

**Using Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback to Improve Pre-University ESL Students'
Written Accuracy**

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Abstract

Producing linguistically accurate writing is a major challenge for English as a Second Language (ESL) students, but it is an essential skill for their success in university-level classes and in their future professional careers. Unfortunately, for these students, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) experts have not ascertained one particular pedagogical approach or method that is a perfect solution to address this critical need. In fact, today's most prevalent writing instruction methodologies tend to emphasize the writing process and largely overlook the issue of written corrective feedback (WCF) as a means to improve second language (L2) writers' grammatical knowledge and their corresponding abilities to produce linguistically accurate writing.

As a solution to this unbalanced equation in many ESL writing and grammar classrooms, I propose utilizing an innovative pedagogical methodology called dynamic WCF, which stresses the importance of providing manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant error correction. While it is unlikely that implementing dynamic WCF techniques into TESOL praxis will result in an all-encompassing revolution of L2 writing and grammar class syllabi, it seems particularly well-suited to be used as a supplementary teaching tool and should be added to the eclectic mix of means to facilitate SLA and help L2 learners improve their written accuracy.

In this paper, I survey the relevant background information of L2 writing pedagogy and investigate the findings of the most current WCF research. I analyze the theoretical issues surrounding the provision of WCF and SLA and conclude that, with minor modifications depending on the teaching context, dynamic WCF techniques can be a valuable asset for helping students become more accurate writers. Lastly, I offer lessons plans for the practical application of dynamic WCF in university-level ESL writing and grammar classes.

Introduction

It is generally accepted that the natural order of first language (L1) acquisition typically goes as follows: upon being born as innately language-prone, socially-interactive humans, first we listen; then, we start to speak; after that, many of us learn to read; ultimately, some of us undergo the long and often grueling process of learning how to write. The sequence of second language acquisition (SLA) often parallels that of the L1 (Krashen, 1981); however, there are several notable differences that manifest themselves as challenges for the English as a Second Language (ESL) student (and teacher) to overcome in the quest to develop second language (L2) writing proficiency, particularly in regard to linguistic accuracy.

As with the L1, acquiring receptive skills in an L2 requires an indeterminate, though plentiful, amount of comprehensible linguistic input (Krashen, 1981). In a conducive ESL-learning environment, e.g., on a university campus in an English speaking country, L2 learners may be exposed to such a quantity and quality of authentic written and oral L2 input in their immediate environment. Through extensive exposure to the L2 in the classroom, at campus events or social gatherings, and in their personal lives, university ESL students may become competent “comprehenders” or receivers of English without acquiring a corresponding ability to actually produce the language fluently or accurately.

However, merely acquiring proficient L2 receptive skills is rarely the goal of university-bound ESL students. Not only must these students strive to achieve an acceptable level of oral intelligibility, but they must also learn how to write academically. In fact, for university-bound ESL students “to succeed in competition for grades and attain their educational objectives, the level of accuracy in their L2 writing needs to at least attempt to approximate that of NS [native speaker] students of similar academic standing” (Hinkel, 2004, p. 34). Beyond the need to write

accurately for their academic survival, many of the professional domains that these ESL students expect to enter upon graduation demand a high level of linguistic accuracy as well (Evans et al., 2010, p. 447).

With such high stakes, clearly it is the ESL teacher's responsibility to help his/her students improve their written accuracy, but how? What can the ESL teacher do to facilitate his/her students' SLA and more accurate L2 writing? Providing corrective feedback on the students' grammatical errors is time and energy-consuming; is it even worth the trouble? As a novice ESL writing teacher, I am compelled to explore these issues. I am particularly interested in investigating any claims regarding the effectiveness of written corrective feedback (WCF) techniques as well as ascertaining how to provide WCF most efficiently.

Therefore, in this paper, I briefly survey the recent history of ESL writing instruction and provide an overview of the most prevalent writing pedagogy in today's composition classrooms: the process approach. I examine the theoretical SLA underpinnings and the prominent research surrounding the "Grammar Correction" debate (Truscott, 1996, 1999; Ferris, 1999, 2004; et al.) as it pertains to improving ESL students' written accuracy, and I highlight how and why the traditional writing methodologies, though appropriate for developing academic writing skills for L1 writers may not be optimal for improving L2 students' linguistic accuracy (Hinkel, 2004) due to inadequate opportunities for WCF (Hartshorn et al., 2010).

Then, I introduce an alternative instructional strategy designed by two Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) researchers from Brigham Young University, K. James Hartshorn and Norman W. Evans, specifically to mitigate the difficulties that L2 writers must overcome to achieve high levels of written accuracy. I analyze the premise on which their innovative methodology, called dynamic WCF, is based: error correction can be consequential

when it is manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant for both the learner and the teacher (Evans et al., 2010, p. 451) and conclude that their studies move the TESOL world toward a better “understanding of how to use WCF to maximize ESL student opportunities to learn to improve the linguistic accuracy of their writing” (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 85). Though I do not advocate that dynamic WCF entirely replace the conventional approaches to teaching ESL writing, I offer my pedagogical recommendations, via detailed lesson plans, for the implementation of certain dynamic WCF techniques into pre-university ESL writing and grammar classes. I also propose several potential adaptations of dynamic WCF procedures to suit a variety of other TESOL contexts.

1. Background Information on WCF in the L2 Writing Classroom

In her book, *Treatment of Error in Second Language Student Writing*, Ferris (2002) illustrated how the “short but eventful history of teaching composition to L2 writers” has seen some rather drastic change of perspectives on “grammar, error correction, and accuracy” (p. 3). Before the 1970s, error correction, along with explicit grammar instruction, was a primary component of L2 writing classes because of the high value placed on developing learners’ accuracy; L2 writing was viewed as language practice and as a means for learners to utilize newly acquired vocabulary, and the focus of L2 writing instruction was mainly on developing learners’ grammatical knowledge. “Controlled” or “guided” in-class writing activities were devised for practice on particular, supposedly problematic, grammatical forms; and, with an aim of preventing learners from forming, or fossilizing, bad writing habits, teachers often attempted to immediately and explicitly correct all errors in learners’ L2 writing (Ferris, 2002).

In the 1980s, the process approach to writing was developed as a reaction to the predominant method in L1 university-level writing instruction which had focused primarily on

“analyzing literature and the students’ writing style, lexical precision and breadth, grammar, and rhetorical style (e.g., the presence of thesis and rhetorical support, coherence, and cohesion)” (Hinkel, 2004, p. 8). The importance of the written product in L1 student composition gradually began to give way to a greater emphasis on the writing process, and the distinct stages of prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing became viewed as essential phases for the development of a formal written essay.

1.1. Description of the Process Approach

In the process approach, the preliminary stage inevitably involves determining a relevant topic and developing a focus for further exploration typically by means of brainstorming, clustering or outlining, and writing a first, or “discovery,” draft (Blum, 1984, p. 14). A common practice for brainstorming is to simply list everything that comes to mind, immediately and without censor. This step can be facilitated by formulating responses to the journalistic questions: *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why*, and *how*; or, more complex questions regarding comparison, analysis, cause-and-effect, or personal opinion could be investigated when appropriate (Blum, 1984, p. 15). Clustering, or idea-mapping, is a technique for expanding and organizing the ideas generated during the brainstorming stage; the result can serve as a visual guide for identifying and illuminating the main ideas of a written work (Blum, 1984, p. 22); alternatively, an outline can function in the same manner, albeit in a more structured format. Freewriting, which is often the next step in the process, is the term that describes the act of recording thoughts onto paper regardless of grammar or spelling. The production of initial and subsequent drafts is often referred to as discovery drafting, or simply drafting. Throughout the drafting stages, writers must incorporate supporting details, examples, and reasons to clarify their topics and further illustrate their arguments (Blum, 1984, p. 24).

The revising and editing phases of the writing process involve refining the unfinished drafts into finished products. They differ in that the revising phase is more comprehensive and includes major modifications and reorganization of the content whereas the editing phase consists simply of correcting minor grammatical or typographical errors. Nonetheless, through the process approach, “the product of writing is seen as secondary to the writing process” as students are taught the importance of “invention, creating ideas, and discovering the purpose of writing” (Hinkel, 2004, p. 5). When students are taught to follow the steps of the process approach via modeling and explicit examples, the emphasis is based squarely upon a “learning-to-write” agenda (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 2).

1.2. Inadequacy of the Process Approach for L2 writers

After the establishment of the process approach as the predominant writing pedagogy in L1 writing classes and as a result of observations regarding the similarities of L1 and L2 writing strategies, “the process-centered paradigm was [eventually] adopted as the preeminent methodology in teaching L2 writing” as well (Hinkel, 2004, p. 8). Unfortunately, despite the process approach’s effectiveness for familiarizing ESL students with rhetorical and discourse features of written English, such as effective content, organization, and flow of ideas, the process approach neglects addressing one of the biggest challenges that L2 writers face: improving their linguistic accuracy (Hartshorn, 2012, p. 219). So, while the process approach is nearly ideal for students who are “learning-to-write,” it is insufficient for those, like ESL students, who are indeed “writing-to-learn” (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 2).

With the advent and widespread adoption of the process approach to writing and its focus on “discovering ideas, drafting, revising, working collaboratively, and sharing successes” in both L1 and L2 writing classes, error feedback was reduced to an ancillary role in the editing stage at

the end of the writing process (Ferris, 1999, p. 3-4). This “benign neglect” of accuracy has long been recognized as the process approach’s major drawback for teaching L2 writing (Ferris, 1999, p. 4); in fact, the functionality of using it to prepare ESL students for real academic writing was first questioned decades ago (Horowitz, 1986), and scholars have duly noted inherent distinctions between L1 and L2 writers: e.g., “nonnative speakers make errors related both to negative transfer from their L1s and to incomplete acquisition of the L2” (Ferris, 1999, p. 4). Considering the accuracy demands of formal written composition and “that students’ accuracy will not magically improve all by itself” (Eskey 1983), error feedback is a crucial element for the development of students’ L2 writing:

Because L2 students, in addition to being developing writers, are still in the process of acquiring the L2 lexicon and morphological and syntactic systems, they need distinct and additional intervention from their writing teachers to make up these deficits and develop strategies for finding, correcting, and avoiding errors. (Ferris, 1999, p. 4)

1.3. The Pedagogy of Today’s L2 Writing Classrooms

To illustrate this predicament for L2 learners and teachers, imagine a typical first-year, university composition class: called ENGL 101. The teacher assigns four papers to be written over the course of the academic semester. Every third week, the students submit their final drafts; then, the teacher grades the papers using his/her time-tested evaluation rubric and returns them to the students. The students’ papers might contain a myriad of grammatical errors, but as long as “good ideas” are expressed, there is perhaps negligible feedback beyond a letter grade. The resulting dearth of WCF for the L2 writer is the glaring flaw with the conventional

pedagogical model for teaching L2 writing; many L2 learners need feedback to improve their writing, but they seldom get it in a process approach-based writing class.

To be fair, few if any L2 teachers rely entirely on one pedagogical approach as a basis for developing their classroom techniques. Most effective teachers do, in fact, employ a rather eclectic mix of methodologies to take advantage of or mitigate the various approaches' relative strengths and weaknesses, depending on the goals, ages, and proficiency levels of their students. Two approaches that are often constructively incorporated in L2 writing classes are the genre approach and the product approach. While the product approach, which encourages learners to practice writing grammatical texts through the replication of syntactically correct patterns, is appropriate for beginning level writers, and the genre approach, which familiarizes learners with the contexts and conventions of a particular type of writing, is effective for teaching rhetorical patterns and textual structure (Hyland, 2004), both sway the focus of instruction away from the writer and toward the target model or final product that the students are tasked with replicating. Also, neither approach provides much insight into the issue of how learners can improve their grammatical accuracy. In any case, regardless of whether the teacher emphasizes one approach or manages to successfully fuse several, if the teacher chooses to address L2 learners' linguistic deficiencies, as evidenced via their written errors, some form of corrective feedback (CF) must be provided.

2. Contextual Variables that Influence the Effectiveness of WCF: learner, situational, and methodological

The production of linguistically accurate writing is challenging for L2 writers due to an array of, oftentimes unique, contextual variables; it is not that grammar is any more important than the rhetorical dimensions of writing, but linguistic accuracy "deserves our attention simply

because it is the greatest struggle that many L2 writers face” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 219). Considering all of the following contextual variables that must be accounted for to successfully administer WCF, motivated, intermediate (or higher) proficiency, university ESL students seem to be optimal targets for/receivers of WCF.

First of all, the individuality of each student’s errors and his/her interlanguage are a product of “everything the student brings to the learning experience”; learner variables include “first language (L1), nationality, cultural identity, learning style, values, attitudes, beliefs, socioeconomic background, motivations, future goals, and many additional factors” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 448). Though research is inconclusive as to which of these factors are the most consistent predictors of L2 learning success, motivation is largely regarded as a crucial variable. “If the students are not committed to improving their writing skills, they will not improve, no matter what type of corrective feedback is provided” (Guenette, 2007, p. 52). Students who do not intend to write much in the future may devalue or ignore writing instruction in favor of focusing on the development of their oral skills; others may become satisfied once “their errors rarely interfere with communication” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 449). Another potential obstacle to the effectiveness of WCF is that “despite the intentions of teachers and students, students at lower proficiency levels may lack the linguistic awareness to correct the errors that teachers identify in their writing” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 450).

Situational variables generally depend on the physical environment of the learning atmosphere but can include political or socioeconomic considerations as well. Any distraction or impediment to learning, like an uncomfortable climate, insufficient lighting, disturbing noise, or the misbehavior of other students in the classroom might adversely affect a student’s learning. In a university-ESL classroom, these primarily external factors usually do not have a decisively

pivotal effect on learning; often, the most important and variable situational variable is actually the L2 writing teacher. While many TESOL practitioners are well-versed grammarians and competent English composition instructors, L2 writing and grammar teachers certainly possess a wide range of abilities and teaching styles.

Lastly, the methodological variables “consist of the features of the specific design of instruction and include what is taught and how it is taught” (Evans et al., 2010, p.450). The term methodological, as it is used here, refers to instructional rather than research-oriented methodology. Inappropriate sequencing, ineffective pacing, inadequate practice opportunities, or the provision of overwhelming amounts of feedback are all potential causes for the benefits of WCF to be missed. Frankly, it is the L2 writing teacher who must “determine the most effective ways to have students process and learn from correction so they can apply what they learn in subsequent writing” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 451). Below is a graphic representation of the circumstances that impact, both positively and negatively, the efficacy of WCF.

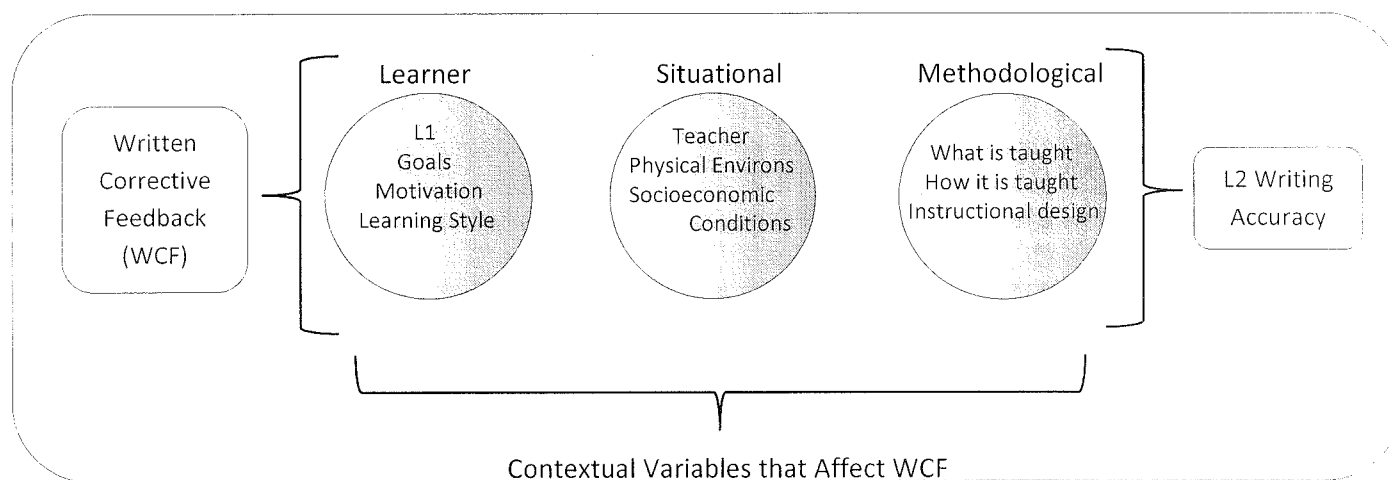


Figure 1. Variables in L2 writing that influence learning and research. Adapted from “Contextualizing Corrective Feedback in Second Language Writing Pedagogy,” by Evans et al., *Language Teaching Research*, 2010, 14, p. 449.

3. Categories of Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

Teachers can give feedback to L2 writers on a range of issues, including content, organization, and style; however, “it is the feedback on language use, termed written corrective feedback (WCF), which seems to have attracted the most research attention recently” (Storch, 2010, p. 30). Indeed, most L2 writing researchers have moved beyond the questions of “if and how CF can help students to become more able and self-employed writers” and have begun to investigate “the potential of written CF in aiding learners’ interlanguage development” (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 2): i.e., facilitating their SLA. However, due to the fact that the current WCF research has yet to expose a perfect, unanimously agreed upon, manifestation of WCF, in the interim, the burden is on the teacher to decide which kind of feedback to provide to his/her students. As the figure below illustrates, the L2 writing teacher has several decisions to make when it comes to WCF provision.

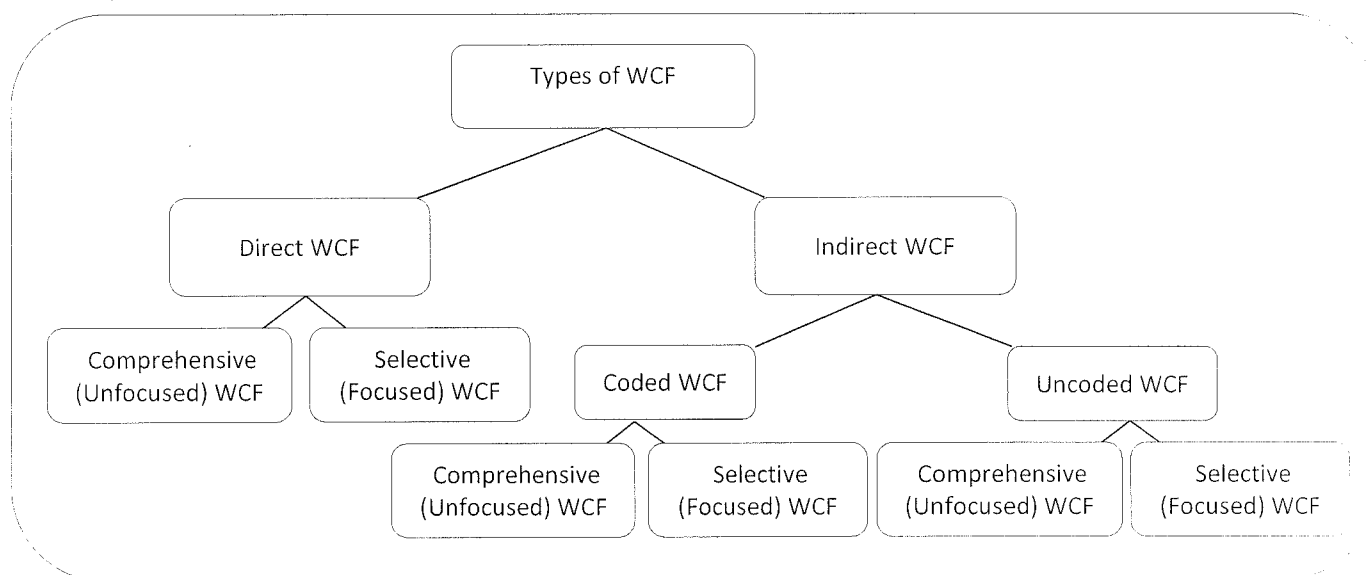


Figure 2. “Tree” of WCF possibilities. Adapted from “Corrective Feedback for Linguistic Errors in Adult ESL Writing” workshop, by Arnold et al., *MinneTESOL 2012 Fall Conference*, 2012.

This terminology (in Figure 2, p. 10) is a product of the WCF options that are available; the teacher must choose whether to target all the errors or only errors associated with a particular grammatical function, and the teacher must determine how explicit his/her intervention should be: i.e., to actually provide the correction or simply identify the location of the error. If the teacher opts to identify the error, he/she must choose whether or not to provide clues for rectifying the error via editing symbols (see Figure 3, below). These terms for the specific types of WCF are defined in the following sections on this paper.

3.1. Direct vs. Indirect WCF

Direct error feedback occurs when a correction is provided by the teacher. Indirect feedback occurs when the teacher indicates the location of an error without providing the correct form for the student. Indirect feedback that is coded includes metalinguistic information about the error in the form of editing symbols.




1. D Determiner	8. SPG Spelling	15.  Word Order
2. SV Subject Verb Agreement	9. WF Word Form	16. C Capitalization
3. VF Verb Form	10. WC Word Choice	17. P Punctuation
4. RO Run-on Sentence	11. S/PL Singular/Plural	18.  Omit
5. INC Incomplete Sentence	12. C/NC Count/Noncount	19. ^ Missing something
6. VT Verb Tense	13. ? Unclear meaning	20.  New Paragraph
7. PP Preposition	14. AWK Awkward Wording	

Figure 3. Common editing symbols for coded WCF. Adapted from “Contextualizing Corrective Feedback in Second Language Writing Pedagogy,” by Evans et al., *Language Teaching Research*, 2010, 14, p. 462.

Uncoded indirect feedback is merely error identification where the teacher simply underlines or circles the error. Despite the fact that “further study is needed to clarify the effects of these types of feedback” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 221), indirect WCF has significant

intuitive appeal in that it makes the student concentrate a certain level of cognitive energy on his/her language usage in order to correct the error. This point is expanded later in this paper (see section 4.2.1., p. 22), but the essence behind the argument in favor of indirect WCF is that it encourages students' self-correction and metalinguistic processing: i.e., it makes them think about and do something to correct their errors as opposed to simply "giving them the answers."

3.2. Focused vs. Unfocused WCF

As opposed to unfocused, or comprehensive, WCF, which is intended to provide feedback on all or the vast majority of error types, focused, or selective, WCF occurs when teachers and researchers target only one or a limited number of error types. Despite the fact that unfocused WCF is widely accepted as the "most authentic feedback methodology" (Van Bueningan, 2010, p. 20), providing unfocused WCF presents two complications that must be reconciled for it to be viable. First, it can be overwhelming for teachers and students to address every error; the added workload may result in teacher burn out, and students may not benefit from feedback beyond their processing capacities. Second, WCF's efficacy is limited if the turnaround time between production and feedback is significantly delayed or if the students "do not have adequate opportunities to process and practice utilizing the feedback" (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 224).

The current preference for research on focused WCF is based on the rationale that focused WCF reduces the "risk of overloading the students' attentional capacity" and allows for a more manageable "processing load" (Sheen, 2009). Recent studies "have provided valuable evidence of the potential benefits of WCF on one or limited number of error types," especially the effects of various types of WCF on specific article functions, and have found that the subjects who receive WCF consistently tend to use those targeted article functions more accurately in

future writing tasks than those in the control groups (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 220). However, few WCF studies have been “specifically designed to test whether focused or unfocused feedback results in greater [written] accuracy” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 221). A major limitation with the encouraging results of some of the current focused WCF research (e.g., Bitchener and Knoch, 2009; Bitchener and Knoch, 2010) is that their results are based on a single, rule-based grammatical item. Ellis et al. concluded that their findings were not significant in determining which type of WCF [focused vs. unfocused] is more beneficial, but rather they suggest that either one “can be effective in promoting greater grammatical accuracy in both an error correction test and, importantly, in a subsequent piece of writing” (Ellis et al., 2008, p. 368).

While narrowly “focused WCF may be essential for certain types of research or theory building, it may be less ideal for the practical realities of some classroom contexts” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 223). Because students’ ability to produce more accurate writing in the long-term is a fundamental priority of L2 teachers, WCF scholars have called for studies of unfocused WCF methods which are truly “comprehensive, systematic, and appropriate to learners’ cognitive capacity” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p.221).

3.3. Treatable vs. Untreatable Errors

Most of the recent focused WCF research has been designed to target what some TESOL scholars refer to as treatable errors. Treatable errors, such as those related to verb form and tense, plural noun endings, subject-verb agreement, and article usage, are rule-governed. Untreatable errors are more idiosyncratic in nature and include lexical misuse and problems with sentence structure. Ferris and Roberts found that students often successfully edited their rule-governed, treatable errors (2001, p. 176); one suggested approach for dealing with non-idiomatic,

untreatable errors is “a combination of strategy training and direct correction (hoping that the latter would, if nothing else, provide input for acquisition of these idiomatic forms)” (Ferris, 1999, p. 6).

Treatable error: The boy threw the ball to dog.	Error is rule-governed: missing determiner.
Untreatable error: She was feeling over the weather.	Error involves idiomatic misuse.

Figure 4: Examples of treatable (rule-governed) and untreatable (idiomatic) errors

Another system for categorizing errors, originally devised by Burt and Kiparsky, classifies errors as global or local; those errors which cause a communicative breakdown are considered global, whereas “minor linguistic violations” that do not interfere with communication are deemed local errors (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 13). However, determining which errors to correct, or even distinguishing the difference between mistakes and errors, is difficult because “the gravity of an error is to a very considerable extent a matter of personal opinion” (Ellis, 2009, p. 6). The distinction between an error and a mistake is that an error results from the learner's lack of proper grammatical knowledge and a mistake results from failure to use a known system correctly (Brown, 1994, p. 205). Whereas a mistake can be random (e.g., a slip of the tongue/pen) and easily rectified by a native speaker, errors are often recurrent and not immediately recognizable by the L2 learner (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 102-3).

Despite the research regarding the most effective type of WCF being inconclusive, there is mounting evidence that providing WCF on L2 writers errors can facilitate the development of their interlanguage and ultimately their SLA (Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2007; Ellis et al., 2008; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Van Beuningen, 2010). The principles behind this new wave of research are expounded in the subsequent sections of this paper, but the observations of

experienced TESOL practitioner and researcher Jean Chandler illustrate the prevailing opinion among ESL writing teachers: “writing provides a major avenue of learning language” for L2 students, and “receiving error feedback on their writing is an important way to learn English” (2004, p. 345).

4. The Great WCF Debate

Though it may seem like common sense that acquiring the grammatical knowledge to write accurately in an L2 requires corrective feedback, WCF has endured its share of criticism. On one extreme end of the WCF spectrum, providing any grammar correction in L2 writing classes has been lambasted as futile and potentially detrimental (Truscott, 1996); on the other side, several WCF proponents have advocated/discussed various WCF techniques’ effectiveness for a host of theoretical and pedagogical reasons (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener and Knoch, 2008, 2009, 2010; Bruton, 2009; Chandler, 2004, 2011; Ellis, 2008; Ferris, 1996, 2002; Santos et al., 2010; Sheen, 2007). Though there is far from a unanimous agreement on the topic, this dichotomy on WCF has spawned a wave of intriguing research and theoretical debate.

4.1. Objections Against WCF: Developmental Readiness, Interface, Harmful side-effects

In Truscott’s original diatribe against WCF, he boldly proclaimed that “grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned” (1996, p. 328), but Truscott did not entirely reject feedback as a teaching technique. In fact, he conceded the potential value of WCF for improving the content and organization of L2 writing. Among the theoretical reasons for his condemnation of WCF, Truscott stated that WCF’s popularity/prevalence in ESL writing classes stems from an outdated, teacher-centric view of learning in which learning is essentially viewed as a transfer from teacher to student. Truscott acknowledged the intuitive appeal of providing WCF: giving students the correct form or directions/guidance for finding

their errors could help the students use that form properly/accurately in the future; however, Truscott (1996) claimed that that perspective is based on a false assumption that the acquisition of a grammatical structure could occur as a sudden discovery rather than as a result of a gradual process.

Furthermore, Truscott contended that no single form of WCF can be effective because “syntactic, morphological, and lexical knowledge are acquired in different manners” (1996, p. 343). Truscott argued that providing effective focused WCF on syntactic errors is nearly impossible due to inadequate knowledge of the developmental sequence of English language acquisition, and providing comprehensive WCF does not circumvent the problem because any WCF on linguistic forms for which a student is not ready would be distracting and thus ineffective (1996, p. 345).

According to Truscott, the next major weakness of WCF is that any learning that may result from it only affects the students’ surface grammar rather than their underlying grammar knowledge. Truscott has called this knowledge that is produced by WCF and/or explicit instruction pseudoknowledge and has claimed that it has “little value for actual use of the language” (1996, p. 345). The question is whether or not explicit grammar knowledge can improve a student’s interlanguage and ultimately his/her competence using the L2; Krashen (1981), Truscott (1996), and others taking the non-interface position believe that explicit L2 knowledge cannot be converted into implicit knowledge.

In “Corrective Feedback in L2 Writing: Theoretical Perspectives, Empirical Insights, and Future Directions,” Van Beuningen explained that the majority of TESOL researchers have more optimistic opinions of WCF’s role in the process of SLA. According to an interface perspective, the gap between explicit knowledge and language use can be bridged by output practice, and the

intermediate position considers implicit and explicit knowledge to be separate but presumes that explicit knowledge may feed into the intake process by helping learners notice formal grammatical features. If in fact there exists interface between explicit grammar instruction and long-term SLA, WCF can “foster interlanguage development because it facilitates the process of noticing (the gap)” between the learners’ language and that of the target structure (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 8-9). Despite Truscott’s skepticism regarding the necessity of metalinguistic knowledge for SLA, he recognized its value as “mildly useful for editing” (1996, p. 347).

Detractors of WCF also expounded on the practical obstacles that make it unfeasible in classes with L2 writers. For WCF and explicit instruction to be successful, teachers must be able to recognize their students’ errors, understand the correct usage of that grammatical structure, and give an appropriate explanation. Students may then fail to make the connection intended by the WCF because attending to WCF requires considerable mental energy, and even if the students make corrections and/or rewrite more accurately, that does not necessarily equate to sustained learning (Truscott, 1996, p. 350-1). Possibly the most condemning argument that Truscott made against WCF is that it has harmful side-effects: the amount of time and energy spent giving and attending to WCF is counterproductive because that effort could be focused on other language activities. Lastly, Truscott claimed that WCF causes undue stress and anxiety for the students, and it can lead to avoidance strategies in students’ L2 writing (1996, p. 355).

In fact, Truscott’s most outspoken critic (Ferris, 1999) agreed that there are challenges to implementing WCF but proposes that the solution lies in “preparation, practice, and prioritizing” (p. 6). Ferris asserted that Truscott’s “rush, or stampede, to judgment is especially egregious” because his conclusions were “based on limited, dated, incomplete and inconclusive evidence”

(Ferris, 1999, p. 9). In Truscott's own words, "probably accuracy is improved through extensive experience with the target language- experience in reading and writing" (1996, p. 360).

Undeniably, ESL writing teachers should use any and all the tools we have at our disposal to help our students become better writers: e.g., presenting models for students to emulate, as in the genre-approach, as well as teaching autonomous learning strategies for revision and editing. An ESL teacher might assume that the adage of a mistake or error being a learning opportunity automatically applies to language learning and L2 writing, but if providing WCF is so time and energy-consuming, what are the justifications for doing so?

4.2. Theoretical Support for WCF

The first, though often overlooked, reason for providing feedback on students' written errors is derived from the students' perspective, from their expectations. In Ferris's "The Case for Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes: A Response to Truscott (1996)," she stated that especially in situations where they are striving for high grades or language proficiency scores, the provision of WCF correlates positively to students' motivation and confidence (1999). Ferris highlighted students' attitudes and perceptions among the variables of language learning contexts that play an important role in the effectiveness of WCF. "Typical" ESL errors can result in stigmatization and be detrimental to the students' aspirations for academic and professional success, so students in an intensive, university-level ESL program, especially high-proficiency students whose goals include preparing for an academic career, are particularly receptive to WCF (Ferris, 1999, p. 4). It is critical for those students to "become more self-sufficient in editing their own writing" (Ferris, 1999, p. 8). Ferris suggested that students should be trained to identify and correct patterns of frequent and serious errors and that students should be given the explicit rules

that govern those patterns (1999, p. 8). Not coincidentally, a focus on editing knowledge and strategies is one of the prominent features of the dynamic WCF process.

4.2.1. Focus-on-Form Intervention, Noticing Facilitation, Pushed Output

Van Beuningen's extensive WCF literature review has illustrated the near unanimous SLA view that the cognitive processes for the acquisition of a L2 are not the same as for those which drive L1 acquisition; if ample comprehensible input was the necessary and sufficient condition for SLA, there would be no need for WCF, but an exclusively "meaning-based approach does not suffice" for SLA; "some attention to linguistic form is necessary" because L2 output production does not guarantee engagement in full morphosyntactic processing (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 3-4): i.e., an L2 writer can communicate his/her message without a high degree of formal accuracy or even awareness of the grammatical correctness of his/her writing. Without WCF on his/her ungrammatical usage, the L2 learner may proceduralize nontargetlike forms, possibly even resulting in the fossilization of those errors in the L2 learner's interlanguage (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 4).

The first beneficial effect of WCF on SLA, as outlined by Van Beuningen (2010), is that it necessitates Focus-on-Form Intervention. When WCF is provided within a communicative context, as it is in dynamic WCF; it is unplanned, incidental, reactive, and individualized. Unlike oral corrective feedback, providing WCF does not threaten to interrupt the "online" (i.e., occurring instantaneously) flow of communication, and WCF is in accordance with "transfer-appropriate learning" principles (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 5), i.e., learning a language by using it as opposed to merely learning about it.

Second, based on the premises of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis in which "subliminal SLA is impossible," and "it is only through conscious attention that input can be converted into

intake,” WCF functions as a Noticing Facilitator. Though there remains debate over the requisite level of awareness, there is a relative consensus that attention is a necessary condition for SLA, especially for adults. Gass and Long proposed that raising learners’ awareness of certain linguistic forms by providing WCF may lead to destabilization and restructuring of interlanguage grammar (as cited in Van Beuningen, 2010). Again, as opposed to oral CF, the “offline” nature of WCF creates fewer competing demands for attentional resources, which increases the chances of learners’ noticing the gaps in their interlanguage (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 6).

Third, WCF is a source for another important factor of SLA: pushed output. Swain’s Output Hypothesis has posited that WCF encourages learners to notice gaps in their developing L2 systems, test their interlanguage hypotheses, and engage in metalinguistic reflection. It is not only the output production that pushes deeper processing, i.e. beyond semantics; it is certainly the feedback component that plays this crucial pushing role (Van Beuningen, 2010, p. 6-7).

4.2.2. Skill Acquisition Theory

The theoretical foundation for dynamic WCF is based upon the principles of Dekeyser’s skill acquisition theory, which has asserted that improving any skill (e.g, writing with linguistic accuracy) is a function of extensive and deliberate practice; declarative knowledge (i.e., “what one knows”) precedes the development of procedural knowledge (i.e., what one can do”) and must be based on explicit rules and numerous examples (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 215-7).

Considering that the process of converting declarative knowledge about written English into the procedural knowledge of accurately producing it is often quite a protracted and difficult proposition, the importance of writing practice cannot be understated.

Nonetheless, though the skill acquisition theory foresees more accurate writing resulting from practice, it cautions that procedural knowledge does not necessarily transfer into a level of

automaticity. For students to sustain their improvements in producing accurate writing, their production tasks must be more meaningful than simple grammar drills; the skill acquisition theory predicts that the more authentic the students' practice activities are, the more likely they will facilitate progress towards automaticity: that coveted level of proficiency at which the L2 learner can perform without conscious control. Therefore, the writing teacher must "effectively balance explicit instruction and extensive practice" (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 87).

4.3. Reframing the WCF Debate

Since Truscott's early (1996) claim that providing WCF to improve L2 learners' written accuracy is futile or even detrimental, the overwhelming majority of WCF researchers and practitioners have moved beyond the question of *whether* it is beneficial and on to seeking "*how* to use it effectively to help their students write more accurately" (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 85). Some TESOL scholars have gone as far as declaring it an "ethical obligation" to consider strongly held student preferences such as the desire and expectation for WCF in university-level ESL contexts: "withholding such feedback is likely to frustrate learners, erode learners' confidence in their teachers, and undermine the learning process" (Evans et al. 2010, p. 446). Nonetheless, despite a growing body of evidence suggesting that WCF can improve L2 learners' written accuracy in certain contexts and can help teachers identify areas in which individual students need to improve, many L2 writing teachers remain puzzled as to "how to identify the specific steps they can take to help their students write more accurately" (Evans et al. 2010, p. 446).

The most logical explanation for the confusion and uncertainty that has shrouded the potential of WCF is that WCF was simply not being done well or the results not being measured properly (Guenette, 2007). Storch's (2010) criticism of the early WCF studies stems from

“serious research design flaws” like studies that lacked a control group (e.g., Robb et al., 1986) or had a control group that actually received some form of the treatment feedback (e.g., Chandler, 2003). Some studies evaluated students’ accuracy improvement with only their revised texts rather than a new piece of writing (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Others utilized inappropriate writing tasks or task conditions, like journals which may encourage writing fluency over accuracy, or take-home writing assignments where the time spent and additional assistance rendered would be confounding factors (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003). In sum, the parameters (e.g., populations, treatment, grammatical accuracy measures, etc.) of the existing experimental studies’ differ so greatly that synthesizing them for comparison is highly problematic (Ferris, 2004; Guenette, 2007). Therefore, the call to action has been for current WCF researchers to publish more ecologically valid studies, i.e., studies that approximate real-world settings (Storch, 2010). A telling analogy is the nearly 100% rejection rate of kidney transplants in the early years of human organ transplant research; the reason for the failure was not that it could not be done but rather that it was not being done with a sufficiently sophisticated technique. Writing with linguistic accuracy and WCF may not be issues of life-or-death, but “we should not abandon our efforts simply because our past pedagogical practices or methods of measurement may have been unsuccessful” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 447).

5. Intro to Dynamic WCF

In a March 2010 *TESOL Quarterly* study, “Effects of Dynamic Corrective Feedback on ESL Writing Accuracy”, K. James Hartshorn, Norman W. Evans, and several of their teacher-researcher colleagues at Brigham Young University called attention to the shortcomings of the conventional, process approach as an instructional method to improve ESL students’ grammatical accuracy: infrequent and/or inadequate provision of WCF on the students’ written

errors. Though there is some ambiguity and discrepancy surrounding the key terminology employed in the existing WCF discourse (Storch, 2010), I will proceed by using the definitions provided by the authors themselves. According to Hartshorn and Evans, WCF refers to “any feedback targeting grammatical, lexical, or mechanical errors in L2 writing”; an error is a linguistic choice that a native-speaker would not produce given the same context and conditions; and, the term *linguistic accuracy* is used to describe “the absence of these errors” (2012, p. 218).

Error:	Yesterday, I cook dinner at my apartment.
WCF:	Yesterday, I ^{VT} <u>cook</u> dinner at my apartment.
Linguistic Accuracy:	Yesterday, I cooked dinner at my apartment.

Figure 5: Examples of an error, WCF, and linguistic accuracy

The term *dynamic WCF* refers to an instructional strategy, developed by Harthshorn et al., for improving students’ written accuracy; dynamic WCF encourages writing practice that is both frequent and authentic for the learners and maximizes their opportunity to learn to write more accurately by incorporating feedback that reflects what the individual learner needs most, as demonstrated by what the learner produces (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p.87).

5.1. Principles behind Dynamic WCF

Dynamic WCF was designed to improve the writing accuracy of advanced ESL and university-matriculated L2 learners of English for academic purposes with the instructional methodology based on the following assumptions: students desire to improve their linguistic accuracy; students expect to have their writing errors marked; students can improve their linguistic accuracy with appropriate error correction; and, error correction can be consequential when it is manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant for both the learner and the teacher

(Evans et al., 2010, p. 451). Furthermore, considering that a sound pedagogical practice should result in long-term improvement (i.e., sustained improvement in written accuracy) and cognitive development (i.e., SLA), WCF is truly only consequential if it improves both the writing and the writer (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p.226).

5.1.1 Manageable WCF

WCF is manageable for teachers when it allows them the time/attention required to provide thorough, high-quality feedback, and it is manageable for students “when they have the time and ability to process, learn from, and apply the needed feedback from their teachers” (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 88). With dynamic WCF, the issue of a potential cognitive/information overload for students who receive too much feedback is mitigated by limiting the daily writing tasks to a manageable length: ten minutes or roughly one paragraph.

5.1.2 Meaningful WCF

The particular brand of WCF that Hartshorn et al. have considered to be cognitively meaningful is manifested in the form of comprehensive, indirect, coded WCF (see section 3 for explanation of WCF types). In the dynamic WCF approach, students are preliminarily instructed how to interpret error correction symbols (see Figure 3, p.11); the students must record their errors on an Error List and Error Tally Sheet (see Figure 7, p. 34), which then serve as the basis for the teacher’s explicit grammar instruction lessons; and ultimately, the students are “responsible for correcting their errors on subsequent drafts” for homework (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 88).

Hartshorn et al. maintained that restricting WCF to certain grammatical forms compromises the validity of the feedback in an environment where students are “anxious to improve the overall accuracy of their writing,” and they stated that in a truly authentic writing

task, students “need to focus on accurate production of all aspects of writing, simultaneously,” rather than on a limited number of error categories (2010, p. 89). At beginning levels of language learning while students “know very little and have much to learn,” they are likely to share a relatively predictable set of common needs; however, their needs become increasingly individualized as they progress towards an advanced level of proficiency. Dynamic WCF addresses this issue and is meaningful for each individual student because the feedback focuses “on the most immediate needs of the learner as demonstrated by the specific errors that the learner produces” (Evans et al., 2011, p. 232).

5.1.3. Timely & Constant WCF

Dynamic WCF is deemed to be timely and constant because students are repeatedly tasked with producing new writing pieces, ideally every day, and their written output is subsequently marked by the teacher and returned to the students for revision the following class period (Hartshorn et al., 2010, p. 88). By minimizing the lapse of time between when the student writes and when he/she receives feedback, the teacher facilitates more cycles of student production and thus more opportunities to learn than if the exchanges were prolonged. Students who receive a constant, rather than sporadic, flow of feedback are more likely “to develop habits of self-analysis and self-correction” and ultimately become more accurate writers (Evans et al. 2010, p. 452).

5.2. Dynamic WCF Findings: Not All Errors should be Treated Equally

In their studies, the dynamic WCF researchers identified three separate error families: grammatical, lexical, and mechanical. Errors related to sentence structure, the use of determiners, subject-verb agreement, verb tense, numeric shift (i.e., count vs. non-count or singular vs. plural forms) and semantics (awkwardness, unnecessary insertion or omission,

unclear meaning, and word order) were deemed grammatical. Word choice, including prepositions, and word form errors were classified as lexical, and mechanical errors were those associated with capitalization, indentation, punctuation, and spelling (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 227).

Most errors were objectively identified as belonging to a single category, but others were more difficult to delineate. Awkwardness, for example, was defined as a production error that, despite seemingly clear meaning, was overtly distracting (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 233). Mechanical errors seem to be the “among the most correctable” but are inherently less complex than grammatical errors, particularly when considering semantic accuracy. Semantic accuracy, as measured in these WCF studies, “encompassed the application of a complex body of knowledge, including appropriate word order and collocations which help writers to avoid language that is awkward, unclear, or simply unintelligible,” and the improvements observed in this category (i.e., semantic accuracy) for the treatment groups suggest that even an untreatable linguistic feature, like word choice, may benefit from WCF (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 238).

Though the subjects who received the dynamic WCF treatment in their studies did not exhibit significant improvement in every error category, and “the precise reasons for the differential effects” were unspecified, “at least some aspects from each of the three error families were affected positively by the treatment” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 236). The findings in the existing dynamic WCF studies have “demonstrated that the principles associated with skill acquisition theory produced positive results for an array of linguistic domains” and have suggested that “focused WCF may not be the only way to ensure manageability” (Hartshorn & Evans, 2012, p. 238). Accordingly, despite the recent propensity for WCF researchers to limit their studies to linguistic features that are simple “to define, describe, teach,” L2 learners must

also overcome the semantic and lexical errors that obscure meaning and interfere with communication to truly write accurately and effectually.

5.3. Limitations of Existing Dynamic WCF research

Though the researchers who devised and conducted these studies seem convinced by the ample “evidence of the benefits of dynamic WCF on broad linguistic domains,” they conceded limitations to their findings due to the difficulty of categorizing certain error types (Hartshorn, 2012, p. 239). They propose that it may be more appropriate to ascertain a level of acceptability for a given lexical choice rather than simply labeling it accurate or inaccurate. For instance, certain connotations are associated with the following “synonyms”: *progeny*, *offspring*, *child*, and *kid*; or, using *get* instead of *be* in the grammatical construction of the passive voice implies a lesser degree of formality (e.g., He got compensated vs. He was compensated) and seems rather incongruous in written form.

Also, one of their initial studies lacked a control group because the “purpose was merely to determine whether further study on the effects of dynamic WCF was warranted” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 459). They recognized that additional, more specific, research and replication is required, and they suggest that future research analyze longitudinal data rather than simply the results from a single, 15-week semester. Furthermore, they acknowledged that “short, ten-minute writing samples are not authentic representations of the kind of writing that students use in academic settings” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 456). Lastly, they recommended the inclusion of less proficient learners in future research as a solution to the apparent ceiling effect (i.e., slight/no room for improvement due to high pretest scores) for some of the variables measured in their studies. Ultimately, the dynamic WCF “treatment may only facilitate greater accuracy for

certain linguistic domains at a particular range of proficiency” (Hartshorn and Evans, 2012, p. 239).

5.4. Pedagogical Implications of Dynamic WCF research

According to its inventors, the pedagogical implications of dynamic WCF are two-fold:

First, results have shown that a systemic application of the principles behind skill acquisition theory may have a positive effect on the accuracy of L2 writing for both non-grammatical and grammatical errors without undermining rhetorical competence.

Second, our results underscore the assertion that focused WCF may not be the only appropriate form of feedback for every learning context: practitioners should be encouraged to explore what may be best for their specific learners.

(Hartshorn, 2012, p. 239).

Unquestionably, teachers must consider the practical constraints in their respective situations and must utilize a mix of instructional strategies to suit their learners’ needs. In a context like a university ESL program, where written accuracy is a priority, I highly recommend the integration of dynamic WCF-based activities as a viable pedagogical option for helping students become more accurate L2 writers. The following sections of this paper will demonstrate how to utilize these WCF techniques; first, I will make some rather broad suggestions for any TESOL practitioner considering this type of WCF; then, I will offer specific lesson plans intended for one particular ESL grammar class.

6. Procedures for Implementing Dynamic WCF

Though the existing dynamic WCF studies have been conducted with advanced ESL and university-matriculated international students in writing courses, its principles and WCF techniques could also be applied to intermediate or lower levels provided that the students can

write complete sentences. Regardless of the students' proficiency level, if the ultimate goal is "to help students improve their ability to recognize and correct common grammar errors in their own writing" (Evans et al., 2010, p. 456), dynamic WCF seems best suited for advanced learners as a fine-tuning device for perfecting their written accuracy rather than an all-encompassing grammar syllabus. Nonetheless, as exhibited in my lesson plans later in this paper, dynamic WCF can also be utilized in order to integrate writing practice and a focus on written accuracy into a grammar class.

Naturally, dynamic WCF is most feasibly implemented by a practitioner who has a strong knowledge of grammar. Applying dynamic WCF techniques, however, does not require the teacher to be a doctoral linguist or prescriptive grammarian; the teacher must mainly be confident in his/her ability to distinguish typical ESL errors: the misuse of determiners and prepositions; inconsistent subject-verb agreement; erroneous verb tense/form; incomplete and run-on sentences; awkward word choice; spelling, capitalization, and punctuation mistakes; and the sole complicated issue: word order/syntax. The teacher must be able to identify ungrammatical sentences, or parts thereof, and determine the corresponding grammatical categories and editing symbols (see Figure 3, p.11).

Considering the same skill acquisition theory-based premise that we expect L2 learners to improve their writing accuracy with practice, we can assume that the teacher will hone his/her ability to provide feedback quickly and precisely. With experience, the teacher will undoubtedly encounter recurrent production errors in students' writing and plausibly even develop a propensity for predicting certain errors that tend to correspond to a given genre/topic. Hence, while implementing dynamic WCF requires minimal planning time, the brunt of the teachers' time and energy goes into the provision of feedback.

Additionally, the dynamic WCF practitioner must be flexible and tolerate a great deal of uncertainty. As in any student-centered educational settings, the teacher must surrender some control that he/she would be afforded by strictly adhering to a synthetic syllabus. In a semester-long composition course, the syllabus may dictate that the students produce four or five compositions from the following respective genres: narrative, descriptive, cause-and-effect, compare-contrast, problem-solution, and argumentative/opinion. With dynamic WCF, grammar topics for explicit instruction are derived from the errors produced in the students' writing samples; it is the teacher's responsibility to determine which to address as well as when and how to most effectively do so. When teaching how to describe a process, for instance, the focus could be on using conjunctions and imperative verbs (e.g., First, do this. Then, do that.) or the passive voice (e.g., The mixture is cooled... The solution is heated...).

It would certainly behoove the teacher to prepare mini-lessons for the most likely problem areas ahead of time. Knowing that the conjugation of irregular verbs will be troublesome for many beginning L2 students, the teacher could prepare handouts of verb charts (Appendix A) for the students to review. Any topic with finite answers, like irregular verbs, makes for excellent material for a competitive game (Appendix B). In my experience, competitive games have proven to encourage active participation; students seem to enjoy the change of pace, and they enliven the mood in the classroom. However, supplementary activities like that are only recommended if time permits and should not be used to such an extent as to detract from more primary objectives: improving the students' written accuracy (in a writing course, perhaps) and facilitating their SLA (in most ESL grammar classes).

Typically, the explicit dynamic WCF grammar lesson, derived in response to errors that have appeared in students' writing, would be presented the next day or in a subsequent class

period, but another appropriate occasion for explicit instruction could occur in the form of scaffolding or piggybacking onto the students' existing knowledge, before the error has been produced by a student. For example, a lesson with the prepositions *for* and *since* obviously complements a lesson on the present perfect (Appendix C); furthermore, the teacher could demonstrate that the usage of the adverbs *still*, *already*, and *yet* with the present perfect is restricted depending on whether the sentence is affirmative, negative, or in question form (Appendix D). Likewise, a lesson on countable vs. uncountable nouns logically coincides with one on adjectives of quantity: *much/many*, *a little/few* (Appendix E). Difficulties with syntax could be preempted with examples illustrating the requisite subject-verb-object word order (Appendix F) or instances of sentences with direct and indirect objects (Appendix G).

I strongly encourage that the L2 teacher who intends on using dynamic WCF compile a library of resources, like ready-made handouts and worksheets for additional practice, on the grammar topics that are most likely to be problematic for his/her students. A tech savvy teacher could dedicate a space online, e.g., on a school-sponsored learning management system like Blackboard or D2L, for students to refer to themselves, but that is not a necessary component in the dynamic WCF procedure.

6.1. Description of Dynamic WCF Procedures

Before starting the official dynamic WCF exercises (especially if dynamic WCF is used to integrate writing into a grammar class), the students must first be introduced to “the basics of good paragraph writing: coherence, unity, developing one main topic, and providing adequate support” (Evans et al. 2010, p.454). At an intermediate level and above, the students should already be familiar with these concepts, but the teacher could review and/or reinforce these ideas by showing positive evidence (i.e., correct examples) or having the students identify those

elements by themselves. Also, preferably during the first week of class, the students must be trained to recognize the editing symbols (see Figure 3, p. 11). After a handful of “editing-symbol training” sessions and the students understand the fundamentals of paragraph writing, the teacher can begin to work with the six-step, error-correction process illustrated and described in the figure and paragraphs below.

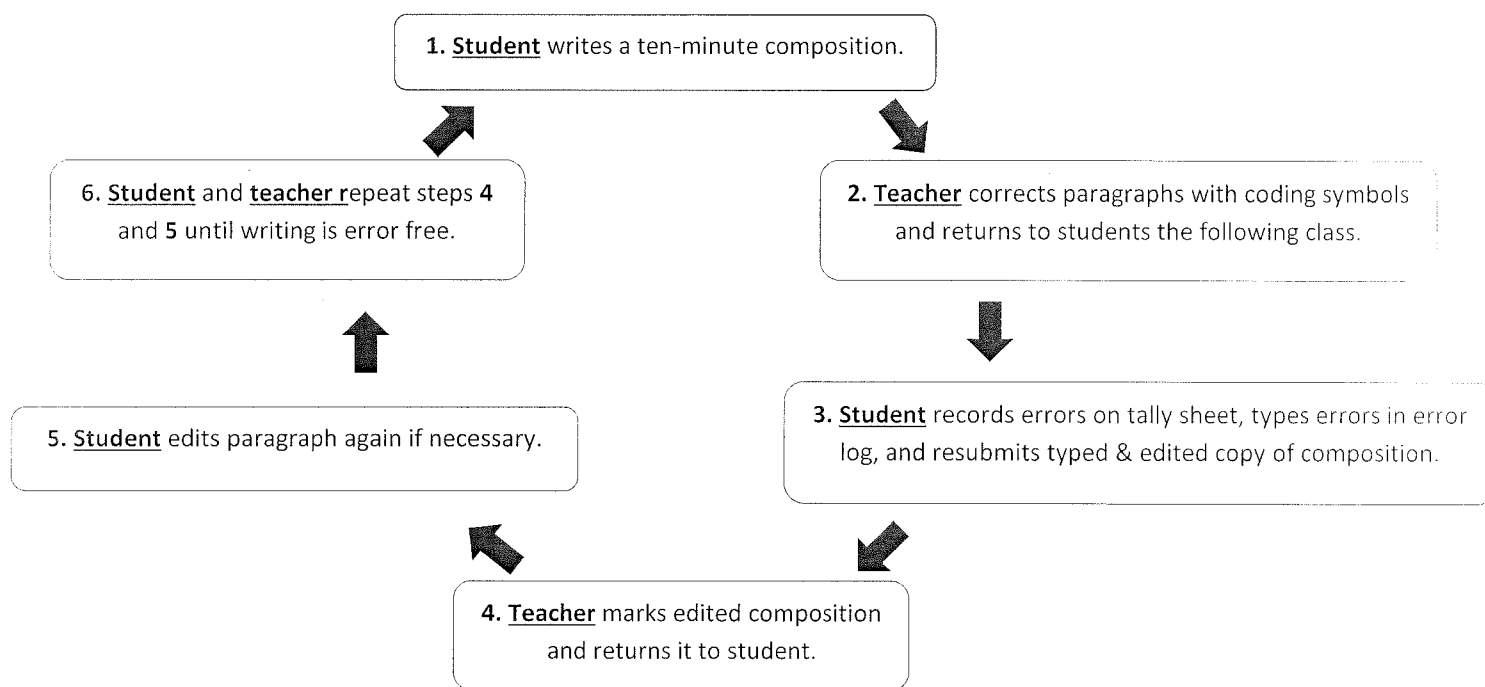


Figure 6: Dynamic WCF Cycle. Adapted from “Effects of Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback on ESL Writing Accuracy,” by Hartshorn et al., *TESOL Quarterly*, 2010, 44, p. 90.

Step 1 (Students): At the beginning of class, students write ten-minute paragraphs. Though students are encouraged to develop the writing prompt as they wish, the teacher is generally the intended audience. The students are reminded to abide by the conventions of good paragraph writing while making the content as substantive and linguistically accurate as possible (Evans et al., 2010, p. 455). In a grammar class, the paragraph topics, or writing prompts, can come from science, history, current events, pop culture, or any content area that the students are familiar with, and they are intentionally one-word or short phrases that allow for a range of

interpretations so as to not restrict the students creativity: e.g., freedom, friendship, global warming, care for the elderly, or crime prevention. The teacher can favor or exclusively provide writing prompts that necessitate specific genres of writing, but in most writing classes the majority of these ten-minute, one-paragraph prompts will likely yield descriptive, expository, narrative, or persuasive writing (Hartshorn, 2012, p. 229).

Step 2 (Teacher): The teacher collects and marks the paragraphs for lexical and syntactic accuracy. For treatable errors, i.e., those which can be corrected with systematic grammar rules, the teacher uses error-correction symbols (i.e., indirect error correction). The untreatable errors are also marked with an error-correction symbol, but the correction is provided by the teacher (direct error correction). Before returning the paragraph to the students, “the teacher then assigns a score using a rubric that gives a 75% weighting to linguistic accuracy and 25% weighting to content (Evans et al., 2010, p. 455).

Step 3 (Students): With their marked papers, the students must now engage with “tools designed to facilitate linguistic awareness” (Hartshorn, 2012, p. 229): error tally sheets and error lists. An error list is a complete inventory of all errors produced along with the surrounding text; students must type the statements exactly as they were originally written, i.e., in context, and highlight or underline the error (Evans et al., 2010, p. 455). Then, students submit their typed and edited paragraphs to the teacher for a second assessment; students are not to add new ideas. An error tally sheet is a list of error frequency counts from each piece of writing; students must count and record their errors by type in a spreadsheet, as illustrated in Figure 7 (p. 34). An error tally sheet is a valuable tool for identifying, and quantifying, an individual student’s specific areas for improvement. The information from an error tally sheet would likely be appreciated in situations where writing center tutoring is available.

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10		Totals
1. D	3	1	2	0								6
2. SV	0	0	1	2								3
3. VF	0	3	0	0								3
4. RO	0	1	1	0								2
5. INC	2	4	2	5								13
6. VT	1	1	0	0								2
7. PP	4	3	5	2								14
8. SPG	0	1	0	1								2
9. WF	2	1	1	1								5
10. WC	0	1	2	1								4
11. S/PL	2	0	1	2								5
12. C/NC	0	1	0	0								1
13. ?	1	2	1	0								4
14. AWK	2	0	1	1								4
15. ~	1	1	0	2								4
16. C	0	0	1	1								2
17. P	1	2	0	0								3
18. Q	2	0	0	1								3
19. ^	1	1	2	2								5
20. ¶	0	0	0	0								0
Totals	21	22	20	21								

Figure 7. Sample error tally sheet. Adapted from “Effects of Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback on ESL Writing Accuracy,” by Hartshorn et al., *TESOL Quarterly*, 2010, 44, p. 108.

Step 4 (Teacher): Unless the student has produced a new error altogether, in which case the teacher may include an error-correction symbol, the teacher marks the errors in the second draft simply with a check mark, circle, or underline to indicate the location of the error. The paragraphs are returned to the students for further editing, if necessary, or for filing in their binders, if the paragraphs are now error-free (Evans et al., 2010, p. 455).

Step 5 and 6 are repeats of steps 3 and 4, but they only occur if the students' drafts still contain errors. Most students are expected to meet the objective of an error-free paragraph within two drafts. If the class meets daily or even four times a week, the cycle can be completed with one week, as illustrated in Figure 8 (p. 35).

grammatical constructions for the comparative and/or superlative can also be prompted quite straightforwardly with simply with “Compare/Contrast X and Y,” and the corresponding grammar lesson regarding adjectives could be relatively easily predicted: *as*+____+*as*, ____+*er* *than*, *the* ____+*est*. Using writing prompts to intentionally steer the students towards the production of particular linguistic choices is a major benefit of dynamic WCF.

The teacher may choose to pre-teach a certain grammar point in instances where the students are likely to misuse or avoid using a particularly confusing grammatical construction. For example, the teacher may choose to clarify the distinction between the rather idiomatic “*to get used to* + verb” meaning to acclimate or habituate and the formal but difficult to aurally distinguish “*used to* + verb” to describe a past habit or repeated action that one no longer does or does less frequently. The corresponding prompts for those lessons could be “Adjusting to life in the dorms” and “Things I did when I was young” or simply “Ten years ago, I...” While these prompts would almost certainly yield narrative writing, different prompts could be used to elicit other genres: e.g., “A Problem with X” and “An Advantage of Y” for descriptive writing or “The effects of Z” and “The causes of W” to show cause-and-effect.

Another consideration for formulating writing prompts is in regard to the incorporation of certain content vocabulary. If a writing or grammar class is specifically linked to particular content class or unit, the prompts could accommodate that accordingly. A writing class or the writing component of a Business English curriculum would certainly employ different writing prompts than one designed for “writing in the sciences” or other specific discourse communities. Lastly, the teacher can vary the writing topics/prompts by specifying an intended audience or genre for the students to write about (e.g., a message to a congressperson vs. to an acquaintance or an editorial vs. a factual report).

6.3. Classroom Materials

Part of the beauty of using dynamic WCF-based techniques is that minimal materials are required. Each student only needs a folder, preferably a three-ring binder, a pack of loose leaf paper, a pen or pencil, and access to a computer and printer. Besides their handwritten first drafts, the students will keep their error lists, error tally sheets, and typed/corrected drafts in their binders, so having color-coded dividers in their binders would also be helpful. I recommend that the teacher provide the students with error tally sheets (see Figure 7, p. 34) for organizational purposes as well as with a copy of the editing symbols (see Figure 3, p. 11) for students' reference. The teacher needs simply a red pen for marking errors and native-like proficiency in standard, written English. He/she should also be comfortable using the editing symbols; for a novice writing teacher like myself, having a copy on hand while marking the students' drafts would be wise.

In terms of the physical classroom, I strongly prefer one that comes equipped with a computer and projector for presenting the grammar lessons of the day. Any kind of chalk/grease/white/blackboard will do; however, the ability to save and edit a document is extremely valuable for a writing teacher who will likely present repeated lessons on the most prevalent grammar topics. Many ESL classrooms are now furnished with tables, rather than desks, to facilitate group work; any seating arrangement is acceptable provided that every student is afforded space to concentrate on and write his/her own draft at the beginning of each class. Also, nowadays, most university-level ESL students have access to a personal computer or laptop, but reserving computer lab time for the whole class is a reasonable solution to ensure all the students have time outside of class to make the corrections and type their corrected drafts.

6.4. Class Description

As I explained above, dynamic WCF can be used in many ESL writing classes, but to emphasize its versatility and the ease in which it can be adapted I have designed the following lesson plans and procedures to serve as a supplemental writing component for an intermediate ESL grammar class at an American university. By engaging with dynamic WCF techniques in a grammar class, the students are not only compelled to produce authentic writing but also attend to the metalinguistic feedback that the teacher provides in response to their errors. Rather than merely study and be tested on objective grammatical items, the students engage in tasks that prepare them for precisely the activities (i.e., writing and self-editing) that are often so problematic yet vital for their academic success.

The L1 and country of origin of the students is irrelevant, except in the case of the teacher having specific knowledge of problematic grammar areas for speakers of a particular L1, in which case that knowledge could be beneficial. In my experience, having a heterogeneous group of students, in terms of English proficiency and productive language skills, is the norm in this type of ESL class. The students' ages typically range from eighteen to the mid-twenties. Ten to fifteen students is a standard enrollment in these classes though having fewer students is advantageous: more of the teacher's attention can be directed to any one particular student's errors, and of course, having fewer students requires less of the teacher's time and energy to mark their papers.

Also, the length of the class period is not a crucial factor when considering using dynamic WCF. The in-class writing assignments are limited to ten minutes per day, and the corresponding grammar lessons can generally be covered in ten to fifteen minutes as well. Therefore, in a given class period, typically fifty to seventy-five minutes at the university level,

there is ample time to accomplish the dynamic WCF activities and provide explicit grammar instruction (or teach other aspects of the curriculum, if utilizing dynamic WCF in a writing class). For a class that incorporates dynamic WCF, frequency is more important than duration: having a class that meets every day is optimal; four classes a week is satisfactory; even having three classes a week is adequate and may be the most realistic. For classes that meet less often, teachers might be able to utilize educational software or other online course management technology to compensate for the lack of face-to-face meetings. However, tasks or feedback that are too infrequent or inconsistent undermine the timely and constant principles of dynamic WCF (Evans et al., 2010, p. 456).

7. Sample Lesson Plans for Teaching Indirect Reported Speech with Dynamic WCF

This week of lesson plans are designed for intermediate proficiency, university ESL students who are familiar with dynamic WCF procedures (i.e., after the students have completed several dynamic WCF cycles). These lesson plans assume the students are trained to interpret the editing symbols, and they are fully capable of filling in their error tally sheets and error lists. The targeted grammatical structure is indirect reported speech, so the students are expected to have previously studied the tense/aspect/modal verbs: present progressive, present simple, past simple, etc. and understand the syntax of statements, yes/no questions, and wh-questions.

Not only does indirect reported speech play an important role in everyday conversation, but properly quoting, paraphrasing, summarizing, and accurately representing a source's ideas are advanced writing skills that ESL students need (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 688). To write a research paper, university ESL students must have knowledge of the grammatical structure and vocabulary associated with indirect reported speech.

7.1. Day One (Monday)

The writing prompt for the first day is “Describe your last telephone conversation.” This prompt necessitates the linguistic feature known as backshifting, e.g., “She said that she *was* hungry” rather than “She said that she *is* hungry” as well as the appropriate word order for reporting questions. Therefore, the teacher can reasonably predict the errors that may occur in the students’ writing associated with those grammatical structures. If the students need some basic phrases to get them started, the teacher could write the following on the board or projection screen:

I said...	I told him/her ...	I asked (him/her) ...
He/she said...	He/she told me ...	He/she asked (me)...

Figure 9. Scaffolding for indirect reported speech

After ten minutes, the teacher collects the students’ paragraphs and presents the grammar lesson of the day by reviewing the standard word order of affirmative and negative statements as well as yes/no questions and wh-questions as demonstrated below:

Affirmative Statement:	He likes to study.	He is a student.
Negative Statement:	He does not like to study	He is not a student.
Yes/No Question:	Does he like to study?	Is he a student?
Wh-Question:	When does he like to study?	Where is he a student?

Figure 10. Word order of affirmative/negative statements, yes/no and wh-questions

The students write examples of their own using different verb tenses, and the teacher checks to make sure that the students are properly inverting the subject-verb in examples of

yes/no questions with the verb *to be* and modal verbs and inserting *do* where appropriate. Next, the teacher elicits the students' explanations for the syntax phenomena known as inversion and do-insertion. The teacher then asks the students what indirect reported speech is, and why it is important to know. Once the students are engaged and convinced that studying indirect reported speech is worthwhile, the teacher exposes students to examples of positive evidence (i.e., grammatically correct utterances/sentences) in situations that are intended to resemble authentic communicative situations: i.e., similar to those they might encounter in "real life." For this part of the class, the students work in groups of three. The teacher first gets three volunteers to play the roles in the transcript (Appendix H) in front of the class. The teacher should explain that backshifting does not tend to occur in reported speech in exchanges like these which happen immediately (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 691). The emphasis for this lesson should be on syntax because, in this case, it is the more complex and thus more likely to be problematic issue.

After the three volunteers have done the role-play in front of class, the teacher distributes the transcript that they just read. First, the students practice the conversations in their groups. Then, they are tasked with formulating grammatical rules by examining the examples in the transcript. In case the students are unable to formulate the rules or fail to do so completely, the teacher should explain the fundamentals of reported speech. For a statement, change the pronouns so that the reported speech still conveys the original meaning. It is essential to accurately represent who is speaking to/about whom. Using *that* after the reporting verb in statements is optional. For questions, remove the auxiliary (*do/does/did*) if there is one and invert the verb-subject so that the syntax is like that of a statement: subject-verb-object. For an information question, keep the wh-word (*who, what, where, when, why, how*) in its place as the

complement. However, for a yes/no question, a complement (*if* or *whether*) must be inserted after the reporting verb. In this lesson, the students will only work with the two most common reporting verbs: *say* and *ask*. The focus of this introductory lesson is merely to build an awareness of the grammatical structure and vocabulary of indirect reported speech. Besides continuing to revise their outstanding drafts from previous classes, the students are assigned to bring a list of five real quotations (i.e., things they actually heard somebody say) for homework.

7.2. Day Two (Tuesday)

Today's writing prompt is "Things you do not know/remember/understand." Again, the students will be required to use the targeted grammatical structure common in indirect reported speech: e.g., "I don't know (*that, wh-question word, if/whether*)..." as exemplified in Figure 11.

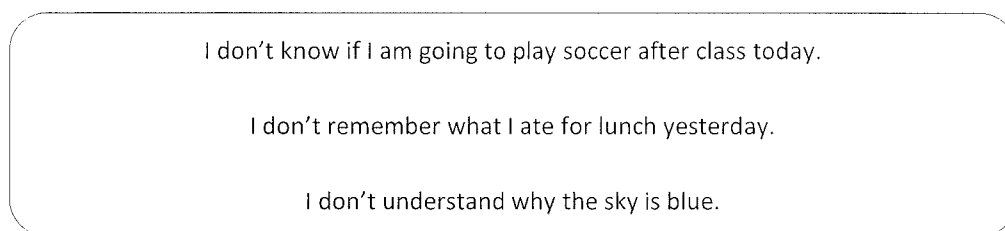


Figure 11: Examples of targeted grammatical structure for indirect reported speech

After the students finish writing their paragraphs, they practice writing direct quotes as reported speech (Appendix I). The students each use their partner's quotations, but the teacher can modify the situations orally so that the students must produce several variations. For example, if the speaker is talking to the listener as opposed to a third party, the pronouns in the direct quote should be in the first person instead of the third person in reported speech. The teacher writes the examples on the board so that the students can see the word order of the statements and questions (see Figure 12, p. 43).

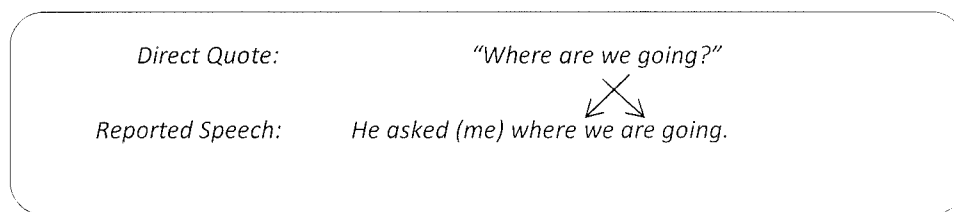


Figure 12: Example of inversion and reported speech word order

The students then practice producing reported speech orally. In their groups of three, for this activity, two students pretend to be meeting each other for the first time. The third student plays the role of the “nosy” friend, interrupting the conversation of the other two members, especially after any question: “What did you ask her/him?” or “What did he/she ask you? If the students need assistance, the teacher can provide them with examples questions to maintain their conversations (Appendix J). At the end of class, the teacher will return the students’ marked first drafts from Day One. For homework, they must revise this draft, complete their error lists and tally sheets, and bring in a list of ten reporting verbs.

7.3. Day Three (Wednesday)

The prompt for the day is “Things you would (or would not) say to/ask the president.” The teacher could write a few examples on the board to encourage the students to use a wider variety of reporting verbs.

I would (not) ask him ...	I would ask him to explain ...
I would (not) tell him ...	I would suggest ...
I would advise him...	I would (not) want to know ...

Figure 13: Examples to decipher the connotations of reporting verbs

When the students finish writing, they work in pairs to classify the reporting verbs from their homework into one of three categories: strong, neutral, or weak. The teacher then presents

the students with a more comprehensive list of reporting verbs (Appendix K) for them to evaluate. Clearly, verbs like *declare* or *hypothesize* have stronger connotations than *mention* or *think*. While there may not be objective answers to this activity, the purpose is to get the students to realize that simply using the verb *say* not only gets repetitive, but writing “*say*” is inadequate to truly convey what someone has *proposed*, *claimed*, or *demonstrated*. The goal is for the students to employ more and more precise reporting verbs because doing so is such a vital component of academic writing. As usual, the students are to address the errors in their previous drafts for homework, but also, they are to bring in five examples of reported speech using the new vocabulary (i.e., reporting verbs) they have learned in today’s class.

7.4. Day Four (Thursday)

For a more integrated (i.e., requiring to use of several language skills) writing prompt, the teacher could have the students use the grammar and vocabulary of indirect reported speech to summarize or paraphrase the ideas in a short news article or editorial. This can serve as practice or possibly even an introduction to the important academic skill of “putting others’ ideas into your own words.” The teacher distributes copies of the article and/or reads it aloud. Then, the students are given ten minutes to report the information they just listened to/read. The writing prompt for the day could simply be “What happened in _____?” or “What does _____ think/say about _____?”

This variation incorporates reading/listening skills with writing practice, but it also helps the students proceduralize the declarative knowledge that they have learned throughout this week; i.e., the students are pushed to produce the grammatical structures that they know and are actively learning about. For the grammar portion of the class, the students must change the examples of indirect reported speech that one of their classmates has brought in for homework

back to direct quotations. This kind of activity serves the dual purpose of providing the students with additional exemplars of positive evidence (i.e., comprehensible input) and still involves the production of the written language. For homework, the students make the corrections on their latest draft and fill-in their error lists and tally sheets for any of those that he/she receives back from the teacher. Figure 14 (below) is a graphic representation of the dynamic WCF cycle for this particular grammar unit.

	Grammar Unit: <i>Indirect Reported Speech</i>			
Paragraph Topic	Mon. #1	Tues. #2	Wed. #3	Thur. #4
#1) Describe your last telephone conversation	Student writes draft 1	Teacher returns draft 1	Student edits & submits draft 2	Teacher returns draft 2
#2) Things you do not know/remember/understand		Student writes draft 1	Teacher returns draft 1	Student edits & submits draft 2
#3) Things you would (or would not) say to/ask the president			Student writes draft 1	Teacher returns draft 1
#4) What happened in ____? What does ____ think/say about ____?				Student writes draft 1

Figure 14: Dynamic WCF cycle for Indirect Reported Speech

Conclusion

Because a magical approach to teach L2 students how to produce linguistically accurate writing has yet to be discovered or invented, TESOL practitioners are left to draw on the existing research and methodologies to determine an effective and efficient use of their time and energy as SLA and accurate writing facilitators. Fortunately for us, dynamic WCF appears to be a promising option. Dynamic WCF enables several beneficial factors in SLA, namely Focus-on-Form Intervention, Noticing Facilitation, and Pushed Output. Dynamic WCF is also based strongly upon the “practice makes perfect” principle of Skill Acquisition Theory. More research is required, but instead of waiting passively for answers from the experts, I recommend that L2

writing and grammar teachers use dynamic WCF as a template for their own corrective feedback methodology.

This lesson plan (Section 7 of this paper) illustrates how dynamic WCF can be implemented in an intermediate, university ESL grammar class. However, similar procedures could be applied to a variety of other TESOL contexts. For example, in a university-level composition course, or any course with a pure “writing” syllabus, the teacher could use dynamic WCF techniques to teach punctuation with special attention given to the use of commas or semicolons; in a beginner-level class, the emphasis could be simply on forming complete sentences with the requisite syntax: subject-verb-object. Frankly, it is the versatility of dynamic WCF that makes it such a viable method of incorporating writing into a grammar class or incorporating grammar lessons into a writing class. For new ESL writing teachers, it is completely feasible to adapt the techniques expounded upon in this paper to suit their needs.

In my intermediate ESL writing class, I have been using a modified form of dynamic WCF since the beginning of this semester, and the response from my students has been tremendously positive. Regrettably, I did not take the necessary steps to be publishing any forthcoming “action-research”; however, I like to think of my experimentation with dynamic WCF as “action-teaching.” My experience with it has already provided valuable insight for future manifestations of WCF in my writing and grammar classes, and providing WCF on my students’ writing has constantly revealed grammatical topics to discuss, examine, and review in class. In the end, there is no way to guarantee that my ESL students will become autonomous learners, develop the ability to consistently produce linguistically accurate writing, and enjoy long-term success in their academic and professional careers; nonetheless, I am confident that by

engaging them with manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant WCF they are being afforded an opportunity to achieve those goals.

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Appendix A: Irregular verb chart

Present	Past	Past Participle
be	was, were	been
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
let	let	let

lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
ride	rode	ridden
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone	shone
sing	sang	sung
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke (waked)	woken (waked)
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

Appendix B: Examples of a competitive game with finite answers

Divide the students into two teams. Have one student from each team come to the board. Announce an irregular verb in its infinitive form. The first student to correctly write the past participle gets a point for his/her team.

Appendix C: Grammar lesson on the present perfect with the prepositions: *for* and *since*

Using the present perfect, we can define a period of time before now by considering its **duration**, with *for* + a **period of time**, or by considering its **starting point**, with *since* + a **point in time**.

For + a period of time: *for* six years, *for* a week, *for* a month, *for* hours, *for* two hours.

They have worked here *for* five years.

I have taught at this school *for* a long time.

Alice has been married *for* five months.

We have been at the hotel *for* a week.

Since + a point in time: *since* this morning, *since* last week, since yesterday, *since* I was a child, *since* Wednesday, *since* 2:30pm.

They have worked here *since* 2008.

I have taught at this school *since* 1984.

Sarah has been married *since* April 17th.

We have been at the hotel *since* last Friday.

Appendix D: Grammar lesson on the present perfect with the prepositions: *still*, *yet*, *already*

We use *still* to talk about a situation or an action that is continuing, often for a longer time than expected. *Still* usually goes in the middle of the sentence, before the verb. *Still* can be used in affirmative and negative statements as well as in questions.

Affirmative statement: He is *still* living with his parents.

Negative statement: I *still* haven't decided what to order.

Question: Are they *still* looking for a place to park?

Using *yet* shows that we expect something to happen or to have happened. *Yet* almost always comes at the end of the sentence or question. *Yet* is used mostly in questions and negative statements.

Questions: Have you cleaned your room *yet*? Has she finished *yet*?

Negative statements: He hasn't paid *yet*. I haven't met her *yet*.

We use *already* to talk about things that have happened, often earlier than expected. *Already* goes just before main the verb or the end of sentence. *Already* is used in affirmative statements and questions.

Questions: Have you done your homework *already*? Have you *already* done it?

Affirmative statements: He has *already* sold his car. He has sold it *already*.

Appendix E: Count vs. non-count nouns and adjectives of quantity

Many and *a few* are used with countable nouns.

How *many* oranges do you have? I have *a few* oranges.

Much and *a little* are used with uncountable nouns. Examples of uncountable nouns include liquids, powders, grains, time, money and the following list of exceptions to the rule: accommodation, advice, baggage, bread, equipment, furniture, garbage, information, knowledge, luggage, money, news, pasta, progress, research, travel, and work.

How *much* orange juice do you have? I have *a little* orange juice.

Questions involving both countable and uncountable nouns can be answered with *a lot of/lots of* _____. I have *lot of* oranges. I have *a lot of* orange juice.

Appendix F: Subject-Verb-Object (**S+V+O**) word order.

The following sentences are examples of the **S+V+O** pattern (with a transitive verb).

They are eating pizza.

The people are eating pizza.

The young people are eating pizza.

The young people in the restaurant are eating pizza.

The young people in the restaurant are eating pepperoni pizza.

Appendix G: Direct and Indirect Objects

The following examples are sentences with two objects: a direct and an indirect object.

The typical word order is Subject-Verb-Indirect Object-Direct Object (**S+V+IO+DO**)

My father sent me a package.

He bought his wife some flowers.

She baked her friend a beautiful birthday cake.

Sentences with both a direct and an indirect object can also use a preposition (*for* or *to*) with the indirect object, and then have the word order (**S-V-DO-*for/to* IO**)

My father sent a package *to* me.

He bought some flowers *for* his wife.

She baked a beautiful birthday cake *for* her friend.

Verbs that can use *for* with an indirect object include: book, buy, get, cook, keep, bring, make, pour, save, and find.

I booked hotel rooms *for* everybody in my family.

The teacher made copies for the students.

Verbs that can use *to* with an indirect object include: give, lend, offer, pass, post, read, sell, send, show, promise, and tell.

We gave money *to* the homeless man.

My grandmother showed her pictures *to* the visitors.

Appendix H: Transcript with *indirect reported speech*

Student #1: "This class is boring."

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She said (that) this class is boring."

Student #1: "I hate this class."

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She said (that) she hates this class."

Student #1: "Who are those guys wearing the blue shirts?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) who those guys wearing the blue shirts are."

Student #1: "Why are they wearing the same shirt?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) why they are wearing the same shirt."

Student #1: "How does that girl get her hair like that?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) how that girl gets her hair like that."

Student #1: "Why do you study so much?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) why you study so much."

Student #1: "When is the test?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) when the test is."

Student #1: "Are you going to study tonight?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) if we are going to study tonight."

Student #1: "Was there homework in our other class?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) if there was homework in our other class."

Student #1: "Do you always read the book before class?"

Student #2: "What did she say?"

Student #3: "She asked (me) if I always read the book before class."

Appendix I: Changing a Direct Quotation to Reported Speech Worksheet

Example: Steven said, "I don't understand."

Steven said (that) he doesn't understand.

1. The teacher asked (Steven) _____
2. Jessica said (that) _____
3. John asked (the teacher) _____
4. Peter asked (Lauren) _____
5. The teacher asked (us) _____

Appendix J: Conversations Questions for *Indirect Reported Speech* Activity

Meeting for the first time: Nosy friend interrupts

What's your name?

Where are you from?

How many brothers and sisters do you have?

Do you like _____?

What are you studying?

When are you graduating?

Who do you live with?

What are your hobbies?

Appendix K: Reporting Verbs

The following verbs can be used in *indirect reported speech*: admit, answer, argue, ask, believe, claim, confirm, consider, demonstrate, deny, discuss, doubt, emphasize, find, hope, inquire, insist, mention, point out, question, recall, recommend, report, respond, say, show, state, stress, suggest, tell, think, understand, warn, wonder, write

Some have stronger connotations: argue, assert, claim, contend, insist, maintain, declare, allege, defend, endorse, reject, refute, dispute, and deny. Some are less forceful: state, explain, find, recommend, demonstrate, investigate, report, note, show, admit, reason, believe, and illustrate. Some are weaker or relatively neutral: suggest, imply, indicate, propose, observe, mention, predict, hypothesize, write, agree, posit, think, and acknowledge.