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Student Engagement with Teacher Written Corrective Feedback in a French as a Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract: This paper reports on an exploratory multiple-case study conducted to examine 6 French as a foreign language (FFL) learners at a university in Costa Rica and their affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagements with teacher written corrective feedback (WCF). We collected data through students’ writings (drafts and revisions), semistructured interviews, and stimulated recall interviews. We used the students’ writings to examine students’ behavioral engagement, and we used the semistructured and stimulated recall interviews to determine how students engaged cognitively and affectively with WCF. Findings revealed that although most participants initially reported mixed feelings and, at times, negative emotions upon the receipt of WCF, they overcame such feelings and became more positively engaged with the teacher’s WCF. All participants were able to detect the teacher’s WCF intention. However, only half of them reported using certain cognitive or metacognitive strategies when processing feedback. Even if their behavioral engagement was relatively high overall, the students’ affective and cognitive engagement varied.

*Keywords:* written feedback, behavioral engagement, cognitive engagement, affective engagement

Many past and present studies have explored the provision and effectiveness of written corrective feedback (WCF; see Karim & Nassaji, 2019 for a recent review). However, little is known about how second language (L2) learners engage with WCF and, more specifically, how their engagement affects their writing accuracy. Furthermore, the few recent studies on learner engagement (e.g., Han & Hyland, 2015; Zhang, 2017; Zheng & Yu, 2018) have all been on English as either a second or a foreign language. Learner engagement, however, is a dynamic process that may differ across individuals and be influenced by both learner and contextual factors (e.g., Hyland, 2003; Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010). Learner engagement may, for example, vary depending on learners’ cultural and educational background or the social relationship they have with their teachers and classmates (Han & Hyland, 2015). Little is known about how learners in different educational contexts pay attention to and process WCF. As Ellis (2010) pointed out, although oral corrective feedback research has examined the interaction of contextual factors with corrective feedback (CF; see also Goldstein, 2006; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017), overall these factors have not received much attention in research on WCF. This lack of attention represents a major limitation of current WCF studies. To fill these gaps, the present study investigated six French as a foreign language (FFL) students’ affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement with WCF and also examined how their affective and/or cognitive engagement impacted their behavioral responses to such feedback.

**Student Engagement and CF**

*Engagement* has been used as an umbrella term to bring together students’ degree of attention, curiosity, interest, and willingness to employ their language proficiency and a repertoire of learning skills to make progress (Zhang & Hyland, 2018, p. 91). Fredricks et al. (2004) proposed a tripartite conceptualization of student engagement encompassing three interrelated dimensions: behavioral, cognitive, and emotional. *Behavioral engagement* refers to positive conduct in class and at school, involvement
in academic tasks, and participation in school activities. *Cognitive engagement* is concerned with strategic learning and psychological investment in learning. *Emotional engagement* includes students’ affective reactions in the classroom and at school, such as happiness, sadness, boredom, anxiety, and interest.

Ellis (2010) applied Fredricks et al.’s (2004) definition of engagement to CF. However, Ellis’s operationalization was slightly different. He defined *behavioral engagement* as student response to feedback in the form of uptake and revision, *cognitive engagement* as the way in which students attend to received CF, and *affective engagement* as students’ affective (e.g., anxiety) and attitudinal (e.g., dislike) responses to CF.

Drawing on a similar conceptualization, Han and Hyland (2015) also defined *student engagement* as a construct that includes the previously discussed three dimensions of engagement: affective, behavioral, and cognitive. They characterized *affective engagement* as students’ immediate emotional reactions upon the receipt of WCF, changes in these emotions, and attitudinal responses toward WCF. They represented *behavioral engagement* as what students do with the WCF received, including students’ revisions, whereas they used *cognitive engagement* to refer to investment in processing WCF, manifested in the degree to which students attend to WCF or in the cognitive and metacognitive strategies they use in processing WCF. Using this three-dimensional approach to learner engagement, Han and Hyland conducted a case study with four non-English-major Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) students. Their findings provided evidence for student engagement within and across the behavioral, cognitive, and affective dimensions.

Using a similar design to Han and Hyland (2015), Zheng and Yu (2018) examined students’ engagement with WCF in EFL writing classes. However, they fine-tuned affective engagement by specifying the kind of attitudinal response learners provided to CF. Based on Martin and Rose (2003), they divided affective engagement into three subcategories: affect, judgment, and appreciation. *Affect* was defined as the feelings

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and emotions students expressed upon receiving WCF in conjunction with changes in these feelings and emotions when revising their texts. **Judgment** included personal judgments of admiration or criticism, as well as moral judgments of praise/condemnation toward WCF. **Appreciation** referred to the value students ascribed to teacher WCF. Zheng and Yu then collected data from 12 low-proficiency Chinese L2 English learners using oral reports recorded by students immediately upon receipt of feedback, as well as semistructured interviews. Their findings showed that while the participants’ affective engagement was relatively positive, their behavioral and cognitive engagement was not extensive, in the sense that their behavioral engagement did not necessarily result in greater language accuracy. Zheng and Yu (2018) also reported that students’ lower English proficiency negatively influenced their cognitive and behavioral engagement with WCF and caused imbalances among the three subdimensions of engagement.

Han (2017) also examined students’ engagement in an EFL context, but her focus was on the extent to which students’ beliefs mediated their engagement with WCF. She conducted a qualitative multiple-case study involving six Chinese EFL university students. Her findings showed a notable relationship between learner beliefs and learner engagement with WCF. For example, she found that a student who identified himself as an underachiever did not experience any negative emotions when receiving teacher WCF because he never expected to write anything error free. Han’s study also showed a relationship between students’ perceptions about WCF and their engagement, with those who experienced negative feelings being less engaged with WCF.

These few are the only studies so far conducted on learner engagement with WCF. Thus, this area of research is still underexplored compared to the research on the provision and effectiveness of WCF. Moreover, although these studies have shown evidence for students’ affective and cognitive engagement, they have not examined how the two forms of engagement affect one another or how students’ engagement impacts their writing.
accuracy. In addition, all three aforementioned studies focused on an EFL context. Therefore, little is known about how and to what extent students learning other languages engage with and process WCF. As noted earlier, learner engagement is context specific, and research, therefore, needs to examine learner engagement in different instructional contexts (Ellis, 2010; Goldstein, 2006). To fill these gaps, the present study examined six French as a foreign language (FFL) students’ affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement when they received CF on their written errors. It also examined how their affective and/or cognitive engagement impacted their behavioral responses to WCF. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What linguistic errors do learners make in a Costa Rican tertiary-level FFL classroom, and what WCF is provided by their teacher to address these errors?
2. How do learners affectively, cognitively, and behaviorally engage with the teacher’s WCF?
3. What impact, if any, do learners’ affective and cognitive engagement have on their behavioral engagement in the form of revision?

Method

Research Context

The current study took place at a Costa Rican university that offers an FFL program. At the time of the investigation, there were 150 students and 30 teachers in the program. The academic year is divided into two semesters, each lasting 16 weeks. Most French classes meet for 3 hours a week. In 2017, the teachers in the FFL program were encouraged to reconsider their written corrective practices and were asked to incorporate evaluation grids and standardized correction codes to improve teacher WCF provision. These changes were motivated by the participation of several FFL teachers in a research project that examined the development of formative
assessment practices among FFL university teachers to aid efficient WCF provision.

Participants

We recruited participants from an intact class, Written Expression (WE) II, in the FFL program. There are three WE courses in the program, and while all focus on writing, they vary in terms of language level and goals. We selected WE II because its goal is to teach argumentative essays. Argumentative writing is one of the most difficult written genres in higher education for both second-language (SL) and foreign-language (FL) learners, who often face difficulties using complex syntactic forms in their argumentation (Ka-kan-dee & Kaur, 2014). Therefore, we thought it would be worthwhile to examine what kind of errors these students make, what WCF teachers provide for their students, and how these students engage with this feedback.

There were six students registered in the WE II class, and we invited them all to participate in the study. There were four male and two female students aged between 20 and 28 in the class. All of them were Spanish speakers and, according to their classroom placement test, were considered to be at an intermediate level of French proficiency. Table 1 shows the students’ background information.

The teacher of WE II, a native Spanish speaker who is also proficient in French, has a PhD in Measurement and Evaluation and had received specific training for both teaching and responding to students’ writing during his university studies in teaching FFL. He has 20 years of experience teaching FFL and, at the time of the study, was teaching a course on grammar and written expression in French.

Data Collection

The data collection started at the beginning of the semester and lasted for 3 weeks. It involved four WCF-revision stages. In Stage 1, the first week of the study, the students wrote an argumentative five-paragraph
essay in class. The teacher selected the essay’s topic, which was about the use of technology in school. The teacher gave a picture prompt to the participants about two students who were supposed to do an assignment for their written French class. The picture showed one student carrying many books from the school library, whereas the other student was holding a tablet. The teacher asked students to answer the question about which student took the best approach to handle the assignment and justify their answers in an argumentative five-paragraph essay using between 300 and 350 words. In Stage 2, at the beginning of week 2, the teacher provided WCF on each individual text. The CF was in any form that the teacher deemed appropriate. In Stage 3, at the end of the 2nd week, the students received their original text with the teacher’s WCF and revised their text.

Table 1

Participants’ Background Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>First language</th>
<th>Other languages</th>
<th>Academic major</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (intermediate)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlie</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (advanced)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (basic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerald</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (intermediate)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (basic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paola</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>French (intermediate)</td>
<td>FFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English (basic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All names are pseudonyms.

in response to the WCF. On the same day, during class time, students wrote a second draft incorporating the received WCF and submitted it to the teacher. In Stage 4, during the 3rd week, one-on-one semistructured interviews (in Spanish) and stimulated recall were carried out with each student participant within 24 hours of receiving their revised drafts. The semistructured interview examined the learners’ overall perspectives on feedback and the stimulated-recall interview examined learner engagement. For the stimulated recall, the researchers showed the students copies of their draft and revised texts and asked questions about how they engaged with and processed the feedback. The interviews lasted for around 60 minutes and were video recorded and transcribed for analysis. The questions for the interviews are presented in the Appendix. Figure 1 shows an example of the kinds of questions asked during the stimulated-recall interview, along with a student’s response.

Figure 1
Interview Excerpt and Screen Shot of Student Writing

Interviewer: What does this code mean?
Student: It means that there is a problem with a verb.
Interviewer: So, what does the teacher want you to do here?
Student: He wants me to revise the verb tense, here I use the infinitive of the verb permettre (allow) when I should have used the past tense, that is permis (allowed) because the action took place yesterday and yesterday refers to the past tense.
Data Analysis

The data analysis consisted of two phases: (a) a quantitative analysis of student errors, types of WCF, and students’ behavioral reactions to WCF in the form of revisions (i.e., behavioral engagement) and (b) a qualitative analysis of transcriptions of the semistructured and stimulated-recall interviews (to address students’ cognitive and affective engagement). The three types of WCF engagement were determined according to a conceptual framework adapted from Zheng and Yu (2018; see Table 2).

First, we analyzed learners’ linguistic errors, teacher WCF types, and learners’ revision in response to their teacher’s feedback. We identified and categorized the errors according to a taxonomy adapted from Ferris (2006), which included word choice, verb tenses, articles, singular/plural agreement, punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, and subject-verb agreement. Then, we calculated error rates based on the number of errors.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of engagement WCF</th>
<th>Subconstructs of each dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective engagement</td>
<td>Affect: Students’ feelings and emotions expressed upon receiving WCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judgment: Personal judgments of admiration/criticism, as well as moral judgments of praise/condemnation toward WCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation: Students’ value of WCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral engagement</td>
<td>Revisions in response to WCF—these are responses used to improve the accuracy of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive engagement</td>
<td>Cognitive processing of WCF (i.e., showing awareness of the presence of feedback)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

per 100 words in each participant’s first draft (total number of errors/total number of words x 100). We coded the types of WCF provided by the teacher according to the error-correction categories adapted from Gue- nette (2009; see Table 3 with examples from the data).

To investigate the learners’ behavioral engagement, we cross-linked the original errors in their first drafts, which had been treated with WCF, to their revised parts in each student’s subsequent draft. The revisions in response to WCF were identified and categorized based on the textual-level changes students made, using the taxonomy of Ferris (2006) and Han and Hyland (2015). We used the following response categories: correct revision, incorrect revision, deletion, substitution, and no revision (see Table 4 with descriptions and examples from the data).

For these analyses, we calculated intercoder reliability, for which we invited an additional coder, a university FFL teacher with a master’s degree in teaching FFL, to examine the students’ drafts and the teacher’s WCF. She and the first author initially coded approximately 50% of the textual data independently (the original and revised drafts of three student participants, together with the teacher’s WCF). The agreement rates for the identification and categorization of errors, teacher WCF occurrences, and revision operations were 93%, 98%, and 91.6%, respectively.

For learners’ cognitive and affective engagement, we adopted an inductive approach, qualitatively analyzing transcripts of learners’ interviews. Following Han and Hyland (2015), prior to the coding process, we organized the transcripts by individual participants and read each participant data file iteratively. We then highlighted and coded the textual segments that provided relevant insight to the research questions. Next, we produced a narrative of each student’s engagement with WCF, compared codes across data files, and clustered codes that shared similarities into categories and subcategories. We calculated intercoder reliability for this analysis as well. We invited an additional coder (the same coder previously mentioned) to code all the interview transcripts. Initially, the overall intercoder agreement rate for engagement was 70.8%. Most disagreement was
Table 3
*Types of WCF; Adapted From Guénette (2009)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of CF</th>
<th>Description and example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct error correction without comment</td>
<td>Correct form is provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>les libres électroniques ont beaucoup d’avantages livres</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct error correction with metalinguistic explanations</td>
<td>Correct form is provided with explanation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>L’utilisation des appareil électroniques</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>des appareils électroniques (pluriel + accord)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>(plural + agreement)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification requests</td>
<td>The teacher asks a question to understand what the student means.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>une énorme quantité de livres dans une seule machine</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>un dispositif, une clé USB?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>[a device, a USB key?]</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect error identification</td>
<td>The error is underlined, highlighted, or color coded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The correct form is not provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>grace à la grande capacité</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>[this word is highlighted because it contains a spelling error]</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect error identification with error code</td>
<td>The type of error is spelled out, but the correct form is not provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Alors, étant doné que les livres</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>O [code O = ortographe =&gt; spelling]</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect error identification with comment, question, or explanations</td>
<td>The type of error is indicated using comments or questions. The correct form is not provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Maintenant, verrons le côté positif de la situation</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>l’impératif de voir?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>[what is the imperative mode of see?]</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

*Learners’ Revision Categories; Adapted From Ferris (2006) and Han and Hyland (2015)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revision operation</th>
<th>Description and example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Correct revision   | The error was corrected as intended by the teacher.  
  *Le fait d’avoir de problèmes de visibilité peut souvent*  
  [Error: word choice] => *Le fait d’avoir de légers problèmes de vision peut souvent* |
| Incorrect revision | The error was revised incorrectly.  
  *les tecnologies peuvent aider les élèves*  
  [Error: spelling] => *les tecnologis peuvent aider les élèves* |
| Deletion           | The marked text was deleted to address the error.  
  *Nous pensions et nous sommes convaincus que la technologie n’est pas parfaite*  
  [Error: verb tense] => *Nous sommes convaincus que la technologie n’est pas parfaite* |
| Substitution       | The marked text was substituted by a correction not suggested by the teacher’s feedback.  
  *Nous trouvons que la technologie joue un rôle important*  
  [we find that technology plays an important role] => *Évidemment la technologie est cruciale*  
  [Clearly technology is crucial]* |
| No revision        | No revision was made.  
  *Nous devons seulement avoir un appareil numérique_*  
  *surfer en ligne_ cliquer sur le lien et*  
  [Error: punctuation, missing comma] => *Nous devons seulement avoir un appareil numérique surfer en ligne cliquer sur le lien et* |
resolved after discussion. The final intercoder agreement rates for behavioral engagement, cognitive engagement, and affective engagement were 94.6%, 98.1%, and 98.5%, respectively.

Results

Error and WCF Types

The first set of analyses examined patterns of errors in students’ writing and the types of WCF students received. Table 5 shows the types of errors found. Students made a variety of errors, including errors involving sentence structure, word choice, subject-verb agreement, word form, singular/plural agreement, and punctuation. Among these error types, spelling was the most frequent (37%), followed by sentence structure (20%). However, the types of errors differed from student to student. For example, while the most common type of error made by Ben was subject-verb agreement (40%), followed by spelling (20%), the most frequent type of error made by Charlie was spelling (57%), followed by sentence structure (23%). As for Helen, sentence structure was her most common error type (36%), followed by word choice (27%) and singular/plural agreement (27%). Paola’s most frequent type of error, however, was word choice (39%), followed by sentence structure (22%) and punctuation (22%).

Table 6 shows the types of WCF students received. The most frequent type was indirect WCF (five out of the six students received predominantly indirect WCF). However, the nature and the frequency of the WCF differed across students. For example, the only WCF type that Charlie received was indirect WCF with an error code (100%). However, Helen received both indirect WCF with a comment and direct WCF. Paola, Chris, and Gerald received direct WCF less frequently (17%, 4%, and 25%, respectively). Most of the WCF Ben received was indirect WCF with a code (74%), with only a small percentage of indirect error identification with a comment and direct error correction (13% each).
Table 5
Types of Errors in Students’ First Drafts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>SS^1</th>
<th>WCh^2</th>
<th>Sp^3</th>
<th>S-V^4</th>
<th>WF^5</th>
<th>Sg/Pl^6</th>
<th>P^7</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlie</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerald</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paola</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
1SS = sentence structure
2WCh = word choice
3Sp = spelling
4S-V = subject-verb agreement
5WF = word form
6Sg/Pl = singular/plural agreement
7P = punctuation

Table 6
WCF on Students’ First Draft

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Type of WCF</th>
<th>Indirect with code</th>
<th>Indirect with comment</th>
<th>Direct without comment</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlie</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerald</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paola</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>174</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Table 7 shows the teacher’s WCF and students’ revisions. As can be seen, students were able to incorporate all of the teacher’s direct WCF, followed by some indirect WCF with an error code (62.07%) and, to a lesser extent, indirect WCF with a comment (42.86%). As can also be seen, students who received indirect WCF with a comment made more incorrect revisions (29%) than those receiving indirect WCF through codes. They also chose to delete errors instead of revising them more often than students who received indirect WCF with codes (14% and 2%, respectively). In terms of no revision, both groups of students who received indirect WCF (with a code and comment) responded similarly to the teacher’s WCF (16% and 14%, respectively).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of student revision</th>
<th>Type of teacher WCF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indirect with code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct without comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No revision</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect revision</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correct revision</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following sections, we will present the findings related to each student’s affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagement.

Affective, Behavioral, and Cognitive Engagement

As noted earlier, affective engagement concerns students’ personal judgments, feelings, emotions, and appreciation expressed when receiving WCF, whereas cognitive engagement refers to the cognitive strategies
learners report having used when receiving WCF. Behavioral engagement concerns learners’ behavioral response to WCF in the form of revision. In the following sections, we will present the results of these different types of engagement and their relationship for each student participant.

Ben

Ben’s interview responses included many statements that provided evidence that he was affectively engaged with WCF to a great extent. For example, when he saw examples of WCF, he first experienced negative emotions, but he quickly replaced them with positive emotions by showing appreciation for the value of WCF and stating that it was useful in helping him avoid making the same mistake in the future:

Estuve sorprendido por algunos errores que cometí porque eran evidentes. En esos casos, me sentí algo descorazonado por los errores tontos que hice. Pero nada tan serio. Sé que la próxima vez prestaré más atención y lo haré mejor. [I was surprised by some of the errors I made because they were so evident. In those cases I felt a bit discouraged for the silly mistakes that I made. But nothing that serious. I know that next time I will pay more attention and I’ll do better.]

Por ejemplo, yo sé que hombre se escribe con doble m, pero supongo que no estaba prestando atención cuando escribí con una m, por eso me sentí tan frustrado y estúpido que estoy seguro que nunca más volveré a cometer el mismo error. [For example, I know that hombre is written with double m, but I guess I was not paying enough attention when I wrote it with just one m, so I felt so frustrated and stupid that I am sure that I will never ever make the same mistake again.]

Ben stated that feedback was not only helpful for improving students’ writing but also motivating, as it showed signs of learning:

La retroacción es muy importante porque nos ayuda a identificar nuestros errores, las áreas en las que tenemos que mejorar y también porque nos muestra lo que ya hemos aprendido. Cuando recibo mi ensayo y veo que tengo menos errores que en mi anterior ensayo me siento bien y motivado. [Feedback is very important because it helps us to identify our errors, the areas that we need to improve,
and also because it shows us what we have already learned. When I receive my essay and see that I have fewer errors than in my previous essay, I feel good and motivated.]

Ben appreciated the value of indirect WCF: “Me gusta cuando el profesor me da una pista más que cuando él me da la respuesta correcta porque en mi caso lo que viene fácil, fácil se va. [I like when the teacher gives me a clue rather than when he provides me the right answer because in my case, easy comes, easy goes.]” Ben also received predominately indirect WCF (87%). His positive attitude toward indirect WCF could have contributed to his high behavioral success in revising his text (see Table 8).

Ben’s cognitive engagement with WCF was also relatively extensive, as he was able to identify the teacher’s intention in all cases and provide accurate metalinguistic explanations for each of his revisions during the interview, as the following excerpts show:

Aquí me di cuenta que cometí un error con la concordancia entre el sujeto y el verbo. El sujeto está en la forma singular pero el verbo está en plural. El profesor escribió la pregunta: ¿Por qué usaste el plural? Me preguntó porque él quería que yo corrija la concordancia entre el sujeto y el verbo, y eso es lo que hice. [Here I noticed that I made a mistake with agreement between the subject and the verb. The subject is in a singular form, but the verb is in a plural form. The teacher wrote the question: “Why did you use plural?” He asked me that question because he wanted me to correct the agreement between the subject and the verb, and that is what I did.]

He also used cognitive strategies such as deconstructing a sentence to identify agreement errors:

Cuando tengo que corregir errores de concordancia, en lugar de buscar en el diccionario, leo la oración y trato de deconstruirla en pequeñas partes para poder encontrar el problema. Leo la oración tratando de prestar atención a cada palabra. [When I have to correct agreement errors, instead of looking it up in the dictionary,
I read the sentence and try to deconstruct it in small pieces so that I can find where the problem is. I read the sentence trying to pay attention to each word.]

As a result, Ben was highly successful at revision, correctly revising 90% of his errors (Table 8).

**Charlie**

In contrast to Ben, Charlie showed an affectively low engagement with WCF. He did not provide any emotional comments on any of the WCF he received and explicitly reported that receiving WCF did not produce any emotional reaction in him, for he expected it as part of the learning process:

Recibir retroacción del profesor no me generó ninguna emoción en particular, ni positiva, ni negativa. Estoy preparado para eso. Espero recibir retroacción de su parte porque es parte del proceso de aprendizaje. [Receiving my teacher’s feedback did not generate any particular emotional reaction in me, neither positive nor negative. I am prepared for that. I expect to have feedback from him because it is part of the learning process.]

Charlie's cognitive engagement was also relatively minimal. During the interview, he was able to provide metalinguistic explanation for only one out of the five types of errors he was asked to revise, as shown below:

Aquí el profesor escribió S por structure de la phrase. Cuando estaba revisando me di cuenta que en lugar de escribir *du fait* escribí *de le fait* y ese es un error común para mí porque controyero la estructura del español, todavía no me acostumbro a usar *du* en lugar de *de le*. Soy una persona de hábitos. Eso significa que todavía voy a cometer el mismo error. [Here the teacher wrote an S for sentence structure. When I was revising, I realized that instead of writing *du fait* I wrote *de le fait*, and that is a common mistake for me because I transfer the structure from Spanish. I am still not used to *du* instead of *de le*. I am a person of habits. That means that I will still make the same mistake.]
He also reported that he would, on some occasions, make a substitution for an erroneous form without understanding why the teacher marked the original as erroneous:

Aquí el profesor escribió el código Voc por vocabulario al costado de la palabra dont y para ser sincero, hasta ahora no sé por qué dont no es correcto... Cambié dont por otra palabra, pero sigo sin entender cuál fue el problema. [Here the teacher wrote the code Voc, for vocabulary, next to the word dont, and to be honest, I still don't know why dont is not good ... I changed dont for another word, but I still don't know what the problem there was.]

Despite Charlie's minimal cognitive engagement, his behavioral engagement was relatively moderate, in that he successfully revised 68% of his errors (see Table 8). He expressed his preference for receiving indirect WCF through codes: “Pienso que usar códigos para dar retroacción es la forma más efectiva para dar retroacción, porque es rápida, confiable y precisa. [I think that using codes to provide feedback is the most effective way to provide feedback because it is fast, reliable, and accurate.]” Since all the feedback instances he received were also indirect WCF with code, this could have contributed to his relative success at revision.

Chris

Similar to Charlie, Chris’s affective engagement with WCF was mostly negative. He experienced frustration and disappointment when he received the teacher’s WCF, and he reported that WCF had a negative impact on his self-confidence:

Cuando recibí mi borrador con todos esos errores, me sentí frustrado porque quería aprender, rendir mejor que eso. Estuve decepcionado porque no estoy en el nivel correcto. Cuando estaba revisando, me sentí más frustrado porque no sabía cómo corregir, por los códigos, no sabía qué hacer. Entonces, perdí la confianza en mí mismo también. [When I received my draft with all the errors, I felt frustrated because I wanted to learn, to perform better than that. I was disappointed because I am not in the right level. When I was revising, I felt more and more frustrated]
because I did not know how to correct, because of the codes, I did not know what
to do. So I lost my self-confidence, too.]

Chris’s negative attitudes toward WCF were also evident through his
personal judgment and criticism about the type of WCF he received, as
the following excerpts from the interview show:

El profesor usa códigos para todos los estudiantes, pero no todos los estudiantes
aprenden de la misma manera. Yo no aprendo con códigos. Necesito tener la cor-
rección del error. Ya sé que estoy equivocado, pero no sé cuál es la solución. [The
teacher uses codes for all students, but not all the students learn in the same way.
I don’t learn with codes. I need to have the correction of the error. I already know
that I am wrong, but I don’t know what the solution is.]

Me gustaría que el profesor me dé instrucciones más detalladas sobre qué y
cómo corregir mis errores además de usar códigos de tal manera que yo pueda
identificar mi error en el futuro. [I wish the teacher gave me clearer and more detailed
instructions about what and how to correct my mistakes other than just using codes
so that I can identify my error in the future.]

His negative attitude might have contributed to his low cognitive en-
gagement. During the interview, he was able to provide explanations for
only one out of the six types of errors he received WCF on. However, his
data showed that he was sometimes accurate about the intention of the
teacher: “Aquí el profesor utilizó O por ortografía e hizo un círculo en la
sílaba. Entonces comprendí que había un problema en la ortografía de esa
sílaba. [Here the teacher used the code Sp for spelling and circled the syllable.
So I understood that there was a problem with spelling in that syllable.]”

He also acknowledged his weakness in spelling and vocabulary:

Cuando estaba escribiendo mi borrador, tuve cierta dificultad para encontrar las pal-
abras correctas para expresar mis ideas. Cuando recibí el borrador corregido, me di
cuenta que tuve muchos errores gramaticales. Me di cuenta que tenía que prestar más
atención a la ortografía y a la utilización de vocabulario también. [When I was writ-
ing my draft, I had some difficulty finding the right words to express my ideas. When
I received the corrected draft, I realized that I had made many grammar mistakes. I realized that I had to pay more attention to spelling and using vocabulary, too.

The criticism expressed by Chris was probably related to his particular background. He was the only participant with a full-time job: “No tengo todo el día para buscar la respuesta porque tengo un trabajo a tiempo completo. [I don’t have all day to look for the answer because I have a full-time job.]”

Overall, Chris’s low cognitive and negative affective engagement with the teacher’s WCF might have contributed to his relatively limited behavioral engagement compared with the other participants. As Table 8 shows, he correctly revised 55% of his errors in addition to making a notable number of incorrect revisions (20%).

Gerald

Similar to Ben and different from Charlie and Chris, Gerald reported a high degree of affective engagement. Overall, he had a very positive attitude toward WCF and its role in improving his writing. In particular, Gerald valued indirect WCF, noting, “me gusta cuando el profesor me da una pista para encontrar mi error porque me siento responsable de mi revisión. [I like when the teacher gives me a clue to find my mistake because I feel that I’m responsible for my revision.]” Gerald’s positive attitude toward WCF aligned with his personal judgment of its value: “Es extremamente importante para mejorar nuestra escritura. La retroacción nos permite entender nuestros errores y darnos cuenta sobre cuál es nuestro real nivel de dominio del idioma. [It is extremely important to improve our writing. Feedback allows us to understand our mistakes and realize what our language proficiency level really is.]”

Gerald stated that his emotional reaction to WCF depended on the type of error he made:

Mi respuesta emocional depende del tipo de error, por ejemplo, si es algo nuevo para mí e intenté lo mejor que pude, entonces no me siento mal; pero, si es un
error tonto o un error que siempre cometo, entonces experimento más sentimentos negativos como por ejemplo frustración. [My emotional reaction depends on the type of error, for example, if it is something new for me, that I tried my best, then I don’t feel that bad, but if it is a silly mistake or an error that I always make, then I experience more negative feelings like frustration.]

Algunas veces me siento frustrado cuando hago errores tontos, cuando me doy cuenta que era obvio que esa no era la forma correcta de hacerlo. [Sometimes I feel frustrated when I made silly mistakes, when I realize that it was obvious that it was not the right way to do it.]

His positive attitude toward feedback might have contributed to his relatively high level of cognitive engagement. He was able to provide accurate metalinguistic explanation for four out of six types of errors:

Cuando estaba escribiendo mi primer borrador, estaba más concentrado en el contenido de mi ensayo que en la gramática. Cuando recibí la retroacción del profesor, me di cuenta que se pasaron errores de ortografía, así como de errores sobre los tiempos verbales. [When I was writing the first draft, I was more focused on the content of my essay than on grammar. When I got the teacher’s feedback, I realized that I overlooked the spelling mistakes as well as verb-tense errors.]

He also stated that he used different cognitive strategies when revising, including identifying the type of error he made and deconstructing the sentence:

Lo primero en lo que me concentro cuando revise mi texto es el código que el profesor me da, y luego con el código identifico qué tipo de error he cometido. Luego, en el caso de vocabulario, por ejemplo, trato de encontrar una palabra que significa lo mismo y la uso en el lugar de la palabra equivocada. [The first thing I focus on while revising my text is the code the teacher gives me, and then with the code, I identify what type of error I’ve made. Then, in the case of vocabulary, for example, I try to find a word that means the same and use it instead.]

En el caso de la concordancia, analizo las palabras que rodean el error. Trato de deconstruir la frase en pedazos y luego trato de encontrar una forma para
organizar la oración en la forma correcta. [In the case of agreement, I analyze the words surrounding the error. I try to deconstruct the phrase in chunks, and then I try to find a way to organize the sentence in a good way.]

Gerald’s positive affective response to WCF, including his appreciation of its value and high cognitive engagement, could have contributed to his notable degree of behavioral success in the form of revisions (68%; see Table 8). Despite high affective and cognitive engagement, Gerald's behavioral enjoyment was lower than that of Ben. The disparity between his WCF preference (which was indirect WCF with comments) and the feedback type he received could partially explain this difference. Only 7% of the feedback he received was indirect WCF with a comment (although there was a fair amount of indirect WCF with codes).

Helen

When Helen received her first draft with WCF, she felt discouraged and surprised at the number of errors she had made. She stated, “Cuando recibí mi primer borrador corregido, me sorprendí porque había errores que no tenía idea que estaban incorrectos. Más aún, estaba segura que estaban bien. [When I got my first draft corrected, I was surprised because there were errors that I had no idea they were wrong. Moreover, I was sure they were right.]” However, her expressions of appreciation showed her affective engagement with WCF to be relatively high. In particular, she valued indirect WCF through codes: “Me parece útil la forma que mi profesor corrige mis errores utilizando códigos, porque él me dice que hay un error, pero me da también una pista sobre el tipo de error que es. [I find it useful the way my teacher corrects my mistakes using codes, because he tells me that there is a mistake but also he gives me a clue of what kind of mistake it is.]” She also expressed appreciation for her teacher’s WCF overall. She compared him with her other teachers and reported that it was the first time she had a teacher so devoted to his job, who took the time to correct her essay more than once.
Helen’s cognitive engagement was also relatively extensive, which could be partially related to her positive affective engagement. She was able to provide metalinguistic explanations for all the WCF she had received and for the revisions she had made. The following excerpts contain some examples:

Aquí el profesor escribió el código A por accord [concordancia]. Es porque cometí un error de concordancia con el sustantivo y el adjetivo. Es sustantivo era livres [libros] en plural y el adjetivo numérique [digital] estaba en singular. Entonces debe de haber concordancia entre ambos, ya sea los dos en plural o los dos en singular. Por lo tanto, corregí y añadí una s en numérique. [Here the teacher wrote the code A for agreement. It is because I made a mistake with the agreement of the noun and the adjective. The noun was livres in the plural form, and the adjective numérique was in the singular form. So there must be agreement between both: either both plural or both singular. Therefore, I corrected and added an s in numérique.]

En este caso, el profesor utilizó el código Voc por vocabulario, porque escribí digital, como lo usamos en español, y debí escribir numérique. Y ahora sé porque busqué en la internet en WordReference. Escribí en español libro digital y lo traduje al francés. Entonces encontré livre numérique. [In this case, the teacher used the code Voc for vocabulary because I wrote digital, as we use in Spanish, and I should have written numérique. I now know because I looked for it on the internet in WordReference.1 I wrote in Spanish libro digital and translated it to French. So I found livre numérique.]

She was also able to acknowledge why she made some certain errors:

Aquí, el profesor marcó O por ortografía. Cuando revisé me di cuenta que no había escrito esta palabra correctamente, pero fue porque no estaba prestando atención, no porque no sabía cómo escribirla. [Here, the teacher marked Sp for spelling. When I revised, I noticed that I hadn’t written this word correctly, but it was just because I was not paying attention, not because I didn’t know how to write it.]

Despite Helen’s relatively high affective and cognitive engagement, her behavioral engagement was moderate. As Table 8 shows, she correctly

1 WordReference (https://www.wordreference.com/) is a free online dictionary.
revised 64% of her errors. A contributing factor could be that she was surprised and discouraged by her many errors: “Cuando recibí mi ensayo con la retroacción del profesor y vi que tenía tantos errores me descorazoné porque no me lo esperaba. Cuando tengo un par de errores, no me molesta. [When I received my essay with the teacher’s feedback and I saw that I had a lot of errors, I felt discouraged because I didn’t expect that. When I have just a couple of errors, then it doesn’t bother me.]”

Paola

Paola initially experienced negative feelings when receiving teacher WCF:

Cuando leí el comentario del profesor al final de mi ensayo sobre que debería usar un diccionario para revisar el vocabulario, estaba confundida porque eso es lo que hago. Pero aparentemente, no se nota en mi trabajo. Entonces ya no sé qué más puedo hacer, y también me siento frustrada porque el profesor no especifica a qué palabras se está refiriendo. Entonces no está claro. [When I read the teacher’s comment in the end of my essay stating that I should use a dictionary to revise the vocabulary, I was confused because that is what I do. But apparently, it doesn't show in my work. So I don't know what else I can do, and I also feel frustrated because the teacher doesn't specify which words he is referring to. So it's not clear.]

However, despite this initial reaction, like Ben and Gerald, her emotional responses to WCF turned out to be positive overall. She valued the importance of feedback and reported that WCF allowed her to recognize her progress:

Me siento feliz cuando recibí mi ensayo corregido porque me di cuenta que no tuve tantos errores. Entonces sentí que había mejorado desde el comienzo del semestre. Estoy satisfecha porque ahora puedo entender lo que significan los códigos. Al comienzo, fue más difícil saber lo que se suponía que yo debería hacer. [I felt happy when I received my corrected essay because I noticed that I didn't have many errors. So I felt that I have improved since the beginning of the semester. I’m satisfied because
now I can understand what the codes mean. At the beginning it was more difficult to know what I was supposed to do.]

However, in contrast to Ben and Gerald, Paola’s cognitive engagement with WCF was relatively limited. During the interview, she was able to provide accurate metalinguistic explanations for only one out of the five different error types she made:

En este caso, por ejemplo, cuando vi el código A, me di cuenta que hice un error de accord. El adjetivo posesivo que usé son no concuerda con el sujeto ils. [In this case, for example, when I saw the code A, I realized that I made an error of agreement. The possessive adjective I used, his, does not agree with the subject they.]

Aquí el código S significa que tengo un problema con la estructura de la frase. Debe haber algo que falta, pero no tengo ni idea de cuál es. [Here the code S means that I have a problem with the sentence structure in the phrase. There must be something missing, but I have no clue what it is.]

Despite her low cognitive engagement, Paola was able to correct 78% of her errors, which shows that her behavioral engagement was relatively high (see Table 8). Part of the reason for this could be the high percentage of indirect WCF she received, which was mainly WCF with a code (77%), and thus, although she was able to detect the intention of the teacher’s WCF and her errors, she was unable to self-correct them all the time.

Summary

Table 9 shows a summary of the degree of the different types of engagement and their relationships. High and low affective and cognitive engagements in this table were based on the number of times each of the students reported evidence of being cognitively or emotionally engaged when shown the errors on which they had received WCF during the stimulated recall. These statements were tallied and categorized into high or low, depending on median scores. The degree of behavioral engagement was based on the percentages of correct revisions. Those who revised
their errors more than 70% of the time were categorized as relatively high; those who revised their errors between 60% and 70% of the time were categorized as relatively moderate; and those who revised their errors less than 60% of the time were categorized as relatively low. As Table 9 shows, of the four learners who showed a high level of affective engagement, two also showed a high level of behavioral engagement, and two showed a moderate level of behavioral engagement. This suggests that learners’ affective engagement positively impacted their behavioral engagement overall. As for cognitive engagement, two of the three learners who showed a high level of engagement showed a moderate level and one showed a high level of behavioral engagement. However, two of the three showing a low level of cognitive engagement showed a moderate or high level of behavioral engagement, which suggests that these two learners’ high-level cognitive engagement did not necessarily lead to a high level of behavioral engagement in the form of revisions.

Table 8
Students’ Types of Revision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Correct revision</th>
<th>Incorrect revision</th>
<th>Delete text</th>
<th>Substitution</th>
<th>No revision</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
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Table 9
A Summary of Learner Engagement

<table>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>2</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Low</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Discussion

This multiple-case study examined three research questions: (a) What linguistic errors do learners in a Costa Rican tertiary-level FFL classroom make and what WCF is provided by their teacher to address these errors? (b) How do the learners affectively, cognitively, and behaviorally engage with the teacher’s WCF? and (c) What impact, if any, do learners’ affective and cognitive engagement have on their behavioral engagement in the form of revision?

Findings show that students made a range of errors, among which spelling errors were the most frequent type. The many spelling errors could be explained by the high ratio of homonyms in French; that is, words that sound alike or represent similar concepts, but are not necessarily written the same way. For example, *bois* [wood], *boit* [drink], *voix* [voice], *voie* [way], and *voit* [saw] are all pronounced the same, despite their obviously different spellings. Another reason could be the presence of diacritical marks or accents such as the grave accent (è) or the circumflex (ê) that do not exist in Spanish (the students’ L1). In addition, there are some silent consonants in French. For example, the “s” at the end of most words is silent in French, as in *vous* [you], *temps* [time], and *champs* [fields], but is pronounced in Spanish.

WCF was provided mostly through indirect feedback with error codes (about 90% of the time), which could be interpreted as the teacher’s preference for this feedback type. Nevertheless, there were differences among the learners with respect to the type of WCF they received. For example, while the only WCF type that Charlie received was indirect WCF with error codes, Helen received both indirect WCF with a comment and direct correction at an equal rate. These differences suggest that the teacher might have adjusted his WCF strategies to each student’s needs.

The data also indicate varying degrees of affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement with WCF. Affectively, most participants initially reported mixed feelings after receiving WCF. However, most of them overcame their initial feelings and turned them into positive attitudes. All six participants recognized the corrective intent of the teacher’s WCF, but only half reported using certain cognitive or metacognitive strategies when processing this feedback. These findings are consistent with Han and Hyland (2015), who reported that even when learners acknowledged the occurrence of an error, they often failed to grasp the relevant metalinguistic rules, regardless of whether or not they attempted to process WCF at a deeper level. Our findings thus may point to the depth (noticing vs. understanding) at which the learners processed WCF.

Our findings show that learner behavioral engagement was relatively extensive. Overall, students were able to successfully revise most of their errors (over 60%). However, the degree of revision differed among students and also varied depending on the type of WCF. For example, although students received fewer instances of direct WCF compared to indirect WCF, all direct WCF instances led to correct revisions. This trend could be due to the more explicit nature of direct correction and the fact that the feedback provided the correct form. However, only 62% of indirect WCF with a code led to correct revisions. For indirect WCF to be successful, learners should have enough prior linguistic knowledge to be able to self-correct their errors (Nassaji, 2016). Since the students in this study were at an intermediate level and most errors were spelling errors, it is possible that

they did not have prior knowledge of many of the incorrect forms and therefore were unable to successfully self-correct all those errors when receiving WCF.

Our findings also point to a possible relationship between affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagement. For example, most of the learners who showed a high level of affective engagement also showed moderate to high levels of behavioral engagement. Conversely, most of those who showed low engagement or a negative attitude toward feedback also showed a low level of behavioral engagement. For instance, Chris and Charlie, who reported negative reactions or did not produce any emotional response to feedback, also showed a lesser degree of behavioral engagement when compared to the other students. On the other hand, Ben, who showed more positive reactions and appreciation for the value of WCF, also showed a relatively high degree of behavioral engagement and was more cognitively engaged with feedback, using strategies such as deconstructing the sentence into smaller parts when receiving WCF. These findings suggest that affective, behavioral, and cognitive dimensions of engagement are interrelated and that positive attitudes toward feedback may promote deeper cognitive reactions which might, in turn, enhance revisions (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Chen et al., 2016; Ellis, 2010; Zhang, 2017). Therefore, any study of learner engagement with WCF should take into account this interrelationship and its facultative effects on students’ writing.

Conclusion and Implications

This study examined the types of written linguistic errors learners in a Costa Rican tertiary-level FFL classroom made and the kinds of WCF their teacher provided to address these errors. It also examined the affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement of these learners upon receiving WCF. The study provided important insights into how learners process WCF and what effect it has on their writing. Overall, our findings point to the different degrees to which learners engage with WCF as well as the importance of both cognitive and affective factors in learner engagement. The data also
highlight how learners’ affective reactions and cognitive processing are interrelated, but they may not often influence learner responses to WCF in the same way.

Pedagogically, these findings have important implications. First, they suggest that students’ level of engagement with WCF may vary. Therefore, teachers should try to identify students whose level of engagement is low, determine the reason for low engagement, and assist them in processing the WCF more effectively. The results also show that WCF responses can be influenced by learners’ positive reactions and attitudes toward WCF. This finding highlights the importance of this variable on WCF effectiveness. Hence, teachers should attempt to provide individualized WCF in ways that foster learners’ emotional engagement. In this study, most participants who initially experienced mixed feelings when receiving WCF developed positive responses when they realized that feedback improved their writing. This finding suggests that teachers should not be overly concerned if students initially react negatively to feedback but rather should encourage learners to see its benefits. Teachers should also be aware that even when students can recognize the corrective intention of a piece of WCF, it does not imply that the students will be cognitively engaged with it or be able to learn from it. Deeper cognitive engagement requires not only awareness of what the WCF is about but also an adequate level of the knowledge, strategies, and resources needed to respond effectively. Thus, teachers should attempt to help learners in this area by teaching them the tools or resources they need to take an active role in their learning. If learners know strategies they could use to process WCF, they may be more likely to engage with the feedback.

This study has some limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, it was conducted with only six students, so the findings cannot be generalized to a larger population. To increase generalizability, studies with more students and in different contexts are needed. Second, since only two drafts of the same writing assignment were analyzed, development or change in learner engagement with regard to WCF, as well as patterns of
their responses over time, was not investigated. Therefore, it is worthwhile to conduct studies involving more drafts and utilizing more longitudinal methods of inquiry. Since, as mentioned earlier, engagement is a dynamic process influenced by both learner- and context-related factors, future research could investigate how learner engagement interacts with these factors. In particular, research on how WCF engagement interacts with various learner individual differences would be useful.
References


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Appendix

Interview Questions

Questions for the Semistructured Interview

1. Cuéntame sobre tu experiencia de aprendizaje al escribir los dos borradores de tu ensayo en francés. [Tell me about your learning experiences of writing two drafts of this French essay.]

2. Tu profesor te ha dado retroacción en tus errores en este borrador. En general, ¿qué piensas de la retroacción que tu profesor te dio en estos errores? [Your teacher has given feedback on your errors in this draft. In general, what do you think of your teacher’s feedback on these errors?]

3. Los profesores dan retroacción en errores lingüísticos de diferentes maneras, como por ejemplo subrayando, dando la respuesta correcta, dando pistas o códigos, y comentando en el margen. ¿Qué tipo de retroacción prefieres y por qué? [Teachers give feedback on linguistic errors in many ways, such as underlining, providing the right answer, giving clues or codes, and commenting in the margin. The interviewer shows examples in the draft. What type of feedback do you prefer? Why?]

4. ¿A qué punto entiendes la retroacción que te dio tu profesor en estos errores? [To what extent do you understand the teacher’s feedback on these errors?]

5. ¿Te gustaría que tu profesor cambie la manera de dar retroacción sobre tus errores? ¿Por qué? [Would you like your teacher to change the way he gave feedback on errors to you? Why?]

Questions for the Stimulated-Recall Interview

The interviewer selects at least one example of each type of error (Ferris, 2006) from Draft 1 and asks the following questions regarding different examples:

1. ¿Qué quiere tu profesor que hagas aquí? [What does the teacher want you to do here?]
2. ¿Cuál fue tu error aquí? [What was your mistake here?]
3. ¿Qué quiere decir este código/círculo/color, y así sucesivamente, aquí? [What does this code/circle/color, and so forth, mean here?]
4. Usualmente, ¿cómo utilizas la retroacción que tu profesor te da sobre tus errores cuando revisas tu borrador? [How do you usually use your teacher's feedback on your errors to revise your drafts?]

The interviewer selects at least one example of each type of error (Ferris, 2006) from Draft 1, shows examples of the student’s revision in the final draft, and asks the following questions:

5. ¿Qué es lo que hiciste para corregir este error lingüístico? [What did you do to correct this linguistic error?]
6. ¿Cómo te sentiste inmediatamente después que recibiste tu primer borrador con la retroacción de tu profesor? ¿Te sientes de la misma manera ahora? [How did you feel immediately after you received your first draft with teacher feedback? Do you feel the same way about it now?]
7. ¿Qué hiciste con estos errores lingüísticos en tu primer borrador? [What did you do with these linguistic errors in your first draft?]
8. ¿Qué piensas de la retroacción de tu profesor en estos errores de este primer borrador? [What do you think of your teacher’s feedback on these errors in the first draft?]
9. ¿Tienes algún otro comentario sobre la retroacción de tu profesor en tus errores lingüísticos o alguna reflexión sobre tu experiencia de aprendizaje en general? [Do you have any other comments on teacher feedback on linguistic errors, or reflections on this learning experience in general?]