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TEFL Trainees' and Teachers' Knowledge of Writing:
A Case of China

by

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Part I Introduction

1.1 Context of the Study

In present global community, people from all walks of life interact with each other across nations and cultures. Writing in both one's mother tongue or in foreign languages plays a vital role in people's effective communication in academic, economic, social, and cultural settings as well as at workplace. It helps convey ideas, solve problems, and understand the changing world (National Writing Project n.d.) and improves communication skills, critical thinking, and creativity. Therefore, effective writing skills are undoubtedly essential in our life. As the US Department of Education (1998) pointed out that:

> Effective writing skills are important in all stages of life from early education to future employment. In the business world, as well as in school, students often must convey complex ideas and information in a clear, succinct manner. Inadequate writing skills, therefore, could inhibit achievement across the curriculum and in future careers, while proficient writing skills help students convey ideas, deliver instructions, analyze information, and motivate others (p. 70).

It is well known that English has long become an international language. It is estimated that over 80% of the world's mails are written in English, half of the newspapers worldwide are published in English, and 60% of scientific journals are issued in English. All these indicate that written products in English take a predominant proportion out of world's literary outcomes. Meanwhile, it is interesting to know that among the world's appropriately 7.5 billion inhabitants, 1.5 billion speak English – about 400 million speak English as their first language, another 400 million use English as a second language (ESL), and 700 million learn and use English as a foreign language (EFL). Out of the 700 million people, more than 300 million are Chinese who learn English as a foreign language. In China, with the development and improvement of English education, students' ability of listening and speaking has been gradually enhanced. It is suggested what is to be done is to counterbalance the relationship between reading-writing and listening-speaking in teaching, and to "improve the quality of English learners by placing a high value on the training of reading and writing abilities" (Cai, 2011; Dong, 2003; Zhang, 2012), so that they will be competitive in international scientific fields (Cai, 2011). In fact, students' written English skills have always been the focus in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in China.

In China, English is a compulsory subject from primary school to university level. There are two high-stake public examinations at the end of junior middle school (grade 9) and senior middle school (grade 12). The former is named "zhongkao" (middle school entrance examination), and the latter is known as "gaokao" (university entrance examination) with annually nine million competitors. For both examinations, the English language is a compulsory subject for a test, and writing is a compulsory part of the English exam.

When it comes to English teaching in elementary and secondary schools, the Ministry of Education published the New English Curriculum in 2011, giving

guidelines for teachers in various aspects, such as curriculum objectives, level standards, suggestions for teaching and assessment, etc. etc. However, there seems to be a problem with implementation, as there is not enough help for teachers to enlarge and renew their professional repertoire to be effective in their instruction under the conditions of the new curriculum. Generally, teachers are more keen of conventional instructional approaches which are normally guided and dominated by the exam-oriented culture in China.

No matter what methods teachers use in their teaching of writing, teacher knowledge base and teacher quality are the most important components for ensuring and improving the effectiveness of learning and instruction of writing. As mentioned above, due to a large number of English learners in China, there are numerous new teachers starting their teaching profession every year. The quality of these novice TEFL teachers is attributed to a large extent to the pre-service teacher education programs. Therefore, teacher trainees, novice and experienced teachers together account for the quality of writing instruction as well as EFL teaching in China.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the context of research on learning and instruction, the focus was shifted from how teachers teach (cf., Cuban, 1983; Cuban, 1993; Dahllöf, 1971; Jackson, 1979; Peterson, Marx, & Clark, 1978) to how students learn (cf., Brown, Campione, & Day, 1981; Novak & Gowin, 1984) and how teachers learn to teach (cf., Ball, 1998; Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989; Shulman, 1987, 1988). The paradigm shift raises an issue of what teachers know about what they teach and what is in their mind when learning to teach? In the teaching of EFL writing, however, little is known about teachers' knowledge of writing, and likewise, little is know about trainees' knowledge of writing. Likewise, little is known about trainees' knowledge of writing or their development through pre- to in-service experiences.

1.3 Research Objectives

Given the importance of writing in today's global communication, the large body of learners of EFL in China, and the decisive impact of teacher knowledge on the effectiveness of writing instruction, as well as the scarcity of research on both TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing, the dissertation study is designed to look into what these groups know about writing. In particular, it aims to (1) explore and compare TEFL trainees' and teachers' conceptions of writing and their perceptions of the teaching of writing; (2) examine and compare TEFL trainees' and teachers' skills in the assessment of writing.

1.4 Significance

Findings from the current study may contribute to writing teacher knowledge research, enrich the theory and practice of TEFL teacher education and training, and provide

relevance for the improvement of writing instruction as well as EFL teaching. First, the study employs both quantitative and qualitative methods to look deep into TEFL trainees' and teachers' perceptions of writing and their actions in teaching-related issues of writing assessment, which will provide a relatively whole picture of what TEFL trainees and teachers know about writing. It adds information to research on teacher knowledge regarding EFL writing. This is a valuable contribution to the field of TEFL teacher knowledge because it will partially echo what writing teachers should know and answer what they actually know especially of that large quantity of writing teachers in the contexts where English is a foreign language.

Second, the study will enrich the theory and practice of TEFL teacher training from the perspective of integration of teacher preparation and education. Because the study targets participants from prospective TEFL teachers before the practicum and trainees after their practicum, novice TEFL teachers, and experienced teachers, the extensive respondents can reflect TEFL teachers' knowledge of writing at different stages of their professional development. It, therefore, will provide evidence and visions for TEFL teachers training through pre-service to in-service particularly for the training programs in a similar cultural background or where English is taught and learned as a foreign language.

Last but not the least, the study will also give evidence and references for the improvement of EFL writing instruction as well as the effectiveness of EFL teaching. As widely accepted, teacher knowledge is the precondition of the quality of education. Findings from the current study will demonstrate both TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing at specific phases of either learning to teaching writing or teaching as a profession. It will shed light on TEFL trainees as they are learning to and experiencing teaching practice in the practicum. It will also bring out implications for those who are teaching writing and EFL as a profession. Only when trainees and teachers reflect on their deficiency of writing knowledge can they improve their practice teaching in the practicum and practicing teaching in their professional career.

1.5 Research Questions

The study is designed to address the overall research question "What do Chinese TEFL trainees and teachers know about writing?" Specifically, it aims to answer the following questions:
1. How do pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?
2. How do post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?
3. How do Chinese TEFL teachers perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?
4. What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' perceived knowledge of EFL writing?
5. What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?
6. What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?
7. How does trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of student text?

8. What are Chinese TEFL teachers' skills in assessing student text?
9. What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text?
10. How do rater groups' assessments compare to artificial intelligence ratings?

1.6 Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation constitutes five parts. The first part briefly introduces the context of research, issues in the teaching of EFL writing, research objectives and significance, and research questions.

Part two provides the theoretical and empirical literature in various domains related to the current research projects presented in the dissertation, including the conceptual issues of EFL writing, assessment of writing, feedback on writing, trainees' development in the practicum, and development of TEFL teachers through pre-service to in-service.

Part three presents the cultural background of the studies, briefly portraying the curriculum and instruction of EFL in China, EFL (especially writing) and corresponding TEFL teacher education in China with particular emphasis on the practicum.

Part four provides the design of the empirical studies and presents their results. Altogether five studies are conducted. Study 1 examines what pre-practicum trainees think about writing; Study 2 explores how post-practicum trainees estimate their knowledge of writing; Study 3 investigates what teachers perceive their knowledge of writing to be; Study 4 explores the changes in teachers' knowledge of writing through pre- to in-service; and Study 5 discusses the changes in teachers' skills in assessing writing through pre- to in-service.

Finally, Part five summarizes the findings and discusses conclusions and limitations of the dissertation study, and addresses implications for relevant practices and future research.

Here, I would like to state that some parts of the dissertation have already been published. The published contents contain some sections of conceptualizations of EFL writing in Part II (cf., Kong, 2017), chapters 4.7 (cf., Kong, 2017), and 4.8 in Part IV (cf., Kong, 2017, 2018). In addition, some parts have been presented at the conferences (cf., Kong, Apr. 2017, Szeged, Hungary; Kong, May 2017, Pécs, Hungary; Kong, Aug. 2017, Tampere, Finland; Kong, Apr. 2018, Szeged, Hungary; Kong, April 2018, Szeged, Hungary).

Part II Theoretical Background

2.1 Introduction

The goal of dissertation study is to understand TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing. A synthesis of prior relevant theories and studies is conducive to constructing the foundation of learning about their perceptions of writing and actions in coping with issues related to writing instruction. Hence, this chapter aims to review the basic conceptualizations of EFL writing and its developmental venation, as well as teaching paradigms, strategies, and methods. Also, assessment of writing and feedback on student writing will be discussed in this chapter. Besides, the extra effort will be exerted to understand the development of TEFL trainees in the practicum. Finally, an insight will be given to research regarding the changes of TEFL teachers through pre-service education programs to in-service training. Therefore, the theoretical background will be established and the research perspectives will be settled.

2.2 Conceptualizations of EFL Writing

In the present global community, people from all walks of life interact with each other across nations and cultures. Writing plays a vital role in people's effective communication in social, academic, business contexts, etc. Many studies have illustrated how writing works and how it can be effectively taught (cf., Bayat, 2014; DeLyser & Hawkinsl, 2014; Nordin, 2017; Williams, 2018). In the educational setting, teachers influence students' writing achievements. An identification and synthesis of the conceptual and instructional development of writing contribute to the understanding of what teachers know about writing and how they teach writing.

2.2.1 Definition of writing

It is not without difficulties to define writing due to its complex and multifaceted natures. A plethora of research has clarified writing from the perspectives of linguistics, cognition, and sociocultural considerations.

In *A Study of Writing*, the most extensively cited book on writing for a long time, Gelb (1963) defined writing as "a system of human intercommunication by means of conventional visible marks" (p. 12). This notion implies a wide involvement of linguistic, social and cultural elements in the act of writing with its communicative purposes.

Coulmas (1996) viewed writing as "a set of visible or tactile signs used to represent units of language in a systematic way, with the purpose of recording messages which can be retrieved by everyone who knows the language in question and the rules by virtue of which its units are encoded in the writing system" (p. 560). This definition of writing is text-focused or product-oriented, regarding writing as the final and permanent version of written composition or discourse.

It is believed that "the successful composition is an interaction between the writer, the written text, and the reader" (Osterholm, 1986, p. 119). Thus, writing is also a mental process, in which the writer puts thoughts into text for communication.

The current framework of understanding writing is based on the three general approaches to researching writing: text-oriented, writer-oriented, and reader-oriented (Hyland, 2015). Indeed, writing was viewed as a linguistic product since a century ago. Then from the 1960s to 1980s, it was shifted to cognitive activities (c.f., Flower & Hayes, 1981). And since the 1980s and 1990s, writing has been regarded as social communication and sense-making, and even been broadened to cultural understanding (c.f., Bhatia, 2014; Chapman, 1999; Grabe & Kaplan, 2014; Hyland, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; McComiskey, 2000; Miller, 1984; Prior, 2006; Swales, 1990). In the following sections, I will discuss the understandings of writing from linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives.

2.2.2 Linguistic understanding: Product-directed

As outlined above, writing has long been seen as a textual product, a coherent organization of components structured based on a number of linguistic or rhetorical rules.

Texts as written objects: "Texts have a logical structure, they are orderly arrangements of words, clauses, and sentences, and followed by grammatical rules writers can encode a full semantic representation of their intended meaning" (Hyland, 2015, p. 4). Therefore, to be able to write effective texts, writers need to acquire knowledge of orthography, morphology (exactness, concreteness, conciseness, appropriateness, etc.), and syntax (length, variety, tense, structure, etc.). Grabe and Kaplan (1996) offered a specific list of elements of language knowledge related to writing: linguistic knowledge, discourse knowledge, and sociolinguistic knowledge (see Appendix A).

As suggested above, writers need not only to know how to write grammatically correct but how to utilize this knowledge in diverse contexts for varying purposes. That is to say, based on the basis of linguistic knowledge, the central concern of the text forms focuses on the components of the paragraph and its development. The elements of a paragraph typically encompass a topic sentence, support sentences, transitions, and concluding sentences; the common developing ways of a paragraph are definition, illustration, comparison and contrast, causal and effect, etc. These factors together address an extended entity of a written work with various structural patterns.

Texts as discourse: "the way language is used to communicate and to achieve purposes in particular situations" (Hyland, 2015, p. 6). The core conception of discourse analysis is that different forms of language voice different communicative functions in different contexts. Thus, it elicits the notion of genre, the ways of using language to respond to various situations.

- Narration: To recount a sequence of events, to tell a story, …
- Description: To describe in details place, people, events, situations, …
- Exposition (Informative/Explanatory): To inform, to describe, to explain, to illustrate, to define, to instruct, to review, to demonstrate, …

- Persuasion/Argumentation: To persuade, to convince, to influence, to support, to justify, to defend, to advocate, to argue, …

2.2.3 Cognitive understanding: Process-focused

Generally, writers are viewed as the departure point in composing texts. A wide range of research has put its interest in the writers' cognitive processes of composing written tasks. Emig's *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders* in 1971 was considered as a benchmark of the cognitive view of the writing process. Afterward, Flower and Hayes' (1981) model of the writing process was influential (see Figure 1). Their model proposed an interactive flow-charts constituting the task environment, the writer's long-term memory, and the writing processes. This model suggests that writers have goals in mind and plan for the specific tasks and audience as well, translate their ideas into texts, then evaluate and revise their writing. The whole writing process is managed by a monitor. We can see that a writer's individuality and motivation (Kemper, 1987), creativity (Kintsch, 1987) and social contexts (Brandt, 1992) were missing in this model. Given these criticisms, Hayes (1996) later elaborated on the model of the writing process (see Figure 2).
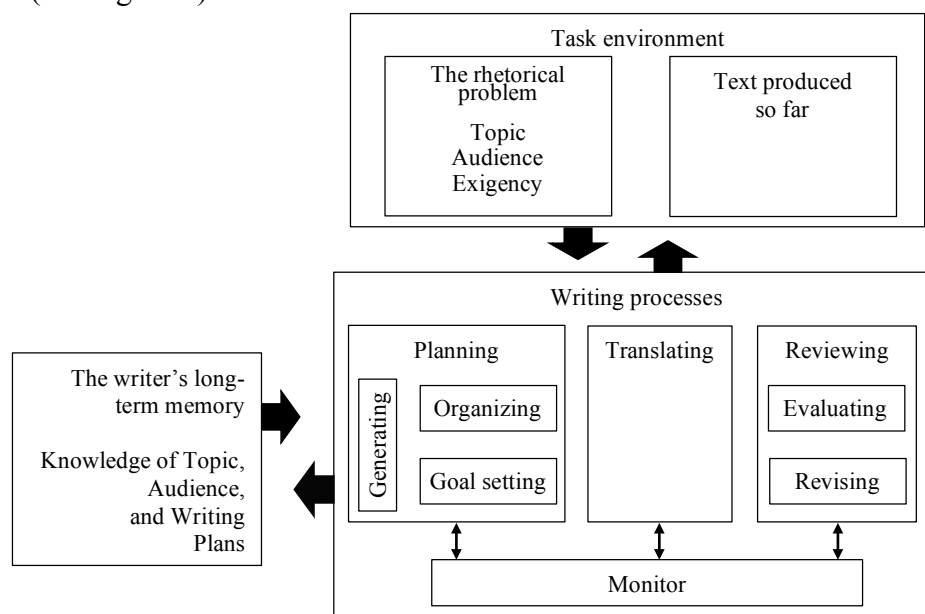
Figure 1   The Flower-Hayes writing model (1981, p. 370)

Hayes's new model of writing consists of two major parts: the task environment and the individual. For the former, the social environment regarding the readers of and collaborators in the writing was added; also, technology in writing was added to the physical environment. Obviously, Hayes's model gave the focus on the individual part. It presented an interaction among four aspects: motivation and affection, working memory, cognitive processes, and long-term memory. The model suggested, in the motivation and affect aspect, that the writer's goals, predispositions, beliefs, and attitudes, and cost and benefits impact the writer's effort in and effect of the writing tasks. In terms of the working memory, the vocal, the written, and the semantic components of language were included. In the cognitive processes, text interpretation,

reflection and text production replaced planning, translating and reviewing in the former model. The writer's internal representation of the written text was emphasized in the cognitive processes of writing. In the long-term memory, task schemas (information about task aims, the processes to achieving the task, and assessing its achievement, etc.), as well as knowledge of topic, audience, linguistics, and genre were highlighted. These aspects are closely relevant to the writing tasks, appropriate language forms for particular social and cultural contexts.

THE TASK ENVIRONMENT

The Social Environment

The audience

Collaborators

The Physical Environment

The text so far

The composing medium

THE INDIVIDUAL

MOTIVATION/AFFECT

Goals

Predispositions

Beliefs and Attitudes

Cost/Benefit Estimates

WORKING MEMORY

Phonological Memory

Visual/Spatial Sketchpad

Semantic memory

COGNITIVE PROCESSES

Text Interpretation

Reflection

Text production

LONG-TERM MEMORY

Task Schemas

Topic Knowledge

Audience Knowledge

Linguistic Knowledge

Genre Knowledge

Figure 2   The Hayes writing model (1996, p. 4)

The Hayes model noted that writing is a social construct and incorporated the audience and collaborators in the social environment. Yet, we can see that more detailed factors, such as settings (formal or informal) and tasks (essays, letters, research, presentation, report, reflection, etc.) were missing. Nevertheless, this model is seminal for learning and teaching writing.

Indeed, a vast volume of research has tracked this predominant model of writing processes, targeting stage-oriented composing strategies with similar formulation and presentation. For example, Tankó (2005) addressed the complex activity of writing as a recursive process with three major stages: pre-writing, writing and reviewing (p. 26).

At the pre-writing stage, the writer needs to think about the writing purpose, contents, and audience. That is, the writer should be clear about why and what to write, and to whom to write. Namely, the writer has to take participates and script into account. The participants include the writer and reader, determining the writing style. The script contains topic, form, and function, determining the writing content and text type.

At the writing stage, it mainly refers to the first draft of the text. Generally, an outline is of importance in shaping the structure and content of the writing task. The writer transfers the outline to concrete organizations and scripts. Also, the writer examines the grammar, coherence, and cohesion in the text, and even modifies some points during the writing.

After the draft comes into being, the writer has to reread it carefully and review the content and discourse. The writer needs to make sure that all the planned content and ideas have been contained holistically and logically; besides, to revise wording, spelling, punctuation or grammar mistakes; or to improve writing style.

Now, in the field of teaching and learning writing, researchers and practitioners unanimously see the writing processes as five steps: prewriting, writing, revising, editing, and publishing.

Prewriting
- Choosing topic
- Recognizing purpose and audience
- Generating ideas (free writing, brainstorming, etc.)
- Planning and structuring: note-taking, diagramming, pros and cons identifying, identifying genres, outlining

Writing
- Wording
- Composing sentences: topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence
- Applying appropriate writing style
- Employing coherence and cohesion

Revising
- Adding contents
- Deleting information
- Replacing ideas or expressions
- Reorganizing the structure

Editing
- Grammar
- Wording
- Spelling
- Punctuation
- citation

Publishing
- Presenting to the intended audience (teachers, the class, etc.)
- Submitting it to the school newspaper, to a magazine or a journal

From the previous classification and implementation of the writing process, some characteristics can be summarized. In detail, writing is an act, composed of a variety of activities, and the activities are typically recursive rather than linear; the act of writing can be a medium of learning and exploring; writers should be always aware of audience, purpose, style, text type, and context; writers spend considerable time on planning, drafting, revising, editing, and rewriting.

2.2.4 Sociocultural understanding: Reader-oriented

Writing, beyond an individual and interactional act, is also a social and cultural construction, "expressing a culturally recognized purpose, reflecting a particular kind of relationship and acknowledging an engagement in a given community" (Hyland, 2002, p. 48). It is "socially and culturally shaped and individually and socially purposeful" (Sperling, 1996, p. 55). Thus, the act of writing is not only limited to linguistic knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), neither discourse knowledge, such as genre and structure, rather, is a sociocultural practice in specific contexts for particular purposes. Indeed, writers prefer particular composing patterns according to their culture-bound and education- specific modes of discourse. The difference between English and Chinese languages will be discussed in detail below. Anyway, writers bear in mind the goals and translate their ideas either in an implicit or explicit way that their readers or audience can make sense from. Many studies have shown the difference between writing in the first language and in a second or foreign language, reflecting the writing modes and conventions in social and culture-specific contexts.

For example, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) summarized six main differences in L2 students writing compared with L1: (1) Organizational preferences; (2) approaches to argument-structuring; (3) approaches to incorporating material from text into writing (paraphrasing, etc.); (4) perspectives on reader-orientation, on attention-getting devices and on estimates of reader knowledge; (5) uses of cohesion markers, in particular markers which are less facilitative and create weaker lexical ties; and (6) the ways over linguistic features of the text are used, such as less subordination, more conjunction, less passivisation, fewer free modifiers, less noun-modification, less specific words, less lexical variety, predictable variation and a simpler style (p. 239).

The facets of writing discussed in the above sections show a clear stride in the theoretical development of writing. They also reflect the research consensus on writing either in one's mother tongue or writing in English as a foreign language. Thus, these conceptual issues of writing will be employed in the exploration and comparison of

trainees' and teachers' understandings of writing in my studies. Namely, I expect to learn about what trainees and teachers know about writing or whether they agree with the research community.

2.2.5 Affective factors in writing and self-efficacy

From all discussed above, we can see that writing is a complex act and challenges the writers linguistically, cognitively, and socioculturally. Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) stated that the difficulty and complexity of the writing task, the writer's sole endeavor without any timely feedback, and the writer's persistence in achieving the task adversely influence the writer's motivation. Then, why do writers write? Studies have informed that, among various factors, writers' interest and self-efficacy are significant variables related to their writing endeavors.

Writers' interest in writing influences the ways they compose and the outcomes they accomplish (Hide & Renninger, 2006; Renninger, Ewen, & Lasher, 2002). Lipstein and Renninger (2007) argued that writers with a sense of interest tend to set practical goals, employ effective strategies, and pursue feedback while composing the writing tasks. Therefore, interest-driven writers can experience more positively on the cognitive and affective aspects of writing and are more likely to improve their written production.

Self-efficacy is the extent or strength of one's beliefs in one's own capability to implement tasks and achieve goals (Ormrod, 2006). It also impacts one's option of activities, effort, and accomplishment (cf. Bandura, 1997; Parares, 1996; Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy for writing refers to one's awareness of their capability to generate various styles of written compositions (cf. Parares & Valiante, 1997; Schunk & Swartz, 1993). Generally, it predicts one's writing outcomes. Also, self-efficacy of writing is correlated with various motivational factors, such as perceived writing values, and goals of writing achievement (e.g. Parares & Valiante, 1997). Therefore, it is safe to say that normally one with clear interest for writing is also a writer with positive self-efficacy. The writing interest and self-efficacy, one another, affect the decision writers make, the effort they persevere, and the quality of the written product they create.

2.2.6 Differences between Chinese and English written languages

It is widely believed that writers, when writing in a foreign language, tend to employ the same processes and strategies as in their mother tongue. However, as we know, a foreign language differs in lexical, syntactic, semantic, and contextual ways from a writer's first language. Thus, writers focus more on the language other than content while writing in a foreign language, which results in their writing more constrained, more difficult, and less effective (Silva, 1993, p. 668). As discussed earlier, the writing processes entail an integration and interaction of linguistic knowledge, discourse knowledge, and sociocultural knowledge, which greatly challenges the writers and may bound much or less their effective writing. A comparison of the differences between Chinese and English written languages is conducive to both learner and teachers in the Chinese context.

Alphabetical difference. Chinese uses a logographic system rather than an alphabetic system for the written language, thus Chinese writers may have difficulties in spelling and proofreading as well.

Lexical difference. In Chinese, there are less than 10, 000 characters, among which 3, 500 are the most frequently used and meet people's needs for most cases. On the contrary, English has over one million words, which brings up Chinese writers' deficiency and unfamiliarity of even those most frequently used words. Besides, English has many ways of word formation, such as affixation, blending, etc. but Chinese characters express meanings and information in specific context (Wang & Chen, 2013).

Syntactic difference. We know that the English language uses many auxiliaries and verb inflections, but Chinese communicates meaning in the context without using different tenses of verbs form as English does. Further, English highlights the structure, but Chinese emphasizes the meaning. In other words, English is more hypotaxis-oriented, but Chinese is more parataxis focused. More differences between Chinese and English regarding syntactic issues are summarized below. English normally uses pronouns to make the long sentences more logical and to avoid recurrences, but Chinese uses more nouns. English uses more abstract vocabulary for expression but Chinese generally uses concrete objects to put abstract ones. Besides, Chinese has no singular and plural forms.

The alphabetical, lexical, and syntactic differences between the two written languages are supposed to be a challenge for both Chinese teachers and students in their teaching of writing and learning to write in English. It would be interesting to look into the process of teaching and learning English writing and its product. In addition, it would also be important to explore the impact of mother tongue writing on EFL writing.

2.3 Instructional Knowledge of EFL Writing

In the former sections, an overview of writing as a product, process, social and cultural act was identified. Also, affective factors for writing and the differences between English and Chinese written languages were summarized. All these aspects are essential for both learning and teaching of writing, in particular, in the Chinese-specific culture setting. It is widely acknowledged that teachers are the major resources of learners' exposure to a foreign language in a non-English speaking setting. Consequently, it is worth looking at how teachers best teach writing and develop students' writing ability in an EFL classroom. In this section, teaching models, strategies and approaches, feedback and assessment, and motivating students writers will be presented.

2.3.1 Models of teaching writing

As discussed earlier, the literature has suggested that writing can be viewed as text-oriented, writer-oriented, and reader-oriented act. Accordingly, based on these influential models of writing, many studies have addressed models for teaching writing, such as text-modeling, process-modeling, and socialculture-modeling.

The **text-oriented model** of teaching centers on the linguistic knowledge, highlighting the appropriate use of vocabulary, accurate grammatical rules, fluent structure, and effective rhetorical organization of texts (Hyland, 2003; Leki, 1992). It is clear that this model emphasizes writers' lexical knowledge, syntactical knowledge, semantic knowledge, and rhetorical knowledge. The limitations of this model are also notable: the complex writing processes and relevant purpose and audience were neglected.

The **socialculture-oriented model**, on the hand, summons a wider attention to the forms, purposes, audience, context, and genres of the text (cf. Flowerdew, 2000; Hyland, 2003).

The **process-oriented model** aims to foster students' effective writing strategies. This model is writer-oriented, suggesting that students learn to be proficient in writing as engaging in the writing processes and strategies: pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing. It also suggests that these processes and strategies, and feedback from teachers and others are helpful for students to be more competent writers (e.g., Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; Hyland, 2002; Sasaki, 2000).

Researchers have agreed that a combination or an integration of these models are more effective in teaching students to write (Hyland, 2002; Myles, 2002). Indeed, I believe that the writing process is the core aspect for improving students' writing ability, in which the linguistic and sociocultural components can be integrated because either the language requirements or the task goals can and only be achieved through the writing processes. Therefore, it deserves more attention to the complex processes of writing for shedding light on teaching students to write.

2.3.2 Strategies and methods in writing instruction

In a writing instruction classroom, how do teachers carry out their teaching? What strategies and methods do they use to support students' writing? Is their instruction teacher-oriented or student-driven?

In fact, educators and researchers have introduced and used various writing instruction methods, such as modeled writing, shared writing, interactive writing, guided writing, and independent writing (e.g., Button, Johnson, & Furgeson, 1996; Hillocks, 1986; McCarrier, Pinell, & Fountas, 2000; Meeks & Austin, 2003; Smith & Bean, 1980). These approaches vary from extremely teacher directed to student directed, moving students from dependent writers to independent ones. Namely, teachers' support for students' writing decreases from modeled writing to independent writing. Characters of and tips or suggestions for these methods were summarized in Table 1.

Table 1   *Interaction between Teachers and Students in the Writing Instruction (Teaching as Leadership, 2011, p. 134)*

Method	Summary	Tips and Suggestions
Modeled Writing	Teacher creates, writes, and thinks aloud.	• Think aloud constantly, explaining the strategies teachers use. • Use expressive language and actions to describe exactly what teachers are doing. • Use modeled writing as a mini-lesson to introduce new writing skills and genres.
Shared Writing	Teacher and students co-create; teacher writes and thinks aloud.	• Have students watch as teachers transform their thoughts into written words. • Contribute ideas to the writing, but help students generate ideas themselves.
Interactive Writing	Teacher and students co-create and co-write.	• Talk, think aloud, and involve students while one or more write. • Have a two-way conversation around the creation of words, sentences, or paragraphs. • Move students to independence by not doing what they can do for themselves. • Demonstrate the writing in a way that is large enough that all students in the class can access it and be involved.
Guided Writing	Students create and write while teacher closely monitors and guides process.	• Work with the whole class or a small group of students who have similar needs as they write a composition. • Observe and assess your students' writing, actively coaching their skills. • Ask open-ended questions to extend students' thinking in the process.
Independent Writing	Students create and write while teacher monitors progress.	• Intervene with the writing process only when appropriate. • Continue to be involved, but let the students' role grow. • Respond to the content of your students' writing. • Assist students with the revision and editing process.

When students engage in the writing processes, their knowledge of linguistics, cognitive components, and sociocultural awareness are all simultaneously involved in their creative work as writers. They experience challenges as well as improvements in each stage of the whole writing processes. Teachers' roles and contributions, and suggestions for practitioners were summarized in Table 2.

Table 2   *Instruction of the Writing Processes (Methods of Writing Instruction, p. 139)*

Stage	Review	Tips and Suggestions
Pre-Writing	Teacher leads children to generate and organize content and ideas before beginning to write.	• Ask students to free write in a notebook to spur ideas. • Teach students to read and take notes. • Enable students to organize ideas through the use of graphic organizers. • Use exemplary models to teach characteristics of the genre. • Preview a grammar skill to make students comfortable with using it in their writing.
Drafting	Student crafts the language.	• Teach students that drafting is not writing, just one step of the writing process. • Provide a quiet and focused atmosphere with set routines and procedures.
Revising	Student (often with teacher's guidance) makes substantive changes to the draft, including fixing content and style.	• Note: this step does not focus on mechanics; that will be addressed in the next stage. • Encourage students to improve their word choice, change the organization of ideas, or ensure sufficient evidence is provided to support a claim.
Proofreading and Editing	Student checks the mechanics of the writing, watching carefully for punctuation, spelling and other mechanics.	• Teach these editing skills, even to very young children. • Present mini-lessons on capitalization, punctuation, etc. • Provide a checklist of language mechanics expectations to the students during this stage.
Publishing and Presentation	Allow students to share their best work with others in various ways.	A few ways to "publish" students' writing: • Read the writing aloud. • Invite others to hear student-authors read their published work. • Submit the piece to a contest or magazine. • Make a book.

2.3.3 Motivating students to write

Students' engagement in the writing instruction-learning activity affects the quality of their written texts. Only when students are willing to put their thoughts into words on papers can their writing skills be developed. Teachers, besides being involved in students' cognitive processes of writing, need also to be aware of students' affective factors in composing texts. In particular, teachers should pay attention to students' writing purposes, interests, attitudes, etc. all of which influence their writing efforts and outcomes. Thus, teachers might motivate students to write by "nurturing their functional beliefs about writing, fostering engagement using authentic writing tasks, providing a supportive context for writing, and creating a positive emotional environment" (Bruning & Horn, 2000).

More strategies or ways to motivate students to write can be retrieved from a variety of literature. Various strategies or activities given by researchers or practitioners are useful for teachers to motivate students to enhance their writing skills. For example, developing a consistent structure for writing, modeling the writing process, modeling

good writing behavior through the writing process, sharing examples of teachers' own writing, asking students questions to help them revise, accepting different forms of writing on the same topic, giving students opportunity to share their work with the class and get positive feedback from peers, celebrating students' effort, encouraging collaboration, using portfolios, developing writing experiences around real-life events, asking students to write about what they learned from experience, asking students to write about an event they experienced in details, inspiring students' interest by asking them to create a class newspaper and report class events on it, conducting mutual review of the teacher's and students' writing, asking students to write letters to their friends or relatives, suggesting students to write to an editor, asking students to participate in a competition, asking students to write to apply for a career as adults, asking students to write creatively and freely (TeacherVision, n.d.)

The purpose of this section was to give an insight into conceptual issues and instructional understandings of writing. Accordingly, a synthesis of various definitions of writing was presented and writing as a linguistic product, cognitive process, social and cultural act was portrayed. Besides, affective factors for writing were represented and differences between English and Chinese written languages were identified. Diversified models of teaching writing, strategies and approaches, and motivating student writers were also presented. These identifications and syntheses of writing and writing instruction may shed light on practices of writing practitioners as well as empirical studies by researchers.

2.4 Research on the Assessment of EFL Student Writing

Rea-Dickens (2000) suggested that assessment "refers to the general process of monitoring or keeping track of the learner's progress" (p. 376). Assessment involves the collecting of information or evidence of a learner's learning progress and achievement over a period of time for the purposes of improving teaching and learning. Assessment serves various purposes, including formative assessment for adjusting pedagogy, summative assessment for judging student work or achievement, with its multiple functions, such as diagnostic function, selective function, placement function, instructional function, and scientific research function.

In the practices of assessment of writing, there are normally two main strands, i.e., assessing writing as a product or a process, due to the impact of the product-oriented and process-based paradigms of writing theories. Behizadeh and Engelhard (2011) reviewed the measurement and writing theories regarding the assessment of writing in the USA and identified the developmental veins of relevant research from a historical perspective. They concluded that the writing theories evolved from form dominant to the idea and content dominant to sociocultural context bounded. Accordingly, the measurement theories regarding the assessment of writing experienced such shifts: test scores were the main objective of writing assessment from early the 20th century to the 1960s, then holistic scoring was dominant in the next two decades, and portfolio assessment and programmatic assessment have played leading parts since the 1990s.

The assessment of writing, like educational assessment in general, also aims to evaluate student writing ability and give references to teachers' instruction of writing so as to improve the effectiveness of both learning and instruction of writing. However, it is not without difficulty to assess student writing due to the complexity of writing and its teaching. In this section, the current study intends to review literature related to raters, criteria, focus, and process of assessment of writing.

2.4.1 Raters in the assessment of writing

Many factors, such as teacher perception of scoring criteria, severity or leniency, and the complexity of the rating process can influence teachers' assessment of student text (cf., Bejar, Williamson, & Mislevy, 2006; Lumley, 2005; Wolfe, 1997). A great deal of research has explored raters' weight on scoring criteria, decision-making actions, and bias in employing rating criteria. Research has identified a considerable amount of strategies in making decisions when teachers assess student texts (e.g., Barkaoui, 2010; Crisp, 2008; Cumming, 1990; Cumming, Kantor, & Powers, 2002; Huot, 1993; Lumley, 2005; Sakyi, 2000; Vaughan, 1991). For example, Vaughan (1991) identified the "first-impression-dominates style" or the "grammar-oriented style". And Wolfe (1997) proposed a rater's cognitive process in assessing writing through which "a text image is created, compared to the scoring criteria, and used as the basis for generating a scoring decision" and is "a mental representation of the criteria contained in the scoring rubric" (p. 89).

In terms of variable characteristics among raters, Eckes (2008b) examined in-depth the differences and similarities between raters' scoring preferences toward criteria of fluency, task completion, and grammatical correctness. Eckes confirmed six different types of raters: The Syntax Type, putting stress on texts displaying a wide variety of cohesive devices and syntactic fabrics; the Correctness Type, focusing on texts showing only a few syntactic, lexical, or orthographic errors; the Structure Type, paying attention to texts that are organized academically; and the Fluency Type, attaching importance to texts composed fluently, and other two types receiving relatively less attention (the Nonfluency Type and the Nonargumentation Type). Eckes suggested that different raters preferred remarkably distinct emphases in assessing student texts.

Research has found that raters differ from each other in a variety of ways (cf., Weigle, 2002; Weir, 2005; Lumley, 2005). These studies indicate that differences among raters include how they conform to the scoring rubric, how they understand criteria used in their assessment, how severe or lenient they are when grading texts, how they interpret and employ rating scales, and how consistent they are across students and rating criteria.

Smith (1997) analyzed 208 end comments by ten teaching assistants in the USA, and identified sixteen primary genres, comprising three categories: judging genres, reader response genres, and coaching genres. The judging genres include evaluation of development, style, the entire paper, focus, effort, organization, rhetorical effectiveness, topic, correctness, audience accommodation, and the grade; reader response genres contain reading experience and identification; coaching genres encompass suggestion

for revision of current paper, suggestion for future papers, and offer of assistance (p. 253). When evaluating student writing, teachers focused on the primary judging genres, among which five were related to praise, two were with criticism, and the other four were neutral. Teachers were conscious of using the subject when giving comments. For example, more than half teachers used "you" (referring to the student) when making positive evaluation; slightly less than half of the teachers used a pseudo-subject (e.g., "there") when providing totally negative feedback, i.e., evaluation of correctness; and more than half of them used first-person pronoun (the teacher him/herself) when giving positive reasons for marks.

DeRemer (1998) used a case study to examine how three highly experienced grade eight English teachers built definitions of assessment task when evaluating student writing using an analytic scoring rubric. She found that the three teachers elaborated the task in different ways: connecting their reaction to the text with the scoring rubric by using searching elaboration, giving an impressionistic mark by using general impression scoring, and analyzing criteria of assessment before assigning a mark by using rubric-based evaluation. The results also showed that the identification of teachers' elaborations of different tasks illustrated raters' decision-making in evaluating student text.

Likewise, based on a very small sample, Lumley (2002) investigated the process by which four trained, experienced, and reliable raters make their scoring decisions in rating texts composed by ESL learners using an analytic rating scale. Results showed that raters were strongly affected by the intrinsic instinctive impression on the text shaped when reading it initially, even though they expected to keep close to the rating scale. Lumley's findings brought out implications for understanding rater's core role rather than rating scale in assessing writing, and training raters is essential in order to make rating more reliable when using scales to describe writing performance.

More studies targeted university level teacher raters' practices of assessing student texts. Shi (2001) compared native English speakers' and non-English speakers' assessment of university-level students' expository texts in China. Twenty-three native raters are from USA, UK, Canada, etc., and 23 non-native raters are university lecturers in China. Ten university students' essays with an average length of 292 words were rated by both groups on a 10-point scale. Both cohorts of raters gave reasons for their ratings. In her study, Shi categorized raters' reasons into five areas: general, content, organization, language and length. Her findings showed native raters paid more positive attention to content and language, but non-native raters attached more negative stress to organization and length. When self reported the importance of their comments, non-native raters focused on content and organization in their first criteria, but native raters gave more weight to language in their third criteria.

Cho, Schunn, and Charney (2006) compared the comment types and perceived helpfulness by peers and instructor in giving feedback on undergraduate and graduate level students' writing. They found that peers commented less on both cohorts' writing than teachers, teachers primarily gave directive and summative comments but peers favored directive and praise in comments, both peers and teachers convinced the helpfulness of directive comments.

Schaefer (2008) employed multi-faceted Rasch measurement to examine 40 native English speaker raters' bias pattern when rating 40 university students' writing in Japan. Raters used a rating scale with six categories: content, organization, style, and quality of expression, language use, mechanics, and fluency. He found bias patterns of interactions of raters, categories, and writers. In the interactions between raters and categories, raters were more severe or lenient with content and organization if they were lenient or severe with language use and mechanics. In the interactions between raters and writers, raters were apt to be more rigorous or with tolerant to writers with higher ability levels than those with lower levels.

Shi, Wang, and Wen (2003) examined the effect of teaching experience of university teachers on their evaluation of English majors' writing in China. Forty-six raters in their study included both native and non-native English speaking teachers with various teaching experience. All raters used holistic scoring and gave three comments on student texts. Shi et al. found that the experienced teacher raters were stricter than those who had less teaching experience with some texts by giving significant lower marks and more negative remarks on conceptual, organizational, and linguistic issues of those essays.

More recently, Lee and Coniam (2013) conducted a survey to examine the fulfillment of assessment of learning for EFL writing in secondary schools in Hong Kong, China. They aimed to find out how teachers carry out an assessment for learning in the teaching of EFL writing, how teachers influence students' motivation and writing performance, and how the assessment for learning might be promoted or restrained. Their research involved 167 students and two teachers. Various quantitative and qualitative data were used, including student questionnaires, student and teacher interviews, pre- and post-tests, and lesson observations. They found that teachers' effort in implementing the assessment for learning was not fully successful in the writing instructional practice within the exam-oriented culture of learning and instruction, where teachers comply with specific feedback on detailed errors and summative assessment. They suggest that teacher need to improve their assessment knowledge and skills about assessment for learning.

2.4.2 Focus of teachers' assessment of writing

The focus of raters' assessment of writing has always been the research emphasis. Lee (2007) examined the characteristics and functions of teacher feedback on student texts and the effect of teacher feedback on the assessment for learning, through analyzing twenty-six Hong Kong secondary teachers' written feedback and subsequent face-to-face and email interview with six of the teachers and focus interview with eighteen students. She found that 94.1% of teachers' feedback focused on form, only 3.8% on content and .4% on organization; when giving error feedback, 71.5% were direct feedback with corrections, and 21.6% with correction symbols and 6.9% with error underlined or circled; when rating student texts, most teachers (87.4%) assessed student texts by "content" and "accuracy," only 9% added "organization" to the content and accuracy in their scoring. She suggested that teacher feedback is affected by institutional context and culture, as the majority of teachers' feedback highlighted

language errors due to the exam-driven tradition of language teaching in China. Also, she advised teachers to employ feedback to improve learning and instruction of writing, such as resetting teaching objectives, teaching activities, and assessment practices.

Later, Lee (2011) examined L2 writing teachers' problems in practices of feedback on student writing. She used teacher feedback data from 26 secondary school English teachers in Hong Kong and interview data from six of them. She found that, when giving feedback, teachers focus mainly on language form (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) with direct feedback strategy; when commenting, teachers frequently employ (in decreasing order) positive comments, comments on grammar and mechanics, negative comments, and direction comments; when assessing, teachers use various assessment criteria but primarily target content and accuracy, and only a small number of teachers pay attention to organization, paragraph, style, and handwriting. She also listed the problems of teachers' feedback, such as paying too much attention to errors but neglecting organization and style, accordingly, giving direct error correction, and making regular grading somehow mini-summative assessment instead of formative assessment. Further, Lee suggested teachers keep a balance between content, organization, language, and genre, when providing feedback; focus on specific criteria of the writing tasks rather than on all errors; ask students to write multiple tasks for different purposes; focus on feedback rather than summative score; engage students in the assessment process to maximize the formative potential of feedback; and integrate teaching, learning, and assessment.

2.4.3 Criteria and tools for the assessment of writing

The criteria of assessment have long attracted much attention. A large body of scoring criteria and tools have been developed, such as holistic rating, analytic rating, rubrics, checklist, etc. For example, a rubric is an array of criteria for different levels of performance (Airasian, 2005; McMillan, 2004), including holistic and analytic rubric.

A holistic rubric aims at rating in a more general and comprehensive way as the text is assessed in its integrity (Linn & Miller, 2005). By comparison, analytic rubrics centers on specific features of a text and locate merits and drawbacks of the text based on particularly portrayed criteria (Linn & Miller, 2005). Holistic rating contains conducting an assessment of the quality of a student text against a fixed scale or rubric (Hunter et al., 1996). It is a rapid and efficient way of assessing students' performance in writing. While analytic scoring includes the decomposing of a text into constitutes, each of which is assessed individually and then combined with the scores from other elements to reach an overall mark. Analytic scoring is believed to be more reliable than holistic scoring and can give more beneficial feedback to students on the strong and weak points of their texts.

Schirmer and Bailey (2000) argued that rubrics for assessment of writing might have potential value as a tool in teaching students who have problems with language learning. They proposed that writing assessment rubrics may identify specific qualities of writing and give specific characterizations of corresponding qualities. For example, Spandel and Stiggins's (1997) Analytical Scale Rubrics had six traits: ideas, organization, voice, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions. It was one of the

most known rubrics, which bridges assessment and instruction of writing. Based on this, Schirmer and Bailey (2000) brought forward a modified rubric targeting writing instruction. Their rubric included various traits: topic, content, story development, organization, voice/audience, word choice, sentence structure, and mechanics (p. 55). When using these rubrics in writing instruction, it clarifies objectives for both teachers and students, helps students identify various qualities of writing and engage in writing with metacognitive strategies.

In the same vein, Romeo (2008) gave an insight into the link between assessment and instruction of writing. In her article, she suggested informal classroom writing assessment, including observations, inventories, checklists, conferencing, analysis of writing samples using rubrics, and portfolios (p. 29). These types of assessment of writing, according to Romeo, are effective measures in both learning and instruction of writing.

In addition, Cho (2003) introduced an assessment of incoming graduate-level international students' writing, involving 57 participants. In her work, process-based and product-oriented methods in assessing writing were compared. The comparison of the two methods was based on the following features of writing: organization (direction, introduction/body/conclusion, sentence cohesion, paragraph cohesion, and essay cohesion), content (topic development, idea elaboration), source use (information accuracy, source attribution, paraphrasing, and use of information), linguistics (grammar, vocabulary, sentence variety, expression, and academic tone) (p. 177). She found that, in general, process-oriented texts came up with more sophisticated ideas and superior structures than those composed in the way of product-oriented. Her findings give implications to practitioners attempting to develop skills in assessing writing.

Further, Lee (2007) discussed the formative assessment of writing for learning, aiming to integrate learning, instruction and assessment through process writing, self- and peer feedback, student-teacher conferences, portfolios, etc. in Hong Kong where writing is seen as a product due to the exam-dominated culture of learning and instruction. She posted five principles of assessment for learning in writing, including sharing learning goals with students, helping students understand the standards they are working towards, involving students in assessment, teachers providing feedback that helps, and creating a classroom culture where mistakes are a natural part of learning and where everyone can improve (pp. 203-205). When integrating teaching, learning, and assessment, she treated it as a symbiotic circle in which teachers constantly adopt information from assessment to adjust their instruction, facilitate learning, and plan activities in teaching and learning and assessment criteria for subsequent rotation.

Prior research has probed into teachers' practices of assessment of writing from various perspectives, covering rater differences, rating criteria and tools, the focus of teachers' assessment, and so forth. However, there seems to be more attention has been paid to higher education level within native English speaking or ESL contexts. Also, there seems to be a paucity of research on pre-service teacher trainees' learning to assess student text and the development of teachers' skills of assessment through pre-service to in-service is missing out on the literature. Thus, these findings have informed

further research addressing primary and secondary school teachers' assessment of student EFL text as well as the development of their assessment skills.

2.5 Feedback on EFL Student Writing

2.5.1 Definition and classification of feedback

Feedback has been viewed as "input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision" (Keh, 1990, p. 294). To this end, teacher feedback on student texts refers to teachers' provision of comments, problem identifications, and suggestions to help students improve their writing through revising issues regarding contents, organization, language, etc. Although there was a wide debate about the necessity and effectiveness of teacher feedback on student writing (e.g., Truscott, 1996, 1999; Ferris, 1999, 2004, 2006), a variety of studies have confirmed Ferris's findings and proven the benefits of teacher feedback (e.g., Li, 2013; Qi, 2004). Based on different taxonomies, feedback can be categorized into different typologies: teacher feedback and peer feedback (subjects), form feedback and content feedback (focus of), direct feedback and indirect feedback (the way of correcting errors), written feedback, verbal feedback and computer-based feedback (vehicle of feedback), marginal feedback and end feedback (position of feedback), positive and negative feedback (features of feedback) (cf., Ellis, 2008; Jiang, 2013). In this study, it focuses mainly on teacher feedback on student text in the English as a foreign language context, aiming to look into how TEFL teachers give responses to student writing. A synthesis and review of prior relevant research helps to understand practices of teacher feedback and raises possibilities to improve the teaching of writing for the long term.

2.5.2 Functions of teacher feedback

Ferris, Pezone, Tade, and Tinti (1997) argued that teacher written feedback on student text plays a vital part in stimulating and encouraging students. Teacher feedback has been widely recognized as pedagogically beneficial (e.g., Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006) and primarily informational in scaffolding responses and suggestions to promote improvements (Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

2.5.3 The trajectory of prior research on teacher feedback

The writing paradigm has experienced a shift from product-oriented to process-based. Accordingly, teacher feedback on student text has also undergone such changes from dominant focus on issues regarding language errors (cf., Cumming, 1985; Zamel, 1985) to issues concerned with content and organization (cf., Caulk, 1994; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris, 1995a; Saito, 1994). Nevertheless, research has suggested that teachers give balanced weight to content, organization, language, etc. in their feedback on student texts (cf., Ferris, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Zamel, 1985).

In the early stage of research on ESL teacher response to student writing, the best-known study with wide citation was initiated by Zamel (1985). She analyzed 15

university level teachers' feedback on 105 student texts by examining their comments, reactions, and markings. She found that teachers preferred to focus on linguistic errors and problems on student texts but giving puzzling, arbitrary, and vague comments and marks.

Apart from Zamel's (1985) analysis of teacher feedback, there were also numerous studies examining various issues regarding comments and error correction in ESL teacher feedback. These experimental or comparative studies examined effects of praise or criticism (Cardelle & Corno, 1981), feedback on content or form (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986), and corrections or meaningful remarks (Kepner, 1991). Also, the subjects who gave feedback were another attraction to researchers. A big body of research looked at teacher feedback and peer feedback (Carson & Nelson, 1994, 1996; Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Lockhart & Ng, 1995; Mendoga & Johnson, 1994; Nelson & Murphy,1992; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997; Villamil & deGuerrero, 1996). In the next section, relevant studies will be reviewed from the perspectives of focus of teacher feedback and error corrections.

2.5.4 Focus of teacher feedback on student texts

Research on ESL/EFL teacher feedback has focused on behaviors and strategies of teacher response and its effect on student revision (e.g., Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Here, corresponding studies addressed the focus of teacher feedback on student texts are discussed below.

Ferris, Pezone, Tade, and Tinti (1997) used a research model with various categories of comments to understand a university teachers' comments' on 47 students' writing in the USA, aiming to find out the characteristics of the teachers' written comments and variation of the response regarding student ability level and assignment type. The model had two main categories: aims or intent of the comment and linguistic features of the comment. Several sub-categories were included in the former: directives (ask for information, make suggestion or request, give information), grammar/mechanics, positive comments; and syntactic form (question, statement/exclamation, imperative), presence/absence of hedges, text-specific/generic were elements of the latter (p. 163). They found that the teacher had various intentional aims for her comments loaded in a series of linguistic forms and gave various types of comments on different genres of writing assignments as well as responded with variation across student ability levels.

In the same context, Montgomery and Baker (2007) used a questionnaire to investigate how much local and global written feedback teachers give to student texts. Thirteen writing teachers and 98 students from an English language center of an American university participated in their survey. They found that teachers basically provided most feedback on local issues (i.e., grammar and mechanics) and little on global aspects (i.e., content and organization). They suggested that teachers might recognize student needs of more local feedback consider it necessary to focus more on such issues.

Another study was conducted in an EFL context but with similar findings. Ashwell (2000) compared the superiorities of four different pattern of teacher feedback on student first, second, and final versions of texts. Fifty foreign language learners at a Japanese university were asked to write an essay about their father. The four patterns of feedback were content then form feedback, form then content feedback, form and content then form and content feedback, and no feedback. In his study, form feedback targeted seven main types of errors: lexical choice, articles/determiners/plurals, spelling, prepositions, punctuations, agreement, and verb/tense); and content feedback addressed two main types of issues: (1) marginal comments (reader incomprehension, clarification/more detail, use of particular words and expressions, repetition, cohesion, and compliments), and (2) end comments (more detailed/ideas for making more adequate, clarifying/separating themes of paragraphs/combining/separating paragraphs, supplying/strengthening conclusion, organization/reorganization, cohesion, avoiding reference to questionnaire, miscellaneous paragraphing, complements, and admonitions. Results indicated that students were strongly reliant on form feedback and content feedback had only a medium effect on student revision.

In addition to the above research regarding tertiary level education, several studies have shed light on teacher feedback within the secondary school settings. Furneaux, Paran, and Fairfax (2007) examined non-native speaking teachers' roles and focus in giving feedback. In total, 110 secondary school EFL teachers (41 French, 24 Cypriot, 17 Spanish, 17 Korean, and 11 Thai) gave feedback on one student text. They identified six roles of teachers in giving feedback, namely, Initiator, Supporter, Advisor, Suggester, Provider, and Mutator. Also, they justified six foci of teachers' feedback, i.e., morphology, grammar, style, semantics, discourse, and mechanics. They found that teachers dominantly played a role of provider in giving feedback and took grammar as their focus.

Lee (2008) identified how 26 secondary school English teachers respond to student texts in Hong Kong from the aspects of feedback focus, error feedback and written commentary and factors influencing their feedback. She found that teacher feedback focused the most on forms (94.1%), such as grammar and vocabulary, much less on content (3.8%) and the least on organization (.4%); teachers used direct error feedback the most (71.5%), i.e., marking and correcting errors, and less coded feedback (21.6%), such as indicating errors and error types, and 6.9% was uncoded with only location of errors; 38.3% of teachers' written comments focused on praise, 33.9% was negative comments regarding grammar and mechanics. She also found that cultural and institutional contexts, accountability, teachers' beliefs and values, exam culture comprehensive influence teachers' practice of feedback.

It seems that teachers either work in higher education institutions or basic education schools tend to focus on linguistic issues in their response to student writing. What do teachers prefer in their written comments on student texts? Hyland and Hyland (2001) analyzed two university teachers' written feedback on six students' writing from the ways of giving praise (positive comment), criticism (negative comment), and suggestions ("constructive criticism"). They found that among the 495 feedback points which focused on a specific aspect of the texts, 44% were concerned with praise, 31%

related to criticism, and only 25% were connected with suggestions. With regard to the focus of teachers' feedback acts, comments dominantly targeted the conceptual content of the texts. The two teacher raters put their praise primarily to ideas and much less to other aspects regarding form and academic issues of the texts. Also, teachers focused criticisms on the ideas of the texts but gave less negative comment on issues of form and other aspects. Teachers provided equal suggestions to ideas and academic respects with priority but focused less on those related to linguistic issues.

2.5.5 Research on teacher corrective feedback

In the EFL context of writing learning and instruction, students pay much attention to the accuracy of their written texts and yearn for teachers' feedback on their errors (e.g., Cohen, 1987; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 1997; Leki, 1991). Research regarding teachers' error correction has discussed direct or indirect feedback, direct or indirect identification of error types, direct or indirect location of errors. Direct feedback refers to teachers' supply of correct answers to student errors, and indirect feedback refers to teachers' symbolization of errors, such as circling, underlining, coding or marking errors (Lee, 2008). Relevant research has shown that indirect feedback is basically more effective than direct feedback (Ferris, 2002) and is more useful for students' improvement of writing ability in the long-run than direct feedback (e.g., Ferris, 2003; Frantzen, 1995; Lalande, 1982). Also, prior studies have indicated that selective error feedback is a much more feasible way (Lee, 2003) than comprehensively detailed error correction on student texts because excessive error correction may turn writing teachers into grammar teachers (Zamel, 1982, 1985). Thus, how teachers give feedback on errors of student texts and put pertinent weight on the above aspects seem to be an essential issue for the effectiveness of teacher feedback and student improvement both in the short turn and long-run.

Lee (2003) investigated how English teachers' correct errors in student texts and how teachers think about their practice and problems in error correction. 206 secondary school English teachers in Hong Kong were involved in her study and 19 of them participated in a follow-up telephone interview. She found that most teachers preferred comprehensive error marking (i.e., marking all errors in student texts) rather than selective identification. She also pointed out that teachers doubted to some extent about the effect of their correction work on student development of writing ability. In her study, Lee suggested that teachers' rethink about the use of detailed or selective error identification is needed, and training teacher to be more effective in giving error feedback is necessary due to their limited strategies of feedback as well as help teachers with their critical reflection on their error correction is advised.

In the same vein, Lee (2004) explored the practices of error correction from the perspectives of both secondary school English teachers and students in Hong Kong. She used a questionnaire and follow-up interviews to collect data from 206 teachers and 320 students respectively as well as a task of error correction to get information from teachers. Error types identified and corrected by teachers included spelling, punctuation, noun ending (plural.), word choice (unnecessary article, preposition, verb), verb tense, sentence structure, article missing, etc. She found that both teachers and

students gave priority to detailed error feedback and students were dependent on teachers in error correction, but teachers used quite limited strategies in giving feedback, and worse still, only half of their error correction on student texts were precise.

2.5.6 Summarization and implications

From the above analyses, some characteristics of prior research on teacher feedback can be elicited. With respect to the research setting, certain studies were conducted both in ESL and EFL contexts. In terms of subjects, both university and secondary school teachers were involved. As to findings, teachers basically prefer feedback on language issues. However, the research on teacher feedback is still scarce either in quantity of teachers engaged in former studies or teachers from EFL contexts. Besides, very little information has shown how pre-service TEFL teachers give feedback on EFL student texts, neither do we know the differences between teachers' and trainees' feedback on student texts. It is, therefore, worth efforts to examining TEFL teachers' and trainees' practices of giving feedback on student writing for the sake of improving student writing ability.

2.6 Development of TEFL Teacher Trainees in the Practicum

In the field of teacher education, there is an agreement in the literature that the practicum is a core component of initial teacher training program. Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) argued that practicum plays the leading role in bridging the gap between theory and practice. Practicum, also synonymized as teaching practice, internship, field experiences, etc. may be viewed as learning through practice in action (Foster & Stephenson, 1998; Hutton, 1989; Lonergan & Andresen, 1988; Schön, 1987; Trigwell & Reid, 1998).

As far back as in 1987, Price stated that there is considerable agreement that the major purpose of the practicum is to "link theory with practice by providing regular structured and supervised opportunities for student teachers to apply and test knowledge, skills and attitudes, developed largely in campus-based studies, to the real world of the school and the school community" (p. 109). Two decades later, Moody (2009) proposed an identical opinion that the prime function of the practicum is to enable the teacher trainees to put their theoretical constituents from teacher education program into practice and engage in experiential learning and school-based research. More recently, Mtika says that "practicum is an integral part of student teachers' professional development, and shapes their beliefs and thinking about teaching" (2011, p. 552). Therefore, the practicum is regarded as crucial to the development of student teachers, because it is their "first hands-on experience with teaching" (Al Sohbani, 2012, p. 196).

Accordingly, in the domain of TEFL teacher training, the practicum is regarded as one of the most important aspects of teacher education program (cf. Farrell, 2001, 2003, 2007, 2008b). Indeed, it has a crucial effect on student teachers' future careers (e.g., Myles, Cheng, & Wang, 2006; Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010; Rozelle & Wilson, 2012). Studies relevant to TEFL trainees' practicum cover various facets of their

knowledge base, including beliefs, reflective practice, and professional development, etc. (e.g., Gao, 2011; Guo & Wang, 2009; Kourieos, 2014).

Therefore, a synthesis of existing studies is conducive to knowing systematically and profoundly what research has discussed TEFL trainees' practicum. Also, it contributes to finding out what specific effects the practicum has on TEFL trainees' learning and growth. Thus, what improvements TEFL trainees experience and how they develop in the practicum are discussed in this paper. Then, key findings in each of the aspects in this paper are highlighted and summarized. As a consequence, I expect this synthesis of literature review sheds light on a further exploration into TEFL trainees' development, in particular, of practice teaching and learning of domain-specific EFL areas during their practicum. At the end of this paper, suggestions for future research are identified.

In this section, the indexes of selecting literature and its outcomes are introduced, so as to present an overview of related studies on TEFL teacher trainees' development in the practicum.

Various criteria were used to select and identify studies for this review. First, the multidimensional reviews of studies were based on publications issued from the year 2000 to March 2016 until the initiation of this paper. Second, the publications were recorded in different academic databases, including EBSCO, ScienceDirect, Web of Science, ERIC, ProQuest, CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure), and the search engine Google Scholar was also utilized. Third, a variety of search terms were employed in searching for diversified studies. The terms were sorted into the following categorizations:

- EFL, TEFL, TESOL, etc.
- Teacher trainees, student teachers, pre-service teachers, initial teacher, prospective teachers, etc.
- Practicum, practice teaching, field experience, internship, etc.
- Beliefs, conceptions, perspectives, views, opinions, etc.
- Teacher knowledge, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, instructional skills, knowledge of learners, teacher's professional development, etc.
- Teaching behaviors, lesson planning, classroom management, assessment/evaluation of students, feedback, etc.
- Reflection, reflective ability, reflective practice, etc.
- Listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar, culture, etc.

Finally, these terms were matched flexibly but thematically. For example, "TEFL" "teacher trainees" "practicum" were mixed whether from the title or abstract or both, in order to identify the information strongly related to the review topic as available as possible.

The overall findings were relatively limited in terms of close relation to TEFL trainees' development in the practicum. Nevertheless, the limited materials show a wide range of facets of their improvement in the practicum in diversified contexts (see Appendix B). These studies were classified into several domains in light of their focal themes. Some were concerned with TEFL trainees' changes of beliefs (Gao, 2011;

Yuan & Lee, 2014); some regarding their improvement of teacher knowledge (Goker, 2006; Guo & Wang, 2009; Hosoda & Aline, 2010; Lee, 2007; Liu, 2015; Merç, 2015); some focusing on their teaching behaviors (Alkhawaldeh, 2008; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2010; Mutton, Hagger, & Burn, 2011; Ozkan, 2011; Quintero & Ramírez, 2011; Ragawanti, 2015; Uhrmacher, Conrad, & Moroye, 2013;), and others regarding their reflective abilities (Huang & Zhang, 2015; Kocoglu, Akyel, & Ercetin, 2008; Rass, 2014).

Consequently, the findings of these studies from the perspectives of belief, teacher knowledge, teaching behaviors and reflective ability are discussed in the following sections.

2.6.1 Changes of TEFL teacher trainees' beliefs

Teacher beliefs, defined as teachers' "implicit assumptions about students, learning, classroom, and the subject matter to be taught" (Kagan, 1992, p. 66), are generally believed to have a great effect on teachers' reasoning and practice (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012). A considerable body of studies have stated that teacher education and in particular, the practicum impacts student teachers' beliefs (e.g., Borg, 1999; Stuart & Thurlow, 2000; Tang et al., 2012; Tillema, 2006).

Gao (2011) explored six female pre-service secondary school TEFL teachers' development of beliefs during their 6-week practicum in China, through analyzing participants' journals in a case study. All participants were required to write journals about their perceptions of English teaching in junior middle school before the practicum, a daily diary of teaching activities with analysis and reflection, a weekly report of practice activities with analysis and reflection, and a comprehensive summing-up and reflection of the entire practicum. The total data constituted six pre-practicum reports, 180 diaries, 36 weekly reports and six post-practicum summaries. These data were analyzed through the procedures of induction-deduction-induction. The analysis of data revealed that the participants' beliefs constituted mainly five domains: their understanding of teaching objectives and important points, comprehension of teacher role, knowing the students, learning class management strategies and teaching strategies. In general, all participants experienced the development of beliefs in their practicum. They demonstrated three main forms of development: reinforcement, addition, and change.

In this study, reinforcement refers to participants' confirmation and strengthening of their existing beliefs. They had a number of preliminary understandings and perceptions towards some themes in the practicum before their practice teaching. For example, trainees thought learning interest was conducive to learning outcome. After the practicum, they further believed the most important point in junior middle school English teaching was to motivate and retain students' learning interest, which could facilitate students' learning enthusiasm and effects Thus, the practicum experience contributed to the affirmation and intensification of their comprehension and opinions. The addition means the enrichment of their prior beliefs. It indicates that the participants experienced new teaching themes and formed new conceptions about specific topics in the practicum, and added them to their earlier views. For example, in

a writing course, junior school students were asked to understand some pictures first, and then to write out the relevant phrases, add subjects and other constituents to make sentences, finally to compose an essay by using conjunctions to connect those sentences. One respondent reported that this teaching method was totally new to her and was much more effective than asking the students to write a paragraph directly. Change stands for the modification of their established beliefs. Before the practicum, student teachers were seriously deficient in practical knowledge. They modified and supplemented their practical knowledge through their own teaching experience and reflection during the practicum. Also, guidance and assessment from mentors, discussion with peer trainees and feedbacks from students affected their beliefs interactively.

The above study indicated that participants' focus of attention shifted from focusing on selves to centering on students, and from paying close attention to teaching behaviors to their underlying intentions. At the beginning of practicum, the participants observed what to do and how to do of their mentors' classroom teaching. With the accumulation of their experiences in teaching activities, they gradually turned to explore the underlying intentions, i.e. why to teach so. However, the development of beliefs is a complicated process and influenced by various factors. In this study, there were a very small number of participants involved in a short period of practicum. Thus, the findings in this study cannot disclose the integrated facets of the complex belief development. Therefore, a larger cohort in a longer practicum and a mixed research method should be involved in a further study for the sake of exploring student teachers' development of beliefs.

Also, within similar contexts, Yuan and Lee (2014) investigated three female teacher trainees' beliefs before their practicum as well as their changes during the practicum in China. Three TEFL student teachers in a ten-week teaching practice were engaged in their study, and multiple methods were employed to collect data, such as interviews, classroom observation followed by stimulated recall interview, and weekly journals by the participants. Also, a systematic qualitative interpretative approach was used in analyzing data.

The findings showed that significant changes and development of participants' beliefs took place during their practicum. In specific, TEFL trainees' beliefs are not constant; rather, after the practicum, they could form a sequence of beliefs with respect to language learning and instruction, language teachers' professional experience and development, as well as themselves as a language teacher. For example, one participant in the interview stated that she had a dilemma between the traditional teaching method of centering on vocabulary and grammar and the new method of Communicative Language Teaching Approach. After her engagement in the practicum, she held the belief of adopting an "integrated approach" in her future teaching. Also, she shifted her former belief that "teachers are already experts and do not have to learn" to a new one that "teacher learning is both significant and feasible" (Yuan & Lee, 2014, p. 6).

Further, this study revealed a range of belief change processes, including confirmation, realization, elaboration and disagreement, integration and modification. Through confirmation, trainees reinforced their former beliefs, which supported the findings of Gao (2011). Also, the other two change processes of realization and

elaboration showed that student teachers became more conscious in their practicum and added new beliefs to their prior ones, which echoed the findings of a study by Gao (2011). In the same vein of the study of Gao, disagreement, integration, and modification in this study referred to his finding of "change" of beliefs (Gao, 2011), they together refined trainees' existing beliefs and formed new ones. For example, one respondent in this study stated that she denied her former conception that teachers should afford correct answers to every student's writing errors. Through the practice teaching, she changed her views and believed that teachers should provide error correction to cultivate students' autonomous learning and critical thinking.

Moreover, this study also demonstrated that mentors play an influential part in changing and developing student teachers' beliefs in subject matter, teaching methods, and students' needs. Mentors are engaged in the entire process of student teachers' practicum, for example, they participate in student teachers' lesson planning and design, provide scaffolding to support their teaching endeavors, and take part in their post-class assessment and reflection (Gebhard, 2009; Johnson, 2006). However, as this qualitative study focused only on three participants in the same school, its findings cannot be simply generalized to other settings.

The studies discussed in this section were homogeneous, similar in purpose, samples, and methods. The studies focused on exploring TEFL trainees' beliefs of English language teaching, learners, teacher's role, and the teaching profession, employing solely qualitative research methods, i.e. interviews, classroom observation and trainees' journals. Also, similarities of the findings emerging from the studies reveal that the practicum has an intensively positive effect on trainees' beliefs, and strengthens a proper perspective towards their teaching both in the practicum and in the future career. Yet, a conclusion can be drawn that studies regarding TEFL teacher trainees' changes of beliefs of learning and instruction in the practicum are still not enough.

2.6.2 Improvement of TEFL trainees' teacher knowledge

The above studies discussed were involved in TEFL student teachers' beliefs, and some of them regarding more or less trainees' teacher knowledge base as well. Thus, TEFL trainees' teacher knowledge is further discussed in this section for providing a deeper insight into their improvement in the practicum. As widely acknowledged, the concept of teacher knowledge was originated from Shulman's classic theoretical base. Shulman (1987) categorized teacher knowledge into seven aspects: Subject matter knowledge, Pedagogical content knowledge, Curriculum knowledge, General pedagogical knowledge, Knowledge of learners and their characteristics, Knowledge of educational contexts, and Knowledge of educational ends. In his framework, the first three are content-oriented teacher knowledge, and the latter four are general teacher knowledge. He further put forward the idea of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) as a key element of what he calls a knowledge base for teaching, including the specific content, instructional strategies, understanding of learning difficulties and students' conceptions of specific content.

Afterward, many other scholars tried to further explain and develop or modify this framework of teacher knowledge. Grossman (1990) proposed the components of the knowledge base for teaching, including subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of context. Also, Cochran, DeRuiter, and King (1993) coined the concept of pedagogical content knowing (PCKg), emphasizing subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners and knowledge of educational context.

Indeed, there are more opinions and models concerned with the development of the conceptualizations, components, and structures of teacher knowledge. Some of them even go far beyond the core theme originated from Shulman. So far, there seems to be no consensus on teacher knowledge, but an effective teacher should possess two indispensable aspects of teacher knowledge: subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Sidhu, Fook, & Kaur, 2011).

In the field of EFL learning and teaching, many researchers and scholars have tried to propose and develop TEFL teacher knowledge by building on Shulman's basic conceptualizations of teacher knowledge base (e.g., Day, 1993; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lafayette, 1993; Richards, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). But without exception, all of them highlight language knowledge and ability, some of them either ignored the knowledge of teaching or neglected the learning process.

As for TEFL teacher trainees, teaching practice is one of the most important stages for them to learn to teach and improve their teacher knowledge. Numerous studies (e.g., Goker, 2006; Guo & Wang, 2009; Hosoda & Aline, 2010; Lee, 2007; Liu, 2015; Merç, 2015) demonstrate that student teachers experience an extensive development of pedagogical knowledge, instructional skills, and other related knowledge and competencies in their practicum.

Goker (2006) conducted an experimental study on TEFL student teachers' improvement of a sequence of identified instructional skills and self-efficacy through the practicum, by comparing student teachers receiving a peer coaching training program with those involved in traditional supervisor visits. 32 student teachers majored in EFL teaching in Cyprus participated in this study. During the 7-week investigation, they were required to do classroom observation, micro-teaching and several hours of full-lesson teaching. These participants were randomly and equally assigned to the experimental group (peer coaching training program) and control group (traditional supervisor visits). Video and audio tapes were used to collect data regarding seven aspects of instructional skills: stating teaching objectives, repeating important points, giving examples, repeating items, asking questions, student questions, and practice time.

The data analysis showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in their pre-test mean scores of self-efficacy, instructional skills and the quality of use of instructional skills. Yet, the post-test results reported statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group for all variables in these three domains. Also, the findings showed that both groups experienced an overall professional growth, and the experimental group reported "a greater number of favorable comments on their specific facets of the field experience than those who did

not participate" (Goker, 2006, p. 251). The findings indicated that student teachers felt free to ask questions, express their views, and improve their instructional skills and self-efficacy through the peer coaching model.

However, either practice teaching or practicing teaching is a considerably complex action, which is affected by a number of elements, such as teacher trainees' personal factors and environmental ones as well. So, further study with these factors and more related ones would examine and explain trainees' instructional skills and self-efficacy holistically.

Another analysis of TEFL student teachers' development in the practicum was conducted by Guo and Wang (2009), who investigated the process of professional development of pre-service TEFL teachers' experience in their practicum, and how their professional quality changed and developed. They employed a single-case approach to intensively describe and analyze the participant's professional development process in the entire practicum. A female student teacher from a key Normal University in Beijing, China, was involved in this study during her 5-week practicum. Semi-structured interviews, classroom observation, and journal entities were employed to collect data. Two in-depth interviews were conducted at the beginning and end of the practicum, focusing on the participant's experience and change in her practicum. The researchers observed the participant's classroom teaching and recorded the observation in details, and discussed with the participant after class. Journals were composed by the participant at the end of her practicum, covering her practice tasks and performance, merits and drawbacks, and future endeavors.

The findings showed that the participant experienced two stages of development in her practicum. At the first stage, she played a role of an observer: discovering the mismatch between her theoretical concepts of teaching and the real practice of her mentor, learning practical knowledge, and choosing to follow her own belief. For example, she found that her mentor still used the traditional way of teaching, i.e. teacher-centered approach, as opposed to what is currently advocated for in the teaching spheres, namely student-centered approach. She, however, decided to follow the student-centered approach. At the second stage, she played a role of a practitioner: practicing, regulating and reflecting; getting to know students; and self-identification. Through the practicum, she moved from believing entirely in theory of English teaching methodology to initiative regulation and adaptation in the classroom teaching. It indicates that she experienced a leap from theory to practice. Therefore, throughout the practicum, the participant experienced six processes of development: finding; learning; choosing; practicing, regulating and reflecting; understanding students; and self-identification. The whole dynamic developmental processes covered constant learning, reflecting, progressing and growing up.

The findings also revealed that the participant's teacher knowledge, particularly teaching skills and reflective ability developed to a considerable degree. This case study demonstrates one participant's general process of development, which indicates to some extent a meaningful reference for studying TEFL student teachers' growth in their practicum.

Similarly, another qualitative study engaged in TEFL trainees' teacher knowledge was provided by Liu (2015), who investigated the development of TEFL student teacher's pedagogical content knowledge and its influential factors. He used a single case study method to focus on one trainee from one Normal University in China. An interview, lesson plans, classroom observation and reflective journals and practicum journals were used to collect data. The researcher classified, coded and analyzed all the data based on the categories of pedagogical content knowledge by Cochran et al. (1993): subject knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners and educational contexts.

The findings demonstrated that the participant experienced various developments of pedagogical content knowledge. The developmental levels were in descending order: general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts and subject knowledge. After the practicum, the participant's general pedagogical knowledge was reinforced and developed, due to the mentor's direction of and group discussion on its fundamental factors: textbook analysis, teaching design, teaching objectives, teaching principles, implementation of teaching, etc. For example, before the practicum, the respondent stated that the pre-reading tasks aimed to help students understand the text; through the practicum, the respondent restated that the pre-reading tasks helped students understand the text from topic knowledge, language knowledge, writing style, etc., which revealed that the respondent's teaching principles were improved during the practicum. The development of knowledge of learners referred to the respondent's better understanding of students' characteristics, learning motivation, learning attitude and interest, learning needs, and their prior knowledge level. For example, before the practicum, the respondent argued that reading strategies and skills should be imparted to students; but during the practicum, the respondent found that most of the students knew a little about reading strategies and skills, thus decided to teach them in details in view of the specific reading tasks.

These developments in this study were consistent with the findings of some prior studies (Gao, 2011; Guo & Wang, 2009) that student teachers' pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of learners were greatly improved in their practicum. Therefore, this study presents a relatively comprehensive illumination on teacher trainees' improvement of pedagogical content knowledge from a qualitative perspective. However, the development of pedagogical content knowledge is comparatively a long journey with various challenges. This single case study is hard to measure the influencing factors of TEFL trainees' development of pedagogical content knowledge. Thus, further studies with more participants and diversified research methods in different cultural contexts are necessary for decoding trainees' development in the practicum.

An earlier study with similar research method was conducted by Lee (2007), who investigated pre-service TEFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences in the four-week-long practice teaching in Korea. In this study, small group interviews and reflective journal reports were used to collect data from 43 prospective teachers, and qualitative research methods were employed to interpret respondents' interview transcripts and reflective journal entries.

The findings revealed that 98% of the participants were satisfied with their practice teaching, and 28% trainees among them were very highly satisfied. In specific, the participants reported that they succeeded in getting along well with students and got their positive responses to their teaching. Knowing how to develop an intimate relationship with the students is conducive to encouraging and motivating them to better engage in the teaching activity in a more harmonious learning context.

Another finding in this study showed that the participants had learned to transfer from their idealistic views of EFL teaching (e.g., teaching English through English) to teach based on students' language level. For example, one of the respondents reported in the reflective journal that TEFL teachers should teach English through English in class so that students can be more exposed to language input in their learning context. Also, this informant thought that the students had a good command of English for their long period of English learning. Yet, the respondent noted only a small number of students were good, which seemed that it was impossible to teach English through English. Thus, the trainees knew the difference between their ideal perspectives of teaching and the realities in a school classroom and learned to consciously bridge the gap.

This finding was reinforced in related research (Kocoglu, Akyel, & Ercetin, 2008) that student teachers experienced the differences between theories learned in pre-service education programs and practice in classroom teaching and attempted to balance the gap between them in their practicum. Therefore, it can be concluded that the practicum contributes significantly to student teachers' readiness for their future teaching profession.

Also, in the same vein of TEFL trainees' development in the practicum, Hosoda and Aline (2010) investigated how two TEFL student teachers developed their interactional practices in teaching practice in a primary school in Japan. Conversation Analysis, Socio-cultural Theory and Language Socialization were employed to collect data. More than 30 hours of classroom interaction were video-taped and analyzed concretely. Analysis of the data uncovered that the participants improved their classroom interactional abilities mainly in 'provision of assessments to students' and 'initiative in giving directives' (p. 124).

The findings showed that both of the two participants deployed assessment in a larger range of sequential contexts; also, they extended their instructions of directives and were more fluent in both verbal and nonverbal disposition of directives. Besides, they occasionally endeavored to originate their own directives. However, this case study is a longitude research over a 19-month period in one particular cultural context. In light of the relatively short practicum in kinds of literature (e.g., Gao, 2011; Goker, 2006; Guo & Wang, 2009; Yuan & Lee, 2014) and the diversity and complexity of different culture, thus, the outcomes of this study may not be easily generalized to other contexts.

Finally, Merç (2015) explored pre-service TEFL teachers' satisfaction with their performance in practicum, using a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. 117 trainees in English Language Teaching Program in Turkey answered the questionnaire and 12 of them were involved

in the semi-structured interviews. All of the respondents participated in the practicum courses in two semesters which were respectively a 14-week and a 12-week program. Similarly, the participants were asked to observe their cooperating teachers' classrooms in the first two weeks, then were given the opportunity to experience practice teaching for several hours. Through quantitative data analysis, mean scores from the questionnaire were computed for each item and category representing one criterion measure for practicum. The individual categories were planning–preparation, general organization, assessment by supervisors, assessment by peer teachers, observation and reflection reports, and assessment by cooperating teachers, among which most items reported higher scores than the mean score.

The results indicated that the majority of participants were content with their performance in the practicum. Furthermore, the quantitative findings showed that the mean scores for planning–preparation, general organization, and assessment by university supervisors were significantly different from the mean scores of assessment by peer teachers, observation and reflection reports, and assessment by cooperating teachers. It meant that the respondents found the former three categories of criterion measures more effective than the ones in the latter for assessing their performance in the practicum. In other words, student teachers in this study reported that they were more satisfied with their lesson plans, regular attending activities and punctual completion of various assignments in the practice teaching, and their supervisors' evaluation of their lessons.

However, this study focused only on teacher trainees' opinions about the assessment of some facets of their teaching performance in the practicum. What development of pedagogical content knowledge they experienced, what other teacher knowledge they acquired, and what they learned from their practice teaching were not assessed in this study. Thus, further in-depth explorations from more extensive domains of teacher knowledge and with a larger group of related people involved in the practicum should be conducted so as to make more effective assessment.

In comparison with the previous section, the studies in this section showed an idiosyncratic characteristic, with multiple research methods, i.e. experimental and quantitative research, and participants with diversified cultural contexts, i.e. Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Turkish. In these studies, TEFL teacher trainees reported that they developed all around in the practicum, and emphasized the multi-facets of classroom teaching, such as instructional skills, knowledge of learners, and reflective abilities. Yet, similar to the former section, studies reviewed here reported also TEFL trainees' general development of teacher knowledge. We still know a little about what and how they teach and learn, and what development they experience in some specific areas of EFL teaching and learning in their practicum.

Informed by research based on Shulman's (1987) framework of teacher knowledge base, the dissertation study targets the components Subject matter knowledge, Curriculum knowledge, General pedagogical knowledge, Knowledge of learners and their characteristics. Indeed, the teacher knowledge base is treated as the foundation for constructing the framework of teacher knowledge of writing.

2.6.3 Advancement of TEFL trainees' teaching behaviors

A teacher plays varieties of roles in improving students' learning and supporting their success. Harrison and Killion (2007) listed teacher roles as a "resource provider, instructional specialist, curriculum specialist, classroom supporter, learning facilitator, mentor, school leader, data coach, catalyst for change, and learner" (pp. 74–77). TEFL trainees also shoulder some of these responsibilities and roles in their practicum; for example, they behave basically as a resource provider, classroom supporter, learning facilitator, and learner, etc. Thus, in this section, TEFL trainees' behaviors of lesson planning, classroom management and assessing students' learning are discussed.

2.6.3.1 Advancement of lesson planning

Sardo-Brown (1996) defined planning as "the instructional decisions made prior to the execution of plans during teaching" (p. 519). Thus, lesson planning constitutes various decision-making processes, characterized by "planning at different levels, mostly informal, creative, knowledge-based, flexible and within a practical and ideological context" (Calderhead, 1996, p. 713). Therefore, it is necessary to review what and how TEFL trainees cope with the complex creativity of lesson planning, and what they learn in the process of selecting materials, activities, and methods, etc.

In a teacher training program of the Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics at an Australian university, Liyanage and Bartlett (2010) designed a model of meta-cognitive strategy framework (MSF) in developing teacher trainees' effective lesson plans. The respondents constituted 9 volunteers, including two native speakers of English from Australia (with 2-3 years of prior teaching experience overseas), and 7 international students, among whom 3 were from China, 1 from Vietnam, 2 from Japan, and 1 from Spain (all had more than 2 years of teaching experience). The MSF was introduced at the early stage of a 13-week semester, followed by practice teaching, and the respondents reported the merits and drawbacks in their original lesson plans. Then, the MSF was presented for inducing them a more holistic method in their practice teaching. The native speakers were involved in the stimulated recall interview, and a grounded method of inductive analysis was used to sort all responses and refine emerging themes. Thus, three generalizations emerged from the themes, namely the trainees' self-awareness concerning lesson-planning and training, knowledge of how to construct a student-centered lesson plan, and positioning in relation to their MSF training.

In the sense of the first theme, the MSF affected the participants' new perspectives in lesson planning in the light of "planning to plan, planning to implement, and planning to evaluate" (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2010, p. 1368). In terms of the second theme, it indicated a key transformation from teacher-centered to learner-oriented in their lesson planning, as well as a shift from piecemeal profiles to a rather integrated insight into lesson planning. With respect to the third theme, it shed light on assessing the MSF and the trainees' practice. For example, before the MSF the participants only considered the overall teaching objective, but after the MSF, they learned to set specific objectives and align teaching and learning activities.

The above findings showed that all of the participants were aware of "integrating the declarative, procedural, and conditional aspects of their own knowledge about

lesson planning into their action as lesson planners, implementers, and evaluators" (p. 1370). Thus, the meta-cognitive strategy framework has a great possibility for developing TEFL teacher trainees' better consciousness of and involvement in planning lessons in the field of regulating objectives, procedures, outcomes, and assessments.

Mutton, Hagger, and Burn (2011) investigated what beginning teachers learned about planning and the development of their awareness regarding what planning could achieve. In their three-year longitudinal study in England, they used observation and semi-structured interviews to collect data from 36 student teachers majored in English, mathematics, and science during a one-year secondary Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) course and the followed first and second years of their teaching career. Finally, only 17 of the participants' data were complete and available. Data analysis showed that there were no significant differences between subject groups with regard to what and how they learned about planning.

Findings indicated that planning emerged dramatically as the most remarkable category in the PGCE year, among the various categories of beginning teachers' learning, such as planning, interactive teaching skills, management of lessons, teaching strategies, contextual knowledge, subject knowledge and assessment and monitoring, etc. Also, it kept a firm category in their first year of practicing teaching, and it proceeded to be the focus in the second year of the teaching of the most participants. Specifically, in the PFCE year, the participants recognized planning determines the effectiveness of teaching, and focused on how to design for students' needs in particular contexts, how to select different teaching strategies, how to plan for an overall coherence of a lesson, and how to plan for contingencies and be flexible. In the first and second year of teaching, they continued learning to how to plan, such as planning for meeting the specific needs and interests of students.

The above findings show that learning to plan is a characteristic of novice teachers' learning to grow in and beyond the PGCE year, which reveals that "it is through planning that teachers are able to learn about teaching and through teaching that they are able to learn about planning" (p. 413).

Uhrmacher, Conrad, and Moroye (2013) proposed a fresh approach, the perceptual modes, to creating and analyzing lesson planning, by examining analytically the behaviorist and constructivist modes of lesson planning. For the purpose of analyzing the behaviorist and constructivist modes of lesson planning, and comparing them with the perceptual mode, they employed an analytic framework comprises: intentions, process, product, and outcomes. In this framework, intentions refer to the aims, goals, or objectives of the lesson plan; the process refers to how the lesson plan is created and what the teacher experiences in the planning; product refers to the actual lessons that result from the planning; and outcomes refer to both the expected results of the mode and desired student learning outcomes.

Through analyzing and comparing, the findings illustrated that the perceptual lesson planning emphasizes the ways in which the lesson planning process itself can be innovated into a meaningful experience for both the teacher and the students. In other words, it may be "characterized as in and of itself; as consisting of various stylized products; and leading toward meaningful learning for students and teachers in an

environment open to elements of surprise and innovation" (p. 2). Therefore, this new mode of lesson planning has important enlightenment on TEFL teacher trainees.

As discussed above, TEFL teacher trainees experience various meaningful developments in learning to plan and teach. Yet, the lesson plan should not be regarded as a blueprint or an end product for classroom actions, but a description of the interaction between the teacher and students. Therefore, it is more important to note how teacher trainees put their lesson planning into practice in the classroom.

2.6.3.2 Advancement of classroom management

Classroom management is generally accepted as the key to the success of a classroom teaching (Scrivener, 2005). Effective instruction and learning can only take place in a well-managed and organized classroom. Thus, all teachers, particularly the trainees need to learn to create such a good environment in which effective learning and teaching can occur.

Ozkan (2011) investigated 60 TEFL student teachers' changes of their constructs of peers and self-presentation, classroom management and research skills after completing the *Teaching Language Skills* course and the one-semester practicum. 10 male and 50 female respondents in Turkey were involved in this study. Blogging in this course and interviews after the language teaching course and the 4-hour per week practicum in one semester were used to collect data.

Data comparison between the pre-practicum and the post-practicum revealed that all themes were concerned with classroom management, and a considerable shift emerged in the informants' constructs. Before the practicum, they focused mainly on activity and materials, but they centered on the smooth lesson delivery after the practicum. The researcher argued that the chief reason for their construct shift was that they were deeply influenced by their mentors in the practicum; also, peers and self-presentation, and self-study affected them to some extent. However, as the participants mentioned in this study, more techniques such as reflective journals and diaries should be employed to better understand the changes of student teachers' constructs as well as their classroom management strategies.

Quintero and Ramírez (2011) explored five Colombian TEFL teacher trainees' discipline-related challenges and their strategies in dealing with these problems in their two-semester practicum. The researchers conducted an action research methodology, played their roles as non-participant observer in the study, and used observations, interviews, journals, focus groups, video/audio taping, transcriptions and documentary analysis to collect data. The participants reported that the indiscipline in EFL classes was due to heterogeneous groups with different language levels and ages, lack of academic interest (students did not value English in their study and future careers), affective factors of single-parent family, parental neglect of the children's study, and unfulfilled educational policies.

In coping with these problems, trainees attempted to build a rapport with students and seek support from them through person-to-person communication. Besides, they laid emphasis on lesson planning, aiming at the students' interest, engagement, and needs. So, trainees tended to highlight greatly the following strategies: 1) Giving clear

explanations for given exercises; 2) Making instructions clear and giving them before grouping students; 3) Organizing lessons in a sequence so that students know the steps to follow; 4) Keeping learners busy, always giving them something to do within the allotted time; 5) Managing time wisely; 6) Including and preparing attractive materials; 7) Stating rules for class procedures and activities, emphasizing the consequences for breaking rules; 8) Giving the students responsibilities; 9) Changing activities frequently; 10) Monitoring students walking around the classroom; 11) Respecting differences among learners, always taking into account their background and learning paces and styles; 12) Integrating language skills (Quintero & Ramírez, 2011, p. 68-69). The findings found that the participants improved their ability to cope with indiscipline in class as well as reflection and decision-making competencies.

However, the discipline problem cannot be eliminated easily and entirely, due to the complexity of teaching and diversity of the students in the class. Therefore, the pre-service teacher education program shoulders the responsibility for cultivating and facilitating teacher trainees' ability to identify the discipline issues and manage them so as to create a good environment for more effective teaching.

Ragawanti (2015) studied TEFL student teachers' problems of classroom management. Ten participants involved in this study were from an Indonesian University, who were conducting a six-time-teaching in their three-month practicum in schools. Their after-class journals were used to collect data and the journal entries were analyzed. Findings showed that the participants' problems in managing a classroom, ordered high to low of emergence were respectively managing critical moments (38,3%), activity (29,7%), techniques (14,9%), grouping and seating (8,5%), authority (8,5%), tools (8,5%), and working with people (4,25%).

Through analyzing the participants' journal entries, the researcher found that respondents improved their classroom management skills in the practicum. For example, in managing critical moments, the participants learned to be calm and patient in coping with students' noise in class. Also, they learned to manage teaching activities and promote students' learning interest and engagement by using pictures, PPT slides, videos, and things are concerned with students' life and background. Besides, for the management of teaching techniques, they realized that they spoke too fast that students could hardly understand, and were aware of improving the communication and interaction with students. Therefore, through writing reflective journals after class, trainees learned to review their teaching episodes, identify the indiscipline problems in class, and manage them effectively.

However, the qualitative study with only the analysis of the participants' journal entries cannot fully uncover the intricacy of the teaching process and its management in the classroom.

2.6.3.3 Improvement of assessment of students' learning

It is well known that assessment plays a vital part in catching students' attention in class, diagnosing their learning performance, providing feedback, grading their academic achievement, and motivating their learning. Here, what and how TEFL trainees assess students' learning in the practicum are discussed.

Alkhawaldeh (2008) investigated 78 TEFL trainees' accomplishments through their one-semester practicum courses. In this study, 14 male and 64 female trainees from Jordan answered an open questionnaire about their various achievements. In terms of assessing students' learning of English, findings showed that trainees stated assessing students' learning was important for examining the fulfillment of teaching objectives as well as students' learning outcomes. They emphasized formative and summative evaluation, employing numerous methods in evaluating students' learning. The assessment methods encompassed students' engagement in class activities, quizzes, assignments, weekly and monthly tests, etc. Therefore, the practicum influences trainees' awareness and competencies in assessing students' learning.

However, this study does not reveal how these participants assessed students' learning in specific spheres of EFL areas. Hence, an insight into what and how trainees assess students' learning in these areas is needed.

In this section, three aspects of teaching behaviors, namely lesson planning, classroom management and assessment of students, have been reviewed by empirical studies and theoretical analysis. As discussed above, TEFL teacher trainees experience a wide range of developments of teaching behaviors in the practicum, and related theoretical analysis was introduced. These findings reveal and suggest that trainees make decisions and conduct actions in their teaching behaviors. In order to make the teaching and learning more effective, they turn to be more conscious of their intentions, creativity, and flexibility in preparing for and getting along with the students. In brief, the practicum has a crucial impact on teacher trainees' teaching behaviors.

2.6.4 Development of TEFL trainees' reflective practice

Reflective practice traces back to Dewey's (1933, p. 118) concept of reflection as "an active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds supporting it and future conclusions to which it tends". Schön (1983, 1987) further developed the rationale of reflection. He formulated terms of "reflective activity", "reflective practice", and "reflection-in-action". Reflective activity and reflective practice mean teachers take their teaching activity as the object of reflection. "In 'reflection-in-action', doing and thinking are complementary; each feeds the other" (Schön, 1983, p. 280). He argued that through reflecting on and in their professional practice and engaging in the process of continuous learning, teachers can improve their teaching. Through these conscious reflections on their actions, experiences, emotions, and responses, teachers can add them to their prior knowledge base and approach to an upper level of understanding (Paterson & Chapman, 2013). The importance of the reflective practice of trainees has already attracted many researchers' interest and is a crucial branch of teacher education. Developing reflective ability means helping teacher trainees think about their experiences, analyze their beliefs, values or knowledge in relation to these experiences and consider options or alternatives for action (Ferraro, 2000).

Kocoglu, Akyel, and Ercetin (2008) examined the influence of portfolio on the development of five TEFL trainees' reflective thinking ability from a Turkish university. The researchers used five pen/paper and ten electronic portfolios with

around 80 entries and semi-structured interviews to collect data. All participants were required to write the class reflection on classroom observation, evaluation papers and narratives of everyday events.

The findings of this study showed that the pen/paper portfolio development process improved student teachers' reflective skills. In the beginning, the respondents used only descriptive writing for reflecting on classroom observation and learning environment without any comment. Later, they used dialogic reflection to examine what they learned from their teaching performances by reflecting on their teaching approaches and selection of resources and tasks. In the end, they moved to critical reflection, through which they related their mentor's teaching methods to the creation of social nature in their own teaching in the future. For example, one respondent stated that teachers should be cautious when correcting students, and avoid discouraging them.

Also, the findings indicated that the pen/paper portfolio development process facilitated trainees to bridge theory and practice. For example, one informant claimed that the reflection helped him think about the theories he learned in the teacher training program, and organize them in thoughts and actions during his teaching practice. Furthermore, the findings also verify Shulman's view that portfolios can witness the evolution of learning and instruction over time and offer prospective teacher opportunities to review their practices (1992).

A further insight into TEFL teacher trainees' reflective practice in the practicum was provided by a similar study by Rass (2014), who examined six Arab-Muslim female TEFL student teachers' reflective abilities in their practicum in Israel. During the practicum, they were required to teach a lesson every week, observe two lessons, and fill in observation sheets of lessons delivered by their mentors or by other student teachers. Qualitative data sources were from the lesson plan sheets and observation notes of the student teachers, questionnaires, interviews, and videotaped lessons. All these data were grouped by theme.

The findings showed that the six student teachers demonstrated improvement in their reflective skills. Some of them "started to develop a journey of self-learning and self-discovery as a result of the constant attempt to reflect on their performance" (Rass, 2014, p. 10). For example, all of them reported that writing reflective journals were useful for profound thinking about and better understanding the lesson. In the self-reflection in the lesson plan, some of them described the importance of being creative, which indicated that "they started to think reflectively about their teaching performance and the need to improve it" (Rass, 2014, p. 7). Also, some of them learned to move from teacher-oriented teaching to learner-centered instruction by taking students' need into account in their lesson plan and motivating the pupils. For example, some respondents reported the significance of meeting the demands of students by selecting proper activities and preparing alternative tasks for giving good classes. They adopted various methods of group work, games, and movie segment to motivate students' curiosity, and were content with their techniques in instructing vocabulary, listening and reading.

Nevertheless, the statistical analysis was not conducted due to the very small number of participants in this study, and the factors that affect student teachers'

reflective practice need to be further explored. Thus, following up investigation with quantitative research methods in diversified culture contexts would be promising in examining student teachers' reflective practice throughout their professional development.

In addition to the above small sample qualitative studies regarding TEFL teacher trainees' reflective practice, Huang and Zhang (2015) used a quantitative method to investigate TEFL trainees' reflection on practicum from eight dimensions: practice, cognition, affection, meta-cognition, criticism, morality, classroom environment, and reflection efficiency. 240 TEFL student teachers from one Chinese university constituted the participants. Among them, 118 student teachers engaged in this study, during their two-month practicum in a key middle school in the same city as the university located. The researchers used a questionnaire to collect data. The body part of the questionnaire constituted the aforementioned 8 categories with 38 items, each item with a 5-point Likert Scale. The findings showed that these participants' reflective abilities were at an intermediate level. In specific, the participants frequently focused on reflection on morality, and next were affection, meta-cognition and practice, and coming up classroom management and effectiveness of reflection. The least frequent aspects were criticism and cognition.

The findings indicated that the participants mainly highlighted their specific teaching behaviors, emotional experience, and values in reflection, and put less attention to the underlying cognition of behaviors and affections. The researchers argued that the practicum is a new experience for student teachers. Through the practicum, they can observe their mentor's teaching methods and styles, and participate in the classroom teaching by themselves. Thus, they have to reflect on and learn from both their mentors' and their own teaching, which means they focus more on the specific teaching activities and their emotional experience from observation and instruction. The findings in this study can be applied across various subjects of teachers. However, the findings do not address in-depth the features of the TEFL trainees' instructional and reflective practices.

In this section, these studies regarding TEFL trainees' reflective practice highlight the complex nature as well as the complicated processes of the real classroom instruction in trainees' practice teaching. Some conclusions can be identified from these studies on TEFL student teachers' reflective practice in the practicum.

First, all respondents in these studies focused on their teaching strategies and skills, as well as their individual performance in the field teaching, which indicates that they had strong desire to be accepted and 'survive' in the practicum; also, they were very conscious of developing their general pedagogical knowledge.

Second, with regard to reflection on their knowledge of learners, TEFL student teachers commonly tended to shift their teacher-centered classroom to student-centered learning and teaching environment; also, they learned to take students' learning interest and realities into the account of lesson plans and to motivate students through various methods.

Third, through the practicum, TEFL student teachers learnt to reflect on their teaching experience comprehensively by writing reflective journals about classroom

observation, lesson plans, and their own teaching; they realized the difference between their theories learnt in teacher education courses and the practice in a real classroom and exerted to find out the underlying reasons as well as effective methods to fill this gap, which is supposed to be one of the most important developments in their practicum.

Apart from the above beneficial improvements, TEFL teacher trainees' developments in these studies are relatively general, neglecting their knowledge of teaching and learning EFL in specific areas. Hence, trainees' knowledge base for teaching, namely pedagogical content knowledge is still missing to some degree, for relevant studies have not uncovered their knowledge about transforming the topic-specific content of EFL into forms more comprehensible to students.

As what has been reviewed above in this paper demonstrates, various thematic areas, multiple research methods, and diversified cultural contexts were involved in an array of studies. Also, findings in the studies revealed that TEFL trainees developed extensively in terms of beliefs, teacher knowledge, teaching behaviors and reflective practice in the practicum. All the studies discussed the report that the practicum has a crucial impact on teacher trainees' development; in particular, they experience the development of instructional skills, knowledge of learners, reflective abilities, and beliefs to a great extent. Through reviewing these studies, some inadequacies have been identified which need to be further studied.

With regard to research methods, mainly qualitative research methods were employed, such as interviews, classroom observation, trainees' journals, etc. As for samples, almost small cohorts of participants were involved in the studies. Thus, it would be important to collect data from larger samples with quantitative methods so as to get a more generalized picture of TEFL trainees' development in the practicum.

With respect to the thematic research areas, most of these studies have paid much attention to TEFL trainees' general development of teaching and learning in the practicum. Thus, trainees' knowledge about specific areas of EFL teaching and learning in the practicum still remains underexplored. In other words, we still know little about their knowledge of teaching certain domains of EFL areas. Also, we lack knowledge about their learning from teaching these specific facets of EFL. Furthermore, the relation between their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge is still scarce.

Therefore, teacher trainees' knowledge about some specific EFL areas and the teaching of them merit further attention. Through these endeavors, we can better understand what they develop in the practicum, and support their transition from practice teaching to practicing teaching, as well as provide a reference for improving pre-service TEFL teacher education.

2.7 Development of TEFL Teachers from Pre- to In-service

Teacher professional development is a continuing and dynamic process through the entire progression of a teacher's teaching career (Lin, Shen, & Xin, 1999). Fessler (1985) proposed a model for teacher professional growth and development from pre-service to in-service and to career exit, in particular, including "pre-service, induction,

competency building, enthusiastic and growing, career frustration, stable and stagnant, career wind-down, and career exit" (pp. 181-193). There is no doubt that teacher knowledge plays a vital role in teacher professional development either in initial teacher preparation or in-service teacher training. It is the same case for subject-specific teacher education. As Richards (1998) coined, English teachers need to experience phases of systematic learning of theory, sophisticated practices of skills, scientific self-reflection, and conscious scientific research, so that they can become mature teachers. But what do TEFL teachers learn and develop from pre-service to in-service? What are the objectives of pre-service teacher preparation? What are the objectives of in-service teacher training? What is known about TEFL trainees' and teachers' domain-specific knowledge of English areas (e.g., writing)? What change or improvement do they experience in knowledge of writing from being a prospective teacher to working as an English teacher? In this section, an insight into studies on these questions will be discussed below.

It is widely accepted that declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge comprise the knowledge base of teachers. The integration of these knowledge base contributes to the effectiveness of classroom instruction as well as teachers' learning and professional development. Tracing back, Schulman (1987) proposed the conceptual framework of teacher knowledge base for teaching: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values and their philosophical and historical grounds (p. 8). Schulman's framework of teacher knowledge is a cornerstone of teacher education. Research has shown that teacher trainees' knowledge of theories and principles of learning and instruction, content, curriculum, students' mastery and application of knowledge, are main concerns of initial teacher training programs (e.g., Aggarwal, 1999; Cooper, 2003; Moore, 2003).

In the teaching of English as a second language, Johnson (2009) considered the knowledge base for ESL teacher education programs to be three broad domains: (1) the content of ESL teacher education programs: What ESL teachers need to know; (2) the pedagogies that taught in ESL teacher education programs: How ESL teachers should teach; and (3) the institutional forms of delivery through which both the content and pedagogies are learned: How ESL teachers learn to teach (p. 11). These areas, therefore, are objectives of ESL teacher education programs. Also, they can be viewed as a knowledge base of EFL teacher education programs. Undoubtedly, the above mentioned areas, especially the content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are also conducive to in-service TEFL teacher training; for example, to help teachers to learn about their problems, to employing more effective methods of teaching, and to upgrading teacher knowledge and understanding of the contents (Vijayalakshmi, 2016).

With regard to the knowledge base for teaching a language, what do pre-service teachers and in-service teachers consider to be essential for effective language instruction? Kourieos (2014) employed a mixed-method sequential approach to explore both pre- and in-service TEFL teachers' perceptions the knowledge base for effective language teaching in primary schools. She found from both cohorts' viewpoints that

subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are necessary for the effectiveness of language instruction. However, Raya (2001) proposed that teachers' pedagogical content knowledge develops over time instead of being obtained through formal education, which implies that teachers acquire instructional skills in a lifelong learning process.

Then what changes or development do TEFL teachers experience in their learning process shift from pre- to in-service? Two decades ago, in her literature review of professional growth among pre-service and beginning teachers, Kagan (1992) summarized that, from pre-service to first-year teaching, beginning teachers mainly improved in three aspects: (1) knowledge of learners; (2) ability to employ such knowledge to adjust and rebuild their teacher identity; and (3) skills in classroom management and instruction. Twenty years later, Wright (2012) reported that learning to manage the classroom is one of the priorities among novice teachers' learning activities after entering the teaching profession. Also, Farrell (2012) pointed out that novice teachers could improve skills in reflection for action during their first years of teaching. These findings underlined the importance of continuing support to pre-service and novice teachers.

Gu (2013) examined six secondary school TEFL teachers' experiences from the practicum teaching as student teachers through their first years of teaching as novice teachers in Hong Kong, China. She conducted a longitudinal research on these teachers' construction of professional identity from being a pre-service teacher to working as beginning teachers. She found that these teachers established authority in the classroom, negotiated between ideal and reality due to their recognition of the contradiction between reality and their expectations, aligned with the school culture as compliance, and made a commitment to teaching in Hong Kong. Also, she reported that these teachers as trainees held positive opinions toward teacher-student relationships, lesson design and the teaching context, while they went through the negotiation of teaching community after starting their teaching profession. These teachers learned to be more flexible in classroom instruction and improved skills in classroom management as well as developed their relations with stakeholders at their workplace.

However, pre-service teacher preparation and in-service teacher training in China are basically two disjointed systems with minimal exchange of information between them (Liu & Fu, 2014). Stakeholders have understood this problem but no efficient solutions have been proposed. Relevant research has been published but it mainly employed speculative methods relied little on evidence in discussing the possibility of integrated pre-service and in-service teacher education (e.g., Li, 2010; Wang & Xiao, 2010; Wei, 2009). Yet, prior studies haven't revealed what changes teachers experience from pre-service education through in-service training.

In conclusion, research has paid some attention to TEFL teachers' cognition, teaching behaviors, and identity from the perspective of seeing teacher professional development as a continuous process from pre- to in-service. However, TEFL teachers' domain-specific knowledge of English is missing out on the literature. We still know very little about changes or improvement of TEFL teachers' knowledge in writing, e.g.,

their assessment of student text. Thus, it is worth effort to looking into TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge about writing.

2.8 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the fundamental concepts of writing and its development through the history as well as the multidimensional understanding of writing from the perspective of writing as process and product. Also, I have summarized the normally used teaching paradigms, strategies, and approaches in the teaching of writing as well as motivational factors regarding writing instruction. Besides I have also reviewed research concerned with teachers' practice of assessment of writing and giving feedback on student writing. In addition, I have put much energy into understanding the development of TEFL trainees in the practicum and found that they experience a wide range of improvement through their practice teaching. Last but not least, I have discussed the development of TEFL teachers from pre-service to in-service.

The literature review revealed that TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing does not get much attention, and the improvement of their knowledge from pre-service to in-service is rarely researched. Learning about teachers' knowledge through different professional stages could support the teacher training processes by providing evidence for shaping the curriculum. The current chapter has laid a solid foundation for my dissertation study and provided a strong theoretical background as well as convincing evidence for my project. Specifically, it has made clear the research niche and relevant research questions for my work and given references for the research methodologies, such as the development of research instruments.

Part III Cultural Background

3.1 Introduction

The practices of learning and instruction take place in specific cultural contexts and are widely affected by the educational policies, culture-bound conventions, etc. In particular, the teaching of EFL, especially writing, in China is deeply influenced by EFL curriculum standards, descriptors for writing skill objectives, as well as the efficiency of pre- and in-service teacher training. In this chapter, the profiles of these background conditions in mainland China will be presented.

3.2 Curriculum and Instruction of EFL in China

3.2.1 EFL curriculum in Chinese schools

English has become the major foreign language in education four decades ago after a three-decade hiatus in the early PRC (People' Republic of China). English classes have begun in secondary schools in the early 1980s and started in primary schools in 1990s. In 1992, the State Education Commission issued the Curriculum Regulation for whole-day primary junior high schools of nine-year compulsory education, according to which qualified primary schools can have English courses as an addition to other courses. In 2001, the Ministry of Education issued the Experimental Plan on the curriculum of compulsory education, which formally put the English courses into the curriculum of primary schools and stipulated that from the 3rd grade the students should take English courses. Recently, in some provinces or cities, such as Beijing, Shanghai, from the 1st grade in the primary schools, students began to take English classes. According to the curriculum issued by the State Education Ministry, the time of English classes from the 3rd grade in primary schools to the last year of junior middle schools (grade 9) should be 6-8% of that for all the classes (Huang, 2017).

In 2011, China has initiated the new English curriculum for primary schools and junior and senior middle schools (MOE of China, 2011) (translated by Martin). Here, the nature of the New Curriculum, general objectives and Level Descriptors are introduced.

The Nature of the New Curriculum

The new English curriculum strives to accomplish far more than just help students learn English. At one level learning English should involve helping students to:

– Develop a certain level of comprehensive language competence and the ability to use language for real communication
– Master certain basic language knowledge
– Master listening, speaking, reading and writing skills

However, at another level the curriculum should also serve students' all-round development, providing them with opportunities to:

– Strengthen their interest in studying English

- Grow in self-discipline, perseverance, and self-confidence
- Improve their cooperative, investigative and thinking abilities
- Develop their memory, imagination, and creativity
- Adopt good study habits and effective learning strategies
- Develop as autonomous and lifelong learners
- Build moral integrity and a healthy outlook on life
- Establish both national spirit and an awareness of and respect for cultural differences
- Broaden their horizons and enrich their life experience
- Take part in cultural life
- Develop as individuals

The general curriculum objectives

The fundamental aim of the new English curriculum is to develop students' comprehensive language competence. This aim is broken down into five general objectives. These objectives are then divided into nine ability levels with descriptors provided for each level. The five general objectives are:
- Language Skills
- Language Knowledge
- Attitudes to Learning
- Learning Strategies
- Cultural Awareness

This design allows students to progress systematically through each level whilst meeting the full range of the curriculum's demands. The correspondence between the level system and the grade system is shown in Table 3.

Table 3   *The Levels and the Grades*

Primary School	Work towards:	Notes
Grade 3	Level 1	Students should start studying English in Grade 3
Grade 4	Level 1	
Grade 5	Level 2	
Grade 6	Level 2	The required standard for the end of primary school
Junior Middle School	**Work towards:**	**Notes**
Grade 7 (= Junior 1)	Level 3	
Grade 8 (= Junior 2)	Level 4	
Grade 9 (= Junior 3)	Level 5	The required standard for the end of junior middle school
Senior Middle School	**Work towards:**	**Notes**
Senior 1 Grade10	Level 6	
Senior 2 Grade11	Level 7	The required standard for senior middle school graduation
Senior 3 Grade12	Level 8	
	Level 9	An extension level for specialist schools and able students

Descriptors of levels

The overall descriptors for comprehensive language competence for Levels 1 to 9 are shown in Appendix C. They give very specific requirements for each level. The descriptors also present a combination of all five general objectives outlined above.

3.2.2 EFL instruction in Chinese schools

The new curriculum has provided corresponding suggestions for teaching and learning of English, including laying the groundwork for students' all-round and lifelong development, creating a relaxed, democratic and harmonious learning environment, using task-based learning methods to promote students comprehensive language competence, providing increased guidance about learning strategies, developing students' awareness of and ability in cross-cultural communication, using modern teaching technology and expand learning opportunities, organizing lively and active extracurricular activities to promote students' English learning, continuing to develop professionally, and following high frequency principles to ensure effective teaching and learning (MOE of China, 2011).

Length of English education in schools

English learning in China has been considered as the course with the longest schooling, most hours, and highest burden. One has to study English for at least 10 years through primary school to senior middle school. The years of learning English and hours of English lessons per week are shown in Table 4.

Table 4   *Years of Learning English and Hours of English Lessons per Week*

Level of school	Length of English course (years)	Hours of English lessons per week
Primary school	4 (grade 3-6)	4
Junior middle school	3 (grade 7-9)	5
Senior middle school	3 (grade 10-12)	5

Large class size with worrisome effect

Statistics show that over 60% of primary school teachers teach in a class with excessive 50 students, and 90% of secondary school teachers with more than 40 students (Mei, 2004). One can imagine the effectiveness of the learning and instruction of English in such cases.

Exam-driven English education

Due to the huge population but limited and imbalanced distribution of educational resources, almost all stakeholders take passing exams and earning good achievements as the main objective of teaching and learning. Among various exams, the university entrance test ("gaokao") is the most important one which determines what university students can go to. Undoubtedly, the exam-oriented pattern of English education has a severe negative impact on the normal learning and instruction. For example, many schools and teachers only attach importance on reading and writing but ignore listening and speaking because they blindly pursue the proportion of enrollment by universities or a higher level of school (Li, 2011). Meanwhile, students primarily aim to pass exams by reciting vocabulary, doing exercises, and grasping all kinds of exam skills. Indeed, students can get higher marks in exams but miss out on basic communicative

competence (Bai, 2005). Therefore, it has become a common phenomenon that students get high scores but with low abilities especially with the poor productive capability (Chen, 2008).

3.2.3 EFL exams in Chinese schools

Assessment and evaluation is an important component of the new curriculum. Assessment should be carried out according to the requirements of the curriculum standards, focusing not only on the results but also the process of learning. The primary purposes of assessment are to:

- Let students continuously experience progress and success during the learning process
- Let students know their own progress and build confidence
- Promote all aspects of students' comprehensive language competence
- Provide the teacher with feedback on the teaching and learning process
- Help the teacher reflect on their own teaching practice and adjust it accordingly
- Help the teacher continuously improve the quality of their teaching
- Provide the school with prompt feedback on the implementation of the curriculum
- Help improve educational management
- Inform the ongoing development and perfection of the new English curriculum

The assessment system should diversify both the subjects and forms of assessment. Assessment should focus on students' comprehensive language competence, combining both formative assessment (concentrating on the study process) and summative assessment (concentrating on the learning outcomes). Therefore, the new curriculum suggests that teachers ensure that students are the subjects (not objects) of assessment, make sure formative assessment plays a role in student development, make sure assessment methods are varied and flexible, make sure assessment feedback is used to increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning, summative assessment should focus on checking students' comprehensive language competence, pay attention to the relationship between assessment and teaching and learning, the assessment of each level should be founded on the general objectives (MOE of China, 2011).

In China, as mentioned above, the model of teaching in basic education is basically examination-oriented education, including College Entrance Examination, Entrance Examination for Secondary School, etc., and English teaching is also inevitably serving to examinations, mainly testing students' English knowledge, such as vocabulary and grammar, and reading ability, rather than their comprehensive ability of English listening, speaking, reading and writing (Chen, 2008).

In order to get an overview of what a typical English exam looks like in China, here the English Test Paper of University Entrance Examination in Chongqing Municipality (2016) is taken as an example. The structure, task types, point values, etc. are shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5   *An Example of English Test Paper in China (From Dan, 2017)*

Structure	Task types	Range of marks	Total marks
Part I Listening comprehension	Dialogues	5*1.5=7.5	30
	Conversations	15*1.5=22.5	
Part II Reading comprehension	Multiple choices	20*2=40	40
Part III Cloze	Multiple choices	30*1.5=45	45
Part IV Writing	Proofreading	10	35
	Composition	25	
In total: 150 points			

3.3 EFL Writing and Writing Instruction in China

3.3.1 EFL writing course in Chinese schools

As mentioned earlier, graduates from primary school need to reach level 2, grade nine students need to reach level 5, and those who expect to graduate from senior middle school need to reach level 7. Accordingly, the detailed descriptors for Levels 2, 5 and 7 of each of writing skill objectives are presented in Table 6.

Table 6   *Descriptors for Writing Skills for Level 2, 5, and 7 (From MoE of China, 2011)*

Level	Descriptors for Writing Skills
7	Students can: – Write simple descriptions of people or things according to prompts given in pictures or tables – Write frequently-used genres, such as reports, letters, etc. – Describe people or things and express personal opinions – Fill out forms, e.g., general application forms, job application forms, etc. – Conduct simple written translation
5	Students can: – Gather and organize material according to the purpose of the writing – Draft short letters and passages independently, editing them with the teacher's guidance – Use common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing – Write simple descriptions of people or things – Write simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables
2	Students can: – Copy example sentences – Write simple greetings – Write short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects – Use capitalization and punctuation with basic accuracy

3.3.2 EFL writing instruction in Chinese schools

A survey has shown that most students have basically one English lesson every day (Wang & Fu, 2011). With respect to the teaching of writing, the majority of teachers have no choice but to be teacher-oriented in the classroom by using spoon-feeding pedagogy due to the stress of examinations. Generally, teachers spend three-quarters of

a writing lesson explaining model essays and commenting, but students have very limited time practice in class. The teaching of writing aims to involve students in practicing and mastering the vocabulary and grammar they have learned and testing of writing mainly examine students' correct use of vocabulary and grammar. The teaching and learning of writing are still far from being an activity of improving expression and communication (Wang & Fu, 2011).

A typical writing lesson consists of the following procedures: teaching words and phrases, asking students to read the relevant essay before their writing, organizing brainstorming toward the given topic, arranging students to writing, reading aloud good student text to the whole class, pointing out common errors in student texts. The teaching process reflects that teachers emphasize pre- and post-writing but neglect student while-writing (Wang & Fu, 2011).

3.3.3 EFL writing test in Chinese schools

China is well known for its high-stake examinations. All levels of entrance exams have great influence on learning and instruction, guiding and driving teachers, students, as well as parents. In terms of the writing part in various English tests, it is normally based on the New Curriculum Standards with specific requirements for corresponding levels. Again, one can get a basic profile of how the writing part looks like from the example of any university entrance examination paper. The writing part mainly examines students' written expression ability, requiring students to write an essay based on the given title about 120 words within 25 minutes (cf., Dan, 2017).

Students are supposed to be able to write an abstract, report, notice, and letters in English; to describe a situation, attitude, or emotion in detail and vividness; to elaborate person opinions and comment on others' views with appropriate genres and correct vocabulary; to properly cite materials or others' words and expressions; to fill in all kinds of forms, individual curriculum vitae, and applications with appropriate language; to write different genres properly with appropriate content; to achieve writing tasks with coherence, precise structure, correct grammar, and appropriate language.

Accordingly, the scoring criteria focus on task achievement, varieties of grammar and vocabulary, the correctness of grammar and vocabulary, and cohesive devices.

3.4 TEFL Teacher Education in China

3.4.1 Teacher education in general

In addition to outlining central curriculum regulations and assessment, the dissertation also introduces the characteristics of TEFL teacher education programs in China. Teacher education in China aims to cultivate teachers for kindergartens, elementary and secondary schools, with a history of over 100 years and a great deal of successful experience as well as typical characteristics of curriculum, generally composed of Public Basic Courses, Subject Specialized Courses, and Educational courses. From September 2015, both normal education students and non-normal education students have to take Teacher Certification Exam so that they can get the Teacher Certification, then candidates have to take the teachers' post exams for winning a position so that

they can teach in schools. The structure of teacher education in China and overview of teacher education curriculum are summarized and shown respectively in Figure 3 & Figure 4.

Abbreviations:

BA: bachelor's degree in arts
BEK: basic educational knowledge
CQ: comprehensive quality
CS: curriculum setting
DP: diploma
EC: educational courses
EKA: educational knowledge and ability
FNES: free normal education students
GR: grade
GST: general subject teachers
INT: interview
JHS: junior high school

NNS: non-normal students
PBC: public basic courses
PS: primary school
SHS: senior high school
SMK: subject matter knowledge
SSC: subject specialized courses
TCE: teacher certification exam
TL: training levels
TPE: teacher-post exam
TT: trial teaching
VAT: vocational aptitude test
Y: year
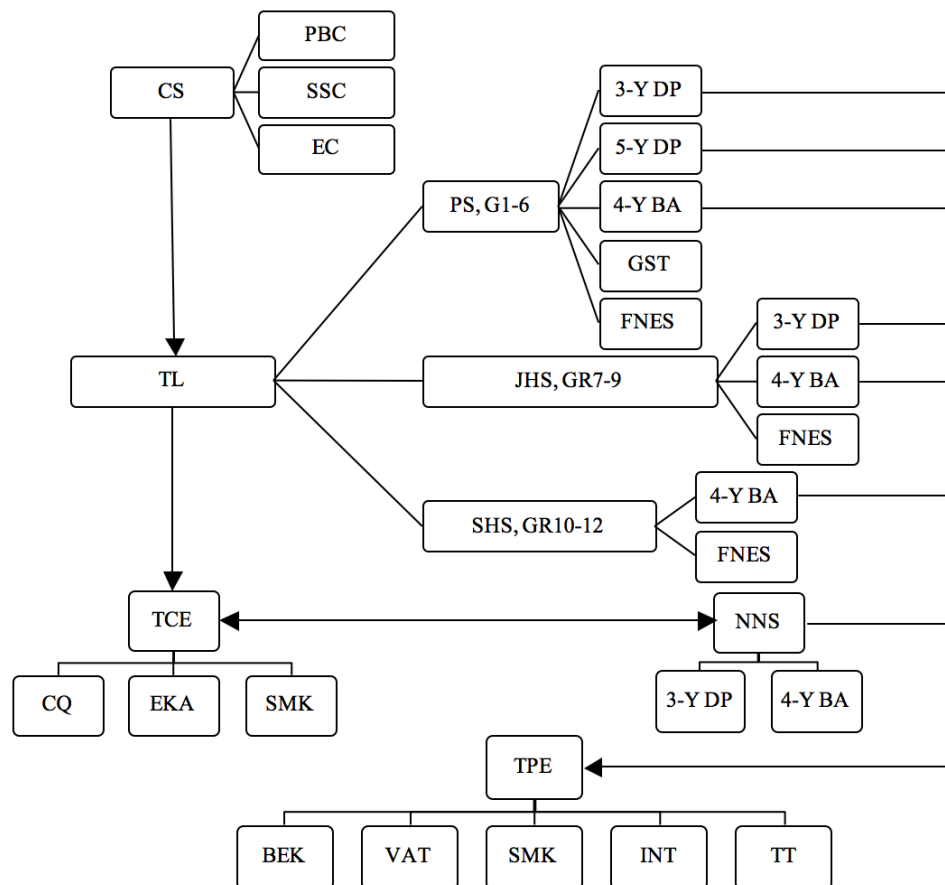
Figure 3   The structure of teacher education in China

Notes:
(1)   the practicum is contained in CS, with a period of 18 weeks;
(2)   1credit equals 18 class-hour studies;
(3)   all students get the Teacher Certification after passing the Teacher Certification Exam;
(4)   GST and FNES are tailor-made students for their post-graduation posts;
(5)   other students (including NNS) have to take TPE after they get teacher certification, and the5-Y DPs can only apply for PS posts exam, and the 3-Y DPs can apply for both PS and JHS posts.
(6)   the 5-Y DP is a program for graduates of JHS, 3Y study in secondary vocational schools and 2Y at a university.
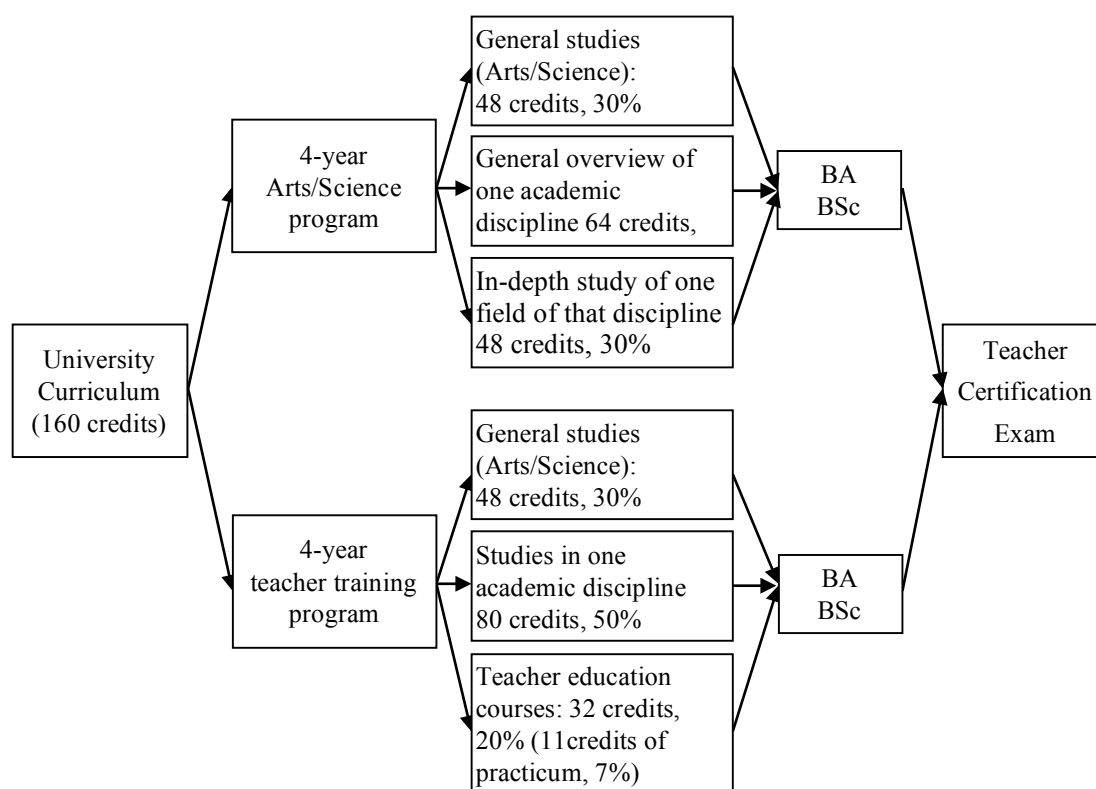
Figure 4 An overview of Teacher Education Curriculum in China (2012-2015)

The pre-service teacher education in China "has typically been characterized by its subject-centered emphasis, theory-laden orientation, and centralized state management" (Lo, 2008), and there has been a disjunction between university education and primary and secondary teaching (Si, Yang, & Wang, 2012; Wang & Clarke, 2014), and knowledge of principle of education and methods are detached from practice (Qu, 2012), resulting in trainee teachers unqualified for teaching and researching in basic education (Si et al., 2012), because of the significant gap between theory and practice, and trainee teachers "confronted reality shock" (Gan, 2013).

3.4.2 Pre-service TEFL teacher education

The pre-service EFL teacher education in China has also been exposed to similar situations and problems, glancing through the cultivation objectives and curriculum settings of some key normal universities and foreign studies universities, typical institutions for fostering prospective teachers for Chinese basic education, a conclusion can be drawn that general education and theory are emphasized, professional education, practice and technical ability are neglected.

Based on eleven normal universities, Zou (2009) found that emphasis was generally put on English language and skills and liberal education and general education, accounting respectively for 65% and 31% of the total credits, and teachers' professional knowledge and ability and practicum were severely neglected, with only 4% of the whole credits and just a two-month short practicum.

Zou (2009) investigated the causes for poor quality in English teaching in basic education, through qualitative analysis on contents of interview and quantitative

analysis on structure of curriculum, found a low level of professionalism of EFL teachers in basic education in China, and teachers were deficient in subject knowledge and identifying students' development of language and effective teaching, which was caused by the low professionalism of teacher educators, severely unreasonable curriculum setting in pre-service education and a nominal practicum.

He (2015) had a relevant survey, focusing on two local normal universities, which was designed to investigate the setting of educational curriculum of English Education Majors, which is generally composed of three modules of Liberal Education Curriculum, Subject Specialized Courses and Teacher Education Courses, e.g., Education, Psychology, Subject Teaching Approaches, etc. The results revealed that there were still unreasonable and imbalanced structures of educational curriculum, namely, Liberal Education Curriculum and Subject Specialized Courses accounted for 78% at these two universities, but Teacher Education courses only took respectively a less portion of 9% and 10%, and some contents of the courses were general and vacuous, and educational authorities and students took no account of practicum.

Lv & Dong (2010) made a quantitative analysis on student teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, discovered that they were far from competent for teaching because of lack of knowledge of learners and deficiency of topic-specific knowledge.

And using notes of observation, interview, reflection and relevant teaching plans, based on case study, Yang (2014) explored the problems in pre-service EFL teacher education in China. She found that "the curriculum emphasized mainly on theoretical explanation and lacked annotation of actual classroom teaching, and teacher trainees seldom had opportunities to experience teaching in classroom, but perceived teaching through superficial and external observation, and because they had no idea about how to put the theories and teaching methods they learnt into teaching practice, resulted in their deficiency in teaching".

Taking the above into consideration, we may draw a clear conclusion that there are noticeable problems both in the curriculum and practicum in Chinese pre-service EFL teacher education, particularly teacher trainees lack teaching opportunities and ability not only for teaching English in general but also in teaching reading and writing.

3.4.3 In-service TEFL teacher education

In China, the in-service teacher training has long been underemphasized. The ministry of education and the ministry of finance, however, have initiated a joint National Primary and Secondary School Teacher Training Program since 2010, short for the national training plan. The national training plan aims to implement the National Outline for Medium- and Long-Term Educational Reform and Development (2010-2020), focusing mainly on training teachers in rural areas, so as to improve the overall quality of the competence of primary and secondary school teachers as well as to facilitate the balanced development of compulsory education and equity of education.

The specific implementation of the national training plan is organized by each province, in particular, carried out at universities with generally similar programs. For instance, here is an example of such training in one of the northern provinces (cf., Liu & Li, 2013). It was a program that aimed at training key English teachers in rural

schools. The program included 120 hours of various training tasks and activities within 20 days. The training content covered professional concept, subject matter knowledge, instructional skills, and teaching practice.

The courses regarding professional concept mainly employed lectures on special topics, targeting teachers' puzzles in their teaching. The courses addressed mainly English syllabus, intention and realization of teacher professional development, problems and solutions to professionalism, teachers' professional ethics, western culture, the relationship between language and thinking, and the main instructional theories and their development in the west.

Guidance by famous teachers and symposium were the main teaching modes related to the training of subject matter knowledge and instructional skills. With regard to the former, correcting teachers' pronunciation, introducing classroom spoken English, etc. were the main concerns; and in the case of the latter, it primarily addressed the analysis of teaching objectives, teaching focal and difficult points, the analysis of teaching process and achievement of teaching aims, designing of teaching activities, group cooperative learning, formative and summative assessment, common problems in teaching, sharing teaching experience, and so forth.

With respect to the teaching practices, it aimed to train teachers' practical teaching competence. Teachers were organized to observe classroom model lessons in schools, and give comments and provide suggestions for improvement. Then teachers were asked to give an open lesson and conduct peer review.

It is clear to find out from this example that there are various problems of the national training program, such as short period of training, massive content without focus, very little involvement of domain-specific knowledge of English, etc. It seems that adjusting training content and strengthening the effectiveness are needed.

3.5 The Practicum of TEFL Trainees in China

3.5.1 The practicum in China

The practicum is an indispensable component of pre-service teaching education programs. Based on the stipulation for teacher trainees' practicum (MOE, 2016), all normal universities and universities provide normal education set basically similar programs for the practicum. Generally, a practicum program includes several parts: purposes, contents, requirements, and assessment.

With respect to the purposes, the practicum offers opportunities for trainees to understand the situation of teaching in schools, experience the honor and responsibilities of teaching profession; to put their knowledge learnt from pre-service training programs into teaching practice, master general teaching methods, and enhance resilience for future teaching profession; to learn to be a class teacher and learn to be able to communicate with parents; and further to improve interest and ability to teach in schools.

In reference to contents and requirements of the practicum, trainees need to understand and master the national curriculum standards, and get familiar with textbooks that the schools are using where they are doing the practicum; to observe

their mentor's and other teachers' teaching, understand mentor's designing of lessons, and analyze the observed lessons; to design teaching and write lesson planning, and submit to the mentor for review till being approved by their mentor; to conduct classroom teaching and other forms of teaching with the mentor's supervision and follow the mentor's comments and suggestions for improvement; to check students' homework; to write practicum journals; to write a summary of their practicum.

The performance of trainees' practicum is evaluated from respects such as their attitude and attendance rate during the practicum, lesson planning, courseware, trial lecture, classroom teaching, reflection, and other relevant issues, as well as the practicum of being a class teacher. It is worth noting that trainees have to take it over if they fail in the assessment of their practicum performance.

3.5.2 The practicum of TEFL trainees in China

Statistics show that there are over 300 million people learning English in China, among them are more than 180 million primary and secondary school students (MOE, 2015). It is well known that teacher quality accounts for the quality of education, and the quality of EFL teaching staff depends to a great extent on the pre-service teacher education. Accordingly, to pay a close attention to EFL teacher trainees is highly significant for improving the efficiency of teaching and learning English in a Chinese context.

The pre-service EFL teacher education in China has been focused mainly on subject knowledge and trainee teachers' academic ability, neglecting teachers' technical ability training, centering on theory and overlooking practice, and separating itself from the actual demands of primary and secondary schools (Cheng & Sun, 2010; Si, Yang, & Wang, 2012); accordingly, "trainee teachers don't have many opportunities to teach but observe what other teachers do in the classroom" (Yang, 2014) during usually the 8-week practicum, thus, "the teaching practicum is like an empty shell" (Zou, 2009), and "some English major graduates from normal universities are not eligible for teaching profession when they start to teach, owing to the problems of the cultivation system, educational objectives, curriculum setting, teaching methods, etc." (Cheng & Sun, 2010).

3.6 Summary

In the past four decades of English teaching and learning in China, many accomplishments and great progress have been made. However, a lot of problems have emerged in both teaching and teacher education as well. It is very clear that the exam-driven culture of teaching and learning English has long taken a predominant part in primary and secondary schools all around China. Under this background, it is not without difficulty to implement the new curriculum standards initiated in 2011, because school administrators, teachers, students, and parents strongly focus on exams. Thus, teachers teach and students learn what examinations require but leave out the basic communicative aims of English language education. In turn, this results in students' poor language use. Another noteworthy issue is the large class size with low efficiency

and effect of English teaching and learning. Also, the preparedness of English teachers is problematic, either the pre-service education programs or in-service training activities cannot fully meet the need of definitely qualified teachers for schools. It is, therefore, of great importance to explore TEFL teachers and trainees' knowledge base regarding domain-specific respects of English so as to identify possible problems as well as to provide perspectives for the improvement of English learning and instruction in China.

Part IV Empirical Studies

4.1 Overview of the Studies

In this section, the purposes and objectives of a variety of empirical studies will be described, and corresponding research questions, samples, instruments, and procedures will be presented.

The empirical studies contain (1) what pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees think about writing to be, (2) what post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees estimate their knowledge of writing, (3) what Chinese TEFL teachers perceive their knowledge of writing to be, (4) an exploration of the changes in teachers' knowledge of writing through pre- to in-service, and (5) changes in teachers' skills in assessing writing through pre- to in-service. These studies aim to elaborate what pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees and teachers know about writing, in particular, to explore how pre- and post-practicum TEFL trainees and teachers estimate their knowledge of writing, how their perceived knowledge of writing change through pre-service to in-service, and how they evaluate student writing as well as to examine the differences of their assessment of student text. These studies involved conceptions of writing and writing instruction-related issues can present a relatively general picture of trainees' and teachers' knowledge in an English as a foreign language context.

4.2 Research Questions

Based on the purposes and objectives, corresponding research questions guided the study are raised. In detail, the following research questions (RQs) will be addressed:

RQ 1: **How do pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**
  (1) What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?
  (2) How do they perceive their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for schools?
  (3) What are their opinions toward issues regarding writing instruction?
  (4) What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?

RQ 2: **How do post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**
  (1) What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?
  (2) How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for the grade level they teach in the practicum?
  (3) What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing in the practicum?
  (4) How do they perceive the effect of the practicum on their knowledge of writing?

RQ 3: **How do Chinese TEFL teachers perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**
  (1) What are Chinese TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing?
  (2) How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?

(3)   What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing?

(4)   What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?

RQ 4: **What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' perceived knowledge of EFL writing?**

(1)   What are the differences between their conceptions of writing?

(2)   What are the differences between their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?

(3)   What are the differences between their perceptions of writing instruction-related issues?

(4)   What are the differences between the effects of background information on their perceived knowledge of writing?

RQ 5: **What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?**

(1)   How do they evaluate EFL learner's text?

(2)   What problems do they identify in the text?

(3)   What feedback do they give on the text?

(4)   What suggestions do they make for improvement?

RQ 6: **What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?**

(1)   How do they evaluate EFL learner's text?

(2)   What problems do they identify in the text?

(3)   What feedback do they give on the text?

(4)   What suggestions do they make for improvement?

RQ 7: **How does trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of student text?**

(1)   How does pre-practicum TEFL trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of writing?

(2)   How does post-practicum TEFL trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of writing?

RQ 8: **What are Chinese TEFL teachers' skills in assessing student text?**

(1)   How do teachers evaluate EFL learner's text?

(2)   What problems do teachers identify in the text?

(3)   What feedback do they give on the text?

(4)   What suggestions do teachers make for improvement?

RQ 9: **What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text?**

(1)   What are the differences between their evaluation of EFL learner's text?

(2)   What are the differences between their identifications of problems in the text?

(3)   What are the differences between their feedback on the text?

(4)   What are the differences between their suggestions for improvement?

RQ 10: **How do rater groups' assessments compare to artificial intelligence ratings?**

4.3 Samples

4.3.1 Pre-practicum TEFL trainees

Participants engaged in the study constitute three groups in China: pre-practicum TEFL trainees, post-practicum TEFL trainees, and TEFL teachers. The pre-practicum TEFL trainees who answered a trainee questionnaire are 101 third-year trainees doing a four-year program for Bachelor's degree of Arts (male 5% and female 95%). The gender character is representative. Most participants (80.2%) reported that their pre-service programs have prepared them appropriately for teaching writing, but 19.8% held opposite opinions. The detailed characteristics of the pre-practicum trainee sample is shown in Table 7. In addition, 59 pre-practicum trainees participated in the assessment of an EFL writing sample as well as completed a writing task. Their background information is presented in Section 4.10.3 (see Table 120).

Table 7   *Characteristics of the Pre-Practicum TEFL Trainees Sample*

Components	Contents
Gender	Male 5%, female 95%
Degree	BA programs
Age	19-24; M = 20.76, SD = .95
Years of learning English before going to university	6-13; Mode = 6, M = 7.60, SD = 1.72
English proficiency level	Intermediate (84.2%), Upper-intermediate (15.8%), Advanced (0%), Proficient (0%)
Entering the TEFL teacher training program	Sep. 2014

4.3.2 Post-practicum TEFL trainees

The post-practicum TEFL trainees who answered a questionnaire are 204 student teachers, among them, 5.9% are male and 94.1% are female. The gender proportion is representative. The more detailed personal background is shown in Table 8. In addition, 31 post-practicum trainees participated in the same assessment test and writing task as the subsample of pre-practicum trainees. The characteristics of the subsample of post-practicum trainees are presented in Section 4.10.3 (see Table 120).

Table 8   *Characteristics of the Post-Practicum TEFL Trainees Sample*

Components	Contents
Gender	Male 5.9%, female 94.1%
Age	20-25; M = 22, SD = .89
Degree	BA programs
Years of learning English before going to university	3-17; Mode = 6, M = 7.81, SD = 2.54
English proficiency level	Intermediate (63.7%), Upper-intermediate (32.4%), Advanced (3.9%), Proficient (no)
Entering the TEFL teacher training program	Sep. 2013
Weeks of the practicum	2-40; Mode = 8, M = 11.69, SD = 5.45
School location	In a provincial capital: 12.7%; in a city: 29.4%; in a county or town: 50.5%; in a village: 7.4%
School type	Public 84.3%, Private 15.7%
School level	Primary 21.6%, Junior 48%, Senior 30.4%
Class size (number of students)	< 30, 6.4%; between 31 and 45, 29.9%; between 46 and 60, 50%; > 61, 13.7%
English lessons taught altogether	1-340; Mode = 20, M = 44.71, SD = 69.87
Time for teaching writing (%)	1-98; Mode = 20, M = 23.56, SD = 17.05

4.3.3 TEFL teachers

In total, 490 Chinese TEFL teachers answered a teacher questionnaire in the study, 23.7% of them are male, and 76.3% are female. The gender distribution is also representative. The more detailed features of the teacher sample are shown in Table 9 below. In addition, 32 teachers assessed the same student writing as pre- and post-practicum trainees did. Their background information is shown in Section 4.10.3 (see Table 120).

Table 9   *Characteristics of the TEFL Teachers Sample*

Components	Contents
Gender	Male 23.7 %, female 76.3%
Age	M = 34.03, SD = 7.82; Min. 21, Max. 55
Educational background	2-years program 4.5%, 3-years program 8.6%, 4-years program 74.3%, M.A. 12.7%
Current work status	Working as a teacher 88.4%, not working as a teacher 11.6%
Work experience	M =11.66, SD = 8.31, Min. 1, Max. 36;
School location	In a provincial capital: 17.1%; in a city: 29%; in a county or town: 43.3%; in a village: 10.6%
School type	Public 89.8%, private 10.2%
School level	Primary 13.3%, junior 39.4%, senior 47.3%
Class size	> 61 students, 19.6%; between 46 and 60, 51.6%; between 31 and 45, 21.2%; < 30, 7.6%
English lessons per class/week	M = 6.39, SD = 2.73; Mode = 6
Teaching time devoted to writing instruction (%)	M = 18.8, SD = 14.04
Lessons of teaching writing per class/week	M= 1.22, SD= 1.20; Mode = .60

4.4 Instruments

In the studies, various instruments are used to get information about participants' knowledge of writing. These instruments include:
- Pre-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire
- Post-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire
- TEFL teacher questionnaire
- Trainees' and teachers' simulation task for assessing an EFL learner's text (a descriptive text by an English learner)
- Trainees' EFL writing task

All of these instruments were self-developed in English and then translated into Chinese because an earlier pilot study of a questionnaire in English targeting TEFL teachers' experiences in the practicum showed that more information can be gathered through communication in participants' mother tongue (cf., Kong, 2017). In the development of these instruments and in their translation, many people engaged with invaluable contribution, including professors and experts in the fields of TEFL teacher education and writing teaching and research with their tight look at the conceptual issues of these instruments, linguists and translators well qualified in English-Chinese translation with their commitment to the accuracy of instruments bilingually, and TEFL trainees as well as school English teachers with their proofreading and trial answering to these instruments. All efforts together ensured the validity and intelligibility of these instruments.

4.4.1 Pre-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire

The pre-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire consists of three parts: understanding of writing, perceptions of the teaching of writing, and background. It targets various issues concerning trainees' knowledge of writing before the practicum (see Appendix D). The structure and reliability of the questionnaire are presented in Table 10.

Table 10   *Structure and Reliability of the Pre-practicum TEFL Trainee Questionnaire*

Parts	Variables	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Type
Part I: Understanding EFL Writing	1. Concepts of writing	4	.77	
	2. Functions of writing	6	.74	
	3. Interventions to develop writing	4	.76	
	4. Basic conceptual issues in evaluating writing	12	.82	
Part II: Perceptions of the Teaching of EFL Writing	5. Curriculum Standards	1	.87	
	6. Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective	1		
	7. Expectation to learn about students' writing levels	12	.91	
	8. Planning a writing lesson	9	.82	5-point Likert scales
	9. Tasks of writing instruction	14	.87	
	10. Audiences of students' writing assignments	6	.80	
	11. Genre types in students' writing assignments	26	.91	
	12. Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	13	.93	
	13. Strategies and approaches in teaching writing	23	.93	
	14. Difficulties in teaching	12	.96	
	15. Feedback on students' writing	16	.88	
	16. Assessment of students' writing	10	.84	
Part III: Background	17. Gender			
	18. Age			
	19. Degree			
	20. Year of entering teacher training program			
	21. Years of learning English before going to university			
	22. Certificates of English tests			
	23. English proficiency level			
	24. Usefulness of English studies from pre-service for teaching writing			
	25. Usefulness of pre-service programs for teaching writing			
	26. Expected benefits from the practicum			
	27. Effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing			
In total (part I and part II): 169 items, Cronbach Alpha = .97				

4.4.2 Post-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire

The post-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire also consists of three parts: understanding of writing, perceptions of the teaching of writing, and background. It shares the same items of part I and II of the pre-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaire but has different variable expressions targeting mainly trainees' conceptions of writing after the practicum (see Appendix E). The structure and reliability of the questionnaire are presented in Table 11.

Table 11   *Structure and Reliability of the Post-practicum TEFL Trainee Questionnaire*

Parts	Variables	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Type
Part I: Understanding EFL Writing	1. Concepts of writing	4	.85	
	2. Functions of writing	6	.83	
	3. Interventions to develop writing	4	.89	
	4. Basic conceptual issues in evaluating writing	12	.93	
Part II: Perceptions of the Teaching of EFL Writing	5. Curriculum Standards	1	.85	5-point Likert scales
	6. Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective	1		
	7. Knowledge of students' writing levels	12	.95	
	8. Planning a writing lesson	9	.90	
	9. Tasks of writing instruction	14	.95	
	10. Audiences of students' writing assignments	6	.82	
	11. Genre types in students' writing assignments	26	.96	
	12. Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	13	.94	
	13. Strategies and approaches in writing instruction	23	.95	
	14. Difficulties in teaching	12	.95	
	15. Feedback on students' writing	16	.94	
	16. Assessment of students' writing	10	.90	
Part III: Background	17. Gender			
	18. Age			
	19. Degree			
	20. Year of entering teacher training program			
	21. Years of learning English before going to university			
	22. Certificates of English tests			
	23. English proficiency level			
	24. Length of the practicum			
	25. Lessons of English taught in the practicum			
	26. Percentage of teaching time devoted to writing instruction			
	27. School level			
	28. Class size			
	29. School type			
	30. School location			
	31. Usefulness of English studies from pre-service for teaching writing			
	32. Usefulness of pre-service programs for teaching writing			
	33. Benefits from the practicum			
	34. Effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing			
In total (part I and part II): 169 items, Cronbach Alpha = .98				

4.4.3 TEFL teacher questionnaire

The TEFL teacher questionnaire also includes three parts: understanding of writing, perceptions of the teaching of writing, and background. It has the same items of part I and II of the pre- and post-practicum TEFL trainee questionnaires (see Appendix F). The structure and reliability of the teacher questionnaire are presented in Table 12.

Table 12   *Structure and Reliability of the TEFL Teacher Questionnaire*

Parts	Variables	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Type
Part I: Understanding EFL Writing	1. Concepts of writing	4	.87	
	2. Functions of writing	6	.86	
	3. Interventions to develop writing	4	.90	
	4. Basic conceptual issues in evaluating writing	12	.91	
Part II: Perceptions of the Teaching of EFL Writing	5. Curriculum Standards	1	.87	5-point Likert scales
	6. Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective	1		
	7. Knowledge of students' writing levels	12	.95	
	8. Planning a writing lesson	9	.92	
	9. Tasks of writing instruction	14	.94	
	10. Audiences of students' writing assignments	6	.87	
	11. Genre types in students' writing assignments	26	.96	
	12. Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	13	.93	
	13. Strategies and approaches in writing instruction	23	.94	
	14. Difficulties in teaching	12	.94	
	15. Feedback on students' writing	16	.94	
	16. Assessment of students' writing	10	.91	
Part III: Background	17. Gender			
	18. Age			
	19. Degree			
	20. Work experience			
	21. School level			
	22. School type			
	23. School location			
	24. Class size			
	25. Lessons of English teach per week			
	26. Percentage of teaching time devoted to writing instruction			
	27. Usefulness of English studies from pre-service for teaching writing			
	28. Usefulness of pre-service programs for teaching writing			
	29. In-service training programs useful for teaching writing			
	30. Teacher writing in English			
	31. Effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing			
In total (part I and part II): 169 items, Cronbach Alpha = .98				

The questionnaires present how participants think about their knowledge of writing, that is to say, they give us information about how participants estimate their knowledge of writing. But still, we need to further understand how trainees and teachers do in writing instruction-related issues. For the feasibility of the study, supplement studies are conducted to get information about trainees' and teachers' assessment of writing. These supplement studies contain pre- and post-practicum TEFL trainees' skill in assessment of student writing, as well as TEFL teachers' skills in assessment of student writing. Also, an extra study is conducted to examine trainees' writing skills. Subsequently, the quantitative and qualitative information can together provide us a

relatively full picture of trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing. The profiles of these studies are described below.

4.4.4 TEFL trainees' skills: A simulation task for assessing an EFL learner's text

Both pre- and post-practicum TEFL trainees rated the same text written by an English language learner, Pat (a pseudonym). The task was to write a description of a place students knew well. Pat's composition was used in a previous study (cf., Molnár, 1997). For my research, Pat was contacted and informed, and she gave permission to use her text in my studies. The trainee participants were asked to rate the text on the given 5-point scales (1 refers to extremely poor, 5 to extremely good). The evaluation criteria include: overall quality of the text, content, structure, style, grammatical correctness, and mechanics. Also, the participants were asked to indicate the errors and problems in the text, using their own system of correction, such as underlining "_____", circling "○", or any other marks they usually use. Finally, the participants were asked to write a few sentences of feedback in Chinese to this student who wrote the text. Participants were expected to praise certain aspects of the text; highlight some problems; or make some suggestions to help the student improve. After completing the three tasks, they were asked to fill in a background questionnaire related to the assessment of writing. As mentioned above, these tasks and questionnaire are also in the Chinese language. For the purpose of communication, the assessment tasks, background questionnaire, and Pat's text are all exhibited in English in the dissertation (see Appendix G).

4.4.5 TEFL trainees' skills: EFL writing

In addition to pre- and post-practicum trainees' skills in the assessment of writing, an extra study was conducted to get information about their text features and content so as to learn about their actual writing ability. This study was further aimed to examine the relationship between trainees' writing ability and assessment of student text. The writing task was related to the effectiveness of the practicum which is a foothold of the dissertation study. Both pre- and post-practicum trainees were asked to write an essay of about 200 words in English, explaining what kind of practicum could be effective in their opinions. The writing project is in English because all English-related exams TEFL trainees take are in English. Samples of trainees' writing are in Appendix H.

4.4.6 TEFL teachers' skills: A simulation task for assessing an EFL learner's text

Basically, TEFL teachers were also asked to rate the same text as trainee did. Teachers completed the same tasks as trainees did, including rating the text on the given 5-point scales, indicating the errors and problems in the text, and writing written feedback on the text. Likewise, teachers also filled out a background questionnaire concerning the assessment of writing. These tasks and the short questionnaire are also in the Chinese language. For the same purpose, the version of the assessment project by teachers is also shown in English (see Appendix I).

4.5 Procedures

4.5.1 Data collection

The dissertation study targets three samples from the perspective of cross-sectional research method. Normally, snowball and convenience sampling were used to approach participants. The main data were collected in Spring and Autumn 2017. All questionnaires were administered on a Chinese online platform which can be accessed easily by participants through a laptop or a mobile phone. A paper-and-pencil instrument was used to collect data for the assessment of writing. The trainees' writing task was completed on a WORD processor. The overview of data collection procedures is shown in Table 13.

Table 13   *Overview of Data Collection Procedures*

Sample	Tasks	Number of respondents	Time
Pre-practicum TEFL trainees	• questionnaire	101	Jan. to Feb. 2017
	• assessment of student text	59	Sept. to Oct. 2017
	• writing	59	Sept. to Oct. 2017
Post-practicum TEFL trainees	• questionnaire	204	Jan. to Feb. 2017
	• assessment of student text	31	Sept. to Oct. 2017
	• writing	31	Sept. to Oct. 2017
TEFL teachers	• questionnaire	490	Jan. to Feb. 2017
	• assessment of student text	32	Sept. to Oct. 2017

4.5.2 Data analysis

For the questionnaires, all data was downloaded, recoded, and transformed into SPSS 24 for quantitative analyses. Various analyses were conducted to answer the research questions. The research questions, data source used, focus of analysis, and methods of analysis are presented in Table 14.

Table 14   *Research Questions, Data Source, Focus of Analysis, and Methods of Analysis Regarding*
           Trainees' and Teachers' Perceived Knowledge of Writing

Research question	Focus of analysis	Methods of analysis	Data source
1. **How do pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**			
(1) What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?	Variable 1, 2, 3, 4	Descriptive statistics	Pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainee questionnaire
(2) How do they perceive their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for schools?	Variable 5, 6	Descriptive statistics	
(3) What are their opinions toward issues regarding writing instruction?	Variable 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	Descriptive statistics	
(4) What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?	Variable 17, 21, 23, 24, 25	T-tests, correlation analysis	
2. **How do post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**			
(1) What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?	Variable 1, 2, 3, 4	Descriptive statistics	Post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainee questionnaire
(2) How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for the grade level they teach in the practicum?	Variable 5, 6	Descriptive statistics	
(3) What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing in the practicum?	Variable7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	Descriptive statistics	
(4) How do they perceive the effect of the practicum on their knowledge of writing?	Variable 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30	ANOVA, MANOVA	
3. **How do Chinese TEFL teachers perceive their knowledge of EFL writing?**			
(1) What are Chinese TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing?	Variable 1, 2, 3, 4	Descriptive statistics	Chinese TEFL teacher questionnaire
(2) How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?	Variable 5, 6	Descriptive statistics	
(3) What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing?	Variable 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	Descriptive statistics	
(4) What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?	Variable 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 29	T-test, ANOVA, MANOVA	
4. **What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' perceived knowledge of EFL writing?**			Pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainee questionnaire

Research question	Focus of analysis	Methods of analysis	Data source
(1) What are the differences between their conceptions of writing?	Variable 1, 2, 3, 4	MANOVA	Post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainee questionnaire
(2) What are the differences between their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?	Variable 5, 6	MANOVA	
(3) What are the differences between their perceptions of writing instruction-related issues?	Variable 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	MANOVA	
(4) What are the differences between the effects of background information on their perceived knowledge of writing?	Variables 24, 25, and 27 of post-practicum trainee questionnaire	ANOVA	Chinese TEFL teacher questionnaire
	Variables 31, 32, and 34 of post-practicum trainee questionnaire		
	Variables 27, 28, and 32 of teacher questionnaire		

With respect to trainees' own writing, data was evaluated through different methods, using traditional variables of writing assessment and variables from Coh-Metrix (cf., McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2014; McNamara, Graesser, & Dai, 2013). Based on the literature and online analyses, all outputs were coded into several variables with various scales. The variables mainly include text features and content with respectively several components listed below:

- Descriptive statistics of text
- Easability and readability
- Lexical diversity
- Syntactic complexity and pattern density
- Word information
- Latent semantic analysis
- Connectives
- Referential cohesion

As to the evaluation task, participants rated the EFL learner's text using traditional variables of writing assessment. They were also asked to respond to the strengths and weaknesses of the sample text: to identify problems, to give written feedback, and to make suggestions. Their responses were recoded into seven aspects: holistic, content, structure, style, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. Multifaceted Rasch analysis was used to present participants' ratings on the same student text. The research questions, focus of analysis and data source are shown in Table 15.

Table 15   *Research Questions, Data Source, Focus of Analysis, and Methods of Analysis Regarding How Trainees and Teachers Evaluate Student Text*

Research question	Focus of analysis	Methods of analysis	Data source
1. **What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?**	• Ratings • Identification of errors and problems of the text • Feedback on the text • Suggestions for the text	Descriptive statistics	Pre-practicum TEFL trainees' skills: Assessment of student text
2. **What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills in assessing student text?**	• Ratings • Identification of errors and problems of the text • Feedback on the text • Suggestions for the text	Descriptive statistics	Post-practicum TEFL trainees' skills: Assessment of student text
3. **How does trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of student text?**	• Influence of trainees' writing ability on their assessment of student text	Correlations	TEFL trainees' skills: Writing Pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' skills
4. **What are Chinese TEFL teachers' skills in assessing student text?**	• Ratings • Identification of errors and problems of the text • Feedback on the text • Suggestions for the text	Descriptive statistics	Chinese TEFL teachers' skills: Assessment of student text
5. **What are the differences between pre- and post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text?**	• Differences in Ratings • Differences in the identification of errors and problems in the student text • Differences in feedback on the text • Differences in suggestions for improvement of the student text	MANOVA, Multifaceted Rasch Analysis	Pre- and Post-practicum TEFL trainees' skills: Assessment of student text Chinese TEFL teachers' skills: Assessment of student text

4.6 Study 1. How do Pre-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees Perceive their Knowledge of EFL Writing?

4.6.1 Introduction

Pre-service teacher training programs take the responsibility for preparing future teachers. The effectiveness of initial teacher education program impacts directly trainees' preparedness for practice teaching in the practicum as well for their future teaching profession as teachers. Are trainees appropriately prepared? Are they ready for the practicum teaching? Studies have shed light on trainees' perceptions of their preparedness for practicum in general. However, what trainees look at domain-specific areas of EFL did not get much attention in the literature. For example, little is known about trainees' conceptions of writing, and we know little about how they estimate their knowledge of writing, how they rate the importance of teaching-related issues of writing, and what influences trainees' opinions about these issues. Therefore, it is essential to examine what pre-practicum TEFL trainees think about writing.

This chapter introduces Study 1, targeting pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees, aiming to explore their opinions toward writing and writing instruction. The research questions guiding Study 1 are the following:

- What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?
- How do they perceive their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for schools?
- What are their opinions toward issues regarding writing instruction?
- What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?

4.6.2 What are pre-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?

4.6.2.1 Perceptions of the natures of writing

Writing is a multifaceted concept with various understandings. Participants were presented with four statements: writing is a linguistic activity, writing is a cognitive activity, writing is a social activity, and writing is a cultural activity. Are pre-practicum trainees aware of these possible facets of writing? They were asked to indicate to what extent they accept these natures of writing on 5-point Likert scales. For the purpose of showing the consciousness more clearly, I recoded their responses, transforming 'strongly disagree, disagree, and uncertain' into "disagree and uncertain", and transforming 'agree and strongly agree' into "agree". The first step was to examine their awareness of the individual nature of writing. Frequencies of participants' acceptance of the individual nature of writing are shown in Figure 5.
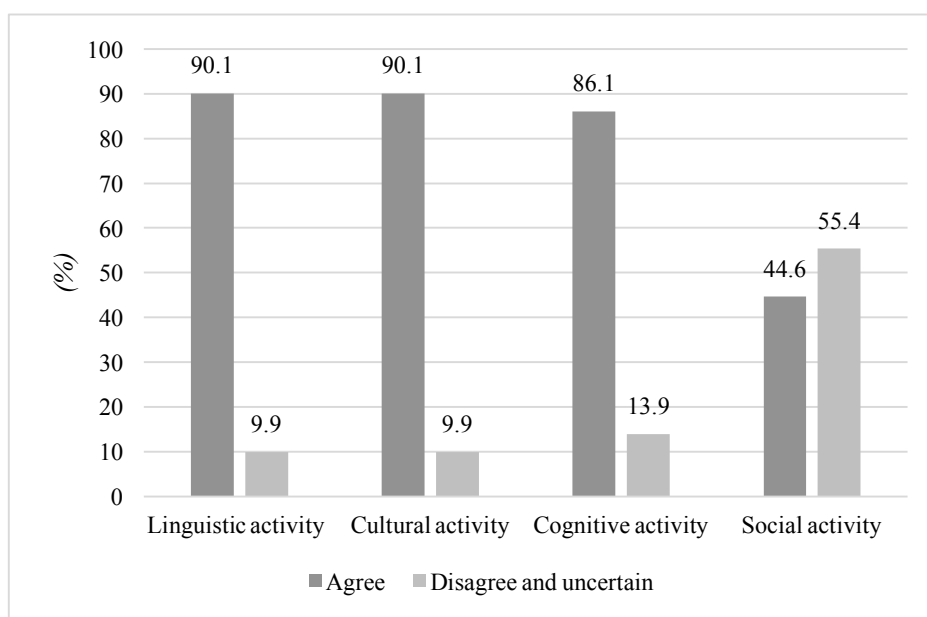
Figure 5   Frequencies of pre-practicum trainees' acceptance of the individual nature of writing

From Figure 5, it is clear that most respondents held views conforming to present research community, regarding writing as a linguistic, cultural and cognitive activity. Surprisingly, writing as a social activity didn't get obvious attention, i.e., more than half of the participants were not aware of the social nature of writing.

Then do trainees really accept writing as a multifaceted nature? The second step is to find out how many people accept the whole facets of writing. Frequencies of pre-practicum trainees' acceptance are presented in Table 16. One can see that only slightly over one-third of respondents accepted all of the four facets of writing, but near one-fifth of people may have different ideas of what writing is. Hence, it would merit further efforts to examine why some trainees are not attentive to some of the natures of writing.

Table 16   *Frequencies of Pre-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of the Multi Facets of Writing*

Facets of writing	Percentage of acceptance
4	35.6
3	45.5
2	13.9
1	4.0
0	1.0

4.6.2.2   Perceptions of functions of writing

From research and experience, we know that writing as an activity can serve different purposes with its multiple functions. These possible functions include writing as a tool for thinking, communication, creation, proving students' knowledge at exams, addressing specific audiences, and of importance in one's career. What functions do pre-practicum trainees give preference to? Here, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and did similar analysis as above. Pre-practicum trainees' acceptance of the possible individual function of writing is shown in Figure 6.
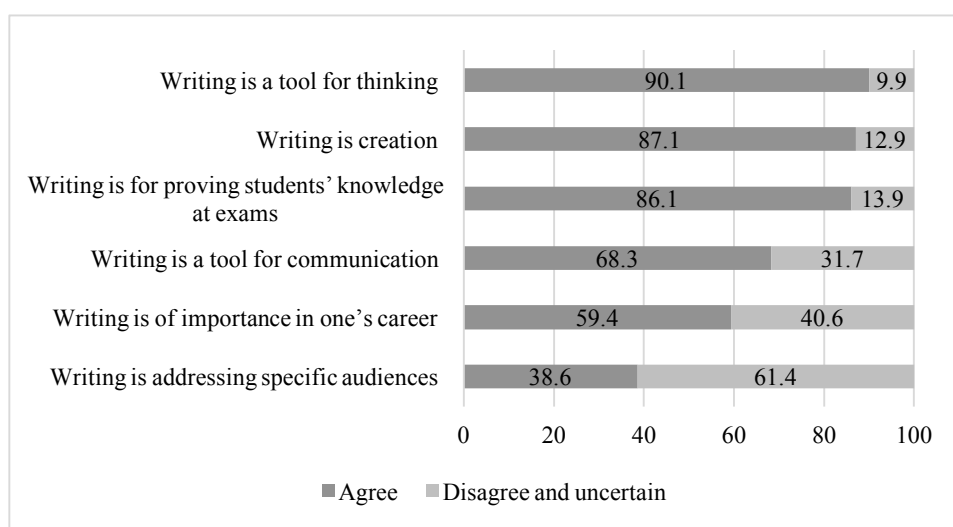
Figure 6   Frequency of pre-practicum trainees' acceptance of individual function of writing

The frequencies of acceptance of individual function of writing show that the participants tend to view writing as a tool for thinking, creation, and exams, but they pay less attention to its function of communication and contribution to one's career, and the least to that of addressing people. In line with the results of the natures of writing, only more than one-third of the participants accept the function of writing for addressing specific audiences.

Further, Paired-Samples T-tests were used to examine if there are significant differences among respondents' acceptance of these possible functions of writing. The mean and standard deviation for pre-practicum trainees' acceptance of each function are presented in Table 17. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests are shown in Table 18.

Table 17   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of Individual Function*

Function of writing	M	SD	SE
Writing is creation	4.22	.77	.08
Writing is a tool for thinking	4.15	.74	.07
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	4.02	.71	.07
Writing is a tool for communication	3.75	.85	.09
Writing is of importance in one's career	3.59	.99	.10
Writing is addressing specific audiences	3.02	1.04	.10

Table 18   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Pre-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of*
Individual Function of Writing

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Creation – exams	.20	.93	2.14	100
2	Creation – communication	.47	.93	5.01	100
3	Creation – career	.62	1.04	5.99	100
4	Creation – audiences	1.19	1.23	9.76	100
Pair 5	Thinking – communication	.40	1.10	3.60	100
6	Thinking – career	.55	1.07	5.20	100
7	Thinking – audiences	1.12	1.10	10.30	100
Pair 8	Exams – communication	.27	.85	3.17	100
9	Exams – career	.43	1.01	4.22	100
10	Exams – audiences	1.00	1.13	8.88	100
Pair 11	Communication – audiences	.73	1.13	5.37	100
Pair 12	Career – audiences	.57	1.24	4.64	100

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

Paired-Samples T-tests confirmed that addressing specific audiences didn't get enough acceptance. Also, it is worth noting that exams were emphasized to a great extent. It can be drawn that the respondents paid more attention to the functions of writing concerned with the self and self-expression, and much less to those focusing on the addressee.

Based on the recoded 2-point scales, it is interesting to see participants' comprehensive agreement with the six possible functions involved in the dissertation study. Frequencies of pre-practicum trainees' acceptance of functions of writing are presented in Table 19. We can see that only slightly over one-fifth of the participants accept all of the six functions of writing. However, it seems that participants had divergent identification of the possible multiple functions of writing. Hence, it would also deserve further efforts to examine the diversion of pre-practicum trainees' comprehensive acceptance of the multiple functions of writing.

Table 19   *Frequencies of Pre-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of Functions of Writing*

Numbers of functions	Percentage of acceptance
6	21.8
5	20.8
4	30.7
3	19.8
2	5.9
1	1.0

In the next step, I examined the relationship between the functions and concepts of writing. It is expected that trainees' concepts of writing influence their acceptance of the functions of writing. The correlation coefficients are shown in Table 20.

Table 20   *Correlations among Concepts and Functions of Writing*

	Linguistic activity	Cognitive activity	Social activity	Cultural activity
Tool for thinking	.35**	.37**	.21*	.37**
Creation	.24*	.35**	.31**	.48**
Communication	.20*	NS	.37**	NS
Exams	NS	NS	.22*	NS
Career	NS	.26**	.32**	NS
Specific audiences	NS	NS	NS	.22*

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; NS – not significant

Results show that only concepts and functions of writing are not systematically related. Concepts of writing are related to writing function for thinking and creation moderately ($.21 < r < .48$); writing as a social activity basically relates to writing functions but is independent from addressing specific audiences.

4.6.2.3   Perceptions of interventions to develop writing

Writing could be developed through direct interventions, such as writing activities and writing instructional activities; it could also be developed by indirect interventions, such as reading and speaking activities. Do pre-practicum trainees share with the same views? Are they aware of this relationship?

In order to show the picture of their agreement with interventions clearly, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and performed similar analysis as for concepts and functions of writing. First, I examined the frequency of participants' agreement with the contributors to writing development (see Figure 7). Basically, respondents agreed with the direct intervention to develop writing to a similar extent, but still, some people disagreed or doubted their effects. Interestingly, there is a remarkable distinction between the two indirect interventions: overwhelming participants agreed with the transfer effects of reading activities but more than one-quarter of people questioned that of speaking activities. Likewise, it demonstrates that addressing people gets much less attention than the others.
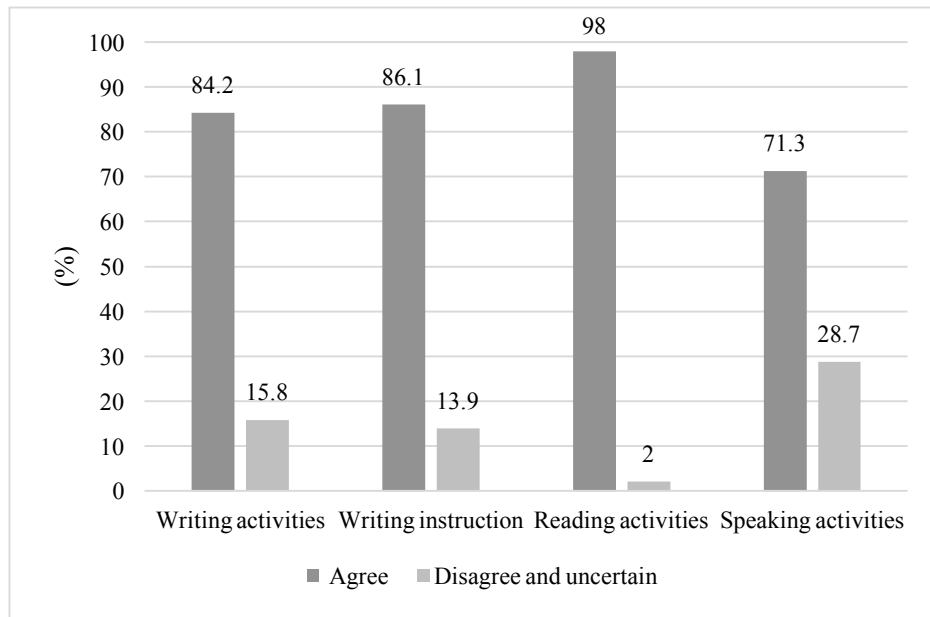
Figure 7   Frequency of pre-practicum trainees' agreement with the intervention to develop writing

Then I conducted Paired Samples T-tests to identify if there is any significant difference among these four interventions to develop writing. The mean and standard deviation for pre-practicum trainees' agreement with the interventions are presented in Table 21. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests are shown in Table 22. It is found that participants put the greatest emphasis on the transfer effect of reading activities to the development of writing but less on that of speaking activities.

Table 21   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Interventions to develop writing	M	SD	SE
Engagement in reading facilitates writing	4.36	.64	.06
Engagement in writing activities facilitates writing	4.08	.65	.07
Students learn to write when they are taught to	4.06	.65	.06
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	3.80	.81	.08

Table 22   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Pre-Practicum Trainees' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Reading activities – writing instruction	.29	.68	4.35	100
2	Reading activities – writing activities	.27	.75	3.71	100
3	Reading activities – speaking activities	.55	.93	5.97	100
Pair 4	Writing instruction – speaking activities	.25	.89	2.90	100
Pair 5	Writing activities – speaking activities	.27	.82	3.37	100

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

4.6.2.4   Perceptions of features of texts

So far, I have discussed writing as an activity (or process), here, I will focus on writing as a text (or product). A great deal of research has indicated that content, organization,

grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and so on, are basic components for good writing (cf., Cho, 2003; Knoch, 2011; Lee, 2007, 2011). These aspects are frequently used in evaluating a text. What would pre-practicum trainees pay attention to when evaluating a piece of EFL text?

For the purpose of analysis, the frequently used components were grouped into three levels: conceptual features (content, structure of a text, structure of a paragraph, length of a text), linguistic features (style of language, grammar, vocabulary, semantics, cohesive devices), and coding features (spelling, punctuation, handwriting). First, I examined their general possible weight on each aspect of these features when evaluating a text. The mean for their conceivable weight in assessing writing is presented in Figure 8. It can be found that trainees normally emphasize most of the features but put less stress on punctuation and length.
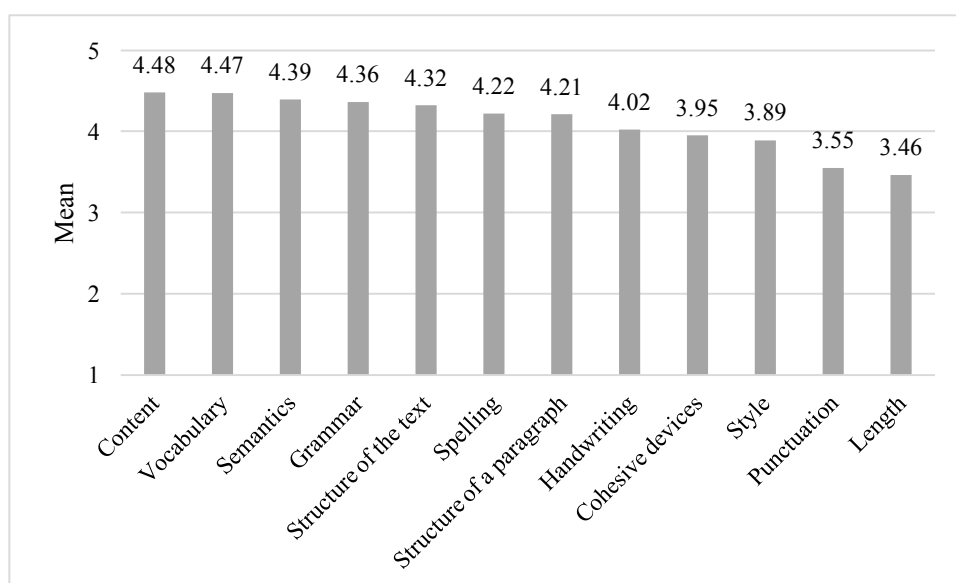
Figure 8   Mean of pre-practicum trainees' weight on each feature of a text in evaluating writing

Then the three levels of text features were computed, namely, conceptual features (M=4.11, SD=.42), linguistic features (M=4.20, SD=.42), and coding features (M=3.93, SD=.59) were created. Paired Samples T-tests were performed to compare if there are any favored criteria among these features when participants evaluate a text. Results are shown in Table 23. It is found that pre-practicum trainees preferred linguistic features to conceptual and coding features when assessing a text.

Table 23   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Criteria in Pre-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Linguistic features – conceptual features	.09	.37	2.56	100
2	Linguistic features – coding features	.27	.59	4.72	100
Pair 3	Conceptual features – coding features	.18	.44	4.13	100

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

4.6.3 How do pre-practicum trainees rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for schools?

It is clear that the Curriculum Standards and writing skill objective direct a teacher's teaching of writing. The respondents were asked to rate their knowledge of curriculum standard and writing objective on a 5-point scale. The results show that participants rated their knowledge of curriculum standards quite low (M=2.56, SD=.86). Likewise, they reported a poor knowledge of the writing skill objective (M=2.63, SD=.79). A very strong correlation (r=.77, p<.01) was found between participants' self-rated knowledge of the curriculum standards and the writing skill objective for schools.

These findings are not surprising, because pre-practicum trainees do not have any teaching experience yet and it is normal that they do not know much about curriculum standards and writing objective for schools. Nevertheless, it is also necessary for initial teacher trainers to address this issue, considering when to teach trainees this knowledge, so that it would help them prepare more appropriately for their coming practice teaching.

In addition to pre-practicum trainees' knowledge of content regulation, it is also worth more efforts to examine their expectations and opinions toward teaching issues concerned with the teaching of writing. In the next section, I will discuss pre-practicum trainees' opinions of issues regarding writing instruction.

4.6.4 What are pre-practicum trainees' opinions toward issues regarding writing instruction?

4.6.4.1 Knowledge of students' writing levels

Teachers' knowledge about their students is a very necessary base for effective teaching. What are trainees' opinions toward it? How much do they expect to learn about students' writing level in their future practicum? Results of participants' self-rated expectations from the practicum are presented in Table 24 below.

From Table 27, we can find that participants expected to know more about students' ability in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar in writing, and much less about students' writing experience. It is worth noting that respondents characterized their expectations somewhere between somewhat and much (3.57 < M < 4.15), i.e., participants were generally aware of the importance of understanding students' writing knowledge when starting to teach in future.

The frequency of responses shows that trainees expected to learn more on 'spelling' (51.49% rated much, 33.66% very much), followed by 'vocabulary' (much and very much respectively 55.45% and 29.7%). It indicates that pre-practicum trainees focused mainly on linguistic aspects of writing, which echoes results of their ideas of writing as a process and product discussed earlier.

Table 24   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Self-Rated Knowledge of their Students' Writing Levels in the Practicum*

Knowledge of students' writing levels	M	SD	SE
Spelling	4.15	.78	.08
Vocabulary	4.13	.72	.07
Use of tenses and voices	4.11	.79	.08

Use of sentence structures	4.05	.78	.08
Production of coherent text	4.03	.79	.08
Use of cohesive devices	3.99	.74	.07
Ways of word choice	3.98	.69	.07
Writing needs and interests	3.85	.78	.08
Prior knowledge of writing	3.75	.68	.07
Competence of writing in different genres	3.75	.89	.09
Use of punctuation	3.73	.80	.08
Writing experience	3.57	.74	.07

4.6.4.2 Priorities when planning a writing lesson

Planning a lesson is another essential aspect for pre-practicum trainees to learn and do when teaching writing. How well do they understand this? How do they rate the importance of issues related to lesson planning? What are their priorities when planning a writing lesson? Mean for the importance of each aspect of lesson planning is presented in Table 25. Generally, participants had strong expectations to learn about all of them indicated in the table.

Then a series of Paired Samples T-tests were performed to examine participants' priorities regarding lesson planning. Results show that the mean (M=4.42, SD=.495) for "creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest" is significantly higher than that for all of the others presented in the table, except "planning specific writing objectives for each lesson". This finding indicates that pre-practicum trainees put the greatest importance on motivation when planning writing lessons. It reveals that trainees without teaching experience tend to look at lesson planning from the perspective of 'student stance' who treat motivation and interest as a crucial base for effective learning.

Table 25   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Priorities when Planning a Writing Lesson*

Lesson planning	M	SD	SE
Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest	4.42	.50	.05
Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson	4.38	.58	.06
Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests	4.28	.67	.07
Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson	4.26	.67	.07
Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate	4.17	.62	.06
Planning for phases of the writing processes	4.13	.69	.07
Targeting the requirements of exams	4.11	.77	.08
Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by whom	4.07	.70	.07
Identifying curriculum standards and requirements	3.98	.74	.07

4.6.4.3   Perceptions of the importance of the tasks of writing instruction

The tasks of writing instruction encompass a variety of aspects of activities and are crucial in enhancing students' writing skills, knowledge, motivation, etc. How do pre-practicum trainees rate the importance of tasks of writing instruction? First, I checked

their estimation of the importance of the tasks of writing instruction involved in the study. Results are shown in Table 26. It is clear that participants generally rate the importance of the tasks of writing instruction high (3.93 < M < 4.34).

Further, Paired Sample T-test found that the item with the highest mean is significantly higher than that with the lowest but with a small mean difference (.41). The means for all the other items do not tell a clear distinction between each other. Probably, the participants did not clearly differentiate the items due to their lack of teaching experience.

Table 26   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Estimation of the Importance of the Tasks of Writing Instruction*

Tasks of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
To develop writing as a skill	4.34	.53	.05
To provide practice of correct use of language	4.31	.61	.06
To use newly learned sentence structures in writing	4.31	.72	.07
To increase students' awareness of written discourse	4.23	.53	.05
To use newly learned words in writing	4.21	.78	.07
To motivate students' individual creativity	4.20	.69	.07
To improve students' self-confidence	4.14	.79	.08
To reformulate and extend learning by writing	4.12	.70	.07
To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing	4.12	.74	.07
To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning	4.07	.68	.07
To prove what students have learned	4.03	.73	.07
To consolidate new understandings by writing	4.02	.77	.08
To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.	3.93	.68	.07
To use styles appropriate to given genres	3.93	.67	.07

4.6.4.4   Awareness of addressing audiences when assigning students writing tasks

As discussed before, one of the most important natures of writing is its communicative role in real life. How well do pre-practicum trainees understand the importance of addressing audiences in real life in students' writing assignments? In order to illustrate a full profile of their awareness of addressing audiences when giving students writing assignments, the original 5-point scales were used to present their responses (see Figure 9).

The findings show that pre-practicum trainees consider those who are directly related to students' study and life are the more important audiences in students' writing assignments. By comparison, they neglect to some extent the potential audiences who are outside the class or family, such as school newspaper, social organization, school administrators or officials.

80
70
60
50
(%) 40
30
20
10
0

Teacher | Family members | Peers or schoolmates | Friends | School administrators or officials | School newspaper, social organizations, etc.

62.4 55.5 56.4 69.3 38.6 54.5
21.8 18.8 14.9 10.9 9.9 7.9

■ Not important at all ■ Unimportant ■ Uncertain ■ Important ■ Very important
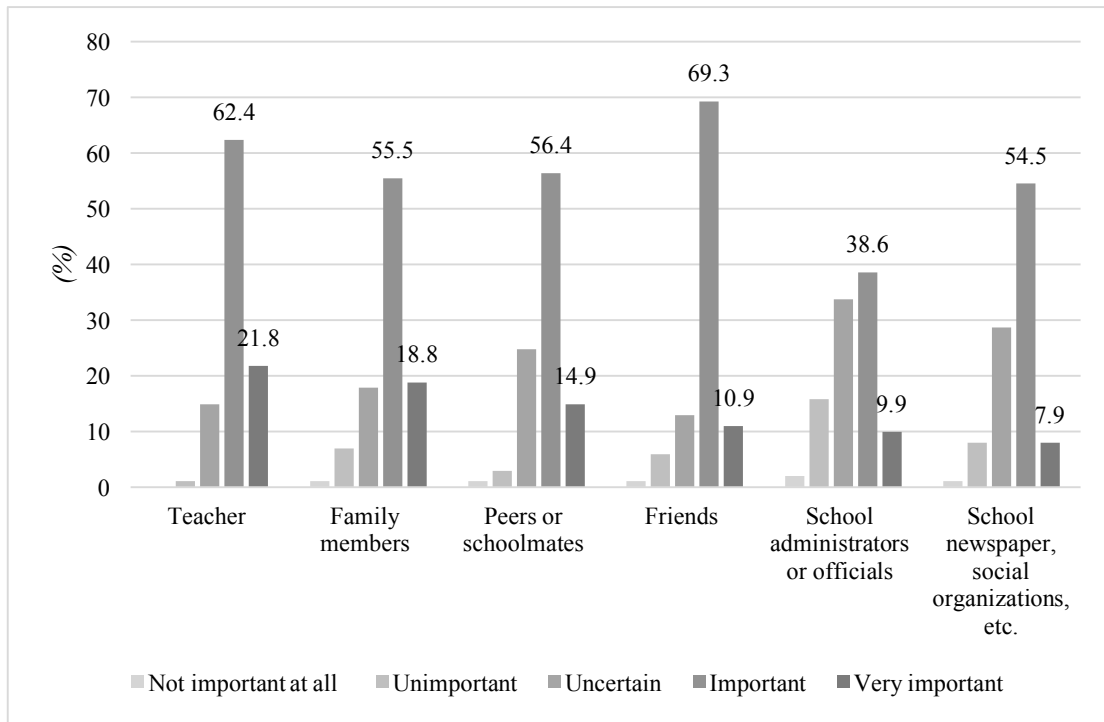
Figure 9   Frequency of pre-practicum trainees' rate of the importance of addressing audiences in students' writing assignments

4.6.4.5   Varieties of writing genres and activities in assignments of students' writing

As outlined earlier, writing could be developed through writing activities. Different genre types and tasks contribute to students' writing ability comprehensively. How do pre-practicum trainees view the importance of the variety of writing activities as assignments? In order to show their favored genre types and tasks more clearly, I transformed the 5-point scales into 2-point like what I did before. The frequencies of their rated importance of the varieties of writing activities as assignments are presented in Figure 10. It is obvious that they put the greatest emphasis on speeches and resumes (respectively 96%) when evaluating the importance of writing activities as assignments, followed by mock exams (92.1%). It seems that the participants paid more attention to text types and tasks concerned with the application of writing and dealing with exams.
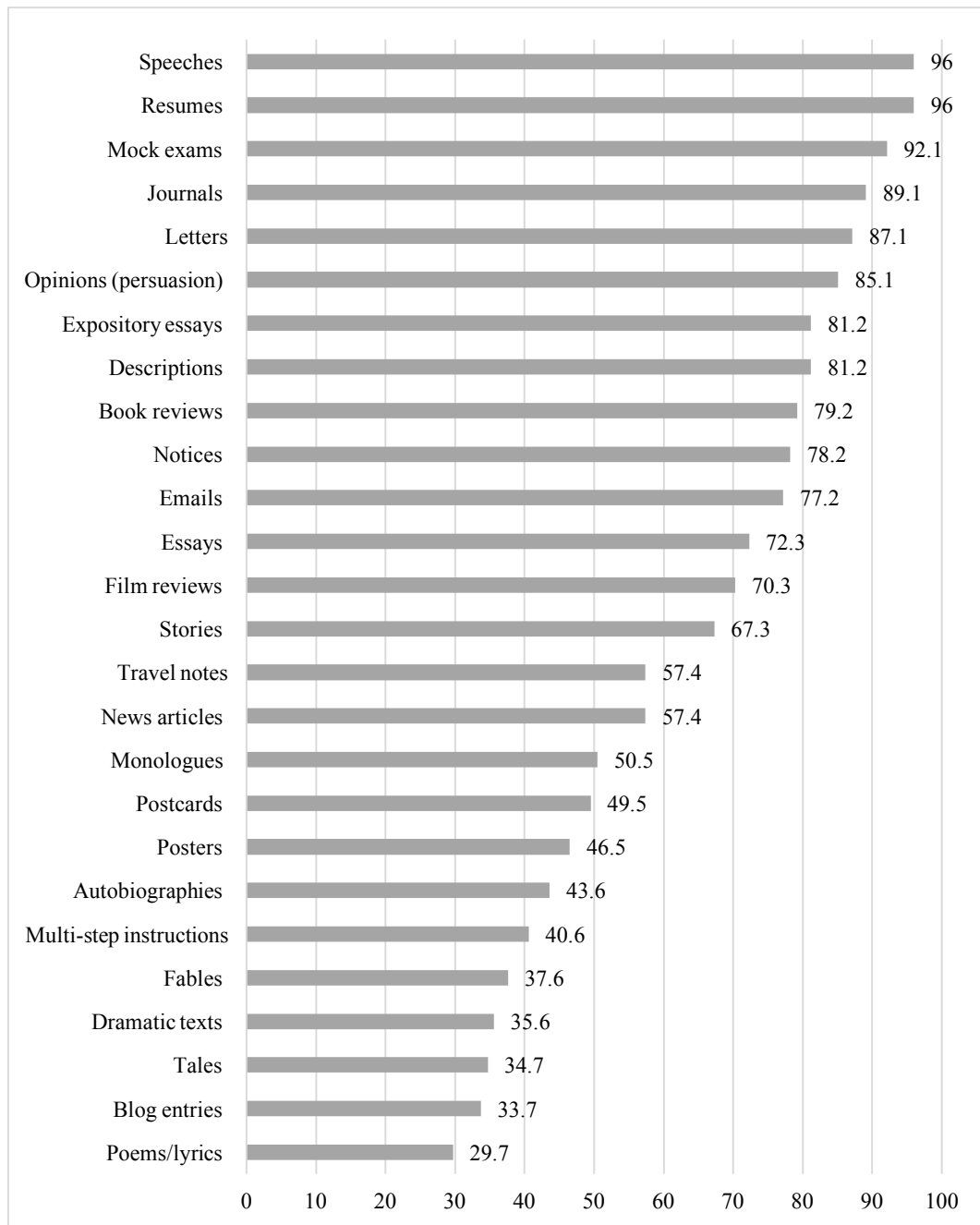
Figure 10 Frequencies of pre-practicum trainees' rated importance of the varieties of writing activities as assignments

Next, I created a composite index of the variety of genre types and activities of writing (M=3.69, SD=.34) based on all of the items in Figure 10. My expectation was that the diversified writing genres and activities relate strongly to the development of writing through direct interventions. A correlation analysis has shown that the index of writing genres and tasks relates weakly to the development of writing by doing (writing activities) (r=.24) and moderately relates to the development of writing by teaching (r=.37). It indicates that the participants may have very divergent opinions toward the development and practice of writing by students.

4.6.4.6 Focal points of writing instruction

In the teaching of writing, teachers might focus on improving students' mastery of writing mechanics, linguistics, forms, contents, genres, or attach importance to students' ability to cope with writing tasks related to their real life. These aspects are possible emphases of a writing lesson. What do pre-practicum trainees view as the focal points in teaching writing? Results are shown in Table 27. Findings indicate that participants normally consider the abovementioned aspects to be important in their writing instruction (3.96<M<4.42). They put the greatest emphasis on the correct spelling of letters and words, and the least on writing simple greetings which are concerned with issues in real life.

Paired Samples T-test found that the mean for spelling of letters and words is significantly higher than that of all of the other items in the mean table. It demonstrates that the participants highlighted the very basic aspect among various objectives of writing instruction.

Table 27   *Mean for Focal Points of Writing Instruction by Pre-Practicum Trainees*

Focal points of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Spelling of letters and words	4.42	.62	.06
Correct usage of capitalization	4.28	.74	.07
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	4.28	.71	.07
Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	4.22	.72	.07
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	4.19	.67	.07
Writing simple descriptions of people or things	4.16	.67	.07
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	4.15	.74	.07
Editing with the teacher's guidance	4.13	.77	.08
Drafting short letters and passages independently	4.09	.75	.07
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	4.07	.71	.07
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	4.06	.71	.07
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	4.02	.77	.08
Writing simple greetings	3.96	.81	.08

4.6.4.7 Strategies and approaches regarding writing instruction

An effective lesson involves various flexible strategies and approaches. What do pre-practicum trainees suppose to use in writing instruction? What types of strategies and approaches could be identified? What are their preferential strategies and approaches? To answer these questions, a cluster analysis was conducted first to group the items involved in the study, then paired samples t-tests were performed to compare the items within each cluster. Results are presented in the following relevant sub-questions section.

4.6.4.7.1 Types of strategies and approaches identified in pre-practicum trainees' supposed teaching of writing

In total, 23 items of strategies and approaches regarding the teaching of writing were included. The mean for each item is shown in Table 28. There seems to be a wide range of the means (3.24<M<4.40). It indicates that the participants had quite different views of possible instructional strategies and methods.

Table 28   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Supposed Strategies and Approaches in Teaching Writing*

Items	M	SD	SE
a. Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing	3.86	.81	.08
b. Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.	4.22	.72	.07
c. Modeled writing (by the teacher)	3.64	.78	.08
d. Shared writing (writing with students)	3.47	.90	.09
e. Guided writing	4.18	.68	.07
f. Group writing	3.41	.83	.08
g. Paired writing	3.24	.91	.09
h. Individual writing	4.40	.57	.06
i. Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions	3.84	.83	.08
j. Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts	3.79	.80	.08
k. Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study	4.02	.79	.08
l. Teaching students different writing genres	3.93	.78	.08
m. Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic	4.05	.71	.07
n. Providing checklists to guide students	3.78	.80	.08
o. Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts	3.86	.88	.09
p. Organizing writing partnerships or small groups	3.53	.81	.08
q. Teaching students how to develop ideas	4.25	.71	.07
r. Teaching students how to organize ideas	4.26	.72	.07
s. Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)	4.36	.66	.07
t. Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)	4.28	.68	.07
u. Giving tips on how to write a new task	4.05	.71	.07
v. Giving general advice on good writing	4.25	.67	.07
w. Making clear what good writing looks like	4.31	.76	.08

In the next step, I ran the cluster analysis to group the items. The cluster dendrogram is demonstrated in Figure 11. As can be seen, there are basically two clusters. The first cluster includes items b, e, h, i, j, k, l, m, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, which may be named as "teaching rules, giving examples, and involving students"; the second one contains items a, c, d, f, g, n, o, p, bearing the characteristics of "students' writing community and guidance" among these variables.

Dendrogram using Average Linkage (Between Groups)

Rescaled Distance Cluster Combine

@13q	17
@13r	18
@13s	19
@13t	20
@13v	22
@13h	8
@13u	21
@13w	23
@13m	13
@13e	5
@13b	2
@13k	11
@13l	12
@13i	9
@13j	10
@13f	6
@13g	7
@13c	3
@13d	4
@13n	14
@13p	16
@13o	15
@13a	1
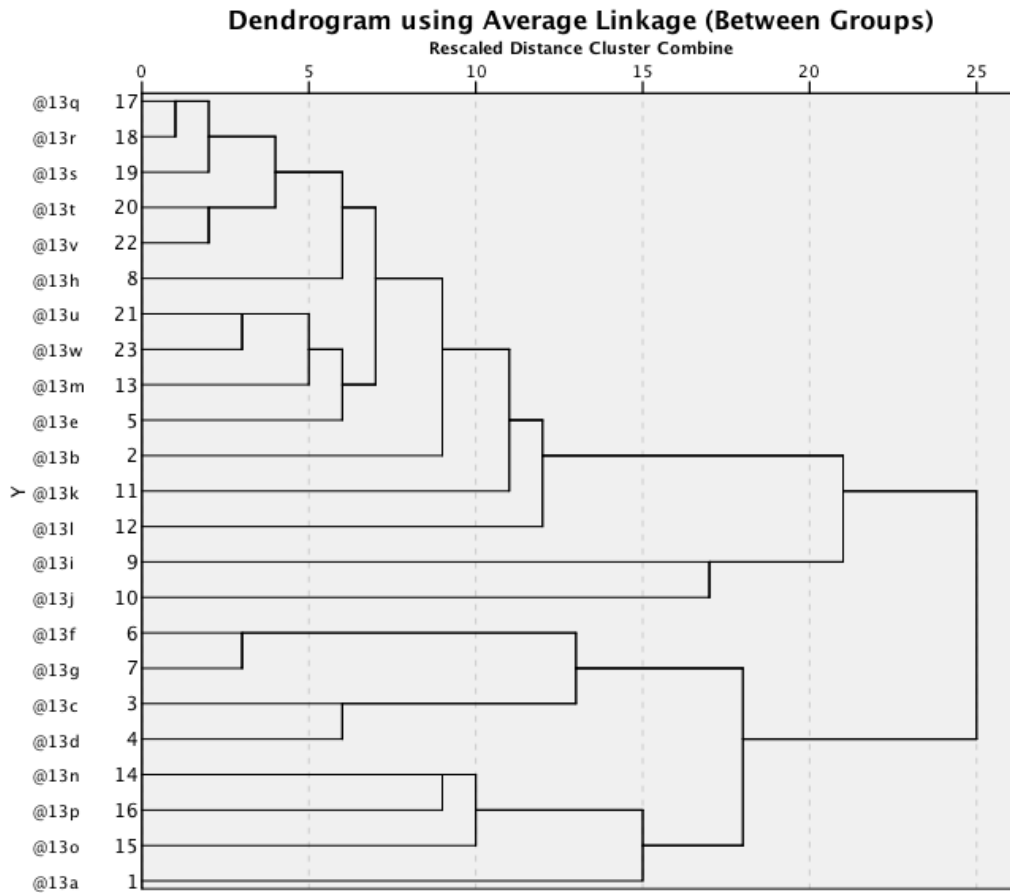
Figure 11 Cluster dendrogram for the strategies and approaches of writing instruction by pre-practicum trainees

4.6.4.7.2   Preferential strategies and approaches when teaching of writing

Based on the two clusters, Paired Samples T-tests were conducted to identify the distinctions between items within each cluster. Results showed that most items carried high mean (4.02<M<4.40) regarding the cluster of teaching rules, giving examples, and involving students, except those related to writing genres, writing by reciting useful expressions and imitating good examples of texts (M<4); and the means for these items are significantly lower those with the highest means within the same cluster. Also, results illustrated that all items concerned with the cluster of students' writing community and guidance had considerably low mean (3.24<M<3.86), which are generally smaller than those involved in the other cluster. These findings indicate that the participants basically held the opinion of being teacher-directed in teaching writing but relatively ignored the engagement of and interaction between students.

4.6.4.8   Expected difficulties in teaching writing

It could be common that pre-practicum trainees would expect to go through a mass of challenges and difficulties in their future teaching, such as teaching in the practicum, due to their paucity of teaching experience and the complexities of teaching itself. What difficulties do they foresee in their future writing instruction? What are the main

difficulties? Results are shown in Table 29. Findings indicate that participants generally did not expect much difficulty in teaching writing (4.47<M<3.84).

It seems that the participants foresaw more difficulty in identifying students' problems and giving corresponding and appropriate feedback on students' writing. However, the mean difference between each item is quite small, showing that the respondents did not clearly differentiate these items. Also, it is worth noting that the standard deviation is quite larger compared to the small mean difference. This indicates that within in the examined sample, the respondents held quite divergent opinions toward every single item.

Table 29   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Expected Difficulties in Teaching Writing*

Difficulties in writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Identifying students' problems with writing	3.84	1.15	.12
Providing detailed feedback to students' writing	3.80	1.19	.12
Developing a systematic syllabus for writing	3.75	1.23	.12
Providing instant feedback to students' writing	3.71	1.14	.12
Organizing group work for writing in class	3.69	.99	.10
Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback	3.67	1.12	.11
Teaching students to think in English for writing in English	3.66	1.18	.12
Motivating students to write	3.66	1.34	.14
Meeting individual needs or interests of writing	3.61	1.33	.14
Finding appropriate writing tasks for students	3.58	1.32	.14
Setting aside time for students to write in class	3.54	1.35	.14
Providing realistic writing situations and tasks	3.47	1.15	.12

4.6.4.9   Feedback on students' writing

So far, I have discussed pre-practicum trainees' opinions toward document regulation of writing instruction, expectation to learn about students' writing levels, self-estimated importance of issues regarding lesson planning, tasks of teaching writing, audiences and genres types in students' assignment, and views of emphasis of teaching objectives, strategies and approaches, and expected difficulties in teaching writing. Now, I would like to move to their perceptions of the importance of giving feedback on student writing.

Here, the participants' weighted importance of relevant aspects of feedback on students' writing is presented in Table 30. The mean for each variable shows that there are basically two groups of feedback: the important group (4.00<M<4.27) and the less important one (3.59<M<3.93), based on the original 5-point Likert scales targeting the participants' opinions about feedback. Those items with high mean are generally related to the content of feedback, and the others are normally concerned with forms of giving feedback on students' writing. It seems that the participants paid more attention to what kind of feedback to give rather than how and when to give feedback.

Table 30   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Estimation of the Importance of Giving Feedback on Student Writing*

Items	M	SD	Loading
Pointing out errors of grammar	4.27	.62	.06
Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)	4.25	.59	.06
Correcting errors in language use and mechanics	4.25	.71	.07
Assessing the accuracy of conclusions	4.20	.62	.06
Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing	4.18	.71	.07
Strategies for revision	4.15	.65	.07
Teacher-student conference	4.13	.77	.08
Giving feedback on students' homework	4.07	.62	.06
Providing feedback on form and structure	4.04	.71	.07
Whole-class response to a sample of writing	4.00	.80	.08
Written notes to the student	3.93	.75	.08
Characteristics of different genres	3.89	.77	.08
Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)	3.84	.66	.07
Suggesting improvements in style	3.79	.82	.08
Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom	3.74	.84	.08
Read-aloud of a good sample of writing	3.59	.90	.09

4.6.4.10 Assessment of student writing

Assessment of student writing is another crucial aspect involved in the teaching of writing. In Study 1, various tools and methods of assessment are included. How do pre-practicum trainees perceive the frequently used aspects in assessing writing? Mean for their assessment of student writing is listed in Table 31. It is clear that the participants paid more attention to grammar, content, and coherence and cohesion. Meanwhile, it is also clear that they did not show much concern with these possible aspects of assessing writing ($3.28<M<4.01$). It indicates that the respondents were not very sure about the assessment of writing due to their lack of teaching and evaluation experience.

Table 31   *Mean for Pre-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Student Writing*

Assessment of students' writing	M	SD	SE
Scoring – Grammar	4.01	.70	.07
Scoring – Content	4.00	.65	.06
Scoring – Coherence and Cohesion	4.00	.72	.07
Scoring – Vocabulary	3.88	.75	.08
Rubrics	3.84	.66	.07
Scoring – Spelling	3.84	.78	.08
Scoring – Holistic	3.77	.77	.08
Checklist	3.62	.77	.08
Scoring – Punctuation	3.62	.88	.09
Scoring software or websites	3.28	.91	.09

4.6.5 What factors influence pre-practicum trainees' perceived knowledge of writing?

Teacher trainees without teaching experience are still doing their pre-service education programs. Accordingly, their demographic information, experience in learning EFL and EFL related studies, and perceptions of own language level as well as the effectiveness of pre-service programs may be possible factors influencing their knowledge of writing. In my research, my question was how these factors influence pre-practicum trainees' thinking of writing. Particularly, these factors (outlined earlier in Section 4.3.1) included in the study are:

- Gender *(gender)*
- Years of learning English *(English learning)*
- English proficiency level *(English level)*
- English studies from pre-service programs *(English studies)*
- Preparedness of pre-service programs for teaching writing *(preparedness)*

In this section, the effect of these factors on pre-practicum trainees' self-estimated knowledge of writing will be discussed. That is, I will discuss how they influence trainees' conceptions of writing, understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, and issues related to the teaching of writing. Main findings are presented in the following sections.

4.6.5.1 Influence on conceptions of writing

In Study 1, the natures, functions, and development of writing, and features of texts are basic elements of conceptions of writing. According to the characteristics of the above mentioned factors, Independent Samples T-tests were performed to explore how gender, the length of learning English, and English proficiency level affect the participants' conceptions of writing; correlation analyses were used to detect the relationships between English Studies and preparedness and conceptions of writing.

Results of T-tests showed that gender did not change their thinking of writing; the length of learning English did not influence either, except on "writing is addressing specific audiences", t(df=85.59)=2.97, p=.004, and those who had learnt English more than six years rated significantly higher than those who had only learnt six years before starting the university level. Likewise, their self-estimated English level did not have an effect either, except on "paragraph of a text". Hence, the demographic information generally did not affect the participants' conceptions of writing.

Results of correlation analysis indicated that the participants' self-rated preparedness of pre-service programs weakly relates to some items of the conceptions of writing (.20<r<.36). Also, English Studies from pre-service programs weakly relate to conceptions of writing (.21<r<.37) but not systematically.

4.6.5.2 Influence on the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives

As what has been done in the above section, similar analyses were conducted. Results showed that gender, length of learning English, and English level did not change participants' thinking of curriculum standards and writing objectives.

English Studies from the pre-service programs are theoretically different from these document regulations, it is without the need to explore its influence. The preparedness of pre-service programs is supposed to be related to the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, however, correlation analysis found they are independent from each other. It indicates that either the document regulations might be included in the training programs or they may be addressed before or during the practicum.

4.6.5.3   Influence on opinions toward issues regarding writing instruction

In the study, pre-practicum trainees were asked to give their viewpoints of issues related to the teaching of writing. These issues contain: expectation to learn about students' writing levels; importance of planning a writing lesson, tasks of writing instruction, audiences and text genre types in students' writing assignments, and giving feedback on students' writing; identifying focal points of writing instruction, employing strategies and approaches, expected difficulties in teaching, and assessing students' writing.

In order to present the results more clearly, indices were created when and where are necessary and possible; also, for some constructs, original items will be used. Hence, in this section, the results are based on the index of:
- Expectation to learn about students' writing levels
- Importance of comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities
- Importance of audiences in students' writing assignments
- Importance of variety of genre types
- Identification of emphasis on objectives of writing instruction
- Expectation of intensity of difficulties in writing instruction
- Importance of giving feedback on students' writing
and clusters of:
- teaching rules, giving examples and involving students
- students' writing community and guidance
as well as items of tasks in writing instruction and assessment of students' writing.

Results of T-tests found that gender, length of learning English, and English level did not influence the participants' opinions toward the corresponding indexes mentioned above. Neither did have an effect on the two clusters and relevant items.

Results of correlation analysis are summarized in Table 32. Basically, participants' self-estimated preparedness of pre-service program has a medium correlation with the index of issues related to writing instruction. Also, it has a strong relationship with analytic scoring in assessing writing. Besides, results also showed that it is generally related to tasks of writing instruction ($.22<r<.49$). The finding confirms the frequency of participants' self-rated contribution of pre-service programs to their teaching of writing in future.

Table 32   *Correlations between Preparedness of Pre-service Programs for Teaching Writing and Issues Related to the Teaching of Writing*

		Preparedness of pre-service programs for teaching writing
Index	Expectation to learn about students' writing levels	.32**
	Importance of comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities	.41**
	Importance of audiences in students' writing assignments	NS
	Importance of variety of genre types	.23*
	Identification of emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	.47**
	Expectation of intensity of difficulties in writing instruction	NS
	Importance of giving feedback on students' writing	.47**
Cluster	Teaching rules, giving examples and involving students	.42**
	Students' writing community and guidance	.28**
Item of assessment of writing	Checklist	.25*
	Analytic scoring	.41**

Notes: $^*p<.05$, $^{**}p<.01$; NS – not significant

4.6.6 Summary

The current study aimed to examine what pre-practicum TEFL trainees think about writing. A questionnaire was developed to target conceptions of writing, the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, opinions toward issues regarding the teaching of writing, and factors influencing their perceived knowledge of writing.

Results indicated that the participants normally accepted writing as a product and process but greatly doubted its social nature. They paid more attention to the functions of writing concerned with the self and self-expression, and much less to those focusing on the addressee. With regard to goals and objectives, it was found that the respondents rated their knowledge quite low.

In terms of their opinions toward instructional issues, the participants were aware of learning about students' writing level when they start to teaching in future. They generally accepted the importance of comprehensive activities regarding lesson planning and tasks of writing instruction. They put emphasis on those who are more engaged in their study and life in students' writing assignments, and paid more attention to text types and tasks concerned with the application of writing and dealing with exams. They highlighted the very basic aspect among various objectives of writing instruction, but basically held the opinion of being teacher-directed in teaching writing and relatively ignored the engagement of and interaction between students. And interestingly, they did not report much difficulty in teaching writing. They put stress on what to feedback rather than how and when to feedback, and were not very sure about the assessment of writing due to their scarcity of teaching and evaluation experience.

Results also showed that the demographic information did not systematically influence the participants' conceptions of writing, their understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, and their opinions toward writing instruction.

This study has given a basic picture of how pre-practicum trainees think about writing. However, the participants in the sample had diversified opinions toward various issues related to the understanding of writing and writing instruction. Also, it seems that respondents' personal background did not prominently shape their thinking about writing. Therefore, it merits efforts to explore how teaching experience influences their knowledge of writing. Thus, the following chapter is about to examine trainees' knowledge of writing after the practicum so as to explore the possible development of TEFL trainees' knowledge of writing from pre-service programs to practice teaching.

4.7 Study 2. How do Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees Perceive their Knowledge of EFL Writing?

4.7.1 Introduction

It is well known that the practicum has a crucial impact on teacher trainees' growth through their teaching practice and their future careers. In the field of teaching EFL, research has shown that trainees experience a wide range of improvement (discussed in Part II, outlined in 2.6). However, the effect of the practicum on domain-specific areas of EFL does not get much attention in the literature.

As presented in Part III, writing is an indispensable component of English course in schools. Teachers, especially novice teachers will need to rely on their knowledge of writing, but we don't know if they have this knowledge, or we don't know what kind of knowledge of writing skills they have. The trainees, especially those who finish their practicum, will start their teaching career normally in one year. Are they well prepared? Do they understand writing skills in depth? The current chapter introduces Study 2, aiming to learn about how the practicum shapes trainees' thinking of writing. Study 2 targeted post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees, in particular, their conceptions of writing and their experiences in the practicum, using the instrument of Study 1 and complementing it with questions on the practicum. The research questions guiding Study 2 are the following:

- What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?
- How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for the grade level they teach in the practicum?
- What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing in the practicum?
- How do they perceive the effect of the practicum on their knowledge of writing?

4.7.2 What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' conceptions of writing?

4.7.2.1 Perceptions of the natures of writing

Writing is a multifaceted concept with various understandings. Participants were presented four statements: writing is a linguistic activity, writing is a cognitive activity, writing is a social activity, and writing is a cultural activity. Are trainees aware of these possible facets of writing? They were asked to indicate to what degree they accept these natures of writing on 5-point Likert scales. In order to show the distinctions more clearly, I recoded their responses, transforming 'strongly disagree, disagree, and uncertain' into "disagree and uncertain", and transforming 'agree and strongly agree' into "agree". The first step is to examine their awareness of the individual nature of writing. Frequencies of participants' acceptance of the individual nature of writing are shown in Figure 12.
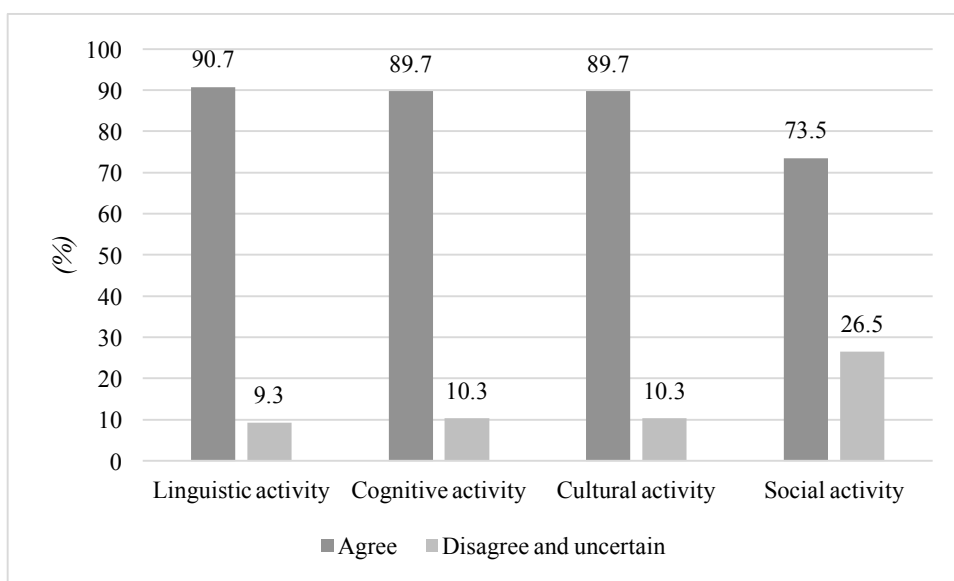
Figure 12 Frequencies of post-practicum trainees' acceptance of the individual nature of writing

From Figure 12, we can find that most respondents held views conforming to present research consensus, considering writing as a linguistic, cognitive and cultural tool. However, writing as a social activity didn't get prominent attention, i.e., 26.5% of participants doubted the social nature of writing.

Then do trainees really accept writing as a multifaceted nature? The second step is to find out their acceptance of the whole facets of writing. Frequencies of post-practicum trainees' acceptance are presented in Table 33. We can see that about two-thirds of respondents accepted all of the four facets of writing, but slightly over 10% of people may have different ideas about what writing is. Thus, it would call for further efforts to examine why some trainees are not attentive to some of the natures of writing.

Table 33   *Frequencies of Post-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of the Multi Facets of Writing*

Facets of writing	Percentage of acceptance
4	65.7
3	22.1
2	6.4
1	2.0
0	3.9

4.7.2.2   Perceptions of possible functions of writing

From the literature, we know that writing as an activity can serve different purposes with its multiple functions. These possible functions include writing is a tool for thinking, communication, creation, proving students' knowledge at exams, addressing specific audiences, and of importance in one's career. What functions do post-practicum trainees give preference to? As in Study 1, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and did similar analysis as before. Post-practicum trainees' acceptance of the possible individual function of writing is shown in Figure 13.
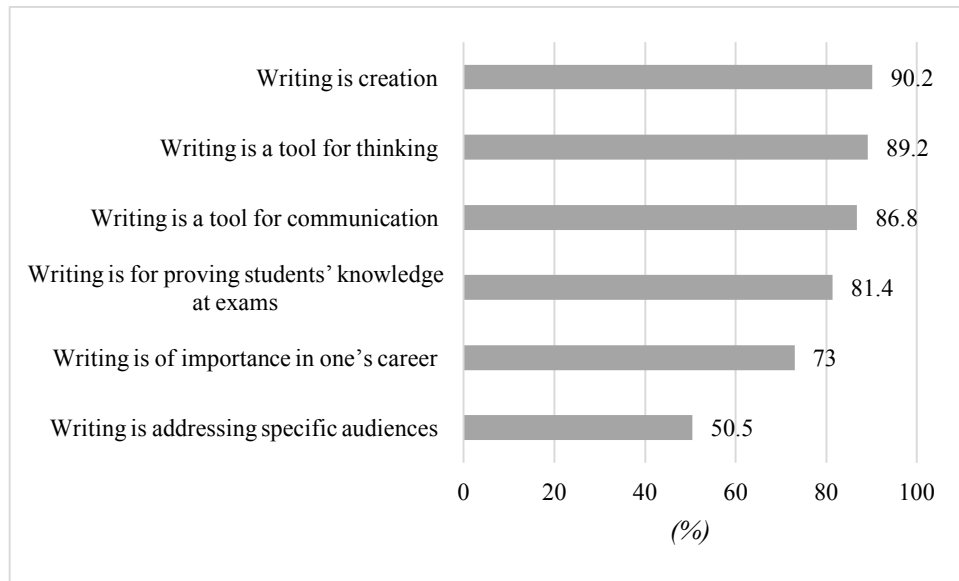
Figure 13 Frequency of post-practicum trainees' acceptance of individual function of writing

The frequencies of acceptance of individual function of writing show that the participants tend to view writing as a tool for creation, thinking, communication, and exams, but they pay less attention to its function in one's career. In accordance with the results of the facets of writing, only half of the participants accept the function of writing for addressing specific audiences.

Further, Paired-Samples T-tests were used to find if there are significant differences among respondents' acceptance of these possible functions of writing. The mean and standard deviation for post-practicum trainees' acceptance of each function are presented in Table 34. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among trainees' acceptance of individual function of writing are shown in Table 35.

Table 34   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of Individual Function*

Function of writing	M	SD	SE
Writing is creation	4.35	.88	.06
Writing is a tool for thinking	4.24	.82	.06
Writing is a tool for communication	4.16	.87	.06
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	3.97	.90	.06
Writing is of importance in one's career	3.88	.93	.07
Writing is addressing specific audiences	3.41	1.04	.07

Table 35　　*Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Post-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of Individual Function of Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Creation – thinking	.11	.67	2.29	203
2	Creation – communication	.19	.74	3.68	203
3	Creation – exams	.38	.87	6.23	203
4	Creation – career	.47	.87	7.62	203
5	Creation – audiences	.94	1.14	11.72	203
Pair 6	Thinking – exams	.27	.89	4.34	203
7	Thinking – career	.36	.87	5.85	203
8	Thinking – audiences	.83	1.17	10.13	203
Pair 9	Communication – exams	.19	.98	2.72	203
10	Communication – career	.28	.87	4.52	203
11	Communication – audiences	.75	1.17	9.12	203
Pair 12	Exams – audiences	.56	1.03	7.80	203
Pair 13	Career – audiences	.48	1.23	5.52	203

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

Paired-Samples T-tests confirmed that addressing specific audiences didn't get enough acceptance. It can be concluded that the respondents paid more attention to the functions of writing concerned with the self and self-expression, and much less to those focusing on the addressee.

Based on the recoded 2-point scales, it is interesting to find out participants' comprehensive agreement with the six possible functions involved in Study 2. Frequencies of post-practicum trainees' acceptance of functions of writing are presented in Table 36. We can see that only slightly over one-third of the participants accept all of the six functions of writing. It seems that a small number of participants were in trouble with recognizing the possible multiple functions of writing. Thus, it would also call for further efforts to examine the diversion of post-practicum trainees' comprehensive acceptance of the multiple functions of writing.

Table 36　　*Frequencies of Post-Practicum Trainees' Acceptance of Functions of Writing*

Numbers of functions	Percentage of acceptance
6	34.8
5	34.8
4	14.2
3	8.3
2	2.9
1	0.5
0	4.4

In the next step, I examined the relationship between the functions and concepts of writing. It is expected that trainees' concepts of writing influence their acceptance of the functions of writing. The correlation coefficients are shown in Table 37.

Table 37   *Correlations among Concepts and Functions of Writing*

	linguistic product	cognitive process	social nature	cultural tool
Tool for thinking	.67	.58	.50	.55
Communication	.57	.57	.56	.55
Creation	.64	.56	.45	.59
Exams	.53	.41	.40	.47
Career	.44	.46	.44	.49
Specific audiences	.30	.31	.32	.34

Note: All correlation coefficients in the table are significant, p < .01

A high positive correlation (r value varying between .45 and .67). was found between the participants' concepts of writing and writing as a tool for thinking, communication, and creation. A moderate positive correlation (r value varying between .40 and .53) was found between the participants' concepts of writing and its exam and career functions. However, as expected, writing for addressing specific audiences had a weaker positive correlation to any facet of writing (r-value varying between .30 and .34).

4.7.2.3   Perceptions of interventions to develop writing

Writing could be developed through direct interventions, such as writing activities and writing instructional activities; it could also be developed by indirect interventions, such as reading and speaking activities. Are they aware of this relationship?

In order to show the picture of trainees' agreement with interventions to develop writing clearly, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and conducted similar analysis as for concepts and functions of writing. First, I examined the frequency of participants' agreement with the contributors to writing development (see Figure 14). Basically, respondents agreed with the four interventions to develop writing. They held similar opinion toward intervention activities directly related to writing, but agreed more with the transfer effects of reading activities than that of speaking activities. It indicates that addressing people is also lower than the others.
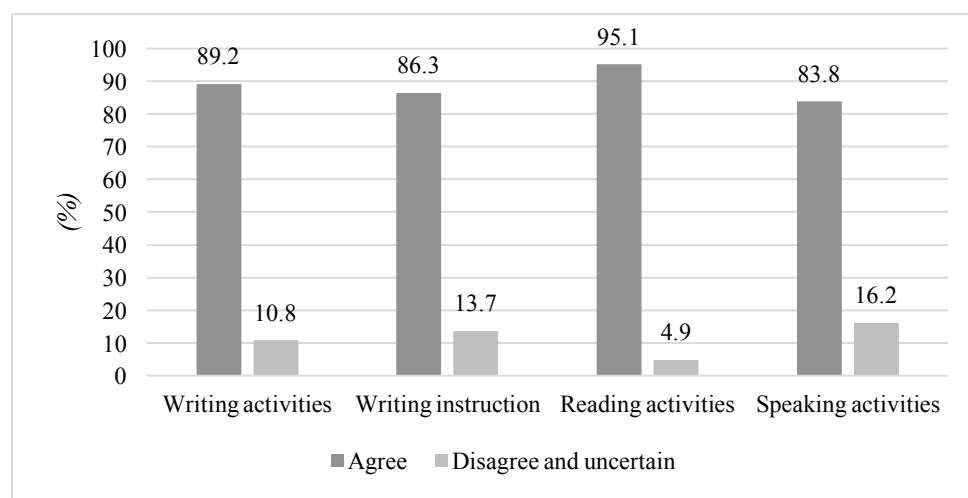
Figure 14 Frequency of post-practicum trainees' agreement with the intervention to develop writing

Then I performed Paired Samples T-tests to identify if there are any significant differences among these four interventions to develop writing. The mean and standard deviation for post-practicum trainees' agreement with the interventions to develop writing are presented in Table 38. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests are shown in Table 39. It is found that participants put the greatest emphasis on the transfer effect of reading activities to the development of writing but less on that of writing instruction and speaking activities.

Table 38   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Interventions to develop writing	M	SD	SE
Engagement in reading facilitates writing	4.45	.78	.06
Engagement in writing activities facilitates writing	4.21	.84	.06
Students learn to write when they are taught to	4.13	.83	.06
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	4.09	.81	.06

Table 39   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Post-Practicum Trainees' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df	p
Pair 1	Reading activities – writing activities	.24	.56	6.15	203	<.001
2	Reading activities – writing instruction	.32	.65	6.98	203	<.001
3	Reading activities – speaking activities	.36	.72	7.11	203	<.001
Pair 4	Writing activities – speaking activities	.12	.67	2.51	203	<.05

4.7.2.4 Perceptions of features of texts

So far, I have discussed writing as an activity (or process), here, I will focus on writing as a text (or product). A great body of research has shown that content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and so on, are basic components for good writing (cf., Cho, 2003; Knoch, 2011; Lee, 2007, 2011). These are the frequently used aspects in evaluating a text. What do post-practicum trainees pay attention to when evaluating a piece of EFL text?

For the purpose of analysis, the frequently used aspects were grouped into three levels: conceptual features (content, structure of a text, structure of a paragraph, length of a text), linguistic features (style of language, grammar, vocabulary, semantics, cohesive devices), and coding features (spelling, punctuation, handwriting). First, I examined their general weight on each aspect of these features when evaluating a text. The mean for their weight in assessing writing is presented in Figure 15. It can be found that trainees normally emphasize most of the features but put less stress on punctuation and length.
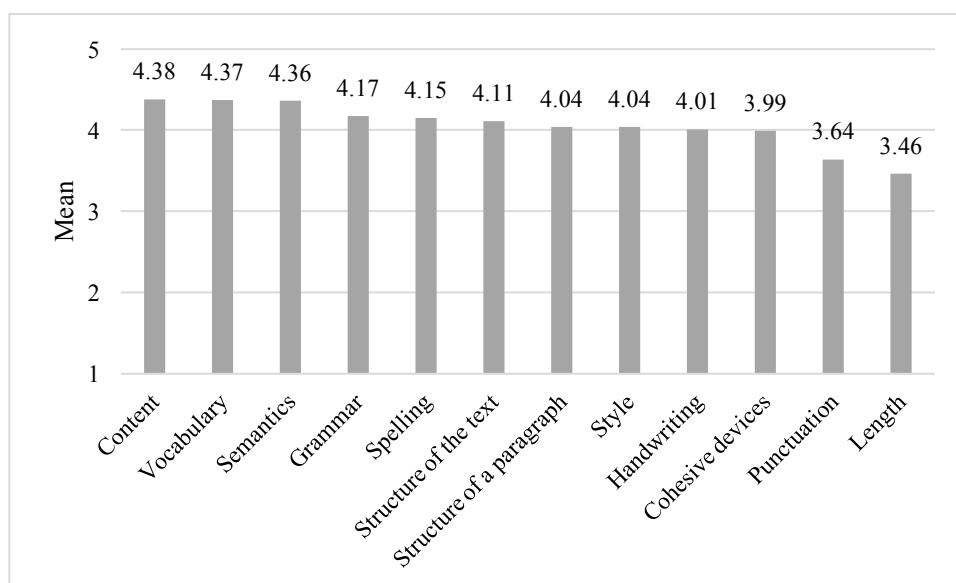
Figure 15 Mean of post-practicum trainees' weight on each feature of a text in evaluating writing

Then the three levels of text features were computed, namely, conceptual features (M=3.99, SD=.67), linguistic features (M=4.18, SD=.65), and coding features (M=3.93, SD=.75) were created. Paired Samples T-tests were performed to compare if there are any favored criteria among these features when participants assess a text. Results are shown in Table 40. It is found that post-practicum trainees preferred linguistic features to conceptual and coding features when assessing a text.

Table 40   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Criteria in Post-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df	p
Pair 1	Linguistic features – conceptual features	.19	.39	6.74	203	<.001
2	Linguistic features – coding features	.25	.54	6.59	203	<.001

4.7.3 How do post-practicum trainees rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective for the grade level they teach in the practicum?

It is clear that the Curriculum Standards are the base and guidance for a teacher's classroom instruction. Additionally, the writing skill objective is a more specific guideline that directs a teacher's teaching of writing. The respondents were asked to rate their knowledge of curriculum standard and writing objective on a 5-point scale. The results show that participants rated their knowledge of curriculum standards relatively low (M = 3.51, SD = .862). They also reported a considerably poor knowledge of the writing skill objective (M = 3.43, SD = .813). A very strong correlation (r = .639, p < .01) was found between participants' self-rated knowledge of the curriculum standards and the writing skill objective for the grade level they taught in the practicum.

These findings make me worried not only as a researcher but also a teacher trainer. They also raise questions need to be addressed, such as the time for trainees learn to

understand the above-mentioned knowledge, the people who are supposed to teach them, and how to examine whether trainee grasp them or not, and so on. Perhaps, this issue might be addressed either in the pre-service teacher education programs or in the structure of the practicum, i.e., before the practicum or during the practicum.

Apart from participants' knowledge of content regulation, it deserves more efforts to examine their experience in the practicum. In the next section, I will discuss post-practicum trainees' perceptions of their experience during their practicum.

4.7.4 What are post-practicum trainees' perceptions of experience in teaching writing in the practicum?

4.7.4.1 Knowledge of students' writing levels

It is also well known that teachers' knowledge of their students is another important base for effective teaching. Whether trainees know about students' writing levels affects their effective practices in writing instruction. How much opportunity does the practicum give them to learn about students' writing knowledge? And how much do trainees think they know student's writing levels? Results of participants' self-rated knowledge of their students' writing levels in the practicum are presented in Table 41. We can find that participants tended to know more about students' spelling ability in writing, and much less about students' writing experience and prior knowledge of writing, etc. Notably, the respondents characterized their knowledge of their students' writing levels somewhere between somewhat and much ($3.32 < M < 3.86$), i.e., participants did not know very much about their students' writing levels in the practicum. The frequency of responses shows that trainees learned the most on 'spelling' (56.37% rated much, 19.12% very much). This reflects the practical situation of trainees' practicum, that is to say, they spend much time checking students' assignments and probably pay more attention to spelling errors which are easier to examine.

Table 41   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Self-Rated Knowledge of their Students' Writing Levels in the Practicum*

Knowledge of students' writing levels	M	SD	SE
Spelling	3.86	.84	.06
Production of coherent text	3.73	.82	.06
Use of tenses and voices	3.73	.80	.06
Vocabulary	3.71	.83	.06
Use of cohesive devices	3.70	.83	.06
Use of sentence structures	3.67	.84	.06
Use of punctuation	3.63	.90	.06
Ways of word choice	3.58	.91	.91
Writing needs and interests	3.44	.98	.07
Competence of writing in different genres	3.42	1.01	.07
Prior knowledge of writing	3.36	.93	.07
Writing experience	3.32	.99	.07

4.7.4.2 Priorities when planning a writing lesson

When learning to teach, lesson planning involves various decision-making processes, through which trainees need to "plan at different levels, mostly informal, creative, knowledge-based, flexible and within a practical and ideological context" (Calderhead, 1996, p. 713). In planning a writing lesson, trainees need to decide what and how to teach, and how to give feedback and to evaluate. What are post-practicum Chinese TEFL trainees' priorities when planning a writing lesson? Results are shown in Table 42.

A series of Paired Samples T-tests show that the mean (4.13) for "Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson" is significantly higher than that for all of the others presented in the table. Therefore, trainees' focus is to think about what to teach in each lesson. The fact that trainees are not experienced in teaching and accordingly not experienced in planning lessons might account for their priority to visible activities when planning a writing lesson compared to those relatively more invisible ones, such as organizational forms and issue related to feedback.

Table 42   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Priorities when Planning a Writing Lesson*

Lesson planning	M	SD	SE
Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson	4.13	.75	.05
Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests	4.01	.77	.05
Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson	4.01	.78	.06
Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest	4.00	.79	.06
Targeting the requirements of exams	3.91	.82	.06
Identifying curriculum standards and requirements	3.84	.79	.06
Planning for phases of the writing processes	3.81	.78	.05
Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate	3.79	.85	.06
Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by who	3.75	.90	.06

4.7.4.3 Perceptions of the importance of the tasks of writing instruction

The tasks of writing instruction cover various aspects of activities and are of importance in improving students' writing skills, knowledge, motivation, etc. How do they rate the importance of these tasks in writing instruction? First, I checked their evaluation of the importance of the tasks of writing instruction involved in the study. Results are shown in Table 43. It is clear that participants generally rate the importance of the tasks of writing instruction high ($3.97 < M < 4.27$).

Table 43   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Estimation of the Importance of the Tasks of Writing*
            Instruction

Tasks of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
9a To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.	3.97	.79	.05
9b To provide practice of correct use of language	4.19	.71	.05
9c To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning	4.15	.67	.05
9d To use newly-learnt words in writing	4.21	.77	.05
9e To use newly-learnt sentence structures in writing	4.27	.73	.05
9f To consolidate new understandings by writing	4.18	.73	.05
9g To reformulate and extend learning by writing	4.24	.70	.05
9h To prove what students have learned	4.14	.71	.05
9i To motivate students' individual creativity	4.22	.75	.05
9j To increase students' awareness of written discourse	4.22	.69	.05
9k To improve students' self-confidence	4.15	.78	.05
9l To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing	4.22	.76	.05
9m To use styles appropriate to given genres	4.05	.81	.06
9n To develop writing as a skill	4.21	.79	.06

Next, a cluster analysis was conducted to group similar and homogeneous variables of teaching tasks presented in Table 43. We can find that there are generally two clusters (see Figure 16). For the purpose of classifying the variables more clearly, smaller clusters could be identified, i.e., cluster one: items 9b, 9c, 9d, 9e; cluster two: items 9f, 9g, 9h, 9i, 9j; and cluster three: items 9k, 9l, 9m, 9n. Based on the characteristics of items in each cluster, corresponding cluster names are casted: specific tasks of writing instruction (cluster 1), writing-related tasks (cluster 2), and general tasks (cluster 3). Also, composite indexes for each cluster are created. This information will be used in later analysis. It is noticeable that item 9a is independent from the other clusters. Probably, participants did not differentiate it from the other tasks of writing instruction. That is to say, they might have considered it as an issue of the coding system of writing rather than sense-making of writing.

Dendrogram using Average Linkage (Between Groups)

Rescaled Distance Cluster Combine
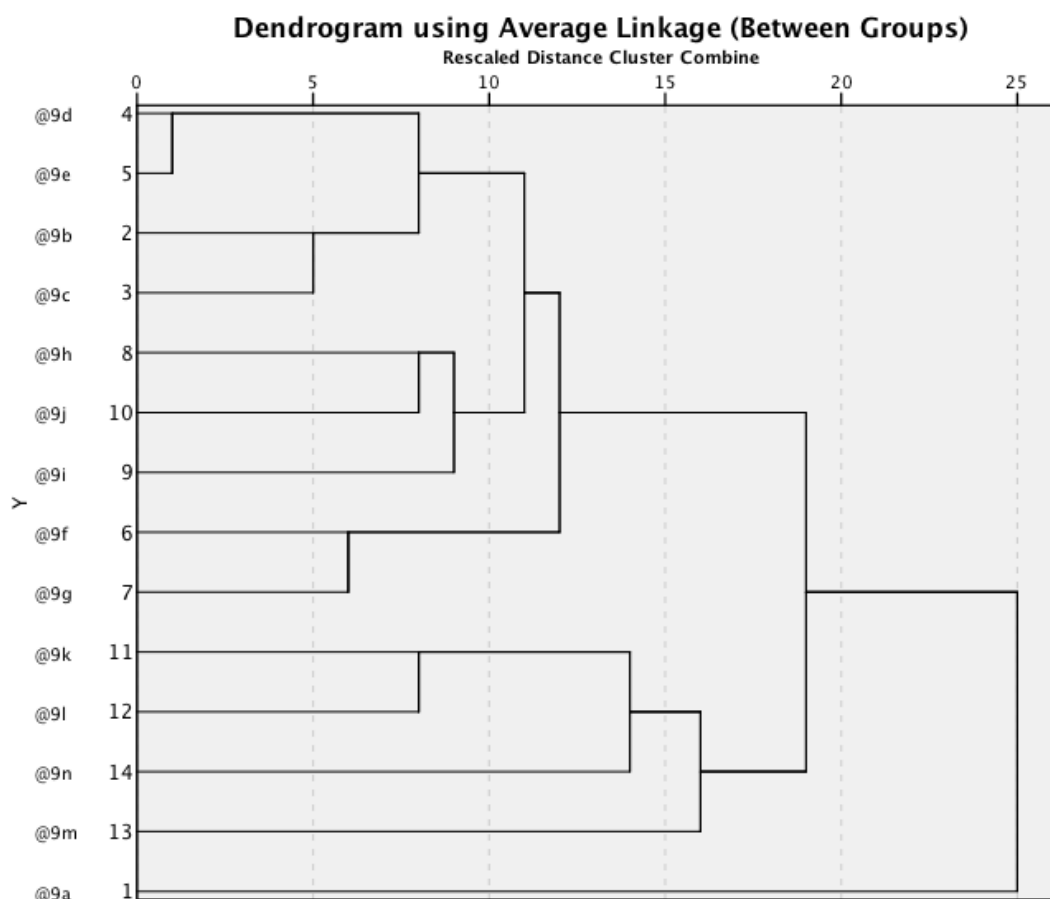
Figure 16 Cluster dendrogram for the tasks of writing instruction by post-practicum trainees

4.7.4.4 Awareness of addressing audiences when assigning students writing tasks

One of the most important natures of writing is its communicative role in real life. Do post-practicum trainees ask their students to write to audiences in real life? In order to show a whole profile of their consciousness of addressing audiences when giving students writing assignments, the original 5-point scales were used to present their responses (see Figure 17).

The findings demonstrate that peers or schoolmates, teachers, friends, and family members are the main audiences of trainees' assignment to students' writing, and trainees neglect those who are outside the class or family, such as school newspaper, social organization, school administrators or officials. It indicates that application of writing to address people in real life did not get sufficient attention in post-practicum trainees' assignment to student' writing.
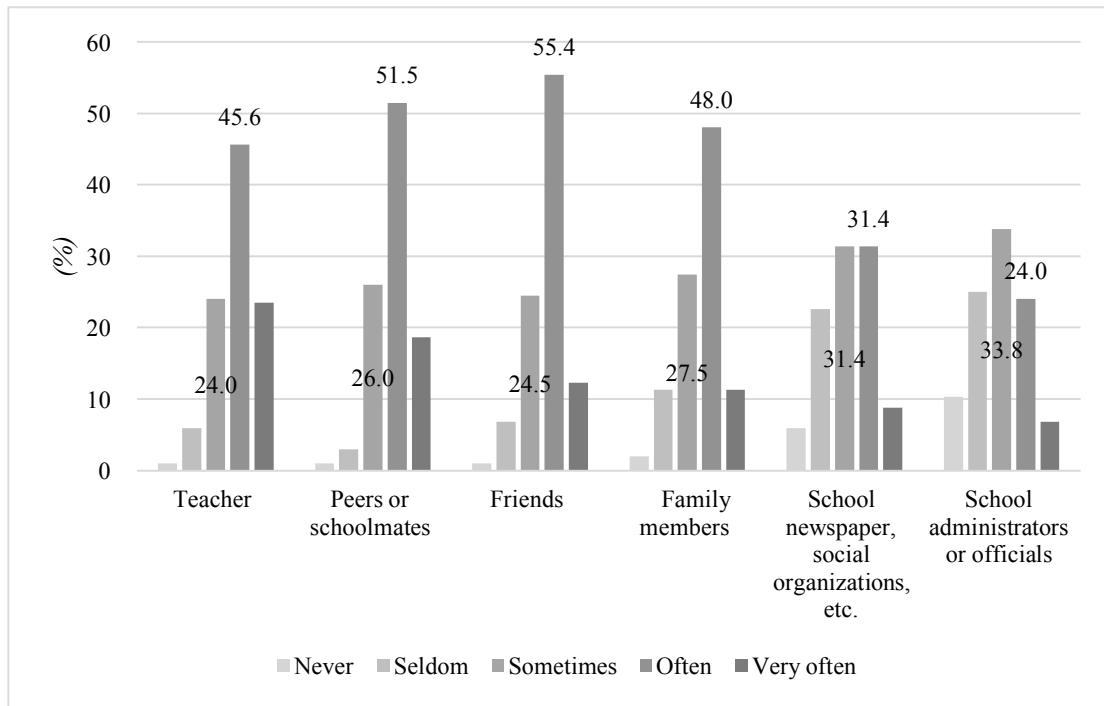
Figure 17 Frequencies of designated audiences in students' writing assignments by post-practicum trainees

4.7.4.5 Varieties of writing genres and activities in assignments of students' writing

Students are supposed to master different types of writing in order to improve their writing skills and abilities through constant practices. What types of texts and tasks do post-practicum trainees ask students to write? For the purpose of showing their favored genre types and tasks more clearly, I transformed the 5-point scales into 2-point as what I did earlier. Results of the frequencies of varieties of writing genres and activities they gave in students' assignment are presented in Figure 18. It is obvious that they put the greatest emphasis on mock exams (94.1%) when assigning writing tasks to students, followed by letters and journals (respectively 92.2%).
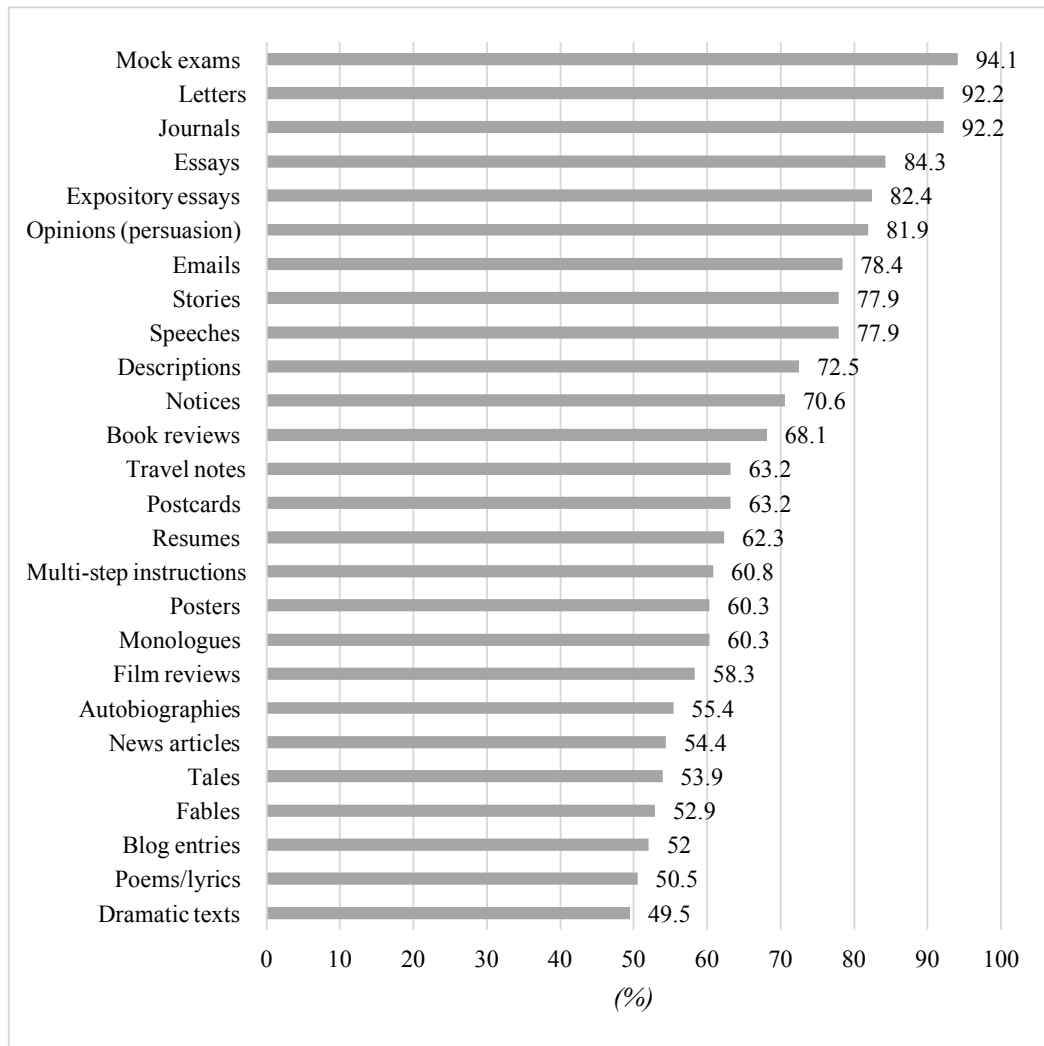
Figure 18 Frequencies of varieties of writing activities for students' assignment by post-practicum trainees

Next, I performed factor analysis to group the multiple writing genres and activities. Three factors were identified: frequently assigned genres and activities, less frequently assigned genres and activities, and least frequently assigned genres and activities (KMO= .949). Accordingly, three composite indexes were created: frequently assigned genres and activities (M= 3.66, SD=.71), less frequently assigned genres and activities (M= 3.05, SD=.89), and least frequently assigned genres and activities (M= 2.87, SD=.91). Further, Paired Samples T-test showed there are significant differences between these factors of writing genres and activities assigned by post-practicum trainees (see Table 44). It indicates, together with the frequency of their assigned writing genres and tasks, that participants did not ask students to write in a wide range of text types but focused mainly on targeting exams and some simple writing activities.

Table 44   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Varieties of Writing Genres and Activities in Students' Assignment Designated by Post-Practicum Trainees*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Frequently assigned genres and activities – least frequently assigned genres and activities	.79	.73	15.59	203
2	Frequently assigned genres and activities – less frequently assigned genres and activities	.61	.68	12.85	203
Pair 3	Less frequently assigned genres and activities – least frequently assigned genres and activities	.18	.47	5.50	203

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

4.7.4.6   Focal points of writing instruction

In the teaching of writing, teachers might focus on improving students' mastery of writing mechanics, linguistics, forms, contents, genres, or attach importance to students' ability to cope with writing tasks related to their real life. These aspects are possible emphases of a writing lesson. What do trainees view as the focal points in their teaching of writing? Results are shown in Table 45. Findings indicate that participants normally consider the abovementioned aspects to be important in their writing instruction. They put the greatest emphasis on correct spelling of letters and words, and the least to the application of writing in handling everyday issues, such as filling out application forms, reserving tickets, etc.

Table 45   *Mean for Focal Points of Post-Practicum Trainees' Teaching of Writing*

Focal points of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Spelling of letters and words	4.26	.68	.05
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	4.19	.74	.05
Editing with the teacher's guidance	4.16	.73	.05
Correct usage of capitalization	4.13	.77	.05
Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	4.11	.69	.05
Writing simple descriptions of people or things	4.10	.74	.05
Writing simple greetings	4.07	.77	.05
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	4.06	.80	.06
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	4.04	.69	.05
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	4.01	.73	.05
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	3.99	.83	.06
Drafting short letters and passages independently	3.98	.82	.06
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	3.77	.89	.06

Then what are the relationships between their emphasis on writing instruction and self-estimated importance of writing instruction tasks? Here, the three clusters of tasks of writing instruction identified earlier and the items of emphasis on writing instruction are used in the correlation analysis (see Table 46). It is clear that items of focal teaching points are strongly related to specific tasks (.30 < r<.60), writing-related tasks (.35<r<.56), and general tasks (.37<r<.61). By comparison, the three types of

instruction tasks have lowest correlation coefficients on their emphasis on filling out forms (.30<r<.37).

Table 46   *Correlations among Tasks and Emphasis of Writing Instruction by Post-Practicum Trainees*

	specific tasks	writing-related tasks	general tasks
Spelling of letters and words	.48	.46	.45
Correct usage of capitalization	.45	.42	.40
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	.47	.44	.46
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	.58	.53	.57
Writing simple greetings	.44	.42	.46
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	.55	.54	.54
Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	.60	.56	.57
Drafting short letters and passages independently	.54	.56	.61
Editing with the teacher's guidance	.48	.54	.56
Writing simple descriptions of people or things	.53	.56	.56
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	.53	.52	.53
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	.30	.35	.37
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	.42	.44	.48

Notes: All correlation coefficients in the table are significant, p < .01

4.7.4.7   Strategies and approaches in teaching writing

Classroom teaching involves a variety of complex activities. Effective teachers always employ numerous flexible strategies and approaches in their class to reach teaching objectives and help students develop. What strategies and approaches do post-practicum trainees use in their writing instruction during the practicum? What types of strategies and approaches could be identified? What are their preferential strategies and approaches? And what is the relationship between tasks of writing instruction and the teaching strategies and approaches? To answer these questions, a factor analysis on teaching strategies and approaches (KMO=.930) was conducted first, then factor-based paired samples t-tests were conducted. Results are presented in the following relevant sub-questions section.

4.7.4.7.1   Types of strategies and approaches identified in post-practicum trainees' teaching of writing

In total, 23 items were included in the construct of strategies and approaches in the teaching of writing. Based on these items, three factors emerged: Teaching rules and involving students, Students' writing community and guidance, and Teaching with

examples (see Table 47). The table also combines the data of mean and standard deviation for each item.

Table 47   *Factors of Post-Practicum Trainees' Strategies and Approaches when Teaching Writing*

Factors	Items	M	SD	Loading
Teaching rules and involving students	Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)	4.08	.71	.83
	Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)	4.03	.75	.79
	Individual writing	4.14	.70	.74
	Making clear what good writing looks like	4.08	.69	.73
	Giving general advice on good writing	4.00	.73	.73
	Teaching students how to organize ideas	4.03	.69	.71
	Teaching student show to develop ideas	3.97	.72	.71
	Giving tips on how to write a new task	3.99	.71	.70
	Guided writing	4.00	.74	.62
	Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study	4.04	.75	.58
	Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.	4.05	.80	.52
	Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing	3.79	.82	.50
	Teaching students different writing genres	3.86	.85	.44
Students' writing community and guidance	Paired writing	3.36	.99	.89
	Group writing	3.45	.94	.81
	Organizing writing partnerships or small groups	3.59	.95	.79
	Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts	3.76	.92	.58
	Providing checklists to guide students	3.68	.96	.57
Teaching with examples	Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions	3.84	.80	.79
	Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts	3.85	.76	.72
	Shared writing (writing with students)	3.64	.93	.60
	Modeled writing (by the teacher)	3.81	.82	.59
	Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic	3.85	.84	.50

KMO = .930, Bartlett's Test, p < .001

Total variance explained: 63.86%.

4.7.4.7.2   Relationships among types of strategies and approaches

Based on the three factors, composite indexes were created. The relationships among different types of strategies and approaches are shown in Table 48. It is clear that the three factors are highly related to each other.

Table 48   *Correlations among Factors of Strategies and Approaches in Post-Practicum Trainees'*
            Writing Instruction

	Student writing community and guidance	Teaching with examples
Teaching rules and involving students	.61**	.75**
Student writing community and guidance		.71**

Note: ** *p<.01*

4.7.4.7.3   Preferential strategies and approaches when teaching of writing

Paired Samples T-tests are conducted to compare which type of strategies and approaches are trainees' preferential one. Results are presented in Table 49. The mean differences show that the mean (M=4.00, SD=.56) for "teaching rules and involving students" strategies and approaches are significantly higher than that for "teaching with examples" strategies and approaches (M=3.79, SD=.66) and that for "student writing community and guidance" strategies and approaches (M=3.57, SD=.77). The mean for "teaching with examples" strategies and approaches are significantly higher than that for "student writing community and guidance" strategies and approaches. Therefore, among the three types of strategies and approaches, participants prefer methods of giving rules and involving students in their teaching of writing.

Table 49   *Results of Paired Samples T-test between Post-Practicum Trainees' Strategies and*
            Approaches when Teaching Writing

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Teaching rules and involving students – teaching with examples	.21	.44	6.67	203
2	Teaching rules and involving students – student writing community and guidance	.44	.61	10.15	203
Pair 3	Teaching with examples – student writing community and guidance	.23	.55	5.90	203

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

4.7.4.7.4   Relationships between tasks of writing instruction and the teaching strategies and approaches

It is expected that the teaching strategies and approaches are significantly related to the tasks of writing instruction. Correlations are shown in Table 50. We can see that teaching rules and involving students strongly relate to tasks of writing instruction (.62<r<.69), teaching with examples moderately relate to writing instruction tasks (.45<r<.53), and student writing community and guidance has a lower correlation to the tasks of writing instruction (.29<r<.44). It indicates that post-practicum trainees tend to be teacher-directed when choosing teaching strategies and approaches in dealing with instructional tasks.

Table 50   *Correlations among Tasks of Writing Instruction and Factors of Strategies and Approaches in Post-Practicum Trainees' Writing Instruction*

	Teaching rules and involving students	Student writing community and guidance	Teaching with examples
Specific tasks	.62	.29	.45
Writing-related tasks	.62	.33	.46
General tasks	.69	.44	.53

Notes: All correlation coefficients in the table are significant, p < .01

4.7.4.8   Difficulties in teaching writing

The practice of teaching may be challenging to trainees due to its complexities. What difficulties do trainees experience in their teaching of writing in the practicum? Results are shown in Table 51. Findings indicate that participants generally report much difficulty in teaching writing for the mean values are greater than 4. In fact, some of the issues related to teaching writing in the mean table are difficult for experienced teachers, such as teaching students to think in English for writing in English. Whereas some items are supposed to be relatively easy for trainees, such as organizing group work for writing in class and providing instant feedback on students' writing, participants also consider them to be hard in their practice teaching. Besides, it is noticeable that the standard deviation is basically large, which illustrates that some participants even had stronger difficulties in the teaching of writing.

Table 51   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Difficulties in Teaching Writing*

Difficulties in writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Teaching students to think in English for writing in English	4.27	.95	.07
Finding appropriate writing tasks for students	4.27	.99	.07
Motivating students to write	4.26	.99	.07
Providing realistic writing situations and tasks	4.21	1.03	.08
Organizing group work for writing in class	4.20	.93	.07
Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback	4.20	1.00	.07
Providing detailed feedback to students' writing	4.16	1.03	.08
Setting aside time for students to write in class	4.15	1.08	.08
Identifying students' problems with writing	4.14	1.07	.08
Providing instant feedback to students' writing	4.12	1.09	.08
Meeting individual needs or interests of writing	4.08	1.10	.08
Developing a systematic syllabus for writing	4.06	1.05	.08

Next, I created a composite index of the intensity of difficulties post-practicum trainees experience in teaching writing. Then I checked the relationship between trainees' self-reported difficulties in teaching writing and their knowledge of curriculum standards (r=.10, p>.05), writing objective descriptors (r=.07, p>.05), and their students' writing levels (r=.15, p<.05). Also, it is found that the difficulty index is independent from the tasks of teaching writing (.06<r<.11, p>.05). It indicates that participants may have not thoroughly differentiated the items of teaching difficulties.

4.7.4.9 Feedback on students' writing

Feedback plays an important role in improving the effectiveness of learning and teaching writing. What types of feedback could be identified? What kind of feedback do post-practicum trainees prefer? To answer these questions, first, a factor analysis was conducted, then paired samples t-tests were used to compare the items within each factor. Results are presented in the following relevant sub-questions section.

4.7.4.9.1 What types of feedback could be identified in post-practicum trainees' teaching of writing?

In total, 16 items were included in the construct of giving feedback on students' writing. Based on these items, two factors were extracted: Content of feedback, and forms of feedback. The statistical analysis and results are presented in Table 52, combining mean and standard deviation for each item of giving feedback on student writing.

Table 52   *Factors of Post-Practicum Trainees' Feedback on Student Writing*

Factors	Items	M	SD	Loading
Content of feedback	Pointing out errors of grammar	4.03	.71	.88
	Correcting errors in language use and mechanics	4.00	.72	.84
	Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing	3.96	.75	.76
	Strategies for revision	3.93	.77	.71
	Providing feedback on form and structure	3.90	.73	.69
	Assessing the accuracy of conclusions	3.78	.81	.64
	Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)	3.85	.75	.61
	Giving feedback on students' homework	3.95	.76	.61
Forms of feedback	Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom	3.66	.85	.80
	Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)	3.73	.86	.76
	Written notes to the student	3.69	.90	.71
	Whole-class response to a sample of writing	3.85	.80	.68
	Suggesting improvements in style	3.70	.87	.65
	Teacher-student conference	3.75	.84	.62
	Read-aloud of a good sample of writing	3.85	.80	.59
	Characteristics of different genres	3.67	.89	.51

KMO = .940, Bartlett's Test, p < .001

Total variance explained: 63.55%.

4.7.4.9.2 What kind of feedback do post-practicum trainees prefer?

The mean shown in Table 52 does not tell clear differentiation among items. In order to better reveal participants' favored response to student writing, Paired Samples T-tests were conducted to compare items within each factor of feedback. With respect to the factor of the content of feedback, pointing out grammatical errors got highest mean; in terms of the factor of forms of feedback, read-aloud of a good sample of writing and whole-class response to a sample of writing ranked higher than the other items. Hence,

participants preferred linguistic issues and problems in students writing when giving feedback. The finding is consistent with the result of their evaluation of student text discussed earlier in this study. Also, they favored collective feedback in class, which is probably associated with the large class size in China.

4.7.4.10 Assessment of student writing

It is well known that assessment plays a vital part in catching students' attention in class, diagnosing their learning performance, grading their academic achievement, and motivating their learning. Among rubrics, checklist, holistic scoring, analytic scoring (content, coherence and cohesion, grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling), and scoring software or websites, which one do post-practicum trainees prefer? Mean for their assessment of student writing is listed in Table 53. Paired samples T-tests showed that participants preferred to use the rubric and analytic scoring significantly more when assessing students' writing, and scoring software or websites significantly less, than a checklist and holistic scoring (see Table 54).

Table 53   *Mean for Post-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Student Writing*

Assessment of students' writing	M	SD	SE
Rubrics	3.86	.76	.05
Analytic scoring	3.78	.65	.05
Checklist	3.62	.92	.06
Scoring – Holistic	3.56	.88	.06
Scoring software or websites	3.12	1.07	.08

Table 54   *Results of Paired Samples T-test between Post-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Student Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Rubrics – Checklist	.24	.95	3.59	203
2	– Holistic	.29	.99	4.29	203
3	– Scoring software or websites	.75	1.16	9.11	203
Pair 4	Analytic scoring – Checklist	.16	.73	3.10	203
5	– Holistic	.21	.77	3.99	203
6	– Scoring software or websites	.66	.99	9.48	203
Pair 7	Checklist – Scoring software or websites	.50	1.03	6.97	203
Pair 8	Holistic – Scoring software or websites	.44	1.04	6.11	203

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

It is worth noting that the mean for each item is smaller than four on a 5-point scale, which indicates that the participants did not use them frequently in their assessment of student writing. This might be attributed to the fact that the practicum is quite short that trainees did not have much chance to assess student writing or their mentor assigned them some other learning tasks, such as observing mentor's classroom teaching.

4.7.5 How do post-practicum trainees perceive the effect of the practicum on their knowledge of writing?

Through the practicum in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), research has shown that trainees experience a wide range of improvement in teacher beliefs (Yuan & Lee, 2014), teacher knowledge (Merç, 2015), competence of teaching behaviors (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2010), and consciousness and ability of reflection (Rass, 2014). Worldwide, teacher training programs are varied in structure. Also, the forms of teaching practice included in teacher training programs vary accordingly. However, the effect of the practicum on domain-specific areas of EFL is rarely discussed in the literature. Therefore, for my research, I put forward the question: how do post-practicum trainees perceive the influence of the practicum on their knowledge of writing? In the study, the formal characteristics of the practicum mainly include:
- weeks of the practicum (*length*)
- school location (*location*)
- school level (*level*)
- class size taught (*class size*)
- number of writing lessons taught in the practicum (*lessons*)

These characteristics have been outlined in Section 4.3.2. In this section, the effect of these characteristics on trainees' perceived knowledge of writing will be presented. That is, I will discuss the influence of the practicum characteristics on trainees' conceptions of writing, understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, and content of instructional issues later. Here, I will only present the significant effects.

4.7.5.1 Influence on conceptions of writing

In the study, the natures, functions, and development of writing, and features of texts are basic elements of conceptions of writing. Based on the characteristics of the practicum, Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVAs) were conducted to explore what shapes trainees' thinking of writing. Only a few significant effects were found (see Table 55).

Table 55   *Influence of Practicum Characteristic on Trainees' Conceptions of Writing. A Summary of MANOVAs with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		Source	df	Mean Square	F	p	η²
Construct	Item						
The natures of writing	Writing is a cognitive activity	Lessons	2	2.71	4.77	.01	.09
		Length * level * class size	1	2.29	4.02	.05	.04
		Location* class size * lessons	2	1.87	3.29	.04	.07
	Writing is a social activity	Location	3	1.99	2.86	.04	.09
		Class size	3	2.20	3.17	.03	.09
		Length * level * class size	1	2.29	4.03	.05	.04
Functions of writing	Writing is for addressing specific audiences	Level * lessons	4	3.36	3.06	.02	.12
	Writing is a tool for communication	Length * level * class size	1	3.56	4.42	.04	.04
	Writing is of importance in one's career	Length * location * lessons	1	3.36	4.21	.04	.04
		Location * level * class size	2	2.51	3.15	.05	.06
Interventions to develop writing	Writing activities facilitate writing	Length * location * level	1	3.89	5.63	.02	.06
Features of texts	Vocabulary	Length	2	3.08	5.50	.01	.11
		Length * location	4	2.08	3.72	.01	.14
	Grammar	Class size * lessons	3	2.44	3.76	.01	.11
	Semantics	Length	2	1.84	3.50	.03	.07
		Location * level * lessons	2	1.99	3.79	.03	.08
	Content	Length * location	4	1.63	2.77	.03	.11
	Style	Class size * lessons	3	1.82	2.85	.04	.09
		Length * level * class size	1	2.97	4.66	.03	.05
	Structure of a paragraph	Length	2	3.11	4.78	.01	.10
	Structure of the text	Length * level * lessons	2	2.13	3.42	.04	.07
	Spelling	Location	3	2.07	3.26	.03	.10
		Length * location * level	1	4.53	7.14	.01	.07

Notes: Lessons – the number of writing lessons taught altogether in the practicum; length – the length of the practicum; level – school level taught in the practicum; location – school location

Table 55 calls attention to several interesting phenomena. First, some features of the practicum do influence the perception of writing as a cognitive and social activity. These characteristics are related to the instructional practice of the trainees (i.e., lessons, length, level, location, class size). Among which, lessons and the interaction of location, class size, and lessons have significant effects on participants' conceptions on writing as a cognitive activity with respectively medium effect size (p<.05, η2 =.09, η2 =.07); location and class size respectively affects significantly on the perception of writing as a social activity with medium effect size (p<.05, η2 =.09). These findings indicate that the exposure to teaching opportunities and the broader learning environment for trainees influence their concepts of writing, because the number of writing lessons taught in the practicum is an indicator of the chance of teaching, and school location is an indicator of learning community and resources.

Second, in terms of functions of writing, the interaction of school level and lessons has a significant effect on writing for communicating with people with medium effect size (p<.05, η^2 =.12). Also, the interaction of location, level, and class size basically affects the participants' perception of the contribution of writing to one's career with medium effect size (p=.05, η2 =.06).

As for attention to features of good texts, the practicum characteristics generally influenced various aspects of conceptual, linguistic, and coding features of a text with basically medium effect size (.05< η^2<.14, p<.05). It is noticeable that (1) the length of the practicum has significant effect on vocabulary and paragraph structure as features of good texts with respectively medium effect size (η2 =.11, η2 =.10, p<.05); (2) school location affects significantly on spelling as a feature of a good text with medium effect size (η2 =.10, p<.05); (3) the interaction of the length of the practicum and school location has significant influence on vocabulary and content as features of good text with respectively medium effect size (η2 =.14, η2 =.11, p<.05); and (4) the interaction of class size and writing lessons taught altogether in the practicum has significant influence on grammar as a feature of good texts with medium effect size (η2 =.11, p<.05).

Results of MANOVAs showed that writing lessons taught in the practicum, school location, class size, and the length of the practicum are the distinguishing factors influencing participants' conceptions of writing. Therefore, it is worth further efforts to explore the specific effects of these characteristics of the practicum.

Post Hoc Tests with Dunnett T found that the mean for those who taught writing altogether more than six lessons (M=4.25, SD=.85) is significantly higher than that for who taught less than two lessons (M=3.93, SD=.85) on writing as a cognitive activity. School location, class size and the length of the practicum did not exert an effect on participants' perceptions (p>.05). Therefore, the practicum does not systematically influence participants' conceptions of writing.

4.7.5.2   Influence on the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives

In this section, I will discuss the effect of the practicum on post-practicum trainees' understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives related to writing

instruction. One-way ANOVAs were conducted to explore how practicum characteristics affect trainees' understanding (see Table 56).

Table 56   *Influence of Practicum Characteristic on Trainees' Understanding of Curriculum Standards and Writing Objectives. A summary of ANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables	Source	df	Mean Square	F	p
Knowledge of Curriculum Standards	Lessons	2	2.92	4.04	<.05
Knowledge of the Descriptors for Writing Skill Objectives	Lessons	2	4.13	6.61	<.01

Results showed that only the number of writing lessons in the practicum influenced the participants' knowledge of either variable. With regard to the curriculum standards, a Tukey test demonstrated that the mean for those who taught more than six writing lessons (M=3.75, SD=.85) is significantly higher than that for those who taught less than two lessons (M=3.33, SD=.81). As to the writing objectives, Tukey showed that the mean for those who taught over six writing lessons (M=3.72, SD=.82) is significantly higher than those who taught less than two (M=3.21, SD=.78) and between two and six (M=3.38, SD=.78). The findings are similar to the result of the effect of practicum characteristics on conceptions of writing. It seems that, among various formal characteristics of the practicum, the number of opportunities to teach writing is a distinguished factor shaping trainees' understanding of goals and objectives.

4.7.5.3 Influence on perceptions of teaching experience in the practicum

In the post-practicum trainee questionnaire, the constructs regarding teaching experience include understanding students' writing levels, planning a writing lesson, verifying the importance of tasks of writing instruction, assigning audiences and text genre types for students' writing, identifying focal points of writing instruction, employing strategies and approaches, undergoing difficulties in teaching, giving feedback on students' writing, and assessing students' writing. The effects of the practicum characteristics on trainees' teaching experience are presented below.

For the purpose of showing the results more clearly, index or factors were created where is necessary and possible; also, for some constructs, original items will be used. Thus, in this section, the results are based on the index of:
- knowledge about students' writing levels (based on items in Section 4.7.4.1)
- comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities (based on items in Section 4.7.4.2)
- variety of tasks in writing instruction (based on items in Section 4.7.4.3)
- audiences in students' writing assignments (based on items in Section 4.7.4.4)
- variety of genre types (based on items in Section 4.7.4.5)
- emphasis on objectives of writing instruction (based on items in Section 4.7.4.6)
- intensity of difficulties in writing instruction (based on items in Section 4.7.4.8)

and the factor of:
- teaching rules and involving students (based on items in Section 4.7.4.7)
- students' writing community and guidance (based on items in Section 4.7.4.7)
- teaching with examples (based on items in Section 4.7.4.7)

- the content of feedback (based on items in Section 4.7.4.9)
- forms of feedback (based on items in Section 4.7.4.9)

as well as items of assessment of students' writing (see Section 4.7.4.10). Results are summarized in Table 57 with only significant effects.

Table 57   *Influence of Practicum Characteristic on Trainees' Reflected Teaching Experience. A Summary of MANOVAs with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables (Index of …)	Source	df	Mean Square	F	p	η^2
Knowledge about students' writing levels	Level * lessons	4	1.28	3.13	.02	.12
	Length * level * class size	1	1.66	4.07	.04	.04
	Length * class size * lessons	4	1.23	3.03	.02	.11
Comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities	Length	2	1.00	3.23	.04	.06
	Length * location	4	1.32	4.26	.01	.15
	Level * location * class size	2	1.27	4.10	.02	.08
Variety of tasks in writing instruction	Length	2	1.23	3.51	.03	.07
	Length * location	4	1.57	4.48	.01	.16
Audiences in students' writing assignments	Length	2	1.68	3.57	.03	.07
Variety of genre types	Location * class size * lessons	2	2.10	3.70	.02	.07
Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	Length	2	1.36	4.39	.01	.08
	location	3	.89	2.87	.04	.08
	Length * location	4	1.00	3.23	.01	.12
(Factor of …)	**Source**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**	**η^2**
Teaching rules and involving students	Length	2	.86	3.16	.04	.06
	location	3	.97	3.55	.01	.10
	Length * location	4	.79	2.89	.02	.11
Student writing community and guidance	Length	2	2.78	4.55	.01	.09
Content of feedback	Length * location	4	1.20	3.15	.01	.12
	Level * location * class size	2	1.36	3.57	.03	.07
(Item…)	**Source**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**P**	**η^2**
Rubrics	Class size * lessons	3	1.79	2.92	.03	.08
	Level * location * class size	2	1.96	3.19	.04	.06
Scoring software or websites	Level * lessons	4	2.45	2.52	.04	.10
	Length * class size * lessons	4	2.75	2.83	.02	.11
Scoring holistic	Class size * lessons	3	2.14	2.72	.04	.08

From Table 57, we can find that the practicum characteristics influenced trainees' perceptions of teaching experience from various ways. First, the interaction of school level and writing lessons taught in the practicum influenced significantly on the index

of knowing about students' writing levels with medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .12$, p < .05). Also, the interaction of length of the practicum, class size, and writing lessons taught in the practicum has a significant influence on the same index with the same effect size.

Second, the interaction of the length of the practicum and school location has a significant effect on the index of the comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities with large effect size ($\eta^2 = .16$, p<.05). As discussed earlier, school location is a broad learning environment where trainees can learn from the school community through their practicum period.

Third, a large effect size ($\eta^2 = .17$, p<.05) of the interaction of the length of the practicum and school location can be found on the index of the variety of tasks in writing instruction. Likewise, trainees may learn about the important tasks of writing instruction through their involvement in the school community during their practicum.

Fourth, on the index of audience designated in students' writing assignments, the length of the practicum exerted a medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .07$, p<.05). Also, a significant influence of the interaction of school location, class size, and writing lessons taught in the practicum was found on the index of the variety of genre types in students' writing assignments with a medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .08$, p<.05).

Fifth, on the index of the emphasis on the objectives of writing instruction, it was found that the length of the practicum and school location respectively had the medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .09$, p<.05). Besides, the interaction of the length and school location also had a medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .13$, p<.05).

The above results show that the length of practicum and school location are the two distinguished factors influencing participants' perceptions of relevant indexes of issues related to the instructional practice of the trainees. In the following, I will discuss the influence of practicum characteristics on factors of constructs concerned with the teaching of writing.

Firstly, on the construct of teaching strategies and approaches, MANOVAs showed that school location had significant influence on the factor of teaching rules and involving students with medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .11$, p<.05), and the interaction of school location and the length of the practicum also affected significantly with medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .11$, p<.05). Besides, the length of the practicum had a significant effect on the factor of student writing community and guidance with medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .09$, p<.05).

Secondly, on the construct of giving feedback on student writing, it was found that the interaction of the length of the practicum and school location influenced significantly on the factor of the content of feedback with medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .12$, p<.05).

Similarly, the length and school location were found to be the two influential factors on shaping trainees' thinking about their experience of teaching writing in the practicum. In the last step, I will discuss the effect of the practicum characteristics on the items of the assessment of writing. Results are presented in the following.

As can be seen in Table 57, various characteristics had basically medium effect size on the items ($.07 < \eta^2 < .11$). By comparison, the interaction of school level and writing lessons taught in the practicum had relatively larger effect size ($\eta^2 = .10$, p<.05)

on the item of using scoring software or websites when assessing student writing; also, the interaction of the length of the practicum, class size, and writing lessons taught in the practicum had similar effect size ($\eta^2=.11$, $p<.05$) on the same item.

4.7.6 Summary

The purpose of this study was to learn about post-practicum TEFL trainees' self-estimated knowledge of writing in the Chinese context. Specifically, it aimed to explore trainees' conceptions of writing, understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, perceptions of experience in teaching writing in the practicum, and evaluation of the effect of practicum characteristics on their knowledge of writing. An online questionnaire targeting all of the above issues was employed to collect information. Various analyses were conducted to answer the above questions.

Results showed that the post-practicum participants in the sample generally tended to be product-oriented and self-focused but audience-neglected when thinking about the conceptions of writing. As for goals and objectives, it was found that the respondents rated their knowledge relatively low. In terms of their instructional experience in the practicum, they reported differences on issues related to the teaching of writing. The participants did not fully know about students' writing levels and focused on what to teach when planning lessons. They recognized the importance of writing tasks but centered on certain easy aspects in their teaching of writing and did not engage students in writing with varieties of genre types targeting audiences. Also, they were teacher-directed and reported various difficulties in teaching writing. They basically focused on linguistic issues when giving feedback on student writing but were not intensively involved in the assessment of student writing.

Results also indicated that the practicum did not systematically influence the participants' thinking about writing, but the chance of teaching affected their understanding of goals and objectives. The length of the practicum and school location influenced to some extent their perceptions of experience in teaching writing, and school level and writing lessons taught in the practicum impacted their assessment of writing.

Study 2 has presented a considerably full picture of how post-practicum trainees estimate their knowledge of writing. However, it seems that the practicum did not saliently shape the participants' thinking about writing, probably because the practicum is too short to influence remarkably. Therefore, it is of importance to explore how teachers with much more teaching experience examine their knowledge of writing so as to reveal the possible changes of TEFL teachers' knowledge of writing through pre-service to in-service. Thus, teachers' self-rated knowledge of writing will be discussed in the following chapter.

4.8 Study 3. How do Chinese TEFL Teachers Perceive their Knowledge of EFL Writing?

4.8.1 Introduction

In the educational system, it has been widely accepted that teachers' professional knowledge directs the effectiveness of instruction and impacts student achievement. According to Schulman, pedagogical content knowledge is the key issue of the teacher knowledge base for teaching (Shulman, 1987). Its constituent element, subject matter knowledge, referring to what teachers know, is the core and prerequisite component of teacher knowledge base.

In teaching writing in EFL contexts, however, limited information is known about teachers' knowledge base of writing (Lee, 2010). In the past few years, a variety of studies emerged in responding to Hirvela and Belcher's (2007) advocate of more attention to writing teachers' preparation and development. These studies include several research themes: writing teacher education and training (e.g., Crutchfield, 2015; Ene & Mitrea, 2013; Lee, 2010; Lee, 2013), teachers' beliefs and practice in writing instruction (e.g., Ferede, Melese, & Tefera, 2012; Fu & Matoush, 2012; Khanalizadeh & Allami, 2012; Koros, Indoshi, & Okwach, 2013); Melketo, 2012; Yang & Gao, 2013; Yang, 2015), and other teaching behaviours (e.g., Farrell, 2006; Min, 2013). However, there still seems to be a paucity of research on teachers' knowledge base of writing. In order to address this issue, this chapter (Study 3) shifts from TEFL trainees to teachers.

The aim of Study 3 was to explore how TEFL teachers estimate their knowledge of writing. This issue is more interesting because of the tensions between the modern language pedagogy and the exam-driven culture characteristic of China. The questionnaire administered shared most questions from Studies 1 and 2 and new questions targeted the teaching practices of the participants. The research questions guiding Study 3 are the following:
- What are Chinese TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing?
- How do they rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?
- What are their perceptions of experience in teaching writing?
- What factors influence their perceived knowledge of writing?

4.8.2 What are Chinese TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing?

4.8.2.1 Perceptions of the natures of writing

As discussed earlier, writing is a multifaceted concept with various understandings. Respondents were presented four statements of writing natures: writing is a linguistic activity, writing is a cognitive activity, writing is a social activity, and writing is a cultural activity. Are teachers aware of these facets of writing? They were asked to indicate to what degree they accept these natures of writing on 5-point Likert scales. In order to show participants' distinctions more clearly, I recoded their responses, transforming 'strongly disagree, disagree, and uncertain' into "disagree and uncertain", and transforming 'agree and strongly agree' into "agree". Then the first step is to

examine their awareness of the individual nature of writing. Frequencies of their acceptance of each nature of writing are presented in Figure 19.
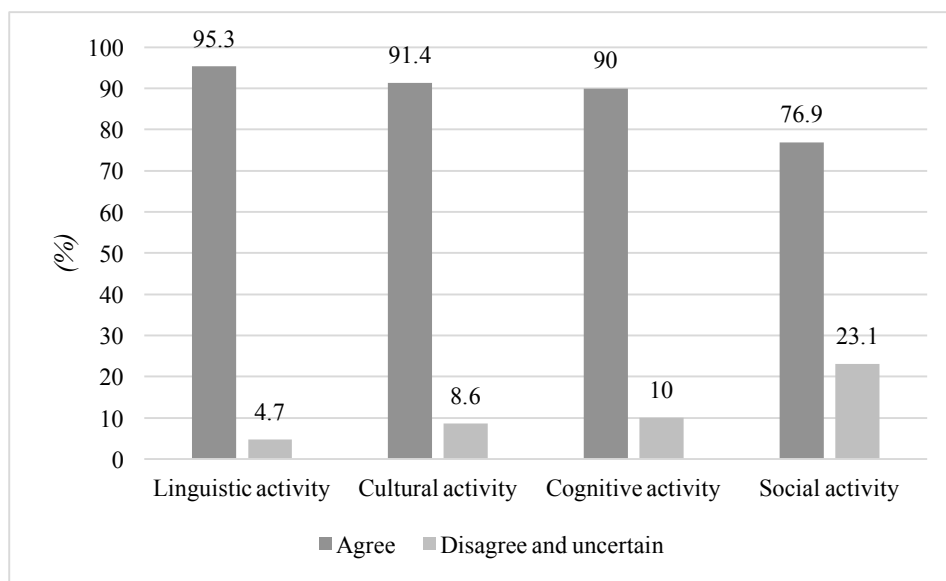
Figure 19 Frequencies of teachers' acceptance of the individual nature of writing

From Figure 19, we can see that the majority of respondents held views conforming to present research consensus, considering writing as a linguistic, cultural and cognitive activity. However, writing as a social activity didn't get prominent attention, i.e., 23.1% of the participants doubted the social nature of writing.

Then do teachers really accept writing as a multifaceted nature? The second step is to find out teachers' acceptance of the whole facets of writing. Frequencies of teachers' acceptance are presented in Table 58. One can find that less than three-quarters of respondents accepted all of the four facets of writing, but slightly over 10% of teachers may have different ideas about what writing is. Thus, it would also deserve further efforts to examine why some teachers are not attentive to some of the natures of writing.

Table 58   *Frequencies of Teachers' Acceptance of the Multi Facets of Writing*

Facets of writing	Percentage of acceptance
4	71.4
3	18.0
2	6.3
1	1.4
0	2.9

4.8.2.2 Perceptions of functions of writing

The literature indicates that writing as an activity can serve different purposes with its multiple functions. These possible functions involved are the same as those in the previous chapters, including writing as a tool for thinking, communication, creation, proving students' knowledge at exams, addressing specific audiences, and of importance in one's career. What functions do teachers give preference to? Similar to Studies 1 and 2, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and performed similar analysis as before. Teachers' acceptance of the possible individual function of writing is demonstrated in Figure 20.
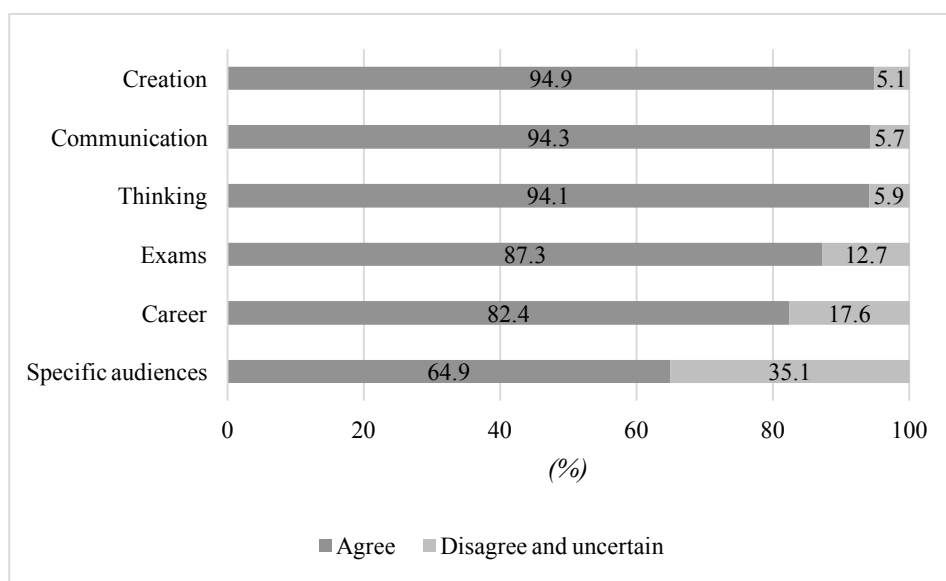
Figure 20 Frequency of teachers' acceptance of individual function of writing

The frequencies of acceptance of individual function of writing show that the participants tended to view writing as a tool for creation, communication, thinking, exams, and career, but they pay less attention to its function in addressing specific audiences. In accordance with the results of the facets of writing, only slightly less than two-thirds of the participants accept the function of writing for addressing specific audiences.

Further, Paired-Samples T-tests were employed to find if there are significant differences among respondents' acceptance of these possible functions of writing. The mean and standard deviation for teachers' acceptance of each function are presented in Table 59. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among teachers' acceptance of individual function of writing are presented in 0.

Table 59   *Mean for Teachers' Acceptance of Individual Function*

Function of writing	M	SD	SE
Writing is creation	4.43	.80	.04
Writing is a tool for communication	4.36	.81	.04
Writing is a tool for thinking	4.34	.77	.04
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	4.18	.88	.04
Writing is of importance in one's career	4.14	.91	.04
Writing is addressing specific audiences	3.73	1.07	.05

135

Table 60   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Teachers' Acceptance of Individual Function of Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Creation – communication	.08	.53	3.22	489
2	Creation – thinking	.09	.59	3.44	489
3	Creation – exams	.25	.79	7.10	489
4	Creation – career	.29	.83	7.83	489
5	Creation – audiences	.70	1.05	14.80	489
Pair 6	Communication – exams	.18	.78	4.95	489
7	Communication – career	.22	.82	5.84	489
8	Communication – audiences	.63	1.02	13.57	489
Pair 9	Thinking – exams	.16	.79	4.51	489
10	Thinking – career	.20	.81	5.52	489
11	Thinking – audiences	.61	1.00	13.48	489
Pair 12	Exams – audiences	.45	1.04	9.56	489
Pair 13	Career – audiences	.41	1.07	8.45	489

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

Similar to trainees' concepts of writing, Paired-Samples T-tests confirmed that addressing specific audiences did not get much attention. It seems that the respondents put more stress on the functions of writing related to the self and self-expression, and much less to the functions that serve a communicative role. The finding also indicates that the participants in the sample did not really put writing for exams at a prominent place. This is opposite to the real practice of EFL teaching in China as outlined in Part III. Perhaps the respondents were conscious to weaken the function of writing for proving students' knowledge at exams.

Based on the recoded 2-point scales, I further checked participants' comprehensive agreement with the six possible functions involved in Study 3. Frequencies of teachers' acceptance of functions of writing are presented in Table 61. We can see that only slightly over half of the participants accept all of the six functions of writing, but a small number of participants were in trouble with recognizing the possible multiple functions of writing. Thus, it would also merit further efforts to examine the diversion of teachers' comprehensive acceptance of the multiple functions of writing.

Table 61   *Frequencies of Teachers' Acceptance of Functions of Writing*

Numbers of functions	Percentage of acceptance
6	54.1
5	27.3
4	11.0
3	3.5
2	1.0
1	0.2
0	2.9

In the next step, I examined the relationship between the functions and concepts of writing. It is expected that teachers' concepts of writing influence their acceptance of the functions of writing. The correlation coefficients are shown in Table 62.

Table 62   *Correlations among Concepts and Functions of Writing*

	linguistic product	cognitive process	social nature	cultural tool
Tool for creation	.71	.63	.52	.65
Tool for communication	.70	.65	.54	.66
Tool for thinking	.65	.61	.48	.57
Proving one's knowledge at exams	.55	.53	.43	.52
Contributing to one's career	.49	.54	.51	.48
Addressing specific audiences	.35	.42	.39	.30

Note: All correlation coefficients in the table are significant, p < .01

High positive correlations (r-value varying between .48 and .71) were found between the concepts of writing and writing as a tool for creation, communication, and thinking. Moderate positive correlations (r-value varying between .43 and .55) were found between the concepts of writing and its exam and career functions. However, as could be expected, writing for addressing specific audiences had a weaker positive correlation to any facet of writing (r-value varying between .30 and .42). It seems that teachers' conceptions of writing relate strongly to their acceptance of the writing functions concerned with the self and self-expression. In contrast, there seems to be a weaker influence of how teachers understand writing on their acceptance of the writing function in targeting audiences.

4.8.2.3   Perceptions of interventions to develop writing

Writing could be developed through direct and indirect interventions. Direct interventions include writing activities and writing instructional activities, and indirect interventions contain reading and speaking activities. Are teachers aware of this relationship?

In order to show the profile of teachers' awareness of interventions to develop writing clearly, I also recoded the original 5-point scales into 2-point scales, and run a similar analysis as I did to concepts and functions of writing earlier. Firstly, I examined the frequency of participants' agreement with the interventions to develop writing (see Figure 21). In general, respondents agreed with the four interventions to develop writing. They held similar opinion toward interventional activities directly related to writing but agreed more with the transfer effects of reading activities compared to that of speaking activities. It demonstrates that addressing people get less attention than the others.
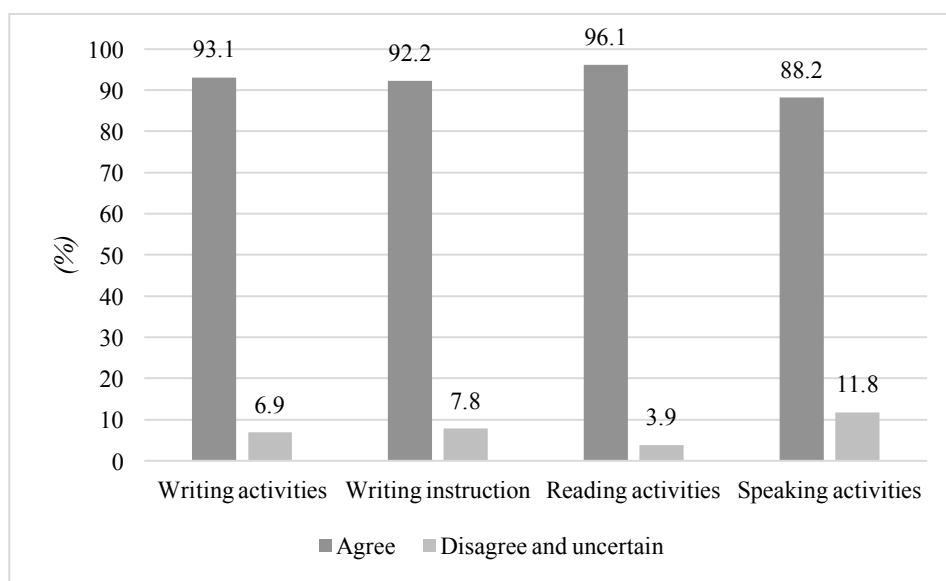
Figure 21 Frequency of participants' agreement with the intervention to develop writing

Next, I conducted Paired Samples T-tests to explore if there is any significant difference among these four interventions to develop writing. The mean and standard deviation for teachers' agreement with the interventions are presented in Table 63. Results of Paired-Samples T-tests are shown in Table 64. It is found that participants put the greatest stress on the transfer effect of reading activities to the development of writing but less on that of writing instruction and speaking activities.

Table 63 *Mean for Teachers' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Interventions to develop writing	M	SD	SE
Engagement in reading facilitates writing	4.53	.76	.03
Engagement in writing activities facilitates writing	4.36	.77	.04
Students learn to write when they are taught to	4.25	.77	.06
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	4.20	.84	.04

Table 64 *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Teachers' Agreement with the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Reading activities – writing activities	.17	.54	7.17	489
2	Reading activities – writing instruction	.28	.59	10.41	489
3	Reading activities – speaking activities	.33	.64	11.25	489
Pair 4	Writing activities – speaking activities	.15	.68	4.97	489

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

4.8.2.4 Perceptions of features of texts

So far, I have discussed writing as an activity (or process), here, I will focus on writing as a text (or product). A large amount of research has demonstrated that content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and so on, are basic components of good writing (cf., Cho, 2003; Knoch, 2011; Lee, 2007, 2011). These

aspects are also frequently used in evaluating a text. What is teachers' preference when evaluating a piece of EFL text?

For the purpose of analysis, the frequently used aspects were grouped into three levels: conceptual features (content, structure of a text, structure of a paragraph, length of a text), linguistic features (style of language, grammar, vocabulary, semantics, cohesive devices), and coding features (spelling, punctuation, handwriting). Firstly, I examined participants' general weight on each aspect of these features when evaluating a text. The mean for their preference in assessing writing is presented in Figure 22. It seems that participants basically pay attention to most features but relatively neglect those of punctuation and length.
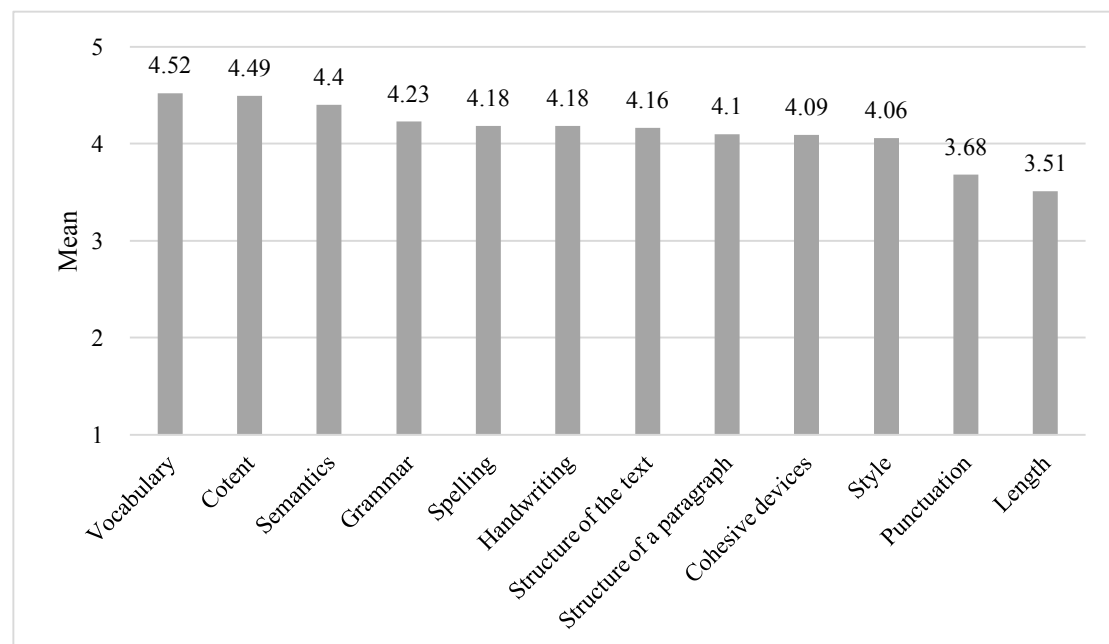
Figure 22 Mean of teachers' weight on each feature of a text in evaluating writing

Next, the three levels of text features were computed, namely, conceptual features (M=4.06, SD=.27), linguistic features (M=4.25, SD=.25), and coding features (M=4.01, SD=.31) were created. Then Paired Samples T-tests were run to examine if there are any favored criteria among these features when teachers assess a text. Results are shown in Table 65. It is found that teachers tend to focus on linguistic issues when assessing a text.

Table 65   *Results of Paired-Samples T-tests among Criteria in Teachers' Assessment of Writing*

Pairs of samples		M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1	Linguistic features – conceptual features	.19	.39	10.94	489
2	Linguistic features – coding features	.25	.51	10.81	489
3	Conceptual features – coding features	.06	.47	2.63	489

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

4.8.3 How do teachers rate their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?

It is clear that the Curriculum Standards are the base and guidance for a teacher's classroom instruction. The writing skill objective is a more specific guideline directing a teacher's instruction of writing. The participants were asked to rate their knowledge of curriculum standard and writing objective on a 5-point scale. The results show that participants rated their knowledge of curriculum standards relatively good (M=3.98, SD=.748). Similarly, they reported a considerably good knowledge of the writing skill objective (M=3.91, SD=.736). A very strong correlation (r=.765, p<.01) was found between participants' self-rated knowledge of the curriculum standards and the writing skill objective for the grade level they teach.

In addition to teachers' knowledge of content regulation, it warrants more efforts to examine their experience in teaching writing. In the next section, I will discuss teachers' perceptions of their experience in writing teaching-related issues.

4.8.4 What are teachers' perceptions of experience in teaching writing?

4.8.4.1 Knowledge of students' writing levels

Teachers' knowledge of their students is another indispensable base for effective teaching. What and how teachers know about students' writing levels influence their effective teaching of writing. Participants were asked to rate how much they know student's writing levels. Results are presented in Table 66 below. It can be seen that teachers tend to know more about students' spelling ability and linguistic issues in writing, but pay less attention to students' writing experience and individual needs. It is noticeable that respondents rated their knowledge of their students' writing levels somewhere between somewhat and very much (3.80 < M < 5.00), i.e., participants generally know well about their students' writing ability. The frequency of responses also shows that teachers emphasize the most on 'spelling' (59.18% rated much, 27.96% very much).

Table 66   *Mean for Chinese TEFL Teachers' Self-Rated Knowledge of their Students' Writing Levels*

Knowledge of students' writing levels	M	SD	SE
Spelling	4.12	.71	.03
Vocabulary	4.08	.76	.03
Use of tenses and voices	4.07	.75	.03
Production of coherent text	4.01	.74	.03
Ways of word choice	3.99	.75	.03
Use of sentence structures	3.99	.73	.03
Use of cohesive devices	3.98	.75	.03
Use of punctuation	3.97	.75	.03
Prior knowledge of writing	3.87	.81	.04
Writing experience	3.81	.81	.04
Writing needs and interests	3.80	.85	.04
Competence of writing in different genres	3.80	.86	.04

4.8.4.2　Priorities when planning a writing lesson

In planning a writing lesson, teachers need to decide what and how to teach, and how to give feedback and to evaluate. What are Chinese TEFL teachers' priorities when planning a writing lesson? Results of descriptive statistics are shown in Table 67.

Then a series of Paired Samples T-tests show that the mean (M=4.13, SD=.721) for "targeting the requirements of exams" is significantly higher than that for all of the others presented in the table, except that for "designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson". Therefore, teachers' focus in planning a lesson is basically driven by exams. In other words, exams shape teachers' decision-making of what to teach. This reflects the exam-driven culture of language teaching and learning in China as discussed earlier in Chapter 3.

Table 67　*Mean for Chinese TEFL Teachers' Priorities when Planning a Writing Lesson*

Lesson planning	M	SD	SE
Targeting the requirements of exams	4.14	.72	.03
Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson	4.11	.76	.03
Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson	4.07	.80	.04
Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests	4.00	.81	.04
Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest	3.98	.80	.04
Planning for phases of the writing processes	3.93	.78	.04
Identifying curriculum standards and requirements	3.88	.85	.04
Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate	3.76	.87	.04
Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by whom	3.74	.90	.04

4.8.4.3　Perceptions of the importance of the tasks of writing instruction

After discussing knowledge of students' writing levels and priorities in lesson planning, I will move to important tasks involved in writing instruction. The tasks contain various aspects of activities targeting students' writing skills, knowledge, motivation, etc. How do teachers rate the importance of these tasks in writing instruction? I checked their rated importance of the tasks of writing instruction involved in the study. Results are shown in Table 68. The participants seemed to consider the use of language and general language ability to be the most important tasks of writing instruction and regarded mechanics of writing as the least important tasks of writing instruction. However, the means as well as the standard deviations, did not prominently differentiate the tasks in the teaching of writing, i.e., the respondents normally considered the tasks of writing instruction important (4.09 < M < 4.33).

Table 68   *Mean for Teachers' Evaluation of the Importance of the Tasks of Writing Instruction*

Tasks of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
To provide practice of correct use of language	4.33	.63	.03
To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing	4.33	.64	.03
To develop writing as a skill	4.32	.65	.03
To use newly learned sentence structures in writing	4.31	.63	.03
To increase students' awareness of written discourse	4.30	.65	.03
To motivate students' individual creativity	4.27	.67	.03
To use newly learned words in writing	4.26	.62	.03
To reformulate and extend learning by writing	4.26	.66	.03
To consolidate new understandings by writing	4.24	.69	.03
To prove what students have learned	4.21	.65	.03
To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning	4.18	.66	.03
To improve students' self-confidence	4.16	.71	.03
To use styles appropriate to given genres	4.11	.72	.03
To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.	4.09	.69	.03

4.8.4.4   Awareness of addressing audiences when assigning students writing tasks

As outlined earlier, writing serves to address audiences with its social communicative nature. Do teachers ask their students to write to audiences in real life? In order to show a clear picture of their consciousness of addressing audiences when giving students writing assignments, the original 5-point scales were used to present their responses (see Figure 23).

The findings illustrate that teachers, peers or schoolmates, friends, and family members are the main audiences of teachers' assignment to students' writing, and teachers relatively ignore those who are outside the class or family, such as school newspaper, social organization, school administrators or officials. It indicates that application of writing to address people in real life did not get sufficient attention in teachers' assignment to student' writing.
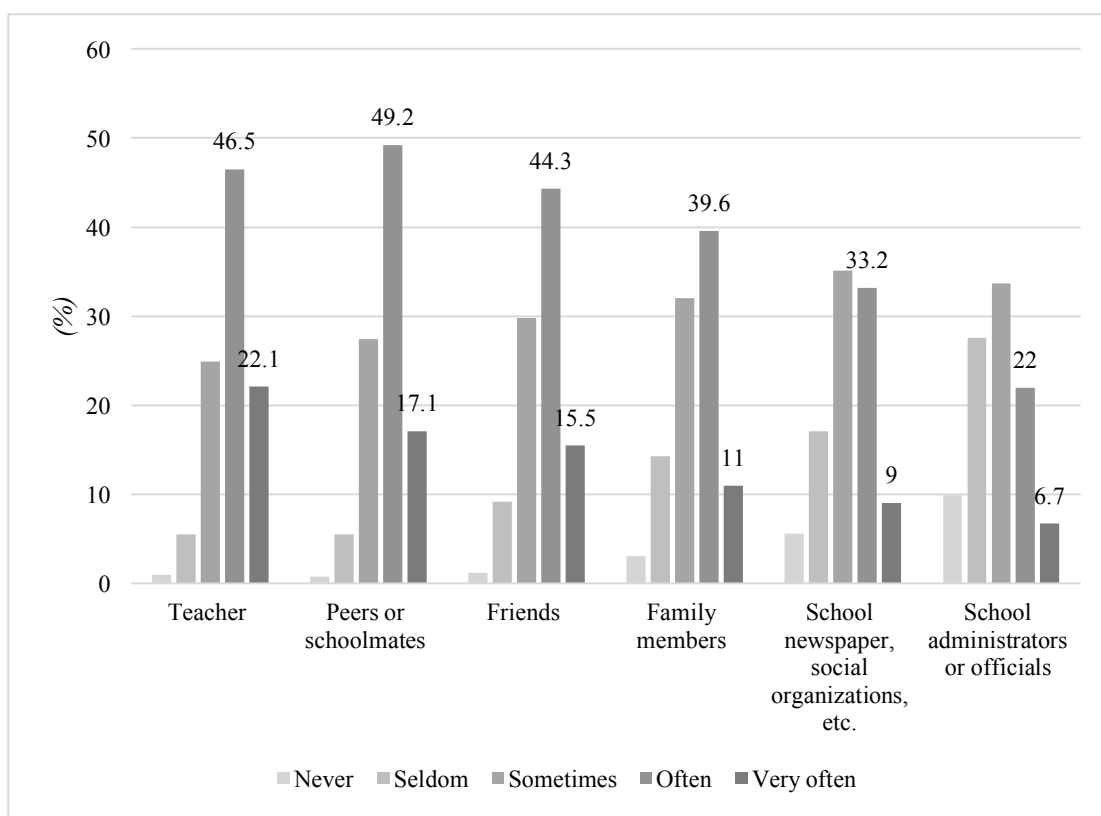
Figure 23 Frequencies of designated audiences in students' writing assignments by teachers

4.8.4.5 Varieties of writing activities in assignments of students' writing

Students should be engaged in different types of writing when learning to write. What types of texts and tasks do teachers ask students to write in assignments? In order to show their favored genre types and tasks more clearly, I transformed the 5-point scales into 2-point as before. Results of the frequencies of varieties of writing activities they assign students are presented in Figure 24. It is obvious that they put the greatest emphasis on mock exams (95.7%) when assigning writing tasks to students, followed by letters and journals (respectively 92.2% and 87.1%).
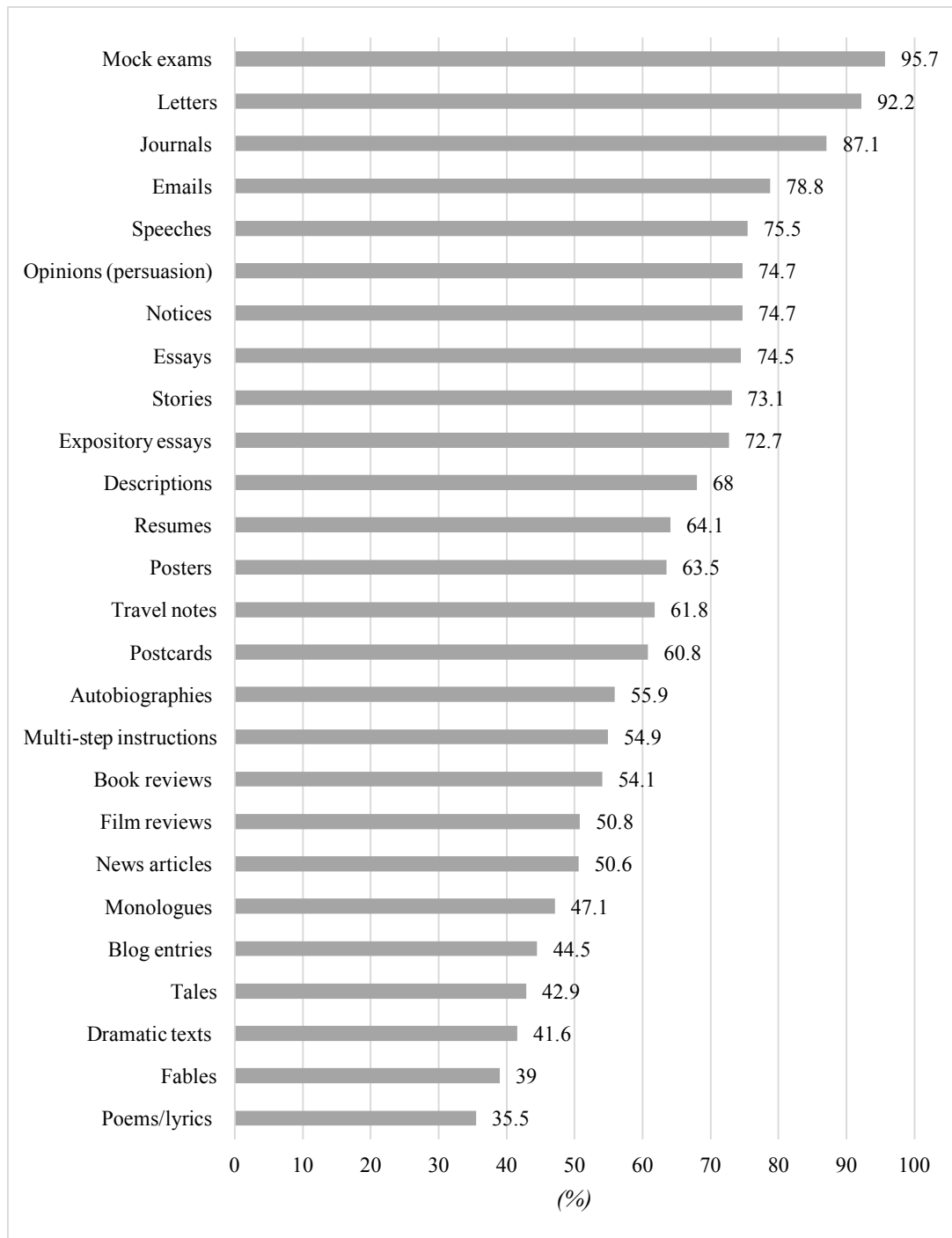
Figure 24 Frequencies of varieties of writing activities for students' assignment by teachers

Then, I conducted a factor analysis to group the multiple writing activities. Two factors emerged: frequently assigned genres and activities and less frequently assigned genres and activities (see Table 69). One can see that the means are basically small (2.25<M<4.10), among which only the mean for mock exams is above 4 on the 5-point scale. Next, the Paired Sample T-tests were performed to distinguish the items within both factors. It is found that the mean for mock exams is significantly higher than that for all the other items related to frequently assigned genres and activities. It is also clear

that mock exams got the greatest attention among all items in the study due to their quite small mean. Therefore, it seems that the participants did not put enough emphasis on the varieties of writing genres but focused mainly on dealing with exams. In fact, writing letters, expository essays, and persuasion are the frequently tested types of writing in various English exams. These genres types here also show a relatively high preference by the teacher sample.

Table 69   *Factors of Varieties of Writing Genres and Activities in Students' Assignment Designated by Teachers*

Factors	Items	M	SD	Loading
Frequently assigned genres and activities	Letters	3.76	.86	.83
	Mock exams	4.10	.79	.71
	Notices	3.12	1.05	.68
	Journals	3.54	.95	.65
	Emails	3.31	1.07	.61
	Expository essays	3.13	1.07	.61
	Opinions (persuasion)	3.21	1.14	.60
	Speeches	3.16	1.01	.59
Less frequently assigned genres and activities	Poems/lyrics	2.25	1.13	.85
	Fables	2.36	1.13	.85
	Tales	2.38	1.16	.84
	Blog entries	2.48	1.14	.83
	Dramatic texts	2.40	1.13	.83
	Monologues	2.55	1.16	.82
	Film reviews	2.59	1.11	.78
	Book reviews	2.67	1.10	.78
	News articles	2.55	1.12	.74
	Autobiographies	2.71	1.09	.72
	Postcards	2.81	1.11	.68
	Multi-step instructions	2.74	1.17	.68
	Descriptions	2.98	1.11	.64
	Travel notes	2.82	1.13	.62
	Posters	2.82	1.05	.61
	Resumes	2.88	1.11	.60
	Stories	3.12	1.05	.56
	Essays	3.12	1.07	.55

KMO = .964, Bartlett's Test, p < .001

Total variance explained: 61.91%.

4.8.4.6   Focal points of writing instruction

Now, I would like to move to teachers' emphasis on objectives of writing instruction. As discussed before, there is a wide range of teaching objectives of a writing lesson. What do teachers consider to be the focal points in their teaching of writing? Results are shown in Table 70. Findings indicate that participants normally perceived the items

in the table to be important in their writing instruction (3.64<M<4.38). They put the greatest emphasis to correct spelling of letters and words, and the least to the application of writing in tackling relevant issues in real life, such as filling out application forms, reserving tickets, etc. It indicates that teacher sample stressed more on the very basic aspect of writing.

Table 70   *Mean for Focal Points of Teachers' Teaching of Writing*

Focal points of writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Spelling of letters and words	4.38	.67	.03
Correct usage of capitalization	4.29	.74	.03
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	4.24	.74	.03
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	4.18	.74	.03
Editing with the teacher's guidance	4.14	.70	.03
Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	4.07	.77	.04
Writing simple descriptions of people or things	4.07	.75	.03
Writing simple greetings	4.06	.78	.04
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	3.98	.84	.04
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	3.95	.87	.04
Drafting short letters and passages independently	3.95	.85	.04
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	3.92	.81	.04
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	3.64	.98	.05

4.8.4.7   Strategies and approaches in teaching writing

Effective teachers always employ numerous flexible strategies and approaches in their class to reach teaching objectives and help students develop. What strategies and approaches do teachers use in their writing instruction? What types of strategies and approaches could be identified? What are their preferential strategies and approaches? To answer these questions, a factor analysis was conducted first, then factor-based paired samples t-tests were conducted. Results are presented in the following relevant sub-questions section.

4.8.4.7.1   Types of strategies and approaches identified in teachers' teaching of writing

In total, 23 items were included in the construct of strategies and approaches in the teaching of writing. Based on these items, four factors emerged: teaching rules, students' writing community, teaching with examples and student practice, guiding and involving students (see Table 71). Mean and standard deviation for each item are also combined in the factor table. It seems that teachers paid more attention to teaching writing as a product when choosing strategies and approaches in their instruction.

Table 71   *Factors of Teachers' Strategies and Approaches when Teaching Writing*

Factors	Items	M	SD	Loading
Teaching rules	Giving general advice on good writing	4.09	.71	.80
	Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)	4.13	.71	.79
	Making clear what good writing looks like	4.12	.72	.77
	Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)	4.14	.72	.76
	Teaching students how to organize ideas	3.97	.75	.75
	Teaching students how to develop ideas	4.00	.75	.73
	Giving tips on how to write a new task	3.98	.73	.73
Students' writing community	Organizing writing partnerships or small groups	3.40	1.02	.85
	Paired writing	3.27	1.02	.84
	Group writing	3.41	.96	.82
	Providing checklists to guide students	3.53	1.00	.80
	Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts	3.59	.92	.78
	Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic	3.73	.90	.62
	Teaching students different writing genres	3.75	.86	.54
Teaching with examples and student practice	Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts	4.03	.71	.79
	Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions	3.99	.77	.75
	Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study	4.12	.71	.66
	Individual writing	4.20	.70	.53
	Guided writing	4.12	.72	.49
Guiding and involving students	Modeled writing (by the teacher)	3.93	.85	.70
	Shared writing (writing with students)	3.71	.93	.70
	Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.	3.99	.79	.61
	Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing	3.79	.85	.59

KMO = .936

Bartlett's Test, p<.001

Total variance explained: 69.34%.

4.8.4.7.2   Relationships among types of strategies and approaches

Do the factors of teaching strategies and approaches relate to each other? What is the relationship between different types of strategies and approaches teachers use in their instruction? Based on the four factors, composite indexes were created. Accordingly, correlation analysis was conducted. The relationships among different types of

strategies and approaches are shown in Table 72. It is clear that the four factors are strongly related to each other (.45<r<.71), especially teaching rules has the highest correlation with teaching with examples and student practice (r=.71).

Table 72   *Correlations among Factors of Strategies and Approaches in Teachers' Writing Instruction*

	2.	3.	4.
1. Teaching rules	.51[**]	.71[**]	.60[**]
2. Students' writing community		.45[**]	.68[**]
3. Teaching with examples and student practice			.57[**]
4. Guiding and involving students			

Note: [**] *p<.01*

4.8.4.7.3   Preferential strategies and approaches when teaching of writing

Paired Samples T-tests were conducted to compare which type of strategies and approaches is teachers' preferential one. Results are presented in Table 73. The mean differences show that the mean (M=4.06, SD=.61) for "teaching rules" strategies and approaches are significantly higher than that for "students' writing community" strategies and approaches (M=3.52, SD=.78) and that for "guiding and involving students" strategies and approaches (M=3.86, SD=.70); The mean (4.09, SD=.56) for "teaching with examples and student practice" strategies and approaches is significantly higher than that for "student writing community" and "guiding and involving students" strategies and approaches; and the mean for guiding and involving students is higher than that for students' writing community. Therefore, among the four types of strategies and approaches, participants prefer methods of giving rules and teaching with examples and student practice and involving students in their teaching of writing.

Table 73   *Results of Paired Samples T-test between Teachers' Strategies and Approaches when Teaching Writing*

Pairs of samples	M_{diff}	SD	t	df
Pair 1 Teaching rules – students' writing community	.54	.70	16.91	489
2 Teaching rules – guiding and involving students	.21	.59	7.69	489
Pair 3 Teaching with examples and student practice – student writing community	.56	.72	17.27	489
4 Teaching with examples and student practice – guiding and involving students	.23	.60	8.59	489
Pair 5 Guiding and involving students– students' writing community	.33	.59	12.28	489

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.001

4.8.4.8   Difficulties in teaching writing

Teachers have much or less experience in teaching writing, which is conducive to overcoming their challenges and difficulties in writing instruction. How do teachers reflect on the intensity of difficulties they experience in their practice of teaching writing? Results are shown in Table 74.

Findings indicate that participants generally report much difficulty in teaching writing (3.87<M<4.30). As expected, the participants rated much difficulty in teaching students to think in English when writing in English because it is undoubtedly difficult for both teachers and students in an EFL context. However, participants also reported much difficulty in motivating students and finding appropriate writing tasks. These findings echo the results of teaching strategies and methods that guiding and involving students got less attention. Besides, it is noticeable that the standard deviation for all items is basically big on a 5-point scale. It has indicated a divergent intensity of difficulties in the respondents' teaching of writing.

Table 74   *Mean for Teachers' Difficulties in Teaching Writing*

Difficulties in writing instruction	M	SD	SE
Motivating students to write	4.30	1.00	.05
Teaching students to think in English for writing in English	4.26	1.01	.05
Finding appropriate writing tasks for students	4.25	1.07	.05
Providing instant feedback to students' writing	4.19	1.10	.05
Providing detailed feedback to students' writing	4.16	1.07	.05
Setting aside time for students to write in class	4.16	1.04	.05
Organizing group work for writing in class	4.13	.93	.04
Providing realistic writing situations and tasks	4.11	1.05	.05
Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback	4.07	1.02	.05
Meeting individual needs or interests of writing	4.04	1.10	.05
Identifying students' problems with writing	4.01	1.15	.05
Developing a systematic syllabus for writing	3.87	1.16	.05

4.8.4.9   Feedback on students' writing

After discussing document regulation, learners, lesson planning, teaching, assignments, I will further move to giving feedback on student writing. What types of feedback could be identified? What kind of feedback do teachers prefer? To answer these questions, first, a factor analysis was conducted, then paired samples t-tests were used to compare the items within each factor. Results are presented in the following relevant sub-questions section.

4.8.4.9.1   What types of feedback could be identified in teachers' teaching of writing?

In the study, 16 items were included in the construct of giving feedback on students' writing. Based on these items, three factors were extracted: language-oriented feedback, forms of feedback, and general descriptive feedback. The statistical analysis and results are presented in Table 75, combining mean and standard deviation for each item of giving feedback on student writing. The differences among the three factors of giving feedback to student writing will be discussed in the next section.

Table 75   *Factors of Teachers' Feedback on Student Writing*

Factors	Items	M	SD	Loading
Language-oriented feedback	Correcting errors in language use and mechanics	4.03	.70	.86
	Pointing out errors of grammar	4.11	.70	.84
	Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing	3.97	.73	.74
	Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)	4.00	.74	.71
	Strategies for revision	3.89	.72	.69
Forms of feedback	Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)	3.50	.91	.82
	Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom	3.55	.92	.80
	Read-aloud of a good sample of writing	3.83	.78	.73
	Whole-class response to a sample of writing	3.74	.85	.66
	Giving feedback on students' homework	3.82	.76	.57
	Teacher-student conference	3.79	.79	.50
General descriptive feedback	Characteristics of different genres	3.60	.84	.79
	Assessing the accuracy of conclusions	3.78	.76	.78
	Providing feedback on form and structure	3.79	.77	.72
	Suggesting improvements in style	3.64	.85	.69
	Written notes to the student	3.65	.84	.58

KMO = .947, Bartlett's Test, p < .001

Total variance explained: 69.36%.

4.8.4.9.2   What kind of feedback do teachers prefer?

The mean (3.50<M<4.11) shown in the above factor table does not clearly differentiate items. In order to better reveal participants' favored response to student writing, Paired Samples T-tests were conducted to compare items within each factor of feedback. With respect to the factor of language-oriented feedback, pointing out grammatical errors got highest mean and strategies for revision got the lowest; in terms of the factor of forms of feedback, read-aloud of a good sample of writing (M=3.83) ranked on the top and peer feedback (M=3.50) listed on the bottom; with respect to the factor of general descriptive feedback, all items held medium mean (3.60<M<3.79), while providing feedback on form and structure ranked significantly higher than characteristics of different genres. It seems that the participants put more emphasis on linguistic and form related issues of writing when giving feedback on student text.

4.8.4.10   Assessment of student writing

As discussed earlier, assessment plays a crucial role the field of learning and instruction. What do teachers do when assessing student text? Among rubrics, checklist, holistic scoring, analytic scoring (content, coherence and cohesion, grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling), and scoring software or websites, which one do they frequently use? Mean for their assessment of student writing is listed in Table 76.

It is very clear that the participants did not put much emphasis on the assessment of student writing (2.67<M<3.86). Thus, it is definitely worth extra efforts to examine teachers' practice of assessing real student text so as to present a more specific picture of their knowledge and skills in the assessment of writing. Relevant research and results will be discussed and presented in Study 5.

Table 76   *Mean for Teachers' Assessment of Student Writing*

Assessment of students' writing	M	SD	SE
Rubrics	3.86	.83	.04
Analytic scoring	3.63	.74	.03
Scoring – Holistic	3.62	.92	.04
Checklist	3.40	.95	.04
Scoring software or websites	2.67	1.28	.06

4.8.5 What factors influence teachers' perceived knowledge of writing?

Teachers experience development through teaching and life-long learning. Various factors may influence their knowledge of writing, such as demographic information, teaching experience, in-service training, etc. In the study, the possible influential factors include:

- Gender (*gender*)
- Educational level (*2- or 3-years program, 4-years program, M.A.*)
- Years of teaching experience (*work experience*)
- School location (*location*)
- School level (*level*)
- School type (*type*)
- Class size (*size*)
- Lessons of teaching writing for one class per week (*lessons*)
- In-service training program useful for teaching writing (*training*)

The detailed information of the above factors has been listed in Section 4.3.3. In this section, I will use T-test, ANOVA, and MANOVA to explore how the above listed factors affect the teacher sample's conceptions of writing, understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, and content of instructional issues. Likewise, I will only present the significant effects.

4.8.5.1   Influence on conceptions of writing

In the study, the natures, functions, and development of writing, and features of texts are basic aspects of conceptions of writing. Based on the above mentioned factors, Independent Samples T-test was performed to explore how gender and training influence the participants' conceptions, ANOVA was conducted to probe into the effect of degree, teaching experience, size, and lessons, and MANOVA was used to detect the influence of location, level, and type.

Among the 26 items of the conception of writing, gender did not make any significant difference regarding the participants' responses. Also, training had no significant influence on their ideas of writing.

The educational level groups did not change participants' conception of the natures and development of writing but influenced their understanding of writing functions and text features (see Table 77). Post Hoc tests showed that the higher educational level participants received, they rated higher on the items in the ANOVA table (Table 77).

Table 77   *Influence of Educational Level on Teachers' Conceptions of Writing. A Summary of ANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		df	Mean Square	F	p
Construct	Item				
Functions of writing	Writing is a tool for thinking	2	2.27	3.90	<.05
	Writing is creation	2	2.47	3.89	<.05
	Writing is for addressing specific audiences	2	3.51	3.08	<.05
	Writing is of importance in one's career	2	4.59	5.63	<.01
Features of texts	Handwriting	2	3.30	5.12	<.01

Next, I will discuss the effect of work experience on their conceptions of writing. In the study, participants were classified into three groups: novice teachers (1 to 5 years of teaching experience, 33.5%), experienced teachers (6-15 years, 35.7%), and more experienced teachers (16 and more years, 30.8%) (c.f., Fraga-Cañadas, 2010). ANOVA revealed that work experience influenced participants' conceptions of writing on a few variables (see Table 78).

Table 78   *Influence of Work Experience on Teachers' Conceptions of Writing. A Summary of ANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		df	Mean Square	F
Construct	Item			
Development of writing	Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	2	4.74	6.85
Features of texts	Length of a text	2	3.28	3.63
	Handwriting	2	5.25	8.25

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

In addition, MANOVAs were conducted to explore how school location, level, and type influence participants' conceptions. Results are summarized in Table 79. It is clear that school level is a strong factor influencing participants' thinking. Nonetheless, all sources in the MANOVA table (Table 79) exerted effects only on a few items out of 26 variables regarding conceptions of writing.

Table 79   *Influence of School Location, Level, and Type on Teachers' Conceptions of Writing. A Summary of MANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		Source	df	Mean Square	F	p	η²
Construct	Item						
The natures of writing	Writing is a cognitive activity	School type	1	2.76	4.57	.03	.01
	Writing is a cultural activity	School type	1	4.18	6.54	.01	.01
Functions of writing	Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	School level	2	4.47	5.99	.03	.02
		Location * type	3	2.49	3.34	.01	.02
Features of texts	Style	School level	2	2.01	3.10	.04	.01
		Location * type	3	1.84	2.84	.03	.02
		Location * level	6	1.94	3.00	.01	.03
		Location * level * type	4	2.66	4.10	.01	.03
	Cohesive devices	School level	2	2.63	5.02	.01	.02
	Structure of the text	School type	1	2.53	4.67	.03	.01
	Handwriting	Location * type	3	1.71	2.68	.04	.02

ANOVA showed that class size only influenced participants' perceptions of the function of writing for proving student knowledge at exams, $F(3, 486)=3.84$, $p=.010$, and of vocabulary as a text feature, $F(3, 486)=3.33$, $p=.019$. Post Hoc Tests found that on both variables, the mean for class size between 46 to 60 students is significantly higher than that for class size less than 30 students. Nevertheless, class size did not exercise much influence on the participants' conceptions of writing.

For the purpose of showing the result more clearly, the lessons of teaching writing for one class per week were classified into three groups according to the distribution of frequencies and actual practice in teaching English in schools. Namely, group 1: less than 1 lesson per class per week, group 2: 1 to 2 lessons per class per week, and group 3: more than 2 lessons per class per week. Likewise, ANOVA was used to explore the influence of lessons on participants' conceptions of writing. Surprisingly, the number of writing lessons did not influence their perceptions of writing, except on "engagement in speaking facilitates writing", $F(2, 487)=3.37$, $p=.035$.

4.8.5.2   Influence on the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives

Gender did not have a significant effect on participants' understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives. Training did not change their understanding either. Also, the educational levels did not influence.

As expected, work experience had a significant effect on the participants' knowledge of these document regulation (see Table 80). Post Hoc tests found that on

both variables, more experienced teachers rated significantly higher than their counterparts.

Table 80   *Influence of Work Experience on Teachers' Understanding of Curriculum Standards and Writing Objectives*

Dependent variables	df	Mean Square	F
Knowledge of Curriculum Standards	2	6.89	12.91
Knowledge of the Descriptors for Writing Skill Objectives	2	7.32	14.25

Note: The mean differences are significant, p<.001

MANOVA showed there was no significant difference in curriculum standards and writing objectives by school location, level, and type. ANOVA of class size did not exert any influence on these aspects either.

As expected, the number of lessons of teaching writing significantly influenced participants' understanding of curriculum standards, $F(2, 487)=5.98$, p=.003, and writing objectives, $F(2, 487)=13.69$, p<.001.

4.8.5.3   Influence on perceptions of teaching experience

Gender did not have a significant effect on all indexes except on the index of the variety of genre types, neither did influence factors related to teaching strategies and feedback. While it only affected people's select of tools in assessing writing, i.e., male participants used scoring software or website more frequently than their counterparts. All in all, gender does not systematically influence teacher sample's knowledge of writing.

Those who have attended in-service training preferred teaching rules when using teaching strategies and approaches, and favored analytic scoring when assessing writing. No other significant difference was found regarding perceptions of teaching experience. Thus, training does not have a systematic effect either.

ANOVAs showed that the educational levels had no effect on all indexes, factors, and items concerned with their teaching experience, except people with an M.A. rated significantly higher on using rubrics in assessing writing than those finished 2- or 3-years training programs. Thus, educational levels did not differentiate participants' knowledge of writing.

Work experience is supposed to be more influential on issues related to the teaching of writing. ANOVA has indicated that the more experienced teachers rated significantly higher than novice teachers on knowing about learners and planning lessons, and on using strategies by teaching rules and teaching examples and student practice (see Table 81). It seems that work experience does not have a systematic influence on the participants' knowledge of writing.

Table 81   *Influence of Work Experience on Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching Experience. A Summary of ANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		df	Mean Square	F
Index of …	Knowledge of students' writing levels	2	3.51	9.03
	Comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities	2	1.81	4.58
Factor of …	Teaching rules	2	1.21	3.25
	Teaching with examples and student practice	2	1.45	4.61

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

MANOVAs of school location, level, and type did not reveal significant difference in the index of issues related to teaching experience, but school location exerted a significant effect on the factor of teaching with examples and student practice ($F=3.96$, $p=.008$, $\eta^2=.025$), and school level had significant influence on teaching with examples and student practice ($F=3.73$, $p=.025$, $\eta^2=.016$) and on guiding and involving students ($F=3.51$, $p=.031$, $\eta^2=.015$). Also, the interaction of location and type, and location and level, and the interaction of location, type, and level respectively influenced their use of rubrics in assessing writing. However, there was no significant difference in the items of tasks of writing instruction. Therefore, the factors regarding school location, level, and type did not systematically affect the participants' knowledge of writing.

ANOVA of the class size found that there was no significant influence on all of the indexes, i.e., knowledge of learners, planning lessons, audiences and genres types in writing assignments, the emphasis of teaching objectives, and difficulties in teaching writing. Also, no difference was found regarding all factors of teaching strategies and giving feedback on student writing by class size; no effect on items of assessing writing either. Class size only exerted two significant effects on items of tasks of teaching writing, i.e., it influenced significantly on "to use newly-learned words in writing", $F(3, 486)=2.76$, $p=.042$; and on "to improve students' self-confidence", $F(3, 486)=3.42$, $p=.017$. In general, class size did not distinguish the participants' perceptions of their teaching experience.

The number of lessons of teaching writing for per class per week is expected to influence the participants' perceptions of their teaching experience. Similarly, ANOVA was conducted to explore the effect on relevant indexes, factors, and items. Results are summarized in Table 82. On the indexes, the mean for those who teach writing 1 to 2 lessons per class per week is basically significantly higher than that for those who teach less than 1 lesson. On the factors, the mean for those who teach more than 1 lesson is significantly higher than those who teach less than 1 lesson. On items of assessing writing, the mean for more than 1 lesson is significantly higher than less than 1 lesson. Therefore, the intensity of teaching writing significantly contributes to the participants' knowledge of writing.

Table 82   *Influence of Lessons of Teaching Writing on Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching Experience. A Summary of ANOVA with Significant Connections.*

Dependent variables		df	Mean Square	F	p
Index of …	Knowledge of students' writing levels	2	2.28	5.78	<.05
	Comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities	2	2.14	5.41	<.05
	Audiences in students' writing assignments	2	4.47	8.53	<.001
	Variety of genre types in students' writing assignments	2	11.78	20.40	<.001
	Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	2	2.01	5.93	<.05
Factor of …	Teaching rules	2	1.70	4.59	<.05
	Students' writing community	2	6.98	12.09	<.001
	Guiding and involving students	2	3.58	7.49	<.05
	General descriptive feedback	2	3.08	6.90	<.05
	Forms of feedback	2	4.71	11.27	<.001
Item of …	rubrics	2	5.26	7.89	<.001
	checklist	2	7.48	8.49	<.001
	Scoring software or websites	2	34.92	23.16	<.001
	Analytic scoring	2	4.29	7.97	<.001

4.8.6 Summary

The aim of this study was to explore how TEFL teachers estimate their knowledge of writing, in particular, to examine what Chinese TEFL teachers know about writing especially in an exam-driven culture of language learning and instruction. An online questionnaire was used to collect data. A number of analyses were performed to address questions related to conceptions of writing, the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, perceptions of teaching experience, and factors influencing their knowledge of writing.

Results showed that TEFL teachers normally viewed writing as a linguistic product and accepted the function of writing related to the self and self-expression but relatively neglected those addressing people and did not saliently highlight its function in exams. The participants reported good knowledge about the curriculum standards and writing objectives.

With respect to their instructional experience, they knew well about learners but focused on targeting exams when planning a writing lesson. They considered the writing tasks to be important but did not involve students in writing with diverse genre types to address audiences except targeting exams. When using strategies and approaches to teaching writing, they favored giving rules and teaching with examples but with numerous difficulties in teaching writing. They focused on linguistic issues and forms when giving feedback on student text but did not put much emphasis on the assessment of student writing.

Results also indicated that the participants' demographic information does not systematically influence their conceptions of writing, but the intensity of teaching writing significantly contributes to the participants' knowledge of writing.

This study has given a relatively complete picture of how teachers evaluated their knowledge of writing. There also seem to be some possible differences between findings from the post-practicum trainees. Therefore, it is worth efforts to explore how teachers' self-rated knowledge of writing differ from trainees. Hence, the differences between teachers and trainee will be discussed and presented in the next chapter.

4.9 Study 4. A Comparison of Pre- and Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' and Teachers' Perceived Knowledge of EFL Writing

4.9.1 Introduction

So far, I have discussed pre- and post-practicum trainees' and teachers' estimated knowledge of writing respectively in the previous studies. As outlined in the part of the theoretical background, the improvement of TEFL teachers' knowledge of writing through pre-service to in-service does not get much attention in the literature. Hence, the current chapter 4.9 presents Study 4, discussing changes in Chinese TEFL teachers' perceived knowledge of writing from prospective teacher education programs to practice teaching and to practicing teaching. It aims to provide a relatively full picture of TEFL teachers' conceptions of writing and teaching related issues of writing from the cross-sectional perspective.

In order to present the distinctions between teachers and trainees more clearly, the teacher sample engaged in the dissertation study was grouped into two subsamples: novice teachers and experienced teachers. Thus, the comparison will cover four groups: pre-practicum trainees, post-practicum trainees, novice teachers and experienced teachers. The characteristics of each group are presented in Table 83.

Table 83   *Characteristics of the Comparable Groups*

Components	Pre-practicum trainees *(N=101)*	Post-practicum trainees *(N=204)*	Novice teachers *(N=164)*	Experienced teachers *(N=326)*
Gender	Male 5% Female 95%	Male 5.9% Female 94.1%	Male 19.5% Female 80.5%	Male 25.8% Female 74.2%
Age	M=20.76 SD= .95	M=22 SD= .89	M=26.28 SD= 3.54	M=37.92 SD= 6.34
Degree	B.A.	B.A.	2- or 3-year program, 4.9%; B.A., 74.4%; M.A., 20.7%	2- or 3-year program, 17.2%; B.A., 74.2%; M.A., 8.6%
Teaching experience	–	M=11.69 (weeks), SD=5.45 (wks); Mode= 8 (wks)	1-5 years; M =2.34, SD=1.54; Mode= 1	6-36 years; M= 15.63, SD=6.75; Mode=20
School level	–	Grade 1-6, 21.6%; Grade 7-9, 48%; Grade 10-12, 30.4%	Grade 1-6, 19.5%; Grade 7-9, 37.8%; Grade 10-12, 42.7%	Grade 1-6, 10.1%; Grade 7-9, 40.2%; Grade 10-12, 49.7%
School location	–	Village, 7.4%; County or town, 50.5%; City, 29.4%; Provincial capital, 12.7%	Village, 15.2%; County or town, 36.0%; City, 28.7%; Provincial capital, 20.1%	Village, 8.4%; County or town, 46.9%; City, 29.1%; Provincial capital, 15.6%
Class size (students)	–	< 30, 6.4%; 31-45, 29.9%; 46-60, 50%; > 61, 13.7%	< 30, 14.0%; 31-45, 23.8%; 46-60, 42.1%; > 61, 20.1%	< 30, 4.3%; 31-45, 19.9%; 46-60, 56.4%; > 61, 19.4%

As can be seen either in previous chapters or the appendixes regarding questionnaires, the post-practicum trainee sample and the teacher sample were asked to answer the same questions with identical items. However, the pre-practicum trainee sample answered a very similar questionnaire with basically the same items but directed by distinct questions for some constructs. An overview the structure of questionnaire for each sample with possible comparison is shown in Table 84.

Table 84 *Characteristics of Variables in each Questionnaire and Comparable Sample*

Variable	Teacher sample	Post-practicum trainee sample	Pre-practicum trainee sample	Comparable samples
Concepts of writing	X	X	X	All samples
Functions of writing	X	X	X	All samples
Development of writing	X	X	X	All samples
Features of good texts	X	X	X	All samples
Curriculum standards	X	X	X	All samples
Writing objectives	X	X	X	All samples
Knowledge about students' writing level	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Lesson planning	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Tasks of writing instruction	X	X	X	All samples
Audiences in students' writing assignments	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Genre types in students' writing assignments	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Emphasis on objectives of writing instruction	X	X	X	All samples
Strategies and approaches in writing instruction	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Difficulties in teaching writing	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Feedback on student writing	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees
Assessment of student writing	X	X	–	Teachers and post-practicum trainees

Notes: An 'X' refers to the variable was included in the corresponding sample questionnaire, a '–' refers to the variable included in the sample questionnaire had a different expression or focus.

The research questions guiding Study 4 are the following:
- What are the differences between Chinese TEFL teachers' and trainees'…?
  - conceptions of writing?
  - knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?
  - perceptions of writing instruction-related issues?
- What are the differences between the effects of background information on their perceived knowledge of writing?

4.9.2 What are the differences between Chinese TEFL trainees' and teachers' conceptions of writing?

4.9.2.1 Perceptions of the natures of writing

In the chapter of the theoretical background, it captured that writing is a multifaceted concept with dimensional understandings. In the survey, participants in each sample were presented four statements of writing natures as mentioned in previous studies. Is there any difference between the teacher and trainee samples' perceptions of these natures? Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was performed to compare the distinctions among the four groups of participants' responses to the natures of writing. Means are listed in Table 85 and results of MANOVA are presented in Table 86.

Table 85   *Mean for Groups' Responses to the Natures of Writing*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Writing is a linguistic activity	4.08 (.75)	4.13 (.85)	4.27 (.81)	4.36 (.78)
Writing is a cognitive activity	4.09 (.81)	4.12 (.84)	4.22 (.79)	4.21 (.76)
Writing is a social activity	3.37 (.91)	3.79 (.88)	3.88 (.84)	3.98 (.93)
Writing is a cultural activity	4.15 (.71)	4.16 (.78)	4.27 (.81)	4.28 (.79)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 86   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Responses to the Natures of Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Writing is a linguistic activity	3	3.39	5.22	<.05	.02
	Writing is a cognitive activity	3	.67	1.06	NS	.01
	Writing is a social activity	3	9.94	12.21	<.05	.04
	Writing is a cultural activity	3	.94	1.51	NS	.01

From Table 85, it is clear that the four groups basically highly agreed with the linguistic, cultural, and cognitive natures of writing, but relatively neglect its social nature. Also, we can see that the means for pre- and post-practicum trainees are commonly lower than that for the teacher groups. MANOVA indicated significant differences in the natures of writing as a linguistic and social activity. Tukey test found that experienced teachers rated significantly higher than post-practicum and pre-practicum trainees on "wringing is a linguistic activity"; experienced and novice teachers and post-practicum trainees agreed significantly more with "social activity" than pre-practicum trainees.

In general, it seems that the pre-service TEFL teacher education programs are effective. The participants' perceptions of the natures of writing are basically in line with the research community. Promisingly, the relative inattention to the social nature of writing seems to be emphasized by teachers through pre-service to in-service.

4.9.2.2 Perceptions of functions of writing

Here, MANOVA was used to further compare their perceptions of the possible multiple functions of writing. Means are given in Table 87 and results of MANOVA are presented in Table 88.

Table 87   *Mean for Groups' Responses to the Functions of Writing*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Writing is a tool for thinking	4.15 (.74)	4.24 (.82)	4.34 (.83)	4.34 (.78)
Writing is a tool for communication	3.75 (.85)	4.16 (.87)	4.27 (.83)	4.40 (.79)
Writing is creation	4.22 (.76)	4.35 (.88)	4.46 (.77)	4.42 (.81)
Writing is addressing specific audiences	3.02 (1.04)	3.41 (1.03)	3.58 (1.08)	3.80 (1.05)
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	4.02 (.70)	3.97 (.90)	4.09 (.94)	4.22 (.83)
Writing is of importance in one's career	3.59 (.99)	3.88 (.93)	4.03 (.96)	4.19 (.87)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

The means indicated a considerably divergent acceptance of the functions of writing by the four groups. Overall, all groups rated higher on the functions related to the self and self-expression but confirmed their relative inattention to the social nature of writing, they graded much lower on the function of writing in targeting people.

Table 88   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Responses to the Natures of Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Writing is a tool for thinking	3	1.26	2.08	NS	.01
	Writing is a tool for communication	3	11.22	16.30	<.05	.06
	Writing is creation	3	1.45	2.16	NS	.01
	Writing is addressing specific audiences	3	17.89	16.00	<.05	.06
	Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams	3	3.02	4.05	<.05	.02
	Writing is of importance in one's career	3	10.59	12.34	<.05	.05

MANOVA reported significant differences in the function of writing in communication, addressing audiences, exams, and career. Tukey test found that experienced teachers rated significantly higher than post- and pre-practicum trainees on "communication" and "addressing audiences", and novice teacher and post-practicum trainees rated significantly higher than pre-practicum trainees on the two functions. It indicates that teaching experience has an effect on trainees' perception of the communicative function of writing. It also indicates that the longer they teach, the more they emphasize the social function of writing.

Besides, Tukey test found that experienced teachers agreed significantly more with its function in exams than post-practicum trainees. This is in accordance with the exam-oriented culture of language learning and teaching in China as discussed in Part III. Experienced teachers know very well about the importance of exams and

correspondingly purse the exam-driven teaching models. The post-practicum trainees may, on the one hand, accept the importance of exams; but on the other, they might reflect on their practice teaching and tend to follow their beliefs in student-oriented teaching concept (Guo & Wang, 2009).

In addition, Tukey test showed that experienced teachers emphasized more on the importance of writing in one's career than both pre- and post-practicum trainees; and novice teachers rated higher than pre-practicum trainees. It indicates that teachers pay more attention to the application of writing in real life than trainees.

4.9.2.3 Perceptions of interventions to develop writing

Previously, I have compared teachers' and trainee's' perceptions of the conceptual and functional issues of writing. In this section, I will focus on the interventional issues in developing writing. Also, MANOVA was conducted. Means are presented in Table 89 and results of MANOVA are summarized in Table 90.

Table 89   *Mean for Groups' Responses to Interventions to Develop Writing*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing	3.80 (.81)	4.09 (.81)	4.04 (.85)	4.29 (.82)
Engagement in reading facilitates writing	4.36 (.64)	4.45 (.78)	4.52 (.74)	4.53 (.76)
Engagement in writing activities facilitates writing	4.08 (.65)	4.21 (.84)	4.28 (.84)	4.39 (.73)
Students learn to write when they are taught to	4.06 (.64)	4.13 (.82)	4.20 (.81)	4.28 (.73)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

The mean table shows that the four groups generally agreed with the direct interventional activities related to doing as well as those with transfer effects, especially the reading activities. Also, it shows that experienced teachers graded higher than the other groups.

Table 90   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Responses to the Interventions to Develop Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Speaking activities	3	6.82	9.97	<.05	.04
	Reading activities	3	.97	1.72	NS	.01
	Writing activities	3	3.10	5.14	<.05	.02
	Writing instruction	3	1.64	2.79	<.05	.01

MANOVA revealed differences in speaking, writing and instructional activities. Tukey test indicated that experienced teachers significantly agreed more with the transfer effect of speaking activities on the development of writing than the other three groups; and post-practicum trainees rated significantly higher than their counterpart in the pre-service education programs. Dunnett' T3 found that experienced teachers rated significantly higher than pre-practicum trainees on both activities related to learning by doing. It seems that the teaching experience has a strong influence on trainees' perceptions of how to develop writing.

4.9.2.4 Perceptions of features of texts

In the above sections, I have compared teachers' and trainees' perceptions of writing as a process. Next, I will discuss writing as a product. As mentioned in previous studies, a variety of aspects are examined when assessing a written text. What are the differences between teachers' and trainees' weight when evaluating a piece of EFL text? Here, I will compare by both items and indexes of features of a text. The mean for their weight by items is presented in Table 91. Results of MANOVA are listed in Table 92.

Table 91   *Mean of Teachers' and Trainees' Weight on each Feature of a Text in Evaluating Writing*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Vocabulary	4.47 (.52)	4.37 (.77)	4.42 (.68)	4.56 (.61)
Grammar	4.36 (.67)	4.17 (.82)	4.23 (.75)	4.22 (.71)
Semantics	4.39 (.52)	4.36 (.75)	4.35 (.75)	4.43 (.65)
Content	4.48 (.54)	4.38 (.77)	4.44 (.73)	4.51 (.65)
Style	3.89 (.73)	4.04 (.84)	4.05 (.84)	4.06 (.81)
Cohesive devices	3.95 (.69)	3.99 (.83)	4.07 (.77)	4.10 (.71)
The structure of a paragraph	4.21 (.60)	4.04 (.80)	4.03 (.77)	4.14 (.70)
The structure of a text	4.32 (.54)	4.11 (.78)	4.10 (.81)	4.20 (.69)
Length	3.46 (.84)	3.46 (1.03)	3.35 (1.02)	3.59 (.89)
Punctuation	3.55 (.80)	3.64 (.89)	3.63 (.94)	3.70 (.86)
Spelling	4.22 (.68)	4.15 (.83)	4.12 (.89)	4.21(.76)
Handwriting	4.02 (.73)	4.01 (.92)	3.97 (.94)	4.28 (.71)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 92   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Responses to Features of a Text in Evaluating Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Vocabulary	3	1.75	3.96	<.05	.02
	Grammar	3	.77	1.38	NS	.01
	Semantics	3	.31	.66	NS	.01
	Content	3	.79	1.65	NS	.01
	Style	3	.80	1.20	NS	.01
	Cohesive devices	3	.80	1.41	NS	.01
	The structure of a paragraph	3	1.03	1.91	NS	.01
	The structure of a text	3	1.35	2.54	NS	.01
	Length	3	2.18	2.39	NS	.01
	Punctuation	3	.56	.72	NS	.01
	Spelling	3	.45	.70	NS	.01
	Handwriting	3	5.14	7.55	<.05	.03

MANOVA found differences only in vocabulary and handwriting. Dunnett's T3 indicated that experienced teachers weighted significantly higher on 'vocabulary' than post-practicum trainees; higher on 'handwriting' than novice teachers, pre- and post-practicum trainees. This finding is far from what was expected, because teachers

especially experienced ones should rate very differently from others particularly from trainees. However, the two differences might indicate that experienced teachers, in the exam-guided context, emphasize more on lexical features of a text as well as handwriting which may influence their judgment while grading the text.

In addition, I checked the distinction on indices of conceptual, linguistic, and coding features of a text as discussed in previous studies, but found no significant difference either. It is, therefore, worth effort to examining their performance on rating real text by English learners. This will be discussed in the upcoming chapter, Study 5.

4.9.3 What are the differences between trainees' and teachers' knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objective?

In the above sections, I have compared teachers' and trainees' ideas of writing as process and product. Here, I will take a look at their self-rated knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objectives for schools. It was expected that teachers are supposed to know much better about these areas due to their teaching experience. MANOVA was performed to distinguish the four groups' self-estimated knowledge on curriculum and writing objective. Mean for each group is displayed in Table 93. Results of MANOVA are indexed in Table 94.

Table 93   *Mean for Teachers' and Trainees' Self-Rated Knowledge on Curriculum Standards and Writing Skill Objective*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Curriculum standards	2.56 (.86)	3.56 (.86)	3.80 (.76)	4.07 (.72)
Writing objective	2.62 (.79)	3.43 (.81)	3.71 (.80)	4.02 (.67)

Table 94   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Self-Rated Knowledge on Curriculum Standards and Writing Skill Objective*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by	Curriculum standards	3	61.56	99.01	<.001	.27
teaching experience	Writing objective	3	53.22	93.02	<.001	.26

As expected, the teacher groups graded higher in both areas than the trainee. MANOVA found salient significant differences among the groups. Dunnett's T3 showed that, on 'curriculum standards' and 'writing objective', experienced teachers rated significantly higher than all of the other three groups, novice teachers rated higher than pre- and post-practicum trainees, and post-practicum trainees rated higher than pre-practicum trainees. Hence, teaching experience has a strong effect on teachers' and trainees' knowledge of content regulations.

In addition to teachers' knowledge of conceptual issues of writing, it is worth more efforts to compare their perceptions of instructional issues of writing. In the next section, I will discuss teachers' and trainees' perceptions and opinions of writing instruction-related issues.

4.9.4 What are the differences between trainees' and teachers' perceptions of writing instruction-related issues?

4.9.4.1 Knowledge about students' writing levels

Among the four groups, pre-practicum trainees basically have no teaching experience yet. Thus, they were asked to evaluate their expectations to learn about students' writing levels in their future practicum. In this case, I will only compare post-practicum trainees' and teachers' (novice and experienced teachers') actual knowledge of their students' writing levels so as to present a picture of their awareness of knowledge regarding learners. As what I have done for the above, MANOVA was also used to reveal the distinctions among them. The means for each group are exhibited in Table 95. Results of MANOVA are presented in Table 96.

Table 95   *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Awareness of Knowledge regarding Students' Writing Levels*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Prior knowledge of writing	3.36 (.92)	3.64 (.83)	3.99 (.77)
Writing experience	3.32 (.99)	3.60 (.82)	3.92 (.77)
Writing needs and interests	3.44 (.98)	3.55 (.90)	3.92 (.79)
Vocabulary	3.71 (.82)	3.92 (.79)	4.16 (.72)
Ways of word choice	3.58 (.90)	3.81 (.80)	4.09 (.70)
Use of sentence structures	3.67 (.83)	3.85 (.75)	4.06 (.70)
Use of tenses and voices	3.73 (.79)	3.93 (.80)	4.13 (.71)
Production of coherent text	3.73 (.81)	3.87 (.80)	4.08 (.68)
Use of cohesive devices	3.70 (.82)	3.87 (.80)	4.04 (.71)
Competence of writing in different genres	3.42 (1.01)	3.60 (.89)	3.90 (.81)
Use of punctuation	3.83 (.90)	3.63 (.81)	4.03(.70)
Spelling	3.86 (.83)	4.02 (.79)	4.17 (.65)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 96   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Awareness of Knowledge regarding Students' Writing Levels*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Prior knowledge of writing	2	25.58	36.78	<.001	.09
	Writing experience	2	22.88	31.12	<.001	.08
	Writing needs and interests	2	16.22	21.09	<.001	.06
	Vocabulary	2	13.17	21.98	<.001	.06
	Ways of word choice	2	16.55	26.45	<.001	.07
	Use of sentence structures	2	9.91	17.32	<.001	.05
	Use of tenses and voices	2	10.44	18.16	<.001	.05
	Production of coherent text	2	8.15	14.24	<.001	.04
	Use of cohesive devices	2	7.67	12.87	<.001	.04
	Competence of writing in different genres	2	15.55	19.33	<.001	.05
	Use of punctuation	2	10.27	16.30	<.001	.05
	Spelling	2	5.79	10.40	<.001	.03

MANOVA discovered differences among the three groups' responses to knowledge concerning students' writing levels by item. Tukey and Dunnett's T3 showed that experienced teachers rated significantly higher on each item than post-practicum trainees, and rated significantly higher than novice teachers on all items except "use of cohesive devices" and "spelling"; and novice teachers rated significantly higher than post-practicum trainees on five items: prior knowledge of writing, writing experience, vocabulary, ways of word choice, and use of tense and structure.

Thus, as expected, teaching experience does have a salient influence on teachers' understanding of students' writing levels. It is also interesting to note that, on the one hand, novice teachers with longer teaching experience started to know about students' prior writing knowledge and experience; on the other hand, they mainly focused on students' linguistic issues compared to post-practicum trainees.

4.9.4.2 Priorities when planning a writing lesson

After discussing knowledge regarding student' writing levels, lesson planning, another crucial issue related to teaching arises. Teachers and post-practicum trainees were asked to rate the frequencies of activities involved in planning lessons, and pre-practicum trainees were required to evaluate the importance of the identical aspects involved in lesson planning. I will only explore the differences between post-practicum trainees and teachers.

In order to present the specific distinction on items, MANOVA was used to examine differences among groups. Means for each group are presented in Table 97. Results of MANOVA are demonstrated in Table 98.

Table 97   *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Priorities when Planning a Writing Lesson*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Identifying curriculum standards and requirements	3.84 (.79)	3.76 (.92)	3.94 (.80)
Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests	4.01 (.76)	3.90 (.87)	4.06 (.77)
Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson	4.01 (.78)	3.93 (.85)	4.13 (.75)
Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson	4.13 (.74)	3.99 (.83)	4.17 (.71)
Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest	4.00 (.79)	3.93 (.81)	4.01 (.79)
Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate	3.79 (.84)	3.64 (.87)	3.82 (.86)
Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by who	3.75 (.89)	3.68 (.93)	3.77 (.87)
Planning for phases of the writing processes	3.81 (.77)	3.87 (.85)	3.96 (.74)
Targeting the requirements of exams	3.91 (.81)	4.05 (.83)	4.19 (.65)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 98   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Priorities when Planning a Writing Lesson*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Identifying curriculum standards and requirements	2	1.79	2.59	NS	.01
	Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests	2	1.43	2.27	NS	.01
	Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson	2	2.59	4.16	<.05	.01
	Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson	2	1.78	3.13	<.05	.01
	Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest	2	.42	.65	NS	.01
	Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate	2	1.88	2.53	NS	.01
	Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by whom	2	.44	.55	NS	.01
	Planning for phases of the writing processes	2	1.35	2.20	NS	.01
	Targeting the requirements of exams	2	4.97	8.86	<.05	.03

A Tukey Test found that experienced teachers only rated significantly higher than post-practicum trainees on planning for targeting exams, and rated significantly higher than novice teachers on "planning specific writing objectives for each lesson" and "designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson".

The findings are not as expected because teachers especially the experienced teachers are supposed to take a deeper consideration of the comprehensiveness of lesson planning activities. It seems that teaching experience did not systematically affect the participants' thinking about the integration of planning a writing lesson but strengthened their awareness of targeting exams.

4.9.4.3   Perceptions of the importance of tasks of writing instruction

Both trainees and teachers were asked to rate the importance of tasks of writing instruction on the same scales. Hence, I will compare the possible differences from the item level. Likewise, MANOVA was used to identify the distinctions. The mean for each group is exhibited in Table 99. Results of MANOVA are listed in Table 100.

Table 99   *Mean for Teachers' and Trainees' Estimation of the Importance of Tasks of Writing Instruction*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.	3.93 (.68)	3.97 (.79)	4.04 (.72)	4.11 (.66)
To provide practice of correct use of language	4.31 (.61)	4.19 (.71)	4.24 (.71)	4.37 (.58)
To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning	4.04 (.68)	4.15 (.66)	4.16 (.75)	4.20 (.61)

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
To use newly learned words in writing	4.21 (.77)	4.21 (.76)	4.27 (.70)	4.25 (.58)
To use newly learned sentence structures in writing	4.31 (.71)	4.27 (.73)	4.33 (.71)	4.20 (.58)
To consolidate new understandings by writing	4.02 (.77)	4.18 (.72)	4.21 (.69)	4.25 (.67)
To reformulate and extend learning by writing	4.12 (.69)	4.24 (.69)	4.26 (.70)	4.25 (.63)
To prove what students have learned	4.03 (.72)	4.14 (.70)	4.15 (.68)	4.24 (.63)
To motivate students' individual creativity	4.20 (.69)	4.22 (.75)	4.32 (.69)	4.25 (.66)
To increase students' awareness of written discourse	4.23 (.52)	4.22 (.69)	4.26 (.68)	4.32 (.62)
To improve students' self-confidence	4.14 (.78)	4.15 (.78)	4.12 (.75)	4.17 (.69)
To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing	4.12 (.73)	4.22 (.75)	4.34 (.68)	4.33 (.61)
To use styles appropriate to given genres	3.93 (.66)	4.05 (.80)	4.09 (.79)	4.11 (.69)
To develop writing as a skill	4.34 (.53)	4.21 (.79)	4.32 (.68)	4.32 (.63)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 100 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Responses to the Importance of Tasks of Writing Instruction*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.	3	1.31	2.57	NS	.01
	To provide practice of correct use of language	3	1.45	3.43	<.05	.01
	To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning	3	.42	.95	NS	.04
	To use newly learned words in writing	3	.16	.34	NS	.01
	To use newly learned sentence structures in writing	3	.09	.21	NS	.01
	To consolidate new understandings by writing	3	1.46	2.91	.034	.01
	To reformulate and extend learning by writing	3	.53	1.15	NS	.04
	To prove what students have learned	3	1.31	2.89	<.05	.01
	To motivate students' individual creativity	3	.42	.86	NS	.01
	To increase students' awareness of written discourse	3	.50	1.20	NS	.01
	To improve students' self-confidence	3	.11	.20	NS	.01
	To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing	3	1.53	3.28	<.05	.01
	To use styles appropriate to given genres	3	.90	1.65	NS	.01
	To develop writing as a skill	3	.66	1.44	NS	.01

In general, the means show that the four groups highly estimated the importance of the tasks of teaching writing. MANOVA found a few differences between experienced teachers and pre-practicum trainees on several items. The former rated significantly higher than the latter on items of the correct use of language, consolidating new

understandings by writing, proving what students have learned, and developing students' language ability through writing activities. These aspects are basically concerned with specific tasks in writing instruction.

4.9.4.4 Awareness of addressing audiences when assigning students writing tasks

For the designated audiences in students' assignments, pre-practicum trainees were asked to rate the importance of writing for specific audiences, and post-practicum trainees and teachers were asked to evaluate the frequencies of their assignment for students to write to people in real life. As what I have done earlier, I will compare the difference between post-practicum trainees and teachers. Similarly, MANOVA was used to elicit the possible distinctions. The mean for the samples is shown in Table 101. Results of MANOVA are included in Table 102.

Table 101   *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Awareness of Addressing Audiences when Assigning Students Writing Tasks*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Family members	3.55 (.90)	3.48 (.91)	3.38 (.99)
Friends	3.71 (.80)	3.71 (.88)	3.60 (.89)
Peers or schoolmates	3.84 (.79)	3.79 (.88)	3.75 (.79)
Teacher	3.85 (.88)	3.80 (.88)	3.85 (.86)
School administrators or officials	2.92 (1.08)	2.96 (1.04)	2.84 (1.08)
School newspaper, social organizations, etc.	3.15 (1.05)	3.21 (1.03)	3.24 (1.01)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 102   *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Responses to Addressing Audiences when Assigning Students Writing Tasks*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Family members	2	1.94	2.15	NS	.01
	Friends	2	1.00	1.33	NS	.01
	Peers or schoolmates	2	.51	.76	NS	.01
	Teacher	2	.14	.19	NS	.01
	School administrators or officials	2	.99	.85	NS	.01
	School newspaper, social organizations, etc.	2	.57	.53	NS	.01

The mean table shows that the three groups generally rated low on addressing audiences. This is in line with the results of writing natures and functions discussed earlier in above studies individually. MANOVA found that there was no significant difference between the groups. Findings indicate both trainees and teachers in the study did not pay much attention to address people when giving students assignments to write. It would deserve more efforts to examine their thinking about the communicative nature and function of writing.

4.9.4.5 Varieties of writing activities in assignments of students' writing

Similarly, participants were asked to rate the importance or frequency of the variety of writing activities as what they did above. Thus, for the purpose of exploring the possible

differences, I will only compare the possible difference between the post-practicum trainee sample and the teacher sample. MANOVA was also used to explore the difference by items. Mean for each group is shown in Table 103.

Results showed that the mean for each group is basically small except for mock exams (4.01<M<4.05). Also, it is clear that only email, essay, expository essay, journals, letters, opinions, story, speech, and mock exams are the more frequently genre types or activities in participants' assignments for students to write (M>3). Results also showed that post-practicum trainees rated significantly higher on almost half of the items than either novice or experienced teachers (see Table 104). It is noticeable that the standard deviation for each sample is relatively high. Findings indicate that participants did not put stress on the variety of genre types but invariably emphasized writing for targeting mock exams.

Table 103 *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Responses to the Varieties of Writing Genres and Activities*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Autobiographies	2.85 (1.13)	2.71 (1.16)	2.71 (1.06)
Blog entries	2.66 (1.15)	2.51 (1.19)	2.47 (1.10)
Book reviews	3.03 (1.10)	2.71 (1.19)	2.65 (1.05)
Descriptions	3.18 (1.09)	3.00 (1.23)	2.98 (1.05)
Dramatic texts	2.66 (1.17)	2.46 (1.20)	2.37 (1.09)
Emails	3.36 (1.11)	3.24 (1.17)	3.35 (1.02)
Essays	3.48 (1.10)	3.15 (1.16)	3.11 (1.03)
Expository essays	3.41 (1.04)	3.07 (1.16)	3.16 (1.02)
Fables	2.73 (1.10)	2.48 (1.23)	2.30 (1.08)
Film reviews	2.85 (1.23)	2.66 (1.19)	2.56 (1.06)
Journals	3.84 (0.86)	3.58 (0.99)	3.52 (0.93)
Letters	3.84 (0.86)	3.72 (0.94)	3.78 (0.82)
Mock exams	4.08 (0.82)	4.01 (0.88)	4.15 (0.74)
Monologues	2.91 (1.15)	2.65 (1.23)	2.49 (1.13)
Multi-step instructions	2.89 (1.15)	2.69 (1.24)	2.77 (1.13)
News articles	2.75 (1.17)	2.48 (1.16)	2.59 (1.10)
Notices	3.21 (1.16)	3.02 (1.08)	3.17 (1.03)
Opinions (persuasion)	3.53 (1.11)	3.28 (1.19)	3.18 (1.11)
Poems/lyrics	2.67 (1.23)	2.35 (1.19)	2.20 (1.10)
Postcards	2.97 (1.13)	2.88 (1.16)	2.77 (1.07)
Posters	2.85 (1.13)	2.70 (1.12)	2.88 (1.01)
Resumes	2.92 (1.24)	2.76 (1.22)	2.94 (1.06)
Speeches	3.32 (1.06)	3.12 (1.16)	3.18 (0.96)
Stories	3.36 (1.02)	3.06 (1.17)	3.15 (0.98)
Tales	2.76 (1.14)	2.42 (1.22)	2.35 (1.12)
Travel notes	2.97 (1.10)	2.70 (1.23)	2.88 (1.07)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 104 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Responses to the Varieties of Writing Genres and Activities*

Source	Dependent variable (Item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups	Autobiographies	2	1.33	1.09	NS	.01
by teaching experience	Blog entries	2	2.41	1.85	NS	.01
	Book reviews	2	9.51	7.79	<.05	.02
	Descriptions	2	2.85	2.32	NS	.01
	Dramatic texts	2	5.05	3.90	<.05	.01
	Emails	2	.89	.76	NS	.01
	Essays	2	9.16	8.26	<.05	.02
	Expository essays	2	6.30	5.60	<.05	.02
	Fables	2	11.77	9.36	<.05	.03
	Film reviews	2	5.27	4.03	<.05	.01
	Journals	2	6.45	7.56	<.05	.02
	Letters	2	.70	.95	NS	.01
	Mock exams	2	1.16	1.82	NS	.01
	Monologues	2	10.96	8.17	<.05	.02
	Multi-step instructions	2	1.86	1.38	NS	.01
	News articles	2	3.57	2.78	NS	.01
	Notices	2	1.84	1.58	NS	.01
	Opinions (persuasion)	2	7.82	6.14	<.05	.02
	Poems/lyrics	2	13.59	10.11	<.05	.03
	Postcards	2	2.58	2.09	NS	.01
	Posters	2	1.96	1.70	NS	.01
	Resumes	2	1.85	1.39	NS	.01
	Speeches	2	2.06	1.96	NS	.01
	Stories	2	4.54	4.16	<.05	.01
	Tales	2	10.89	8.18	<.05	.02
	Travel notes	2	3.42	2.73	NS	.01

4.9.4.6 Focal points of writing instruction

So far, I have compared teachers' and trainees' perceptions of students, lesson planning, writing tasks and audiences. Now, I will continue to compare their perceptions of issues more directly related teaching of writing. In this section, I will start with identifying their assumed emphasis on objectives of writing instruction. MANOVA was used in exploring possible distinctions. Here, I examined the difference by items. Mean for each sample is listed in Table 105, and results of MANOVA are presented in Table 106.

Table 105 *Mean for Teachers' and Trainees' Emphasis on Objectives of Writing Instruction*

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Spelling of letters and words	4.42 (.62)	4.26 (.67)	4.29 (.75)	4.43 (.71)
Correct usage of capitalization	4.28 (.73)	4.13 (.77)	4.19 (.84)	4.33 (.69)
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	4.15 (.74)	4.06 (.79)	4.11 (.79)	4.22 (.71)

Variable (Item)	PrPT	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	4.28 (.70)	4.19 (.73)	4.16 (.80)	4.27 (.71)
Writing simple greetings	3.96 (.81)	4.07 (.76)	4.02 (.82)	4.08 (.77)
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	4.06 (.70)	4.04 (.68)	3.84 (.94)	4.00 (.83)
Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	4.22 (.71)	4.11 (.68)	3.96 (.87)	4.12 (.72)
Drafting short letters and passages independently	4.09 (.75)	3.98 (.81)	3.86 (.95)	4.00 (.79)
Editing with the teacher's guidance	4.13 (.72)	4.16 (.72)	4.12 (.76)	4.16 (.66)
Writing simple descriptions of people or things	4.16 (.67)	4.10 (.73)	4.04 (.81)	4.09 (.72)
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	4.07 (.71)	4.01 (.72)	3.86 (.81)	3.95 (.81)
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	4.02 (.77)	3.77 (.89)	3.55 (1.0)	3.69 (.97)
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	4.19 (.67)	3.99 (.83)	3.90 (.88)	4.02 (.81)

Abbreviations: PrPT, pre-practicum trainees; PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 106 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Trainees' Emphasis on Objectives of Writing Instruction*

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Spelling of letters and words	3	1.51	3.41	.017	.01
	Correct usage of capitalization	3	2.01	3.58	.014	.01
	Correct use of frequently-used punctuations	3	1.20	2.10	NS	.01
	Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing	3	.61	1.12	NS	.01
	Writing simple greetings	3	.46	.74	NS	.01
	Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects	3	1.54	2.36	NS	.01
	Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing	3	1.65	2.95	.032	.01
	Drafting short letters and passages independently	3	1.23	1.79	NS	.01
	Editing with the teacher's guidance	3	.08	.15	NS	.01
	Writing simple descriptions of people or things	3	.32	.58	NS	.01
	Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables	3	1.17	1.91	NS	.01
	Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.	3	4.80	5.45	.001	.02
	Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion	3	1.81	2.69	.045	.01

MANOVA showed that there were significant differences on five items (see Table 106). Tukey test found that experienced teachers put more emphasis on mechanics than trainees, while pre-practicum trainees highlighted material use, practical and frequent genres writing more in teaching writing than novice teachers. Findings suggest that teachers and trainees were normally aware of the focal points in teaching writing, and experienced teachers tend to be more convention-focused while trainees without teaching experience are concerned more with conceptual issues of writing.

4.9.4.7 Strategies and approaches in teaching writing

Classroom teaching is the core facet of issues related to learning and instruction. Similarly, post-practicum trainees and teachers were asked to evaluate the frequency of their use of strategies and approaches in teaching writing, while pre-practicum trainees were asked about their opinions of using the same items. It is expected that teaching experience shapes their thinking about the use of various strategies and methods in teaching writing. Namely, more experienced teachers are expected to use them appropriately and effectively. In order to show the possible differences among post-practicum trainees and teachers more completely, I will present the comparison by items.

MANOVA was used to examine the distinctions. Mean for each group of respondents is displayed in Table 107. Results of MANOVA are introduced in Table 108.

Results showed that participants had different experiences in using some of the strategies and approaches. Tukey and Dunnett's T3 found that experienced teachers used strategies and approaches regarding guiding writing, and teaching students to write by reciting useful expression and by imitating good examples of texts more frequently than post-practicum trainees; and compared to novice teachers, experienced teachers preferred giving tips on how to write a new task, giving general advice on good writing, and making clear what good writing looks like. Therefore, it indicates that experienced teachers favored teaching with examples than post-practicum trainees, and focused more on giving rules as well as emphasized student practice than novice teachers. The findings suggest that teaching experience impacts teachers' choice of strategies and methods in teaching writing.

Table 107 *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Experience in Using Strategies and Approaches in Writing Instruction*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing	3.79 (.82)	3.78 (.88)	3.80 (.83)
Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.	4.05 (.80)	4.01 (.81)	3.99 (.78)
Modeled writing (by the teacher)	3.81 (.81)	3.85 (.84)	3.98 (.85)
Shared writing (writing with students)	3.64 (.93)	3.71 (.92)	3.71 (.92)
Guided writing	4.00 (.73)	4.02 (.77)	4.17 (.68)
Group writing	3.45 (.82)	3.36 (.88)	3.44 (.83)
Paired writing	3.36 (.98)	3.16 (.99)	3.33 (1.0)

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Individual writing	4.14 (.69)	4.07 (.76)	4.27 (.66)
Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions	3.84 (.79)	3.88 (.79)	4.04 (.74)
Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts	3.85 (.76)	3.88 (.79)	4.10 (.64)
Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study	4.04 (.74)	4.09 (.77)	4.13 (.67)
Teaching students different writing genres	3.86 (.85)	3.67 (.86)	3.79 (.85)
Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic	3.85 (.84)	3.65 (.90)	3.77 (.89)
Providing checklists to guide students	3.68 (.79)	3.47 (.79)	3.56 (.74)
Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts	3.76 (.91)	3.54 (.92)	3.61 (.91)
Organizing writing partnerships or small groups	3.59 (.94)	3.37 (1.0)	3.41 (1.0)
Teaching students how to develop ideas	3.97 (.72)	3.92 (.79)	4.05 (.73)
Teaching students how to organize ideas	4.03 (.68)	3.93 (.74)	4.00 (.75)
Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)	4.08 (.70)	4.05 (.78)	4.18 (.66)
Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)	4.03 (.74)	4.05 (.76)	4.19 (.68)
Giving tips on how to write a new task	3.99 (.71)	3.84 (.77)	4.05 (.69)
Giving general advice on good writing	4.00 (.73)	3.97 (.75)	4.14 (.68)
Making clear what good writing looks like	4.08 (.68)	3.99 (.78)	4.18 (.67)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 108 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Experience in Using Strategies and Approaches in Writing Instruction*

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing	2	.02	.03	NS	.01
	Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.	2	.28	.44	NS	.01
	Modeled writing (by the teacher)	2	1.95	2.75	NS	.01
	Shared writing (writing with students)	2	.32	.37	NS	.01
	Guided writing	2	2.24	4.27	.014	.01
	Group writing	2	.43	.48	NS	.01
	Paired writing	2	2.03	2.02	NS	.01
	Individual writing	2	2.31	4.74	.009	.01
	Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions	2	2.83	4.74	.009	.01
	Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts	2	5.05	9.75	<.001	.03
	Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study	2	.55	1.06	NS	.01
	Teaching students different writing genres	2	1.63	2.22	NS	.01

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
	Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic	2	1.75	2.25	NS	.01
	Providing checklists to guide students	2	2.13	2.17	NS	.01
	Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts	2	2.38	2.82	NS	.01
	Organizing writing partnerships or small groups	2	2.73	2.74	NS	.01
	Teaching students how to develop ideas	2	.94	1.70	NS	.01
	Teaching students how to organize ideas	2	.49	.92	NS	.01
	Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)	2	1.10	2.20	NS	.01
	Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)	2	1.88	3.57	.029	.01
	Giving tips on how to write a new task	2	2.42	4.66	.010	.01
	Giving general advice on good writing	2	2.14	4.19	.016	.01
	Making clear what good writing looks like	2	2.11	4.25	.015	.01

4.9.4.8 Perceptions of difficulties in teaching writing

When teaching, either teachers or trainees may have various difficulties in instructional activities. The expectation was that inexperienced practitioners might experience more challenges and difficulties. In Study 4, trainees without teaching experience were asked to estimate how much difficulty they would encounter and those who have much or less experience were asked to rate how much difficulty they confront in teaching writing. As what I have done before, I will compare the difference between post-practicum trainees and teachers.

MANOVA was conducted to explore the difference on item level. The mean for each sample is listed in Table 109 and the results of MANOVA are presented in Table 110. Results showed that there was generally no difference among the three groups. Post Hoc Tests found that only experienced teachers reported more difficulties in motivating students to write than post-practicum trainees.

The finding is also in line with results of strategies and approaches discussed above, i.e., participants especially experienced teachers put less stress on targeting students' writing community and guidance also encountered difficulties in involving students in writing lessons. Nonetheless, the finding is opposite to my expectation. It suggests that post-practicum trainees and novice teachers with less teaching experience may be overoptimistic for the complexity of real classroom teaching.

Table 109 *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Estimated Difficulties in Teaching Writing*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Organizing group work for writing in class	3.89 (1.4)	3.71 (1.5)	3.97 (1.2)
Identifying students' problems with writing	3.82 (1.5)	3.80 (1.5)	3.79 (1.4)
Providing instant feedback to students' writing	3.78 (1.5)	3.85 (1.5)	3.98 (1.4)
Providing detailed feedback to students' writing	3.90 (1.4)	3.76 (1.5)	4.03 (1.3)
Developing a systematic syllabus for writing	3.73 (1.5)	3.48 (1.6)	3.71 (1.4)
Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback	3.87 (1.5)	3.70 (1.5)	3.87 (1.4)
Providing realistic writing situations and tasks	3.94 (1.4)	3.71 (1.4)	3.95 (1.4)
Teaching students to think in English for writing in English	3.94 (1.5)	3.98 (1.4)	3.96 (1.5)
Finding appropriate writing tasks for students	3.93 (1.5)	3.85 (1.5)	4.00 (1.5)
Motivating students to write	3.72 (1.7)	3.84 (1.4)	4.06 (1.5)
Setting aside time for students to write in class	3.66 (1.7)	3.81 (1.4)	3.84 (1.5)
Meeting individual needs or interests of writing	3.58 (1.7)	3.57 (1.6)	3.78 (1.5)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 110 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Estimated Difficulties in Teaching Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Organizing group work for writing in class	2	3.66	2.01	NS	.01
	Identifying students' problems with writing	2	.04	.02	NS	.01
	Providing instant feedback to students' writing	2	2.55	1.14	NS	.01
	Providing detailed feedback to students' writing	2	4.24	2.15	NS	.01
	Developing a systematic syllabus for writing	2	3.38	1.56	NS	.01
	Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback	2	1.87	.91	NS	.01
	Providing realistic writing situations and tasks	2	3.49	1.77	NS	.01
	Teaching students to think in English for writing in English	2	.07	.04	NS	.01
	Finding appropriate writing tasks for students	2	1.20	.53	NS	.01
	Motivating students to write	2	7.73	3.25	.039	.01
	Setting aside time for students to write in class	2	2.04	.84	NS	.01
	Meeting individual needs or interests of writing	2	3.56	1.42	NS	.01

4.9.4.9 Feedback on student writing

In the above sections, I have discussed knowledge of learners, lesson planning, important tasks in writing instruction, addressing audiences in assignments, writing activities in assignments, emphasis on objectives of teaching writing, strategies and approaches in teaching writing, and difficulties in teaching writing. Here, I will move to feedback on student writing, which is another essential aspect concerned with the teaching of writing. With respect to feedback, pre-practicum trainees were asked about their perceptions of the importance of giving feedback, and the other three groups were asked to rate their frequency in providing feedback.

Similar to what I have done before, I ran MANOVA to probe into the possible differences between post-practicum trainee and teachers by item level. The mean for the individual sample is exhibited in Table 111 and results of MANOVA are presented in Table 112. Results showed experienced teachers provided significantly more feedback on criteria for good writing than both novice and post-practicum trainees and organized more feedback through read-aloud of a good sample of writing than novice teachers. Interestingly, post-practicum trainees organized significantly more peer feedback than novice teachers.

It seems that teaching experience does not systematically impact participants' perceptions of giving feedback on student writing. It is, therefore, of importance to look into their performance in providing feedback on real student text. This will be introduced in Study 5 later.

Table 111 *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Experience in Giving Feedback on Student Writing*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)	3.85 (.75)	3.89 (.74)	4.06 (.73)
Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing	3.96 (.74)	3.92 (.78)	4.00 (.70)
Correcting errors in language use and mechanics	4.00 (.71)	3.99 (.75)	4.06 (.67)
Pointing out errors of grammar	4.03 (.70)	4.11 (.76)	4.11 (.66)
Strategies for revision	4.93 (.76)	3.85 (.75)	3.90 (.70)
Characteristics of different genres	3.67 (.88)	3.52 (.86)	3.63 (.82)
Assessing the accuracy of conclusions	3.78 (.80)	3.74 (.79)	3.79 (.74)
Providing feedback on form and structure	3.90 (.72)	3.74 (.81)	3.81 (.75)
Suggesting improvements in style	3.70 (.86)	3.57 (.91)	3.68 (.82)
Teacher-student conference	3.75 (.84)	3.78 (.83)	3.79 (.76)
Written notes to the student	3.69 (.89)	3.70 (.82)	3.63 (.84)
Whole-class response to a sample of writing	3.85 (.80)	3.68 (.87)	3.76 (.82)
Read-aloud of a good sample of writing	3.85 (.79)	3.66 (.84)	3.91 (.73)
Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)	3.73 (.85)	3.42 (.95)	3.55 (.87)
Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom	3.66 (.85)	3.46 (.98)	3.59 (.88)
Giving feedback on students' homework	3.95 (.76)	3.82 (.80)	3.82 (.72)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 112 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Experience of Giving Feedback on Student Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)	2	3.25	5.94	.003	.02
	Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing	2	.37	.68	NS	.01
	Correcting errors in language use and mechanics	2	.30	.61	NS	.01
	Pointing out errors of grammar	2	.44	.89	NS	.01
	Strategies for revision	2	.25	.46	NS	.01
	Characteristics of different genres	2	1.10	1.52	NS	.01
	Assessing the accuracy of conclusions	2	.13	.22	NS	.01
	Providing feedback on form and structure	2	1.18	2.04	NS	.01
	Suggesting improvements in style	2	.97	1.33	NS	.01
	Teacher-student conference	2	.14	.21	NS	.01
	Written notes to the student	2	.30	.41	NS	.01
	Whole-class response to a sample of writing	2	1.25	1.80	NS	.01
	Read-aloud of a good sample of writing	2	3.53	5.77	.003	.02
	Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)	2	4.39	5.54	.004	.02
	Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom	2	1.81	2.24	NS	.01
	Giving feedback on students' homework	2	1.27	2.21	NS	.01

4.9.4.10   Assessment of student writing

Now, I will move to the last aspect of teaching-related issues in the study, i.e., assessment of student writing. MANOVA was employed to explore the possible difference between post-practicum trainees and teachers by the item level. The mean for each sub-sample is given in Table 113 and results of MANOVA are shown in Table 114.

It is obvious that all groups of respondents rated relatively low on possible ways of evaluating student writing. MANOVA showed that post-practicum trainees favored more about rubrics, checklist, scoring software or websites, and spelling of analytic scoring than experienced teachers; also, post-practicum trainees rated significantly higher on analytic scoring (spelling) than both novice and experienced teachers.

These findings are somewhat surprising because teachers did not show much concern about the possible ways of assessment of student writing contained in the study, compared to those with much less teaching experience. Therefore, it merits endeavors to go beyond what teachers and trainees think about writing to what they do in assessing real texts by English learners. This will be the focus of Study 5 in the following chapter.

Table 113 *Mean for Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Favored Ways of Assessment of Student Writing*

Variable (Item)	PoPT	NT	ET
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Rubrics	3.86 (.76)	3.77 (.85)	3.63 (.81)
Checklist	3.62 (.92)	3.39 (.92)	3.41 (.96)
Scoring software or websites	3.12 (1.1)	3.84 (1.3)	3.59 (1.3)
Scoring – Holistic	3.56 (.87)	3.57 (.93)	3.64 (.90)
Scoring – Content	3.79 (.77)	3.66 (.82)	3.66 (.85)
Scoring – Coherence and Cohesion	3.94 (.70)	3.68 (.82)	3.69 (.80)
Scoring – Grammar	3.81 (.74)	3.72 (.90)	3.66 (.81)
Scoring – Vocabulary	3.78 (.80)	3.71 (.84)	3.72 (.77)
Scoring – Punctuation	3.61 (.85)	3.43 (.96)	3.47 (.95)
Scoring – Spelling	3.76 (.79)	3.70 (.92)	3.54 (.89)

Abbreviations: PoPT, post-practicum trainees; NT, novice teachers; ET, experienced teachers.

Table 114 *Results of MANOVA of Teachers' and Post-Practicum Trainees' Favored Ways of Assessment of Student Writing*

Source	Dependent variable (item)	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Participant groups by teaching experience	Rubrics	2	3.63	5.56	<.01	.02
	Checklist	2	3.46	3.88	<.05	.01
	Scoring software or websites	2	17.90	12.01	<.001	.03
	Scoring – Holistic	2	.43	.52	NS	.01
	Scoring – Content	2	1.18	1.74	NS	.01
	Scoring – Coherence and Cohesion	2	4.60	7.50	<.001	.02
	Scoring – Grammar	2	1.49	2.24	NS	.01
	Scoring – Vocabulary	2	.26	.40	NS	.01
	Scoring – Punctuation	2	1.86	2.16	NS	.01
	Scoring – Spelling	2	3.30	4.35	<.05	.01

4.9.5 What are the differences between the effects of background information on trainees' and teachers' perceived knowledge of writing?

In the trainee and teacher samples, various background information variables were used to distinguish participants' knowledge of writing. These variables include demographic information and pre-service education programs as well as in-service training programs or activities. Among which, English Studies (e.g., Lexicology, Syntax, Semantics) and preparedness of the pre-service education programs and the effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing are the common variables shared by the pre-practicum and post-practicum trainee samples and the teacher sample as well. In this section, ANOVA will be used to compare the differences among the four groups of participants by the three common background variables.

In terms of English Studies from pre-service programs, a wide range of studies was involved in my study. In order to present the difference more clearly, I created a composite index for all studies included. The mean for each group is shown in Table

115. ANOVA showed that there was no significant difference among the subsamples' evaluation of the effectiveness of relevant English studies.

Table 115 *Mean for Teachers' and Trainees' Estimation of Usefulness of English Studies from Pre-service Programs for the Teaching of Writing*

Sub-sample	N	M	SD
Pre-practicum trainees	101	3.70	1.13
Post-practicum trainees	204	3.77	.98
Novice teachers	164	3.66	1.03
Experienced teachers	326	3.73	.91

With respect to the preparedness of pre-service programs for the teaching of writing, ANOVA was also employed to distinguish the possible difference among the participants. The mean for each sample is presented in Table 116. Results showed that pre-practicum trainees rated significantly higher than all of the other groups, $F(3,791)=9.77$, $p<.001$. It indicates that people who are still doing pre-service education programs hold a more positive opinion and are more optimistic about teaching writing in the future.

Table 116 *Mean for Teachers' and Trainees' Evaluation of Preparedness of Pre-service Programs for the Teaching of Writing*

Sub-sample	N	M	SD
Pre-practicum trainees	101	4.15	.75
Post-practicum trainees	204	3.85	.68
Novice teachers	164	3.71	.84
Experienced teachers	326	3.70	.76

As for the effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing, ANOVA has not found a significant difference among the four groups of participants. It seems that the three background variables did not roundly differentiate the participants' thinking about writing except their opinions toward the effectiveness of the pre-service education programs.

4.9.6 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the changes in TEFL teachers' perceived knowledge of writing from initial teacher education programs to practice teaching and to practicing teaching in China. The cross-sectional comparisons with mainly ANOVAs and MANOVAs were conducted to elicit distinctions between teacher and trainee samples.

Results showed that participants' perceptions of the natures of writing are basically in line with the research community and their relative inattention to the social nature of writing seems to be strengthened by teachers through pre-service to in-service. Their acceptance of the communicative function of writing was also increased with the accumulation of teaching experience. Teachers also agreed more with the intervention to develop writing through addressing people but only weighted differently on lexical and handwriting features from the other groups when evaluating a text. As for their

understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, teaching experience has a strong effect on their self-assessment.

In light of issues related to the teaching of writing, teachers, as expected, reported more knowledge about students' writing levels. But teaching experience did not intensively change the participants thinking about the comprehensiveness of lesson planning except experienced teachers saliently highlighted targeting exams. Both teacher and trainee groups highly rated the importance of tasks of writing instruction and none of them paid much attention to address people when designing students writing assignments with limited varieties of genre types but invariably agreed on targeting mock exams. When identifying the focal points of writing instruction, experienced teachers put more emphasis on mechanics than trainees, and they favored teaching with examples and giving rules than less experienced participants but with more difficulties in motivating students. The teaching experience did not systematically influence participants' perceptions of giving feedback on student writing, and experienced teachers did not show much concern about the assessment of writing.

Findings in this chapter have presented a relatively full picture of the changes of teachers' thinking about writing from pre-service to in-service. However, there still seems to be a paucity of teachers' and trainees' actions in dealing with teaching-related issues, such as assessing real student texts and giving feedback on student writing. Hence, teachers' and trainees' skills in assessing student text will be discussed in the following chapter.

4.10 Study 5. A Comparison of Pre- and Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' and Teachers' Assessment of Writing

4.10.1 Introduction

In the above studies, I have discussed trainees' and teachers' knowledge of writing from the perspective of what and how they think about writing and writing instruction-related issues. Also, I have presented the differences between their self-estimated knowledge of writing. However, as outlined in Part II (see 2.4 & 2.5) as well as in the above relevant studies, there seems to be a paucity of information about pre-service teacher trainees' learning to assess student text, and the development of teachers' skills in the assessment of writing through initial teacher training programs to teaching as a profession does not get enough attention in the literature. Besides, very little information has depicted how TEFL trainees give feedback on EFL student texts, neither do we know how teachers differ from trainees when giving feedback on student texts.

Therefore, chapter 4.10 presents Study 5, discussing changes in Chinese TEFL teachers' assessment of student writing through pre-service teacher education programs to practice teaching and to practicing teaching. It aims to provide a relatively full picture of TEFL teachers' and trainees' assessment of writing, including their ratings of an authentic student text, identifying problems and errors in the text, and giving written feedback and suggestions for the improvement of the text. In addition, Study 5 addresses the relationship between trainees' own writing skills and their assessment skills. It also targets the distinctions between opinions of raters and artificial intelligence when evaluating the same student text (see Part IV 4.4.4). Artificial intelligence here refers to Coh-Metrix, an online tool for computing the cohesion and coherence of a text. It was used to get comparable information on the sample text.

Specifically, Study 5 answers the following research questions:
- What are trainees' and teachers' skills in
  - evaluating EFL learner's text?
  - identifying problems in the text?
  - giving feedback on the text?
  - making suggestions for improvement of the text?
- What effects does trainees' and teachers' background information have on their assessment of writing?
- What are the differences between trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text?
- How does trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of student text?
- How do rater groups' assessments compare to artificial intelligence ratings?

4.10.2 How do trainees and teachers assess student text?

In this section, trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text will be discussed and presented from their evaluation of the text, identification of problems in the text, giving feedback on the text, and making suggestions for improvement of the text. Respectively, 59 pre-practicum trainees, 31 post-practicum trainees, and 32 teachers in China were

engaged in the current study. Characteristics of each sample's responses are presented in Table 117, Table 118 and Table 119. Ratings are based on 5-point Likert scales, and problems, feedback, and suggestions are oriented on frequencies of responses.

Table 117 *Characteristics of Pre-Practicum Trainees' Ratings, Identified Problems, Feedback, and Suggestions*

| | Ratings | | No. of problems identified | | No. of feedback given | | | | No. of suggestions given | |
| | | | | | + | | - | | | |
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Holistic	3.42	.91	n.a.	n.a.	.42	.70	.14	.47	.07	.25
Content	3.34	.94	n.a.	n.a.	.25	.44	.37	.67	.17	.46
Structure	3.08	.89	.20	.52	.27	.45	.49	.79	.32	.57
Style	3.27	.91	.39	.69	.46	.50	.02	.13	.10	.31
Vocabulary	n.a.	n.a.	2.27	2.19	.12	.33	.03	.18	.05	.22
Grammar	3.22	1.13	2.90	3.19	.20	.48	.32	.66	.32	.92
Mechanics	3.29	1.05	.46	.92	.02	.13	.02	.13	.02	.13

Notes: + positive feedback, - negative feedback

Table 117 shows pre-practicum trainees' opinions when assessing and giving feedback on the student text. The second column illustrates their ratings of the text from six aspects: the overall quality of the text, content, structure, style, grammatical correctness, and mechanics. It is clear that the participants generally considered the text to be ordinary (3.08<M<3.34). Noticeably, the participants overwhelmingly gave the lowest score to the structure of the text with the smallest standard deviation.

The third column states the frequencies of their identified problems and errors in the text. The mean frequency ranges from 0 to 2.90, showing that respondents focused mainly on grammatical and lexical problems. This is basically normal and understandable because linguistic issues are easier to identify.

The fourth column displays positive and negative feedback. It can be seen that the frequency of each type of feedback is low. Participants gave more praise to the style and holistic quality of the text but highlighted problems of structure, content, and grammar in the text. The last column exhibits the frequency of suggestions about the text. Informants put stress on structure and grammar of the text.

Findings indicate that the pre-practicum trainee sample generally evaluated the text impersonally and fairly (Because the student text was examined closely by an expert panel beforehand and the panel agreed with the modest level of the student's writing ability due to the numerous problems in all regards in the text). Also, pre-practicum trainees identified the most prominent problems in the text though they did not recognize as many specific problems as expected. In short, they demonstrated rather desirable skills in the assessment of student text.

Table 118   *Characteristics of Post-Practicum Trainees' Ratings, Identified Problems, Feedback, and Suggestions*

| | Ratings | | No. of problems identified | | No. of feedback given | | | | No. of suggestions given | |
| | | | | | + | | - | | | |
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Holistic	3.58	.56	n.a.	n.a.	.13	.34	.03	.18	n.a.	n.a.
Content	3.58	.77	n.a.	n.a.	.42	.50	.26	.51	.13	.34
Structure	3.58	.99	.13	.43	.42	.50	.35	.66	.23	.62
Style	3.13	.67	.74	1.18	.39	.50	.13	.34	.06	.25
Vocabulary	n.a.	n.a.	1.13	1.38	.19	.40	.06	.25	.10	.30
Grammar	3.32	.70	2.84	2.57	.10	.40	.55	.85	.23	.56
Mechanics	3.48	.57	.48	1.12	n.a.	n.a.	.06	.25	.06	.25

Notes: + positive feedback, - negative feedback

Table 118 describes post-practicum trainees' opinions in evaluating and giving feedback on the student text. Similarly, the post-practicum trainees rated the text on the same aspects with the same scales. It was found that they basically had similar opinions toward the text (3.13<M<3.58) to pre-practicum trainees. But the difference is that the standard deviations of their ratings are relatively smaller except that of the structure. Additionally, they highlighted grammar and vocabulary issues in their identification of problems in the text. When giving feedback, they provided positive feedback on content, structure, and style of the text, and delivered negative feedback on grammar and structure as well. Subsequently, they focused on grammar and structure issues when making suggestions for improvement of the text.

Findings from the post-practicum trainee group illustrated that the participants normally assessed the student text reasonably. Also, the findings show that they have given evidence of satisfying skills in assessing student text.

Table 119   *Characteristics of Teachers' Ratings, Identified Problems, Feedback, and Suggestions*

| | Ratings | | No. of problems identified | | No. of feedback given | | | | No. of suggestions given | |
| | | | | | + | | - | | | |
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Holistic	4.13	.66	n.a.	n.a.	.19	.40	.06	.25	n.a.	n.a.
Content	4.13	.49	n.a.	n.a.	.28	.46	.16	.37	.03	.18
Structure	3.91	.82	.09	.39	.34	.55	.22	.49	.13	.34
Style	3.75	.84	.38	.61	.50	.51	.09	.30	.06	.25
Vocabulary	n.a.	n.a.	1.84	2.05	.22	.42	.09	.30	.06	.25
Grammar	3.78	.66	4.69	4.87	.25	.76	.47	.76	.13	.34
Mechanics	4.06	.80	.13	.42	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	.03	.18

Notes: + positive feedback, - negative feedback

Table 119 depicts teachers' opinions about evaluating and giving feedback on the student text. The teacher sample finished the same tasks as trainee did.

It is clear that teachers basically regarded the text as good (3.75<M<4.13), especially they scored the highest on the content of the text with the smallest standard deviation. Similarly, teachers paid much attention to grammatical errors when checking the problems of the text. They gave more positive feedback on the style of text and highlighted the grammatical problems as negative feedback. Unexpectedly, they did not give many suggestions to the text except very limited advice on structure and grammar.

Findings from the teacher sample indicated that the respondents were relatively lenient when assessing the student text. They gave priority to grammatical issues in problems identified, negative feedback given, and suggestions made. This might be because teachers, on the one hand, hold opinions of encouraging students when judging their written work; on the other hand, teachers may view grammar as the aspect to be judged and improved easily.

4.10.3 What effect does the background information have on trainees' and teachers' assessment of writing?

In the current study, a short questionnaire was used to collect participants' background information for the analysis of the corresponding sample. The characteristics are summarized in Table 120. Various analyses were conducted to explore how the background elements influence each sample's assessment of student text.

Table 120 *Characteristics of Background Information related to the Participants involved in the Assessment of Writing and Possible Analyses*

Variables	Pre-practicum trainees *(N=59)*	Post-practicum trainees *(N=31)*	Teachers *(N=32)*	Analysis
Gender	M=3, F=56	M=0, F=31	M=5, F=27	T-test
Father received university or higher educational level	Y=2, N=57	Y=1, N=31	Y=3, N=29	T-test
Mother received university or higher educational level	Y=1, N=58	Y=0, N=31	Y=2, N=30	T-test
Degree	–	–	Three-year program=4, BA=18, MA=10	ANOVA
Teaching experience	–	–	Novice teacher=17, experienced teachers=15	T-test
Level of teaching	–	–	Grade 7-9=18, grade 10-12=14	T-test
Students' language level	–	–	Beginner=20, intermediate=11, upper-intermediate=1	ANOVA
Frequency of giving feedback	X	X	X	Correlation
Frequency of using assessment criteria	X	X	X	Correlation

Variables	Pre-practicum trainees *(N=59)*	Post-practicum trainees *(N=31)*	Teachers *(N=32)*	Analysis
Usefulness of pre-service programs for assessing writing	X	X	X	Correlation
Attended in-service training	–	–	Y=6, N=26	T-test
Effect of feedback	–	–	X	Correlation

Notes: M-male, F-female, Y-yes, N-no; X refers to participants' opinions or practices regarding relevant variables (responses are not presented in the table because there is no space to show these variable with several items obtaining 5-point Likert scales); – refers to the variable is not applicable for the sample.

It is interesting to note that the gender of the participants and their father's and mother's educational level are distributed unevenly. Thus, there is no point to compare the influence of these variables. However, the results of ANOVA showed that there are differences in the rating of text by teachers' degree. Specifically, people who only completed a three-year education program favored holistic rating in contrast to those who obtain an M.A., $F(2, 29)=5.15$, $p<.05$; those who got a B.A. rated significantly higher than people who possess an M.A. on the aspect of content, $F(2, 29)=4.92$, $p<.05$, on structure, $F(2, 29)=3.98$, $p<.05$, and on style, $F(2, 29)=5.63$, $p<.05$.

Independent Sample T-tests found that experienced teachers only rated significantly higher on positive feedback on the structure of the student text, and participants who teach grade 10-12 rated higher on structure when rating the text than those who teach grade 7-9, and people who have attended in-service training programs rated higher on positive feedback on the structure of the text than those who have not attended.

Correlation analysis showed that the frequency of using feedback forms and assessment criteria, the usefulness of pre-service programs and the effect of on students' subsequent writing relate to some aspects of the assessment of student text. Namely, these background information has much or less influenced participants' thinking when dealing with the assessment tasks. Results are summarized respectively in Table 121, 0, Table 123, Table 124, Table 125, and Table 126.

Table 121 *Correlations of Feedback Forms and Feedback Tasks by Pre-Practicum Trainees*

	Positive feedback on content of the text	Positive feedback on mechanics of the text	Negative feedback on the overall quality of the text
Giving feedback by rating on scales	-.33		.27
Discussing with students one on one		.27	
Providing a few sentences of evaluation		-.26	

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

Table 122   *Correlations of Assessment Criteria and Feedback Forms and Relevant Assessment and Feedback Tasks by Post-Practicum Trainees*

	Rating mechanics	Positive feedback on structure	Positive feedback on grammar	Negative feedback on style
Assessment criteria – Content	-.48			
Feedback form – Rating on scales		.38		
Feedback form – Discussing with students one on one			.39	.46

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

Table 123   *Correlations of Assessment Criteria and Assessment Tasks by Teachers*

	Rating holistic	Rating structure	Rating mechanics
Assessment criteria – Content	.36	.35	
Assessment criteria – Spelling and punctuation		.37	
Assessment criteria – Style			.45
Assessment criteria – Structure			.43

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

Table 124   *Correlations of Usefulness of Pre-service Programs for the Assessment of Writing and Tasks Involved in the Assessment of Student Text by Post-Practicum Trainees*

	usefulness of pre-service programs for the assessment of writing
Rating mechanics	-.36
Identified problem – vocabulary	.37
Positive feedback – style	.38
Suggestions about mechanics	.39

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

Table 125   *Correlations of Usefulness of Pre-Service Programs for the Assessment of Writing and Tasks Involved in the Assessment of Student Text by Teachers*

	usefulness of pre-service programs for the assessment of writing
Positive feedback on vocabulary	-.37
Negative feedback on style	.43

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

Table 126   *Correlations of the Effect of Feedback on Students' Subsequent Writing and Feedback Tasks by Teachers*

	the effect of feedback on students' subsequent writing
Negative feedback on style	.36

Note: All coefficients are significant, p<.05.

These correlations and previous results of ANOVA and T-tests together indicated that participants' background information did not systematically influence their

opinions and practices in the assessment of student text. By comparison, teachers used more of the assessment criteria when evaluating the student text in the study.

4.10.4 What are the differences between trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text?

In this section, I will compare pre-practicum and post-practicum trainees' and teachers' assessment of the student text. The comparison is based on their rating of, identified problems of, feedback on, and suggestions to the text. MANOVA was used to explore the differences. Mean for each sample has already been shown respectively in Table 117, Table 118 and Table 119; the results of MANOVA are summarized in Table 127.

Table 127 *Summary of MANOVA of Trainees' and Teachers' Ratings, Identified Problems, Feedback, and Suggestions*

Variable	df	MS	F	p	η^2
Ratings					
Holistic	2	5.20	8.65	<.001	.13
Content	2	6.42	10.02	<.001	.14
Structure	2	7.50	9.21	<.001	.13
Style	2	3.49	5.00	<.01	.08
Grammar	2	3.37	3.92	<.05	.06
Mechanics	2	6.29	7.99	<.001	.12
Identified problems					
Content	2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Structure	2	.14	.64	NS	.01
Style	2	1.48	2.16	NS	.04
Vocabulary	2	13.27	3.38	.037	.05
Grammar	2	38.69	3.02	NS	.05
Mechanics	2	1.39	1.79	NS	.03
Positive feedback					
Holistic	2	1.10	3.55	<.05	.06
Content	2	.29	1.36	NS	.02
Structure	2	.23	.96	NS	.02
Style	2	.10	.41	NS	.01
Vocabulary	2	.12	.88	NS	.02
Grammar	2	.20	.65	NS	.01
Mechanics	2	.00	.53	NS	.01
Negative feedback					
Holistic	2	.13	.95	NS	.02
Content	2	.50	1.58	NS	.03
Structure	2	.79	1.64	NS	.03
Style	2	.15	2.40	NS	.04
Vocabulary	2	.04	.70	NS	.01
Grammar	2	.58	1.06	NS	.02
Mechanics	2	.04	1.51	NS	.03
Suggestions					
Holistic	2	.07	2.24	NS	.04
Content	2	.20	1.41	NS	.02
Structure	2	.41	1.45	NS	.02
Style	2	.02	.29	NS	.01
Vocabulary	2	.02	.35	NS	.01
Grammar	2	.41	.79	NS	.01
Mechanics	2	.02	.72	NS	.01

The results showed that teachers rated significantly higher on the holistic, content, style, grammar, and mechanics of the text than both pre- and post-practicum trainees, and rated higher on the structure of the text than pre-practicum trainees; and post-practicum trainees rated higher than pre-practicum trainees on the structure of the text. Hence, it seems that teachers were the most lenient and pre-practicum trainees were severest in evaluating the student text. Also, it is found that pre-practicum trainees identified more problems regarding vocabulary of the text ($F=3.38$, $p<.05$) than post-practicum trainees. Meanwhile, pre-practicum trainees tended to be more positive toward the overall quality of the text ($F=3.55$, $p<.05$) than post-practicum trainees.

In order to show the severity and leniency level more clearly, Multifaceted Rasch analysis was conducted to visualize the differences between teacher and trainee raters (see Figure 25). Also, relevant statistics are shown in Table 128.

From Figure 25, it can be seen that the majority of raters were arrayed above measure logit 0, which indicates that the participants in the assessment of student text were basically strict. It is also clear that only a small number of raters were lenient due to their minus measure logits.

In terms of rater groups, it can be found that the three groups of participants differed from each other when assessing the student text. Both trainee groups rated more harshly than teachers. Pre-practicum trainees were the severest and teachers rated the most leniently.

As for the six criteria, style received the harshest ratings, followed by structure and grammar. By comparison, the overall quality of the text was rated the most leniently, and the next was content and mechanics.

```
Measr |Raters      |Groups                    |Criteria
----------------------------------------------------------------------
      |                                         |
      |           | severe                      |                     |
      |           |                             |                     |
   6  |           |                             |                     |
      |           |                             |                     |
      |           |                             |                     |
      |           |                             |                     |
   5  |        X|                               |                     |
      |        X|                               |                     |
      |        X|                               |                     |
      |        X|                               |                     |
      |       XX|                               |                     |
   4  |       XX|                               |                     |
      |       XX|                               |                     |
      |       XX|                               |                     |
      |      XXX|                               |                     |
      |       XX|                               |                     |
      |       XX|                               |                     |
   3  |     XXXXX|                              |                     |
      |    XXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |      XXX|                               |                     |
      |  XXXXXXXXX|                             |                     |
      |   XXXXXXXX|                             |                     |
      |    XXXXXX|                              |                     |
   2  |  XXXXXXXXXX|                            |                     |
      |   XXXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |   XXXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |   XXXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |   XXXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |    XXXXXX|                              |                     |
   1  |   XXXXXXXX|                             |                     |
      |    XXXXXX|                              |                     |
      |   XXXXXX|Pre-practicum trainees         |                     |
      |      XXX|Post-practicum trainees        |                     |
      |     XXXX|                              |style                 |
      |     XXXX|                              |structure   grammar   |
   0  |      XXX|                              |                     |
      |        X|                              |mechanics            |
      |      XXX|                              |content              |
      |        X|                              |holistic             |
      |        X|                               |                     |
      |        X|                               |                     |
  -1  |                                         |                     |
      |        X|Teachers                       |                     |
      |        X|                               |                     |
      |                                         |                     |
  -2  |                                         |                     |
      |                                         |                     |
      |                                         |                     |
      |                                         |                     |
  -3  |           | lenient                     |                     |
      |                                         |                     |
----------------------------------------------------------------------
     X=.8 cases
----------------------------------------------------------------------
```
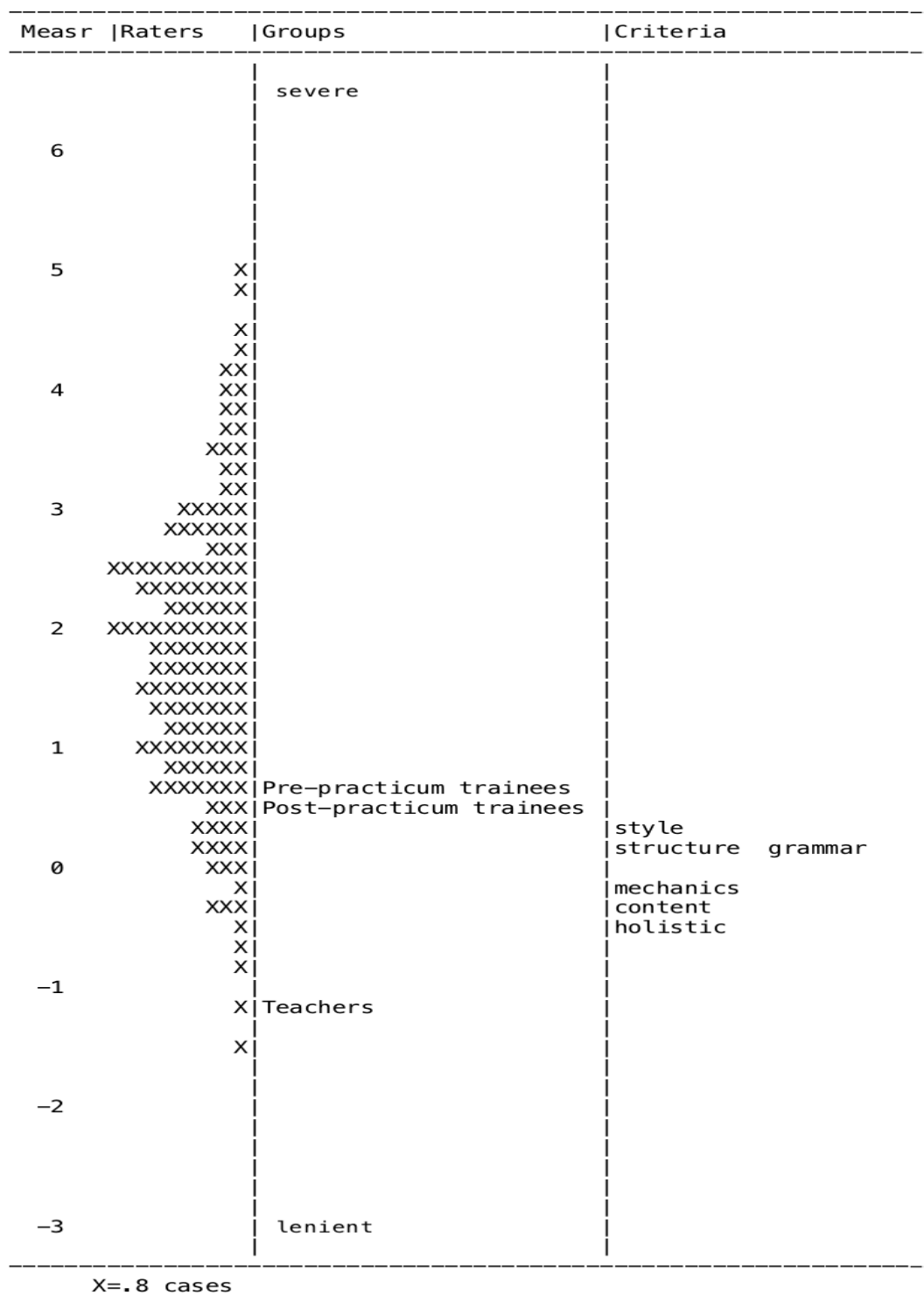
Figure 25 Rater and variable map from Multifaceted Rasch model analysis of trainees' and
teachers' assessment of the student text

Table 128 shows the summary statistics of the Multifaceted Rasch analysis of raters
and criteria in the study. With respect to the raters, several issues need to be clarified.
First, the outfit and infit values range from .50 to 1.50, indicating a reasonable fit for
the multifaceted Rasch model (cf., Eckes, 2008; Linacre, 2002; Lunz, Wright, &

Linacre, 1990). It also indicates that rates demonstrated admissible intra-rater consistency in assessing the student text. Second, the relatively low separation reliability showed that the three groups of raters were generally severe in their assessment because, ideally, lower reliability identifies the equal harshness among raters (Park, 2004).

Third, Chi-square test showed that there was a significantly divergent level of their severity and leniency. It is understandable that many factors may influence trainees' and teachers' opinions of rating leniently or harshly, such as personal background, individual identity, assessment experience, etc. For example, pre-practicum trainees are in their third year of B.A. programs in which they have to take various exams and tend to be more serious and severe so as to get satisfactory marks. By contrast, teachers may hold the opinion of encouraging and motivating students and are inclined to be more tolerant of students' errors and problems.

Likewise, the statistics for criteria also showed a reasonable fit for the model. Chi-square test indicated that the severity level of style is the highest and holistic has the most lenient measure.

Table 128 *Summary Statistics of Multifaceted Rasch Model Analysis of Raters and Criteria*

Facet	Severity measure	SE	Outfit	Infit
Raters				
Pre-practicum trainees	.62	.07	1.21	1.21
Post-practicum trainees	.45	.09	1.09	1.09
Teachers	-1.08	.12	1.06	1.09

$\chi^2 = 97.76$, df = 2, p<.001; Separation reliability = .72

Facet	Severity measure	SE	Outfit	Infit
Criteria				
Holistic	-.42	.11	.75	.74
Content	-.30	.11	1.06	1.07
Structure	.23	.11	1.46	1.47
Style	.42	.11	1.02	1.02
Grammar	.25	.11	1.04	1.03
Mechanics	-.18	.25	.83	.83

$\chi^2 = 46.87$, df = 5, p<.001; Separation reliability = .92

Note: SE refers to the standard error of severity measure;the outfit is the unweighted mean square, and infit is the weighted mean square.

4.10.5 How does trainees' writing ability influence their assessment of student text?

In the current study, trainees were asked to write a composition concerned with the effectiveness of the practicum (see Part IV 4.4.5). It was expected to collect information about their own text features so as to explore their actual writing ability. It was also aimed to examine the relationship between their writing ability and assessment of student text. Trainees' submitted their texts in September of 2017. All of their texts were analyzed by an online tool – Coh-Metrix. Coh-Metrix is a system for computing computational cohesion and coherence metrics for written texts (cf., McNamara,

Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2014; McNamara, Graesser, & Dai, 2013). The detailed statistics of the participants' texts are shown in Appendix J. Here, for the purpose of showing the features of their texts more clearly, I created relevant indices based on the outcomes of Coh-Metrix. The characteristics of their texts are presented in Table 129.

Table 129   *Mean for Pre- and Post-Practicum Trainees' Writing Skills based on Coh-Metrix Indexes*

Index	Pre-practicum trainees		Post-practicum trainees	
	M	SD	M	SD
Descriptive statistics	42.73	8.30	41.79	6.04
Easability and readability	44.35	7.67	45.51	9.62
Lexical diversity	37.61	6.33	35.83	7.29
Syntactic complexity and pattern density	65.74	3.38	65.42	3.67
Word information	115.93	3.00	115.75	3.00
Latent semantic analysis	.28	.08	.32	.10
Connectives	33.64	6.03	35.72	6.74
Referential cohesion	.44	.16	.54	.20

In the next step, I conducted correlation analysis of these indexes of trainees' writing skills and their assessment tasks. Results of significant correlations for pre- and post-practicum trainees listed respectively in Table 130 and Table 131.

Table 130   *Correlations of Pre-Practicum Trainees' Writing Skills and Assessment of Student Text*

	Desc	Read	Lexi	Synt	Word	LSA	Conn	Cohe
Rating - holistic	-.40**							
- content	-.50**							
- structure	-.42**							
- mechanics	-.35**							
Identified problem- style		.28**			.35**			
Positive feedback - content	.28*							
- structure								-.28*
- vocabulary			.30*					
- grammar							.26*	
Suggestion - holistic							.35*	
- content				-.26*				
- vocabulary	.38*							

*Notes: * p<.05, ** p<.01; Desc– Descriptive statistics, Read – Easability and readability, Lexi – Lexical diversity, Synt – Syntactic complexity and pattern density, Word – Word information, LSA – Latent semantic analysis, Cohe – Referential cohesion.*

Table 131 *Correlations of Post-Practicum Trainees' Writing Skills and Assessment of Student Text*

	Desc	Read	Lexi	Synt	Word	LSA	Conn	Cohe
Rating - content			.50**					
- structure							.43*	
- style		.37*				.37*	.44*	
- mechanics				-.37*				.38*
Identified problem - style			.61**					
- grammar						-.37*		-.42*
- mechanics			.46**					
Negative feedback - holistic	.51**							
- content								-.39*
- grammar					-.36*			
Suggestion - grammar				.42*				
- mechanics			.47**					

*Notes: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$; Desc– Descriptive statistics, Read – Easability and readability, Lexi – Lexical diversity, Synt – Syntactic complexity and pattern density, Word – Word information, LSA – Latent semantic analysis, Cohe – Referential cohesion.*

Table 130 and Table 131 demonstrate that participants' writing skills (especially writing coherently) did not systematically relate to their assessment tasks, partially due to the small sample sizes. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the descriptive statistics of pre-practicum trainees' writing were negatively related to their ratings on the student text. As for the post-practicum trainees, the lexical diversity of their writing related moderately to the tasks of assessment of feedback on the student text. Also, the other correlations regarding the pre-practicum trainee sample were basically low and those for the post-practicum trainee group were normally medium.

After discussing the basic characteristics of trainees' writing skills and the relationships between their own writing skills and assessment of student text, I will explore the possible differences between their writing skills and practices in the assessment of student text. First, the differences between their writing skills are shown in Table 132. It is clear that only post-practicum trainees were rated higher on latent semantic analysis and referential cohesion of their texts than pre-practicum trainees.

Table 132 *Difference between Pre- and Post-Practicum Trainees' Writing Skills based on Coh-Metrix Indexes*

Index	Pre-practicum trainees		Post-practicum trainees		M_{diff}	t	p
	M	SD	M	SD			
Descriptive statistics	42.73	8.30	41.79	6.04	.94	.56	n.s.
Easability and readability	44.35	7.67	45.51	9.62	-1.16	.62	n.s.
Lexical diversity	37.61	6.33	35.83	7.29	1.78	1.20	n.s.
Syntactic complexity	65.74	3.38	65.42	3.67	.32	.41	n.s.
Word information	115.93	3.00	115.75	3.00	.18	.28	n.s.
Latent semantic analysis	.28	.08	.32	.10	-.04	2.21	<.05
Connectives	33.64	6.03	35.72	6.74	-2.08	1.45	n.s.
Referential cohesion	.44	.16	.54	.20	-.10	2.54	<.05

Second, I will compare their assessment tasks, including their ratings of, identified problems, frequencies of giving feedback and suggestions to the text. The mean for each of these aspects has already been shown earlier in Table 117 and Table 118. Thus, I will only show the significant differences here (see Table 133).

Table 133 *Difference between Pre- and Post-Practicum Trainees' Assessment of Student Text*

Variable	Pre-practicum trainees		Post-practicum trainees		M_{diff}	t
	M	SD	M	SD		
Rating - structure	3.08	.90	3.58	.99	-.50	2.33
Identified problem - vocabulary	2.27	2.20	1.13	1.38	1.14	3.01
Positive feedback - holistic	.42	.70	.13	.34	.30	2.69
Suggestion - holistic	.07	.25	.00	.00	.07	2.05

Note: All mean differences are significant, p<.05

It can be seen that post-practicum trainees were more lenient than pre-practicum trainees on ratings of the structure of the text, while the latter rated significantly higher than the former on identified problems, giving positive feedback on and suggestions about the overall quality of the text. There seems to be a contradiction between the two samples' writing skills and assessment skills. That is to say, the one with relatively higher ability in writing did not show correspondingly better assessment skills.

The findings indicate that participants' own writing skills did not systematically influence their assessment of the student text. Furthermore, the practicum did not intensively influence trainees' opinions toward their judgment of the student text.

4.10.6 How do rater groups' assessments compare to artificial intelligence ratings?

It is interesting to explore the possible difference between the opinions of raters when assessing the student text and the computing by artificial intelligence (Coh-Metrix), i.e., do they share same ideas or differ from each other towards the same text? In order to present the general judgment by the artificial intelligence, the student text was measured by the Coh-Metrix Common Core Text Ease and Readability Assessor (T.E.R.A.), which analyzes the "easability" and readability of the text (cf., McNamara, Graesser, Cai, & Dai, 2013). It measures the text from five dimensions: Narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, and deep cohesion. Among the five aspects, referential cohesion is the overlap between words, word stems, or concepts from one sentence to another (When sentences and paragraphs have similar words or conceptual ideas, it is easier for the reader to make connections between those ideas); Deep cohesion measures how well the events, ideas and information of the whole text are tied together (TERA, n.d.). The following is the result:

> "This text has high word concreteness, which means there are many words that are easier to visualize and comprehend. It is low in both referential and deep cohesion, suggesting that the reader may have to infer the relationships between sentences and ideas. If the reader has insufficient prior knowledge, these gaps can be challenging."

From the artificial intelligence, it is clear that the student text has problems with linguistic structures and development of ideas.

By contrast, as shown in Table 117, Table 118 and Table 119, pre- and post-practicum trainees and teachers invariably focused on structure and content of the text when giving negative feedback to the student. Hence, it seems that raters and artificial intelligence generally had similar opinions toward the student text. It also indicates that the raters' judgment of the student text is credible.

4.10.7 Summary

In Study 5, I have discussed trainees' and teachers' assessment of student text from four aspects: rating, identifying problems, giving feedback, and making suggestions for the text. I have also analyzed the effects of participants' background information on their assessment and compared the practices of assessment by different samples as well. In addition, I have explored the relationships between trainees' own writing ability and assessment skills. Finally, I have presented the connections between raters' opinions and artificial intelligence measures of the student text. Results from each aspect demonstrate that the three groups of participants preferably achieved the assessment tasks in the study, indicating trainees and teachers generally obtain promising skills in the assessment of student text.

Part V Conclusions, Limitations, and Implications

5.1 Introduction

The primary purposes of the dissertation were to explore and compare TEFL trainees' and teachers' conceptions of writing and perceptions of the teaching of writing as well as these groups' skills in the assessment of student writing. Even though teacher knowledge is heavily researched, the studies presented are the first to explore domain-specific development. As such, they may help teachers' preparation for EFL writing instruction by providing a possible agenda for improving curricula.

In Part 5, I will summarize the findings for all research questions regarding TEFL teachers' and trainees' knowledge of writing in the dissertation study. The results address five issues: (1) pre-practicum trainees' knowledge of writing, (2) post-practicum trainees' knowledge of writing, (3) teachers' knowledge of writing, (4) differences between teachers' and trainees' knowledge of writing, and (5) differences between teachers' and trainees' assessment of student text. Besides, the limitations of the dissertation study will be presented and the implications will be discussed as well in this chapter.

5.2 Pre-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' Knowledge of EFL Writing

Study 1 aimed to examine how pre-practicum TEFL trainees think about writing. A questionnaire was developed to target conceptions of writing, the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, opinions toward issues regarding the teaching of writing, and factors influencing their perceived knowledge of writing. Simple descriptive and interferential analyses were run to address the relevant research questions.

Results indicated that the participants normally accepted writing as a product and a process but many doubted its social nature. They paid more attention to the functions of writing concerned with the self and self-expression but much less to those focusing on the addressee. They considered reading activities as the most effective intervention to develop writing. They rated their curricular knowledge low.

With regards to instructional issues, the participants understood the importance of learning about students' writing levels when they start to teach in future. They generally rated highly the importance of comprehensive activities, such as lesson planning and tasks of writing instruction. They put emphasis on groups of possible audiences for students' texts involved in interaction related to their studies and everyday activities. They paid more attention to text types and tasks concerned with functional genres and exam-based assessment of writing. When asked about their instructional objectives, they focused on coding and linguistic aspects and there was less emphasis on cognitive aspects of written composition. They favored teacher-directed instruction with relative neglect of the engagement of, and interaction between, students. Interestingly, they did not expect much difficulty in teaching writing. They put stress on what feedback to give

rather than how and when to give it. They generally rated assessment items low. Background variables (e.g., years of learning English, self-rating of proficiency level) did not have a systematic influence on participants' targeted opinions.

The findings are twofold. For one thing, the participants did not report a complete understanding of writing. For another, they did not seem to be aware of the complexity of writing instruction. Findings also suggest that pre-practicum trainees' knowledge base of writing is less than optimal.

5.3 Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' Knowledge of EFL Writing

The purpose of Study 2 was to learn about the knowledge of post-practicum TEFL trainees, using the instrument of Study 1 and complementing it with questions on the practicum. More advanced inferential analyses were conducted.

Results showed that the majority of post-practicum trainees held opinions conforming to the research consensus, i.e., they regarded writing as a linguistic, cognitive and cultural tool (cf., Hayes, 1996; Hyland, 2002, 2015). However, writing as a social activity did not get leading attention, i.e., slightly over one-quarter of participants were suspicious of the social nature of writing.

With respect to the possible functions of writing, the respondents had the tendency to regard writing as a tool for creation, thinking, communication, and exams, but they put less stress on its contribution to one's career. Similar to the results of the natures of writing, only half of the informants favored the function of writing for addressing specific audiences.

In terms of the development writing, the respondents generally consented to the four interventions to develop writing in the study. They owned similar opinions toward intervention activities directly related to writing but favored more of the transfer effects of reading activities compared to that of speaking activities. Likewise, it suggests that addressing people was also approved lower than the others.

As for their evaluation of features of good texts, the participants agreed with most of the features but favored linguistic features rather than conceptual and coding features when assessing a text.

In the light of curricular goals and objectives, respondents estimated their knowledge of curriculum standards and writing objectives considerably relatively low. Possibly, this issue might be addressed either in the initial teacher training programs or before the practicum or during the practicum.

In terms of their instructional experience, they reported that they did not fully identify students' writing levels. They learned to know the best about students' spelling ability. This finding might reflect the practical situation of trainees' practicum in China, i.e., trainees spend a lot of time checking students' assignments and consequently may pay more attention to spelling errors which are easier to judge.

With regard to lesson planning, participants gave priority to what to teach in each lesson. Also, they generally considered the tasks of writing instruction involved in the study to be important. Together, it indicates that post-practicum trainees were aware of

the importance of instructional tasks but were content-guided rather than focusing on how to teach due to their limited teaching experience.

In relation to their awareness of targeting audiences when assigning student writing tasks, the findings were in line with earlier results regarding the natures and functions of writing, i.e., the respondents did not pay much attention to the application of writing to address people in real life. Also, they put the greatest emphasis on mock exams when assigning writing tasks to students. Hence, it seems that they did not ask students to write in a wide range of text types but focused mainly on targeting exams and some simple writing activities.

About the emphasis of objectives of the teaching of writing, the respondents again put the greatest stress on the correct spelling of letters and words, indicating that they tended to center on coding and linguistic aspects of various teaching objectives.

When teaching writing, the participants favored teacher-directed strategies and approaches. This finding suggests that the practicum did not change trainees' opinions of teaching methods. It is in accordance with the teaching conventions and culture in China as discussed in Part III. As expected, the participants reported that they experienced various difficulties in teaching writing in the practicum. This is an obvious change from being idealistic in the pre-service programs to be realistic in the practice of teaching. That is to say, the teaching experience changed trainees' perceptions of the challenges of instructional practices in the real classroom.

In terms of giving feedback on student writing, the respondents mostly focused on linguistic issues of student text. This finding echoes results of earlier research on teachers' focus when giving feedback on student text (e.g., Furneaus, Paran, & Fairfax, 2007; Lee, 2008; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). When evaluating writing, the participants were not intensively involved in the assessment of student writing.

Results also indicated that the practicum itself did not systematically influence the participants' ideas of writing, but the teaching experience affected their understanding of curricular goals and objectives. The length of the practicum and the location of the school (e.g., urban or rural) influenced their perceptions of experience in teaching writing to some extent. The level of schooling and the number of writing lessons taught in the practicum impacted their assessment of writing.

Study 2 enabled to construct a full portrait of how post-practicum trainees estimate their knowledge of writing. Although the participants experienced notable development in writing instruction related skills, the intensity of the practice teaching was not enough to impact their thinking about writing. Findings also clearly show that post-practicum trainees are moving from being EFL learners to become potential competent practitioners but still with various problems and challenges.

5.4 Chinese TEFL Teachers' Knowledge of EFL Writing

The aim of Study 3 was to explore how TEFL teachers estimate their knowledge of writing. This issue is more interesting because of the tensions between the modern language pedagogy and the exam-driven culture characteristic of China. The questionnaire administered shared most questions from Studies 1 and 2 and new

questions targeted the teaching practices of the participants. The data were analyzed similarly to Studies 1 and 2.

Results showed that TEFL teachers normally viewed writing as a linguistic product and accepted the function of writing related to the self and self-expression but relatively neglected its role in communication and in exams. The participants rated their knowledge of the curriculum standards and writing objectives high.

With respect to their instructional experience, they considered they knew their learners well. They focused on targeting exams when planning a writing lesson. They considered learners' writing tasks to be important and focused on exams but did not present students with diverse genre types or different audiences.

Although the participants generally recognized the importance of the objectives of writing instruction included in the study, they focused more on the mechanics of writing. When implementing classroom instruction, they favored strategies and approaches of giving rules and teaching with examples as well as engaging students in their teaching of writing. It indicates, on the one hand, the participants were inclined to be teacher-directed in the classroom, but on the other hand, they were also aware of involving students in their instructional practices. It would merit efforts to look into their specific actions in real classes so as to explore the effectiveness of their teaching of writing.

Unexpectedly, they encountered numerous difficulties in teaching writing, especially in teaching students to think in English for writing in English. This is a challenge for both teachers and students in an EFL context. It would deserve further endeavors from both theoretical research and educational practice to address this issue for the sake of efficiency of language learning and instruction in a non-native English environment.

Similar to post-practicum trainees, practicing teachers basically focused on linguistic issues and forms when giving feedback on learners' texts and did not put much emphasis on the assessment of student writing.

Participants' background (e.g., degree or school characteristics) did not systematically influence their conceptions of writing. However, the intensity of teaching writing significantly contributes to the participants' knowledge of writing.

Findings reveal contradictions between teachers' understanding and practice of teaching writing. It might be because teachers are confronted with the dilemma between targeting learners' communicative skills and meeting the requirements of exams.

5.5 Differences between Pre- and Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' and Teachers' Perceived Knowledge of EFL Writing

After discussing trainees' and teachers' self-estimated knowledge of writing respectively, it comes automatically the idea of comparing their thinking about writing. As outlined earlier in Chapter 4.9, the comparison was conducted between four groups of participants. Namely, Study 4 was a cross-sectional exploration of changes in knowledge and experiences through four stages of teacher development: pre-practicum and post-practicum trainees as well as novice and experienced TEFL teachers. ANOVAs and MANOVAs were conducted to identify differences between the four subsamples. Relevant results are summarized below.

Results showed that participants' perceptions of the natures of writing are basically in line with the research community. Their relative inattention to the social nature of writing seems to be strengthened as a function of professional practice. Also, their acceptance of the communicative function of writing increased with the accumulation of teaching experience. Teachers agreed more with the intervention to develop writing through addressing people. Compared to trainees, teachers valued lexical and handwriting features more when evaluating a text. As for the understanding of curriculum standards and writing objectives, teaching experience has a strong effect.

In light of issues related to the teaching of writing, teachers, as expected, reported more knowledge about students' writing levels. Teaching experience did not intensively change the participants' thinking about the comprehensiveness of lesson planning except experienced teachers saliently highlighted targeting exams. Teacher and trainee groups alike estimated the importance of learners' writing tasks highly but none of them paid much attention to address different audiences when designing students' writing assignments. They used limited varieties of genre types but invariably agreed on the importance of mock exams. When identifying the focal points of writing instruction, experienced teachers put more emphasis on mechanics than trainees, and they favored teaching with examples and giving rules. Also, they found more difficulties in motivating students. The length of teaching experience did not systematically influence participants' perceptions of giving feedback on student writing.

Findings in Study 4 have presented a relatively full picture of the changes of teachers' thinking about writing from pre- to in-service. Most notably, teaching experience raises teachers' awareness of targeting people when thinking about writing. However, it seems that they do not have a balance between addressing different audiences in real life situations and targeting exams in teachers' thinking and actions.

Taking all of the above findings into consideration, the conclusion can be drawn that within the same cultural context, trainees and teachers in the study basically had relatively similar knowledge of writing. With regards to the conceptions of writing, the majority of the participants generally hold opinions conforming with the research consensus (e.g., Hyland, 2015), but there is a notable problem with communicative issues. Subsamples' relative inattention to (especially pre-practicum trainees' serious neglect of) the social nature of writing and its communicative function raises issues for future research.

As for the teaching of writing, trainee and teacher groups rated their knowledge differently. Teaching experience impacts teachers' knowledge of subject matters of writing, curriculum knowledge of writing, knowledge of learners, and pedagogical knowledge of writing. Pre-service teacher trainees especially those who have finished their practicum are on the right track to become EFL teachers. Teachers, however, are encountering various perplexities and challenges. They are struggling to focus on either exams or students' communicative skills of writing. This predicament calls for teacher trainers' and policy-makers' attention. It might be addressed by resetting the teacher training curriculum and reshaping the requirements of EFL (especially writing) exams. Also, future research may investigate if teaching for exam success really improves their ability to communicate in real life situations.

5.6 Pre- and Post-Practicum Chinese TEFL Trainees' and Teachers' Skills in the Assessment of EFL Writing

Studies 1 through 4 revealed that Chinese TEFL trainees and teachers did not consider the assessment of student writing to be a prominent issue. This was an unexpected finding and thus its reasons are not explored in the present studies. In contrast to this finding, feedback to student writing as a contributor to meaning-making (Zamel, 1985) has been a central idea in international research on EFL writing instruction. Therefore, Study 5 focused on this area. Three subsamples: Chinese TEFL trainees (pre- and post-practicum) and teachers were asked to assess the same authentic student text, identify and indicate problems and errors in it, and give written feedback. As a set of control variables, the student text was also evaluated by Coh-Metrix, an online tool for characterizing the cohesion and coherence of a text. In addition, Study 5 addresses the relationship between trainees' own writing skills and their assessment skills as they were given an additional writing task.

Results indicated that the trainee samples generally evaluated the text impersonally and fairly. Respondents in the teacher sample were relatively lenient when assessing the student text. They gave priority to grammatical issues when judging the problems, giving negative feedback, and making suggestions.

The Multifaceted Rasch analysis revealed that there was a difference between the subsamples when assessing the same student text. Both trainee groups rated more harshly than teachers. As for the holistic and the five analytic criteria (content, structure, style, grammatical correctness, and mechanics), style received the harshest rating, followed by structure and grammar. The overall quality of the text was rated the most leniently.

The results showed that the trainees' own writing levels did not systematically influence their assessment of the student text. Also, a cross-sectional analysis indicated that the practicum did not significantly influence trainees' opinions of the student text. All groups of raters' assessments were similar to the one by Coh-Metrix.

It is satisfying to find that trainees and teachers have promising skills in assessing EFL writing. Teachers tend to be more tolerant of student writing than trainees. Consistent with the emphasis of the literature on language (e.g., Lee, 2008), the focus of participants' written feedback to the student text was on linguistic issues. However, they did not provide as much comprehensive and advanced feedback as expected, such as related to conceptual issues of the learner's text. It seems that the participants may have missed knowledge on or been unconscious of contributing to meaning-making in their written feedback for the improvement of student writing.

5.7 Limitations

The studies presented have explored what Chinese TEFL trainees and teachers know about writing. However, a few limitations have also emerged. To start with, post-practicum trainees' and teachers' classroom teaching of writing is not addressed in the studies due to the physical distance between the targeted participants and myself. Thus, the classroom-based research on teachers' beliefs and practice of teaching writing and

their changes remain to be investigated further. In this case, a more possibly generalized picture of teachers' and post-practicum trainees' knowledge of writing could come into being. This will be the subsequent research project for my future academic careers as a qualified researcher at home.

Second, the teacher sample was not asked to participate in the writing project regarding the assessment of writing due to the huge challenges to approach any possible volunteers. This would be another limitation because if they had written a text it would have helped much or less to understand the relationship between their writing ability and assessment skills. This would be feasible one day if the in-service teacher training programs organize teachers to commit such a task.

Third, the sample sizes of participants who were involved in the assessment of writing were considerably small and the characteristics of the samples were relatively homogeneous. Because of this limitation, it partly hindered the presentation of a more generalizable understanding of teachers' and trainees' practices in the assessment of writing. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to the whole population.

Finally, one more limitation is concerned with the research method. As we know, human cognition is a complicated process. In order to understand in-depth participants' thinking about writing and opinions toward their assessment of writing, it would also be important to conduct interviews to learn about their real ideas. This might be used together with observations of their classroom teaching of writing. Also, the longitudinal research method is not employed. This is admittedly another limitation of the studies, which keeps us from understanding the match or mismatch of teachers' notions of writing and actions in teaching writing through pre- to in-service training. Thus, future research may take these aspects into account for the purpose of providing a more generalized picture of teachers' and trainees' knowledge of writing.

5.8 Implications and Recommendations

The dissertation study has explored what Chinese TEFL teachers and trainees know about writing and provided a general framework of teacher knowledge of writing from various aspects. The findings of the studies in the dissertation may support the understanding of TEFL trainees' and teachers' knowledge of EFL writing and inform further research in this area.

First, this dissertation study has mainly discussed teachers' and trainees' knowledge of writing from the perspectives of subject matter knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, general pedagogical knowledge, and skills in the assessment of writing. It would also be of importance to look into their knowledge from the viewpoint of affection and metacognition. Thus, a multidimensional understanding of teacher knowledge of writing might be shaped. It would also enrich the possible ways of teachers' professional development.

Second, it has shed light on practitioners' practice of teaching writing. Research has shown that teachers acquire professional development through the cursive and alternant processes of cognition and practice (cf., Wu, 2008). Therefore, it calls for specific efforts to examine how teachers teach writing in real classes through practice

teaching to practicing teaching particularly in contexts where English is a foreign language.

Third, the findings give evidence for changing the pre-service programs to prepare trainees more appropriately for future teaching of writing. It may be of interest for pre-service teacher educators as well as policy maker especially in China that resetting the courses of initial teacher training programs and intensifying the practicum are needed. In addition, to reinforce the collaboration and communication between universities and schools as well as between supervisor and mentors are in requirement.

Fourth, they raise the issue for in-service training programs to help teachers seek an equitable relationship between targeting exams and fostering students' effective communicative abilities. Also, the findings have provided implications for the integration of teacher education and training from pre-service to in-service so that teachers can get constant support in their lifelong learning and professional development. For example, they may support the development of assessment skills in both pre- and in-service programs.

Last but not least, it would be interesting to examine teachers' development of knowledge about writing by conducting longitudinal research, which may provide a more generalized picture of the changes and improvement of their knowledge through pre-service to in-service.

5.9 Summary

The overall goal of the dissertation study was to learn about TEFL teachers' and trainees' knowledge of writing in the Chinese context. Findings showed that trainees and teachers basically perceived their knowledge to be good. In fact, their performance in the assessment of writing has proven that they generally acquire necessary knowledge and skills. It indicates that TEFL teacher training in China is successful with its meeting of trainees' and teachers' understanding of writing and teaching related issues of writing. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that both teachers and trainees relatively neglect the social communicative natures and functions of writing but predominantly focus on exam-driven aspects. In this chapter, implications, recommendations, and limitations of the studies were also discussed.

Acknowledgements

Appendix A: Categorizations of Language Knowledge

Categorizations of Language Knowledge (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, pp. 220–221)

I. Linguistic knowledge
    A. Knowledge of the written code
        1. Orthography
        2. Spelling
        3. Punctuation
        4. Formatting conventions (margins, paragraphing, spacing, etc.)
    B. Knowledge of phonology and morphology
        1. Sound/letter correspondences
        2. Syllables (onset, rhyme/rhythm, coda)
        3. Morpheme structure (word-part knowledge)
    C. Vocabulary
        1. Interpersonal words and phrases
        2. Academic and pedagogical words and phrases
        3. Formal and technical words and phrases
        4. Topic-specific words and phrases
        5. Non-literal and metaphoric language
    D. Syntactic/structural knowledge
        1. Basic syntactic patterns
        2. Preferred formal writing structures (appropriate style)
        3. Tropes and figures of expression
        4. Metaphors/similes
    E. Awareness of differences across languages
    F. Awareness of relative proficiency in different languages and registers

II. Discourse knowledge
    A. Knowledge of intrasentential and intersentential marking devices
        (cohesion, syntactic parallelisms)
    B. Knowledge of informational structuring (topic/comment, given/new, theme/rheme, adjacency pairs)
    C. Knowledge of semantic relations across clauses
    D. Knowledge of recognizing main topics
    E. Knowledge of genre structure and genre constraints
    F. Knowledge of organizing schemes (top-level discourse structure)
    G. Knowledge of inferencing (bridging, elaborating)
    H. Knowledge of differences in features of discourses structuring across languages and cultures
    I. Awareness of different proficiency levels of discourse skills in different languages

III. Sociolinguistic knowledge
    A. Functional uses of written language
    B. Application and interpretable violation of Gricean maxims (Grice, 1975)
    C. Register and situational parameters
        1. Age of writer
        2. Language used by writer (L1, L2, …)
        3. Proficiency in language used
        4. Audience considerations
        5. Relative status of interactants (power/politeness)
        6. Degree of formality (deference/solidarity)
        7. Degree of distance (detachment/involvement)
        8. Topic of interaction
        9. Means of writing (pen/pencil, computer, dictation, shorthand)
      10. Means of transmission (single page/book/read aloud/printed)
    D. Awareness of sociolinguistic differences across languages and cultures
    E. Self-awareness of roles of register and situational parameters

Appendix B: Summary of Studies on TEFL Teacher Trainees' Development in the Practicum

A Summary of Studies on TEFL Teacher Trainees' Development in the Practicum

Thematic areas of studies	Author and year of publication	Participants	Methods	Time span	Results	Location
Belief	Gao (2011)	6 female	Case study, Journals	6 weeks	Reinforcement, addition and change of trainees' understanding of teaching objectives and important points, comprehension of teacher role, knowing the students, learning class management strategies and teaching strategies.	China
	Yuan and Lee (2014)	3 female	Classroom observation, interviews (stimulated recall interview)	10 weeks	TEFL trainees experienced significant changes of beliefs in language learning and instruction, teachers' professional experience and development, teacher identity.	China
Teacher knowledge	Goker (2006)	32	Experiment	7-week	Student teachers felt feel free to ask questions, express their views, improve their instructional skills and self-efficacy.	Cyprus
	Guo and Wang (2009)	1 female	Semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and journal entities	5-week	Teacher knowledge, particularly teaching skills and reflective ability developed to a large extent.	China
	Liu (2015)	1	Interview, lesson plans, classroom observation, reflective journals, and practicum journals	Not mentioned	Development degree from large to small: general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts and subject knowledge.	China
	Lee (2007)	43 (13male, 30female)	Small group interviews and reflective journal reports	4-week	Getting along well with students and getting positive responses from students to their teaching; Understanding the difference between their ideal perspectives and the realities in school classroom and learnt to consciously bridge the gap.	Korea

Thematic areas of studies	Author and year of publication	Participants	Methods	Time span	Results	Location
	Hosoda and Aline (2010)	2	Conversation Analysis, socio-cultural theory and language socialization	19-month	Classroom interactional abilities mainly in "provision of assessments to students" and "initiative in giving direction" developed.	Japan
	Merç (2015)	117	Questionnaire, semi-structured interviews(12 of the sample involved)	Two semesters (14-week/ 12-week)	Satisfaction with their lesson plans, regular attendance of activities and punctual completion of various assignments in the practice teaching, and their supervisors' evaluation of their lessons.	Turkey
Teaching behaviors	Liyanage and Bartlett (2010)	9	Meta-cognitive strategy framework (MSF)	A 13-week semester	The meta-cognitive strategy framework (SMF) has great possibility for developing TEFL teacher trainees' better consciousness of and involvement in planning lessons in the field of regulating objectives, procedures, outcomes, and assessments.	Australia
	Mutton, Hagger and Burn (2011)	17	Observation, semi-structured interviews	3 years	Learning to plan is a characteristic of novice teachers' learning to grow in and beyond the Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) course year, which reveals that "it is through planning that teachers are able to learn about teaching and through teaching that they are able to learn about planning".	UK
	Uhrmacher, Conrad and Moroye (2013)		Theoretical analysis and comparisons		Perceptual lesson planning emphasizes the ways in which the lesson planning process itself can be innovated into a meaningful experience for both the teacher and the students.	USA
	Ozkan (2011)	60 (10 male and 50 female)	Blogging, interviews	4-hour per week practicum in one semester	Before the practicum, trainees focused mainly on activity and materials, but they centered on the smooth lesson delivery after the practicum.	Turkey
	Quintero and Ramírez (2011)	5	Action research, observations, interviews, journals, focus groups, video/audio taping, transcriptions and documentary analysis	2 semesters	The participants improved their ability to cope with indiscipline in class as well as reflection and decision-making competences.	Colombia

Thematic areas of studies	Author and year of publication	Participants	Methods	Time span	Results	Location
	Ragawanti (2015)	10	After class journals	3 months	The TEFL student teachers improved their classroom management skills in the practicum, such as managing critical moments, teaching activities and techniques, etc.	Indonesia
	Alkhawaldeh (2008)	78 (14 male and 64 female)	Open questionnaire	One semester	Trainees stated assessing students' learning was important for examining the fulfillment of teaching objectives as well as students' learning outcomes; they emphasized formative and summative evaluation, employing numerous methods in evaluating students' learning; the practicum influences trainees' awareness and competences in assessing students' learning.	Jordan
Reflective abilities	Kocoglu, Akyel and Ercetin (2008)	5 (1male, 4 female)	Pen/paper and electronic portfolios, semi-structured interviews	27-week in data collection	Trainees' reflective skills improved from descriptive reflection and dialogic reflection to critical reflection; also, they learnt to bridge theory and practice.	Turkey
	Rass (2014)	6 Arab-Muslim female	Lesson plan sheets and observation notes, questionnaires, interviews and videotaped lessons	1 year	Learning to reflect on their lesson plan and performance; teacher-centered to student-centered.	Israel
	Huang and Zhang (2015)	118	Questionnaire	2-month	Participants highlight their specific teaching behaviors, emotional experience and values in reflection.	China

Appendix C: Descriptors for Comprehensive Language Competence

Level	Descriptors
1	Students are curious about English and enjoy listening to people speaking English. They can: – Play games, do actions and activities (e.g. coloring, joining lines) according to simple instructions from the teacher – Perform simple role plays – Sing simple English songs – Say simple rhymes and chants – Understand simple stories by with the aid of pictures – Communicate simple personal information – Express simple feelings and attitudes – Write letters and words – Take interest in foreign cultural customs met during learning English
2	Students show a sustained interest in and enjoyment of learning English. They can: – Use simple English greetings and exchange personal information and information about family and friends – Perform dialogues, songs, rhymes, and chants about content they have studied – Understand and narrate simple stories with the aid of pictures – Write simple sentences with the aid of pictures or prompts – Participate and cooperate actively and happily – Take the initiative to ask for help – Enjoy learning about other countries' cultures and customs
3	Students show a positive attitude and the beginnings of self-confidence towards learning English. They can: – Understand short and simple stories about familiar topics that they hear – Exchange information about familiar topics (e.g. school, family life) with the teacher or classmates – Read and understand short stories and other simple written material – Write simple sentences with the aid of examples or pictures – Take part in simple role plays and activities – Attempt to use suitable learning strategies to overcome difficulties encountered during study – Identify cultural differences that are present when communicating in a foreign language
4	Students can identify their own learning needs and targets and are fairly self-confident about learning English. They can: – Listen to and understand dialogues and short stories in everyday communication – Communicate information and simple opinions about familiar everyday topics – Write brief and simple letters – Attempt to use different educational resources

	– Gain information from oral and written materials to extend their knowledge, solve simple problems and describe results
	– Help each other to overcome difficulties encountered during learning
	– Plan and arrange sensible learning activities
	– Actively explore learning strategies suitable for themselves
	– Take note of cultural differences between China and other countries during study and communication
5	Students show clear motivation and a positive, active attitude towards learning English. They can: – Listen to and understand the teacher's statements about familiar topics and take part in discussions – Exchange information with others and express opinions about various topics in daily life – Read and understand texts, newspapers, and magazines suitable for Grades 7 – 9, overcoming the barrier of unknown words to understand the main ideas – Use appropriate reading strategies according to the purpose of reading – Draft and edit short compositions according to the aid of prompts – Cooperate with others to complete tasks, solve problems and report results – Assess their own learning and summarize their own learning style – Make use of a wide variety of resources – Further increase their understanding and awareness of cultural differences
6	Students show further motivation to study English and a growing awareness of autonomous learning. They can: – Understand the viewpoints expressed in oral or written materials and state their own view – Effectively use oral or written language to describe personal experience – Plan, organize and carry out a variety of English learning activities with the teacher's assistance – Take the initiative to exploit a range of learning resources and gain information through multiple channels – Adjust their own learning objectives and strategies according to the results of self-assessment – Understand the cultural background to and connotations of language during communication
7	Students show clear and sustained motivation to study English and a clear awareness of autonomous learning. They can: – Exchange information, ask questions, give opinions and advice about a fairly wide range of topics – Read and understand original texts and newspapers that have been adapted for senior middle school students – Show nascent skill in writing compositions such as notices and letters of information – Take the initiative to plan, organize and carry out a range of language practice activities – Take responsibility for using a wide variety of learning resources to promote study – Monitor their own learning to continue to form learning strategies suitable for themselves – Understand cultural differences in communication and further form wide cultural awareness

	Students show strong self-confidence and ability to learn autonomously. They can:
8	– Communicate fairly naturally with other English speakers about familiar topics – Express evaluative comments about the content of oral or written materials – Write coherent and fully structured short compositions – Take responsibility for planning, organizing and carrying out a range of language practice activities such as discussion, decision making, and reporting experiment and survey results – Use the internet and various other resources to gather and process information effectively – Consciously evaluate learning outcomes and form effective English learning strategies – Understand the cultural connotations and background during communication and adopt a respectful and tolerant attitude towards cultures of different countries
	Students are autonomous learners. They can:
9	– Listen to and understand the main content of speeches, discussions, debates and reports on familiar topics – Discuss and express their attitudes and opinions about topics of universal importance inside and outside China, such as the environment, population, peace, development, etc. – Act as an interpreter in everyday life – Make the most of a variety of opportunities to use English for real communication – Read popular science and literature articles with fairly wide-ranging subjects with the aid of a dictionary – Use common genres/text types to complete ordinary writing tasks and have nascent ability to write in a literary way – Expand and enrich learning resources autonomously – Display strong global awareness

Appendix D: Pre-practicum TEFL Trainee Questionnaire

EFL Writing and Writing Instruction

Dear Participants,

This questionnaire aims to investigate how EFL (English as a foreign language) trainees understand writing and the practice of writing instruction before the practicum.

We greatly appreciate your filling out the questionnaire. Confidentiality and anonymity are assured. Your responses will be used for this research purpose only.

Thank you very much for your invaluable cooperation!

Best regards,

Kong Yunjun and Molnár Edit Katalin

Part I: Understanding EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your ideas on EFL written composition. *Please select the response that best expresses your opinion for each item.*

1. Writing is a multi-faceted concept. To what extent do you agree with the following?

	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Uncertain*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
Writing is a linguistic activity					
Writing is a cognitive activity					
Writing is a social activity					
Writing is a cultural activity					

2. Writing is multi-functional. To what extent do you agree with the following?

	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Uncertain*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
Writing is a tool for thinking					
Writing is a tool for communication					
Writing is creation					
Writing is addressing specific audiences					
Writing is for proving students' knowledge at exams					
Writing is of importance in one's career					

3. Writing could be developed. To what extent do you agree with the following?

	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Uncertain*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
Engagement in speaking facilitates writing					

Engagement in reading facilitates writing					
Engagement in writing activities facilitates writing					
Students learn to write when they are taught to					

4. Writing requires the mastery of several components. To what extent would you say the following contribute to good writing?

	Very little	Little	Somewhat	Much	Very much
vocabulary					
grammar					
semantics					
content					
style of language					
cohesive devices					
the structure of a paragraph					
the structure of a text					
the length of a text					
punctuation					
spelling					
handwriting					

Part II: The Teaching of EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your perceptions of the practice of writing instruction before the practicum. *Please select the response that best expresses your opinion for each item.*

5. How would you rate your knowledge of the Curriculum Standards for the elementary and secondary schools?

Very poor	Poor	Uncertain	Good	Very good

6. How would you rate your knowledge of the Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective for the elementary and secondary schools?

Very poor	Poor	Uncertain	Good	Very good

7. How much do you expect to learn to understand your students' writing levels in your future practicum?

	Very little	Little	Somewhat	Much	Very much
prior knowledge of writing					

writing experience					
writing needs and interests					
vocabulary					
ways of word choice					
use of sentence structures					
use of tenses and voices					
production of coherent text					
use of cohesive devices					
competence of writing in different genres					
use of punctuation					
spelling					

8. How would you rate the importance of the following when planning a writing lesson?

	Not important at all	Unimportant	Uncertain	Important	Very important
Identifying curriculum standards and requirements					
Setting writing aims and objectives suited to students' needs and interests					
Planning specific writing objectives for each lesson					
Designing specific writing topics and tasks for each lesson					
Creating and adapting activities to enhance and sustain students' motivation and interest					
Planning various organizational forms (individual, pair, group work) as appropriate					
Arranging feedback: how, when, what, and by whom					
Planning for phases of the writing processes					
Targeting the requirements of exams					

9. How would you rate the importance of the following tasks of writing instruction?

	Not important at all	Unimportant	Uncertain	Important	Very important

To provide practice in spelling, punctuation, etc.					
To provide practice of correct use of language					
To draw on relevant background knowledge in approaching new learning					
To use newly learned words in writing					
To use newly learned sentence structures in writing					
To consolidate new understandings by writing					
To reformulate and extend learning by writing					
To prove what students have learned					
To motivate students' individual creativity					
To increase students' awareness of written discourse					
To improve students' self-confidence					
To develop students' language ability through the activity of writing					
To use styles appropriate to given genres					
To develop writing as a skill					

10. How would you rate the importance of writing for the following audiences in assignments?

	Not important at all	Unimportant	Uncertain	Important	Very important
Family members					
Friends					
Peers or schoolmates					
Teacher					
School administrators or officials					
School newspaper, social organizations, etc.					

11. How would you rate the importance of writing the following kinds of texts in English as assignments?

	Not important at all	Unimportant	Uncertain	Important	Very important
autobiographies					
blog entries					
book reviews					
descriptions					
dramatic texts					
emails					
essays					
expository essays					
fables					
film reviews					
journals					
letters					
mock exams					
monologues					
multi-step instructions					
news articles					
notices					
opinions (persuasion)					
poems/lyrics					
postcards					
posters					
resumes					
speeches					
stories					
tales					
travel notes					

12. How much relative emphasis would you put on the following when teaching writing?

	None	Little	Some	Much	Very much
Spelling of letters and words					
Correct usage of capitalization					
Correct use of frequently-used punctuations					
Using common linking devices to express oneself fluently and logically in writing					
Writing simple greetings					
Writing short and simple headings and descriptions to fit pictures or objects					

Gathering and organizing material according to the purpose of the writing					
Drafting short letters and passages independently					
Editing with the teacher's guidance					
Writing simple descriptions of people or things					
Writing simple paragraphs, instructions, and explanations according to prompts given in pictures or tables					
Filling out forms, e.g. application, ticket reservation, etc.					
Writing frequently-used genres, such as narration, exposition, and persuasion					

13. In your opinion based on your present professional knowledge, how often would you use the following in writing instruction?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Establishing a safe atmosphere for writing					
Eliciting students' ideas, emotions, interests, concerns, etc.					
Modeled writing (by the teacher)					
Shared writing (writing with students)					
Guided writing					
Group writing					
Paired writing					
Individual writing					
Teaching students to write by reciting useful expressions					
Teaching students to write by imitating good samples of texts					
Teaching writing relevant to a unit of study					
Teaching students different writing genres					
Teaching writing based on students' choice of topic					
Providing checklists to guide students					
Arranging for students to share and discuss drafts					
Organizing writing partnerships or small groups					
Teaching students how to develop ideas					
Teaching students how to organize ideas					
Teaching students effectiveness of expression (e.g., word choice, sentence variety, coherence, cohesion, etc.)					
Teaching students mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation)					
Giving tips on how to write a new task					

Giving general advice on good writing					
Making clear what good writing looks like					

14. How much difficulty do you expect to experience in the following in writing instruction?

	Very little	Little	Somewhat	Much	Very much
Organizing group work for writing in class					
Identifying students' problems with writing					
Providing instant feedback to students' writing					
Providing detailed feedback to students' writing					
Developing a systematic syllabus for writing					
Creating classroom climate for constructive peer feedback					
Providing realistic writing situations and tasks					
Teaching students to think in English for writing in English					
Finding appropriate writing tasks for students					
Motivating students to write					
Setting aside time for students to write in class					
Meeting individual needs or interests of writing					

15. How important do you find it to provide or organize the following response to students' writing?

	Not important at all	*Unimportant*	*Uncertain*	*Important*	*Very important*
Criteria for good writing (e.g., organization, content)					
Specific good and bad points of an individual student's writing					
Correcting errors in language use and mechanics					
Pointing out errors of grammar					

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Strategies for revision					
Characteristics of different genres					
Assessing the accuracy of conclusions					
Providing feedback on form and structure					
Suggesting improvements in style					
Teacher-student conference					
Written notes to the student					
Whole-class response to a sample of writing					
Read-aloud of a good sample of writing					
Peer feedback (pairs or small groups)					
Giving feedback after students finish their writing in the classroom					
Giving feedback on students' homework					

16. How often would you use the following to assess students' writing?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Rubrics					
Checklist					
Scoring software or websites					
Scoring – Holistic					
Scoring – Content					
Scoring – Coherence and Cohesion					
Scoring – Grammar					
Scoring – Vocabulary					
Scoring – Punctuation					
Scoring – Spelling					

Part III: Background

In this section, the following questions ask about teacher trainees' background.

17. Are you male or female?
    a. Male
    b. Female

18. How old are you? *Please specify below.*

    _____ years old.

19. What is the academic program for your degree or diploma? *Please select one from below.*
    a. A two-year-program for college diploma
    b. A three-year-program for college diploma
    c. A four-year program for Bachelor's degree of Arts

20. When did you begin your studies to become a teacher of EFL? *Please specify the year and month.*

    _____ year _____ month.

21. How many years have you studied English as a subject before starting the university level? *Please specify below.*

    _____ years.

22. What certificate(s) of English Proficiency Test do you have? *You can select more than one.*
    a. CET (College English Test) - Band 4
    b. CET (College English Test) - Band 6
    c. TEM (Test for English majors) - Band 4
    d. TEM (Test for English majors) - Band 8
    e. Other? Please specify _____.

23. How would you rate your English proficiency level? *Please select one from below.*
    a. Intermediate
    b. Upper-Intermediate
    c. Advanced
    d. Proficient

24. To what extent do you think the following English Studies from your pre-service training programs would be useful for your teaching of writing in the practicum? *Please select the response that best expresses your experience for each item.*

	Not useful at all	Not useful	Somewhat useful	Useful	Very useful	probably I didn't study this
Literature						
Phonology						
Morphology						
Lexicology						
Syntax						
Sociolinguistics						
Semantics						
Pragmatics						
Text Linguistics (Discourse)						
Applied Linguistics						

25. In your opinion, to what degree would your pre-service programs prepare you appropriately for teaching writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Completely

26. Probably you expect to learn and understand many things from your future practicum. Please tell us what you would like to learn and understand about EFL writing instruction in your future practicum. *Please give 3-5 statements.*

_____

_____

_____

27. In your opinion, do mother tongue writing skills help to learn EFL writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	*Much*	*Very much*

28. How would you characterize the effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing? *Please specify.*

_____.

Thank you very much for your time and patience!

Appendix E: Post-practicum TEFL Trainee Questionnaire

EFL Writing and Writing Instruction

Dear Participants,

This questionnaire aims to investigate how EFL (English as a foreign language) trainees understand writing and the practice of writing instruction during the practicum in Chinese elementary and secondary schools.

We greatly appreciate your filling out the questionnaire. Confidentiality and anonymity are assured. Your responses will be used for this research purpose only.

Thank you very much for your invaluable cooperation!

Best regards,

Kong Yunjun and Molnár Edit Katalin

Part I: Understanding EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your ideas on EFL written composition. *Please select the response that best expresses your opinion for each item.*

1. Writing is a multi-faceted concept. To what extent do you agree with the following?
2. Writing is multi-functional. To what extent do you agree with the following?
3. Writing could be developed. To what extent do you agree with the following?
4. Writing requires the mastery of several components. To what extent would you say the following contribute to good writing?

Part II: The Teaching of EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your practice of writing instruction in the practicum. *Please select the response that best expresses your experience for each item.*

5. How would you rate your knowledge of the Curriculum Standards for the grade level you taught in the practicum?
6. How would you rate your knowledge of the Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective for the grade level you taught?
7. How would you characterize your knowledge of your students' writing levels in your practicum?
8. How often did you focus on the following when planning a writing lesson?
9. How would you rate the importance of the following tasks of writing instruction?
10. How often did you ask your students in your assignments to write to the following audiences?
11. How often did you ask your students to write the following in English?
12. How much relative emphasis did you put on the following when teaching?
13. How often did you use the following in writing instruction?
14. To what extent do you experience difficulties in the following writing instruction?
15. How often did you provide or organize the following response to students' writing?
16. How often did you use the following to assess students' writing?

Note: Questions 1 to 16 have the same items common to the corresponding questions in the same order in the PRE-PRACTICUM TEFL TRAINEE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Part III: Background

In this section, the following questions ask about teacher trainees' background.

17. Are you male or female?
    a. Male
    b. Female

18. How old are you? *Please specify below.*

    _____ years old.

19. What is the academic program for your degree or diploma? *Please select one from below.*
    a. A two-year-program for college diploma
    b. A three-year-program for college diploma
    c. A four-year program for Bachelor's degree of Arts

20. When did you begin your studies to become a teacher of EFL? *Please specify the year and month.*

    _____ month _____ year.

21. How many years have you learned English as a subject before starting the university level? *Please specify below.*

    _____ years.

22. What certificate(s) of English Proficiency Test do you have? *You can select more than one.*
    a. CET (College English Test) - Band 4
    b. CET (College English Test) - Band 6
    c. TEM (Test for English majors) - Band 4
    d. TEM (Test for English majors) - Band 8
    e. Other? Please specify _____.

23. How would you rate your English proficiency level? *Please select one from below.*
    a. Intermediate
    b. Upper-Intermediate
    c. Advanced
    d. Proficient

24. How many weeks did your teaching practicum last? *Please enter one number below.*

    _____ weeks.

25. How many lessons of ENGLISH did you teach altogether during your teaching practicum? *Please enter one number below.*

_____ lesson (s).

26. What percentage of your teaching time was devoted to teaching WRITING? *Please give an estimation.*

_____ %.

27. Which level did you teach? *Please select the highest level, if you taught different levels.*
    a. Primary school
    b. Junior middle school
    c. Senior middle school

28. How many students did you have in your class during your practicum? *Please select the class with the highest number of students if you were teaching more than one.*
    a. Less than 30 students
    b. 31~45 students
    c. 46~60 students
    d. More than 61 students

29. What is the type of the school at which you did your practicum? *Please select one from below.*
    a. Public
    b. Private

30. Where is the school located? *Please select one from below.*
    a. In the capital city of a province
    b. In a city
    c. In a county or town
    d. In a village

31. To what extent do you think the following English Studies from your pre-service training programs have been useful for your teaching of writing? *Please select the response that best expresses your experience for each item.*

	Not useful at all	*Not useful*	*Somewhat useful*	*Useful*	*Very useful*	*probably I didn't study this*
Literature						
Phonology						
Morphology						
Lexicology						
Syntax						
Sociolinguistics						
Semantics						

Pragmatics						
Text Linguistics (Discourse)						
Applied Linguistics						

32. Do you think that your pre-service programs prepared you appropriately for teaching writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Completely

33. Probably you have learnt and understood many things from your practicum. Please tell us what you have learnt and understood about EFL writing instruction in your practicum. *Please give 3-5 statements.*

_____
_____
_____

34. In your experience, do mother tongue writing skills help to learn EFL writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	*Much*	*Very much*

35. How would you characterize the effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing? *Please specify.*

_____ .

Thank you very much for your time and patience!

Appendix F: TEFL Teacher Questionnaire

EFL Writing and Writing Instruction

Dear Colleagues,

This questionnaire aims to investigate how EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers understand writing and the practice of writing instruction in Chinese elementary and secondary schools.

We greatly appreciate your filling out the questionnaire. Confidentiality and anonymity are assured. Your responses will be used for this research purpose only.

Thank you very much for your invaluable cooperation!

Best regards,

Kong Yunjun and Molnár Edit Katalin

Part I: Understanding EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your ideas on EFL written composition. *Please select the response that best expresses your opinion for each item.*
1. Writing is a multi-faceted concept. To what extent do you agree with the following?
2. Writing is multi-functional. To what extent do you agree with the following?
3. Writing could be developed. To what extent do you agree with the following?
4. Writing requires the mastery of several components. To what extent would you say the following contribute to good writing?

Part II: The Teaching of EFL Writing

In this section, we would like to learn about your practice of writing instruction. *Please select the response that best expresses your experience for each item.*
5. How would you rate your knowledge of the Curriculum Standards for the grade level you teach?
6. How would you rate your knowledge of the Descriptors for Writing Skill Objective for the grade level you teach?
7. How would you characterize your knowledge of your current students' writing levels?
8. How often do you focus on the following when planning a writing lesson?
9. How would you rate the importance of the following tasks of writing instruction?
10. How often do you ask your students in your assignments to write to the following audiences?
11. How often do you ask your students to write the following in English?
12. How much relative emphasis do you put on the following when teaching?
13. How often do you use the following in writing instruction?
14. To what extent do you experience difficulties in the following writing instruction?
15. How often do you provide or organize the following response to students' writing?
16. How often do you use the following to assess students' writing?

Note: Questions 1 to 16 have the same items common to the corresponding questions in the same order in both PRE- and POST-PRACTICUM TEFL TRAINEE QUESTIONNAIRES.

Part III: Background

In this section, the following questions ask about teachers' background.

17. Are you male or female?
    a. Male
    b. Female

18. How old are you? *Please specify below.*

    _____ years old.

19. What is the highest academic degree or diploma you hold? *Please select one from below.*
    a. Two-year-program college diploma
    b. Three-year-program college diploma
    c. Four-year-program university diploma
    d. Bachelor's degree
    e. Master's degree
    f. Doctoral degree

20. Do you currently work as a teacher? *Please specify below. If you have been teaching or have taught less than 1 year, please mark 1.*
    a. If yes, how many years have you been teaching?
        _____ year (s).
    b. If not, how many years have you taught?
        _____ year (s).

21. Where is your school located? *Please select one from below.*
    a. In the capital city of a province
    b. In a city
    c. In a county or town
    d. In a village

22. What is the type of your school? *Please select one from below.*
    a. Public
    b. Private

23. Which level do you teach? *Please select the highest level, if you teach different levels.*
    a. Primary school
    b. Junior middle school
    c. Senior middle school

24. How many students do you have in your class? *Please select the class with the highest number of students if you are teaching more than one.*
    a. Less than 30 students
    b. 31~45 students
    c. 46~60 students
    d. More than 61 students

25. How many lessons of ENGLISH do you teach for one class of students per week? *Please enter one number below.*

    _____ lesson (s).

26. What percentage of your teaching time is devoted to teaching WRITING? *Please give an estimation.*

    _____ %.

27. To what extent do you think the following English Studies from your pre-service training programs have been useful for your teaching of writing? *Please select the response that best expresses your experience for each item.*

	Not useful at all	*Not useful*	*Somewhat useful*	*Useful*	*Very useful*	*probably I didn't study this*
Literature						
Phonology						
Morphology						
Lexicology						
Syntax						
Sociolinguistics						
Semantics						
Pragmatics						
Text Linguistics (Discourse)						
Applied Linguistics						

28. Do you think that your pre-service programs prepared you appropriately for teaching writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Completely

29. Have you attended any in-service training programs or activities which are useful for teaching writing? *If not, please select NO; if yes, please specify.*
    a. No
    b. Yes, e.g. _____.

30. Do you find yourself in a situation where you have to write in English in your life?

Please select one from below. If you select NEVER, please go to QUESTION 32.
a. Never
b. Seldom
c. Sometimes
d. Often
e. Very often

31. If you do write in English in your life, please give examples of the most frequent types of text.

   _____

32. In your experience, do mother tongue writing skills help to learn EFL writing? *Please select one from below.*

Not at all	Little	Somewhat	*Much*	*Very much*

33. How would you characterize the effect of mother tongue writing on EFL writing? *Please specify.*

   _____.

Thank you very much for your time and patience!

Appendix G: Trainees' Assessment of Student Text

Dear Student,

We are researchers from the Institute of Education, University of Szeged, Hungary. We would like to ask you to participate in a study of how trainees of TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) evaluate a text of English language learners. The study involves three instruments. Your contribution would be highly valued. It will be used anonymously in our research project and in publications from it. Thank you very much for your participation!

Kong Yunjun and Molnár Edit Katalin

First, please read the text carefully on PAGE THREE. It is an authentic student text by Pat, a learner of English. The task was to write a description of a place students knew well. Then complete the evaluation activities below.

Please, give **your student number** in the box [   ]. This information is used only to connect the three tests (assessment of student text, reading, and writing).

I.   Please, read the text carefully, and **rate** it on the given 5-point scales (1 refers to extremely poor, 5 to extremely good). *Tick (√) the scale that best expresses your opinion for each aspect.*

Aspect	1	2	3	4	5
Overall quality of the text	○	○	○	○	○
Content	○	○	○	○	○
Structure	○	○	○	○	○
Style	○	○	○	○	○
Grammatical correctness	○	○	○	○	○
Mechanics	○	○	○	○	○

II.   Please **indicate the errors and problems** you find in the text, using your own system of correction, such as underlining "＿＿＿", circling "○", or any other marks you usually use.

III. Please **write a few sentences of feedback in Chinese** to this student. You may praise certain aspects of the text; highlight some problems; or make some suggestions to help the student improve.

When you finished the assessment, please turn the page to give background information.

We would like to ask a few background questions for the analysis of the whole sample.

Please select one response for each of the following questions by circling its letter, or fill in corresponding blanks.

1. What is your gender?

    a. Male   b. Female

2. In what year of studies are you now?

    a. 1st   b. 2nd   c. 3rd   d. 4th

3. Is your father college-educated or higher?

    a. yes   b. no

4. Is your mother college-educated or higher?

    a. yes   b. no

5. How often do you think the following forms of feedback should be used when assessing students' writing?

Form	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Rating on scales	○	○	○	○	○
Indicating problems in students' text	○	○	○	○	○
Providing a few sentences of evaluation	○	○	○	○	○
Discussing with students one on one	○	○	○	○	○
Discussing with students in group/class	○	○	○	○	○
Others (please specify):					

6. How much do you think the following assessment criteria should be emphasized when assessing students' writing?

Assessment criteria	Very little	Little	Somewhat	Much	Very much
Content	○	○	○	○	○
Structure	○	○	○	○	○
Style	○	○	○	○	○
Grammar	○	○	○	○	○
Spelling and punctuation	○	○	○	○	○
Handwriting					
Others (please specify):					

7. Do you think that your pre-service programs prepared you appropriately for assessing writing?

    a. not at all   b. little   c. somewhat   d. to a great extent   e. completely

8. What program would you find useful to help you improve as a trainee of EFL writing?

    a. syntax   b. lexicology   c. literature   d. morphology

    e. applied linguistics   f. text linguistics   g. pragmatics   h. semantics

    i. Others (please specify):

Pat's text

One of the most beautiful places for me is my native town.

It is situated near a river. It commands a fine view, especially with its surrounding trees. Some of them are at the bank of the river, in water; their root can be found in the abyss. The grove next to the river consists of these trees and two green fields where you can sit down, even you can lie among the silky, soft grasses. You can smell the fresh air and the flowers. You feel as if you floated overground like cloud. You are light, almost weightless and you feel happy like in the heaven. When you boat along the river, you can see a lot of beautiful trees and all kinds of fish. A number of fish jump to the surface of water and the waterdrops on their skin flash in the sunlight.

You see another grove farther at the bank, which is much bigger and nicer. It is a garden. All kinds of plants can be found here. It is famous for old trees which are about 200 years. Their trunk is so wide that even three men can't embrace it. Their branches reach to the clouds like a giant's arms. Variety of its flora delighted the tourist's eye in every season.

In spring the garden burst into bloom. The tulip tree is in full bloom of its beauty. The tree with its pink flowers enlightens the pines, which rise proudly from the surroundings. The different kinds of the flowers have different colour, every colour can be found from yellow to purple. It is the best period for the bees. They gather honey hard flying from the flower to the flower. Their buzzing fill the air and you imagine the taste of honey as it melts in your mouth.

In autumn the situation changes, the colour of the leaves are that dazzle your eye. When you walk along the path at that time you see delightful shades of colours. The oak trees cover the ground with golden leaves which you walk with pleasure as if it was a thick carpet. The other kind of tree has red leaves, which flame like fire. This state can be seen mainly in the autumn. The colours which can be seen the most are red, yellow, brown and green. Their contrast gives a marvellous picture like colourful crowd at the beach.

In winter every tree drop their leaves except the pine. Snow covers the whole ground, which grates below our steps. The colours disappeared, everything is white and desolate, unmoved. Only a flying off bird breaks silence.

(436 words)

Appendix H: Trainees' Skills: Writing (Samples)

Dear Student,
We would like to ask you to participate in a study of the effectiveness of the practicum (teaching practice). As a teacher trainee, your contribution would be highly valued. We ask you to create a text. This will be processed and used anonymously in our research project and in publications from it. Thank you very much for your participation!
Kong Yunjun (kongyj2@126.com) and Molnár Edit Katalin

Please, give your student number in the box [   ]. *This information is used only to connect the tests (assessment of student text and writing).*

The writing task

There are many models and traditions of the practicum in teacher training. Please explain **what kind of practicum could be effective** in your opinion. (You may consider activities, kinds of professional support, length, etc.)

Write an essay of about 200 words **in English**. Remember to support your opinions with arguments.

What kind of practicum could be effective?

Start here:

As we know , most of college student should have a practicum, especially for teaching major students. A good practicum is very beneficial for their future teaching . But there are kinds of practicum for us to choose , which is the best one for us to practice, different majors need different practicum.

I'm an English teaching major student, it's necessary   for me to have a practicum before I come to my real operating post . A real class in a school is effective for improving my teaching skills. First, there will be facing many different problems, I must solve these problems in the class immediately. It is important for an teacher to have an ability to deal with problems in time. Second ,in a real class, we also can find our own shortcomings, especially when a student ask you a question ,but you find yourself can't explain it very clearly, it must raise your learning motivation. Third ,there is a practiced teacher listen your class, and give you more effective suggestions after your class, and you can listen her class learn more teaching skills.

In short, a practicum is important and beneficial for college student. A practicum which can improve your major skills is effective for you.

Dear Student,

We would like to ask you to participate in a study of the effectiveness of the practicum (teaching practice). As a teacher trainee, your contribution would be highly valued. We ask you to create a text. This will be processed and used anonymously in our research project and in publications from it. Thank you very much for your participation!

Kong Yunjun (kongyj2@126.com) and Molnár Edit Katalin

Please, give your student number in the box ⬚ . *This information is used only to connect the tests (assessment of student text and writing).*

The writing task

There are many models and traditions of the practicum in teacher training. Please explain **what kind of practicum could be effective** in your opinion. (You may consider activities, kinds of professional support, length, etc.)

Write an essay of about 200 words **in English**. Remember to support your opinions with arguments.

What kind of practicum could be effective?

Start here:

There comes a well-concerned question to every undergraduate, that is, what kind of practicum could benefit us up to the hilt? From my perspective, three things must deserve mentioning as follows:

First, before going to practicum, well-preparations do great contribution to a successful practicum. You'd better predict what you might meet in the process and try to take measures to make your own teaching skills or professional knowledge much better. One thing is always true：Success is reserved for those who are prepared.

Second, in the process of practicum, it is a good time to learn other experienced teacher's good teaching methods and the way they create the atmosphere which you should pay much attention to the activity or the style of words they used. Take notes of something impressive and spare efforts to create your own teaching style.

Last but not least, chatting with your guide is another key point to make a successful practicum. By doing this, you will know more of how to be a good teacher and what can be done to form a well-organized class.

All in all, good preparation, learning and communication play a crucial part in practicum.

Appendix I: Teachers' Assessment of Student Text

Dear Colleague,

We are researchers from the Institute of Education, University of Szeged, Hungary. We would like to ask you to participate in a study of how teachers of TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) evaluate a text of English language learners. Your contribution would be highly valued. It will be used anonymously in our research project and in publications from it. Thank you very much for your participation!

Kong Yunjun (kongyj2@126.com) and Molnár Edit Katalin

First, please read the text carefully on PAGE THREE. It is an authentic student text by Pat, a learner of English. The task was to write a description of a place students knew well. Then complete the evaluation activities below.

I. Please, read the text carefully, and **rate** it on the given 5-point scales (1 refers to extremely poor, 5 to extremely good). *Tick (√) the scale that best expresses your opinion for each aspect.*

Aspect	1	2	3	4	5
Overall quality of the text	○	○	○	○	○
Content	○	○	○	○	○
Structure	○	○	○	○	○
Style	○	○	○	○	○
Grammatical correctness	○	○	○	○	○
Mechanics	○	○	○	○	○

II. Please **indicate the errors and problems** you find in the text, using your own system of correction, such as underlining "＿＿＿", circling "○", or any other marks you usually use.

III. Please **write a few sentences of feedback in Chinese** to this student. You may praise certain aspects of the text; highlight some problems; or make some suggestions to help the student improve.

When you finished the assessment, please turn the page to give background information.

We would like to ask a few background questions for the analysis of the whole sample.

Please select one response for each of the following questions by circling its letter, or fill in corresponding blanks.

1. What is your gender?   *a. Male   b. Female*

2. What is the highest academic degree or diploma that you have completed?
   a. two- or three-year college diploma   b. bachelor's degree
   c. master's degree   d. doctoral degree

3. Is your father college-educated or higher?   *a. yes   b. no*

4. Is your mother college-educated or higher?   *a. yes   b. no*

5. How long have you been working as an English teacher?
   a. this is my first year   b. I have been teaching English for _____ years

6. Which level do you teach?   *a. primary school   b. junior school   c. senior school*

7. What language proficiency level do you teach dominantly?
   a. beginner   b. intermediate   c. upper-intermediate   d. advanced

8. How often do you use the following forms of feedback when assessing students' writing?

Form	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Rating on scales	○	○	○	○	○
Indicating problems in students' text	○	○	○	○	○
Providing a few sentences of evaluation	○	○	○	○	○
Discussing with students one on one	○	○	○	○	○
Discussing with students in group/class	○	○	○	○	○
Others (please specify):					

9. How much do you use the following assessment criteria when assessing students' writing?

Assessment criteria	Very little	Little	Somewhat	Much	Very much
Content	○	○	○	○	○
Structure	○	○	○	○	○
Style	○	○	○	○	○
Grammar	○	○	○	○	○
Spelling and punctuation	○	○	○	○	○
Handwriting					
Others (please specify):					

10. Do you think that your pre-service programs prepared you appropriately for assessing writing?
    a. not at all   b. little   c. somewhat   d. to a great extent   e. completely

11. Have you attended any in-service training programs or activities which are useful for assessing writing?   *a. yes   b. no*

12. What program would you find useful to help you improve as a teacher of EFL writing?
    a. syntax   b. lexicology   c. literature   d. morphology   e. applied linguistics
    f. text linguistics   g. pragmatics   h. semantics   i. Others (please specify):

13. To what extent do you see the effect of your feedback in your students' subsequent texts?
    a. very little   b. little   c. somewhat   d. much   e. very much

Pat's text

One of the most beautiful places for me is my native town.

It is situated near a river. It commands a fine view, especially with its surrounding trees. Some of them are at the bank of the river, in water; their root can be found in the abyss. The grove next to the river consists of these trees and two green fields where you can sit down, even you can lie among the silky, soft grasses. You can smell the fresh air and the flowers. You feel as if you floated overground like cloud. You are light, almost weightless and you feel happy like in the heaven. When you boat along the river, you can see a lot of beautiful trees and all kinds of fish. A number of fish jump to the surface of water and the waterdrops on their skin flash in the sunlight.

You see another grove farther at the bank, which is much bigger and nicer. It is a garden. All kinds of plants can be found here. It is famous for old trees which are about 200 years. Their trunk is so wide that even three men can't embrace it. Their branches reach to the clouds like a giant's arms. Variety of its flora delighted the tourist's eye in every season.

In spring the garden burst into bloom. The tulip tree is in full bloom of its beauty. The tree with its pink flowers enlightens the pines, which rise proudly from the surroundings. The different kinds of the flowers have different colour, every colour can be found from yellow to purple. It is the best period for the bees. They gather honey hard flying from the flower to the flower. Their buzzing fill the air and you imagine the taste of honey as it melts in your mouth.

In autumn the situation changes, the colour of the leaves are that dazzle your eye. When you walk along the path at that time you see delightful shades of colours. The oak trees cover the ground with golden leaves which you walk with pleasure as if it was a thick carpet. The other kind of tree has red leaves, which flame like fire. This state can be seen mainly in the autumn. The colours which can be seen the most are red, yellow, brown and green. Their contrast gives a marvellous picture like colourful crowd at the beach.

In winter every tree drop their leaves except the pine. Snow covers the whole ground, which grates below our steps. The colours disappeared, everything is white and desolate, unmoved. Only a flying off bird breaks silence.

(436 words)

Appendix J: Coh-Metrix Indexes of Trainees' Written Compositions

Variable	Pre-practicum trainees		Pre-practicum trainees	
	M	SD	M	SD
Descriptive statistics				
number paragraphs	3.64	1.03	3.52	1.00
number sentences	13.22	3.28	11.00	3.17
number words	217.00	46.42	210.45	32.96
sentences per paragraph	3.91	1.64	3.43	1.85
words per sentence	17.07	4.23	20.76	7.28
syllables per word	1.55	0.11	1.61	0.11
Easability and readability				
narativity percentile	60.29	20.08	51.28	19.39
syntactic simplicity percentile	44.21	23.41	38.99	24.19
word concreteness percentile	24.75	22.86	36.29	25.51
referential cohesion percentile	47.66	26.33	57.24	29.62
deep cohesion percentile	65.59	27.84	74.00	27.42
Flesch Reading Ease	58.63	11.35	49.18	12.68
Flesch-Kincaid Grade level	9.32	2.35	11.56	3.30
Lexical diversity				
Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, content word lemmas	0.73	0.06	0.73	0.06
Lexical diversity, type-token ratio, all words	0.54	0.05	0.55	0.05
Lexical diversity, MTLD (measure of textual lexical diversity), all words	71.77	13.23	69.12	15.72
Lexical diversity, VOCD (vocabulary diversity), all words	77.42	13.17	72.93	14.40
Syntactic complexity and pattern density				
Left embeddedness, words before main verb	4.11	1.32	4.98	1.47
Number of modifiers per noun phrase	0.76	0.18	0.85	0.18
Sentence syntax similarity in adjacent sentences	0.09	0.03	0.09	0.03
Sentence syntax similarity in all combinations, across paragraphs	0.09	0.03	0.08	0.03
Noun phrase density, incidence	350.61	32.95	350.77	30.61
Verb phrase density, incidence	251.56	31.84	231.22	36.92
Adverbial phrase density, incidence	33.43	14.76	33.80	15.90
Preposition phrase density, incidence	92.52	19.55	103.47	21.61
Agentless passive voice density, incidence	4.41	4.95	5.56	5.98
Negation density, incidence	7.15	7.12	7.75	8.27
Gerund density, incidence	15.91	14.88	18.16	10.61
Infinitive density, incidence	28.22	14.08	28.36	13.92
Word information				
Noun incidence	247.45	40.82	270.37	40.72
Verb incidence	128.13	18.17	123.37	23.98

Variable	Pre-practicum trainees		Pre-practicum trainees	
	M	SD	M	SD
Adjective incidence	89.92	22.52	91.29	21.86
Adverb incidence	55.18	21.04	54.01	20.24
Pronoun incidence	83.64	34.95	62.01	25.73
First person singular pronoun incidence	15.12	17.91	9.82	10.60
First person plural pronoun incidence	28.46	27.18	14.63	18.09
Second person pronoun incidence	9.87	21.12	5.75	13.20
Third person singular pronoun incidence	4.70	13.63	3.54	13.34
Third person plural pronoun incidence	15.40	18.78	17.51	19.01
CELEX (center for lexical information) word frequency for content words	2.45	0.15	2.39	0.17
CELEX Log frequency for all words	3.06	0.10	3.06	0.11
CELEX Log minimum frequency for content words	1.27	0.56	1.21	0.59
Familiarity for content words	581.08	5.24	579.32	6.04
Concreteness for content words	346.64	19.12	356.50	20.65
Imagability for content words	382.27	18.45	390.34	18.99
Meaningfulness, Colorado norms, content words	426.53	15.58	431.98	16.04
Polysemy for content words	4.06	0.47	3.88	0.50
Hypernymy for nouns	6.15	0.66	6.40	0.58
Hypernymy for verbs	1.53	0.17	1.48	0.18
Hypernymy for nouns and verbs	1.67	0.30	1.83	0.26
Latent semantic analysis				
LSA (latent semantic analysis) overlap in adjacent sentences	0.22	0.08	0.27	0.08
LSA overlap in all sentences in paragraph	0.21	0.07	0.27	0.09
LSA overlap in adjacent paragraphs	0.40	0.14	0.42	0.17
Connectives				
All connectives incidence	93.40	19.63	99.34	21.21
Causal connectives incidence	26.72	12.04	31.41	14.29
Logical connectives incidence	40.40	13.15	48.01	17.90
Adversative and contrastive connectives incidence	14.23	9.35	11.95	6.27
Temporal connectives incidence	21.23	11.47	20.77	10.18
Additive connectives incidence	48.96	14.45	51.17	14.65
causal verb incidence	23.34	10.00	22.34	9.63
temporal cohesion, tense and aspect repetition	0.81	0.10	0.81	0.08
Referential cohesion				
noun overlap in adjacent sentences	0.37	0.19	0.50	0.23
argument overlap in adjacent sentences	0.55	0.19	0.60	0.21
stem overlap in adjacent sentences	0.49	0.19	0.58	0.24
noun overlap in all sentences	0.31	0.17	0.45	0.19
argument overlap in all sentences	0.47	0.16	0.56	0.19
stem overlap in all sentences	0.43	0.19	0.57	0.20

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