. For instance, some big companies can improve their production process to recycle the waste.

Appendix L Interview questions

First interview with the students

- 1) How long have you learnt English? Could you tell me your English learning experience before your university life?
- 2) How have your previous teachers helped you to improve English writing skills?
- 3) Describe your English learning and writing learning experience at university
- 4) Have you been assigned any writing tasks so far during university study?
- 5) Have the writing teachers offered any feedback?
- 6) What are your long-term and short-term goals for this semester?
- 7) What is your motivation to learn English and English writing?
- 8) What do you think is the significance of English and English writing for your future?
- 9) What do you think is a high-quality English essay?
- 10) How important do you think grammar and content is in English writing?
- 11) What are the strengths and weaknesses of your own English writing?
- 12) In general, what do you think of teacher written feedback?
- 13) What do you think are the main reasons why your teachers offer teacher written feedback on your drafts?
- 14) To what extent do you usually understand teacher feedback?
- 15) How do you usually revise your draft? Do you use any tools and techniques?
- 16) How do you feel when you receive teacher feedback on your drafts?
- 17) Do you think teacher feedback is helpful for you? Why or why not?
- 18) Any advice or ideas on teacher written feedback?
- 19) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher

feedback?

Second interview with the students

- 1) What is your English learning and writing learning experience this semester?
- 2) How do you like your English teacher in this course?
- 3) What do you think of your English and writing proficiency levels compared to the beginning of the semester?
- 4) Describe your general experience using teacher written feedback.
- 5) To what extent do you understand teachers' feedback?
- 6) How do you use written feedback to revise your draft in general?
- 7) What is the written feedback that you find easy or hard to understand?
- 8) What do you do if you have no idea of how to make a revision?
- 9) What do you do if you disagree with your teachers' feedback?
- 10) What external resources have you used to revise your drafts?
- 11) How do you feel about teacher written feedback?
- 12) What factors have you realised that have influenced the way you respond to TWF?
- 13) Any advice or ideas on teacher written feedback?
- 14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

Third interview with the students

- 1) What have you done to improve your English and English writing during the semester break?
- 2) What is your English learning and writing learning experience so far?
- 3) What do you think of your English and writing proficiency levels so far?

- 4) What are your long-term and short-term goals for this semester?
- 5) What is your motivation to learn English and English writing?
- 6) What do you think is the significance of English and English writing for your future?
Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 7) What do you think is a high-quality English essay? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 8) How important do you think grammar and content is in English writing? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 9) What are strengths and weaknesses of your own English writing? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 10) In general, what do you think of teacher written feedback? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 11) How do you feel when you receive teacher feedback on your drafts? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 12) Do you think teacher feedback is helpful for you? Why or why not?
- 13) Any advice or ideas on teacher written feedback?
- 14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

Fourth interview with the students

- 1) What is your English learning and writing learning experience this semester? How about the whole academic year?
- 2) Comment on your English teacher in this course.
- 3) What do you think of your English and writing proficiency compared to the beginning of the semester?

- 4) Describe your general experience using teacher written feedback.
- 5) To what extent do you usually understand teachers' written feedback?
- 6) How do you use written feedback to revise your draft in general?
- 7) What is the written feedback that you find easy or hard to understand?
- 8) What do you do if you have no idea on how to make revisions?
- 9) What do you do if you disagree with your teachers' feedback?
- 10) What external resources have you used to revise your draft?
- 11) What do you feel about teacher written feedback emotionally?
- 12) What factors do you think influence the way you respond to TWF?
- 13) Any advice or ideas on teacher written feedback?
- 14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

First interview with the teachers

- 1) Describe your teaching background (i.e. your education degree, your major etc.)
- 2) How did you learn English and English writing as a student?
- 3) How do you teach English and English writing in general?
- 4) Describe your prior feedback experience as a student as well as a teacher?
- 5) Do you think learning English and English writing is important for your students?
- 6) How about the importance of writing in English?
- 7) What are the most frequent methods you use to give feedback on students' writing drafts?
- 8) What do you think of the effectiveness of the feedback you have used?
- 9) Do you have a preferred type of feedback? (written vs. oral; direct vs. indirect; feedback on content vs. language vs. organisation)

- 10) Do you vary your feedback according to different students?
- 11) What are the criteria for marking students' drafts?
- 12) What are the factors that influence the way you provide different kinds of feedback?
- 13) What do you expect the students to do with your written feedback?
- 14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

Second interview with the teachers

- 1) What are the general teaching goals of the course, especially for the teaching of English writing?
- 2) What is your experience of the provision of TWF in this semester?
- 3) What are the factors that have influenced the way you provide TWF and the requirement for revisions?
- 4) Have you encountered any situations where you found it easy or difficult to provide written feedback?
- 5) What are the common types of written feedback that you have provided in the semester?
- 6) How do you feel about these various types of written feedback?
- 7) What do you think about the quantity of your written feedback?
- 8) What are your marking criteria for the first and revised drafts of students' writing?
- 9) How do you think TWF has helped students' English writing development?
- 10) What are the most impressive feelings when you read the students' revised drafts in general?
- 11) What do you think of the students that have fully utilised your TWF to help their revision and their English writing?
- 12) What are your thoughts on your students' feelings towards TWF?

- 13) What do you expect the students to do with your written feedback?
- 14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

Third interview with the teachers

- 1) Do you think learning English and English writing is important for your students? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 2) How about the importance of writing in English? Any changes from last semester?
- 3) What are the most frequent methods you use to mark students' writing drafts? Any changes compared to those in the last semester?
- 4) What do you think of the effectiveness of different kinds of feedback? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 5) Do you have a preferred type of feedback (written vs. oral; direct vs. indirect; feedback on content vs. language vs. organisation)? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 6) Have you modified your feedback according to different individuals? Any changes compared to that in the last semester?
- 7) What are the criteria for marking a student' draft? Any changes compared to that in the last semester?
- 8) What are the factors that have influenced the way you provide different kinds of feedback? Any changes compared to those in the last semester?
- 9) What do you expect the students to do with your written feedback? Any changes in your views compared to those in the last semester?
- 10) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?

Fourth interview with the teachers

- 1) What were the general feelings on the teaching of the course, especially for the teaching of English writing?
- 2) What is your general experience toward the provisions of TWF in this semester and the whole academic year?
- 3) What are the factors that have influenced your provisions of TWF and the requirements for revisions in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 4) Have you encountered any situations where you found it easy or difficult to provide written feedback in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year??
- 5) What are some general types of written feedback that you have provided in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 6) How do you feel about these various types of written feedback in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 7) What do you think about the quantity of TWF that you have provided in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 8) What are your marking criteria for the first and revised drafts of students' writing in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 9) How do you think TWF has helped students' English writing development in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 10) What are the most impressive feelings when you read the students' revised drafts in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?
- 11) How do you think the students have utilised your TWF to help their revision and their English writing? In this semester and also throughout the whole academic year.
- 12) What did you think about the students' feelings towards TWF in this semester and also

throughout the whole academic year?

13) What do you expect the students to do with your written feedback in this semester and also throughout the whole academic year?

14) Do you want to add further comments, especially on English writing and teacher feedback?



Appendix M Coded excerpts of students' drafts with TWF: Class A

1) Ruby's coded writing excerpts

(high-proficiency student from Class A)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 2 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts	Codes
In a <u>world</u> , <u>cyber celebrity</u> is the product of the era, but <u>they</u> word	TWF ("world"): Language TWF ("cyber celebrity is" and "they"): Language
should take the social responsibility consciously to set good examples and spread positive things.	TWF: Content

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 2:

In a word, cyber celebrities are the products of the time, which have advantages and disadvantages. What they should do is to take the social responsibility consciously, set good examples and spread positive things.

2) Joan's coded writing excerpts

(intermediate-level students from Class A)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 1 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts	Codes
<p><u>It is hard to change the custom.</u> Therefore, solving the problems</p> <p>?</p> <p>from the source is obviously necessary. That is to say, it is vital to</p> <p>solve the issue of plastic itself, <u>like the case of difficulty to degrade,</u></p> <p><u>poisonous material and so on.</u> Thus, it is suggested that improve the</p> <p style="text-align: center;">we should</p> <p>technology by producing environmental friendly, plastic products,</p> <p>whose convenience and function is kept, and <u>it</u> can be digested in</p> <p style="text-align: center;">which</p> <p>the animals' stomach. It is technology that plays important role in</p> <p style="text-align: center;">an</p> <p>that way.</p>	<p>TWF: Content</p> <p>TWF: Content</p> <p>TWF: Language</p> <p>TWF: Language</p> <p>TWF: Language</p>

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 1:

Although people have the awareness that they should reduce the use of plastic products and the pollution of the environment, there is a psychological attachment to the plastic products that they can't live without it. The state of psychological contradiction makes people unable to change their actions and habits.

3) Grace's coded writing excerpts

(low-proficiency student from Class A)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 3 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts	Codes
Firstly, network teaching not only <u>maximizes</u> the use of education	
Good! Gives a thumbs up!	TWF: Praise
resources, but also crosses the boundary of spaces. Because of the	
novel coronavirus, students <u>can not</u> get together to have classes in	
cannot	TWF: Language
the classroom. Online education activities provide the students with	
a platform for studying at their home.	

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 3:

Firstly, network teaching not only maximises the use of education resources, but also crosses the boundary of spaces. Because of the novel coronavirus, students cannot get together to have classes in the classroom. Online education activities provide the students with a platform for studying at their home.

Appendix N Coded excerpts of students' drafts with TWF: Class B

1) Queena's coded writing excerpts

(high-proficiency student from Class B)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 2 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts	Codes
As a matter of fact, medical care is essential to a society that plays an important role in our lives. ↙ Why do you mention medical care here?	TWF: Content
<u>And knowledge is so significant as well that people think</u> <u>government should spend money on it.</u> However, in my ?	TWF: Content
opinion, arts/ and sports are important too.	TWF: Language

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 2

As far as I am concerned, art and sports are essential and important parts in our daily life.

As the society is developing and people's basic needs are fulfilled nowadays, people are pursuing a higher level of life, so they will kill time in a more artistic or healthy way.

2) Ella's coded writing excerpts

(intermediate-level student from Class B)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 4 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts		Codes
Firstly, a great number of <u>contaminant</u> can be controlled by		TWF (“a great number of”): Content
s		
individuals. <u>There are many articles for daily use are</u>		TWF (“s”): Language
<u>becoming the pollutant sources</u> . <u>Everyone of us</u> can refuse		
What do you mean?	This expression	TWF (“There are...sources”): Content
	emphasizes “the whole”,	
	better use ‘every one of	TWF (“Everyone of us”): Content
	us’.	
using these objects harmful for <u>environment</u> to control the		
?		TWF: Language
contaminant.		

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 4 and coding of TWF:

Firstly, contaminants can be controlled by individuals. There are many articles for daily use becoming the pollutant sources. Every one of us can refuse using these objects harmful for environment to control the contaminant.

3) Tina’s coded writing excerpts

(low-proficiency student from Class B)

Excerpts of the 1st draft of writing homework 1 and coding of TWF:

Excerpts	Codes
<p>Firstly, I knew the feeling of the study pressure. Nowadays,</p> <p>↓ Space</p> <p>the school has set up more and more courses and <u>some</u></p> <p><u>students were</u> also forced by their parents to attend training</p> <p>are; Try to keep the same personal pronounce</p> <p>institutions. Because of these or that reasons, <u>our</u> leisure</p> <p>time become less and less. We have no time to do what we</p> <p>really like, enjoy times with our friends and do some</p> <p>↑ like</p> <p>amusements. <u>Secondly, different stduetn have different</u></p> <p><u>levels. Only teach knowledge and don't care about if</u></p> <p><u>students understand.</u></p> <p>?</p>	<p>TWF: Genre</p> <p>TWF ("some students", "were" and "our" all indicate a same linguistic error): Language</p> <p>TWF: Language</p> <p>TWF: Content</p>

Excerpts of the 2nd draft of writing homework 1 and coding of TWF:

First, modern technology can help us save a lot of time, so that we can have more leisure time to enjoy ourselves. For example, we can order take-out on the mobile phone if we don't want to cook self or go out and we can left the time to do the things what we want.

Appendix O Coded retrospective verbal reports

1) Coded excerpts of Bonnie's 1st verbal report

(high proficiency-level student from Class B)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: [Pointing to the specific teacher written feedback] Why do you think Zoe deleted “the appearance of” in this sentence?</p> <p>Bonnie: [CE] <u>I think it is redundant. It sounds a bit Chinglish. The subject refers to the “machines”, and logically, machines will not really “appear”, right? I think with the deletion, the sentence is more concise.</u> Actually, when I was doing the assignment, I hesitated about whether I should include it or not, but eventually I added it. Now I know and I will memorise it.</p> <p>Researcher: you mention “you will memorise it. How exactly will you do it?”</p> <p>Bonnie: Just now, when I was revising, [CE] <u>I repeated this rule in my head.</u> Hopefully I will not make the same mistake again next time.</p> <p>Researcher: [Pointing to the specific teacher written feedback] Ok. How about this one?</p> <p>Bonnie: [CE] <u>“machine” is countable and when I drafted it, I misread it as “machinery”, which is uncountable. So “s” should be added after the word “machine.”</u></p>	<p>Cognitive: Reasoning</p> <p>Cognitive: Depth of Processing-Accurate Understanding</p> <p>Cognitive: Memorising: Mental notes</p> <p>Cognitive: Reasoning</p>

2) Coded excerpts of Helen's 4th verbal report

(Intermediate-level student from Class A)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: What was your feeling upon getting the feedback?</p> <p>Helen: [AE] <u>I was quite happy.</u> [AE] <u>Overall, I believed I produced a well-written draft.</u></p> <p>Researcher: Ok. [Pointing to the specific teacher written feedback], what was your thought when dealing with this specific feedback?</p> <p>Helen: For this one, I had thought for a while. [CE] <u>Originally, I thought the pattern “the debate as to...” did not exist.</u> After an extensive exploration, [CE] <u>I found that the phrase was valid but it should be collocated with “whether” rather than “to” ...</u> [BE] <u>But...if I used this phrase...I need to change the sentences that followed...I did not think it was necessary.</u> So, to save time, I adopted the teacher's advice. But I think I might try to use “the debate as to whether” next time and see whether the teacher would underline it.</p>	<p>Affective-Emotion: Happy</p> <p>Affect-Emotion: Happy-Reason</p> <p>Cognitive-Metacognitive: Monitoring-Monitoring during revision</p> <p>Cognitive: Depth of Processing-Accurate Understanding</p> <p>Behavioural: Modification behaviours-accurately followed</p>

3) Coded excerpts of Jack's 2nd verbal report

(low proficiency student from Class A)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: So, compared to writing homework one, any different feelings?</p>	
<p>Helen: [AE] <u>I like this one better.</u> [AE] <u>Since last time there was not much feedback. My grammar is not very good, so it will be better if the teacher can tell me my errors.</u></p>	<p>Affective-Attitude: Change</p> <p>Affect-Attitude: Change-Reason</p>
<p>Researcher: Okay. I noticed you [BE] <u>referred to the writing prompt</u> before you started your revision. May I know what you were thinking?</p>	<p>BE-Observable: Online materials</p>
<p>Jack: [Idv-Belief] <u>Because I know this kind of writing needs to be closely related to the content provided in the writing prompt.</u> Since [Idv-Belief] <u>I feel my draft is a little bit off-topic,</u> I decided to check the material again.</p>	<p>Belief: about writing assignment</p> <p>Belief: about writing assignment</p>
<p>Researcher: Do you always carry out this revision action?</p>	
<p>Jack: Not really. [CE] <u>The teacher specifically emphasises it many times in class:</u> “reading the material carefully, reading the material carefully, mentioning the main idea in your writing...”. So [Idv-Belief] <u>I think it must be very important.</u> So, I referred to the prompt before I started revising.</p>	<p>Cognitive: Making connections-with other teacher feedback</p> <p>Belief: about writing strategies</p>

Appendix P Coded interviews

1) Coded excerpts of Anna's 3rd interview

(Teacher from Class A)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: Overall, what do you think about the feedback practice from the last semester?</p> <p>Anna: I think I am quite satisfied. [Stds' attitude] <u>Some students also expressed their gratitude and preference through comments such as "Thank you, teacher, for correcting my draft", "I really appreciate Anna's feedback on my writing" on my evaluation form.</u></p> <p>Anna: Regarding its effectiveness, I am not really sure, but [Idv-Belief] <u>I feel like it does yield some positive outcomes. At least, when the students feel like the teacher is very meticulous and carefully examining their writing drafts, they tend to become more serious about their writing and my feedback.</u></p> <p>Anna: However, to be honest, it costs a lot of time and energy to provide feedback to such a large number of students. [Ctx] <u>If it were not required by the Department, I might opt to provide feedback solely to those who write really poorly rather than the entire class.</u></p> <p>Researcher: Alright. So, for this semester, will there be any alterations in the way you deliver feedback?</p>	<p>Students' attitudes towards feedback</p> <p>Beliefs: on feedback provision</p> <p>Contextual factors: Institutional</p>

Zoe: [Fb Practice] <u>Apart from changing to electronic feedback [Ctx] which is mandated by the Department, [Fb Practice & Ctx] the grading criteria I employ is aligned with that of Test for English Majors-Band 4.</u>	Feedback practice Contextual factors: Institutional Feedback practice & Contextual factors: Institutional
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2) Coded excerpts of Zoe's 1st interview

(Teacher from Class B)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: How do you often provide feedback on students' writing homework?</p> <p>Zoe: [Fb Practice] <u>I write comments on students' drafts. Also, I provide oral feedback in class. I will choose some excerpts from some students' writing and give oral comments. For example, if there are incorrect sentences, I would explain how they could be corrected. I also show examples of some good introductions and conclusions.</u></p> <p>Zoe: [Idv-Belief] <u>But I notice that there are some differences between the students in the past and in recent years.</u> In the past, after correcting students' compositions, they were very serious (about the feedback) and often asked why a particular sentence was problematic. However, in the recent five years, students don't seem to be that concerned about the feedback.</p> <p>Researcher: So, have these differences affected your recent</p>	<p>Feedback practice</p> <p>Belief: about students</p>

<p>feedback practice?</p> <p>Zoe: Yes, double-checking is important.</p> <p>Researcher: What do you mean by “double-checking”?</p> <p>Zoe: [Fb Practice] <u>It means only giving them feedback is not enough, you have to make sure they read your feedback. So, I will check their revisions by asking them to submit a second draft.</u> Sometimes if I am really busy, I will ask some students randomly to bring their revised drafts to me during class break, so I can have a look.</p>	Feedback practice
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3) Coded excerpts of Zora’s 1st interview

(high-proficiency student from Class A)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: So, how long have you been learning English?</p> <p>Zora: [Eng Exp] <u>Well, I began learning English in Grade 3 of elementary school, and repeated a year in high school, so it has been about 11 years.</u></p> <p>Researcher: Could you share more about your English learning experiences?</p> <p>Zora: [Idv-Belief] <u>Since elementary school, I have always been interested in English and served as the English-class representative for many years. Therefore, I decided to choose English as my university major.</u></p> <p>Researcher: Alright. Let’s share more about each aspect of</p>	<p>English learning experience</p> <p>Belief: about English learning</p>

<p>English learning. Concerning English writing, how do you think your prior teachers assisted you with writing?</p> <p>Zora: In the first three years of high school, the English teachers didn't provide much help in writing. Comparatively, the teacher in my last year had a significant impact on my writing and overall English learning. She was a very responsible teacher. At the beginning of the semester, she would give us a checklist. Whenever we accomplished a task, we placed a “tick” next to the task. Then certificates of merit were awarded, contingent upon the total number of tasks completed.</p>	
<p>Zora: Also, only [Fb Exp] <u>she specifically addressed the writing aspect of English learning. She marked the problematic usages in our writings and also shared some templates to illustrate the structure of argumentative essays.</u></p> <p>Researcher: When you say “mark the problematic usages”, could you provide more details?</p>	<p>Feedback experience</p>
<p>Zora: [Fb Exp] <u>For some grammatical errors, she would underline or write down the correct answers. For content issues, she would write something such as “the content does not make sense” or “I cannot understand these sentences”.</u></p> <p>So, I could improve my drafts based on her comments.</p>	<p>Feedback experience</p>

4) Coded excerpts of Lisa's 2nd interview

(intermediate-proficiency student from Class B)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: Describe your general experience using teacher written feedback (TWF).</p> <p>Lisa: [AE] <u>For me, I find it useful. I like the individualised feedback on my drafts. When Anna provided oral comments on the class's general writing issues, I would assume that my classmates and I were at the same level, so I would not pay much attention to those errors. However, when the teacher corrected my own drafts, I became more serious since the feedback addressed my specific writing problems.</u></p> <p>Researcher: Were you emotionally affected by teachers' feedback during the semester?</p> <p>Lisa: [AE] <u>Not really, as [AE] they were only daily homework.</u> However, if I invest a considerable amount of time writing the drafts and there are still many writing issues, I may get a little upset, although this feeling will not persist for long.</p> <p>Researcher: How well did you understand TWF on your writing homework?</p> <p>Lisa: I understood about 90%. For the remaining 10%, I did not know how to correct them.</p> <p>Researcher: Then what did you do about the 10% feedback?</p> <p>Lisa: [BE] <u>Sometimes I asked my friends, or consulted a dictionary.</u> Occasionally, I wanted to approach the teacher</p>	<p>Affective engagement: Attitude-Towards TWF</p> <p>Affective engagement: General Affective engagement: General-Reason</p> <p>Behavioural engagement: Cross-check with specific verbal reports</p>

<p>for help, but it was hard to reach out to them. It was not like high school, where you could easily visit the teachers' office and ask questions.</p> <p>Researcher: Could you elaborate on what you mean by "looking up in the dictionary"?</p> <p>Lisa: (After quickly reviewing her drafts) [BE] <u>If I struggled to express my intended meaning in English, I entered the Chinese word. If a specific English word came to mind but I was uncertain, I searched for that word and checked its meaning.</u></p> <p>Researcher: "Meaning"? Do you mean the Chinese explanation? Or the English interpretations?</p> <p>Lisa: [BE] <u>Chinese explanations.</u></p>	<p>Behavioural engagement: Cross-check with specific verbal reports</p> <p>Behavioural engagement: Cross-check with specific verbal reports</p>
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5) Coded excerpts of Iris' 4th interview

(low-proficiency student from Class B)

Excerpts	Coding
<p>Researcher: Can you provide an overall evaluation of your teachers' written feedback?</p> <p>Iris: [AE] I think it is <u>quite good</u>. As I mentioned earlier, with written feedback, I have <u>developed a rough idea of my writing proficiency</u>. The feedback has also <u>helped me improve my drafts</u>. Additionally, [AE] <u>I like the teacher's</u></p>	<p>Affective engagement: Attitude-Towards TWF</p> <p>Affective engagement: Attitude-Towards</p>

requirement for a second draft. If there had not been such a
requirement, I probably would not have invested as much
time and effort as I did in these two semesters.

Researcher: Could you be more specific about “invest time and effort”?

Behavioural engagement: Cross-check with specific verbal reports

Researcher: Does it mean that you prefer the teacher to demand a second draft?

Iris: Yes, [AE] even though it was sometimes demanding to find out the accurate revision, it compelled me to treat my drafts and feedback more seriously.

Affective
engagement:
Attitude-Towards
writing a second
draft

Researcher: Why do you think that without the requirement, you might engage less in revising?

Affective
engagement:
Attitude-Towards
writing a second
draft-Reason

about it and actually doing it.	
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Appendix Q Corresponding examples for each category of modification behaviours

No.	Modification behaviours	Examples
1	AF	<p>1st draft: Everyone in the world <u>possesses</u> the responsibility...↵ TWF: bears↵</p> <p>↵ 2nd draft: Everyone in the world bears the responsibility...↵</p>
2	NewC	<p>1st draft: <u>the entertainment industry such as theatre does have enough support from the government</u> ↵ TWF: ?↵</p> <p>2nd draft: Next, I will list some evidences to support my opinion. First of all, the government has more pressing social problems...↵</p>
3	NC	<p>1st draft: ..., made us spend no time in doing chores.↵ TWF: people↵</p> <p>2nd draft: ... made us spend no time in doing chores.</p>
4	IS	<p>1st draft: ...we listen to <u>all kinds of audio</u> and watch videos...↵ TWF: ?↵</p> <p>2nd draft: ...we listen to all kinds of recordings and watch videos...↵</p>
5	IC	<p>1st draft: <u>Modern Technology Bring Us Leisure</u></p> <p>2nd draft: Modern Technology Brings Us Leisure</p>
6	Rw	<p>1st draft: in the modern technology area, <u>the most significant impact is on mobile phones</u></p> <p>2nd draft: Smart mobile phones play an important role in people's life</p>
7	DI	<p>1st draft: ..., <u>we can not feel that it has nothing to do with ourselves.</u></p> <p>2nd draft: In a world, environmental pollution is closely related to our life.</p>
8	St	<p>1st draft: This celebrity <u>make</u> a video to show↵ TWF: made↵</p> <p>2nd draft: The celebrity produced a video to show...↵</p>

Appendix R Consent form for participants

THE EDUCATION UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG

Department of English Language Education

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Towards a contextualised interpretation of student engagement: a naturalistic and qualitative study on Chinese university students' engagement with teacher written feedback

I _____ hereby consent to participate in the captioned research supervised by Dr MAK, Pauline and conducted by Yuwei Liu, who are staff / students of English Language Education in The Education University of Hong Kong.

I understand that information obtained from this research may be used in future research and may be published. However, my right to privacy will be retained, i.e., my personal details will not be revealed.

The procedure as set out in the **attached** information sheet has been fully explained. I understand the benefits and risks involved. My participation in the project is voluntary.

I acknowledge that I have the right to question any part of the procedure and can withdraw at any time without negative consequences.

Name of participant

Signature of participant

Date



INFORMATION SHEET

Towards a contextualised interpretation of student engagement: a naturalistic and qualitative study on Chinese university students' engagement with teacher written feedback

You are invited to participate in a project supervised by Dr MAK, Pauline and conducted by Yuwei Liu, who are staff / students of the English Language Education in The Education University of Hong Kong.

The introduction of the research

Written feedback is a common practice among teachers who teach English writing to students in an English as a Foreign Language context. Many studies have researched on what kinds of feedback may be effective to students' L2 writing performance but the results have been controversial. However, it is almost agreed by most researchers that teacher written feedback (TWF) could be more effective when students engage with it. Therefore, this study aims to investigate university student engagement with teacher written feedback. To be specific, the study sets out to investigate 1) How do Chinese university students engage behaviorally, cognitively and affectively with TWF?; 2) What individual factors may influence the extent of engagement with TWF?; 3) What contextual factors may play a part in affecting students' engagement with TWF?.

The methodology of the research

This study will cover two academic semesters (about 32 weeks). Students' writing drafts, the relevant TWF offered to the drafts, retrospective verbal reports from the students, semi-

structured interviews with both the teacher and students, class observations and course-related teaching materials (e.g. teaching slides, after-class exercise and relevant university and department policy documents) will be used as data collection methods. 2 university English teachers and 18 year-two English major students will be incorporated as participants. The participants will be purposively chosen based on their English proficiency levels. All of them will read through the consent form, being aware of the study, their rights and confidentiality before deciding to participate or not. The 2 English teachers follow a process-oriented written feedback approach, which means the teachers will provide written feedback on students' drafts, and then ask their students to hand in a revised draft based on the teacher written feedback. The researcher will ask the participants how they would like to contact for further information.

In each semester, as a common teaching practice, students will be assigned 2 take-home writing tasks as homework required by their teachers. Each student can plan their own time duration for finishing the writing tasks. Usually, students need to hand in their writing tasks 5 days after the teachers assign the homework. Each task will involve a feedback cycle. This cycle contains students' writing of a first draft, then written feedback provided by their teachers on their first draft and lastly students' second/revised drafts based on teacher written feedback. In total, students need to complete at least 4 writing tasks in one academic year. Students' first drafts with teacher comments and their revised drafts will be photocopied for future analysis.

In order to gain insights into student engagement, a retrospective verbal report (approximately 30 minutes) will be carried out immediately after students' revision of their first draft. Students are asked to call the researcher when they want to revise their draft and

they are suggested to bring everything they think they will use during the revision, such as laptops and slides. During the verbal report, the researcher will point to the error with teacher written feedback, and the students need to recall what they are thinking when revising their drafts based on the feedback. Prompt questions will also be asked after the verbal report to settle any confusion, controversy and incompleteness. In total, there will be 4 retrospective verbal reports for 4 writing assignments in one academic year. Each verbal report will take place in a quiet tutorial room and will last approximately 30 minutes. The process of verbal reports will be audiotaped and videotaped with the consent of the participants.

In total, there will be four interviews with each teacher and student during the study. In other words, each teacher and student will be interviewed and videotaped twice each semester. The semi-structured interviews with students and teachers will be done at the beginning and at the end of each semester to get richer qualitative data about students' experience and perceptions of teacher written feedback. Each interview will take place in a quiet tutorial room and will last approximately about 40 minutes. All interviews will be audiotaped with the consent of the participants. During the interview process, the researcher will also take notes. The language used in the interview will be chosen by the participants to ease the nerve and for clear expression.

During each semester, the researcher will observe all of the teacher's classes. The researcher will sit at the back of the classroom and audiotape the class without any interruption. The recording is acknowledged and agreed upon by the participant teachers. Teaching material such as handouts, slides and extra curriculum exercises will be collected with the consent of the teachers.

At the end of the research, 300 RMB will be offered to participants as incentives.

The potential risks of the research

No potential risks will be involved. Your participation in the project is voluntary. You have every right to withdraw from the study at any time without negative consequences. All information related to you will remain confidential, and will be identifiable by codes known only to the researcher.

How results will be potentially disseminated

All personal information will be removed from the data file and stored separately. Pseudo names will be used during the whole research process. all the relevant data will be stored on a password-ensured protected computer file. The results of the research would only be disseminated through journal publications and academic presentations.

If you would like to obtain more information about this study, please contact Yuwei Liu at telephone number _+852 [REDACTED] or +86 [REDACTED] or their supervisor Dr MAK, Pauline at telephone number +852 [REDACTED]

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research study, please do not hesitate to contact the Human Research Ethics Committee by email at hrec@eduhk.hk or by mail to Research and Development Office, The Education University of Hong Kong.

Thank you for your interest in participating in this study.

Yuwei Liu

Principal Investigator



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of Hong Kong Library

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香港教育大學

English Language Education

參與研究同意書

关于大学生对教师书面反馈投入度的调查研究：基于大陆大学的多案例研究

本人_____同意參加由 Dr MAK, Pauline 負責監督, 刘雨薇執行的研究項目。她/他們是香港教育大學 Department of English Language Education 的學生/教員。

本人理解此研究所獲得的資料可用於未來的研究和學術發表。然而本人有權保護自己的隱私, 本人的個人資料將不能洩漏。

研究者已將所附資料的有關步驟向本人作了充分的解釋。本人理解可能會出現的風險。本人是自願參與這項研究。

本人理解我有權在研究過程中提出問題, 並在任何時候決定退出研究, 更不會因此而對研究工作產生的影響負有任何責任。

參加者姓名:

參加者簽名:

日期:

有關資料

关于大学生对教师书面反馈投入度的调查研究：基于大陆大学的多案例研究

誠邀閣下參加 Dr MAK, Pauline 負責監督, 刘雨薇負責執行的研究計劃。她/他們是香港教育大學 Department of English Language Education 的學生/教員。

研究計劃簡介

在英语写作中, 书面反馈已经成为一种非常普遍的教学方式。在目前相关的研究中, 大部分研究以调查哪一种书面反馈的形式更为有效位目标。这些研究中, 虽然结论不同意, 但是大部分学者认为, 学生投入度是影响书面反馈的一大原因之一。因此, 本次研究调查将分别从认知角度、行为角度、情感角度和学术角度对英语专业大学是如何投入到老师书面反馈的应用中的问题进行调查。除此之外, 本次研究也将探讨哪些个人因素以及外界因素会影响学生不同程度的参与度。如果要调查学生的投入度, 一个前提是老师需要用多次反馈的教学方法。因此, 本研究有目的地选择了使用多次反馈的两位大学老师的课堂与学生。

研究方法

本次研究讲持续两个学期, 大约 10 个月的时间。两位在中国大陆大学英语系教学的教师将会被问及是否有参与本研究的意愿, 研究者向两位教师讲解释此次研究的目的、过程、方法与两位若参与此次研究需要配合的工作。当两位教师确认后, 研究者会根据学生高考成绩、上学期的写作成绩与教师推荐在两位老师的班里分别选择 9 位学生, 因此, 此研究共有 18 名学生参与。研究者会向两位教师强调此次研究不会干预他

们的教学过程和方法，但是研究者作为观察者将进行课堂旁听。在旁听期间，课程内容会被录音，但研究者会坐在教室最后，不会对课堂进行干扰。除此之外，每个学期初与学期末研究者将与两位教师分别进行大约半小时的半结构化访谈，以了解两位老师对于英语教学以及教师书面反馈的理解和应用。两位老师会被告知每次访谈都将会被录音。

两位教师课堂中将会选择九名不同英语水平的学生将会纳入该研究，3 名为高水平学生，3 名中等水平与 3 名低水平学生。当告知研究目的与询问是否参与后，对该研究感兴趣的学生可提供微信号码或其他联系方式，方便联系。如果不想提供微信号码，学生们将自行选择其他联络资料。

参与学生每学期需要进行两次半结构化访谈（学期初与学期末），两次作文作业的提交（一稿）、根据教师反馈的修改（二稿）以及两次即时口头报告（发生在作文修改之后）。作为两位教师的教学日常工作，每学期学生都需要提交两次作文作业。每次作业都为课后作业，学生可自行决定完成作业的时间。一般情况下，作业需要在教师布置作业 5 天后进行提交。学生的一稿及相应教师书面反馈、学生根据教师书面反馈进行修改的二稿将被复印。两次半结构化访谈将会被录音、两次作文修改的过程以及即时口头报告都将被录音与录像，以便日后研究。每个访谈和口头报告大概需要半个小时。

参与的老师和学生将会得到 300 人民币的奖励，这是根据中国大陆兼职的平均工资计算出来的。

說明任何風險

本次实验不会进行任何干预，所以基本没有可预测的风险。阁下的参与纯属自愿性质。阁下享有充分的权力在任何时候决定退出这项研究，更不会因此导致任何不良后果。关于阁下的资料将会保密，一切资料的编码只有研究人员得悉。

將如何發佈研究結果

本研究的成果可能会发表在期刊论文，学术会议以及本人的博士论文中。但是任何信息的陈述都将与该学生核对，避免任何有偏见的解读。

如閣下想獲得更多有關這項研究的資料,請與刘雨薇聯絡,電話+852 [REDACTED] 或者 0086 [REDACTED] 或聯絡她/他們的導師 Dr MAK, Pauline,電話+852 [REDACTED]

如閣下對這項研究的操守有任何意見,可隨時與香港教育大學人類實驗對象操守委員會聯絡(電郵: hrec@eduhk.hk ; 地址:香港教育大學研究與發展事務處)。

謝謝閣下有興趣參與這項研究。

刘雨薇

首席研究員

Appendix S Marking criteria for Test for English Majors-Band 4 (TEM4)

以下是专四写作评分原则 (Translation: Below are the marking criteria for TEM4):

➤ 内容阐述能力 10 分(中心思想、观点论述、论据陈述、逻辑关系等)。

(Translation: Content development: 10 points; including clear main ideas, argument development, supporting details, logical relationships etc.)

➤ 篇章组织能力 3 分(全篇结构、段落划分等)。

(Translation: Organization: 3 points; including overall structure, paragraph distributions etc.)

➤ 语言运用能力 7 分(词汇、语法、标点等)。

(Translation: Language use: 7 points; vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, etc.)