

MOTIVATION AND WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK: HOW STUDENTS' IMPLICIT
THEORIES OF WRITING INTELLIGENCE INFLUENCE THEIR WRITING MOTIVATION AND
ORIENTATION TO WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

By

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ABSTRACT

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One of the most perplexing topics for second language writing educators is students' various treatments of written corrective feedback (WCF). Drawing on Dweck's theories of motivation (1988, 2004), the current study intends to investigate how language learners' implicit theories of intelligence influence their orientation to WCF as well as their motivation. A three questionnaires on motivation, WCF, and a background questionnaire totaling 73-items was given to 142 English language learners at a Midwestern university in the United States. The results of multiple regression analyses showed that the students' who have an incremental theory of writing intelligence (the belief that intelligence as something that is dynamic and can be developed through effort and experience) have a stronger tendency towards receiving and acting upon feedback compared to the students who have an entity theory of writing intelligence (the belief that intelligence is fixed and unchangeable). In addition, the incremental theory of intelligence was a strong predictor of writing motivation whereas the entity theory did not predict motivation. The research and pedagogical implications of the study are discussed.

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Introduction

Research on written corrective feedback (WCF) in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has a history of more than 30 years. The topic has been extensively researched and there is a better understanding of the issue than before; however, it continues to be debated (see Evans et al., 2010; Ferris, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Goldstein, 2005; Lee, 2004; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Saito, 1994; Schulz, 1996). One of the main reasons for the controversial findings concerning feedback may be the lack of attention to individual differences among learners (Hendrickson, 1978; Zamel, 1985). Although the effects of written corrective feedback have been investigated on students collectively, taking individual learner differences into account could help in developing a better understanding of the issue. While the relationship between feedback and individual learner differences remains underexplored, Hyland (1998) found that many of the teachers who participated in her qualitative work did, indeed, consider individual students when they gave their feedback. If many teachers give their students individual feedback on their papers, why not consider that in research?

One of the most important individual difference factors in second language (L2) learning which has rarely been studied in relation to L2 written corrective feedback is L2 writing motivation and the possible sources of it. The current study is based on the assumption that learners' L2 writing motivation and their orientation to written corrective feedback could have roots in learners' fundamental motivational characteristics. These chronic motivational differences have recently been introduced in L2 motivation research as motivational factors which could account for why learners have different levels of motivation and show different learning behaviors (Papi & Teimouri, 2014). Although motivation has almost been ignored in research on written corrective feedback, it has always been a concern for L2 writing researchers and many scholars have attested to its importance. Hyland (1998) argued that motivation is an important factor in feedback because writing can be very private: "Writing is an intensely personal activity, and students' motivation and confidence in themselves as writers may be adversely affected by the feedback they receive" (p. 279). Goldstein (2005) argued that lack of motivation is one reason students may not be paying attention to feedback. If motivation can play such a role in relation to written

corrective feedback, considering the motivational characteristics of learners in research on L2 writers' motivation and their orientation and treatment of written corrective feedback can help us further both research and practice in the area. More specifically, it could shed light on why some learners are highly motivated to master writing in the second language while others are not and also more specifically why some students cannot wait to get detailed feedback on their papers while others simply ignore it. The present study, thus, aims to take research on written corrective feedback from the point of view of second language learners with different motivational orientations.

Learners' Orientations to Written Corrective Feedback

There has been a substantial number of studies on students' orientation to written corrective feedback (e.g., Cardelle & Corno, 1981; Cohen, 1987; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, 1996; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Saito, 1994). These studies have focused on how students perceive written corrective feedback. Over the course of time, these surveys evolved from a two-item questionnaire (Cardelle & Corno, 1981) to multi-item surveys on both teacher and students' orientations (Montgomery & Baker, 2007). As these surveys became more in-depth along the way, they seem to have lost focus on individual differences.

One of the first surveys on students' orientation of written corrective feedback was done by Cardelle and Corno (1981). They studied the effects of feedback framing on eleven homework assignments written by 80 beginning and intermediate Spanish students at Stanford University. The students were divided into four groups and given one of four types of feedback: one group was given praise ("You chose the right form of the verb for this kind of sentence"), a second group received criticism ("You chose the wrong form of the verb in this sentence. It should be..."), a third group was given both criticism plus praise ("You chose the right pronoun, but the form of the verb is wrong"), and the control group received no feedback. A pre-test was given to measure the students' knowledge of Spanish vocabulary, grammar and structure, and translation. The students were then given a two-item

survey. The first item asked the students to evaluate if the feedback they received increased their motivation to study, improved their performance, or both. The second item asked what type of feedback they preferred: praise, criticism, both, or grades only. The findings showed that 75% of the students felt feedback, either praise or criticism, improved both their motivation and final performance. Most of the students (88%) of the total sample of students preferred a combination of praise and criticism, and of the group that received only criticism, 13% preferred criticism only. Interestingly, some students felt that receiving no feedback was more motivating and improved their performance better than praise or criticism alone. The students were also categorized into high, middle and low performers according to their posttest scores. The researchers found that the higher performing students preferred feedback (both criticism and praise) compared to the lower performers. Overall, the authors confirmed that feedback can help improve students' motivation and performance, but it is more effective when it contains not only praise, but some criticism on specific errors.

Cohen (1987) gave a survey to 217 ESL (English as a Second Language) and foreign language (FL) learners at New York State University at Binghamton, asking about their preferences for WCF. These were students who were receiving some type of written corrective feedback in their classes. The ESL students were in basic and advanced writing courses. The FL students were studying French, German, or Hebrew. The one page questionnaire asked them to reflect on the last paper they received from their teachers. Students responded whether they read over a teacher's comments, what type of feedback teachers were giving, what strategies students used for reading a teacher's comments, and how much of a teacher's comments they understood. The students also had to self-rate what kind of learner they were. Nineteen percent of the students rated themselves as "excellent learners", 70% as "good learners", and 11% as "fair learners (11%). None of the students rated themselves as poor learners. Based on the self-ratings, Cohen categorized his participants into better learners and poorer learners in order to analyze the data. He found that 81% of students looked over almost all of the comments given by their teachers. Most of the better-rated learners were more likely to read through a paper with feedback and pay

attention to comments by their teachers on vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. The self-rated poorer students, on the other hand, were more likely to ignore their teacher's comments and they paid less attention to comments on their grammar. Cohen found that students generally have few strategies for processing feedback, especially the poorer-rated learners. One of the most popular strategies was making a mental note of the feedback, which most better-rated learners did. Cohen speculated that this was because they were both good writers and they were learning from the mental notes they made.

Radecki and Swales (1988) surveyed 59 learners in four ESL classes at the University of Michigan on their attitudes toward feedback. After they were surveyed, the researchers chose eight students to interview. The 18-item questionnaire focused on the students' opinions of feedback and instruction, the usefulness of teachers' comments, and responsibility for error correction. The students were classified into three categories according to their orientation to feedback: Receptors (46%), semi-resistors (41%), and resistors (13%). The receptors and semi-resistors preferred comments on content and grammar whereas the resistors preferred short adjectives and a grade. Receptors saw the correction of errors as the responsibility of both the instructor and the students; resistors viewed it as just the teacher's job only. Revision was welcomed by the receptors but seen as punishment by the resistors. Lastly, receptors and semi-resistors felt an obligation to use their teacher's feedback while resistors did not care. Radecki and Swales suggested "typology of behaviors that characterizes student attitudes to teacher feedback" (p. 363) is one way of learning more about feedback.

Leki (1991) examined students' opinions in a four part survey on 100 ESL students in freshman composition classes at the University of Tennessee. In the first part of the survey, students were asked about the importance of accuracy, which they felt was important not only to them (91%) but for their English teachers as well (82%). As for English teachers pointing out grammar errors, 93% of students felt it was very important. Leki explained that it is easier for both students and teachers to attend to grammar errors compared to content; thus, when they correct these errors, they feel like they are able to master the language more concretely. In the second part of the survey, students were asked the types of errors they

look at most frequently when a paper is returned to them. Although students said they want grammar corrections, only 53% of students said they looked carefully at comments on grammar. On the other hand, 74% and 65% claimed that they looked more carefully at comments on organization and ideas respectfully. In the third part of the survey, 70% of students preferred that all errors, major and minor, be marked by a teacher; whereas 19% wanted only major errors to be marked. A large majority of students (81%) reported that their current English teachers marked all the errors on their papers. Sixty seven percent of students wanted their teachers to give clues about how to fix their errors, and a quarter of the students wanted the teacher to write the correct answers for them. Leki argued that students like to be given clues because it gives them some satisfaction, similar to solving a puzzle. In part three which focused on peer review, 58% of students said that peer review was the least useful in helping them correct written errors. Leki reasoned that this could be due to the fact that many of the students were new arrivals in the U.S. and thus did not have much prior experience with peer feedback; or, perhaps, the peer reviewers were really unhelpful. The last section asked the students to rate seven different handwritten examples of grammar feedback in which they showed favor for clues for correction. Leki suggested that teachers spend some class time to discuss with their students their orientation to feedback and current research. As a whole, 97% of students carefully read their teacher's comments.

Enginarlar (1993) looked at the written corrective feedback preferences of 47 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) freshman students at a university in Turkey. First, the students took one of two courses in English composition. The students were given feedback with codes (e.g., *Prep* for preposition needed) and brief comments on how to improve. The drafts were given back to the students and they were only graded on the revised drafts. At the end of the courses, they were given a survey. The two-part survey consisted of a 20-item questionnaire. The first part of the survey included students' views on the feedback and the second part asked the students to comment on the procedure and what they learned. Many students, 70%, reported on their survey that they approved the policy of being graded only on

revised versions of essays. Thus, Enginarlar argued that grading every draft may have negative effects on students.

Students' preferences for feedback were also investigated in another survey by Saito (1994) at a Canadian university. The study included 39 students from two ESL intensive courses and an ESL Engineering writing class; the students' English proficiency ranged from the intermediate level to the advanced level. The questionnaire asked students to rate different types of feedback, students' strategies for handling feedback, and their preferences for feedback. According to the students' responses, most of them preferred their teachers to focus on grammar errors. Students also liked to be given clues rather than explicit WCF to prompt them to correct and revise their papers. Although the students were willing to self-correct if they knew where the error was located, they preferred teacher feedback over peer review or self-correction. Saito pointed out that this may be due to students' not being aware of the importance of peer or self-correction. If teachers explained their usefulness, Saito argued this would have benefited the students more. Many students did not see that value in revision and did not revise their writing even when it was a homework assignment. The findings on students' preferences seemed to vary across different classes.

Ferris (1995) surveyed 155 students at California State University in one of two levels of ESL composition program. The purpose of this study was to see the students' responses to feedback in multi-draft composition. The survey was an 11-item questionnaire that focused on multi-draft papers. There were also several open-ended questions with regards to strategies the students used for interpreting the feedback given. Overall, they found that most students (93.5%) thought that WCF is helpful for them to improve their writing. More relevant to the present study, they found that students remembered positive comments from their teachers for their ideas and organization. However, three students reported that "their teachers' comments were all negative and that this fact depressed them and decreased their motivation and self-esteem" (p.46). Ferris suggested that teachers should offer not only constructive criticism, but comments with encouragement as well.

Montgomery and Baker's (2007) work at the English Language Center at Brigham Young University also surveyed of students' and teachers' perceptions of their teachers' feedback. In addition, they examined the teachers' actual written corrective feedback. The teachers at the center were encouraged to give comments on global issues during the first drafts, and comments on local issues in later drafts. Thirteen teachers and 98 students filled out a questionnaire similar to the ones used by Cohen (1987) and Ferris (1995). Teacher feedback on the students' compositions was also collected and coded with the frequency of feedback on: ideas and content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. The drafts of the essays were categorized into first and later drafts; they were also divided into low pass, pass, and high pass depending on the grades they were given. Overall, students seemed to think that their teachers gave a sufficient amount of feedback; however, teachers thought that they were not giving enough. Additionally, teachers underestimated the amount of feedback they gave on local issues, but overestimated the amount of feedback on global issues. Although the teachers were trained to give comments on global issues, teachers gave more local feedback. The authors also found that teachers gave different amounts of feedback to different students, and this was not connected to the proficiency level of the students. For instance, one teacher gave a student 210 comments on grammar and no comments to another student, while both of these students received the same passing grade. The researchers could not account for the difference in the amount of feedback and called for more research to be done to see the effects that different types of comments (praise or criticism) have on individual students.

In most of these studies, students, in one way or another, seem to put some didactic value on receiving feedback. Many students indicated that they did look at a teachers' feedback (Cohen, 1987; Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Saito, 1994; Ferris, 1995) and one study showed that students were content with the amount of feedback given (i.e., Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Some students seem to prefer comments on grammar more than on content, organization, and ideas (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994) while others found value in their teachers' comments on global issues (Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988). In Leki's (1991) study, the students said they valued comments on

grammar, but then they said they looked at comments on organization and ideas more closely than the grammar comments. The types of feedback students prefer to receive also seem to differ greatly. Some students seem open to revising their essays (Cohen, 1987, Engingarlal, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Radecki & Swales, 1988) as long as they are challenged (Saito, 1994), while others saw it as punishment (Radecki & Swales, 1988). In three of the studies, students were in favor of implicit coding for marking errors (Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Saito, 1994) because it motivated them to revise and they view it as puzzle solving.

In order to account for the individual variations in terms of students' orientation to feedback, some of the studies reviewed above have come up with labels such a *resistors*, *receptors*, *better self-rated students*, and the like. These attempts have highlighted the importance of individual differences in this area and are of great value and can reflect some underlying differences among learners. However, these differences may not be well understood if we limit the focus of our investigations to the orientations and observed behaviors students have of WCF. The current study is based on the assumption that the differences in students' orientation to feedback could have motivational underpinnings. Studying the learners' reactions to feedback can be more revealing if we frame the study within a strong theoretical framework that highlights motivational differences among learners. The importance of this approach has been highlighted by Papi and Teimouri (2014), who called for research on how fundamental motivational differences result in different language learning behaviors. In order to take a step in this direction and account for motivational differences underlying learners' different orientation to feedback, I will employ Dweck's (2004) achievement goal theory and implicit theories of intelligence.

Implicit Theories of General Intelligence and Achievement Goals

According to Dweck's achievement goal theory (1988), which is based on the approach-avoidance perspective towards motivation, there are two different types of goals among students, namely learning and performance goals. "A *performance goal* is the goal of validating one's ability through one's performance, that is, the goal of looking smart and not dumb. In contrast a *learning goal* is the goal of

increasing one's ability, that is, the goal of getting smarter" (p.42). Several studies in the field of educational psychology have shown that students with learning versus performance goals show different learning behaviors (e.g. De Castella & Byrne, 2015; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Farrell & Dweck, 1985; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). As an example, Farrell and Dweck (1985) studied junior high students who were taught a challenging new unit. The students with learning goals were more likely to search for and find strategies compared with those with performance goals who were concerned with validating their ability. In another study, Grant and Dweck (2003) found that students with learning goals were more likely to be engaged with the course material, which was predictive of higher grades.

Dweck (1988) stipulated that a learner's development of learning or performance goals has roots in what she calls the learner's dominant implicit theory of intelligence. Learning goals are held by individuals who have an *incremental theory* about their abilities. Individuals with an incremental theory of intelligence see their intelligence as something that is dynamic and can be developed through effort and experience. Individuals with performance goals, on the other hand, have an *entity theory* about their abilities; they believe their intelligence is fixed and unchangeable. The students who have an incremental theory of intelligence may think that they get a low test score because they did not study hard. Yet, students who hold an entity theory about their intelligence think that they failed the test because they are not smart enough (Dweck et al., 1995). According to Dweck (2004), these theories of intelligence greatly impact students' learning behaviors:

When students believe that their intelligence is a fixed trait (an entity theory of intelligence), it becomes critical for them to validate their fixed ability through their performance. In contrast, when students believe that their intellectual skills are something that they can increase through their efforts (an incremental theory of intelligence), they become less concerned with how their abilities might be evaluated now, and more concerned with cultivating their abilities in the longer term (p.42).

Many studies have examined Dweck's theories of intelligence and found strong evidence for their relevance to students' learning and achievement (e.g., Aronson et al. 2002; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, &

Dweck, 2007; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Farrell & Dweck, 1985; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). In Aronson et al. (2002), students at Stanford University who were trained in incremental theory at the beginning of the semester reported a greater enjoyment in their classes and a higher grade point average at the end of the semester. Blackwell et al. (2007) found that students who held an incremental theory over the course of their seventh and eighth grades earned higher grades in math while students with an entity theory had decreasing grades, even though all the students started with equivalent math scores. An intervention teaching treatment in incremental theory was given to the control group; as a result, the students had a positive change in classroom motivation.

More relevant to the purpose of the present study, there have been other studies linking learners' interest in and reaction to feedback and goal orientations (e.g. Butterfield & Mangels, 2003; VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Butterfield and Mangels (2003), for instance, studied students' reactions to feedback with an electroencephalography (EEG) device. The participants were asked general information questions and they were given two types of feedback: red or green lights indicating if they were correct or incorrect (performance oriented) and the correct answers to the questions (learning oriented). They found that with the learning oriented feedback, there was more activity in the brains of the participants with an incremental theory of intelligence. Those with an entity theory of intelligence, on the other hand, did not have any brain activity for the learning oriented feedback, suggesting they were less motivated by the feedback. A student's theory of intelligence could thus be an indicator of how open they are to written corrective feedback. The present study intends to examine students' orientations towards WCF by looking at these motivational orientations. By examining learners' feedback preferences through the lens of motivation, this study can also further our understanding of why written corrective feedback has resulted in inconsistent findings in the literature and open new avenues of research on how we can make feedback more motivating and effective.

Research Questions

Based on the discussion above, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What are the relationships between English learners' implicit theories of intelligence and their orientation to written corrective feedback on their L2 written production?
2. What are the relationships between English learners' implicit theories of intelligence and their writing motivation?

Method

Participants

The participants of this research were recruited from the English Language Center (ELC) at Michigan State University. Overall, 176 students surveys were collected; however, only 147 were deemed reliable. The students (101 male, 44 female, 2 missing) are international students learning English as a second language. Their self-rated proficiency level had a mean of 3.4 on a scale of 1 (beginner) to 5 (advanced). The students' year in the university ranged from freshman to graduate students (mean: sophomore) with a wide variety of different majors. The students' native languages typically included Chinese (60), Arabic (51), Portuguese (11), Korean (10), and other (11), with four responses missing. The students' ages ranged from 18 to 45 years old (mean: 22). The length of residency ranged from one to 84 months (mean: 15).

Instruments

Three questionnaires were used in this research study that included a total of 73-items concerning learners' motivation, attitudes toward written corrective feedback, and background information. This study was part of a larger study; however, only the variables relevant to this study were included.

The motivation questionnaire (Appendix A) included five items measured the theories of general intelligence (Dweck et al., 2004) and another five items measuring the incremental and entity theories of writing intelligence of students. Dweck's (2004) original measures of implicit theories of general intelligence included items for both incremental (e.g., "You can always greatly change how intelligent you are") and entity theories of intelligence (e.g., "You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it"). I developed the measures for learners' implicit theories of English writing intelligence based on Dweck's measures of implicit theories of general intelligence (Table 1). These included a scale measuring the incremental theory of writing intelligence (e.g., "With enough practice you will be able to write like a native speaker of English") and a measure of the entity theory

writing intelligence (e.g., “No matter how hard you try, as an English language learner you can never write like a native speaker”).

Table 1

Dweck’s (2004) original measure of implicit theories of general intelligence and adapted implicit theories of writing intelligence

Implicit Theories of General Intelligence	Implicit Theories of Writing Intelligence
3. You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can’t really do much to change it.	30. You can improve your English writing skills, but you can’t really change your writing talent.
10. Your intelligence is something about you that you can’t change very much.	6. As an English learner, you have a limited amount of talent for developing your English writing skills, and you can’t really do much to change it.
17. You can always greatly change how intelligent you are.	12. With enough practice you will be able to write like a native speaker of English.
23. You can learn new things, but you can’t really change your basic intelligence.	25. No matter how hard you try, as an English language learner you can never write like a native speaker.
27. No matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it a lot.	20. No matter who you are, you can always learn to write as well as native speakers of English.

The second questionnaire (Appendix B) contained 33-items measuring learner’s orientation towards written corrective feedback. This questionnaire was developed using items from previous WCF studies (e.g., Cardelle & Corno, 1981; Cohen, 1987; Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Goldstein, 2005; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, 1996; Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994; Radecki & Swales, 1988) and some items that were specifically developed for the purpose of the present study (Table 2). These items were made from an item pool and piloted before the study. Although there are many studies on students’ orientation to written corrective feedback, none of the earlier studies had directly asked the students, “Written corrective feedback from my teacher helps me to be a better writer.” Many of the students piloted expressed that they not only saw value in WCF, but they thought that it made them stronger writers overall. On the other hand, some students did not see the value in WCF, and therefore item 9 needed to be asked directly, “When I do not understand my teacher’s comments, I ignore them.” Eight writing motivation items, which were adapted from Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) (Table 3), included

students' intended efforts, desire, and motivational intensity for writing (e.g., "I enjoy writing in English" or "I would like to spend lots of time learning to write in English").

Table 2

Sources for Feedback Seeking Orientation and Feedback Avoiding Orientation Items

	Item Number	Sources
Feedback Seeking	5. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I talk to him/her.	Radecki and Swales (1988)
	7. I like when my teacher corrects <u>all</u> of my mistakes (grammar, content, organization, spelling, punctuation).	Leki (1991); Saito (1994)
	11. I like when my teacher uses correction symbols to show me my mistakes.	Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994); Radecki and Swales (1988)
	12. When I get my papers back, I read all of the comments carefully.	Ferris (1995)
	17. Written corrective feedback from my teacher helps me to be a better writer.	Newly developed
	31. I like when my teacher writes questions on my paper to make me think about my writing (not just gives me the answer).	Leki (1991)
Feedback Avoiding	4. I like when my teacher only writes a grade and not comments on my paper.	Cardelle and Corno (1981)
	9. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I ignore them.	Newly developed
	15. After peer review, I never look at my classmate's comments on my paper.	Newly developed
	25. When I get my papers back, I only look at the grade.	Cardelle and Corno (1981)

Table 3

Writing motivation items adapted from Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009)

Original items	Adapted items
I really enjoy learning English.	1. I enjoy writing in English.
I am working hard at learning English.	8. I am making progress toward become a stronger writer in English.
Studying English is important to me	21. Writing in English is very important to me.
I always look forward to English classes.	18. I always look forward to my writing classes in English.
I would like to spend lots of time studying English.	28. I would like to spend lots of time learning to write in English.
I would like to concentrate on studying English more than any other topic.	32. I would like to concentrate on learning to write in English more than any other topic.
I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.	30. I actively think about what I have learned in my English writing class.
I think that I am doing my best to learn English.	14. I really try to learn how to write English.

For these two questionnaires, a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always) were used for each item. The surveys were translated into Chinese, Arabic and Portuguese by applied linguistics graduate students (native speakers of the languages) in order to make the items easily understandable for students at all levels of proficiency. An English survey was given to the speakers of other languages. The last questionnaire included background information questions with regards to the students' age, gender, native language, length of time in the United States, length of studying English, year in college, major of study, and proficiency (Appendix C).

Procedure

The data were collected during weeks five and six of the spring semester. After securing IRB approval, teachers who were currently teaching English as a Second Language classes at the ELC were emailed with details of the research and asked for their voluntary participation. The researcher went to each individual class and asked students to fill out the surveys, at the end of class. The three questionnaires only took about 10-15 minutes to complete. The surveys were anonymous, but the researcher asked them to write fake names on their surveys. In return for the students' effort, three \$25 gift cards were given to three students whose fake names were drawn from a raffle.

Data Analysis

Reliability Analysis

The reliability of the scales through Cronbach alpha analysis were run showing coefficients that were higher than the minimum acceptable value of .60 (Dörnyei, 2007). Means and standard deviations of all the scales expect items related to written corrective feedback, which were further analyzed (see below) appear in Table 5.

Table 4
Variables

Independent Variables	Incremental theory of intelligence Entity theory of intelligence
Dependent Variables	Feedback seeking orientation Feedback avoiding orientation Writing motivation

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations.
Composites of variables with Cronbach Alpha coefficients, means and standard deviations.

Scale	Item no.	Cronbach Alpha	Mean/std. deviation
Theory of Writing Intelligence	6, 12, 20, 25, 30	.65	4.42/.91
Theory of General Intelligence	3, 10, 17, 23, 27	.64	4.30/.91
Incremental Theory of Writing Intelligence	17, 27	.72	4.65/1.09
Entity Theory of Writing Intelligence	3, 10, 23	.64	2.76/1.08
Writing Motivation	1, 8, 21, 18, 28, 32, 30, 14	.86	4.48/.94

Note. Scale: 1 = Never; 6 = Always.

Principal Component Analysis

The data from the items on the questionnaires related to written corrective feedback (see Table 2), which were developed in the present study, were analyzed using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The negatively worded items were reverse-coded (items 15, 25, 9, 4). Since the variables were expected to measure the same concept (i.e., orientation to written corrective feedback) and would correlate at some level, the analysis was accompanied by direct oblimin with Kaiser Normalization as method of rotation. Because the list-wise deletion method was selected for handling the missing data, 141 respondents' data

remained in the next phases of analysis, which, considering the common subjects-to-item ratio of 10:1, seemed to be an adequate sample size. In other words, there were 11 questionnaire items but 141 respondents. Additionally, the assumption of factorability was tested and met: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .77, which is acceptable according to Field (2009), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also statistically significant $\chi^2(45) = 297.3$, $p < .001$, indicating an acceptable data set (Field, 2009).

Table 6
Principal Component Analysis based on eigenvalues > 1

Items	Structure Matrix		
	F1	F2	F3
7. I like when my teacher corrects all of my mistakes (grammar, content, organization, spelling, punctuation).	.74		
31. I like when my teacher writes questions on my paper to make me think about my writing and does not give me the answer.	.74		
17. Written feedback from my teacher helps me to be a better writer.	.73		
11. I like when my teacher uses correction symbols to show me my mistakes.	.68		
5. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I talk to him/her.	.66		
12. When I get my papers back, I read all of the comments carefully.	.62	-.59	
15. After peer review, I never look at my classmate's comments.		.81	
25. When I get my papers back, I only look at the grade.		.65	
4. I like when my teacher only writes a grade and not comments on my paper.			.83
9. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I ignore them.			.73
Variance: 49%	33%	16%	10%

An initial estimate of the number of factors was made by the commonly used eigenvalues above 1 (Kaiser's criterion) and factor loadings below .40 suppressed, as recommended by Field (2009). As shown in Table 6, a three-factor solution was the result of the analysis with the first factor explaining 33% of the variance and all the two other factors explaining 16% and 10%. However, the separation of Factor 2 and Factor 3 did not make theoretical sense since all the four items represented lack of interest in teacher's or peer comments. Additionally, the scree plot of the eigenvalues (Figure 1) and the low

communalities confirmed that the number of factors was excessive. The PCA was run again this time with two factors specified for extraction. Since the two factors were expected to be correlated, the factor scores were calculated using direct Oblimin rotation. The results of the second PCA are shown in Table 7. As can be seen, except for item 33, all the other items loaded sufficiently on either of the factors. The two factors together explained 48% of the variance with the first one, which I name feedback seeking orientation (FSO), including 6 questionnaire items and explaining 33% of the variance (eigenvalue= 3.2) and the second one, which I call feedback avoiding orientation (FAO), including four items and explaining 15% (eigenvalue= 1.5) of the amount. There was a moderate but significant ($p < .01$) negative correlation between the two factors ($r = -.22$). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was .79 for the FSO and .57 for FAO, confirming the results of PCA. Multiple regression analyses were run using FSO and FAO as well as writing motivation as outcome variables.

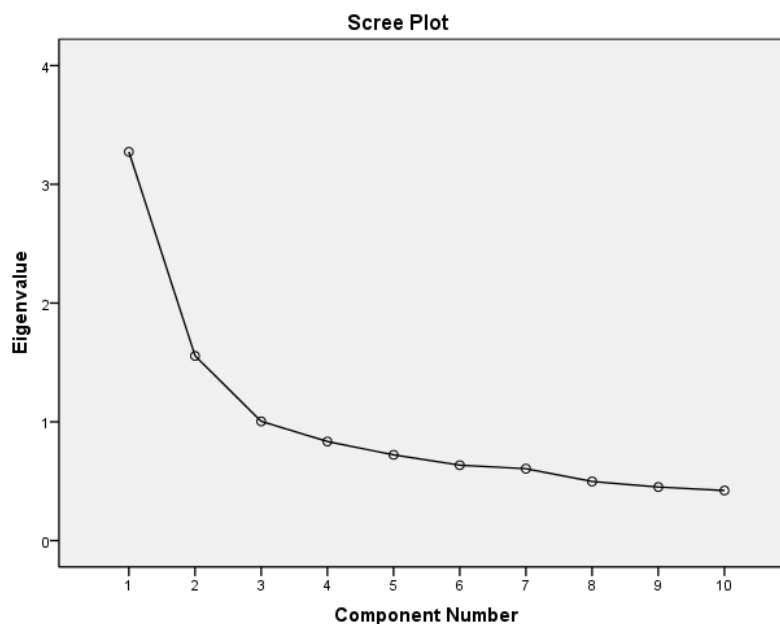


Figure 1 Scree Plot

Table 7

Result of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and means and standard deviation for the items making the Feedback Seeking Orientation (FSO) and Feedback Avoiding Orientation (FAO) factors

Items	M	SD	Structure Matrix	
			FSO	FAO
31. I like when my teacher writes questions on my paper to make me think about my writing and does not give me the answer.	4.56	1.29	.78	
7. I like when my teacher corrects all of my mistakes (grammar, content, organization, spelling, punctuation).	5.24	1.11	.75	
17. Written corrective feedback from my teacher helps me to be a better writer.	5.23	1.01	.73	
11. I like when my teacher uses correction symbols to show me my mistakes.	4.90	1.19	.68	
5. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I talk to him/her.	4.62	1.29	.62	
12. When I get my papers back, I read all of the comments carefully.	5.19	.978	.52	
15. After peer review, I never look at my classmate's comments.	2.67	1.47		.72
25. When I get my papers back, I only look at the grade.	2.76	1.50		.69
9. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I ignore them.	2.06	1.21		.59
4. I like when my teacher only writes a grade and not comments on my paper.	1.92	1.33		.59
33. I don't care about receiving feedback on my papers.			---	---
Cronbach's Alpha			.79	.57
Variance: 49%			33%	16%

Implicit Theories of General Intelligence vs. Implicit Theories of Writing Intelligence

The scales for measuring the implicit theories of general intelligence were adapted from Dweck (1999). However, because the topic of the present work focuses on writing, measures of implicit theories of writing intelligence were developed based on Dweck's (1999) measures. Table 8 presents the results of correlation analysis between the scales for theories of general intelligence and theories of writing intelligence. As shown, the highest correlation, which is between the entity theory of general intelligence and the entity theory of writing intelligence is .60, which is far from the figure that qualifies them as representing the same construct. Therefore, in the remaining analyses, the relationships between implicit theories of writing intelligence and the outcome variables are reported.

Table 8

Correlation coefficients between implicit theories of general intelligence and implicit theories of writing intelligence

		EntTGI	IncTGI	IncTWI
Incremental Theory of General Intelligence (IncTGI)	Pearson Correlation	-.23**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006		
	N	147		
Incremental Theory of Writing Intelligence (IncTWI)	Pearson Correlation	-.18*	.24**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.004	
	N	147	147	
Entity Theory of Writing Intelligence (EntTWI)	Pearson Correlation	.61**	-.19*	-.36**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.023	.000
	N	147	147	147

Note. Entity Theory of General Intelligence (EntTGI)

Correlations and Multiple Regression Analysis

The correlations between predictor and outcome variables can be seen in Table 9. The incremental theory of writing intelligence significantly and negatively correlates with the entity theory of writing intelligence. Feedback avoiding orientation positively and significantly correlates with the entity theory of writing intelligence and negatively correlates with the incremental theory of writing intelligence although the latter correlation is not significant. Feedback seeking orientation significantly and positively correlates with the incremental theory of writing intelligence; also, it significantly and negatively correlates with feedback avoiding orientation. Writing motivation positively and significantly correlates with the incremental theory of writing intelligence and the feedback seeking orientation; it also negatively correlates with the entity theory of writing intelligence and the feedback avoiding orientation although the latter is not significant.

Table 9

Correlations between predictor and outcome variables

	EntTWI	IncTWI	FAO	FSO
Incremental Theory of Writing Intelligence (IncTWI)	-.36**			
Feedback Avoiding Orientation (FAO)	.26**	-.16		
Feedback Seeking Orientation (FSO)	-.14	.28**	-.23**	
Writing Motivation	-.14	.45**	-.14	.66**

Note. $p^* < .05$, $** < .01$, $*** < .001$

Entity Theory of Writing Intelligence (EntTWI)

Three multiple regression analyses were run with the implicit theories of intelligence as predictor variables and the feedback seeking orientation, feedback avoiding orientation and L2 writing motivation as outcome variables. The results of the analyses are presented in Table 10. As could be seen all three models were statistically significant suggesting good model fitness. For the feedback seeking orientation as the outcome variable, the incremental theory of writing intelligence emerged as a significant positive predictor accounting for 20% of the variance. However, the entity theory of writing intelligence was not a significant predictor although the Beta value was negative. When the feedback avoiding orientation was entered as the outcome variable, the entity theory of writing intelligence predicted a statistically significant amount of variance (20%) whereas the incremental theory of writing intelligence showed a negative but not significant tendency. Writing motivation was entered as the third outcome variable. The results of the analyses showed that the incremental theory of writing intelligence predicted a statistically significant and large amount of variance (40%) in L2 writing motivation whereas the entity theory of writing intelligence did not turn out to be a significant predictor. In the model, the incremental and entity theories of intelligence predicted more than 20% of variance ($R^2 = .205$) in L2 writing motivation, which is a very strong figure.

Table 10

Results of three multiple regression analyses with incremental theories of writing intelligence (Incremental TWI) and entity theories of writing intelligence (Entity TWI) as predictor and feedback seeking and feedback avoiding orientations and writing motivation as outcome variables.

Outcome Variable	Predictor Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Feedback Seeking Orientation $F = 6.15, p = .003$ $R^2 = .08$	(Constant)	4.13	.41		10.16	.000
	Incremental TWI	.20	.06	.26	3.03	.003
	Entity TWI	-.04	.07	-.05	-.56	.578
Feedback Avoiding Orientation $F = 5.55, p = .005$ $R^2 = .07$	(Constant)	2.08	.45		4.60	.000
	Incremental TWI	-.06	.07	-.07	-.86	.391
	Entity TWI	.20	.07	.23	2.7	.008
Writing Motivation $F = 18.58, p = .000$ $R^2 = .21$	(Constant)	2.58	.43		5.97	.000
	Incremental TWI	.40	.07	.46	5.79	.000
	Entity TWI	.02	.07	.02	.30	.768

Table 11

Results of three multiple regression analyses with the implicit theory of writing intelligence (TWI) as predictor and feedback seeking and feedback avoiding orientations and writing motivation as outcome variables

Outcome Variable	Predictor Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
Feedback Seeking Orientation $F = 8.16, p = .005$ $R^2 = .05$	(Constant)	4.02	.33		12.2	.000
	TWI	.21	.07	.23	2.86	.005
Feedback Avoiding Orientation $F = 10.55, p = .001$ $R^2 = .07$	(Constant)	3.47	.36		9.63	.000
	TWI	-.26	.08	-.26	-3.25	.001
Writing Motivation $F = 16.29, p = .000$ $R^2 = .10$	(Constant)	3.03	.37		8.26	.000
	TWI	.33	.08	.32	4.04	.000

In the next part of the data analysis, the implicit theory of writing intelligence was used a single continuous variable. To do this, the items constituting the entity theory of writing intelligence were reverse-coded and entered with the items constituting the incremental theory of writing intelligence to create a new variable which I labeled “implicit theory of writing intelligence.” A low score on this variable would suggest a more entity theory of writing intelligence while a high score would indicate a more incremental theory of writing intelligence. The same multiple regression analyses were run this time with the theory of writing intelligence as the predictor variable and the feedback avoiding and feedback seeking orientations and L2 writing motivation as outcome variables. The results of the analyses, presented in Table 11, show that all three tested models are significant suggesting good model fitness. In addition, the theory of writing intelligence positively and significantly predicted both feedback seeking orientation and L2 writing motivation explaining 21% and 33% of variance respectively. Moreover, it predicted a statistically significant but negative amount of variance (-26%) in the feedback avoiding orientation.

Discussion

The present study drew on Dweck's framework of learner's implicit theories of intelligence (1988, 2004), in order to gain more insight into learners' writing motivation and their orientation towards written corrective feedback. According to Dweck, students who have an incremental theory of intelligence view their intelligence as growing and dynamic. In contrast, students with an entity theory of intelligence see their intelligence as fixed and unchanging. These implicit theories of intelligence have been found to influence many learning processes and outcomes including students' orientation to feedback (Butterfield & Mangels, 2003; De Castella & Byrne, 2015; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Farrell & Dweck, 1985; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). The present study examined the link between English learners' implicit theories of L2 writing intelligence, their writing motivation, and their orientation to written corrective feedback.

The results of this study confirmed the hypotheses that the implicit theories of intelligence have significant effects on students' writing motivation and orientation to written corrective feedback. When the incremental and entity theories of intelligence were treated as separate variables, the incremental (and not the entity) theory of intelligence significantly predicted variance in the learners' feedback seeking orientation, whereas the entity (but not the incremental) theory of intelligence emerged a significant predictor of the feedback avoiding orientation. When the theories of intelligence were combined to form a single continuous variable with a low score suggesting more of an entity theory of intelligence and a high score indicating a more incremental theory of intelligence, the results were even stronger. The singular implicit theory of writing intelligence was a significant and positive predictor of the feedback seeking orientation but a significant and negative predictor of the feedback avoiding orientation.

The results suggest that the students who have an incremental theory of writing intelligence are willing to receive more written corrective feedback and use it as a learning opportunity. On the other hand, those who have an entity theory of writing intelligence tend to focus on their grades and ignore written corrective feedback.

Moreover, the incremental theory of writing intelligence but not the entity theory of writing intelligence was a statistically significant predictor of L2 writing motivation. In other words, students who have an incremental theory of writing intelligence are more motivated than the learners who endorse an entity theory of writing intelligence. These findings support the other studies in the field of educational psychology that have found that the implicit theories of intelligence are related to learners' motivation and level of engagement in the classroom (e.g., Butterfield & Mangels, 2003; Dweck, 2003; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Farrell & Dweck, 1985).

The belief that one's writing intelligence can grow and develop can thus result in not only higher writing motivation but also in perceiving written corrective feedback as opportunities for learning. On the other hand, entertaining the belief that one's writing intelligence is a fixed amount which could not change is detrimental to the learners' motivation for writing and receiving written corrective feedback. Studies have shown that learners who adopt an incremental theory of intelligence are also more likely to develop learning goals (which is the goal of increasing one's ability) versus performance goals (which is the goal of validating one's ability through one's performance) whereas learners who develop an entity theory of intelligence of their abilities have been found to adopt performance goals. In other words, while learners with an incremental theory of intelligence come to the class with the motivation to master the content of the course, students with an entity theory of intelligence enter the class in order to prove their abilities to others by adopting performance goals. Written corrective feedback, thus, is seen by learners with an incremental theory of intelligence as an opportunity for learning but perceived by students with an entity theory of intelligence as an attack on the positive image of their abilities they have been working hard to project. Viewing learning abilities as a fixed entity is detrimental to learning and "unless teachers intervene to modify such attitudes prior to instruction, much valuable teacher time and effort are bound to be wasted" (Enginarlar, 1993, p. 203).

The results also provide a possible explanation for why students treat feedback differently in the past studies. Cardelle and Corno's (1981) found that two-third of the students surveyed felt that feedback

improved both their motivation and final performance, and the higher performing students preferred more feedback compared to the lower performers. Cohen's (1987) study found that students who rated themselves as better learners paid more attention to feedback than the those who did not rate themselves so favorably. Not unlike the present study, Radecki and Swales (1988) divided their participants into feedback receptors and resistors. Enginarlar (1993) noticed that "it seems that there may be a group of learners in any learning situation who are either neutral or negative to the type of feedback teachers would like to give" (p. 203). Whereas such differences have been found in the previous studies, no clear explanation has been provided as to why there are such differences. The results of the present study provide empirical evidence that these differences could be largely motivational and have roots in the students' beliefs in the malleability versus fixedness of their intellectual capacity for learning how to write in a second language.

Pedagogical Implications

Many teachers feel as though written corrective feedback is time-consuming and sometimes, even disheartening. Lack of attention on the part of language learners to the teachers' feedback on their written performance could have different reasons. One of the underlying causes of such indifference could be related to the students' detrimental beliefs about their abilities. The results of the present study showed that those learners with an incremental theory of intelligence take advantage of written corrective feedback and are more likely to pore over their teachers' comments on their papers while those with an entity theory of intelligence are the ones who are more likely to look at the grade and put their papers straight into their bags. Changing the negative and fixed mindsets towards ability and fostering an incremental theory of writing ability could thus make written corrective more effective and beneficial to both teachers and students. According to Dweck, theories of intelligence can be changed and result in better learning outcomes. She suggests giving students questionnaires to find out their theories of intelligence. Then, intervention programs could be employed in order to change learners' entity theories of their abilities and foster a more incremental theory in the classroom (e.g., Aronson et al. 2002;

Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck, 2007; Jonsson et al., 2012). For example, in Aronson et al. (2002), Stanford University participants in the experimental condition were trained to see their intelligence as expandable. For example, the participants were instructed write an encouraging pen pal letter to an “at risk” middle school student. The participants were asked to inspire these young students the idea that intelligence can be changed and grown like a muscle, and intelligence can expand with hard work. The participants were then shown a short video clip about brain researchers discovering how the brain can grow in response to intellectual challenge. These training program resulted in the participants’ greater enjoyment of their academic process, engagement in their classes, and higher grade point averages. In Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck (2007), seventh grade students participated in incremental theory sessions for 25 minute periods spanning over 8 weeks; one week in which they read an article called “You Can Grow Your Intelligence.” After this training, it was found that students transformed their entity theory of intelligence into incremental theories of intelligence, which resulted in higher math grades. Establishing an incremental theory of intelligence in the classroom could thus improve students’ motivation and their views of written corrective feedback resulting in better learning processes and outcomes in the classroom.

Conclusion

The study was an initial attempt to introduce Dweck's (1988) conceptualization of the implicit theories of intelligence into the field of second language acquisition and pedagogy. The results provide preliminary evidence for the how learners' views of their intelligence could shape how learners perceive and act upon teachers' feedback. The study also offers practical ways on how to increase students' desire for and attention to written corrective feedback through changing their detrimental but chronic theories of intelligence, thereby improving the quality of language instruction and learning. The introduction of the concept of the implicit theories of intelligence to the field of second language acquisition also contributes to our understanding of lack of motivation on the part of many language learners. This research hopes to encourage investigation in how we can increase learner's motivation through changing their beliefs about intelligence and setting helpful learning goals that motivate learners to put in sufficient efforts to learn a second language. The study links the motivation research to the actual processes of language learning and shows how the processing of written corrective feedback could have motivational reasons.

There were several limitations in this study. First of all, self-report surveys can always present several risks. Although they are commonly used in our field, the participants' accuracy in understanding the items is not always reliable even though the surveys were translated into their native languages (for most of the participants). Moreover, the scales developed in the present study for measuring feedback orientations only met the minimum psychometric characteristics. Developing psychometrically stronger scales for students' attitudes towards written corrective feedback could help find better results in future studies. The data were collected from one university in the US. The results could not be generalized to the entire population of English learners in the absence of enough empirical evidence from different socio-educational contexts.

It has been 30 years since Zamel's (1985) article when she examined the feedback teachers gave on students' writing and started reflecting on written corrective feedback. From her findings, she concluded, "we should respond not so much to student writing but to student writers" (Zamel, 1985, p.

97). When research first started on written corrective feedback, the researchers paid more attention to individual differences and motivation. However, we have lost that focus. Instead, research on WCF for the last 30 years has focused on students' general reactions (e.g., Cohen, 1987; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994, 1996; Leki, 1991; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Perhaps we need to go back to our original instincts and take a magnifying glass to look more closely at the individual differences and motivational influences of students' orientation to WCF. We need to focus not only on the "what" of the orientations to WCF but also on the "why" those orientations happen.

Introducing these theories to the field of SLA could help us understand many individual differences in this complicated learning process. For instance, more experimental studies (i.e. Blackwell et al., 2007) on promoting an incremental theory of intelligence could be done to increase students' learning motivation and their desire for corrective feedback. Future research on the implicit theories of language intelligence could also shed light on the ongoing debate on the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback. Investigating teachers' theories of language intelligence and how those theories of intelligence influence their teaching and their students' learning could also be interesting future research directions (e.g., Jonsson et al., 2012; Shim et al. 2013).

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Language Learner Questionnaire Items (Questionnaire 1)

Theories of General Intelligence

- 3. You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it.
- 10. Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.
- 17. You can always greatly change how intelligent you are.
- 23. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.
- 27. No matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it a lot.

Theories of Writing Intelligence

- 6. As an English learner, you have a limited amount of talent for developing your English writing skills, and you can't really do much to change it.
- 12. With enough practice you will be able to write like a native speaker of English.
- 20. No matter who you are, you can always learn to write as well as native speakers of English.
- 25. No matter how hard you try, as an English language learner you can never write like a native speaker.
- 30. You can improve your English writing skills, but you can't really change your writing talent.

Appendix B

Written corrective feedback Questionnaire (Questionnaire 2)

Please read each of the following statements. Circle the answer that best describes what you think.

Do not leave any blank answers. Answer each one as honestly as you can. The results will not be shown to your teacher.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

1. I enjoy writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I like to have many opportunities to revise my writing for a grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I like when my teacher comments on only my writing strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I like when my teacher only writes a grade and not comments on my paper.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I talk to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I like to get comments on my writing like "Good job! <i>You did it right.</i> "	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I like when my teacher corrects <u>all</u> of my mistakes (grammar, content, organization, spelling, punctuation).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am making progress toward become a stronger writer in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When I do not understand my teacher's comments, I ignore them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I like to get comments on my writing like "Good job! <i>You did not make any mistakes.</i> "	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I like when my teacher uses correction symbols to show me my mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When I get my papers back, I read all of the comments carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I like to receive feedback on my writing from my classmates (peer review).	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I really try to learn how to write English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

15. After peer review, I never look at my classmate's comments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I would like to be told only what I did wrong in my paper.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Written corrective feedback from my teacher helps me to be a better writer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I always look forward to my writing classes in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I like to receive feedback <i>only</i> on my organization and development of my ideas in my writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I like when my teacher comments only on my writing weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Writing in English is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I revise and save my papers, even if it is not for a grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I like to get comments on my writing like "You need to work on..."	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I like to receive feedback <i>only</i> on grammar, spelling, and vocabulary errors in my writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. When I get my papers back, I only look at the grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I would like to be told only what I did right in my paper.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I remember the mistakes my teacher points out to me and I try not to make them again.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I would like to spend lots of time learning to write in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I like to receive feedback <i>only</i> on my ideas and content in my writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I actively think about what I have learned in my English writing class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I like when my teacher writes questions on my paper to make me think about my writing and does not give me the answer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I would like to concentrate on learning to write in English more than any other topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I don't care about receiving feedback on my papers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Background Information (Questionnaire 3)

1. Age: _____
2. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
3. What is your native language? _____
4. How long have you been in the U.S.? Years_____ Months_____
5. How long have you been studying English? Years_____ Months_____
6. Year in college: ☐ Freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior ☐ MA/Ph.D.
7. Major field of study: _____
8. Please rate on a scale of 1-6 your current ability in English writing (circle the number below).

1= <i>beginner</i>	2= <i>pre- intermediate</i>	3= <i>intermediate</i>	4= <i>upper- intermediate</i>	5= <i>advanced</i>	6= <i>native- like</i>
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Please add any additional comments you may have.

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