HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Program

STUDENT AND TEACHER PREFERENCES IN USING WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN ENGLISH PREPARATORY CLASSES

İrem YILMAZ

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2021)

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ÖĞRENCİLERİN VE ÖĞRETMENLERİN İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK SINIFLARINDA YAZILI GERİ BİLDİRİM KULLANIMINDAKİ TERCİHLERİ

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Ankara, (2021)

Abstract

Among four language skills, writing is considered to be one of the most challenging skills to develop both for L2 students and teachers. When writing is compared to speaking as a productive skill, it seems to be more demanding, time consuming and challenging. Specifically, use of grammatical structures is problematic for most of the L2 writers and they are in need of receiving correction from their teachers to detect and eliminate these errors. Teachers' notification of these errors is known as written corrective feedback which occurs as exchange of information about the students' L2 writing process. During this process, the students write a text and teachers indicate errors to get corrected forms. Then students correct these errors and resubmit the written text. This process keeps going until the text gets a certain quality. Thus, the use of written corrective feedback and how it is prefered play a key role in L2 writing development. This study aims to figure out students' and teachers' preferences in using written corrective feedback by means of mixed-method approach. Initially, quantitative data will be collected from students and teacher through questionnaires. This stage of the study is based on random sampling, whereas, qualitative data will be collected from fewer participants. Quantitative data will be analysed by using SPSS. The researcher will analyze the qualitative data by transcribing recordings. In the end, the researcher aims to compare students' and teachers' preferences and try to shed light on problems in using written corrective feedback in L2 classes.

Keywords: Feedback, corrective feedback, written corrective feedback, error correction, preferences in feedback, mixed- method approach

Öz

Dört dil becerisi arasında, yazma becerisinin hem öğretmenler hem öğrenciler tarafından geliştirilmesi zor görülür. Yazma becerisi üretmeye dayalı bir dil becerisi olarak konuşma becerisiyle kıyaslandığında daha zahmetli, zaman alıcı ve zorlayıcı olabilir. Özellikle gramer yapılarının kullanımı çoğu yabancı dil öğrencisi için problemlidir ve öğrencilerin öğretmenlerinden hatalarını belirlemek ve gidermek için düzeltme almaya ihtiyaçları vardır. Öğretmenlerin öğrencilerin yabancı dil yazımı hakkında bilgi alışverişi yaparak metinde saptadığı hataların bildirimine yazılı geri bildirim denmektedir. Bu süreçte, öğrenciler bir metin yazar ve öğretmenler düzeltilmesi için hataları belirtir. Sonra öğrenciler bu hatalarını düzeltir ve metni yeniden gönderir. Bu süreç, metin belli bir kaliteye ulaşıncaya kadar devam eder. Bu yüzden, yazılı geri bildirimin kullanımı ve nasıl tercih edildiği yabancı dilde yazma becerisinin gelişmesinde anahtar bir rol oynar. Bu araştırma öğrencilerin ve öğretmenlerin yazılı geri bildirim kullanımındaki tercihlerini karma araştırma yöntemiyle bulmayı amaçlar. Öncelikle, nicel veri öğrencilerden ve öğretmenlerden anketler aracılığıyla toplanacaktır. Araştırmanın bu safhası tesadüfi örneklemeye dayalıdır ancak nitel veri daha az sayıda katılımcıdan toplanacaktır. Nicel veri SPSS kullanımıyla analiz edilecektir. Araştırmacı, ses kayıtlarını çözümleyerek nitel veriyi analiz edecektir. Araştırmanın sonunda, araştırmacı öğrencilerin ve öğretmenlerin tercihlerini karşılaştırmayı ve yabancı dil sınıflarında yazılı geri bildirimin kullanımındaki problemleri aydınlatmayı amaçlar.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Geri bildirim, düzeltici geri bildirim, yazılı düzeltici geri bildirim, hata düzeltimi, geri bildirim tercihleri, karma araştırma yöntemi

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Symbols and Abbreviations

CELTA: Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

CF: Corrective Feedback

DELTA: Diploma in Teaching English to Adults Speakers of Other Languages

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as Second Language

IL: Interlanguage

L1 Learning: First Language Learning

L2 Acquisition: Second Language Acquisition

L2 Learning: Second Language Learning

L2 Writing: Second Language Writing

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

WCF: Written Corrective Feedback

Chapter 1

Introduction

When implementation of L2 writing is considered in ELT field, most of the researchers and practitioners will agree on the upcoming problems it might bring. Because as a productive skill, writing is an effective medium of expressing ideas and thoughts. In order to communicate, people produce a great variety of written texts that range from essays to e-mails (Kahraman & Yalvaç, 2015). One of the most outstanding problems is finding an answer to the question of how to correct students' errors in L2 writing. In order to provide L2 students with more opportunities for production and comprehension, error correction is considered as a key source for of eliciting new information from students because it informs them about their success in their L2 production attempts (Atmaca, 2016).

Due to its potential for learning and student motivation, feedback has been considered as a key element for the development of L2 writing skills. Sakallı (2007) defines the process of error correction and use of feedback in terms of teacher-student interaction. A writing paper is a medium between teachers and students as it transfers written dialogues of each side. When the student completes a composition, the teacher generally indicates errors to the student according to his preference. Then the student tries to correct these errors and resubmits the paper to the teacher. The paper is checked by the teacher to figure out whether the corrections have been made or not and provide new feedback if necessary. This process goes on until the composition becomes satisfactory and error-free to a certain level. In this situation if the teacher's type of corrective feedback is not understood by the student, or the student is not satisfied with that type of feedback, the situation will result in miscommunication between the teacher and student on the written work.

Therefore; even if feedback is accepted as one of the most applicable ways of instruction in L2 writing, it does not mean that corrective feedback practices are carried out without any doubt by all researchers and instructors. In fact, researchers share many different opinions about whether L2 students should receive any corrective feedback on grammar and whether corrective feedback has an impact on

L2 writing accuracy (Najmaddin, 2010). The starting point of the discussion of error/grammar correction comes from Truscott's (1996) article in which he rejects the efficacy of error correction. His strong argument about abolishing grammar correction practises altogether has drawn a lot of attention so far. In Ferris' (1999) reaction paper the role of error correction is emphazised as an effective factor in writing accuracy as long as it is utilized in a selective and clear way. Ferris addes that the manner of error correction must be taken into consideration while discussing the effectiveness of grammar correction. Though Ferris (1999) and Truscott (1996) hold different angles in error correction on practical terms, they both agree on theoretical problems. In the article, Truscott (1996) states that syntactic, morphological, lexical knowledge are acquired in different ways, so it is highly possible to assume that there is no single form of correction for all three. In addition, both Ferris and Truscott agree that the conducted studies on error correction in L2 writing are inadequate to make generalizations.

Therefore, both for theoretical and practical reasons, researchers have been interested in finding an answer for the ways of correcting students' errors in ESL/ EFL written work**.** Most of these studies center on comparing corrective feedback types to figure out which one is the most effective in terms of providing L2 writing accuracy. Along with that, there are concerns about when a corrective feedback type should be used and interfere in L2 writing process. However; despite the number of conducted studies, the endevours to determine which corrective feedback type is the most effective and at which stage of the writing process feedback must be applied are still inconclusive. Although the role and effectiveness of corrective feedback have been studied for a long time, students' and teachers' reasons and preferences for using various types of written corrective feedback in L2 writing have been left much undiscovered. There has been a shift to figure out how students and teachers approach to WCF recently, because any mismatches between teachers and students' perception of instruction will result in students' failure (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010).

To summarize; due to the inadequate number of studies that compare students and teachers' perspectives, this study initially aims to shed light on what teachers and students prefer during corrective feedback practises in L2 writing. Both teachers and students will participate the study and data collection will be based on

both questionnaire design and semi-structured interviews. In addition to age, gender and educational background, students' L2 success and teachers' years of experience will be figured out by conducting questionnaires. Besides, the issues such as how to correct students' errors, what written corrective feedback types are prefered, and further suggestions about corrective feedback practices will be find out by means of semi-structured interviews. Finally, students and teachers' responses will be compared and the study will be completed under the principles of mixed-method approach.

Statement of Problem

As it is stated earlier, there are many studies that take place in EFL/ ESL contexts that investigate students' and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback. Most of these studies are conducted on teachers and students individually, therefore, the chances of comparing both students' and teachers' preferences and figuring out similar and different points are quite limited. In ELT field, there are two outstanding studies that specifically focus on comparing student and teacher preferences through questionnaire design. Initially, Amrhein and Nassaji (2010) conducted a study with 31 ESL teachers and 33 ESL students by conducting questionnaires to each group. The questionnaire design was the same yet modified for both groups. By analyzing close-ended and open-ended items, it was found out that teachers and students had many opinions in common in terms of usefulness of some WCF types although there were some disagreements among teachers in WCF types and their reasons of using them. Similarly, Atmaca (2016) adapted the same instruments for her study and collected data through close-ended and open-ended items. Even though these studies favor both quantitative and qualitative data, both of these study results are limited within questionnaires. Neither studies had interview sessions which would have supported quantitative data. Therefore, in this study the researcher aims to follow both quantitative and qualitative approach to get access to information from participants as much as possible.

Aim and Significance of the Study

Considering the fact that this study will take place in Turkish EFL context with English Preparatory School instructors and students, previous studies are

overviewed to find out what kind of methodologies have been followed. Among these studies, the profile of the students range from Preparatory School students to EFL undergraduate students (Atmaca, 2016; Coşkun, 2007; Enginarlar, 1993). However, the number of studies that focus on students at English Preparatory Unit outstand the studies that only include deparment specific contexts (Abdioğlu, 2019; Beşkardeşler, 2018; Kağıtçı, 2013 ; Sakallı, 2007 ; Vanlı, 2013 ; Yazıcı, 2015 ; Yılmaz, 1996; Yalvaç, 2014). In terms of methodological design, there are few studies that make use of both quantitative and qualitative approach that use questionnaires and interviews altogether (Sakallı, 2007 ; Vanlı, 2013). Due to limited number of studies in Turkish EFL context that compare students and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback practices on a general perspective, this study aims to uncover some key points that have been overlooked for a long time. The questionnaires are prefered because they can be applicable for a large amount of people within a short period of time. During quantitative data collection process, both teachers and students will be chosen randomly to expand validity of the research. Whereas, qualitative data process will only include ten English Preparatory School instructors and they will be asked to take part in semi-structured inteviews that are held via Zoom video calls. By carrying out semi-structured interviews, the researcher intends to get more details and ask further questions that are likely to be missed while filling out questionnaires. The reason why researcher chooses to conduct mixed-method approach is because of the fact that previous study findings are limited with either quantitative or qualitative data. Thus, mixed-method approach has a key role in providing more reliable data for the purpose of this study.

Research Questions

In ELT field, there are limited number of studies that focus on both students' and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback. In addition, most of these studies either focus on students or teachers by following either quantitative or qualitative approach. Therefore, this study intends to follow mixed-method approach by favoring both quantitative and qualitative paradigm. The researcher's intention is to fill the gap in ELT field by indicating students' and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback. By comparing their responses, the researcher aims to come up with an answer to the well-known question "How can students' errors be corrected?".

1. What are students' preferences in receiving feedback?
2. Are students' preferences related with their age, gender, success and educational background? (first year vs second and repeat students)
3. What are teachers' preferences in giving feedback?
4. Are they related with age, gender, experience, educational background? (ELT grad vs non ELT grad)
5. Which issues are similar and different between students and teachers in terms of written corrective feedback?

These five questions are formed to fit in both quantitative and qualitative approaches. In order to do that, the questions are designed to both generate and test hypotheses. By means of these questions, the researcher's attention is to shed light on students' and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback and compare them.

Assumptions

The study involves both students and teachers which are two independent groups in English Preparatory Schools. As a result of that, it is likely to encounter different problems for each group during data collection process. Firstly, the researcher has to change the way the instruments are conducted because of COVID-19 pandemic that led to suspension of face-to-face classes. In case of students, they may encounter more problems than teachers as they are not used to filling out questionnaires and following up instructions at target language. The researcher intends to add more explanation for each questionnaire item in order not to take too much time of students. As a means of practicality, the researcher will add Turkish translation for some of the questionnaire items if it is necessary. Compared to students, the researcher expects less amount of problems during teachers' participation in the study. However, there is a possibility for teachers to be biased and support the techniques that they are used to applying on students' writing errors. The researcher is aware of the fact that error correction codes are generally used at English Preparatory Schools as an implicit way of locating errors. Whereas the researcher assumes that some problems are likely to occur during qualitative data collection. As the whole process has to be carried out online, the researcher is likely to encounter technical problems. In addition, the researcher may

have more issues in finding out participants for semi-structured interviews due to their schedule in online education. In case of teachers, there may be some mismatches between their responses to questionnaire items and semi-structured interview questions. Because qualitative data collection requires subjectivity of responses and they are likely to be remain conceit in their actual practices in error correction to not be judged by the researcher. Despite these difficulties, the researcher is determined to apply mixed-method approach in order to eliminate possible problems that may result from relying on one single approach.

Limitations

During organization of the study, there are some problems that the researcher is likely to encounter as the participants will be chosen from two independent groups: students and teachers. The first and one of the most anticipated problem is the number of both students and teachers that are likely to be fewer than expected. As a result of COVID-19 pandemic, face-to-face classes are suspended temporarily and the whole English Language Education process is administered via online lessons. Therefore, it turns out to be more difficult to get access to expected amount of participants specifically to students. Another problem that is related with COVID-19 pandemic is the inability of conducting quantitative data at schools with students and teachers. Therefore, both students and teachers will receive their questionnaires as online forms which will be designed by the researcher in advance. These online forms may appear to be practical and more economical than paper-printed forms yet make it more difficult to keep track on each participant. In case of data analysis, there is a potential of attaining fewer amount of participants than is expected and directly affect homogenity of the variables. If the variables are not homogenically distributed, the researcher will have to adapt other techniques for quantitative data. Lastly, semi-structured interviews may only inolve teachers because it is more easy to keep contact with teachers and they are more competent at leading an interview that will be in English. In case of students, the researcher may need to lead the conversation in Turkish and translate the whole session back in English. In brief, the most likely problems that are listed here are related with the steps during data collection process and analysis.

Definitions

This study aims to figure out students' and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback by comparing them. Definitions and terminologies that refer to intervention of students' errors either by teachers' marking or directing are elaborated in this section. Terminologies that include error correction, feedback and corrective feedback are used interchangibly due to background of previous studies. However, there is a slight difference to underline these concepts more effectively. Besides, there are studies that test writing accuracy and writing fluency of students by investigating effectiveness of specific corrective feedback types (Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982; Erel & Bulut, 2007; Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Sheen, 2007; Kepner, 1991). These terms that are defined below aims at promoting the purpose of this study.

Feedback: Feedback is considered as a type of interaction to support second language acquisition by means of exposure to native speakers' input which enables non- natives to model them for correction and realize their usage is not acceptable to communicate (Trolke, 2006).

Corrective Feedback: The term corrective feedback is used for any indications of learners' non-targetlike use of the target language. In second language acquisition (SLA) litereture, the terms negative evidance, negative feedback and corrective feedback are used interchangibly. However, there are slight differences between these terms. Negative evidance attributes to a piece of information that is seem to be usable from learner's perspective. Whereas, negative feedback and corrective feedback attribute to external information that is provided by the givers of feedback such as teachers in this case (Kim J. H., 2004).

Written Corrective Feedback: Written corrective feedback is a form of assistance that includes both students and teachers in L2 writing. Therefore, in order to understand the role of written corrective feedback how learners engage and respond to WCF must be examined in detail (Kim & Emeliyanova, 2019).

Error Correction: Etymologically, the word error is derived from Latin errare that means to wander, roam or stray. Error depends on its use for a particular purpose or objective by itself. However; when the role of error correction is discussed in foreign language teaching context, error is defined as an utterance, form or structure

that a particular language teacher regards unacceptable due to its inappropriate use or its absence in real life discourse (Hendrickson, 1978).

Writing Fluency: Fluency in writing is related with how much students write, thus, it refers to quantitative aspect of writing in the literature. However; the content of fluency may change from study to study. To illustrate, fluency is a measurement for time and refers to how long it takes for students to complete their assignments (Chandler, 2003).

Writing Accuracy: Accuracy refers to being exact or correct on literal terms. Terminologically, grammatical and linguistic accuracy refer to approximations to nativelike norms of grammar usage such as syntax, morphology, and lexico-semantic items (VanPatten, 1986).

This study focuses on students and teachers' preferences in using written corrective feedback in English Preparatory Classes. The next chapter refers to studies in L2 research field that intends to find answers for several questions which result from the miscommunication between students and teachers' through written text during error treatment. To understand how corrective feeback works for students, what is meant by error and how it is approached by researchers must be taken into account in detail. Along with that, the greatest debate that still remains to be relevant will be discussed through opposing ideas of researchers. Different types of written corrective feedback types that range from direct vs indirect CF to form vs content focused feedback are evaluated by referring to previous studies. Lastly, the most critical point of the study which is to what extent students and teachers share the same ideas on error correction in L2 writing will be mentioned in Literature Review part.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter aims at providing information about related study. Firstly, what is meant by error and how errors are evaluated by SLA researchers will be discussed. Secondly, the term feedback and collective feedback are defined to discover their roles in L2 writing. Thirdly, corrective feedback types which are chosen according to quantitative research instrument, will be presented in detail along with related studies about testing their effectiveness on L2 learners. Then arguments about the usefulness of corrective feedback are discussed in order to present inconclusiveness and inconsistencies despite the number of studies. Lastly, this chapter reveals previous studies about students and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback with the purpose of highlighting the problem in research field.

Error Analysis and Interlanguage

The role of error in language acquisition has dominated a crucial place in SLA research and theory as a result of ongoing disagreements. Among language skills, writing was once accounted for as a means of practicing target vocabulary and grammar that was studied beforehand. This situation resulted in intolerance to errors (Ferris, 2010). However; before focusing on procedures for analyzing learner errors, what is meant by error must be defined beforehand. Although error and mistake are two terms that are used interchangibly, a distinction must be drawn between them. Initially, errors are accepted as systematic errors that teachers are able to interfere and fill the gaps in learner's knowledge. Whereas, mistakes are unsystematic errors that take place because of memory lapses, physical and psychological conditions, and slips of pen (or tongue in speaking). It can be inferred that the errors of performance are unsystematic while the errors of competence are systematic. Mistakes have no role in language learning process, thus, real attention must be given to errors and how they are analyzed (Corder, 1967).

Secondly; with the purpose of meeting L2 learners' demands, errors are classified and analyzed by researchers. Errors can be classified under four categories such as addition, omission, substitution, and (word order) permutation.

Although it is stated that these categories may allow a further classification for standardization, it is still too superfical both for learners and teacher to make use of them (Brown, 2014; Corder, 1975). To analyze learners' errors in accurately, the levels of errors must be determined according to language level (phonological, morphological, syntactic etc.), general linguistic category (auxilary system, passive sentences, negative constructions), or more specific linguistic elements such as articles, prepositions, verb forms (Corder, 1975; Trolke, 2006). In this case, it can be assumed that the error correction task becomes more difficult when the classification aims are more detailed (Corder, 1975). Moreover, another classification in error analysis must be made between global and local errors. Errors are categorized as local errors when there is only minor difficulty and confusion in a specific clause or sentence (e.g. misuse of articles, omission of prepositions, problems in subject and verb agreement, incorrect placement of adverbs) yet does not distract the reader from comprehending the sentence. Whereas errors are categorized as global errors when there is misunderstanding or even breakdown in interpreting the conveyed message (e.g. the misuse of connectives/ conjunctions, the omission and misuse of relative pronouns etc) due to an apparent problem in the overall structure of a sentence. In other words, categorization of errors as global and local errors is related with to what extend they hamper communication between the reader and the writer (Heaton, 1988).

In addition to identifying and classifying errors, the reason why an error is made must be explained in order to understand SLA processes. Because explanation of errors is related with psychological aspect of second language learning. With no doubt, it can be inferred that teachers must be able to find out why errors occur to deal with them afterwards (Corder, 1975; Trolke, 2006). Further analysis on errors indicated all errors that L2 learners made didn't result merely from students' L1 transfer. Even more, a great amount of studies emphasized that most of the L2 errors can be attributed to learners' developing knowledge of the structure rather than transferring linguistic patterns from L1 to L2 (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Interlingual errors result from either learner's negative transfer or interference from native language while intralingual errors result from within language factors that exclude cross-linguistic influence. Intralingual errors are also regarded as developmental errors since they refer to either incompleteness or

overgeneralization of L2 learning rules. During L2 learning, learners are likely to make inductive generalizations about L2 system by relying on their L2 exposure. However, learner's exposure to L2 is limited to make accurate generalizations every single time. As a result of L1 comparison, the learner prefers to overgeneralize and probably produce incorrect forms (Corder, 1975; Trolke, 2006). Due to their irrelevance with interlingual errors, intralingual errors seem to be common to all learners from various L1 backgrounds. On account of that, what is meant by error and the reason why it occurs are provided in detail to elaborate error analysis approaches in SLA.

To start with, practitioners approached to L2 learners' errors as an incorrect version of the target language that lasted for until the late 1960s. As Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) defined, errors were the results of transfer that were derived from learners' first language (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Errors were traditionally approached to as a sign that the learner had trouble in mastering the target linguistic rules, thus, the learner was still in need of repeating explanations until all errors were diminished. It was believed that errors only occurred when there was no efficacy in learning. This perspective shaped a notion in SLA that meaned "Errors were an indication of the difficulties the learners had with certain aspects of the language, which could be explained by the persistance of the habits of the mother tongue and their transfer to the new language (Lado, 1957; cited by S.P.Corder, 1975)". Therefore, this approach was based on the fact that errors could have no place in an ideal teaching context. CAH claimed that learners' difficulties during learning process could be detected by a comparison and contrast between the structures of L2 learners' mother tongue and target language. This would enable teachers to take accurate steps and eliminate difficulties as much as possible (Corder, 1975).

Due to the fact that CAH fell short in terms of defining reasons behind L2 errors, researchers had no option other than following a new path in L2 error analysis. As a new approach, Error Analysis (EA) evolved during the 1970s and provided meticulous descriptions of L2 learners' errors. This approach aimed to identify what learners knew about the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). The role of error analysis can be understand by Corder's (1967) statement that using a linguistic structure correctly does not always prove that the learner has mastered

the systems and modelled native speaker perfectly, instead, this action may be simply related to repetition. Therefore, a learner's errors always present evidence for practitioners about the L2 language system that the learner uses at that specific time during the course even though the learner goes through difficulties in building and reshaping that system. Learners' errors have three different key roles in this case: 1) The teacher will be able to detect what has been achieved so far and what is left to learn, 2) The researchers will gain evidence about the way learners learn or acquire language, and what strategies are utilized by learners while discovering the language, 3) The learners will recognize errors as a crucial part of learning as the teachers have already highlighted that errors function as a device for learners during L2 learning process. Thus, learners will be able to determine nature of the target language by testing their hypotheses (Corder, 1967). To sum up; unlike CAH, error analysis does not aim to predict learners' errors. Instead, error analysis intends to recognize different error types with the purpose of reporting the way L2 learners process language data. Error analysis supports the hypothesis that L2 learning is based on a rule-governed and predictable system that is similar to child language acquistion (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

As it is discussed earlier, L2 learners have been treated as "incomplete" users of the target language that lasted for a very long time until the 1960s. These learners were taught to do their best in terms of approximating native-like proficiency in a slow and faulty way. However, traditional assumptions about L2 learners' journey have changed in the last few decades and L2 learning process has been approached by practitioners almost as the same way as L1 acquisition studies. In this case, learners are no longer mere producers of a problematic language with full of mistakes. Because L2 learners creatively take actions in their linguistic environment and they turn into intelligent beings that follow logical and systematic stages of acquisition. After going through a rough process by trying out numerous trials and errors, learners will be able to intake a constructed linguistic system (Brown, 2014).

In SLA field, there are some specific terms to define validity of L2 learners' systems. Among them, Larry Selinker's interlanguage is the most popular one in SLA field. Interlanguage refers to distinction of an L2 learner's system that involves a structurally moderate connection between a learner's native and target language

(Brown, 2014). Due to the fact that interlanguage required inner forces to be interacted with environmental factors and appeared under influence of both L1 and target language input, interlanguage (IL) was considered to be a creative process by Selinker and other researchers which was once valid for studies about error analysis and L1 back in the 1960s and 1970s. It is fairly understood that in a learner's IL there are traces of an influence from L1 and L2 language systems; however, interlanguage itself must take credit as a third language system as it is different from both L1 and L2 during the course of its development. Interlanguage is based on four characteristics: 1) systematic, 2) dynamic, 3) variable, 4) reduced system that appears in both form and function (Trolke, 2006). To illustrate; interlanguages are considered to be systematic and governed by rules while they are also dynamic and constantly evolve at the same time. Because L2 learners are exposed to more input and revise their hypotheses about the L2 within time (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In addition; it is likely to detect differences in patterns of language use due to differing contexts, even if interlanguages are known to be systematic. Lastly, interlanguages are based on reduced form and function that the former refers to use of less complex grammatical structures and the latter refers to the smaller range of communicative needs (Trolke, 2006).

By taking into account learners' journey from L1 to L2 development, the path through language acquisition is far from being smooth and even. Rather, there are possible challenges to hinder this process. After learners make remarkable progress, they reach a "plateau" where they remain for a while until they are encouraged to move any further. Selinker came up with the term fossilization which means that in a learner's language some features tend to stop changing. This situation is common among L2 learners who are deprived of either instruction or any kind of feedback which would enable them to recognize differences between their IL and the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

To summarize, the first section in literature review gives place to how errors are defined, classified and approached. Initially, error is related with L2 learner's competency thus refers to systematic problems on the written text. Then errors are classified into categories due to the needs of assessment and grading. As it is stated before, these errors can either hinder overall communication or slightly distract the reader. Thirdly, L2 error analysis is crucial as they occur not only as a result of L1

transfer but also developing L2 knowledge. Approaches that tried to find an answer for L2 errors have gone through alterations in time. Once it was supported that errors were bad habits to get rid of and could have no place in L2 context. However; with the introduction of EA and IL, learners were no longer treated as incomplete users. Also their errors are signs of L2 development that is created apart from L1 and L2. Lastly, it is implied that L2 learners' interlanguage is likely to be in danger of fossilization. To deal with that, any type of instruction or feedback is needed to direct students in L2 learning process. Thus, the next section elaborates the role feedback plays in L2 writing and defines corrective feedback practice.

The Role of Feedback and Corrective Feedback

In the field of language education, the term feedback has been defined by many researchers. Feedback is regarded as a medium to promote learner motivation and ensure linguistic accuracy in ELT methodology (Ellis, 2009b). Winne and Butler (1994) state that "feedback is information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, meta-cognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies (s. 5740)". In the field, interactional feedback is regarded as a key source of information for learners. In general, interactional feedback promotes learners with information about success, in some cases even more about lack of success, of their utterances and presents alternatives to focus on either production or comprehension (S.M.Gass & Selinker, 2008). This interaction mostly takes place between teacher and student. Through the written text, both sides can check their understanding of error correction and feedback preference. When students receive feedback on a frequent basis, they can perceive their grades as their responsibilities and enhance their learning in return (L.Cheng & Wang, 2007).

The role of feedback can be described under three concepts: 1) types that are used in a written text, 2) the source of feedback such as teacher, peer, course materials, parents, 3) its effectiveness to improve writing skills. To start with, the term feedback is used to define any type of strategies which are utilized to tell a learner whether an instructional response is right or wrong. This definition enables to distinguish feedback from other terms such as Knowledge of Response (KR),

Knowledge of the Correct Response (KCR), Correctional Review (CR) etc. The form of feedback as a process may range from the simplest *Yes/No* format to the presentation of substantial corrective or remedial/ corrective information that aims to extend the response content, or even add new material to it. Therefore, if feedback is associated with a more correctional review, the feedback and instruction will be integrated under the idea of transforming feedback into a form of instruction from notification of correction (Kulhavy, 1977). Secondly, feedback is a means of information that is transmitted by an agent such as teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience to view one's condition in performance and understanding. The agents of feedback may appear in many ways. To exemplify, a teacher or parent is likely to provide corrective information, a peer can suggest an alternative approach, a book can present information for clarification of ideas, a parent's feedback may take place as asisstance, and a learner can figure out an answer to evaluate the value of a response. Therefore, it can be deduced that feedback is a consequence of performance. In order to recognize the purpose, effects, and types of feedback, it is sensible to involve both instruction and feedback in a process. It can be inferred that there is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing feedback due to their places in the process, one at the beginning and the other at the end respectively (J.Hattie & H.Timberley, 2007).

Lastly, feedback is the teachers'explanation about the performance of the student that intends to promote students' learning (L.Voerman, P.J.Meijer, F.Korthagen, & R.Simons, 2012). The purpose of feedback is teaching skills to the students as a result of which they can enhance their language proficiency to a level at which they get acquainted with what is expected from them as learners, and be able to produce language with minimal errors (Çınar, 2017).

On the other hand, corrective feedback must be introduced in detail to understand its groups and types when it is used interchangeably with the term feedback. The term corrective feedback has been defined by scholars in a similar way. Corrective feedback includes a form of a response to a learner utterance that involves a linguistic error (Ellis, 2009b). Baleghizadeh and Rezaei (2010) state that "Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain an error (s. 321)". Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) consider the term correction as "the replacement of error or mistake by what is correct (s. 363)". In

addition to the definition of oral corrective feedback, Sheen and Ellis (2011) claim that “Corrective feedback refers to the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (s. 593)”.

Corrective feedback is a term that commonly takes place in pedagogical field of L2 learning and teaching. Its equivalent in the linguistic field of language acquisition is either negative data or negative evidence, on the other hand, its equivalent in the psychological field of concept learning is negative feedback. Due to the fact they are frequently used in both of these fields, the subjects that they provide information ranges from L2 learning student to L1 learning child including the experimental subject. In the case of experimental subject, it occurs either the production or activity of that student, child, subject is unacceptable or the activity has failed to fulfil its goal (Schachter, 1991). The initial aim of using CF is to enable learners to focus on form while they try to communicate through which they can make connections between form and meaning that results in second language acquisition. The role of corrective feedback in the process of second language acquisition is highly debatable even though many scholars may agree with the importance of CF in language learning (Sung & Tsai, 2014).

Over the last twenty years, researchers have paid great amount of attention to the issue of feedback to ESL/ EFL students’ written work. The reason is worthy enough to make an effort. Owing to the fact that providing feedback to student writing is very time-consuming and painstaking as a task, researchers and teachers have been struggling to come up with a solution about the most useful type of feedback, when to provide it, and how to interpret student attitudes to different types of instructional techniques in a better way (Enginarlar, 1993). Therefore, the following section takes into account eight different corrective feedback types to understand correction practices in L2 classrooms.

Corrective Feedback Types

This study aims to find out students and teachers’ written corrective feedback preferences in L2 writing. In order to do that, corrective feedback types and the effectiveness of corrective feedback must be defined. This section defines and categorizes certain corrective feedback types besides presenting related studies.

Whereas, the following section elaborates the use of corrective feedback practices and discusses its role altogether. In case of applying corrrective feedback in language classrooms, the number of conducted studies have been increasing gradually to figure out which certain types of feedback are more useful than others (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Fazio, 2001; Kepner, 1991; Lalande, 1982; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992). The main aim is to enable L2 learners to improve their L2 writing accuracy.

The categorization of corrective feedback types differs from researcher to researcher. Ellis (2009a) focused on correction of linguistic errors, identification of these options, the effectiveness of written corrective feedback and recognition of the most effective corrective feedback type. These different corrective feedback types were regarded as strategies for providing feedback (direct, indirect, metalinguistic feedback). Najmaddin (2010) outlines five corrective feedback types in his study: 1) focused vs unfocused feedback, 2) content-focused vs forrm focused feedback, 3) teachers' commentary on papers, 4) reformulation, 5) explicit vs implicit feedback. In addition to that, Sakallı (2007) lists individual conferencing, peer feedback, commentary by means of question, imperative, statement and praise as corrective feedback types, as well. Among corrective feedback types in L2 writing, this study defines direct vs indirect feedback, focused vs unfocused feedback, content vs form focused feedback, reformulation, teacher commentary, error correction codes, and oral feedback with individual conferencing.

Direct versus indirect corrective feedback. Ways of providing feedback ranges from explicit feedback to implicit feedback, the former refers to a problem whereas the latter appears during the course of an interaction (S.M.Gass & Selinker, 2008). Direct corrective feedback provides learners with explicit guidance to enable them to correct their errors by crossing out an unnecessary word, phrase or morpheme, inserting a missing word or morpheme, and giving the correct form either above or near to incorrect form (Bitchener et al., 2005). However, indirect corrective feedback corrects students' errors without indicating them explicitly which is done by underlining the errors, using cursors/ signs that show omissions in the text or by placing a cross in the margin next to the line that contains error (Bitchener et al., 2005). Indirect correction may appear in six different types: 1) errors coded, 2) errors circled, 3) errors underlined, 4) errors underlined and coded, 5) errors

underlined in addition to description of error, 6) errors counted in the margin but neither marked nor coded (Guenette, 2007). It is claimed there are many studies that draw a line between direct and indirect feedback strategies and investigate to what extend these feedback strategies provide greater accuracy than the other (Bitchener et al., 2005).

Bozkurt and Acar's (2017) study took place in a state secondary school with 70 seventh grade female students from two different classes. After completion of writing assignment, the students got their writing assignments back a week later to write their second drafts in fifty minutes. In addition, the teacher conducted a questionnaire that had both nine Likert-scale statements and an open ended question which aimed at eliciting students' opinions and preferences on explicit and implicit corrective feedback. The quantitative data revealed both groups had positive attitude towards L2 writing and both groups favored explicit written corrective feedback. Despite the high amount of preference in getting explicit corrective feedback, the qualitative data stated that the students were aware of the effectiveness of implicit corrective feedback in terms of exploration, autonomy and self- improvement.

Ferris and Roberts (2001) conducted a study with 72 university ESL students' to figure out their differing abilities to self- edit their texts under three feedback situations: errors marked with codes from five different error categories, errors in the same five categories underlined but not otherwise marked or labeled, and no feedback at all. The study findings revealed that the participants in both groups that received feedback outperformed the ones that received no feedback at all. However, there are no significant differences between the error coded and underlined groups in terms of self-editing. Treatable errors such as verbs, noun endings, articles are edited more easily than untreatable errrors such as word choice and sentence structure in all groups. The study also indicates that participants in all groups expect their teacher to correct their errors and favor error marking and error correction codes.

Bitchener et al. (2005) aimed to find out signs of improvement in accuracy over a twelve week period. 53 adult migrant students were placed in three treatment groups: 1) explicit written feedback and student-researcher five-minute-long

individual conference, 2) explicit written feedback only, 3) no corrective feedback. These treatments were applied on three types of error which were prepositions, the past simple tense, and the definite article. The study results indicated that combination of direct written feedback and oral feedback was the more effective when compared to mere direct written feedback and no corrective feedback groups in terms of accuracy. Besides, combined feedback promoted improvement in treatable errors such as the past simple and the definite article rather than less treatable errors like prepositions. Bitchener (2008) investigated a study with 75 low intermediate ESL students in New Zealand for two months. The study included both experimental and control groups which were formed in four groups: direct corrective feedback with written and oral metalinguistic explanation, direct corrective feedback with metalinguistic explanation, direct corrective feedback by itself, and no corrective feedback. The participants produced three different writing texts during the study, which were based on pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-tests, by describing a given picture every single time. In this case, the error correction practice was based on a focused approach due to its mere focus on correcting indefinite (a/an) and definite (the) articles. The study results revealed that the participants in experimental groups outperformed the ones in the control group in terms of accuracy.

Najmaddin (2010) carried out a study with 31 university-level students and 9 teachers to find out their preferences in four corrective feedback types: 1) direct corrective feedback, 2) direct corrective feedback with written and metalinguistic explanation, 3) indicating and locating errors, 4) indicating errors only. Data collection process included students' questionnaire, teacher and student interviews, a journal that was used by the researcher while giving feedback. In general, the study indicated that direct corrective feedback types were preferred more by the students rather than indirect ones. Even though students' questionnaire indicated that direct corrective feedback was the most preferred one among four feedback types, interviews and journal records confirmed that direct corrective feedback is mostly preferred with written and metalinguistic explanation.

Bitchener and Knoch (2009a) carried out a study over a six month period by using three different direct corrective feedback groups: 1) direct corrective feedback with with written and oral metalinguistic explanation, 2) direct corrective feedback

with written metalinguistic explanation, 3) direct corrective feedback only. The participants went through pre-test, immediate post-test, and two delayed post-test stages that focused merely on the uses of English article system. The study showed that there was no significant difference among participants from three different treatment groups; however, it was added that direct corrective feedback was effective by itself when compared to other combinations of written and oral metalinguistic explanations. Another study by Bitchener and Knoch (2009b) studied on the long-term effectiveness of written corrective feedback for ten months with 52 ESL students. Treatment types were the same as in Bitchener and Knoch's (2009a) study yet there was an additional control group. The focus of treatment was the use of articles in English through pre-test, immediate post-test, and three delayed post-tests. The study indicated that the groups which received direct corrective feedback outperformed control group constantly. Whereas, when direct corrective feedback treatment groups were compared, it was found that there was no significant difference among them.

Chandler (2003) carried out a two-phase study in an ESL setting where the effectiveness of error correction is initially studied then the ways for error correction are investigated. There were four treatment groups which were correction, underlining with description, only description, and only underlining. The participants revised their texts between the processes receiving feedback from the teacher and writing the next assingment. At the end, the participants' writing improved in terms of both accuracy and fluency. Yet there was no significant change in writing quality during the whole semester as there was almost no sign of less complex structures. Among four treatment types, correction and underlining led to more accuracy in writing. Specifically, correction was the most preferred type of error correction which resulted from the fact that students focused on their errors and internalized the correct forms more easily. The study suggested that although it is not likely to assume that all error correction methods have the same impact, teachers should still give error feedback and involve students in the process. It is stated that if students are involved in error correction process, they will be able to detect mismatches between their interlanguage and target language.

Although there is no adequate amount of evidence to claim that a certain error type can substitute any other one and effectively reduce errors, direct

corrective feedback types seem to be ineffective in error treatment (Hendrickson, 1978). For instance, Lalande (1982) conducted a study with sixty intermediate level German students. Indirect feedback group was called experimental group and direct feedback group was called control group. The control groups' errors were corrected by teacher explicitly and required to rewrite the essays, whereas, the experimental groups' errors were corrected by means of error correction codes and students interpreted these errors by themselves and completed the essays. In addition, the experimental group received another treatment that was designed to enable students to detect their repetitively common errors. At the end, the study reveals that experimental group outperformed the control group which results from detecting their own errors and error awareness. Also, experimental group was more successful than control group in terms of accuracy.

On the other hand, there are studies that find out no significant difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback in terms of effectiveness. Pakbaz (2014) conducted a study with 20 intermediate L2 learners from Iranian EFL context. In the study there was an assumption that explicit feedback is more superior than implicit feedback. Similar to that, Erel and Bulut (2007) carried out a study in a Turkish university context to find out the possible effects of direct and indirect coded feedback in students' L2 writing. The study was designed to last for a whole semester because there was no related study about the longitudinal effects of the two kinds of error feedback strategies in Turkish EFL context. The study indicated that there was no statistically significant differences, though, the indirect corrected feedback group had fewer errors than direct feedback group thoroughout the whole semester. Thus, both studies indicate that there is no significant superiority of one corrective feedback to another.

Metalinguistic corrective feedback. Metalinguistic corrective feedback is used when the teacher wants to give some sort of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error. Teachers can apply metalinguistic corrective feedback in two forms which are the use of error codes and brief grammatical explanations. The former appears as using abbreviated labels for different kinds of errors over the location of the error or in the margin, whereas, the latter appears as not showing the exact location of the error. When the error codes are used, students are expected to find out the correct form from the given clue. However, when the students have

no idea about the location of the error, the students need to find the error first then figure out the correct form. Use of error codes is quite debatable among researchers and it has been compared with other corrective feedback types to figure out its effectiveness. The controversy is inconclusive and the amount of evidence is quite limited to support that error codes enable learners to gain accuracy over time (Ellis, 2009a).

As it is stated earlier, there are studies that support use of error correction codes (Bosher, 1990; Erel & Bulut, 2007; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lalande, 1982). However, there are still studies that come against the practicality of error correction codes (Semke, 1984) and fall short to find out a relation correction and accuracy (Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). Bosher (1990) states that error correction codes enable students to check out their errors and make proper corrections by taking responsibility; however, the specification of error corrections codes may differ among proficiency levels. By taking into account gaps in treatment of L2 writing errors, it is suggested that error correction practices must be carried out in a supportive environment where students are allowed to take risks by experimenting on language in addition to gaining control over the language structure. Teachers' role in this case is providing a certain amount of feedback to guide students to proceed. In the study, Bosher (1990) provided ESL students with both error correction codes and an error analysis chart. After students received their first copy with codes, they were expected to correct all the errors the teacher marked. The procedure of using error correction codes engaged students in a problem-solving approach to error as they were responsible for their own learning. In this case, correction codes functioned as a reference manual rather than a grammar book.

Semke (1984) carried out a study that lasted for ten weeks with 141 German FL students. The participants were divided into four experimental groups: 1) the ones that received only comments, 2) the ones that received only correction, 3) the ones that received correction with comments, 4) the ones that received error correction codes and corrected their own errors by rewriting. After data analysis, it was found out that error correction had no positive effect on students' writing skills and total L2 competency. This resulted from the fact that group one, which received only comments, outperformed the groups that received correction. In terms of language proficiency development; group 1 was the most preferred, while, group 4

was the least preferred by the participants. What is interesting about the study is the fact that group 4 didn't perform well on accuracy even more they get frustrated by the use of error correction codes and correcting errors by themselves.

Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986) carried out a study with 134 Japanese college freshmen students to compare effectiveness of four different feedback types in L2 writing. The four feedback types range from the most noticable one to the least: the correction group, the coded feedback group, the uncoded feedback group, and the marginal feedback group. These feedback types are applied to participants in four sections. The study indicates that there is no actual relation between the directness of correction and accuracy. Even more, it is suggested that teachers should choose less time-taking methods while correcting errors.

Focused vs unfocused corrective feedback. Focused-unfocused corrective feedback types are related with comprehensiveness of correction methodology, in other words which errors are chosen to be corrected. The unfocused (comprehensive) CF aims to correct all errors in a text with no regards about error categorization. While focused (selective) CF aims to correct only a certain number of specific linguistic features such as correcting English article errors. If the rest of errors are out of the target, they are left uncorrected (Beuningen, 2010). Unfocused feedback is regarded to be more difficult than focused feedback because the learners are expected to pay attention to a great variety of errors which results in lack of reflection on each error. Unfocused corrective feedback is extensive, whereas, focused corrective feedback is intensive. Therefore, focused metalinguistic feedback is more supportive than unfocused corrective feedback as it provides learners with attention and understanding of nature of the error. Though focused CF is effective in assisting learners acquire specific structures in the short term, unfocused CF may turn out to be more superior in the long term as it addresses to various errors on a text (Ellis, 2009a).

There are few studies that compare effectiveness of focused and unfocused feedback. Ellis et al. (2008) conducted a study with 49 students in Japanese EFL context by dividing them into focused CF, unfocused CF, and control groups. All groups went through pre-test, an immediate post-test, and a delayed post-test. Focused CF group received corrections on the use of articles, whereas, unfocused

CF group received correction of all errors along with article errors. In addition to narrative writing, the participants had error correction test and an exit questionnaire, as well. The study indicated that the control group's use of articles was inconsistent in terms of accuracy; however, focused and unfocused groups had much consistency. In case of the effectiveness of focused and unfocused corrective feedback, there was no statistical difference. However; there is a slight possibility that focused CF may be more effective on longer terms; if all the groups' scores on the narrative writing are considered.

Sheen's (2007) aim was to figure out whether there was a relation between language analytic ability and the effect of CF. This ability has a key role in analyzing language by creating and applying rules to new sentences. In the study, there were three treatment groups: direct-only correction group, a direct metalinguistic correction group, and a control group. Similar to previously discussed studies, the target of treatment was English articles. At the end, the study revealed that direct metalinguistic feedback was the most effective in accuracy improvement. In addition, it is proved that there was a direct relation between a high amount of language analytic ability and effectiveness of CF which resulted from the fact that CF types were able to increase awareness. In terms of following focused approach, a specific focus on a certain structure was more effective when it was integrated with the correct from and metalinguistic explanation.

Form-focused versus content-focused corrective feedback. Apart from focusing on correcting all errors or specific linguistic structures, the medium of focus can be determined in terms of form-focused feedback and content-focused feedback. Content-focused feedback is generally related with the way ideas are presented, organization of the text, and selection of vocabulary. Whereas, form-focused feedback aims to correct linguistic errors which are easily treated on surface (Beuningen, 2010).

Zamel (1985) studied on teachers' responses to student writing by referring to teachers' habitual behaviour in correction. Teachers' responses are thought to be inconsistent and inflexible as they have a certain schema about qualifications of a written text. Therefore, students put aside their own ideas in order not to be disapproved and rely their actions primarily on teachers' expectations. This results

from the fact that teachers view students' texts as products to be judged and graded. In this case, students' intention to convey a specific message during writing process is overlooked and students are likely to lose their track after revisions. Even if teachers don't overestimate a certain writing feature from others, their responses tell the otherwise. As teachers stick to traditional models that recognize writing as a product and a piece of written material to be graded, teachers fall behind in solving students' writing problems (Zamel, 1985; 1987). Teachers give importance to local errors rather than meaning related errors. Also, their comments are not specific to individual texts, instead, they can be adapted to any other one without difficulty. What students encounter on their texts is a mere prescriptive advice rather than specific strategies, questions, and suggestions for direction. One study (Cohen, 1988; cited by Yılmaz, 1996) proves Zamel's (1985) argument that teachers give priority to grammar and mechanics in L2 writing rather than vocabulary, organization and content.

In the study, Zamel (1985) studied 105 student texts and analyzed 15 teachers' behaviours in error correction. The study results were consistent with the literature as the teachers' responses were misleading and there were very few content-specific corrections. When students' texts were evaluated, it was realized that teachers mostly use form-focused feedback and briefly locate errors. The study reveals the communication between teachers and students which is vague and disruptive. Besides, it is clear that teachers' approach to students as language learners rather than developing writers, their texts are considered as final products. The study underlines that teachers are not setting good examples for students as they are having problems in communication.

Kepner (1991) conducted a longitudinal study with sixty intermediate Spanish learners. The subjects were randomly assigned to written feedback type groups to receive either error corrections feedback or message-related comments feedback. At the end, it was discovered that in order to develop students' L2 writing efficiency the consistent use of L2 teachers' error corrections combined with explicit rule reminders was ineffective. In the study, error corrections and rule reminders seemed to neither improve students' level of L2 writing accuracy nor enhance L2 students' writing quality. The difference between the error-count scores of the group receiving

consistent error correction feedback and the group receiving consistent message related comments feedback is not remarkable.

Sheppard (1992) compared two forms of corrective feedback and applied them in each group. The first type involved coded error correction that included both the type and location of each error. These were indicated in writing on the page of the text. After that, students had a conference with the teacher about their errors and each student was required to make another corrected copy. The second type involved general requests for clarification that were written in the margin of a student's paper. These comments of the teacher became the basis for teacher-student conferences on the student's general meaning. One group had merely indication and discussion of every error while the other one had merely the teacher's comments on the writer's intention and discussion about what the writer had tried to say. The study followed the progress of these two different groups and analyzed the effects of treatments on grammatical accuracy and complexity by comparing the first and last compositions over a ten-week period. At the end, the assumption that close attention to mechanics causes more accurate mechanics turned out to have no validity. The students who negotiated meaning with their teacher attained more accuracy in the use of language than the ones who focused closely on surface-level errors and repair techniques.

Ashwell (2000) aimed to find out whether content feedback that is followed by form feedback is the best method or they should be seperated at the different stages of L2 writing process. The study is carried out with 50 Japanese EFL participants and the effectiveness of both feedback types is tested by following a pattern. The participants are expected to complete first, second, and final drafts to complete a single composition. To do so, the participants are divided into four groups: content then form, form then content, form and content combined, and no feedback. The study reveals that there is no superiority of content feedback that is followed by form feedback. There are no outstanding differences between experimental groups and the order of receiving content or form feedback. However, when it is compared to control group, it is inferred that experimental group was more successful in terms of formal accuracy.

Fazio (2001) carried out an experimental study with 112 native and non-native French students over a period of four months. Different feedback types such as content-based feedback, form-focused feedback and a combination of both feedback types are tested to figure out their effectiveness on the journal writing accuracy. The study shows that there is no significant difference between native and non-native French students in terms of writing accuracy.

In her study, Hyland (2003) aimed to find out whether there was a relation between teacher feedback and student revision. The 14-week-long case study involved six ESL students and two teachers from different classes. The process was based on writing a draft, receiving written feedback and writing a revised version of the same text. Teachers' intervention on written texts were regarded as feedback points which pointed out whether teachers focused mostly on grammar, content or genre related issues. After these assignments were completed, the relation between feedback and revision were studied along with students' ability in carrying out revisions. The study reveals that both teachers are more likely to use form-focused feedback even though their own preferences are quite opposite. When students' ideas are elicited, it is found that students' needs must be taken into consideration as each student react to feedback differently. The study results in terms of teachers' preferences are consistent with Zamel's (1985) argument as teachers are prone to correct form-related errors.

Reformulation. As a technique, reformulation has recently drawn attention to support improvement in students' writing skills. Unlike other correction techniques that correct only surface-level errors in the text, reformulation focuses on the content the student has provided. However, by recasting the text, it is aimed to approximate the rewritten draft as closely as possible to target language model. After that, it can be compared with the student's own draft (Thornbury, 1997). Reformulation has a key role in promoting opportunity for noticing. When the relation between reformulation and noticing is taken into account, exposure to the target behaviour after the event has psychologically more validity. The reason lies behind the fact that the learners are supposed to search for and notice those features of the modelled behaviour which are thought to be problematic in the first draft. Thus, the practice itself is far more different than providing a model in advance. Compared to other correction techniques, reformulation is likely to be more effective as the

students identify areas of mismatch by themselves and those areas will be engaged with either the stage of their skill or interlanguage development in return (Johnson,1988; cited by Thornbury, 1997).

It can be inferred that reformulation enables learners with different proficiency level and needs to notice various linguistic features. For instance, Qi and Lapkin (2001) carried out a case study with two ESL learners whose competencies were different from each other. The study investigated the roles of output in a three-stage L2 writing task. Initially, participants wrote an L2 text about a given picture. Then they were asked to compare their written draft with a reformulated version besides an immediate retrospective interview. Lastly, the participants received their original texts and revised them. Both at composition and comparison stages, the participants went through think-aloud protocols. The study indicated the participant with high proficiency level statistically outperformed the other with lower proficiency as the former was better at solving language-related problems by himself and giving reasons for accepting the reformulated version. The study highlights that the quality of noticing is related with students' proficiency level and language-related noticing affects students' written products. It is suggested that reformulation may function as a pedagogical tool because teachers can teach their students how to notice the gap between their own draft and the reformulated text although they have lower level proficiency.

Similarly, Sachs and Polio (2007) conducted a two-phase study by following Qi and Lapkin's (2001) methodology. The aim was to investigate whether written error corrections or reformulation techniques is more effective than the other. In both cases, the participants went through three-stage composition-comparison-revision tasks. At the first stage there were 15 ESL participants that were divided into three groups: 1) error correction, 2) reformulation, 3) reformulation and think aloud. Besides comparing effectiveness of error correction and reformulation, the reformulation and think-aloud groups' awareness on linguistic accuracy for upcoming revisions and its comparison in terms of outcomes with only reformulation group were studied. The second stage included a control group in addition to other treatment groups. In this case, randomly selected 54 ESL students were divided into four groups. When these groups were compared statistically, error correction group outperfomed the others and control group had the least accurate revisions. There

were very slight changes between reformulation and think-aloud group and reformulation group. Contrary to what was expected (Qi & Lapkin, 2001), reformulation appeared to be no effective than error correction in this context even though both reformulation groups performed better than control group.

Teacher commentary. Most of the studies have recognized commenting as a product-centered, evaluative activity that is similar to literary criticism. Thus, evaluation of a completed text by commenting is the same as intervening in the process. Generally in earlier commentary practices; students write essays then teachers detect their strengths and weaknesses on the written text. This process reveals teachers' role as prescriptive red-pen marker of written texts that was mostly determined by institutions. In brief, teachers' mere role was to locate the error, edit if necessary and grade the paper accordingly (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981). On the other hand, there has to be an engagement between written feedback and the writer to promote writing development. Rather than a means of reference to student texts, feedback is an interactive part of the whole context of learning that endeavours to build a productive interpersonal relationship between the teacher and individual students (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). It is highlighted that teachers' responses to learners' errors directly affect students' L2 writing performance. Because teachers' focus on form and linguistic rules have the potential of making students feel restricted and demotivate them during writing process. As a result, the students feel incompetent at L2 writing due to incapability of completing certain requirements (Zamel, 1987). Therefore, it is likely to assume that there may be problems due to miscommunication between the teacher and student about the written text. Students may have difficulty in interpreting alternatives that teacher presents no matter how clear they are. The writers may lack the linguistic competency to come up with additional options and the way of expressing them. Even experienced writers go through a series of decisions in connecting patterns and connections in written discourse. Thus, the writers should have a level of intellectuality and awareness (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981).

Ferris et al. (1997) pointed out that there are very few studies of teacher commentary specifically in L2 writing. During the longitudinal two-semester-long study, preliminary and revised drafts from the first three essays were collected from 47 ESL students. Teacher's both marginal and end comments were examined under

two categories which focused on aim/ intent of the comment and the other linguistic features. The study revealed that the teacher went through changes in their commentary strategies from one semester to another: 1) There was a shift from questions and requests to more positive comments and softened hedges due to teacher's sensitivity, 2) Students were in need of less amount of feedback and instruction because of their earlier experience and in-class teaching about the process, 3) She commented on weaker writers' grammars whereas stronger writers had fewest imperatives. The study underlined that teachers' commentary on students' L2 writing is important for all contexts and levels, thus, further studies must take place.

Apart from the effectiveness of teacher-student communication through written text, another issue to discuss it teachers' preferences in responding to texts. Teacher commentaries appear on L2 writing texts either as teachers' personalized praise and questions or detailed directions for content and form. The latter was discussed earlier and it is inferred that metalinguistic explanations are commonly used by practitioners as commentaries (Bitchener, et al., 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Chandler, 2003; Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992). Whereas some teachers prefer to use commentaries by asking questions about the text, ordering what is supposed to be done, and praising students. As Sakallı (2007) presents, teachers mostly comment on students' papers by writing statements such as "The reason is not clear". Some teachers use these statements in question forms such as "What does it mean?" Even more, teachers may have an imperative attitude and write down statements such as "Explain it more clearly". Moreover, teachers generally use expressions such as "Good", "Well done", "Excellent" to praise students' effort in the text. In some cases, these expressions function as an intro for upcoming problems such as "Good,but…", "Excellent, however…" Students pay attention to their texts whether there is any negative comments after praise (s. 20). To illustrate, Mahfoodh and Pandian (2011) conducted a case study and revealed that students expect their teachers to comment on their texts and feel fulfilled when the teacher praises their texts, ideas or drafts. Teacher commentaries, rather than error correction codes, function as a means of motivation for these students.

Hyland & Hyland (2001) studied on two teachers' written feedback practices in terms of use of functions such as praise, criticism, and suggestions. Over the course, it was found that teachers were prone to praise students' final work rather drafts, whereas, there is a slight difference between drafts and final works in use of suggestions. Among three feedback types, criticism is the most frequently used one on drafts but praise surpasses both feedback types in total. It is also discovered that the tone of criticisms and suggestions were softened by using mitigation strategies including paired act patterns, hedges, personal attribution, and interrogative syntax in question forms. Though teacher had good intentions in mitigating their responses, these responses were mainly misunderstood by students and remained unclear.

Therefore it can be inferred that even though praise, suggestions, and questions seem to be motivating techniques, teachers must be aware of their feedback style and selection of words to build a communication between them and students to improve L2 writing. While calculating students' reactions beforehand, teachers are expected to determine the quality of comments to refer to informational, pedagogical, and interpersonal goals all at once at the same time. For instance, negative feedback may have a destructive impact on students'writing confidence, whereas, overstated and immature praise may be deceptive. Thus, teachers' praises should be sincere (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). While commenting, teachers generally fall into the trap of overexaggerating students' performance to boost their confidence. Teachers tend to use personalized comments and questions to ease the tone of their criticisms and prefer to aim linguistic errors instead of students' ideas contrary to students who wish to receive contrustive comments. As a solution, it is advised for teachers to focus on some specific errors and saving others for following drafts and assignments which is challenging for teachers as it requires teaching experience and knowledge of students' individual performances (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, 2006).

To conclude, students should receive additional support as only commenting on drafts is not enough. The procedure to support could include making sure that students understand written comments which is possible by defining teacher's commenting vocabularies beforehand and setting up an organization for revision before students rewrite the draft. After rewriting, teachers should be aware of new choices and appreciate the process of changes, deletions and additions. By taking

this all into account, teachers should pay attention to revising efforts while students are writing their drafts one after another (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981).

Revision in error correction practice. The term revision refers to any changes in what was originally written in the text. The term itself is likely to be used interchangibly with another term (editing) in some studies; however, there is a slight difference between revision and editing. Revision includes changes in content, organization or linguistic structure, whereas, editing specifically includes sentence-level changes as a part of revision (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998). Even though revision does not appear as a correction technique, it has a certain role in L2 writing development (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hyland, 2003; Lalande, 1982; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992).

Polio (1998) carried out a study with 65 undergraduate and graduate ESL students for seven weeks. The study aimed to figure out whether ESL students were able to revise their sentence-level errors when they had additional time. Also, whether additional editing instruction played a role in reducing sentence-level errors was examined. Both participants in experimental and control groups had thirty-minute essays and sixty-minute revisions. Unlike control group, experimental group received additional grammar exercises and feedback on their journals. The study indicated that even if both groups improved their linguistic accuracy thoroughout the semester and tasks, the experimental group couldn't outperform the control group. Similarly, Truscott and Hsu (2008) conducted a study with 47 EFL graduate students. The study investigates whether there is a relation between error reduction during revision and L2 development. To do so, the participants initially wrote an in-class narrative text and revised it during the next class. In the experimental group, the students' errors were underlined and used the corrective feedback during revision task, whereas, the control group completed the revision task without corrective feedback. After completing the first writing task, it is found out that experimental group outperformed the control group. However; when the secon d writing task is completed, it both groups were almost identical in terms of error rates in their texts. Even though the study does not deny the effectiveness of corrective feedback for good, it suggests that error reduction during revision isn't an indicator of L2 writing development.

There are certain arguments about the use of grammar correction as a teaching device and the role of revision. There are two opposing arguments: 1) Error reduction during revision is not a measure of learning, 2) Error correction is a measure of learning (Truscott & Hsu, 2008). As it is thoroughly discussed in the next chapter, Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999) share contradictory opinions on error correction practices. Firstly, Truscott (1996) approaches to error correction as grammar correction and opposes its existance in writing classes. Truscott (1996) states it is doubtful to assume that grammar correction practices lead to grammatical accuracy. Therefore, grammar correction has no remarkable effect on students' writing ability. Whereas, Ferris (1999) states that error correction practices cannot be abolished and regards error correction as a pedagogical practice. Ferris (1999) addes there is a mutual agreement between students and teachers in terms of conducting error correction. Because this is what students expect, teachers spend a great amount of time and energy to improve students' writing accuracy.

In case of revision, Truscott and Ferris have the same attitude as they have towards error correction. When previous studies' treatments are taken into account, Truscott (1996) believes that the role of revision process in writing improvement is questionable. Lalande (1982) came up with the conclusion that feedback was useful and effective because indirect feedback group made progress. As the level of grammatical complexity advanced during language learning process, both control and experimental groups would have failed without any feedback. When Truscott (1996, 1999) evaluates Lalande's (1982) findings, students' use of complex structures may results from L2 exposure and additional writing practice thoroughout the term rather than correction-revision treatment. Considering that control group failed despite correction and Lalande's (1982) claims were not convincing, Truscott (1996, 1999) stood by the argument that error correction is ineffective and harmful. Thus, Truscott (1996, 1999) indicates previous studies are inadequate to claim that revision process works as a measure of learning. Whereas, Ferris (1999) states that Truscott has a biased attitude towards error correction and revision process. Ferris (1999, 2004) states there are studies that prove effectiveness of error correction but there are very few longitidunal studies to make generalizations. Ferris (2004) addes revision process may lead to development in long-term linguistic competency

because when students receive feedback, they are more likely to self-correct their errors.

All in all, despite disagreements about revision practices, Ferris (2004) agrees that the study results are inadequate to make generalizations which leads to the need of more systematic study designs. The first seven subsections in this chapter discusses written corrective feedback types and their methodologies in detail. In addition to all, the next subsection presents individual conferencing.

Oral corrective feedback and individual conferencing. Though written errors are traditionally corrected by means of written corrective feedback types, these treatments are taking teachers' time and energy to complete. Therefore, oral corrective feedback practices combined with written comments have started to gain attention among teachers (Solhi & Eğinli, 2020). Oral corrective feedback is distinguished from written corrective feedback as it includes both on-line (immediate feedback right after error) and off-line (provided at the end of communicative event) attempts while correcting students' errors. Whereas, written corrective feedback generally includes off-line, in other words delayed, corrections of the errors that students have made in a written text (Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

Individual conferencing, as an oral corrective feedback practice, is commonly used in by teachers to test its effectiveness either by itself or in addition to written comments (Bitchener, et al., 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, 2009b). During individual conferencing, it is aimed to clarify and negotiate strong and weak points of a written text through discussion. The conference can take place in class sessions, at teachers' office or even outside the school in some cases. Individual conferencing has both benefits and drawbacks in practice. For instance, there is a one-to-one interaction between the instructor and learner that is hard to establish in written correction. Besides, individual conferencing takes less amount of time than providing written comments to each student text. Whereas; individual conferencing is hard to put into practice due to setting, especially when there is no office hours and chance to work on the text outside classroom. In addition, individual conferences will not be effective in crowded classroom as the teacher will have difficulty in studying on errors with each student (Solhi & Eğinli, 2020).

To illustrate, Sakallı (2007) states that a writing center was established for students at his home institution to let students consult a teacher about their texts. As students spent time at the office, they made progress in their L2 writing skills. The students were able to ask questions that they were hesitant about in the class, and they attained additional explanations, examples and extra materials to work on their weak points. However, the writing center's impact didn't last long because the administration claimed that there were insufficient number of classrooms.

Erlam et al. (2013) studied on interactions between a teacher and low-intermediate L2 writers during a series of oral conferences. The participants received two different treatments: 1) explicit feedback which involves teacher's intervention, 2) graduated feedback which is adapted to learner's L2 proficiency level and leads to self-correction. The interactional differences between two treatments and any means of changes over time were studied. Two linguistic structures (past tense verb forms and use of articles) were targeted. The study proved that the graduated feedback was effective in promoting self-correction; however the level of assistance didn't reduce over time. While explicit feedback led to less self-correction and consistency in uptaking teacher's correction even if it took less time to conduct.

This section presents definition of eight different corrective feedback types in addition to providing related studies about each one of them. These eight corrective feedback types are intentionally specified to refer to this study's methodology. For teachers and students, this study adapts two questionnaires that were taken from Armhein and Nassaji's (2010) study. All corrective feedback types in these questionnaires were described in detail. In addition to that, individual conferencing is included in this section which is popular among practitioners and seen as an alternative to merely written corrective feedback practices. The next section presents the discussion for the ultimate question in L2 writing studies: "Should we use corrective feedback at all?"

Should We Use Corrective Feedback At All?

In ELT field, there is an ongoing debate about whether students' L2 errors must be corrected or not. The ambiguity in the use of corrective feedback practises results in questioning corrective feedback practises altogether. Sachs and Polio

(2007) claim that research findings fall short to confirm that error corrections on learners' written composition have a positive impact on L2 acquisition. The matter of whether error correction practises should take place in L2 writing classes was not elaborated in detail until Truscott (1996) stated that "Grammar correction in L2 writing classes should be abandoned (s. 327)". Truscott (1996) claims that grammar correction in L2 writing must be abandoned for good and justifies the reasons in his long-time criticized article which is a starting point for further discussions.

Theoretical problems in grammar correction practice are elaborated under the concepts such as interlanguage and developmental sequence. Initially, Truscott (1996) states that development of interlanguage cannot be standardized within the procedures of grammar correction. Interlanguage development is based on complicated learning processes and researchers have difficulty in interpreting these processes. This ambiguity causes problems in teaching profession because grammar is actually an abstract term. Thus, teachers' explanations fall behind of the actual English grammar and they prefer to follow easier ways of learning which is mere information transfer from teacher to student. Grammar can be understood by linguistic theories but these there are inconsistencies among these theories. As a consequence, teachers' interpretation of errors and the way they approach them by means of written responses are problematic. As the standart view suggests, the correction process is based on learners' figuring out their grammar errors and receiving the correct form either directly or indirectly. After students get the correct knowledge about grammar structure, they are expected to use it properly by only recalling the correction itself. However; this argument is far from being correct because language learning does not work in a simple way. The acquisition of a grammatical structure is not a sudden discovery , instead, it is a gradual process.

Secondly, Truscott (1996) claims if teaching practices are based merely on transfer of knowledge and neglect the processes that involve language system development, these practices will have no use. To illustrate, linguistic structures such as syntactic, morphological, and lexical knowledge aren't aquired at the same way, thus, a single form of correction will not fit into all of them. As a result, teachers are supposed to find out more than one method to correct students' errors. Truscott (1996) states L2 grammatical learning follows natural order. Therefore; when there is a mismatch between teachers's instruction sequence and L2 orders, teachers will

inevitably encounter problems. It is expected from teachers to regard students' current stage of development in grammar correction practice. Whereas, it is generally known that there are very few teachers that take developmental sequences into account. Although studies in research field prove the existance of L2 developmental sequences, there is no sufficient amount of resource to guide teachers. This situation leads to futulity of grammar correction as it is combined with the role of developmental sequences and teachers' incapability in managing them. Also, grammar explanations may lead to misunderstanding mostly because of the communication between teacher and student through written text. The students are still prone to repeat the same error in another context as long as they understand the reason behind it. Especially when teacher falls apart from error correction practises in class, it becomes harder for students to interpret teacher's correction.

The number of corrections has an impact on learners, as well. Students' motivation to deal with error correction affects their L2 writing. Even students receive error correction at that time, they don't pay attention them enough to succeed in further practices. It is suggested that students' motivation could be driven by selecting a few errors and correcting them for a period of time. Ignoring minor errors will motive students as there are few errors to pay attention. However, some studies claim that comprehensive (correcting all errors) and selective (correcting specific errors) don't differ from each other in practice. There are certain drawbacks in selective correction because it requires teachers to take into account students' L2 developmental sequence and attention while identifying errors. Therefore both for theoretical and practical reasons Truscott (1996) approaches to grammar correction as a mundane endeavour and sees most of the studies as a "unpleasant waste of time (s. 354)".

Truscott's strong arguments led to many discussion in the field which are either supportive or unsupportive in error correction. One of the earliest objections came from Dana Ferris (1999) with the article "The Case for Grammar Correction in L2 Writing: A Response to Truscott (1996)" where she evaluates error correction practice both theoretical and practical terms. Even though Ferris agrees with Truscott on the fact that error correction is time consuming and does not worth the effort in some cases, she states that the idea of not correcting students' grammar errors at all is "premature and overly strong (s. 2)".

Ferris (1999) justifies her disagreement under two main issues: the definition of error correction and evaluation of previous studies. It is stated that there is a problem in the definition of error correction because Truscott (1996) defines grammar correction as “Correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student’s ability to write accurately (s. 329)”. This definition is far from being explanatory due to the fact that error correction is only perceived through one angle and considered as a means of grammar correction which limits its purposes and forms. It is agreed that improper error correction will do no good for students and even misguide them. One way or another, Ferris (1999) claims that there are many effective ways to approach error correction in L2 writing as long as it is selective, prioritized and clear. Thus, effectiveness of error correction is depended on what it refers to.

Besides the definition of error correction, another disagreement to consider between Ferris and Truscott is their interpretations of previous study findings. For instance, Truscott (1996) explains the reason of inadequacy in grammar correction studies by stating that the researchers have a straightforward attitude. Because the researchers generally compare the writing of students who have received grammar correction over a period of time with the students who have not received. In research field, there are some studies that prove Truscott’s statement in terms of using a corrective feedback and no feedback group. Contrary to general assumption, Truscott does not underestimate grammar correction in terms of developing grammatical accuracy. Truscott (1996) defines the term grammar correction as “correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student’s ability to write accurately (s. 329)”. Although Truscott does not reject feedback as a teaching method, he still has certain reasons to reject grammar correction : According to study results grammar correction is ineffective; this inefficiency is related with nature of the correction process and the nature of language learning; grammar correction has harmful effects that shall not be overlooked; the arguments about applying grammar correction has no benefits. Truscott (1996) supports his ideas with some previously conducted studies in the article (Kepner, 1991; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992).

Along with the studies that reject effectiveness of corrective feedback, there are some studies that find out feedback has a neutral impact on writing accuracy.

Because when correction is important for learning, it must be directly assumed that former learners are should be better writers than the latter. If there is no difference between these groups in terms of ability, then correction is not advantageous. Another possibility is also the situation that the uncorrected students write better than the corrected ones which results in the adverse effect of correction.

Ferris (1999) elaborated the way Truscott reviewed previous studies about error correction in L2 writing. The studies that Truscott (1996) presented in the article were open to debate due to three reasons: The subjects in these studies were not comparable; There was great variety in research paradigms and teaching strategies among these studies; and Truscott (1996) emphasized negative evidence a lot while neglecting the results that contradict his statements. To illustrate, some of the studies took place in ESL settings, whereas, some of them took place in EFL settings. However, it must not be overlooked that the profile of the participants and their background must be considered while making generalizations. Because EFL students are not expected to use target language and its linguistic structures outside of the classroom. Therefore, they are less motivated to follow up their L2 courses which are based on product-based approach. However, in ESL classes the learners are motivated and expected to use target language in daily life. Thus the quality of feedback is more important to them. In addition to that, the great variety in research and instructional paradigms are not unseeable. The time length of these studies range from an entire quarter or semester to one-shot experimental treatment. The mechanisms for giving feedback is also different from each other, therefore, the findings of these studies are far from generalizations. Because of all these reasons, Ferris (1999) addes that the belief “grammar correction never helps students” is far from being unquestionable.

Although Truscott and Ferris’ arguments about error correction are very distinctive from each other, in terms of theoretical problems, Ferris (1999) agrees on some points that put forward by Truscott. In the article, Truscott states that only one form of feedback will not be effective to meet demand because each linguistic structure differ from each other while acquiring L2. Unlike Truscott, Ferris does not support abolishing any type of feedback practises for good. Instead, Ferris (1999) proposes teaching students how to self-edit their texts by focusing on importance of editing, training them to recognize and correct critical errors, teaching them explicitly

about the rules of these errors. In this case, use of indirect correction can be applicable, as well. However, Ferris (1999) believes that these suggestions can be useful as long as students' errors are in a rule-governed way when it is compared to Truscott's argument. Truscott (1996) claims that grammar correction must be abolished for good because some students cannot improve their accuracy or make fewer errors as a result of teacher feedback. Whereas, Ferris (1999) proposes that many students will be able to improve their writing if they receive reasonable and proper feedback from their teachers. Therefore, teachers should put more effort on making error corrections more effective.

To summarize, Ferris (1999) claims that even if the effectiveness of grammar feedback and instruction for all L2 writers is debatable, with no doubt it is clear that the absence of any feedback or strategy will not result in students' favor. Instead, they will not understand the need of improving their editing skills and they will have no idea about the knowledge or strategies to edit even if they are aware of their uses. Thus, the issue about error feedback and correction must not be resolved without taking students' needs into account. The use of error feedback and correction need more attention in ELT field to develop students' L2 writing skills in terms of accuracy. Even though Truscott (1996) has made some critical points on theoretical problems, on practical terms abandoning the practise of error correction and feedback has no benefit for teachers and learners. Therefore, more studies must take place to make certain pedagogical decisions.

After Ferris (1999) presented her ideas that opposed the idea of abandoning error correction practices altogether, Truscott's counter article was not late (The Case for" The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes": A Response to Ferris, 1999). Truscott evaluates the parts that Ferris (1999) comes against and compares each discussion in detail. To start with, Truscott (1999) refuses the image that has been created by teaching experts. It is regarded that error correction is an indispensable part of teaching and no other alternative method is likely to take its place. Whereas, Truscott approaches to error correction as an option rather than a key element by referring to Ferris' strong arguments. Ferris (1999) claims abolishing error correction practises for good will result in students' objection and dismissal of teachers as they are not completing their tasks. Truscott states that students' demand in error correction results from their teachers' impact

on them and the false impression they make. There is an ongoing cycle in language classes: teachers correct students' errors, students believe the efficiency of it, and teachers continue correcting errors not to let students down. Due to this reason, most teachers don't prefer following a correction-free approach to avoid students' possible objections. Whereas, Truscott (1999) advices other teachers to discover students' actual ideas as his students are not demotivated by the absence of correction practices at all.

As it is stated before, Ferris (1999) emphazised the role of self-editing to let students discover and correct their own errors which is possible by training them during the writing process. Whereas Truscott (1999) claims that the argument for self-editing is not clear because self-editing requires not only grammar correction but also strategy training, as well. Grammar correction and strategy training are supposed to enable students to self-edit their text by providing necessary knowledge, however, what kind of knowledge is referred to in this case was not specified by Ferris (1999). As a result, Truscott (1999) holds a sceptical attitude in the case of effectiveness of grammar correction.

In addition, Truscott responded Ferris' criticism in discussing research evidence. Ferris (1999) presented her disagreement with Truscott in terms of variability of study results, overexaggeration of negative attitude towards error correction, and neglecting counter evidence deliberately. According to Truscott (1999); generalization is likely to be provided when similar results are achieved under a variety of conditions rather than stabilized conditions that include profile of participants, instructional method and research design for all studies. Truscott explains (1999) this idea as " When consistent results are obtained under consistent conditions, one can reasonably argue that these specific conditions are responsible for these results. But when similar results appear in widely differing circumstances, no such explanation is available; the phenomenon is a general one (s. 114)". Therefore, the argument that these varying conditions prevents study findings from being generalizable by any means is refuted. Secondly, Truscott (1999) added there is a mismatch between him and Ferris in terms of interpreting previous study findings. Ferris (1999) claims that Truscott (1999) does not include any study results that contradicts his arguments. As it is mentioned in previous chapter, two researchers specifically shared disagreements on Lalande's (1982) study. In

addition, Truscott received criticism from Ferris (1999) in exaggerating that error correction is ineffictive through one study: Kepner (1991). The study did not involve revision of errors but journal writing as a medium of correction is a standard part of writing classes. Thus, the reason why Truscott emphasized specifically on this study is due to the fact that Kepner's (1991) study explicitly questions the role of grammar correction in writing classes. Besides, Truscott's argument about the ineffectiveness of error correction is derived from many different studies that form a general pattern. This means that as a part of a general conception, Truscott (1999) reviewed Kepner's (1991) study in detail.

To conclude, Truscott (1999) supports that although the ongoing debate in practicing error correction or not seems to have no end, teachers must be alert and make decisions accordingly as they have autonomy in classroom practices. Teachers should compare the cases for and against error correction, determine which case is superior than the other, and take action in their teaching practices. Even if Ferris (1999) apporaches to Truscott'(1996) earlier arguments about grammar correction as quite threatening, and Truscott finds Ferris' (1999) counter arguments far from challenging, it is clear that the debate on error correction practices will not be limited with either one of them and continue to draw attention for many researchers.

Chandler (2003) is one of the researchers that challenges Truscott's argument about error correction. According to Chandler (2003), there are mismatches between Truscott's (1996) evaluation of research findings and the data in original studies even though the article manages to raise awareness among L2 teachers in terms of error correction. Moreover, Chandler (2003) refers to Truscott and Ferris' articles by highlighting the fact that existing data is inadequate to put an end to disagreements about the role of error correction practices in L2 writing accuracy.

By taking this into account; Chandler (2003) carried out a two-phase study in an ESL context where she initially tested whether to give error feedback or not, and if so, how error correction must be done. The experimental group was supposed to revise each assignment by correcting all the errors that were underlined by the teacher before submitting the next assignment, whereas, the control group did all of

the corrections of the underlined errors through the end of the semester. During the study, the teacher/ researcher gave both content and error feedback on the first draft of the students' assignments which were provided with a brief positive end comment for the content of the writing. The study revealed that the control group did not increase in terms of accuracy in writing as they did no error correction between assignments, whereas, the experimental group had a significant increase. While both control and experimental groups had a significiant increase in terms of fluency at the end of the semester which meant they could write the same amount and kind of text. This study underlined the fact that the students may increase the amount of writing texts only practising; however, they cannot provide accuracy in their texts without correcting errors. Thus, when students corrected their errors in advance before the next assignment, their first drafts became more accurate during semester. On the other hand, the second stage tested the effectiveness of written CF types by including four treatment groups: 1) only correction, 2) underlining with description, 3) only description, 4) only underlining. The participants revised their texts between the processes receiving feedback from the teacher and writing the next assingment. There was no significant change in writing quality during the whole semester because there were very few signs of complex structures. Whereas, the participants showed improvement in accuracy and fluency.

As a response, Truscott (2004) evaluated Chandler's (2003) two-phase study in terms of writing accuracy, quality and fluency. The first study's evaluation is centered on accuracy, while, the second one is centered on writing quality. In case of writing fluency, both studies are taken into account. In the first study, experimental group received both feedback and revision and outperformed the control group that received only correction. Truscott (2004) claims this result is inadequate to support the idea that correction works because there is no correction-free control group and there might be other possible factors that provide improvement within a given time. Some studies (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998; Sheppard, 1992) indicate that correction is ineffective and harmful yet both experimental and control groups make progress due to other factors. For instance, one of these factors is known as avoidance. Students in both groups may have tendency to avoid certain constructions, which are problematic for students to use correctly, to eliminate the number of total errors.

This results in hampering improvement of writing ability along with shortening and simplifying their writing.

Truscott (2004) assumes this is what happened in Chandler's (2003) study because the experimental group spent extra effort on each error and this extra attention led to avoidance. Apart from that, Truscott (2004) evaluates the study results to focus on other factors. Even if Chandler (2003) states there is a significant distinction in writing amounts for both groups, Truscott refutes this argument by adding that the control group declined in accuracy unlike the experimental group. The fact that the genre of writing is only based on autobiographical writing and the ESL students get inadequate amount of input in English resulted in students' lack of improvement. To sum up, Truscott (2004) states correction and revision group's successful performance in the study does not prove the effectiveness of treatment. This study does not have a correction-free control group to make proper comparisons yet it is clear that experimental and even more control groups are adversely affected on correction treatment.

For the second study, Truscott (2004) took overall writing quality into account. When first and last assignments were compared on statistical terms, Chandler (2003) claims that correction had no negative impact on students' overall writing because of the progress they made. However; the study is deprived of an actual comparison group, a no-correction control group in this case. As a result, Truscott states this argument is nothing but mere hypothesis. Compared to first study, there was a more certain difference between experimental and groups on statistical terms. These significant changes were likely to be resulted from the ESL context of the study and practicing on one specific genre by means of practice and exposure. As Truscott (2004) claims the study must have succeeded remarkably if the study was free from negative impacts. However; as it is stated earlier, the participants' success in writing quality is quite insignificant when it is compared to writing accuracy and fluency. Even more there were very few uses of complex structures that leads to Truscott's previous argument about avoidance.

Lastly, Truscott (2004) discussed the matter of fluency under two concepts: the general definition which refers to the amount of writing students do, and the alternative definition which refers to the amount of time that takes students to write

a certain number of words. When the first definition is regarded, it is indicated that corrected students write less. Similarly, the alternative definition that received its meaning in the study context revealed that participants in both follow-up studies had lack of fluency. Truscott (2004) attributes this result to avoidance which was mentioned earlier. It is inferred that simple writing takes less amount of time than more complex writing because students write less amount of words to avoid errors and simplify their texts. According to Truscott, this result is related with previous studies (Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992) and proves that corrected students simplify their writings.

Truscott concludes the article by criticizing Chandler's (2003) arguments about previous studies that she presented both for and against error correction. Firstly, in case of supporting error correction, Truscott (2004) finds Chandler's arguments quite superficial due to the methodological drawbacks of previous studies such as lack of a control group and testing the effects of correction only on assignments. Secondly, Chandler challenged Truscott's (1996) negative attitude towards error correction by responding to Truscott's evidence against the case of error correction (Kepner, 1991; Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998; Sheppard, 1992). Although Chandler (2003) evaluates these study results, Truscott states that Chandler's review is far from being coherent and she falls short to deter him from the fact that correction is a bad idea. Even more Truscott addes; when revision is combined with correction that results in either equal performance or success, corrrection is nothing but a waste of time. In addition, Truscott responds to Chandler's article where she referred to ongoing debate between Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999). Truscott clarifies the fact that he is not actually opposed to error correction but grammar correction instead.

In this section, discussions between Truscott, Ferris and Chandler in case of error correction were given in order to find out an answer to the actual question whether error feedback helps L2 student writers or not. Although a great number of studies were conducted to come up with an answer, Ferris (2004) states that almost no progress is made and the study field got stuck in the starting point due to inconclusive study findings. Therefore, Ferris took part in both primary and secondary research studies with the aim of highlighting current and prospective issues about error correction.

As well as keeping track of recent studies that were conducted after Truscott's article, Ferris (2004) re-examined both the studies that Truscott (1996) had reviewed and overlooked to support his arguments. As it is mentioned earlier, Ferris (2004) still holds her argument that previous studies are far from being comparable because these studies don't follow the same study design. Ferris indicates the problem by comparing the methodological designs of oftenly-cited studies that Truscott also provides as an evidence to his argument (Kepner, 1991; Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). Even though the studies are comparable in terms of length of time, the number of participants and their characteristics as EFL learners, their methodological differences outnumber similarities. Thus, Ferris (2004) summarizes this problem as "The studies compare apples and oranges (and pears, and grapes, and nectarines…) (s. 52)". Ferris (2004) outlines the current problem in the field under two terms: 1) there are almost no controlled and longitudinal studies that respond to usefulness of error correction, 2) because of their non-systematic and inconsistent study results, previous studies miss the point in replying questions about error correction in L2 writing that leads to incomparability. By this way, Ferris refuses Truscott's (1999) earlier argument which implies replicating studies under a variety of conditions and acquiring similar results end up with generalization. Even if there is no exact conclusion from studies about effectiveness of error correction in L2 writing, it is clear that previous studies lay the ground for future studies. There are three main outcomes of these studies: 1) adult learners may need corrective feedback and explicit instruction due to risk of fossilization and dropping out of learning process, 2) to improve students' linguistic competence the role of revision must be taken into account as the students are able to correct their errors when they receive feedback on their written errors and outperform the ones who receive no feedback, 3) if students don't receive feedback on their errors, they will get frustrated about the process and take less action to improve their writing.

Ferris (2004) claims in L2 student writing, the number of studies that compare the effects of different methods of error correction with one another outnumber the ones that compare the presence versus absence of correction. The reason lies behind the fact that most teachers feel that they have an ethical dilemma. Even more; until it is certain that error feedback is harmful for students and not helpful at

all, the teachers will believe that withholding it from students only for research purposes is not fair. Besides, the absence of feedback is likely to lead to students' objection and loss of self-confidence. Also, many teachers will have trouble in conducting "correction" versus "no correction" studies due to institution policies in their schools. By taking this all into consideration, Ferris (2004) states controlled longitudinal studies must take place to find out the role of error correction in improving students' written accuracy over time. Even if researchers and teachers are hesistant in conducting studies due to methodological and ethical concerns, they must create new approaches to unreveal problems in error correction practices. Ferris (2004) outlines the criteria for further studies: 1) specifying learners and their characteristics, 2) specifying which errors are corrected what is referred by error, 3) carrying out treatments consistently, 4) counting and analyzing errors, or revisions and edits, if any. When these criteria are provided, it is believed that future studies can be replicated in different contexts.

Therefore, Ferris (2004) encourages teachers to continue their studies to fill the gap and create additional questions rather than waiting for a precise answer from researchers. Ferris summarizes her suggestions about error correction in three ways. Initially, teachers must be prepared and well-organized while correcting students' errors as error correction is inevitable in L2 writing instruction. Teachers may be in need of educating themselves and transferring that to their students by means of focused mini-lessons about certain grammar points and editing strategies. Secondly, teachers must take students' needs, background, and instructional context into account before correction. Teachers must be cautious about not discouraging students and make their decisions carefully. They should keep in mind that there are more than one way of correcting errors that ranges from teacher-interfered direct feedback to problem-solving based indirect feedback. Thirdly, students should be aware of the importance of linguistic accuracy and editing skills. Apart from error correction, students may need additional grammar instruction and strategy training. In order to get involved in editing as a part of problem-solving process, students will need practice, responsibiltiy and opportunity. Lastly, Ferris (2004) concludes despite being inconclusive, previous study findings with a great range of methodology design indicate error correction in L2 writing cannot be underestimated. Thus, further studies are needed and researchers should not deter

themselves from investigating the role of error correction and comparing with one another.

All in all, this section discusses whether error correction is needed or not in L2 writing that centers around the arguments for and against error correction. In general, Truscott opposes error correction practices, which is grammar correction on his terms, and Ferris claims correction practices are required. Their arguments were supported by previously conducted studies that provide evidence for and against error correction. Even though these studies fall short to come up with an accurate answer for the question “Should We Use Corrective Feedback At All?”, it can be inferred that future studies will take place by eliminating methodological problems that caused in generalization. The next section presents previous studies in the field about teachers and students’ preferences in corrective feedback practices. Initially, these preferences will be indicated seperately then comparative studies will be introduced.

Student and Teacher Preferences in L2 Writing

As it is made clear before, the question of whether error correction works in L2 writing or not is still inconclusive and open to debate. The main reason lies behind the fact that there are both methodological and ethical concerns that prevent researchers from any kind of generalizations (Ferris D. , 2004; Guenette, 2007). Despite current studies are hard to be comparable among each other, there are still a great amount of studies that are enough to lead to further studies. Thus, it is likely to assume that the main question about the effectiveness of corrective feedback can be answered only when practitioners strike at it precisely instead of wandering around it. Apart from the main question in L2 writing field; when both participants (teachers and students) of error correction practices are considered, how learners actually react to their teachers’ feedback has received little attention (Diab, 2005; Enginarlar, 1993; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011; Sakallı, 2007; Uzel, 1995). In addition, teachers’ preferences in use of corrective feedback techniques and to what extend they are comparable with those of students still remain undiscovered (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Atmaca, 2016; Diab, 2006; Ferris et al., 1997; Jodaie et al., 2011; Lee, 2003; Najmaddin, 2010; Yılmaz, 1996; Zamel, 1985). Because of

that, this section presents students and teachers' preferences in error correction process in detail.

Diab (2006) investigated EFL university instructors' preferences for error correction, paper marking techniques and their beliefs about the criteria for effective feedback in writing. The study takes place in Lebanese EFL context with 14 female instructors and 156 students. The study reveals that in terms of error correction and paper marking, students and instructors share certain differences. These differences are also common among instructors such as correcting grammar, spelling, punctuation errors in their writings specifically in first drafts. At the end, it is recommended for teachers to have discussions about feedback, error correction and writing to clarify certain points about reasons and effects of using feedback. Also, teachers are advised to be aware of their own beliefs about error correction and feedback to student writing.

Unlike most of the studies that take place in universities, Jodaie et al. (2011) conducted a comparative study with 30 EFL teachers and 100 intermediate high school level students. The study aimed to figure out participants' perceptions of written corrective feedback on grammatical errors. In addition, the participants were expected to specify the reasons why they chose comprehensive or selective feedback and why they prefered some feedback strategies over some others. The study findings indicate that both participants share certain similarities and differences. Both teachers and students give importance to grammatical accuracy and agree on four main points: eliminating all grammar errors, using comprehensive feedback, accepting direct feedback as the best correction technique, and neglecting indirect prompting of error location. Whereas, teachers and students have different ideas about two main points: when to correct grammatical errors and the students' attention in error correction practises. Lastly, another issue to consider in this study is the requirements of language institutes as what they want from teachers may not be effective in practise. It is suggested that teachers must be provided with opportunities to gain autonomy and decide on their own actions in feedback practises.

For instance, Armhein and Nassaji (2010) carried out a study to find out how ESL students and teachers approach to the effectiveness of different types and

amounts of WCF along with the reasons for using them. Collected data from 31 ESL teachers and 33 ESL students revealed that the participants have both agreements and certain disagreements in WCF practises. This study underlines that teachers and students must discuss the purpose and role of WCF and compromise on their expectations to get use of corrective feedback.

There are some studies that compare student and teacher preferences in use of corrective feedback in ESL contexts; on the other hand, the amount of studies that take place in Turkish EFL contexts are quite limited. By implementing the same research instruments, Atmaca (2016) investigated similarities and differences between teachers and students in terms of amount and type of written CF in Turkish EFL context. Both participants agree feedback must be provided to improve students' linguistic knowledge; however, personal comments on written texts should be disregarded as it may be offensive for students. Considering that students will become ELT professionals, both teachers and students prioritize acquiring high proficiency levels. On the other hand, there are many differences between both groups. Some students expect their teachers to mark all errors to not to repeat them, whereas, some of them don't prefer teachers' intervention in the process. The ones that reject correction ask for an autonomous/guiding teaching style and regard teacher as a facilitator. Similar to students, the teachers are tied between correcting all errors to prevent future errors and selecting errors that only hinder communication. Lastly, it is suggested for teachers that they should give instructions beforehand about which type of feedback will be used. This will enable learners to be conscious during the process and appreciate the use of feedback in the long term.

Yılmaz (1996) carried out a study with the same purpose as Atmaca (2016) in Turkish EFL context. The study involved 16 teachers and 30 students by pointing out both similarities and differences in the use of error correction techniques. The findings revealed that both teachers and students pay attention to the role of error correction in writing and focus primarily on grammar errors. However, there is a disagreement about the amount of errors to be corrected. Students expect their teachers to correct all errors and cannot tolerate absence of feedback while teachers claim their correction practice is depended on students' proficiency and the amount of time they have. Besides, students want to receive direct corrective

feedback that includes crossing out the wrong form and providing correct one. Whereas teachers tend to use indirect corrective feedback by using correction codes rather than direct forms. To deal with differences in error correction, it is suggested for teachers to detect students' preferences in advance and arrange corrective feedback practices accordingly.

Students' preferences in L2 writing. There are two studies in EFL context that follow the similar aims and come up with similar results (Diab, 2005; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011). Both studies investigated which factors determine students' beliefs and preferences for teachers' written feedback and marking techniques. In addition, both studies revealed that students want their teachers to pay attention to every single error as they considered their teachers as source of authority. Whereas, there are a few different study outcomes. For instance, Diab (2005) found that students were concerned about writing accuracy, therefore, they want their teachers to correct surface-level errors and comment on the writing style and content. In terms of pointing out errors, most students prefer indirect correction technique on first drafts that shows the location of error and gives a clue about how to correct it, whereas, they prefer direct correction technique on final drafts that crosses out an error and provides the correct form. Mahfoodh and Pandian's (2011) case study with eight EFL students indicated that the students held both positive and negative affective reactions to their teachers' written feedback. Though students care about error correction and receiving praises on their works, seeing their papers with full of marking with red pen, circling, comments makes them feel frustrated especially when this results from miscommunication between them and teachers. It can be inferred that students' reactions and perceptions of their teachers' written feedback depend on the way how teachers put their words together as clearly as possible while giving feedback.

Studies about students' preferences of written corrective feedback practices take place in Turkish EFL context, as well. Enginarlar (1993) conducted his study to shed light on students' reaction to various types of feedback. To do so, 47 freshman students' attitudes towards feedback procedure were investigated by means of a questionnaire. The research instrument was based on 20-item questionnaire that included both close-ended and open-ended items. The study indicated that the students favored feedback procedure and considered it as co-operative learning that

enabled students and teachers to share responsibilities. The students rated feedback procedure as useful, didactic, necessary and interesting on high amounts. Similarly, Sakallı (2007) investigated how students' corrective feedback preferences develop and evolve over time. After students' initial preferences before being exposed to teacher correction were figured out, then teachers' feedback styles were determined. Whether students had any kind of changes in their preferences were studied for ten weeks. The study indicated that student preferences changed over time from direct feedback to indirect feedback correction. This alteration is not only due to their teachers' correction styles as students' developed self-awareness in L2 writing process has a greater role in this study. Students demanded more indirect feedback by claiming that they made progress in L2 writing. Therefore, it is advised for teachers to keep track on their correction practices according to students' needs and proficiency.

In Uzel's (1995) study, 120 first-year university students and 23 teachers participated by means of questionnaire designs and interviews. Initially, the study indicated that students want to receive both written and oral feedback to clarify written comments. When compared to teachers' assumptions, there are some mismatches with student reactions. In contrast to teachers' assumptions, the rate of the students that use teachers' correction was quite low during revision. Students felt that they didn't need to revise their texts because they couldn't understand what teacher commentaries referred to. Even if teachers believed they gave explicit and specific comments, the students had difficulty in interpreting them. This resulted from either they were unaware of using broad comments or they didn't know how to use text-specific and explanatory comments. Therefore, it is advised that workshops can be utilized to solve miscommunication problems between students and teachers on a written text and students' concerns about L2 writing improvement will be eliminated.

Teachers' preferences in L2 writing. Teachers' comments on writing and their preferences in using corrective feedback types are indispensible criteria on L2 writing studies as teachers are the main source of error correction although in recent years the power of error correction is distributed among peer feedback, writing workshops, oral conferences (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Which corrective feedback types were used by teachers and how they affected study results were previously

discussed. However, teachers' beliefs and preferences must be studied in detail to understand the reasons behind practice.

By taking this into consideration, Ferris (2014) investigated how teachers approach to students' responses, why they they do it, and how they feel about their practice. The study included 129 teacher surveys and 23 interviews to discover teachers' philosophies that were scarcely studied. Initially, there were certain matches with philosophy and practice as teachers provided combination of form-focused and content feedback, they used both marginal and endnotes on the texts, and they suggested students to revise their texts instead of simply marking what was wrong. Whereas, the study revealed that there were mismatches between teachers' philosophy and practice. To illustrate; they focus less on content but more on form, they used generally imperatives and statements rather than questions, their comments were less clear than they assumed, they provide less amount of feedback for stronger writers but teachers were not able to push students to the next level. Thus, it is suggested for teachers to keep an eye on what students do after receiving feedback and their response strategies as in some cases they were in need of adjustments.

In order to find out to what extend teachers' beliefs reflect their WCF practices, Lee (2009) gathered data from two studies and detected certain mismatches. It is stated that some of teachers' actions in error correction are related to institution policies. To illustrate, teachers recognize that good writing does not only involve grammar correction but also organization and ideas, as well. It is common among teachers to focus on accuracy, fluency, vocabulary for examination purposes. This causes dilemma for teachers between their belief and practice that is mentioned earlier by Zamel (1985). Morever, teachers claimed that they intend to use selective marking rather than comprehensive marking as it requires precise attention specificially for weaker writers. However, school policy interferes with the process by asking teachers to correct all errors in a text. Teachers also add that the situation is hard to change due to environmental factors such as teachers, students, and parents. Contrary to general assumption, teachers also have little faith in grades/scores. They believe that scores/grades have an adverse effect on students because students ignore written comments as a result. Written feedback has a summative function so teachers inevitably use scores and grades.

Another institution-related problem is teachers' dissatisfaction with their own practice despite the great amount of time they spent on marking students' writings. Lee (2003) conducted a study to understand L2 teachers' perspectives, practices and problems in error feedback. It was found that teachers were in need of assisstance to deal with the load of work. Teachers thought that their efforts have no remarkable impact on students' L2 writing development. It is clear that there is another mismatch between teachers' persistancy in error correction and loss of time and effort during the process (Lee, 2009). As a result, it is advised for teachers to be more open in testing alternative ways and have a reflective attitude despite school policy's interventions.

Besides institutional problems, there are other variables to consider such as year of experience, educational background, pre-service apprenticeship, in-service teacher education must be taken into account while studying teachers' corrective feedback practices. Initially, there are studies that aim to figure out to what extend novice and experienced teachers' practices, beliefs and attitudes towards students' L2 writing errors differ from each other. For instance, Zan and Yiğitoğlu (2018) investigated two ESL teachers with differing years of experience. The novice teacher had only two months of experience, whereas, the experienced teacher had more than twenty years of experience with a great range of contexts, proficiency levels and language skills in teaching. According to study results, the novice and experienced teacher have similarities and differences in their written feedback practises. To illustrate, both of the teachers value written feedback as it improves students' proficiency and accuracy in writing. Also, these teachers believe that written feedback is a medium of individualized communication that cannot be provided every day in classroom practises. In terms of sharing roles in writing process, these teachers agree on the effectiveness of their practises, they even believe students must be blamed for their failure as the teachers take no responsibility. Although they have different motives, both teachers prefer comprehensive corrective feedback and use error correction codes. This means that teachers' priority is to correct grammatical errors rather than content and organization errors.

On the other hand, their differences in error correction outnumber similarities. Their perceptions about the function of written feedback differ from each other

because the experienced teacher regards it as a tool for exam but the novice teacher favors it as a tool to promote authenticity and communication. Experienced teacher believes that the students must prove their competency by using grammar structures due to the amount of practise they receive. Unlikely, novice teacher believes that her written feedback is quite artificial and far from encouraging and she accuses school policies for demanding grammatical error correction. As novice teacher states that requirements of the institution has a great impact on teachers' practises that results in not following their own principles in error correction. Lastly, experienced teacher has more autonomy in using error correction codes compared to novice teacher and does not stick with the error correction codes that provided by school.

Therefore, it can be deduced that there is limited information about the way EFL teachers are educated to teach L2 writing. Even though many studies focus on the needs of students in L2 writing process, the attention must be directed to EFL teachers in order to figure out their gaps in theory and how L2 writing education can alter teachers' attitudes and practises. As Zan and Yiğitoğlu (2018) stated both novice and experienced teachers have concerns about not receiving proper education in using written feedback on practical terms. To come up with their own feedback practises, experienced teacher favors her methodology books back from her pre-service education. Whereas, novice teacher favors her previous teachers' feedback on her own work to guide herself in written corrective feedback practises. It can be inferred that as well as its theoretical background, pre-service education programmes must include the ways and practises in applying written corrective feedback.

Among all the factors, pre-service education plays a critical role in teachers' correction practices. However, when teachers' educational process is considered there are certain problems to discuss. One of these problems is related with teachers' apprenticeship. Unlike other professions, pre-service teachers have a passive role in selecting goals, making preparations, or post-observation analyses. Therefore, pre-service teachers are not aware of the fact that one day they would replace these teachers in educational contexts and potentially take similar actions. As a result, pre-service teachers acquire a teaching model in a traditional way that refers to intaking an observed action without testing its reliability and validity in

another context. In return, this model is likely to provide student teachers with a collection of impractical options. It can be inferred that these teaching behaviours must not be left undiscovered in order to provide a teaching model that is based on facts and objectivity rather than feelings. The problems in pre-service teaching period point out that teacher education courses have a slight impact on student teachers. Once novice teachers start to teach, this inaccurate model may limit their actions and hinder existance of their true identity. In the end, it is inevitable for these teachers to find themselves in the middle of an endless loop where they try to get away from traditional model yet stick to it due to lack of experience (Borg, 2004).

In Hochstetler's (2007) case study, each informant from three different teacher educational programmes were interviewed to figure out how pre-service secondary English teachers were taught to teach writing. How assumptions or theories of professional development shape teachers' mind in teaching writing is determined under three approaches: 1) directing to resources that guides student teachers to related texts to conduct their own ideas, 2) survival format that prioritizes basic teaching skills such as creating and assessing assignments instead of the ways of teaching writing, 3) becoming writers that turns teachers into writers and centers the essence of learning around writing. It is found that each course generally follows one approach; however, there are some overlaps between approaches. To illustrate; first informant's institution is tied between becoming writers theory and survival theory, second one's integrated all three theories of professional development. The last one's includes both directing to resources and survival theory. In addition, these three approaches are attributed to course syllabi that teacher education institutions follow. The first institution adapts survival approach, the second institution involves both survival and becoming writers approaches, and the last institution combines both directing to resources and survival approaches. The study indicates that these assumptions/ theories in professional development courses seem to include limited instruction in the teaching of writing. It is also found there are many factors to determine concept of the course such as institution size, population of students, background of instructors and administration. Therefore, it is advised that upcoming studies should be centered around outside factors beyond classroom to figure out how writing is taught to student teachers.

A case study by Lee (2010) investigates four teachers' perspectives on their own development as writing teachers at the end of an in-service writing teacher education program. The four participants are all MA students in ELT program and have a range of teaching experience from 5 years at least to 15 years at most. The teachers' interest in writing is generally limited within professional context such as writing commentary on student writing and writing pedagogical materials. Teachers' reflection on their pedagogical knowledge development, their own practise and the nature of writing are revealed by means of interviews and classroom research data. At the very beginning, these teachers' practise in teaching writing was limited with giving priority to grammatical error correction, applying error correction techniques that they have received before by their tutors, and following school policy requirements for error correction and curriculum. However, the teachers move to issues of students' writing development by prioritising pre-writing activities and implementing genre pedagogy.

According to Lee (2010), it can be deduced that writing teacher education has a role in EFL teachers' development and all four teachers broaden their perspectives on teaching writing. Based on these results, there are some suggestions for further implications. To start with, teacher educators must enable teachers to develop a critical approach towards traditional practises, and set their own goals, practises and contexts. During in-service teacher education, teachers must be encouraged to conduct classroom-based research to develop their teaching strategies in certain areas that they are interested. By this way, the teachers will be able to test the efficiency of their beliefs and practises. Secondly, it is stated that a balance between idealism and realism during L2 writing instruction is one of the key components in EFL contexts. Teachers are likely to have an optimistic and idealistic view towards writing practises, especially before practicum. Whereas, this idealistic approach loses its validity after the teachers encounter many difficulties of L2 writing in their classrooms. Therefore, teachers must receive writing teacher education to cope with these challenges and figure out solutions with their colleagues and related communities. Lastly, it is emphasized that writing teacher education enables teachers to reconstruct their perspective towards L2 writing teaching from a mere grammar and vocabulary practise to a process that involves students and introduces

them issues of writing such as genre, purpose, audience and context. As a result, the teachers acquire new identities as writing teachers.

To conclude, this section discusses teachers' correction practices as the main source of assessment in L2 writing. As Ferris (2014) stated the reasons behind teachers' characteristic differences were either from teachers' educational background, the ideas they received from their colleagues, and the year of experience. Along with that, teachers' problems and how their preferences are shaped by environmental factors such are provided in detail. Overall the main aim in this section is to prioritize both L2 writer and assessors' corrective feedback practices as two sides of a coin with the purpose of revealing philosophy behind practice.

All in all, the literature review section evolved from the starting point of defining error and error analysis approaches to corrective feedback types and to what extend they are effective in L2 writing. Then students and teachers' preferences in using corrective feedback practices were discussed as they are transmitters and receivers of a specific message through written text. As it is mentioned beforehand, the number of studies to make accurate generalizations about superiority of one CF type and whether there are mismatches between students and teachers' preferences are still inconclusive. Even though there are both quantitative and qualitative approach studies that investigate student and teacher preferences individually, very few of them managed to reveal similarities and differences between teachers and students' responses. Therefore, this study aims to fill the gap in literature by taking variables such as age, gender, educational background, year of experience into account. In the end, it is intended to eliminate communication-related problems between student and teacher in L2 writing context.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter lays the ground for methodology by defining its theoretical framework, the context of study, profile of participants, research instruments and the procedure for data collection and analysis process. Also, the researcher justifies the reason behind the urgency of implementing mixed-method approach for this study. The study aims to investigate similarities and differences between teachers and students in terms of using written corrective feedback types, therefore, the procedure of data collection and the role of research instruments are explained to outline the study process. Lastly, this section presents key variables for the study and the way of analyzing quantitative and qualitative data.

Theoretical Framework

The study will be based on both quantitative and qualitative approaches due to the fact that the researcher intends to provide internal validity. To do so, the researcher will initially follow quantitative approach and collect data from teachers and students by means of questionnaires that were modified for each group. By this way, the researcher will be able to figure out students' and teachers' preferences in receiving and giving written corrective feedback. Due to the fact that the research design is based on both quantitative and qualitative paradigm, both approaches must be elaborated in detail. To start with, quantitative approach is the numerical representation and manipulation of observations that aims to describe and explain the phenomena that those observations reflect. Quantitative approach is practical for both natural and social sciences and it can take place in many study fields from physics to sociology (Sukamolson, 1996). The main purpose of quantitative approach is to make general assumptions and predicting the outcome of the research by means of hypothesis testing. In order to do that, quantitative studies intend to either confirm or deny a hypothesis by analysing the pieces. The quantitative approach has standardized data collection instruments and the collected data is analyzed statistically. Lastly, in terms of the role of the researcher, the quantitative studies exclude the researcher from the data collection which makes him quite impartial and objective (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016). On the other hand, qualitative approach is used when culturally specific information about the values,

opinions, behaviours, and social contexts of particular populations is supposed to be derived. In other words, qualitative approach provides information about the human side of the issue which are likely to be contradictory behaviours, beliefs, opinions, emotions, and relationships of individuals (Family Health International , 2005). The main of qualitative approach is to generate hypothesis by discovering patterns in the data. In qualitative approach, the researcher is the main instrument for data collection and the collected data is analyzed and interpreted by the researcher. The analysis is described within the study and interpretation is one of the key purposes. Unlike quantitative approach, qualitative approach includes the researcher in data collection process which makes him subjective and sympathetic (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016).

When these two approaches are elaborated and compared, with no doubt it can be inferred that these is a need for applying another approach which is mixed-method approach. According to researchers, it is clear to understand that both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their own pros and cons while conducting studies. On basic terms, quantitative studies are generally based on statistical results that can be received in a short time from a high amount of people. However, the researcher is excluded from data analysis process and leaves no space for researchers' own interpretation. Similarly, qualitative studies include researcher during data collection process and the data analysis process concludes by generation of hypothesis. Whereas, the researcher's role is quite subjective in qualitative studies, so the objectivity of the study is likely to be debatable. Taking all these elements into account, it can be understood that the need for mixed-method approach is quite inevitable. Creswell defines mixed-method approach as "A mixed method study is one in which the researcher incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis in a single study (1999, s. 455)". It can be deduced that mixed method studies enables researcher to attain complex phenomena by means of numbers, charts and basic statistical analyses. The term mixing attributes to an umbrella term that includes the multifunctional procedures of combining, integrating, linking and employing multimethods. While conducting mixed-method studies, the researcher is expected to use at least one quantitative method and one qualitative method in order to collect, analyze and report findings in a study. There are many reasons for using mixed method research and one of

the most critical one is triangulation. Through triangulation different methods that were administered independantly could uncover some unique variance. Because that unique variance is likely to be neglected by a single method (Creswell, 1999). Therefore, in order to compensate for gaps of each approach, mixed-method study is more applicable for the purpose of this study.

Setting and Participants

Data collection process will be carried out by the researcher herself who worked at Başkent University School of Foreign Languages as a part-time instructor in 2019 Fall term. This study includes both English Preparatory Unit teachers and students as participants, therefore, the researcher applies to more than one institution to reach required number of participants. Firstly, the resercher applies to Başkent University School of Foreign Languages in Ankara which is based on six units: 1) English Preparatory Unit, 2) Academic English Unit, 3) Modern Languages Unit, 4) Program Development Unit, 5) Testing Services, 6) Teacher Training and Development Unit. Among all these units, the study will include English Preparatory Unit teachers and students. Even if there seems to be six distinctive units, some teachers at English Preparatory Unit have additional duties at Program Development Unit, Testing Services, Teacher Training and Development Units and Administration apart from their weekly class hours. English Preparatory Education lasts for a year by involving both Fall and Spring semesters. If the students meet requirements at the end of the semester, the students with beginner-level proficiency are able to register intermediate classes. Otherwise, the students have to repeat the same course in Spring term. During face to face education, the students attended twenty four class hours in a week at Başkent University. In most of the classes, there were at least two instructors that were assigned to carry out the curriculum by taking turns. As well as full-time teachers, the English Preparatory Unit included part-time instructors that had less amount of class hours compared to full-time instructors. As data collection process of the study takes place during COVID-19 pandemic, the researcher has to turn paper printed questionnaires into online forms and send them via email. This situation led the researcher to get into contact with other universities including Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit University and Middle East Technical University. Respectively, the researcher send the required documents and research instruments to Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit University School

of Foreing Languages where English Preparatory Education lasts for a year. The classes are designed for students' proficiency levels that range from A1 to A2, whereas, there are a few B1 classes which were spared for English Language Literature students. After discussions with the school administration, the link to online questionnaire are send to teachers then they share the link with their students. Thirdly, the researcher contact with Middle East Technical University School of Foreign Languages to increase the number of participants. However, the researcher only sends the students' questionnaire as the teachers' study has been completed beforehand. Moreover, the researcher send both teacher and students' online forms individually to her collegues from various English Preparatory Units in Turkey. In brief, this study involves participants from different institutions which is likely to provide diversity both in quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore it can be inferred that the selection of participants is based on random sampling. In total, the number of the participants are fifty instructors and fifty students for quantitative process. While the interview sessions are carried out with ten instructors which are seven female and three male instructors.

Procedure for Data Collection Process

As a result of distance education, the whole data collection process was carrried out online and directly affected the duration of the study. In total, it took two months to collect data from both students and teachers. To illustrate, part-time instructors are included in the study in addition to full-time instructors because instructors' educational background and year of experience are taken into account. Along with filling questionnaires, some of the part-time instructors also joined semi-structured interview sessions. Before conducting questionnaires and interview sessions, the researcher added a consent form both for teachers and students to get their confirmation. Specifically it was highlighted in the consent form for the students that students' responses will have no effect on their grades. During the study, the researcher didn't have a class of her own which enabled researcher to be more objective and the students gave more realistic answers. In terms of completing questionnaires the researcher designed the forms at the most practical way to not to take too much time of the participants. When compared to Armhein and Nassaji's (2010) study, both teachers and students had unlimited time to complete their questionnaires yet both groups completed the questionnaires in less than thirty

minutes. Whereas in this case, the participants were expected to complete the questionnaire once they get access to the related link. The researcher estimated that completing the questionnaires both for teachers and students would take no more than 20 minutes. However, external factors such as participants' access to link or L2 proficiency to understand each statement might have affected the time that participants spent on questionnaires.

After conducting questionnaires, the researcher conducted interviews with 10 instructors to collect qualitative data. Even though the researcher aimed to involve students as well, the researcher managed to reach out only instructors. Due to the fact that fewer students were able to participate during distance education, most of the instructors at English Preparatory Units made it clear that they were unable to reach students individually. Therefore, the researcher had to exlude students from interview sessions and only collected qualitative data from instructors. Though the first part of the study will be based on random sampling in order to refer to as many people as possible, the interview sessions were carried out with only ten instructors from different institutions. The number of participants in qualitative study is depended on accessibility of participants. Interview questions are prepared by the researcher herself. Teachers were interviewed individually via Zoom sessions and they answered nine questions in total. The researcher set 20 minutes at least for each interview session; however, the length of the sessions ranged from 21 minutes to 40 minutes. The determining factor was related with participants' academical and psychological competency during the interview session. All in all, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data in addition to analyzing took two months.

Data Collection Instruments

This study follows mixed-method approach by carrying out both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews in order to find out teachers and students' preferences in using corrective feedback. As it is stated earlier, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are utilized in this study to eliminate gaps in collected data as much as possible. Questionnaire is based on a data collection technique that involves participants' response to a form with a great amount of questions. Therefore, questionnaires are the most commonly used instruments in quantitative studies. Compared to other techniques, questionnaires seem to be

more economical in terms of time and finances which is depended on other factors such as the number of questions and participants, location of participants, ways of keeping in touch with participants, and the rate of participants' feedback (Yıldırım İ. , 2015). On the other hand, interview is a dialogue that enables the researcher to collect data from two or more people by asking questions and eliciting answers for a certain purpose. Even though questionnaires include both close-ended and open-ended items, the researcher intends to elicit more details from teachers and students about their written corrective feedback preferences. Because by means of interviews participants' intentions, interpretations, perceptions, experiences, attitudes and reactions are studied which are hard to recognize explicitly (Yıldırım İ. , 2015). To summarize, this study will rely on collected data from both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires include close-ended and open ended items and will be conducted on larger groups of participants than interviews. The reason why the researcher conducts semi-structured interviews with teachers is because of the researchers' willingness to compensate statistical data with personalized answers to interview questions. In this chapter, two research instruments are discussed in detail.

Student and teachers' questionnaires. In order to collect quantitative and qualitative data, the researcher will use two different instruments which are Amrhein and Nassaji's (2010) student and teacher questionnaire and researcher's own interview questions, respectively. Initially, both students and teachers are expected to fill out questionnaires which are designed by Armhein and Nassaji (2010) for ESL context and later used by Atmaca (2016) in Turkish EFL context. These questionnaires are designed by Armhein and Nassaji (2010) for the purpose of their study; however, the questionnaires neither have a specific name nor inlude a scale. The instrument is based on 5 items in total including both close-ended and open-ended items. To illustrate; participants are provided with enough space to give brief answers to justify their reasons for their choices at the end of questionnaire items 1, 4 and 5. By this way, the researcher will be able to elicit each participant's level of understanding about study. Items 2 and 5 are likert-scale items that participants rate effectiveness of written CF types and pointing out six error types on written text from 1 to 5. Specifically, item 3 is based on justifying reasons for each correction type

which is related with participants' previous rating on item 2. The complete forms of the questionnaires are presented in Appendix B and C.

Semi-structured interviews. The interview sessions took place and ten instructors,seven female and three male, participated in the study. The reason why interviews include less amount of participants resulted from the fact that more personalized answers would be derived thus more time could be spared on data analysis. Instructors' interviews had a semi-structured design which meaned that there was a determined roadmap for the interview yet the researcher added more questions relying on the ongoing process of the interview. In general, semi-structured interviews enable researchers to go beyond written questions with the purpose of eliciting more answers. Teacher interviews were planned to take 20 minutes on avarege for each participant by depending on their readiness to respond. The reason why interview sessions took place was because of the fact that the researcher intends to promote validity of study and increase consistency between quantitative and qualitative data. By using two different instruments, the researcher believes that the objectivity of quantitative data and subjectivity of qualitative data will be integrated. The semi-structured interview questions for teachers are presented in Appendix D.

Data Analysis Methods

As it is stated before, this study integrates both quantitative and qualitative data in order to investigate students and teachers' preferences in written corrective feedback. The first stage of the study involves conducting questionnaires on teachers and students. Both questionnaires are taken from Armhein and Nassaji's (2010) study and their consent is received beforehand. Teachers and students are provided with the same questionnaries that are slightly adapted to both groups in terms of instructions on the questionnaire items. There is only one extra item at the end of the students' questionnaire that asks students to specify an error type other than the rest of six error types. In order not to come across any problems in comparison, this item is omitted from the students' questionnaire. Both close-ended and open-ended items are expected to provide reliability during quantitative data analysis process. The same questionnaires were carried out in Turkish EFL context by Atmaca (2016). Her study indicated that the questionnaires had high level of

reliability which makes the instrument more preferable for this study. The researcher believes that the instrument's use in Turkish EFL context beforehand will be advantageous for the study. Even though the whole quantitative analysis process is completed via SPSS 26, participants' open-ended statements and their ranking on multiple-scale and likert scale items are analyzed differently. The researcher uses descriptive analysis in order to investigate participants' demographic background and frequency of responses to multiple and likert-scale items one by one. Further analyses take place according to the results of Normality Tests. As a result of the Normality Tests that are used for each likert-scale item in questionnaire items 2 and 5, non- parametric tests are found to be useful for analyzing students and teachers' data. Chi Square test for independence, which is used to find out the relation between two categorical variables, is used for the purpose of this study. "Chi Square test for independence compares the observed frequencies or proportion of cases that occur in each of the categories with the values that would be expected if there was no association between the two variables being measured (Pallant, 2011, s. 217)". In this study, the researcher makes use of Chi-Square tests mainly for comparing students and teachers' open-ended responses. In addition, students and teachers' preferences in amount of feedback and correction on a repeat error every time are compared and even gender is taken into account as the only demographic variable in Research Question 5. The other non-parametric tests are Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis test that are applied as alternatives of Independent-Sample t-tests and ANOVA test, respectively. Mann-Whitney U test is used when the responses of two independent groups are compared on a continious measure. In this case, independent variables with only two levels are used. Whereas, Kruskal Wallis tests are conducted if the independent variable has more than two levels (Pallant, 2011). Lastly, median graphs are added at the end of the tables that are found to be statistically significant ($p < \alpha$=0.05).

Furthermore, the researcher intends to conduct interview sessions with only ten instructors which was depended on participants' accessibility. Because the researcher is unable to carry out face to face interview sessions, all sessions will be conducted on a video conference programme called Zoom. The researcher will record each interview via Zoom both in video and audio files then transcribe the whole conversation by herself. The analysis of the qualitative data is based on

Thematic Analysis. As it is stated earlier at the beginning of this chapter, qualitative data analysis requires subjective interpretation of the data, therefore, Thematic Analysis is considered to be useful due to its flexibility as a method. Despite the ongoing arguments about its definition, Thematic Analysis can be briefly explained as a method that involves identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns/ themes within data. By this way, Thematic Analyses differs from other qualitative analytic methods that aim at describing pattern “across” data. Considering that thematic analysis is a step-by-step process, there are six stages that are supposed to be followed: 1) familiarizing yourself with your data, 2) generating initial codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing themes, 5) defining and naming themes, 6) producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006). By following each step, the reseacher managed to come up with six themes and assigned their respective codes. Themes including motivation, theoretical issues, institution related problems, teacher education, time/ effort and evaluation problems, and correction techniques are mentioned by referring to ten English Language instructors’ related responses.

All in all, this chapter aims to provide the required answers for methodology design. Participants, instruments, data collection and analysis processes are determined to investigate similarities and differences between teachers and students in using written corrective feedback at English Preparatory Schools. As the study involves both teachers and students, variables are designed according to the purpose of the study. Variables such as age, gender, and educational background will be considered both for teachers and students. In addition to that, students’ L2 success and teachers’ year of experience will be collected, as well. Teachers’ teaching experience in English, their undergraduate and graduate education background are demonstrated, as well. Semi-structured interviews aim at collecting more specific and personal information from teachers that they were not able to specify during filling out questionnaires. At the end, the researcher intends to provide reliability and internal validity through mixed-method approach. The desing of literature review and methodology are aimed to reflect the purpose of study and fill the gap in ELT literature in terms of comparing students and teachers’ preferences by taking into account of their demographic background in use of written corrective feedback in English Preparatory Schools.

Table 1

Data Analysis

	Research Question	Instrument	Data Collection Sample	Data Analysis	Statistical Analysis
Q1	What are students' preferences in receiving feedback?	*Questionnaire (designed for students)	*English Preparatory School students (registered students from several institutions around Turkey)	Quantitative	*Descriptive Statistics (frequency tables)
Q2	Are students' preferences related with their age,gender, success and educational background? (first year vs second and repeat students	*Questionnaire (designed for students)	*English Preparatory School students (registered students from several institutions around Turkey)	Quantitative	*Test of Normality (for likert-scale items of the questionnaire) *Chi Square Test *Mann-Whitney U Test *Kruskal Wallis Test

Q3	What are teachers' preferences in giving feedback ?	*Questionnaire (designed for teachers) *Semi-Structured Interview	*English Preparatory School Instructors (from several institutions around Turkey) *Full time and part time English Preparatory School Instructors that range in educational background and teaching experience	Quantitative Qualitative	*Descriptive Statistics (frequency tables) *Thematic Analysis
Q4	Are they related with age,gender, experience, educational background? (ELT grad vs non ELT grad)	Questionnaire (designed for teachers)	*English Preparatory School Instructors (from several institutions around Turkey)	Quantitative	*Test of Normality (for likert-scale items of the questionnaire) *Chi Square Test *Mann-Whitney U Test *Kruskal Wallis Test

Q5	Which issues are similar and different between students and teachers in terms of written corrective feedback?	*Questionnaire (designed both for students and teachers)	*English Preparatory School students (registered students from several institutions around Turkey) *English Preparatory School Instructors (from several institutions around Turkey)	Quantitative	*Test of Normality (for likert-scale items of the questionnaire) *Chi Square Test *Mann-Whitney U Test

Chapter 4

Findings

The fourth chapter presents both quantitative and qualitative study findings that were collected from both students and teachers with the purpose of comparing and contrasting their preferences in using written corrective feedback in English preparatory classes. The research instruments include two questionnaires that were conducted on both teachers and students and semi-structured interviews that were conducted with instructors. At the first stage of the study, the participants were randomly chosen for the quantitative data collection in order to get access to as many participants as possible. In total, the responses from fifty instructors and fifty English preparatory class students were determined to be appropriate for the purpose of this study. Secondly, the interview sessions were carried out via Zoom and all sessions were recorded and transcribed by the researcher. There were seven female and three male instructors that differed from each other in terms of year of teaching experience, proficiency levels and institutions. As it is highlighted in Chapter 3, the researcher aimed at intergrating quantitative and qualitative approach into this study to get more reliable responses and specified research questions accordingly.

1. What are students' preferences in receiving feedback?
2. Are students' preferences related with their age, gender, success and educational background? (first year vs second and repeat students)
3. What are teachers' preferences in giving feedback?
4. Are they related with age, gender, experience, educational background? (ELT grad vs non ELT grad)
5. Which issues are similar and different between students and teachers in terms of written corrective feedback?

Even though the researcher intended to execute questionnaires and interview sessions face to face at the beginning of the study, the researcher had to take precautions and led the whole data collection process online as a result of COVID-19 pandemic. Initially, the questionnaires were turned into online forms and more instructions were added in order to eliminate possible problems because of the absence of researcher. The questionnaires were sent to institutions and instructors

via e mail and they were expected to fill teachers' questionnaires and share students' questionnaires with their students. Then ten instructors from several institutions participated in interview sessions via Zoom and these sessions were transcribed afterwards by the researcher.

Question 1

This study intends to indicate students' and teachers' preferences in using feedback by following mixed method approach. The first research question centralizes students' responses to their preferences in receiving feedback. To do so, students' questionnaires were turned into online documents and were sent to either institutions or their instructors via e mail. Considering that the questionnaires were not conducted during face-to-face education, it is not likely to assume accurately how much time the students spent on filling questionnaires. However, it is estimated that it would have not taken no more than twenty minutes when previous studies were taken into account. The questionnaire form was originally developed for another study and adapted to this study. In order to do that, extra instructions and L1 explanations were provided to the students thus turned it into a practical form. In the end, fifty English Preparatory class students' responses were found to be useful for the purpose of this study. Students' both demographic information and responses to questionnaire items were analyzed via Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26 that provides all of the quantitative data in this study.

Descriptive statistics. By taking into account that this study is related with social sciences and the source of data collection is human beings, it is useful to indicate demographic information from participants before conducting more advanced statistical tests. Demographic Statistics are primarily used for describing the characteristics of sample and controlling if there is any violation in assumptions. After checking whether there are any missing values or not,descriptive statistics can be used to attain information about participants' demographical background and their responses to questionnaire items. To do so, frequencies and percentages are accepted during analysis and interpreted accordingly. Descriptive statistics can be used for both for categorical and continious variables; however, the interpretation of the statistics differ from each other. When categorical variables are analyzed, the

number and percentages are involved. Whereas, the analysis of continious variables include the mean, standart deviation, range of scores. In this study, the researcher aims to find out students' preferences in receiving written CF by using frequency tables in Question 1. These tables demonstrate students' responses to close-ended items in terms of numbers and percentages in addition to demographic information.

Table 2

Students' Demographic Variables

Gender, *n (%*)	
Female	22 (44.0)
Male	28 (56.0)
Age, *n (%)*	
17-20 years	41 (82.0)
21 years and above	9 (18.0)
Years of learning English, *n (%)*	
1 year or less	14 (28.0)
2-5 years	3 (6.0)
6-9 years	17 (34.0)
10-13 years	16 (32.0)
Educational Background, *n (%)*	
Anatolian High School	22 (44.0)
High School of Science	5 (10.0)
High School of Social Sciences	1 (2.0)
Religious Vocational High School	5 (10.0)
Vocational High School	2 (4.0)
Foundation High School	2 (4.0)
Private School or College	12 (24.0)
Other	1 (2.0)
Years at Preparatory School, *n (%)*	
First year	47 (94.0)
Second year/ repeat	3 (6.0)

In the online questionnaire, age groups were categorically given and the students were expected to choose the category that their ages belong. Most of the participants centered around the (1,00) group that refers to ages between 17-20. Secondly, in terms of the lenght of time in learning English, the students that have been learning English from six to nine years are more dominant than the rest of the others. As Table 2 indicates, the highest frequency belongs to the (3,00) group that represents students with six to nine years of English education. There is very little difference between the highest frequency group and the groups (4,00) and (1,00). Thirdly, the students were given eight categories to refer to the type of High School that they graduated from. When the frequencies are compared, Anatolian High School was the most chosen one whereas High School of Social Sciences and Other categories share the same place. Similar to that, both Vocational High School and Foundation High School frequencies are the same. Among all of the categories, Private School or College was the second most chosen category right after Anatolian High School. The last variable in the table indicates that a great majority of students are going to English Preparatory School for the first time.

In addition to frequency tables that demostrate statistics of demographic information, participants' responses to questionnaire items are indicated, as well. In total the questionnaire is based on five items and these items are grouped in three groups: amount of using written corrective feedback, effectiveness of written corrective feedback types, and error correction types. On account of the fact that Question 1 aims at indicating students' preferences in receiving corrective feedback, these tables present the frequencies for each grouped questionnaire item. Their relation with demographic variables will be focused on Question 2.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics about Amount of Errors that Students Should Correct

Marking all errors, *n (%)*	36 (72.0)
Marking all major errors not the minor ones, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)

Marking most of the major errors but not necessarily all of them, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Marking only a few of the major errors, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Marking only the errors that interfere communicating with your ideas, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)

According to Table 3, 72% of the students prefer all of their errors to be marked by the teacher in a writing. The second most highest group (2,00) represents 16% of the students that prefer their major errors to be corrected rather than minor ones. The lowest frequency belongs to group (4,00) that prefers only a few of major errors to be marked. Even though the first item of the questionnaire included six statements in total, none of the students responded to the “Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content”.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics about Student Responses to Correction of a Repeat Error Each Time

Yes, *n (%)*	38 (76.0)
No, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)

When the participants’ preferences in correcting a repeated error in a writing, 76% of the students prefered to receive correction every time the error occurs.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of WCF Types

	Mean ± SD	*Median (min-max)*
Clues or directions	3,94 ± 1,03825	4,00 (2,00- 5,00)
Error identification	2,96 ± 1,22824	3,00 (1,00-5,00)
Correction with comments	3,68 ± 1,11465	4,00 (1,00-5,00)
Teacher correction	2,94 ± 1,20221	3,00 (1,00-5,00)
Commentary	2,86 ± 1,16075	3,00 (1,00-5,00)
No feedback	1,62 ± 1,04764	1,00 (1,00-5,00)
Personal comments on content	2,14 ± 1,21235	2,00 (1,00-5,00)

SD: Standard deviation; Min: Minimum; Max: Maximum

When mean values are approximated, there are variables that are ranked by the students at the same scale. To illustrate, both clues or directions and correction with comments received mean value 4 that refers to “quite useful” scale. Written corrective feedback types error identification, teacher correction and commentary received mean value 3 that refers to “doesn’t matter” scale in the questionnaire. While teachers’ personal comments on the content and no use of feedback on error were considered to be “not useful” by students.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Clues or Directions

Not useful, *n (%)*	6 (12,0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	15 (30,0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	19 (38.0)

In Table 6, none of the participants chose group (1,00) that represents not useful at all/useless value. 38 % of the students consider use of clues or directions in a writing as a very useful way of correction. 30 % of the students chose the group "quite useful" which is fairly close to the "very useful" group. While 20% of the students stated their opinion on clues or directions as "doesn't matter" the least prefered one was "not useful" group.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Error Identification

Not useful at all/ very useless, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)

As Table 7 demonstrate, there is very little difference among frequencies and some of them are even the same. While the most prefered group is group (2,00) as 28 % of the students consider error identification as not a useful way of correction. The students that chose "doesn't matter" and "quite useful" options share the same frequency in the table. The two extreme groups which are "very useless" and "very useful" groups were prefered by the same percentage of students. Therefore, Table 7 shows that there are both students that consider error identification as either a very useful or very useless correction type.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics about Correction with Comments

Not useful at all/ very useless, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	20 (40.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	11 (22.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	15 (30.0)

According to Table 8, the percentage of students that have 40% of the students have a neutral attitude towards correction with comments. In addition, there is very little difference between participants that chose “very useful” and “quite useful”; however, the former is slightly higher. Groups (1,00) and (2,00) have the lowest frequencies in the table which means that in total 8% of the students chose that correction with comments is not a useful corrective feedback type.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Teacher Correction

Not useful at all / very useless, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	13 (26.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	15 (30.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)

Table 9 demostrate that participants’ responses to teacher correction as a corrective feedback type are statistically close to one another. To illustrate, students that chose “doesn’t matter” and “not useful” are highly close to each other yet the most prefered group is “doesn’t matter”. 20% of the participants regard teacher correction as “quite useful” as a technique. The participants that consider teacher correction “very useless” and “very useful” are statistically the same.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Commentary

Not useful at all/ very useless, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	16 (32.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	13 (26.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)

According to Table 10, group (3,00) that represents “doesn’t matter” value is the most prefered group among students. This means that the highest score in Table

10 is equal to students' neutral approach towards commentary as corrective feedback type. In addition, 26% of the students regard commentary as a "quite useful" correction technique which is the second most prefered group. Along with that, participants that chose "not useful" and "very useless" are statistically close to each other. Among all of the participants, only 6% of the students chose "very useful" and prefer commentary as a corrective feedback type.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics about Use of No Feedback

Not useful at all/ very useless, *n (%)*	34 (68.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)

When compared with other tables, there are noteworthy findings in Table 11. As it is indicated, a great majority of students with the highest frequency in the table consider absence of feedback as a useless corrective feedback type. Likewise, both "not useful" and "doesn't matter" groups have the same level of frequency in the table. 6% of the participants chose no use of feedback as a corrective feedback type and only 2% of the participants prefered "very useful" group. In total, participants that have negative attitude towards no use of feedback outnumber the ones that have affirmative attitude.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Personal Comment on Content

Not useful at all / very useless, *n (%)*	19 (38.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	16 (32.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	7 (14.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)

As it is demonstrated on Table 12, the most prefered group is “very useless” with 38% of the participants. The second most prefered group is “not useful” group with 32% of the participants. Similarly, the students that chose “doesn’t matter” and “quite useful” are fairly close. The lowest percentage belongs to students that chose personal comment on content as a “very useful” corrective feedback type with 6% of the students.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics about Students' Responses to Error Types for Correction

	Mean ± SD	*Median (min-max)*	
Organizational error	4,40 ± 0,78246	5,00	(3,00-5,00)
Grammatical error	4,50 ± 0,83910	5,00	(2,00-5,00)
Content idea error	4,08 ± 0,94415	4,00	(1,00-5,00)
Punctuation error	3,78 ± 1,21706	4,00	(1,00-5,00)
Spelling error	3,94 ± 1,15016	4,00	(1,00-5,00)
Vocabulary error	4,32 ± 1,03884	5,00	(1,00-5,00)

SD: Standard deviation; Min: Minimum; Max: Maximum.

Mean values indicate that all six variables center around mean value 4. It can be inferred that students find all kinds of teacher correction “quite useful”.However, the highest mean value belongs to correction on grammatical errors (*m*=4,50) whereas the lowest mean value is correction on punctuation errors (*m*=3,78).

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Organizational Errors

Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	29 (58.0)

According to Table 14, none of the participants chose groups (1,00) and (2,00) which refer to “very useless” and “not useful” values respectively. The most prefered group (5,00) means that students find their organizational errors to be

pointed out by their teachers “very useful”. 24% of the students chose “quite useful” group while 18% of the students remained neutral by choosing “doesn’t matter” group.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Grammatical Error

Not useful, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	34 (68.0)

As it is demonstrated in Table 15, there is a notable gap between the most prefered group and the least prefered one. With the 68% of the students, pointing out grammatical errors in a written work is “very useful”. 18% of the students find grammatical errors to be pointed out “quite useful” while 10% of the students chose “doesn’t matter” group. Among all participants only 4% of the students consider teachers’ pointing out grammatical errors “not useful”.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Content / Idea Error

Very useless, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	21 (42.0)

When students were asked to rank teachers’ pointing out their content or idea errors, none of the participants prefered group (2,00) which refers to “not useful”. Students that chose “doesn’t matter” and “quite useful” groups are statistically the same. There is a noteworthy gap between “very useful” and “very useless” groups. While 42% of the students consider teachers’ pointing out content or idea errors “very useful”, 2% of the students regard it “very useless”.

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Punctuation Errors

Very useless, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	18 (36.0)

In Table 17, 36% of the students chose "very useful" which means students that consider teachers' pointing out punctuation errors outnumbers the others. The second most prefered group is "quite useful" with 28% of the students. The percentage of students that chose "doesn't matter" group are twice as much as the ones in group "not useful". Among all participants, only 6% of the students regard their punctuation errors to be corrected as "very useless".

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Spelling Error

Very useless, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	11 (22.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	22 (44.0)

According to Table 18, the most prefered group is "very useful" with 44% of the students. As it is demonstrated in the table, there is very little gap between "quite useful" and "doesn't matter" groups whereas the former is slightly higher. 12% of the students consider teachers' pointing their spelling errors as "not useful" while only 2% of the students chose "very useless" group.

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Vocabulary Error

Very useless, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	11 (22.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	30 (60.0)

When students were asked to rank effectiveness of teachers' pointing out vocabulary errors, students that chose "very useful" group outnumbered the others. As it is seen in Table 19, the percentage of students that prefer vocabulary error correction "very useful" are almost three times as much as "quite useful" group. 12% of the students had neutral attitude towards vocabulary error correction. Students that chose "very useless" group are twice as many as the ones that chose "not useful" group.

To summarize, Question I provides frequency tables for each demographical variable and questionnaire item in order to investigate students' preferences in receiving feedback on statistical terms. Descriptive statistics was used to find out frequencies of each variable. Initially, overall statistics of demographic variables were presented in Table 1. Then five main questionnaire items were divided into three groups as the amount of corrected errors, effectiveness of written corrective feedback types and teachers' correction types in a writing. The frequencies tables reveal that students expect their teachers to mark all errors in a writing text, find direct feedback correction techniques such as clues or directions and correction with comments quite useful, firmly disagree with the absence of no use of feedback. Lastly, students find teachers' all correction types in a writing effective in the same amount.

Question 2

As the first research question focuses on students' preferences in receiving feedback by means of descriptive statistics frequencies analysis, the second research question aims at comparing the mean scores of two groups which are

students' demographic variables and responses to questionnaire items. This stage of the analysis involves more than frequency tables and more advanced statistical techniques will be used. Students' responses to both open and close-ended items were carried out via SPSS 26 by following different procedures. Responses to open-ended questions were coded by the researcher under common themes to make it more appropriate for statistical analysis. Whereas, the process behind analysis of likert-scale items is more complex as there are some steps to take.

Before any statistical analysis, normality for likert-scale items in the questionnaire were assessed. Due to the fact that the quantitative instrument is not designed in a full-form scale, the researcher had to control normal distribution for each of the likert-scale items one-by-one. Items that involve effectiveness of written corrective feedback types and types of errors for correction went through normality tests in order to determine which statistical techniques to use for this study.

Test of normality.

H_0: There is normal distribution among variables.

H_a: There is no normal distribution among variables.

First of all, Shapiro-Wilk test statistics is used individually on all seven variables in questionnaire item 2 to figure out whether there is normal distribution or not. Considering the fact that Sig. values of the variables have to be greater than error marjin ($p > \alpha$=0.05), there are different Sig. values among variables that are either greater or lower than error marjin. Whereas, the number of variables that have lower Sig. values ($p < \alpha$=0.05) outnumber the ones with greater Sig. values ($p > \alpha$=0.05). As a result, the hypothesis is rejected and non-parametric analyses will take place. Secondly, the last item of the questionnaire involve six variables whose effectiveness were ranked from "very useless" to "very useful". The normal distribution is determined by Shapiro-Wilk test and reveals that Sig. value is lower than error marjin ($p < \alpha$=0.05). Thus, the distribution is not suitable for normal distribution. As a result, all likert scale items will be analyzed by means of non-parametric tests.

Chi-square test. As a non-parametric technique, Chi-square test are applied when two categorical variables are supposed to be analyzed for the purpose of the

study. In these tests, the number of category for each variable may be more than two. Chi-square test either compares whether there is any relation between categorical variables or these variables are dependent on each other or not. The whole analysis is displayed on a crosstabulation table. Due to the fact that Question 2 aims at indicating the manner of relationship between students' demographic variables and responses to questionnaire items, Chi-square test is taken into account as a part of data analysis procedure. Apart from likert-scale items, there are also items that refer to amount of corrective feedback in writing correction. The items including marking errors and correcting a repeat error are regarded as categorical variables in this study. This stage of the study intends to indicate whether there is a relation with these two dependent variables and demographical variables.

Table 20

Chi Square Tests between Gender and Amount of Marking Errors

		Male	Female	Total
Marking all errors	Count	21	15	36
	% within studentsgender	42,0%	30,0%	72,0%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	4	4	8
	% within studentsgender	8,0%	8,0%	16,0%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	1	3
	% within studentsgender	4,0%	2,0%	6,0%
Marking only a few of major errors	Count	0	1	1
	% within studentsgender	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%
Marking errors that interfere with	Count	1	1	2
		2,0%		4,0%

	communicating your ideas	% within studentsgender		2,0 %	
Total		Count	28	22	50
		% within studentsgender	56%	44%	100%

A chi-square test for independence is used to understand the relation between two categorical variables which are gender and amount of marking errors in writing (item 1). The test indicates that there is a violation of expected cell size (0,44) as it is lower than 5. In the table, the Asymp. Sig. is larger than alpha value (p=0,802> α=0.05). Thus it can be concluded that the result is not significant. In brief, there is no significant relation between male and female students' preferences in amount of marking errors.

Table 21

Chi Square Test between Gender and Receiving Correction on a Repeat Error

			Male	Female	Total
	Yes	Count	22	16	38
		within studentsgender %	44,0%	32,0%	76,0%
	No	Count	6	6	12
		within studentsgender %	12,0%	12%	24,0%
Total	Count		28	22	50
	Within studentsgender %		56,0%	44,0%	100%

A chi-square test for independence is conducted to analyze relation between students' gender and receiving correction on a repeat error every time. For both variables that have two categories second line (Continuity Correction) is used. The Sig. value is larger than alpha value (p=0,883 > α=0.05), which means that there is no significant result. There is no relation between male and female students' preferences in receiving correction on a repeat error that every time it occurs.

Table 22

Chi Square Test between Students' Age Groups and Amount of Receiving Correction

			17-20 years	21 and above	Total
	Marking all errors	Count	30	6	36
		% within studentsage	60,0%	12,0%	72,0%
	Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	5	3	8
		% within studentsage	10,0%	6,0%	16,0%
	Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	3	0	3
		% within studentsage	6,0%	0,0%	6,0%
	Marking only a few of major errors	Count	1	0	1
		% within studentsage	2,0%	0,0%	2,0%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	2	0	2
		% within studentsage	4,0%	0,0 %	4,0%
Total		Count	41	9	50
		% within studentsage	82%	18,0%	100%

A chi square test is used to find out whether there is a relation between students' age groups and amount of receiving correction. Also, the first line in Table indicates that Asymp. Sig value is larger than alpha value (p=0,490 > α=0.05). Therefore, the is no relation with students' age groups and their preferences in amount of receiving correction.

Table 23

Chi Square Test between Students' Age Groups and Receiving Correction on a Repeat Error Every Time

			17-20 years	21 and above	Total
	Yes	Count	30	8	38
		within studentsage %	60,0%	16,0%	76,0%
	No	Count	11	1	12
		within studentsage %	22,0%	2,0%	24,0%
Total	Count		41	9	50
	Within studentsage %		82,0%	18,0%	100%

Due to the fact that both variables are based on two categories, "Continuity Correction" line is regarded during the analysis. The Asymp. Sig value is larger than alpha value (p=0,569 > α=0.05). The result presents that there is no significant difference between age groups that students belong and their preferences in receiving correction on a repeat error.

Table 24

Chi Square Test between Students' Years of English Education and Amount of Receiving Correction

			1 year or below	2-5 years	6-9 years	10-13 years	Total
	Marking all errors	Count	9	1	10	16	36
		% within studentsyears	18,0%	2%	20,0%	32,0%	72,0%
	Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	2	1	5	0	8
		% within studentsyears	4,0%	2%	10%	0,0%	16,0%
	Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	0	1	0	3
		% within studentsyears	4,0%	0,0%	2,0%	0,0%	6,0%
	Marking only a few of major errors	Count	1	0	0	0	1
		% within studentsyears	2,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	0	1	1	0	2
		% within studentsyears	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	0,0%	4%
Total	Count		14	3	17	16	50
		% within studentsyears	28,0%	6,0%	34%	32%	100%

A chi-square test indicates that there is a significant difference between students' years in English education and their preferences in receiving amount of correction because Sig. value is lower than the alpha value (p=,049 < α=0.05).

Table 25

Chi Square Test between Students' Years of English Education and Receiving Correction on a Repeat Error

			1 year or below	2-5 years	6-9 years	10-13 years	Total
	Yes	Count	10	1	14	13	38
		within studentyears %	20,0%	2,0%	28%	26%	76,0%
	No	Count	4	2	3	3	12
		within studentsyears %	8,0%	4,0%	6%	6,0%	24,0%
Total	Count		14	3	17	16	50
	Within studentsyears %		28,0%	6,0%	34%	32,0%	100%

According to table, Asymp. Sig value is larger than alpha value (p=0,287 > α=0.05). It can be concluded that the result is not significant. When two categorical variables are compared there is no relation with years students spent in learning English and receiving correction on a repeat error every time it occurs.

Table 26

Chi Square Test between Students' Educational Background and Amount of Receiving Correction

		Anatolian HS	HS of Science	HS of Social Sciences	Religious Vocational HS	Vocational HS	Foundation HS	Private School or Collage	Other	Total
Marking all errors	Count	16	4	1	3	1	2	8	1	36
	% within education	32,0 %	8,0%	2,0%	6,0%	2,0%	4%	16,0 %	2,0 %	72,0%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	3	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	8
	% within education	6,0%	2,0%	0,0%	4,0%	0,0%	0,0%	4,0 %	0,0 %	16,0%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
	% within education	4,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0 %	0,0%	0,0%	2,0 %	0,0 %	6,0 %
Marking only a few of major errors	Count	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	% within education	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	0,0%	0,0 %	0,0 %	2,0 %

	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
		% within education	2,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	0,0%	4,0%
Total	Count		22	5	1	5	2	2	12	1	50
	% within education		44,0%	10%	2,0%	10%	4%	4%	24%	2,0%	100%

A chi-square test is used to analyze the relation between students' high school background and amount of receiving correction in writing. The first line "Pearson Chi-Square" indicates that Sig value is greater than alpha value which means that there is no statistically significant result (p=0,349 > α=0.05).

Table 27

Chi Square Test between Students' Educational Background and Receiving Correction on a Repeat Error

		Anatolian HS	HS of Science	HS of Social Sciences	Religious Vocational HS	Vocational HS	Foundation HS	Private School or Collage	Other	Total
Yes	Count	18	2	1	4	1	2	9	1	38
	% within education	36,0%	4,0%	2,0%	8,0%	2,0%	4,0%	18,0%	2,0%	76,0%

	No	Count	4	3	0	1	1	0	3	0	12
		% within education	8,0%	6,0%	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	0,0%	6,0%	0,0%	24,0%
Total	Count		22	5	1	5	2	2	12	1	50
	% within education		44,0%	10,0%	2,0%	10,0%	4,0%	4,0%	24,0%	2,0%	100%

A chi-square test is used to analyze the relation between students' high school background and receiving correction on a repeat error. The table indicates that asymp. Sig. value is greater than alpha value which leads to no significant results (p=0,538 > α=0.05). This means that there is no significant difference between students' high school bakground and their preferences in receiving correction on a repeat error every time.

Table 28

Chi Square Test between Years at English Preparatory School and Amount of Receiving Feedback

		First year	Repeat Year	Total
Marking all errors	Count	34	2	36
	% within prepschoolyear	68,0%	4,0%	72,0%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	8	0	8
	% within prepschoolyear	16,0%	0,0%	16,0%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	1	3
	% within prepschoolyear	4,0%	2,0%	6,0%

	Marking only a few of major errors	Count	1	0	1
		% within prepschoolyear	2,0%	0,0%	2,0%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	2	0	2
		% within prepschoolyear	4,0%	0,0%	4,0%
Total		Count	47	3	50
		% within prepschoolyear	94,0%	6,0%	100,0%

The first item of questionnaire, which is related with students' preferences in amount of receiving feedback, involves more than two categories. As a result, "Pearson Chi Square" line is regarded for analysis. Sig value is larger than alpha value which means that there is no significance between years at English Preparatory School and amount of receiving feedback in writing (p=0,321 > α=0.05).

Table 29

Chi Square Test between Time at English Preparatory School and Receiving Correction on a Repeat Error

			First year	Repeat Year	Total
	Yes	Count	38	0	38
		within prepschoolyear %	76,0%	0,0%	76,0%
	No	Count	9	3	12
		within prepschoolyear %	18,0%	6,0%	24,0%
Total	Count		47	3	50
	Within prepschoolyear %		94,0%	6,0%	100%

A chi-square test is used to analyze the relation between years in English Preparatory School and receiving correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. The corrected value is (χ^2 = 6,160) and asymp. Sig value is lower than alpha value (p=0,013 < α=0,05). According to that there is a statistically significant result.

Mann-whitney u test. On general terms, Mann-Whitney U tests are accounted for non-parametric alternatives of independent-samples t-tests. In order to carry out Mann-Whitney U tests, differences between two independent groups must be analyzed on a continious measure. What differs Mann-Whitney U test from independent t-test is the fact that medians are compared instead of mean scores. Because of the normality test that has been conducted beforehand, it is determined that students' responses to likert-scale items will be analyzed by means of Mann-Whitney U test. Among demographic variables, gender, age groups and years at English Preparatory school will be involved because they have only two levels (e.g male or female, age groups of students, first year or second year). While participants' responses to effectiveness of corrective feedback types and types of errors in writing are dependable variables and Mann-Whitney U test is one of the non-parametric techniques to uncover the relation between two groups of variables.

Table 30

Effect of Gender on Students' Preferences in WCF Types

WCF types	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Sig*
Clues or Directions	Male	28	24,30	-,687	,492
	Female	22	27,02		
Error identification	Male	28	25,43	-,040	,968
	Female	22	25,59		
Correction With comments	Male	28	25,71	-,124	,902
	Female	22	25,23		
Teacher Correction	Male	28	25,30	-,111	,912
	Female	22	25,75		

Commentary	Male	28	25,86	-,202	,840
	Female	22	25,05		
No feedback On error	Male	28	26,64	-,757	,449
	Female	22	24,05		
Personal Comment on content	Male	28	26,52	-,584	,559
	Female	22	24,20		

A Mann-Whitney U test is used to investigate the relationship between students's gender and students' responses to effectiveness of written corrective feedback types. In general, the table demonstrates that none of the seven written corrective feedback types have a Sig. value that is either less than or equal to alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0,05). No further analysis can be done at this stage because the table indicates that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of ranking effectiveness of feedback types.

Table 31

Effect of Gender on Students' Preferences in Error Types for Correction

Types of errors	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Sig*
Organizational errors	Male	28	24,96	-,331	,741
	Female	22	26,18		
Grammatical errors	Male	28	25,09	-,273	,785
	Female	22	26,02		
Content Idea errors	Male	28	23,48	-1,176	,240
	Female	22	28,07		
Punctuation errors	Male	28	25,88	-,214	,831
	Female	22	25,02		
Spelling	Male	28	25,27	-,134	,893

Errors	Female	22	25,80		
Vocabulary errors	Male	28	26,30	-,501	,617
	Female	22	24,48		

When female and male participants' responses to effectiveness of types of errors for correction were analyzed, similar results were found in Table 2. Among six error types, none of them has a sig. value that is greater than alpha value ($p > \alpha = 0.05$). Except for content/idea error variable, the medians scores in females and males are the same. As a result, there is no significant difference between males and females in ranking effectiveness of error types in writing.

Kruskal wallis test. As it is stated earlier that Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric alternative of independent samples t-tests, Kruskal Wallis test is an alternative for one way ANOVA which is a parametric technique. Similar to Mann-Whitney U test, it is required to have one categorical independent variable and one continious dependent variable with the purpose of comparison. However, in Kruskal Wallis test more than two groups are needed in order to compare the scores on continious variable. To exemplify, students' years in English learning and their educational background inlude more than two groups, therefore, they are available for Kruskal Wallis test. Among dependent variables, students' responses to likert-scale items such as effectiveness of written CF types and types of errors will be considered as dependent variables during analysis. The quantitative analysis will be conducted on SPSS 26.

Table 32

Effect of Years of Learning English and Students' Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF types	Years of English learning	*N*	Mean Rank	*df*	*Asymp. Sig*
Clues or Directions	1 year or below	14	25,11	3	,214
	2-5 years	3	25,50		
	6-9 years	17	20,71		
	10-13 years	16	30,94		
Error identification	1 year or below	14	36,64	3	,000
	2-5 years	3	41,50		
	6-9 years	17	20,62		
	10-13 years	16	17,94		
Correction With comments	1 year or below	14	21,21	3	,035
	2-5 years	3	15,50		
	6-9 years	17	23,32		
	10-13 years	16	33,44		
Teacher Correction	1 year or below	14	24,68	3	,930
	2-5 years	3	26,50		
	6-9 years	17	24,29		
	10-13 years	16	27,31		

Commentary	1 year or below	14	27,79	3	,176
	2-5 years	3	41,00		
	6-9 years	17	23,44		
	10-13 years	16	22,78		
No feedback On error	1 year or below	14	31,75	3	,019
	2-5 years	3	34,33		
	6-9 years	17	24,79		
	10-13 years	16	19,13		
Personal Comment On Content	1 year or below	14	31,93	3	,187
	2-5 years	3	21,67		
	6-9 years	17	21,29		
	10-13 years	16	25,06		

In Table 32, the relation between the lenght of time students have been learning English and their responses to effectiveness of written CF types were compared by means of Kruskal Wallis test. When Asymp. Sig. values are taken into account, there are only three variables with a statistical difference. Table demonstrates that there is statistically significant difference between students' years in English education and response to error identification because Asymp. Sig value is less than alpha value (p=,000 < α=0.05). Similarly, the Asymp. Sig. values are lower than the alpha value in cases of correction with comments (p=0,035 < α=0.05) and no feedback on error (p=,019 < α=0.05).

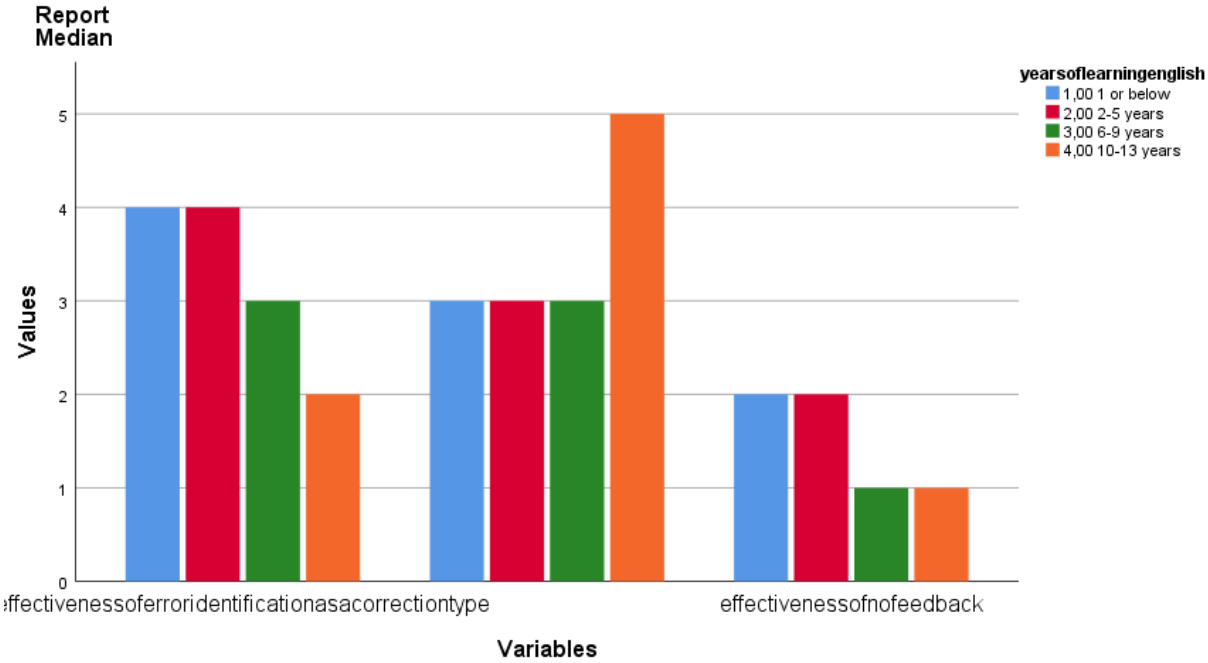

Figure 1. Median scores of years of learning English among WCF types.

As it is demonstrated in the graph, there are statistically significant differences between students' years in English education and their responses to written CF types error identification, correction with comments and no use of feedback. When the values are taken into account, students that learn English from 10 to 13 years prefer use of correction with comments as a very useful a technique (*Md*=5). For each written corrective feedback type, students that have been learning English from 2 to 5 years and less than 1 year or less responded at the same level. Participants that have been learning English from 6 to 9 years and 10 to 13 years regarded feedback as a very useless technique compared to other groups.

Table 33

Effect of Years of English Learning and Students' Responses to Error Types

Types of Errors	Years of English learning	*N*	Mean Rank	*df*	*Asymp. Sig*
	1 year or below	14	24,96		
Organizational	2-5 years	3	22,33		
error	6-9 years	17	22,06	3	,315

	10-13 years	16	30,22		
Grammatical error	1 year or below	14	23,82	3	,174
	2-5 years	3	19,17		
	6-9 years	17	23,00		
	10-13 years	16	30,81		
Content idea error	1 year or below	14	34,25	3	,001
	2-5 years	3	13,17		
	6-9 years	17	16,50		
	10-13 years	16	29,72		
Punctuation	1 year or below	14	22,54	3	,139
	2-5 years	3	30,83		
	6-9 years	17	21,35		
	10-13 years	16	31,50		
Spelling Errors	1 year or below	14	27,46	3	,022
	2-5 years	3	23,00		
	6-9 years	17	17,85		
	10-13 years	16	32,38		
Vocabulary Errors	1 year or below	14	23,57	3	,134
	2-5 years	3	21,83		
	6-9 years	17	21,94		
	10-13 years	16	31,66		

When students' years in English education and their responses to effectiveness of correcting six error types, there are only two variables to consider. There is a statistical difference between students' years in English education and their responses to content idea errors in writing (p=0,001 < α=0.05). Another

difference is seen in students' preferences in effectiveness of receiving correction on spelling errors (p=0,022 < α=0.05).

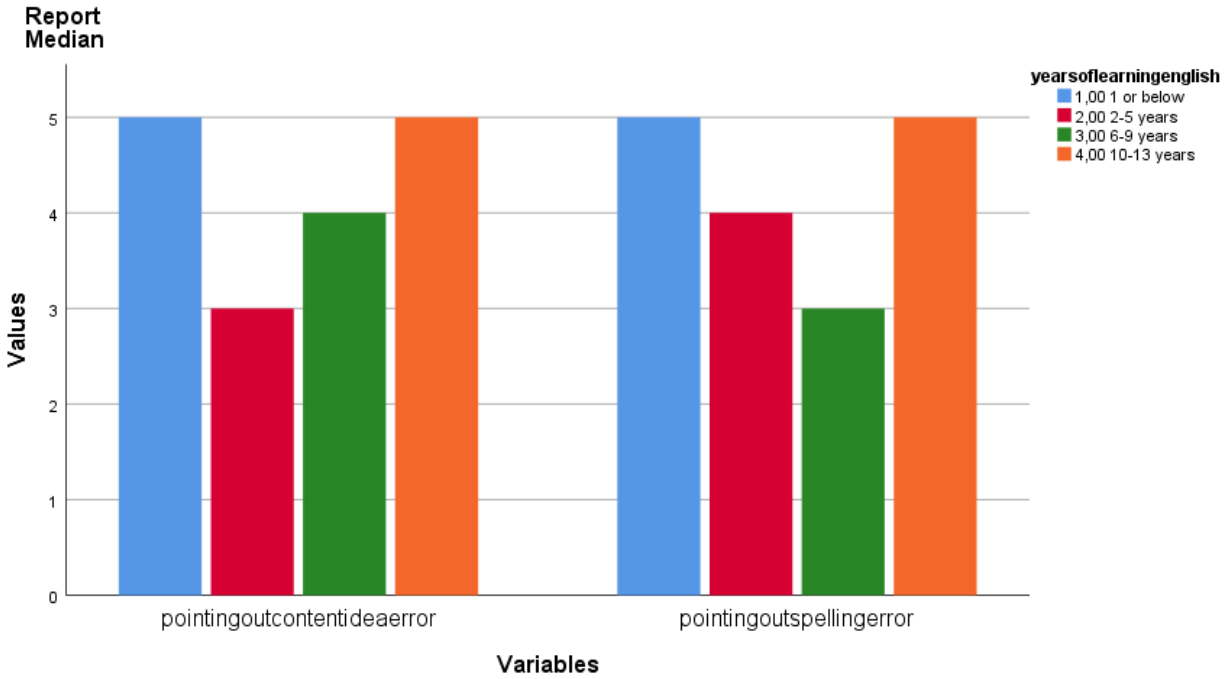

Figure 2. Median scores of students' years of learning English among error types.

Students that have been learning English for 10 to 13 years and 1 or less than 1 year considered pointed out content/idea errors and spelling errors are very useful. For students that have been learning English from 6 to 9 years pointed out content/idea errors are very useful while the ones from 2 to 5 years remain neutral. In terms of rating pointed out spelling errors, the 2 to 5 years of English group find it very useful but the 6 to 9 years of English group remained neutral.

Table 34

The Effect of Students' Educational Background and Responses to WCF Types

WCF Types	Educational background	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	Anatolian High School	22	23,00		
	High School of Sciences	5	22,40		
		1	41,00		

	High School of Social Sciences	5	20,10	7	,473
	Religious Vocational High School	2	41,00		
	Vocational High School	2	26,25		
	Foundation High School	12	29,75		
	Private School or Collage	1	24,00		
	Other				
Error identification	Anatolian High School	22	25,18		
	High School of Sciences	5	21,10		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	3,50		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	36,10	7	,052
	Vocational High School	2	43,00		
	Foundation High School	2	43,00		
	Private School or Collage	12	20,50		
	Other	1	13,50		
Correction with comments	Anatolian High School	22	28,66		
	High School of Sciences	5	24,30		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	14,50		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	14,50	7	,212
		2	8,25		

	Vocational High School	2	28,75		
	Foundation High School	12	28,96		
	Private School or Collage	1	14,50		
	Other				
Teacher correction	Anatolian High School	22	27,50		
	High School of Sciences	5	21,40	7	,165
	High School of Social Sciences	1	13,00		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	25,50		
	Vocational High School	2	3,50		
	Foundation High School	2	43,50		
	Private School or Collage	12	27,13		
	Other	1	13,50		
Commentary	Anatolian High School	22	27,86		
	High School of Sciences	5	25,30		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	4,50	7	,573
	Religious Vocational High School	5	24,20		
	Vocational High School	2	26,50		
	Foundation High School	2	37,75		
	Private School or Collage	12	22,33		

	Other	1	13,50		
No feedback on error	Anatolian High School	22	23,27	7	,056
	High School of Sciences	5	17,50		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	17,50		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	34,70		
	Vocational High School	2	32,75		
	Foundation High School	2	46,75		
	Private School or Collage	12	25,67		
	Other	1	17,50		
Personal Comment on Content	Anatolian High School	22	24,68	7	,036
	High School of Sciences	5	13,50		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	10,00		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	22,80		
	Vocational High School	2	42,00		
	Foundation High School	2	47,00		
	Private School or Collage	12	29,38		
	Other	1	10,00		

A Kruskal Wallis test is used to find out if there is any statistical difference between students' high school background and their preferences in use of written CF types. The table indicates that there is only statistically significant difference in

students' preferences in use of personal comments on content as it is lower than the alpha value (p=0,036 < α=0.05).

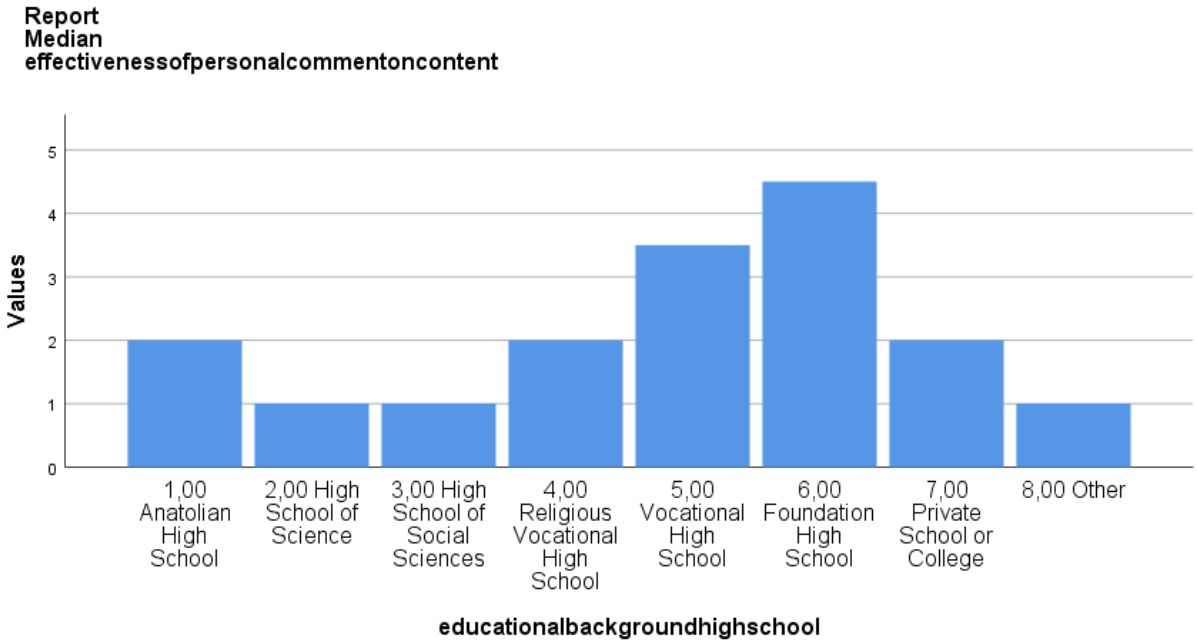

Figure 3. Median scores of students' High School background among WCF types.

According to the graph, students that graduated from certain High Schools share similar opinions in use of personal comments on the content. Foundation High School graduates are tied with "quite useful"and "very useful" levels in use of personal comments on content (*Md*=4,50). Religious Vocational High School, Private School/ College, and Anatolian High School graduates agree on the opinion that the correction type is not useful (*Md*=2). Students that regard use of personal comments on content very useless are graduates of certain high schools including High School of Science, High School of Social Sciences and high schools other than the given types above (*Md*=1).

Table 35

Effect of Students' Educational Background and Responses to Error Types

Types of Errors	Educational background	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Organizational Error	Anatolian High School	22	27,11	**7**	,285
	High School of Sciences	5	31,90		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	36,00		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	17,40		
	Vocational High School	2	15,50		
	Foundation High School	2	36,00		
	Private School or Collage	12	21,42		
	Other	1	36,00		
Grammatical Error	Anatolian High School	22	24,73	7	,331
	High School of Sciences	5	33,50		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	33,50		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	15,00		
	Vocational High School	2	22,75		
	Foundation High School	2	33,50		
	Private School or Collage	12	25,75		
	Other	1	33,50		

Content Idea error	Anatolian High School	22	27,91		
	High School of Sciences	5	18,90		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	8,50	7	,242
	Religious Vocational High School	5	14,80		
	Vocational High School	2	31,25		
	Foundation High School	2	40,00		
	Private School or Collage	12	26,58		
	Other	1	22,50		
Punctuation error	Anatolian High School	22	29,52		
	High School of Sciences	5	25,60	7	,344
	High School of Social Sciences	1	41,50		
	Religious Vocational High School	5	18,50		
	Vocational High School	2	15,75		
	Foundation High School	2	33,50		
	Private School or Collage	12	19,96		
	Other	1	25,50		
Spelling error	Anatolian High School	22	27,18		
	High School of Sciences	5	20,50		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	39,50	7	,470

	Religious Vocational High School	5	16,80		
	Vocational High School	2	39,50		
	Foundation High School	2	31,25		
	Private School or Collage	12	23,88		
	Other	1	23,00		
Vocabulary error	Anatolian High School	22	24,86		
	High School of Sciences	5	35,50		
	High School of Social Sciences	1	35,50	7	,304
	Religious Vocational High School	5	16,10		
	Vocational High School	2	35,50		
	Foundation High School	2	25,25		
	Private School or Collage	12	24,83		
	Other	1	15,00		

A Kruskal Wallis test is used to find out the statistical difference between students' high school background and their responses to correction of six error types in writing in terms of their effectiveness. It is demonstrated in table that there is no statistical difference because none of the Asymp. Sig values of six variables are greater than alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

All in all, Question 2 reveals more complex findings by means of non-parametric statistics including Chi-Square test for independence, Mann-Whitney U Tests, and Kruskal Wallis Tests. Firstly, independent and dependent categorical

variables were compared in order to find statistically significant result. However, only the last table that compares students' years at English Preparatory School with responses to use of correction of a repeat error every time shows statistically significant difference. Secondly, Mann-Whitney U tests are used for variables that inolve two levels of groups during analysis. In case of students, none of the Mann-Whitney U tests managed to provide clear result even more, analyses of students' age groups and years at English Preparatory School were excluded from the study. This resulted from the fact that there were quantitatively unusual differences between groups for both independent variables and the findings were not clear enough for interpretation. Thirdly, Kruskal Wallis test revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between years in English education and responses to amount of correction and correction on a repeat error every time. The last statistically significant relation was found between students' high school background and responses to use of amount of errors.

Question 3

The third questions aims at investigating teachers' preferences in using written corrective feedback. What differs teachers' data collection process from that of students is the fact that the teachers participated in semi-structured interview sessions in addition to filling out questionnaire forms. Firstly, quantitative data collection process was carried out with English Preparatory School instructors from several institutions in Turkey. Quantitative data collection is based on random sampling and the researcher intended to reach out as many instructors as possible. Therefore, the participants' background range in numerous ways including age, educational background and teaching experience. At the end of an almost two-month-long data collection process, responses were collected from sixty six English instructors. However, only 50 of them were selected for the purpose of the study. Teachers' demographic background and responses to questionnaire items are presented in Question 3 by means of Descriptive Statistics. All quantitative analyses were conducted on Social Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.

Descriptive statistics. As it is defined earlier in Question 1, descriptive statistics will be initially used to find out information about teachers' demographic background and their responses to each close-ended item in terms of numbers and

frequencies. Categorical variables such as demographic information, stundent preferences in receiving amount of correction and repetitive are demonstrated by frequency tables. While continious variables such as likert-scale items include mean, standard deviation and minimum-maximum scores, as well.

Table 36

Teachers' Demographic Variable

Gender, *n (%)*	
Female	35 (70,0)
Male	15 (30,0)
Age in groups, *n (%)*	
20-25 years	10 (20,0)
26-31 years	13 (26,0)
32-37 years	9 (18,0)
38-43 years	5 (10,0)
44-49 years	8 (16,0)
50-55 years	2 (4,0)
56-61 years	2 (4,0)
62-67 years	1 (2,0)
Duration of Teaching Experience, *n (%)*	
5 years or less	18 (36,0)
6-11 years	11 (22,0)
12-17 years	7 (14,0)
18-23 years	4 (8,0)
24-29 years	7 (14,0)
30-35 years	2 (4,0)
36-43 years	1 (2,0)
Educational Background BA, *n (%)*	
English Language Teaching	30 (60,0)
English Language Literature	13 (26,0)
Translation and Interpretation	1 (2,0)
American Culture and Literature	1 (2,0)

Linguistics	3 (6,0)
Other	2 (4,0)
Educational Background MA, *n (%)*	
None	7 (14,0)
Completed or in progress	43 (86,0)
MA in progress or completed, *n (%)**	
English Language Teaching	25 (59,5)
English Language Literature	4 (9,5)
American Culture and Literature	4 (9,5)
Other	9 (21,4)
Educational Background PhD, *n (%)*	
None	39 (78,0)
Completed or in progress	11 (22,0)
PhD in progress or completed, *n (%)**	
English Language Teaching	7 (63,6)
Linguistics	1 (9,1)
Other	3 (27,3)

*valid percentages are taken into account due to missing values

Table 36 indicates frequencies and percentages of eight demographic variables that are categorized in different levels. To start with, there is a notable difference between females and males as the percentage of female teachers is twice more than that of males. Secondly, teachers' age were categorized in eight levels and among them teachers that at the ages between 26 and 31 outnumber the others. Thirdly, teachers were asked to specify their teaching experience in years. Teachers that have been teaching for five or less than five years outnumber the others while teachers with 36-43 years of education received the least percentage. The rest of the five variables in the table were about teachers' educational background in undergraduate and graduate levels. 60 % of the teachers completed

their BA education in English Language Teaching department which is the most preferred level than the other deparments. When participants were asked whether they have Master's Degree or not, it was found that there is a great difference between teachers that pursue MA degree and don't have a degree at all. However, the next variable presents participants' study fields in MA education and leads to notable changes in percentages due to missing values. Table 36 demostrates that English Language Teaching is the most preferred field with 59,5% of the teachers whereas 21,4% of the participants study on fields other than English. Lastly, the participants were asked to specify if they have PhD or not. In Table 2, this variable indicates notable differences among levels as 78% of the teachers don't have PhD. The last variable that presents study fields in PhD education are limited in only three levels. 63,6 % of the teachers pursue PhD in English Language Teaching department while 27,3 % of the teachers study on fields other than English. In the table, only 9,1 % of the teachers study Linguistics as PhD.

Table 37

Descriptive Statistics about Amount of Errors Teachers Should Correct

Marking all errors, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)
Marking all major errors not the minor ones, *n (%)*	28 (56.0)
Marking most of the major errors but not necessarily all of them, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Marking only a few of the major errors, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Marking only the errors that interfere communicating with your ideas, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)
Marking no errors but responding to idea and content, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)

As Table 37 indicates, 56% of the teachers prefer marking all of the major errors and leaving minor errors in writing. Whereas, only 24% of the teachers prefer marking all errors in writing which makes it the second most prefered one. In the table, the least prefered level by the teachers is marking only a few of the major errors with only 2% of the participants. The frequency table shows that teachers are more likely to prefer selective marking in a text.

Table 38

Descriptive Statistics about Teachers' Correction of a Repeat Error

Yes, *n (%)*	27 (54.0)
No, *n (%)*	23 (46.0)

Table 38 indicates that there is a slight difference between teachers that chose to correct a repeat error every time and the ones that ignore after first time.

Table 39

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of WCF Types

	Mean ± SD	*Median (min-max)*
Clues or directions	3,72 ± 1,29426	4,00 (1,00-5,00)
Error identification	2,98 ± 1,18649	3,00 (1,00- 5,00)
Correction with comments	3,20 ± 1,17803	3,00 (1,00-5,00)
Teacher correction	2,54 ± 1,07305	3,00(1,00-5,00)
Commentary	2,94 ± 1,20221	3,00 (1,00-5,00)
No feedback	1,40 ± 0,75593	1,00 (1,00-3,00)
Personal comments on content	2,32 ± 1,36187	2,00 (1,00-5,00)

SD: Standard deviation; Min: Minimum; Max: Maximum

Table 39 demonstrates statistical data for questionnaire item 2 where teachers were expected to define effectiveness of each written corrective feedback type one by one. When mean values are compared, four variables out of seven are approximately equal to 3 which represents “doesn’t matter” scales in the

questionnaire. Thus, it can be inferred that teachers have a neutral attitude towards using written corrective feedback types such as error identification, correction with comments, teacher correction and commentary. Using a personal comment on the content is not prefered by the teachers as the mean value refers to “not useful” in the scale. On the other hand, teachers’ preferences in using corrective feedback centers around the first variable which is “clues or directions on how to fix an error” with the mean score of (4,00). Also, teachers find absence of feedback very useless.

Table 40

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Clues or Directions

Very useless, *n (%)*	4 (8.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	18 (36.0)

As it is stated in Table 40, teachers find using clues or directions in writing quite effective. Therefore, the highest frequencies belong to scales “very useful” and “quite useful”. Teachers that believe using clues or direction for fixing an error is a part of minority with only 8 % of the teachers.

Table 41

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Error Identification

Very useless, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	11(22.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	17 (34.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)

When teachers' preferences in using error identification in correcting errors, it is clear to see that teachers have confliciting opinions. To illustrate, teachers that regard use of error identification as very useless and very useful are statistically equal to each other. Similar to that, "not useful" and "quite useful" levels are almost statistically the same. However, the most prefered level by teachers is "doesn't matter" which reveals teachers' neutral attitude.

Table 42

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Correction with Comments

Very useless, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	13 (26.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	17 (34.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	6 (12.0)

According to Table 42, 34 % of the teachers find correcting errors with comments quite useful. The second most prefered level by teachers is "doesn't matter" level which indicates teachers' impartial attitude towards corrrection type. In addition, the two opposite levels "very useless" and "very useful" are almost statistically the same yet the latter slightly outnumbers.

Table 43

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Teacher Correction

Very useless, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	16 (32.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)

Teachers' preferences in using teacher correction as a corrective feedback type indicates that the teachers have an impartial attitude as "doesn't matter" level is more prefered than the others. The second most prefered level is "not useful" level with 28% of the teachers. Among all levels, only 2% of the teachers considered using teacher correction very useful.

Table 44

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Commentary

Very useless, *n (%)*	7 (14.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	11 (22.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	15 (30.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	12 (24.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)

According to Table 44, there is a slight difference between teachers that consider use of commentary as "very useful and "very useless". Similarly, 24% of the teachers find use of commentary "quite useful" while 22% of the teachers find it "not useful". Even though there is slight difference between these four levels, the most prefered level by the teachers is "doesn't matter" with 30% of the teachers.

Table 45

Descriptive Statistics about Use of No Feedback

Very useless, *n (%)*	38 (76.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	4 (8.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)

Among all variables in item 2, Table 45 demostrates teachers' strictness towards absence of no feedback in writing. 76% of the teachers consider use of no feedback in writing as "very useless" which forms a great majority among teachers.

Teachers that have neutral attitude towards use of no feedback are twice as much as the ones find it not useful.

Table 46

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Personal Comments on Content

Very useless, *n (%)*	20 (40.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	8 (16.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	4 (8.0)

Considering that the most prefered level is "very useless" with 40% of the teachers, it is clear that teachers have a negative attitude in using personal comments on content. Among all participants, only 8% of the teachers find the correction type very useful.

Table 47

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Error Types for Correction

	Mean ± SD	*Median (min-max)*
Organizational error	4,62 ± 0,69664	5,00 (2,00-5,00)
Grammatical error	4,28 ± 0,70102	4,00 (3,00- 5,00)
Content idea error	4,44 ± 0,78662	5,00 (2,00-5,00)
Punctuation error	3,94 ± 1,07684	4,00 (1,00-5,00)
Spelling error	4,12 ± 0,98229	4,00 (2,00-5,00)
Vocabulary error	4,38 ± 0,75295	5,00 (2,00-5,00)

SD: Standard deviation; Min: Minimum; Max: Maximum

When the mean values are approximated, Table 47 reveals that teachers have positive approach towards correction on six different error types. Five variables

out of six are equal to “quite useful” scale. Among these variables, only organizational error for correction is considered as very useful. Therefore, Table 47 indicates that teachers have positive attitude in terms of correcting different error types.

Table 48

Descriptive Statistics about Effectiveness of Use of Organizational Error

Not useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	10 (20.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	36 (72.0)

Table 48 indicates that a great majority of teachers have a positive approach towards correction of organizational errors. To illustrate, 72% of the teachers find correction of organizational errors “very useful” which is the most prefered level among others. Only 2% of the teachers regard correction ıf organizational errors as the least effective. As it is seen in the Table 48, none of the participants responded to “very useless” level.

Table 49

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Grammatical Errors

Doesn’t matter, *n (%)*	7 (14.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	22 (44.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	21 (42.0)

According to Table 49, there is a slight difference between teachers that find correction of grammatical errors “very useful” and “quite useful”. Even these two levels are almost the same. Thus, it can be inferred that a great majority of teachers prefer correction of grammatical error in writing. Whereas only 7% of the teachers chose “doesn’t matter” level.

Table 50

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Content / Idea Error

Not useful, *n (%)*	2 (4.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	3 (6.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	16 (32.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	19 (38.0)

When teachers were asked to rank effectiveness of correction of content / idea error, none of the participants responded to "very useless" level. The most prefered level by the teachers is "very useful" with the 38% of the teachers. Although there are very few amount of teachers with negative approach, 4% of the teachers find correction of content idea errors "not useful" and 6% of them choose "doesn't matter".

Table 51

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Punctuation Error

Very useless, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Not useful, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	16 (32.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	19 (38.0)

As Table 51 demonstrates, the most prefered by teachers is "very useful" with the 38% of the participants. 32 % of the teachers prefer correction of punctuation errors which makes it the second most prefered level. Only 2% of the teachers find correction of punctuation errors as the least effective.

Table 52

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Spelling Error

Not useful, *n (%)*	4 (8.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	9 (18.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	14 (28.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	23 (46.0)

According to Table 52, the most prefered level by 46% of the teachers is "very useful". Whereas, 8% of the teachers consider correction of spelling errors "not useful" which is the least prefered level by teachers. There was no response in "very useless" level among participants.

Table 53

Descriptive Statistics about Use of Vocabulary Error

Not useful, *n (%)*	1 (2.0)
Doesn't matter, *n (%)*	5 (10.0)
Quite useful, *n (%)*	18 (36.0)
Very useful, *n (%)*	26 (52.0)

When teachers were asked to rank effectiveness of correction of vocabulary errors, 52% of the teachers considered it as very useful. However, 10% of the teachers have a neutral approach towards effectiveness of correction of vocabulary errors. The least prefered level by teachers is "not useful" with only 2% of the teachers. It can be inferred from Table 53 that teachers have positive approach towards correction of vocabulary errors.

Thematic analysis. During data collection process, the researcher carried out the next stage of the study which was semi-structured interviews. The researcher managed to reach out ten English instructors from various institutions. Even though the purpose of the study was initially based on comparing students and teachers' preferences in use of corrective feedback in terms of quantitative and

qualitative approach, the researcher had to make changes in methodology of the study. Interview sessions with students were exluded from the study because students were not considered to be competent enough to respond to questions in English during interviews. In addition, the researcher had difficulty in getting access to students due to online education. Thus, the only medium between the researcher and students were all about quantitative data collection.

By taking this all into account, the only source of qualitative data of the study was English instructors from different institutions in Turkey. In total, seven female and male instructors participated in the study. The whole interview sessions were conducted via Zoom and all of the sessions were recorded. After each session, the recording was transcribed by the researcher. Then the researcher started reading the whole transcriptions from the very beginning and created key words and phrases for the first time. In order not to miss any detail, the researcher read transcriptions more than once. To illustrate, the researcher started coding some word or statements and building connections among others. The codes were determined as a result of repetition of the statements by the participants, reference to literature and study field, and specification of an interesting issue. After all codes were created for each participant, the researcher started to group the ones that would potentially outstand in the study. In total, six themes were created to include all these codes accurately. At the end of transcriptions, all interviews were analyzed by following qualitative approach.

Table 54

Themes and Codes of Teacher Interviews

Themes	**Codes**
Motivation	Red marking demotivation, not giving students' names, motivation problems, providing motivation to check out their errors and praising good work, motivation and grades
Theoretical Issues	L1 related problems, individual differences, spoonfeeding and student autonomy, interlanguage, teacher autonomy

Institution Related Problems	School policy, class size problems, syllabus, need of standardization in correction, making use of online education, the relation between speaking and writing
Teacher Education	Pedagogical formation, ELT programs, certificate programs, in service training and asking for help from colleagues
Problems Related to Time, Effort and Evaluation	Consumption of time and effort, problems in writing and evaluation, positive and negative sides of error correction, need of change from one proficiency level to another, teacher attitude in grading
Correction Techniques	Color coding, peer feedback, spending time on revision of errors, focusing on form vs organization and content, focused feedback vs unfocused feedback, using comments and personal notes in writing, correcting major errors vs all errors, direct vs indirect feedback, underlining and using error correction codes, using web 2.0 tools for correction

Motivation. The concept of motivation in correcting students' error in writing tasks took place in all of the 10 interview sessions in different ways. The first theme of the analysis inolves the problems that teachers go through during L2 writing correction, how they deal with upcoming drawbacks by the students, and what depends on students' motivation in writing.

> "I just pay more attention- be more careful not to use red ink pencils. I think these are demotivating for students. Instead I try to use different color papers (pencils) to make it seem more- let's say I need to create an unstressful environment because writing is a skill that they do not just have practice even in their mother tongue. That's why I need to encourage them. So I need to use different colors of pencils now different colors in the word document. Just try to be more sympathetic." (Interviewee 1)

> “Okay I actually have to ignore some of them because if I correct all of it then their writings will be full of red marks, yellow highlights so this can be quite touching for the students let’s say. They may feel really bad, they may feel incompetent and they may not want to write again”. (Interviewee 4)

> “ Because I don’t think it sits well with students if I write something I have already corrected almost all of their mistakes and it looks scary. If I don’t say at the bottom-mostly good just watch out for this and this and this- and give them tops three mistakes it is demotivating.” (Interviewee 6)

> “But if it is a general writing again I don’t want to make a writing look as a crime scene with many marking because if I give the elementary students that thing I think it will disappoint or I will hurt the motivational side of the student maybe so I try to correct the most important mistakes at first but if I have a chance to give feedback to that student if I have time I will correct it also”. (Interviewee 7)

As it is highlighted by the interviewees of the study that use of red pens directly affect students’ motivation in writing negatively. In order to avoid demotivation, interviewees had to come up with their own solutions including use of different color along with red and neglecting some of the errors in writing.

> “After all the productive skills I need to rapport the common mistakes later on without giving the specific names of the error owners. I just adress the mistakes in general and remind them to be more careful about those”. (Interviewee 1)

> “So I cover this subject for example wrote down an examplory sentence that has a problem in it. It can be from their writing pieces-I try to write down similar not to be offensive to write down the example because the student will understand. Especially some students get really easily offended. So I try to write down in different sentences. So I go over it and hand out the ask if they have any questions-then hand out the writing. Then we can ask individual questions.” (Interviewee 7)

> "…So seeing their friends' mistakes, seeing their mistakes, seeing it common actually I think it's very relaxing and yeah it is relaxing because they are not alone and it helps them to remember to focus on things for example it was hard so not to make them remember to not forget the am/is/are but at the end of the term I can say twenty of twenty two students at were doing it very correctly." (Interviewee 3)

Specifically, teachers are in need of hiding students' names while giving examples during general revision. Interviewees try to copy the mistake on students' paper and present it as an example to avoid repetition of it. In doing so, teachers provide the correct form and assume that none of the owners of the actual mistake get offended. Along with that, Inteviewee 3 claims that revising general mistakes enables students to normalize their mistakes as a part of the process.

> "Firstly I just try to find the positive sides in the writing. If I am just-paying more attention to the idea of the student. And I need to just start to give feedback to the idea of the student. If there is a relevant response of my question or the statement this is the most important one. Because I give communication mutual intelligibility a lot of importance. So they come before the grammar vocabulary and everything. So overall organization and the content of the writing is the most important thing for me." (Interviewee 1)

> "This is another thing about evaluation I guess creating a better environment, encouraging students, motivating them, try to do more and more because when someone appretiate your work you generally want to write more and more to get this how can I say-to get a price actually saying good things is also a kind of price for the students. So to reach the price they write more and more and better and better." (Interviewee 4)

One of the solutions is teachers' promoting positive sides in writing and praising students' work. Teachers also aim at promoting student by referring to students' ideas positively. It can be understood that teachers have difficulty in keeping students' motivation high in L2 writing. One of the main problems in L2

classes is students' motivation in completing writing tasks and checking out their errors after receiving correction by the teacher.

> "…When I give writing as homework mostly they don't do it but in the class I mean when I am with them -somehow it is like still eighty five percent of them do the exercise. I think but then I am with them because some of -you know I am like a force for them I am like pressure. So then they do it more but like I said then it's homework they are like I can do it later or in the classroom like I said hocam I can do it at home nothing comes to my mind right now." (Interviewee 2)

> "There may be few problems and it changes from student to student of course. Some students are eager to follow up their mistakes errors but some of the students don't care about it at all and they are like- They just- some of them just simplify very very simplify sentence and just walks away with it." (Interviewee 3)

> "I mean you spend lots of time to give feedback and when you deliver the papers in class you see that some of them they don't-they act as if they look at it but they don't look at it or they don't even read it or try to understand it. That is a bit sad I don't know. So I really sometimes ask myself what can we do to overcome this problem." (Interviewee 8)

According to interviewees, the matter of attention changes from student to student in classes. These problems generally occur when students are supposed to complete assignments or they receive their papers after correction. On the other hand, students' motivation is not only related with them but also there are external factors that affect them such as need of being successful. Even more, Interviewee 5 states that motivation levels of high school and prep school students differ from each other as prep students are expected to spend time on only English as a course.

> "We should definitely determine it and all of us should do the same thing this is the first one. Second one what can I say-maybe we should give-maybe we should make it more important to students. That part of things you know. Not only for learning but for getting graded-so when students are getting graded on it I think there is more emphasize

on it. So when we grade something they show more emphasize on it, they try to do it better." (Interviewee 3)

"If the writing exercise is graded and it is really important they of course come to me. But if it is a homework it is an exercise they don't." (Interviewee 7)

"…Sometimes I give them like motivation speech so they are going to take the exam you know the exam is the most important thing for them unfortunately but that is also a way to motivate them I talk to them like they don't look at them. If they don't revise it they cannot learn it and if they don't find out their mistakes they cannot improve this kind of things. But it works on some students some of them really they listen and change their perspective but some still not care. It is a bit sad." (Interviewee 8)

"… So in order to draw their attention more maybe we could increase the grading the marks the-how do we call it-the percentage of writing in total grades. That is the only way." (Interviewee 10)

"When we look at the high school student generally they actually for them English is lesson. But another lessons are really important for them like mathematics geography or something. And that is why when I gave them the error correction codes especially it is so useless unfortunately. But when we look at the university students especially in prep school they have only one lesson this is English of course. That's why they have to understand what error correction codes are actually let's say what error correction-how can let's say they have to understand." (Interviewee 5)

Theoretical issues. Although the problems that teachers go through affect the practice of writing correction, there are problems that must be attributed to theory of correction process.

"I think these are demotivating for students. Instead I try to use different color papers (pencils) to make it seem more- let's say I need to create an unstressful environment because writing is

> a skill that they do not just have practice even in their mother tongue. That's why I need to encourage them. So I need to use different colors of pencils now different colors in the word document. Just try to be more sympathetic." (Interviewee 1)

Interviewee 1 underlines the role of using different colors for correction and how it works on students. The interviewee believes that students are even incompetent at L1 and they must be supported within an error-free environment. In addition to use of techniques, teachers mention their thoughts on student autonomy. Teachers aim to promote students' autonomy in class and enable them to find out their own errors. Whereas, teachers are aware of the fact that internalizing this process depends on time.

> "I guess focusing on students' needs and their levels are so important. Because teachers generally consider students as- how can I express it- they just consider students as a normal human but they are not actually normal humans here. They are just babies there they are just trying to learn it. So they cannot understand in a way that we understand it. So sometimes giving some hints or sometimes encouraging them by writing something to their writings can be very good. When we consider evaluation we just correct students' mistakes or errors many other things. But encouraging them is also important because sometimes my students ask-hocam did you read my writing, did you like it, I spend so much time for it- so I have to make a comment there." (Interviewee 4)

> "Our students get more autonomous because they check dictionaries they check their books their coursebooks or internet so they ask their friends so they are involved with something. And this is a thing that I want. They should be more-if I say immediately they wouldn't even notice or they would forget that after that class. But once they are involved I think their learning way increases. So I think in a way they are helpful and I don't know I highly support that. I wish they have known it before. So

> when they come to university they don't know what is error code they feel a bit anxious about it. But once they realize how useful it is they also can see the process you know. They can feel like okay I knew I can see my error so I think I know that so they can realize and once they when they correct the error if it is successful correction they are happy you know. It also satisfies them. That is what I believe." (Interviewee 9)

According to interviewees, it is not easy for them to promote student autonomy because some students tend to expect their errors to be corrected by their teachers. In order to eliminate students' insistency on spoonfeeding, teachers prefer clues or implicit feedback types for direction.

> "There are lots of different types of students. Some of them try to discover their mistakes and they get happy from it but some of them need spoonfeeding. So they just ask me-Hocam you underlined it but I couldn't understand my mistake. Okay I just give some clues but they just need further explanations or the correct form. I always refrain from giving the correct form. I do not just tell them the true grammar structure or the vocabulary whatever. I try to eliminate the situation by asking more questions. And encouraging them to just have a quick research about their mistakes." (Interviewee 1)

> "…They should be autonomous learners because I will not be there all the time. When their level is higher and higher, they should start doing something on their own. They will direct their own learning. So starting it from a writing passage can be a good start I guess so that's the reason why I do not directly correct students' errors. Because it's spoonfeeding but I show them some ways to correct their mistake to actually realize their mistakes." (Interviewee 4)

> "When I was in class I would ask them to come explain to them face to face but now I just leave it to them. They should be adult enough to realize that spoonfeeding is not working. I tell them at the very beginning before I send their corrected material I tell them that I am not going to give them every single detail. And that if they want to find

> out what they did and how do they can do better they can talk to me one-on-one in the Zoom meeting or-but if they don't I don't bother I let them go." (Interviewee 6)

> "…Each student is different as you can imagine. Some students are very good at finding their own mistakes and they correct it immediately after feedback. But I see some students for example we had portfolio task last week. I wrote some small notes on purpose as I said I went beyond the error correction codes but still I see the same mistake there. And it is not just that the students-the student doesn't care about my opinion or my feedback but that he or she can't correct it somehow." (Interviewee 10)

In addition to promoting students' autonomy and encouraging to keep a record on their own learning process, teachers also mention their autonomy in correcting student errors.

> "I just think that how can I say it-there is also lots of responsibility on the teacher- and the teacher should really I mean explain them-the feedback they are going to give. For example you talked about those SP GR etc. codes teacher has to explain those ones to the students otherwise they wouldn't understand it because sometimes the teachers unfortunately they can become a bit mean towards the student and they can be-you should know it by yourself-whatever but they could be more helpful and emphatize more with them. (Interviewee 2)

Institution related problems. One of the major issues that teachers mention during almost all of the interview sessions is the role institutions play in promoting writing correction.

> "I don't think so to be honest. Because instead of sparing time for grammar or lots of mechanical details about grammar. We need to spend more time in productive skills. We need to know that the productive skills are very related to grammar. So they show the-let's say grammar ability. If the student doesn't have the competency on the grammar or vocabulary or any mechanic structures. They cannot

be successful in writing. So they depend on each other. So we need to give more importance to productive skills. If we want to support their grammar. And our institution I think we are just ignoring sometimes the improtance of writing." (Interviewee 1)

"…We have portfolios. But I think they are not enough to improve students' writing abilities. Because we have only six writings and this will not be enough for the students. But you know not all teachers have clear minds about reading and they do not want extra job to do. They just want to be in the class teach something and leave." (Interviewee 4)

Teachers mainly complain about the fact that writing is a overlooked by the institutions that they are working at. However, there are some cases that contradict with this. As Interviewee 10 states writing is prioritized in the school and extra materials are supported by the school, as well.

"In our school writing and speaking are specially important for our directors. That is why we put much emphasis on writing classes as well. So especially this term in this term we have only two hours of work we have six hours of writing. So here our aim is that the student should learn grammar by writing through writing. I think it is very challenging and we don't have a proper book a proper grammar book coursebook. As I said we have PPT slides and actually much of the responsibility here is on the students' shoulders I think." (Interviewee 10)

Teachers have different thoughts on the syllabus that their institutions follow and suggest alternative syllabus to eliminate problems. Their opinions center around either adapting an integrative syllabus or a skill-based syllabus.

"We just focus on general English teaching and how to teach how to approach students' pedagogy and many different things but we do not we did not focus on how to teach writing for different levels. So at this point yes we recognize English as a whole But we do not split it into parts and focus on these parts one by one unfortunately." (Interviewee 4)

> “That is so important really. Writing exercises are really important for learning English. But when we look at the another skills for example speaking for example grammar for example reading these skills are really important. But actually learning English is concerned with the all of the skills. Of course writing is important but as an English instructor I need to give another skills to students.” (Interviewee 5)

> “And skill based are not for all students I think it shouldn’t be and some students should definitely pay because they don’t understand the basic structure in grammar or basic vocabulary. So the progress-they are still trying to progress so I think it is a problematic.” (Interviewee 9)

One of the problems in writing evaluation is the lack of standardization in writing. According to interviewees, standardization is needed to both clarify task requirements for students and collaborating with colleagues in harmony.

> “So for evaluation for basic things need to be improved. I can say standardization is important between teachers. I think it can be better for the institution that I work now and I have seen and I have heard and I hear all of them as problem-similar problems. And we can have a better discussion with our collegues to improve our standardization and this is important too-because we need to show students what do we focus more what is very important to us. We should definitely determine it and all of us should do the same thing this is the first one.” (Interviewee 3)

> “…By trying or depending on what you know relying on yourself-sometimes we share our ideas or experiences with our collagues who are in the same office. But as I said we don’t have general policy about it or general way to do it. That is really problematic.” (Interviewee 8)

Both in face to face education and online education, teachers shared their experiences about physiological problems such as the size of classes. Teachers have complaints about the crowded population of classes that even more increased during online education.

"…You need to say correct every student one by one you need to say-you did this wrong, you need to fix this so it takes also a lot of time. One of the class take fifteen minutes at least so make it twenty one make it twenty two and make it you know constantly you see the work load. I start with twenty and it became twenty two. It takes a lot of time I can see my exhaustion with the last student because in the first few of them you are like very happy you are like okay do this do this and the last one okay please don't do this I am tired don't do this anymore. You can see your exhaustion with the advancement of students." (Interviewee 3)

"…I think that online education there are some things we can't do yes. We don't see all of-if it is a class of thirty students yes we are losing it out. But if it was a class of five students online I think that would have been perfect. I don't think if I could see all of their faces if all of them are interacting. I don't really see the difference between online and in person. I will be honest But a large class yes I could completely agree this is not the ideal way but one-on-one I think it is doable to be honest." (Interviewee 6)

"And generally in a schedule you may not have time for sparing a whole class and of course the classes are I think fairly crowded classes we have twenty four students almost-twenty twenty three yeah very crowded. If you let for example I think it is hard if one student asks a question about writing you need to focus on them individually and the others left out and start talking with others. So it is hard maintain twenty class student in that scenerio so". (Interviewee 7)

Teacher education. In this study, teachers' educational background is taken into account during both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Even in the interview sessions there were only 10 instructors, these instructors differed from each other in terms of teaching experience and educational background.

"I don't remember about it. But I don't think they would give much importance to just these kinds of details in the pedagogical formation programmes. It is types of concerns about writing reading or speaking.

> They do not focus on different disciplines unfortunately. And I as you know (not audible) graduate from ELT or any other departments. I was studying English Linguistics. That's why I am trying to take a lot of education certificate programmes workshop whatever you can think. I am still trying to just cover this." (Interviewee 1)

> "It was mostly like giving information about like teaching like it was more theoretically let's say. I didn't get any practice. I got the practice when I started working." (Interviewee 2)

> "Well out of ten I would say four. I don't know if it is a proper answer but as a background information yes but I don't think it that was enough." (Interviewee 10)

The Interviewees are non-ELT graduates and received their pedagogical formation certificates in order to be able to teach at schools. However, all of them stated that the education was not useful at all to improve themselves.

> "Actually we had some courses on how to teach writing but I specifically remember that we practiced how to correct errors. We generally focused on theories and in my practicum. Okay we have seen some let's say practices of the teachers there on how to I mean correct writings but most of the time it was in theory I mean we didn't focus it on a lot. I think that is disadvantageous that is a problem a huge problem because in theory everything looks perfect you should do this you should give the feedback in this day but when you go in class and face students and their mistakes and when you try and see that thing doesn't work." (Interviewee 8)

> "Because actually we never have these kind of things. We just prepare some lesson plans we teach it and we leave it. So we didn't evaluate it. We just teach and go but normally there is also another background here because I cannot do it. Evaluating is a way of teaching actually. We teach students by evaluating them because they learn from their own mistakes. This is my way of learning actually. I made a lot of mistakes and when I see the correct form I say oh okay

so that's the way now I get it. So perhaps this can work for our students but we neglect it." (Interviewee 4)

"We talked about evaluation you know it was mostly theoretical you know we have it was mostly theoretical. But during my classes theoretical classes I don't remember any evaluation, guideline talking about it. But in internship we did it with our teachers, with the main teachers of the classroom, with our professors we talked about it only in internship, not in other lesson." (Interviewee 3)

ELT graduate instructors highlighted the fact that their undergraduate education was mainly dominated by the theory and there was almost no opportunity for practice.

"DELTA Diploma in English Language Teaching was better because then we did get- we studied methodology. We had classes on testing and of course in these we went- as far as I remember a while ago-we went over how to make exams and how to error correction. We went into detail with all of them specially even error correction writing essays, paragraphs, error corrections, speaking all of them we studied there." (Interviewee 6)

"…It is very effective for me. I actually learned ninety percent of teaching technique. Because when I graduated I know nothing about teaching because I was a Literature graduate I start learning in the classroom. I have no skills about teaching. Before getting the CELTA I worked two years as a teacher. But after getting the certificate I realized that I was doing so much wrong in the classroom. And I can do so much different things so I try to impose it in the as an instructor rather than do that. So I have-I learned so many things I learned every aspect of teaching that I never come across while Bachelor's degree or MA. So I can say I learned everything in that programme so it is very useful for me." (Interviewee 7)

Besides undergraduate education and experiences during practicum, teachers were asked to reflect on in-service training by means of which they believe that they made progress.

> “Well my first year I had a lot of intern-in service training. I think I really learned how to teach better at university. and occasionally once or twice they would come into our classes observe and give us their opinions. About all of that was very good.” (Interviewee 6)

> “Because it is good that somebody tells me like what to do or what my mistakes are or how to do something- it was good. But about writing maybe I asked my peer and my co-workers and they told me like you can maybe do this you can do it in this way. For example I got the padlet through my friend- I mean I heard of padlet but I was like maybe a bit lazy about using it right. But then when I started I was like oh it is not bad.” (Interviewee 2)

Interviewees stated that they were satisfied with in-service training during earlier years of their teaching career. By asking help from their colleagues, the interviewees were able to strenghten their weaker points.

> “…I mean I can see that some of our teachers really they really need it a lot. Sharing your experience and ideas that always work that is inspring for everyone. For the experienced teachers for the new ones and you can learn a lot from each other but as I said we never do that kind of things unfortunately. So this is sort of disadvantageous I guess.” (Interviewee 7)

While there are some cases that teachers are deprived of in-service training. Among the participants, Interviewee 7 complained about the fact that there was no in-service training at the institution and considered it as a drawback. The transcripts enable us to recognize that the focus on in-service teacher training changes from institution to institution.

Problems related to time, effort and evaluation. During interviews sessions, participants mentioned some of the difficulties that they had to go through because of the requirements of writing evaluation.

> “When we were having face-to-face education. In online the numbers they have really increased a lot. Now we have like classes thirty

> students some of them maybe thirty five. It is really really tiring and taking too much time to grade all the essays." (Interviewee 7)

> "…When we compare the face to face lessons and online lessons especially online lessons it takes so much time to correct the writing exercises. When we look at the lessons firstly according to the pacing I need to tell the topic but when we look at the writing papers I need to revise I need to give feedback to the students in the lesson. But actually it is impossible for online lessons.When we look at the online lessons actually I have about thirty minutes and actually in thirty minutes it is impossible to give feedback to revise students' mistakes and something like that. That's so hard and this is the negative side of the online lessons actually." (Interviewee 5)

> "Not exactly. I can say something positive because when we are having face to face education it is quite hard to follow to collect the papers and all that stuff. But in online education everything is on your computer that is why it takes less time compared to face to face education." (Interviewee 10)

Due to the fact that instructors had to continue teaching during online education they had to deal with the problems that came along. To illustrate, Interviewee 5 finds that online education makes it harder to carry out writing exercises and providing feedback. Because of the time limitation, the instructor cannot spare required time on activities and skip to other duties. On the other hand, Interviewee considers that online education is advantageous in terms of writing exercises as computer is the only medium to control the process.

> "Actually yes it takes because weekly I don't know and sometimes you-we may have to teach two seperate classes like each class includes like thirty students or twenty five or thirty students and so in total weekly we have to evaluate like sixty essays and we have to give a detailed feedback on them. And it takes really much time actually. And this is not the only part of course. This is just for writing lesson. For other lessons we have other assignments and homeworks so it is a bit taking too much time to do that" (Interviewee 7)

> "Unlike other skills-I mean it is not always easy like multiple choices because there is some kind of subjective thing of teacher when you are evaluating writing. This is a problem major problem. It is also very extra work compared to others but unlike speaking for example it is really easy to evaluate and to do on multiple massive groups of students." (Interviewee 3)

> "So if you don't put extra attention on their writing skill it is going to be a problem. They won't write and writing I think that is the hardest skill in English. Everbody can speak but it is hard to write. There are so many rules in writing you know. So they have to learn about those rules as well. Punctuation you know spelling vocabulary …"(Interviewee 9)

During the interview sessions, most of the interviewees mentioned how challenging the writing evaluation can be. This results mainly from the number of students in classes, the number of tasks to complete, and the manner of subjectivity that slows down the assessment process.

> "…For example one of the teachers wanted to reduce points because the student didn't have blanks after comma and I was like what are you doing- no it's not-we are not teaching you know-it's not language science- just beginners we don't want them to focus on tiny little details a lot. I will not take points from a student because they forgot blank after a comma or full stop. I don't really like this so we had a heavy discussions about it." (Interviewee 3)

> "I actually want them to find their own mistakes to get more positive approach. But I generally give them the right answer I tend to do that. Maybe it is again it depends on the level I-sometimes it is a very simple mistake that we go over and over again in the classroom. If the mistake-then I try to make the student find it especially again in the intermediate levels I make the student-I try to make the student find the mistakes." (Interviewee 7)

> "… It actually totally depends on the level. For example imagine that I have beginner level students. Then our organization will not be that

> important because they will write a letter or they will write some sentences rather than a paragraph. So I generally focus on grammar, punctuation sometimes spelling and use of words is important because sometimes yes they know the meaning but it is not the meaning that actually they think. It can be confusing. I focus on these but my students' level is intermediate or advanced level students then they have to write a paragraph or an essay. So in that point I assume that they know grammar units or they know punctuation actually. So I generally highlight these parts or just underline them so that they can understand it." (Interviewee 4)

Teachers from different institutions state that their colleagues' attitudes change from one another when it comes to writing evaluation. Interviewee 3 states that one of the teachers at the institution had a rigid attitude towards student errors which was against interviewee's approach. Two interviewees claim that they adapt the way of using corrective feedback according to the proficiency level of students. If the students are at intermediate or advanced levels, teachers expect their student to take action in correcting errors.

Correction techniques. The last theme of the qualitative analysis is the correction techniques and corrective feedback types that teachers use during writing evaluation. Apart from corrective feedback types that participants expected to rank their effectiveness of using them, teachers were asked to respond to other techniques including use of oral corrective feedback and revision of errors after task completion. In addition, participants mentioned their own techniques and tools that they adapted as a result of online education process.

When participants were asked whether they revise students errors after writing evaluation or not, most of them responded that they did. Even some of the teachers made use of suppotive materials to emphasize on critical errors.

> "Not before handing out the topics but for example we did the first draft and I realize that most of the students have the same mistakes-similar kinds of mistakes in that case I prepare sheet common mistakes sheet and I go over the items one by one and that is how I draw their attention to their mistakes." (Interviewee 10)

"If it is very common I mean after each lesson if I give an assignment and after correcting all the papers when I see some common errors I focus on them in the next class. Because we give them feedback on paper but sometimes they don't understand it but they don't ask about it but then you see common errors and when you explain them in class I think that is more useful. And you can see better- students really understand it or not or so if it is a common thing I generally focus on that. (Inteviewee 8)

"… And then I- if needed not always- I write like you should correct, you should add this, this is missing for every student but I usually do general mistakes sesssion in class like ten to twenty minutes. I evaluate every student and took notes. And I say things like this is- most of you missed this, most of you miss this, you missed this you should be careful about this kind of thing there is almost always a pattern of mistakes in students. I almost always-half of the term I talk about don't forget am/is/are, don't put am/is/are with other verbs. These are the major mistakes and most of the time they happen." (Interviewee 3)

"…I try to write down common mistakes seperately for example past perfect is very problematic in the general for example. Out of twenty there are twelve or fifteen mistakes on it- present simple even a problem things you can think about. I wrote some notes go to the classroom. I don't hand the writings out. I just first start with the problems. Even we tell or we teach the subject it is really necessary. For example I think if we out of twenty nineteen of the writings have the same problem I think the classroom for example if it is present simple all of the writings have a problem I think it needs to be covered again." (Interviewee 7)

As it is seen, teachers differ from each other in terms of techniques that they use during revision process. Interviewee 3 makes use of personal notes and classroom sessions while Interviewee 10 prepares another sheet for general revision. Interviewee 8 also spares time for general revision after task completion

for problematic parts. As a technique, Interviewee 7 takes notes beforehand and demonstrates the general problems in class.

> "Of course they can also have some blogs and write something but padlet is better because I just combine everyone into the same platform and I can also check their comments-they should make comments in a proper way of course. They shouldn't hurt the feeling of their friends. And sometimes I can also make some comments which can be quite fun. And I can encourage students to do it. So yes I actually like these kind of things especially when we think that the generation that I have I guess." (Interviewee 4)

> "I mean my personal observation most of my students are like they got help from their peers themselves and peer correction is something that I support. If of course we teach them how to do it okay now you are gonna we cannot say that now we are gonna do peer correction no so first we teach them. You know- so it actually helps them they learn from their peers as well. Some students of course some students like teacher based like they take you as authority." (Interviewee 9)

> "…But for example it is more difficult to use peer feedback in online education. In face to face education I used feedback from time to time. My students actually didn't like it much. So I didn't use it a lot but sometimes I did it. But online education it is a bit more challenging-correct them correct each others' mistake and. This is also difficult to control that process I mean when you are in class easier to see who is giving feedback to whom, what they are doing, is there anything they couldn't understand or they couldn't cope with-you can figure out the problems easily and control the process better. But online education it is a bit more challenging." (Interviewee 8)

In addition to teacher-centered correction, interviewees state that they spare time to adapt new ways of providing correction in class from time to time. However, there may be individual differences in terms of prefering source of correction as Interviewee 9 claims. When it comes to role of online education in adapting peer correction, Interviewee 4 and 7 hold opposing ideas.

“And the ones who have come and conducted the Zoom sessions with me they were very receptive they are very open they ask me everything. Sometimes it takes ten fifteen minutes sometimes it is over in five minutes. But every single time I feel that they have actually learned and I could see that they in their-these are of course usually the students who don’t just send me one writing. They voluntarily create their own stuff and send them to me too. And I look at that and I answer that too. Again remember I am talking about two or three what is that ten percent of the students. And because I know they are working and I see the work that comes I know they incorporate with they learned or try to incorporate with what they already learned from me into you know subsequent writing exercises they do so what is that positive. ” (Interviewee 6)

“Anyway there is an app. I make them also use the app and they would write it on the screen and then the whole class would see it. And then I would do the correction by showing to the whole class. It doesn’t come to my mind I can’t remember it-Okay it is Padlet. We use Padlet.” (Interviewee 2)

“…But writing actually is quite important because writing is a way of expressing thoughts it is actually speaking by writing. Unfortunately we neglect it, we have to do. But sometimes I can use different things for students for example Padlet can be used. So rather than I make comments students read each others’ writings and comment on it. This is a different way of writing because you know they like being online writing something blocks and other things It’s quite fun and they also practice writing at the same time but as I told you before when I consider our syllabus our writing tasks are not enough to teach writing efficiently.” (Interviewee 4)

“It changed how I give feedback in class. Sometimes I try to use some tools and applications for example there is an application called Mirro and students can write all the students can have access to that application and while they are writing while they write their paragraphs

> or essays on the tool I can see what they write and I can give feedback. But it is a bit more challenge and difficult because you cannot follow all of them or you cannot communicate them at the same time. And you cannot give direct feedback. So most of the time I prefer giving feedback after collecting their writings at the end of the class so this part has not changed much." (Interviewee 8)

As a result of online education, teachers had to integrate their correction techniques with Web 2.0 tools. One of the most used application by the teachers is Padlet which is a syncronous and enables collaboration of others. Besides, Interviewee 6 states one-on-one Zoom sessions with the students are effective even if the number of participants are very low.

Another way of responding to students' writing texts other than Zoom sessions is the use of comments and personal notes. However, commenting on each student text is also disadvantegeous as it takes time. Interviewee 10 states this resulted in changing correction techniques and using more practical ways such as error correction codes.

> "I write-very good, very creative, I think this sentence of yours was touching so. Or sometimes if this is a sad story I say yeah I am so sorry for you or I give some advices like if I were you I would never go there again I just write. But actually I made all these things at the end of the paragraph. So that they can just laugh at it or sometimes they can think about it or they actually understand that I give value to their works and I read it actually not just correct it. I read it." (Interviewee 4)

> "Personal comments I used to do I used to write personal comments. But then it takes a lot of time. That is why I quit it doing that. And as I said before we use error correction codes. So if as I said before if there is a major mistake that I want to correct then I try to be as direct as possible. In order not to leave a question mark in the students' mind." (Interviewee 10)

Due to the fact that at most of the English Preparatory Schools error correction codes are used during writing evaluation, teachers were asked to reflect on practicality of these errors. In general teachers agree on the fact that error

correction codes are useful but the students must be informed about their purposes in evaluation beforehand.

> "... I think using the codes are a lot. I can say they are open to misunderstandings because while defining the codes you need to be really specific. If you are not specific enough with the codes and if you do not inform the students about the codes what they refer to before you assign them homework or whatever task of course is they lead to misunderstandings. And you can just as a teacher get lost. I cannot sometimes decide which code should I write to this error ..." (Interviewee 1)

> "I don't think it is problematic to apply if the student is a good student I mean if he or she cares about the feedback he or she cares about his or her own development but of course it is very useful for teacher. It saves a lot of time. (…) But each time we have portfolio they ask what is EW what does EW mean what does GR mean-you have the sheet you have error correction sheet …" (Interviewee 10)

> "I mean I think that they are efficient and useful but just as teachers we have to explain those ones to them because sometimes some of the students listen when you are explaining them sometimes they aren't there in the classroom so it is normal that they forget it or weren't even there when we explain it. So I think they are useful but we have to remind the students again. Like SP is for spelling whatever but mostly they get it like when we explain it two times at least and they get it. I mean when I say explain we have to really say spelling stands for this spelling mistakes are this for example we have to really show them the examples what they mean." (Interviewee 2)

Even though error correction codes are commonly used, there are still institutions that rely on teachers' own autonomy in writing evaluation. Interviewee 8 states that not using error correction codes leads to deficiency of standardization and confusion.

> "Actually we don't have that kind of things but I think that is a bit disadvantageous because when everyone does it on his her own way

> it is really so I don't know so diverse and you cannot control who does what and you cannot be sure that what one teacher does is really useful or not or sometimes whether she even does it or not they cannot even be sure of that so I think that kind of standardization is important but we don't have as a prep school we don't have that kind of practice." (Interviewee 8)

> "Obviously there is a thing that I do. First of all if I notice same errors in some papers I collect them, I write it, I take a note of them, and put in a presentation. Of course without telling who did it. And we talk about in the class I ask them what is the error here can you help me I don't tell this is the error. Still in class we try to find it as a whole let's say." (Interviewee 9)

All in all, qualitative study aims at highlighting certain issues that might be overlooked during quantitative analysis process. At the end of semi-structured interview sessions, teachers' preferences in using corrective feedback were determined under six themes. Qualitative study reveals that teachers have to go through many problems that range from students' willingness to participate and institution-led issues. In order to motivate students to involve writing evaluation process, teachers aim at using indirect corrective feedback types such as error correction codes. In addition, teachers try to create a more error-tolarated environment in class by appretiating students' work and neglecting some of the errors in text. Whereas, teachers do not leave students alone during the process and try to adapt different techniques. General revision sessions, oral corrective feedback sessions and peer feedback are commonly used by teachers in case of need. Besides, teachers tend to implement Web 2.0 tools as a result of online education and change the medium of correction from papers to tools. When it comes to institutions teachers have complaints about crowded classrooms, the load of work, and not being able to complete assessments in time. Lastly, teachers' educational background were taken into account as the instructors differed from each other. In general, ELT graduate teachers and non-ELT graduates state that their undergraduate education and practicum are merely about practice. Therefore, in-service training and asking help from other colleagues were appretiated more by teachers.

To summarize, Question 3 investigates teachers' preferences in using corrective feedback under quantitative and qualitative approaches. First of all, teachers' demographic background and responses to both open-ended and likert-scale items were quantitatively analyzed. Similar to Question 1, descriptive statistics were used to analyze teachers' responses to each likert-scale item in this study. At the end o the analysis, it was found that teachers prefer marking only major errors and neglecting minor errors rather than correcting all of the errors in writing. Even though there was a statistically slight difference, teachers that correct a repeat error every time it occurs outnumbers the ones only correcting for once. When teachers were expected to rank seven written corrective feedback types in terms of their effectiveness in writing, using clues or directions to fix an error was considered to be the most useful technique by teachers. Instead of directly correcting students' error and locating exactly where the error is, it is clear to see that teachers prefer indirect feedback types. Moreover, teachers do not tolarate absence of feedback in writing and responded effectiveness of no feedback variable negatively. Finally, the last likert-scale item aimed at revealing teachers' preferences in correcting errors in a writing. Teachers were expected to rank effectiveness of six errors types in writing from 1 to 5. Teachers' preferences indicate that they find pointing out organizational errors very useful.

Question 4

In this study, Questions 1 and 2 are expected to figure out students' responses to questionnaire items and their relation with demographic variables. Previously, Question 3 revealed teachers' preferences in using written CF by means of descriptive statistics. The fourth research question aims to investigate whether there is any relation between teachers' open and close ended questionnaire items and their demographical background. In another SPSS file, collected data from teachers were entered including open-ended items. In order to do that, all open-ended statements from 50 teachers were read one by one for each question and coded under themes accordingly. Whereas, the analysis of likert-scale items is depended on Test of Normality results. Because of its questionnaire form, the researcher conducted Normality test for each likert scale items to determine whether to conduct parametric or non parametric tests for further analysis.

Test of normality.

H_0: There is normal distribution among variables.

H_a: There is no normal distribution among variables.

In order to find out whether the variables are suitable for normal distribution, Shapiro-Wilk test statistics is used on likert-scale items one by one. In total, there were thirteen individual normality tests; seven of them were about normality of written CF types while six of them were about error types in writing. When test of Normality results are taken into account, all likert-scale items have one thing in common: The distribution is not suitable for normal distribution. None of the Sig. values met criterion and remained under alpha value ($p < \alpha$=0.05). Similar to students' analysis, non-parametric tests will be used to compare groups.

Chi-square tests. In statistics, there are two chi-square test for different purposes which are chi-square test for goodness of fit and chi-square tests for independence. The latter is found to be suitable for the purpose of this study, therefore, the relation between two categorical variables are investigated for comparison. The relation between teachers' demographic variables and their responses to items such as using certain amount of correction and using correction on repeat error every time will be analyzed. Due to comparison of two categorical variables, teachers' responses to open-ended questions will be taken into account, as well.

Table 55

Chi Square Test between Male and Female Teachers' Responses to Use of Amount of Feedback

		Male	Female	Total
Marking all errors	Count	6	6	12
	% within gender	40%	17,1%	24%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	7	21	28
	% within gender	46,7%	60,0%	56%

	Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	3	5
		% within gender	13,3%	8,6%	10%
	Marking only a few of major errors	Count	0	1	1
		% within gender	0%	2,9%	2%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	0	2	2
		% within gender	0%	5,7%	4%
	Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content	Count	0	2	2
		% within gender	0%	5,7%	4%
Total		Count	15	35	50
		% within gender	100%	100%	100%

Table 55 indicates that there is no statistical difference between male and female teachers in terms of preferences in using amount of errors (p=,416 > α=0.05).

Table 56

Chi Square Test between Male and Female Teachers' Correction of a Repeat Error Every Time

			Male	Female	Total
	Yes	Count	7	20	27
		within gender %	14%	40%	54%
	No	Count	8	15	23
		within gender %	16%	30	46%
Total	Count		15	35	50
	Within gender %		30%	70%	100%

Considering that this is a 2x2 table, which means that each variable has two categories only, the Continuity Correction line indicates that there is no statistical difference between male and female teachers in use of correction on a repeat error every time (p=0,710 > α=0.05).

Table 57

Chi Square Test between Male and Female Teachers' Age Groups and Use of Amount of Correction

		20-25	26-31	32-37	38-43	44-49	50-55	56-61	62-67	Total
Marking all errors	Count	2	4	2	1	2	1	0	0	12
	within age groups	4%	8%	4%	2%	4%	2%	0%	0%	24%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	5	8	7	3	3	1	1	0	28
	within age groups	10%	16%	14%	6%	6%	2%	2%	0%	56%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
	within age groups	2%	2%	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	2%	10%
Marking only a few of major errors	Count	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	within age groups	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%
Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	within age groups	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	4%

	Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content	Count	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
		within age groups	0%	0%	0%	2%	2%	0%	0%	0%	4%
Total		Count	10	13	9	5	8	2	2	1	50
		within age groups	20%	26%	18%	10%	16%	4%	4%	2%	100%

There is no statistical difference between male and female teachers' age groups that range from 20-25 to 62-67 in terms of using amount of correction in writing (p=0,420 > α=0.05).

Table 58

Chi Square Test between Teachers' Age Groups and Use of Correction on a Repeat Error Every Time

			20-25	26-31	32-37	38-43	44-49	50-55	56-61	62-67	Total
	Yes	Count	2	10	6	3	3	2	1	0	27
		Within age groups %	4%	20%	12%	6%	6%	4%	2%	0%	54%
	No	Count	8	3	3	2	5	0	1	1	23
		within age groups %	16%	6%	6%	4%	10%	0%	2%	2%	46%
Total	Count		10	13	9	5	8	2	2	1	50
	Within age groups %		20%	26%	18%	10%	16%	4%	4%	2%	100%

A Chi-square test is used to find out the relation between teachers' age groups and preferences in using correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. According to Asymp. Sig. value, there is no statistical difference between two variables (p=0,106 > α=0.05).

Table 59

Chi Square Test between Duration of Teaching Experience and Using Amount of Correction

		5 or less	6-11 years	12-17 yeara s	18-23 years	24-29 years	30-35 years	36-43 years	Total
Marking all errors	Count	3	4	1	2	2	0	0	12
	within Duration of teaching %	6%	8	2%	4%	4%	0%	0%	24%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	11	7	5	1	3	1	0	28
	within duration of teaching %	22 %	14	10%	2%	6%	2%	0%	56%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	5
	within duration of teaching %	4%	0%	0%	0%	2%	2%	2%	10%
Marking only a few of major errors	Count	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	within	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%

		duration of teaching %								
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count within duration of teaching %	2 4%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 4%
	Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content	Count within duration of teaching %	0 0%	0 0%	1 2%	0 0%	1 2%	0 0%	0 0%	2 4%
Total		Count within duration of teaching %	18 36 %	11 22%	7 14%	4 8%	7 14%	2 4%	1 2%	50 100 %

When the length of teaching experience and teachers' preferences in using amount of feedback were compared, no statistical difference was found between these variables (p=0,123 > α=0.05).

Table 60

Chi Square Test between Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience and Correction on a Repeat Error Every Time

			5 or less	6-11 years	12-17 yearas	18-23 years	24-29 years	30-35 years	36-43 years	Total
	Yes	Count	8	7	5	2	4	1	0	27
		Within duration of teaching %	16%	14%	10%	4%	8%	2%	0%	54%
	No	Count	10	4	2	2	3	1	1	23
		Within Duration of teaching %	20%	8%	4%	4%	6%	2%	2%	46%
Total	Count		18	11	7	4	7	2	1	50
	Within duration of teaching %		36%	22%	14%	8%	14%	4%	2%	100%

According to table, there is no statistical difference between teachers' year of experience and their preferences in using correction on a repeat error every time it occurs because the Sig. Value is greater than the alpha value (p=0 ,787 > α=0.05).

Table 61

Chi Square Test between Teachers' Bachelor Degree and Response to Amount of Correction

		English Language Teaching	English Language Literature	Translation and Interpretation	American Culture and Literature	Linguistics	Other	Total
Marking all errors	Count	9	3	0	0	0	0	12
	within BA degree %	18%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0%	24%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	17	6	0	1	2	2	28
	within BA degree %	34%	12%	0%	2%	4%	4%	56%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	2	2	0	0	1	0	10
	within BA degree %	4%	4%	4%	0%	2%	0%	10%

	Marking only a few of major errors	Count within BA degree %	0 0%	1 2%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	1 2%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count within BA degree %	2 4%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 4%
	Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content	Count within BA degree %	0 0%	1 2%	1 2%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 4%
Total		Count	30	13	1	1	3	2	50
		Within BA degree %	60%	26%	2%	2%	6%	4%	100%

A Chi-square test is used to find out the relation between teachers undergraduate education background and their preferences in using amount of correction. The Asymp. Sig value is greater than alpha value, therefore, there is no statistical difference (p= 0,074 > α=0.05).

Table 62

Chi Square Test between Teachers' BA Fields and Use of Correction on a Repeat Error

		English Language Teaching	English Language Literature	Translation and Interpretation	American Culture and Literature	Linguistics	Other	Total
Yes	Count	16	8	0	1	2	0	27
	Within BA degree %	32,0 %	16,0 %	0,0 %	2,0 %	4,0 %	0,0%	54,0 %
No	Count	14	5	1	0	1	2	23
	Within BA degree %	28,0 %	10,0 %	2,0 %	0,0 %	2,0%	4,0%	46,0 %
Total	Count	30	13	1	1	3	2	50
	Within BA degree %	60,0 %	26,0 %	2,0 %	2,0 %	6,0 %	4,0 %	100%

According to table, there is no statistical difference between teachers' undergraduate education background and their preferences in using correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. Asymp. Sig value is greater than the alpha value (p=0,432 > α=0.05).

Chi-Square tests were conducted on teachers' graduate education background including pursuit of MA and PhD, as well. However, no Sig values were

found for these variables which is likely to result from the fact that the frequencies and percentages are not homogeneous enough to find clear results. Therefore, these Chi Square tests are exluded from the study.

Mann-whitney u. Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric test that is used for comparison of two variables. In general, the analysis procedure takes place between one categorical variable and one continious variable. After comparison of categorical variables between each other, likert-scale items will be compared by means of Mann-Whitney U test. However, only the variables with two levels (e.g gender, MA background, and PhD background) will be included.

Table 63

Difference between Male and Female Teachers' Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF types	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Clues or Directions	Male	15	27,23		
	Female	35	24,76	-,572	,567
Error identification	Male	15	29,07		
	Female	35	23,97	-1,169	,242
Correction With comments	Male	15	25,63		
	Female	35	25,44	-,044	,965
Teacher Correction	Male	15	25,77		
	Female	35	25,39	-,088	,930
Commentary	Male	15	28,47	-,969	,333
	Female	35	24,23		
No feedback On error	Male	15	24,10		
	Female	35	26,10	-,596	,551

Personal Comment on content	Male	15	28,70	-1,060	,289
	Female	35	24,13		

A Mann-Whitney U test is used to find out the role of teachers' gender on their responses to effectiveness of written CF types in writing. As it is demonstrated in table, none of the Sig. vaşues of variables are lower than alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05). Thus, there is no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' responses to effectiveness of WCF types.

Table 64

Difference between Male and Female Teachers' Responses to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of error	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Organization Errors	Male	15	29,43	-1,588	,112
	Female	35	23,81		
Grammatical Errors	Male	15	29,00	-1,214	,225
	Female	35	24,00		
Content/ idea Errors	Male	15	30,00	-1,626	,104
	Female	35	23,57		
Punctuation errors	Male	15	27,07	-,523	,601
	Female	35	24,83		
Spelling Errors	Male	15	25,97	-,158	,874
	Female	35	25,30		
Vocabulary Errors	Male	15	29,20		

	Female	35	23,91	-1,304	,192

As a categorical variable, gender is used for comparison to find out the relation between male and female teachers' responses to effectiveness of error types in writing. All Sig. values were greater than the alpha value, therefore, no statistically significant difference was found ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 65

Difference between Teachers' PhD Education and Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF types	PhD Background	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Clues or Directions	None	39	25,58		
	Completed or in progress	11	25,23	-,073	,942
Error identification	None	39	24,86		
	Completed or in progress	11	27,77	-,604	,546
Correction With comments	None	39	25,28		
	Completed or in progress	11	26,27	-,206	,837
Teacher Correction	None	39	24,97		
	Completed or in progress	11	27,36	-,497	,619
Commentary	None	39	23,19		
	Completed or in progress	11	33,68	-2,168	,030
No feedback On error	None	39	25,81		
	Completed or in progress	11	24,41	-,377	,706
Personal	None	39	25,50		

Comment on content	Completed or in progress	11	25,50	,000	1,000

A Mann-Whitney test is used to compare the relation between teachers' state of graduate education (PhD) and their responses to effectiveness of written CF types. Except for commentary correction type, all the other correction types received Sig values that are greater than the alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05). Thus, there is only statistical significant difference between teachers' state of PhD education and their responses to use of commentary as a correction type (p=0,030 < α=0.05).

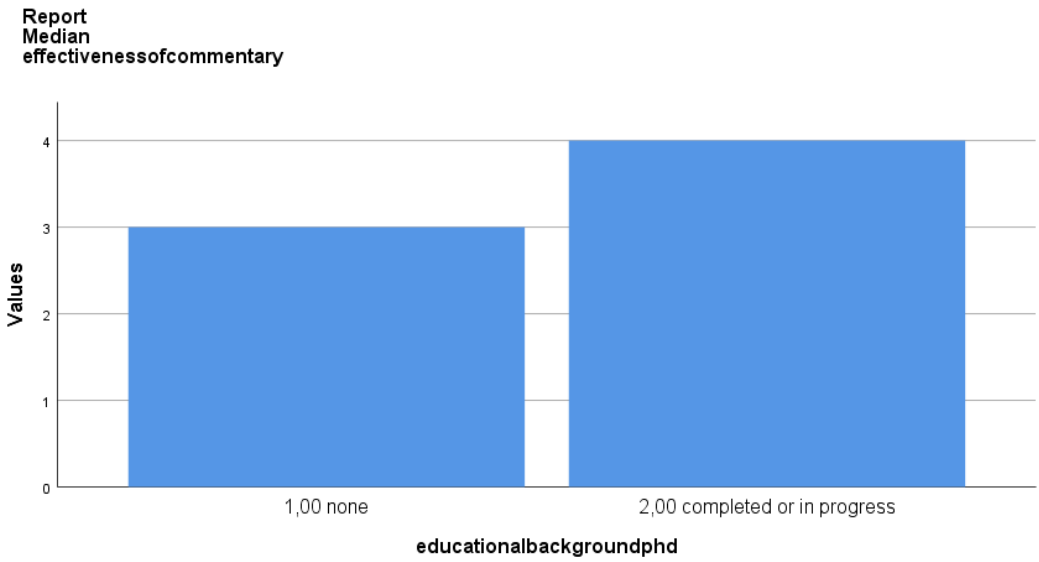

Figure 4. Median scores of teachers' state of PhD education in use of commentary.

According to graph, it can be deduced that the median scores are nearly the same between two groups in responding to effectiveness of using commentary in writing. However, teachers that either completed or carried on their PhD education consider use of commentary as a quite useful technique (*Md*=4). Teachers with no PhD education remain neutral towards use of commentary as a written corrective feedback type (*Md*=3).

Table 66

Difference between PhD Education and Responses to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of error	PhD background	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Organizational Errors	None	39	24,12		
	Completed or in progress	11	30,41	-1,608	,108
Grammatical Errors	None	39	24,91		
	Completed or in progress	11	27,59	-,588	,556
Content/ idea Errors	None	39	25,15		
	Completed or in progress	11	26,73	-,360	,719
Punctuation errors	None	39	24,95		
	Completed or in progress	11	27,45	-,529	,597
Spelling Errors	None	39	25,59		
	Completed or in progress	11	25,18	-,088	,930
Vocabulary Errors	None	39	25,53		
	Completed or in progress	11	25,41	-,026	,979

Another Mann-Whitney U test is used to investigate the relation between teachers' state of graduate education (PhD) and their responses to effectiveness of error types in writing. The table indicates that there is no statistical difference because none of the Sig values are lower than alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Kruskal wallis test. Apart from independent variables that involve only two groups, there is an urge to use another non-parametric test for comparison. Kruskal-Wallis test is used to compare the scores on continious variable; however, the

categorical independent variable must have more than three groups. Similar to students' analysis, there are categorical variables with more than three groups including teachers' age groups, duration of teaching experience, and teachers educational background on both undergraduate and graduate levels. The whole analysis process takes place on SPSS 26.

Table 67

Difference between Teachers' Age Groups and Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF Types	Age in Groups	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	20-25	10	31,90	7	,462
	26-31	13	22,88		
	32-37	9	29,39		
	38-43	5	20,70		
	44-49	8	24,38		
	50-55	2	22,00		
	56-61	2	24,50		
	62-67	1	2,50		
Error identification	20-25	10	30,60	7	,677
	26-31	13	23,73		
	32-37	9	23,94		
	38-43	5	23,20		
	44-49	8	30,13		
	50-55	2	12,00		
	56-61	2	19,00		
	62-67	1	26,00		
Correction with comments	20-25	10	18,60	7	,049
	26-31	13	32,35		
	32-37	9	18,22		
	38-43	5	19,80		
	44-49	8	35,19		
	50-55	2	28,50		
	56-61	2	15,50		

	62-67	1	36,00		
Teacher correction	20-25	10	19,65	7	,347
	26-31	13	28,92		
	32-37	9	18,22		
	38-43	5	24,20		
	44-49	8	32,50		
	50-55	2	31,25		
	56-61	2	31,25		
	62-67	1	32,50		
Commentary	20-25	10	24,45	7	,560
	26-31	13	25,42		
	32-37	9	26,11		
	38-43	5	23,40		
	44-49	8	31,56		
	50-55	2	8,50		
	56-61	2	32,75		
	62-67	1	13,00		
No feedback on error	20-25	10	24,30	7	,563
	26-31	13	27,35		
	32-37	9	21,83		
	38-43	5	24,90		
	44-49	8	29,63		
	50-55	2	19,50		
	56-61	2	19,50		
	62-67	1	40,50		
Personal Comment on Content	20-25	10	23,00	7	,532
	26-31	13	21,73		
	32-37	9	32,28		
	38-43	5	31,30		
	44-49	8	27,00		
	50-55	2	18,00		

56-61	2	26,50
62-67	1	10,50

The first table aims to demonstrate whether there is a relation between teachers' age in groups and their responses to likert-scale items about written CF types. Among seven corrective feedback types, there is only statistically significance on correction with comments because the Sig. value is lower than alpha value (p=0,049 < α=0.05). Therefore, there is a difference in responses to effectiveness of correction with comments as a correction type across different age groups.

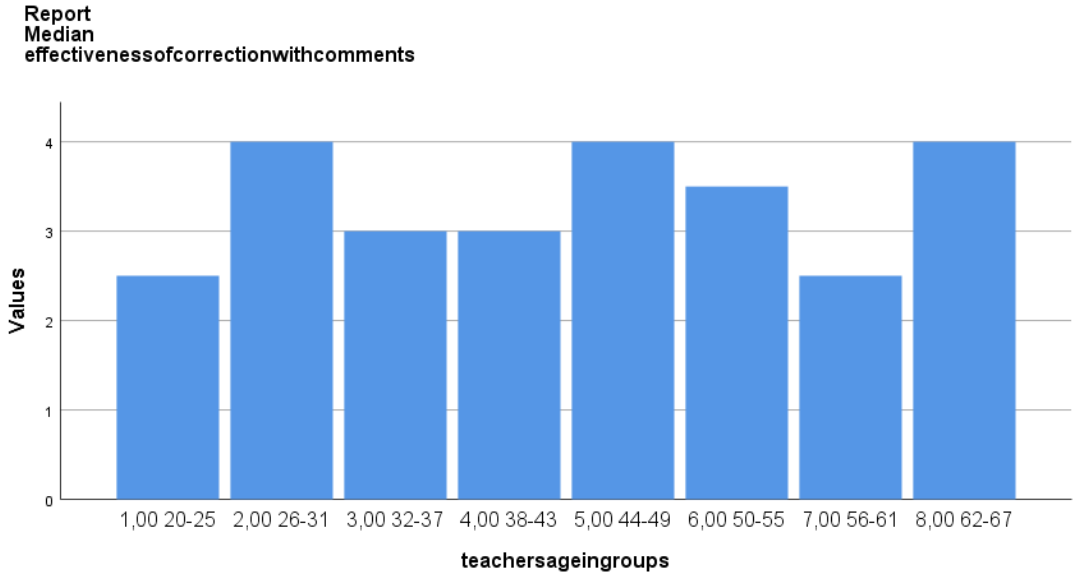

Figure 5. Median scores of teachers' age groups in use of correction with comments.

The graph demonsrates teachers' age groups in eight levels and the median scores of using correction with comments as a written CF type. There are three Age groups (26-31), (44-49), and (62-67) that received the highest median scores. Apart from that, there is no age group that responded use of correction with comments as a very useless technique. Only teachers at the age groups 20-25 and 56-61 are tied with "not useful" and "doesn't matter" levels (*Md*=2,50).

Table 68

Difference between Teachers' Age Groups and Responses to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of Errors	Age in Groups	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
	20-25	10	25,60		
Organizational	26-31	13	27,81		
Error	32-37	9	22,28	7	,942
	38-43	5	26,60		
	44-49	8	25,94		
	50-55	2	21,00		
	56-61	2	21,00		
	62-67	1	32,50		
	20-25	10	19,90		
	26-31	13	31,73		
	32-37	9	28,06	7	,157
Grammatical	38-43	5	28,50		
Error	44-49	8	25,63		
	50-55	2	18,50		
	56-61	2	11,25		
	62-67	1	4,00		
	20-25	10	25,80		
Content / Idea	26-31	13	26,62	7	,818
Error	32-37	9	23,61		
	38-43	5	29,60		
	44-49	8	27,56		
	50-55	2	24,75		
	56-61	2	13,50		
	62-67	1	13,50		
	20-25	10	20,40		
	26-31	13	27,19		
Punctuation	32-37	9	23,50		
Error	38-43	5	31,50	7	,392

	44-49	8	30,69		
	50-55	2	32,25		
	56-61	2	17,25		
	62-67	1	4,00		
Spelling Error	20-25	10	20,15	7	,204
	26-31	13	30,46		
	32-37	9	26,94		
	38-43	5	29,30		
	44-49	8	26,06		
	50-55	2	29,75		
	56-61	2	9,00		
	62-67	1	2,50		
Vocabulary Error	20-25	10	18,75	7	,111
	26-31	13	29,85		
	32-37	9	28,89		
	38-43	5	26,40		
	44-49	8	29,25		
	50-55	2	26,50		
	56-61	2	9,75		
	62-67	1	1,00		

Table 68 indicates the relation between teachers' age groups and their responses to effectiveness of error types in writing. No statistically significant difference was found because none of the Sig. values were lower than alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 69

Difference between Teachers' Duration of Teaching Experience and Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF Types	Years in Teaching English	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	5 years or less	18	27,89	6	,714
	6-11 years	11	26,23		
	12-17 years	7	25,64		
	18-23 years	4	21,00		
	24-29 years	7	24,21		
	30-35 years	2	24,50		
	36-43 years	1	2,50		
Error identification	5 years or less	18	27,72	6	,455
	6-11 years	11	24,27		
	12-17 years	7	22,00		
	18-23 years	4	38,13		
	24-29 years	7	19,79		
	30-35 years	2	19,00		
	36-43 years	1	26,00		
Correction with comments	5 years or less	18	23,86	6	,271
	6-11 years	11	27,27		
	12-17 years	7	17,00		
	18-23 years	4	35,13		
	24-29 years	7	31,29		
	30-35 years	2	15,50		
	36-43 years	1	36,00		
Teacher correction	5 years or less	18	25,78	6	,385
	6-11 years	11	19,73		
	12-17 years	7	20,57		
	18-23 years	4	36,25		

	24-29 years	7	30,00		
	30-35 years	2	31,25		
	36-43 years	1	32,50		
Commentary	5 years or less	18	23,97		
	6-11 years	11	26,09		
	12-17 years	7	26,07	6	,945
	18-23 years	4	28,25		
	24-29 years	7	26,07		
	30-35 years	2	32,75		
	36-43 years	1	13,00		
	5 years or less	18	24,83		
	6-11 years	11	26,32		
No feedback on error	12-17 years	7	19,50	6	,335
	18-23 years	4	33,00		
	24-29 years	7	27,21		
	30-35 years	2	19,50		
	36-43 years	1	40,50		
	5 years or less	18	21,72		
Personal Comment on Content	6-11 years	11	27,68		
	12-17 years	7	32,79	6	,446
	18-23 years	4	32,00		
	24-29 years	7	22,64		
	30-35 years	2	26,50		
	36-43 years	1	10,50		

A Kruskal-Wallis test is used to investigate the relation between teachers' duration of English teaching experience and their responses to effectiveness of written CF types. According to the test, it is revealed that there is no statistically difference between teachers' experience and their responses to effectiveness of any written CF types ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 70

Difference between Teachers' Duration of Teaching Experience and Their Responses to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of Errors	Years in Teaching English	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Organizational Error	5 years or less	18	25,28	6	,627
	6-11 years	11	28,32		
	12-17 years	7	21,71		
	18-23 years	4	32,50		
	24-29 years	7	21,71		
	30-35 years	2	21,00		
	36-43 years	1	32,50		
Grammatical Error	5 years or less	18	25,25	6	,174
	6-11 years	11	32,18		
	12-17 years	7	22,57		
	18-23 years	4	31,00		
	24-29 years	7	22,57		
	30-35 years	2	11,25		
	36-43 years	1	4,00		
Content / Idea Error	5 years or less	18	24,81	6	,655
	6-11 years	11	28,77		
	12-17 years	7	23,64		
	18-23 years	4	30,38		
	24-29 years	7	26,36		
	30-35 years	2	13,50		
	36-43 years	1	13,50		
Punctuation Error	5 years or less	18	20,56	6	,090
	6-11 years	11	31,91		
	12-17 years	7	23,50		
	18-23 years	4	36,63		
	24-29 years	7	29,21		
	30-35 years	2	17,25		

	36-43 years	1	4,00		
Spelling Error	5 years or less	18	22,36	6	,021
	6-11 years	11	36,27		
	12-17 years	7	20,86		
	18-23 years	4	29,75		
	24-29 years	7	26,86		
	30-35 years	2	9,00		
	36-43 years	1	2,50		
Vocabulary Error	5 years or less	18	22,78	6	,042
	6-11 years	11	33,50		
	12-17 years	7	21,64		
	18-23 years	4	32,00		
	24-29 years	7	28,07		
	30-35 years	2	9,75		
	36-43 years	1	1,00		

A Kruskal-Wallis test is used to find out if there is a statistically significant difference between teachers' duration of teaching experience and their responses to error types in writing. Among all of the six error types, only spelling and vocabulary errors are taken into account. There is a statistically significant difference between teaching experience and responses to spelling error (p=0,021 < α=0.05). Also there is statistically significant difference between teachers' duration of teaching and their responses to vocabulary error (p= 0,42 < α=0.05).

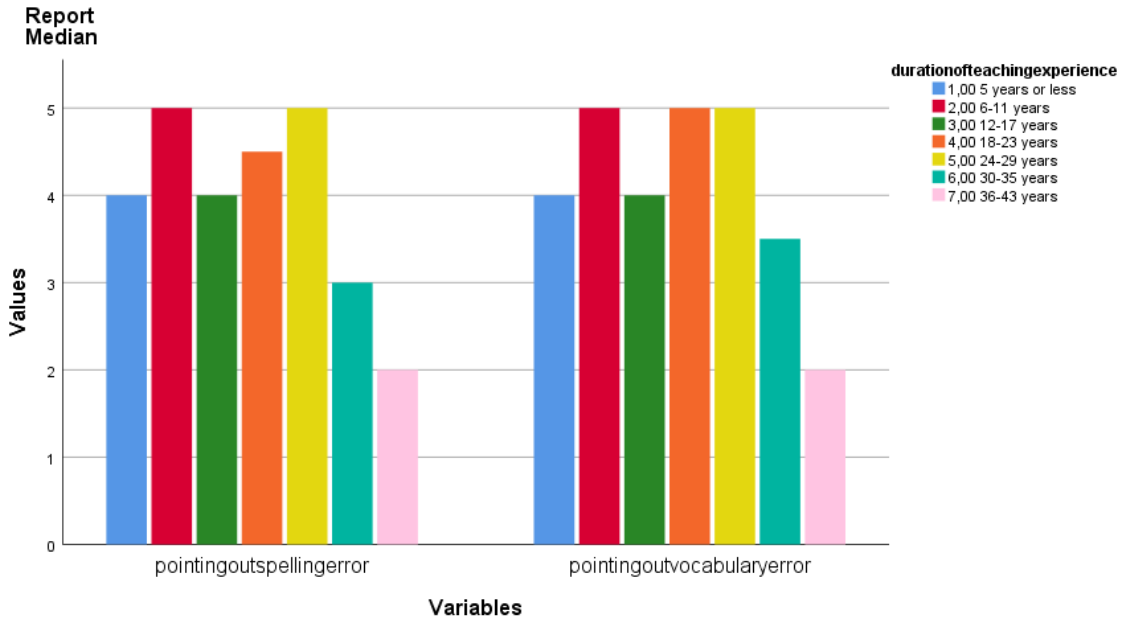

Figure 6. Median scores of teaching experience in correcting error types.

The graph demonstrates correction of spelling and vocabulary errors in writing across the years of English teaching experience. Teachers that have been teaching from 36 to 43 years stated that pointing out spelling errors and vocabulary errors are not useful (*Md*=2). While teachers that have been teaching from 12-17 and 5 or less than 5 years regard pointing out spelling and vocabulary errors as a quite useful technique (*Md*=4). The graph indicates that there is a statistically little difference for teachers that have been teaching from 18 to 23 years as they prefer correction on vocabulary errors as a very useful technique yet they are tied with "quite useful" and "very useful" levels in case of ranking effectiveness of spelling error (*Md*=5; *Md*= 4,50). Teachers that have been teaching from 6-11 years and 24-29 years have the same preferences as both groups consider pointing out spelling and vocabulary errors as a very useful technique (*Md*=5). Teachers that have been teaching for 30 to 35 years are neutral in pointing out spelling errors while they are tied with "doesn't matter" and "quite useful" levels in pointing out vocabulary errors (*Md*=3; *Md*=3,50).

Table 71

Difference between Teachers' Undergraduate Background and Responses to WCF Types

WCF Types	Educational background-BA	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	English Language Teaching	30	27,93	5	,707
	English Language Literature	13	22,27		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	14,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	14,50		
	Linguistics	3	24,83		
	Other	2	22,00		
Error identification	English Language Teaching	30	27,95	5	,470
	English Language Literature	13	19,27		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	39,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	26,00		
	Linguistics	3	25,83		
	Other	2	21,50		
Correction with comments	English Language Teaching	30	24,90	5	,422
	English Language Literature	13	26,04		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	10,00		
		1	36,00		

	American Culture and Literature	3	20,00		
	Linguistics	2	41,75		
	Other				
Teacher correction	English Language Teaching	30	25,25		
	English Language Literature	13	24,58	5	,807
	Translation and Interpretation	1	32,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	45,00		
	Linguistics	3	23,50		
	Other	2	25,00		
Commentary	English Language Teaching	30	25,55		
	English Language Literature	13	18,96	5	,037
	Translation and Interpretation	1	39,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	13,00		
	Linguistics	3	37,80		
	Other	2	48,00		
No feedback on error	English Language Teaching	30	25,20		
	English Language Literature	13	25,27		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	19,50	5	,428
	American Culture and Literature	1	19,50		
	Linguistics	3	37,50		
	Other	2	19,50		

Personal Comment on Content	English Language Teaching	30	26,13		
	English Language Literature	13	28,42		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	10,50	5	,386
	American Culture and Literature	1	10,50		
	Linguistics	3	26,50		
	Other	2	10,50		

According to table, there is only one statistically significant difference between teachers' undergraduate education background and their responses to effectiveness of written CF types. The table demonstrates that there is statistically significant difference in using commentary as a corrective feedback across teachers' undergraduate education field groups (p=0,037 < α=0.05).

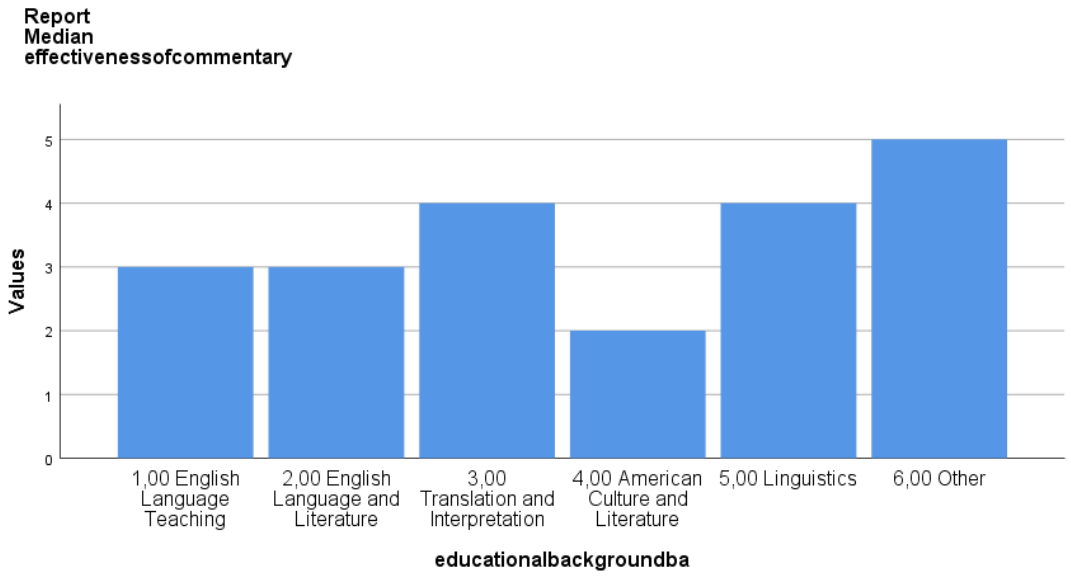

Figure 7. Median scores of teachers' undergraduate background in use of commentary.

Teachers that studied fields other than English prefer use of commentary as a very useful technique while teachers that studied American Culture and Literature

does not find it useful (*Md*=5; *Md*=2). Graduates of Linguistics and Translation/ Interpretation consider use of commentary on writing errors as a quite useful technique. English Language Teaching and English Language Literature graduates respond neutral to use of commentary (*Md*=3).

Table 72

Difference between Teachers' Undergraduate Background and Response to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of Errors	Educational background-BA	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Organizational Error	English Language Teaching	30	26,37	5	,591
	English Language Literature	13	23,77		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	9,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	32,50		
	Linguistics	3	22,67		
	Other	2	32,50		
Grammatical Error	English Language Teaching	30	26,85	5	,243
	English Language Literature	13	19,54		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	18,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	40,00		
	Linguistics	3	25,67		
	Other	2	40,00		
	English Language Teaching	30	27,78		
		13	22,42		

Content / Idea Error	English Language Literature	1	13,50	5	,469
	Translation and Interpretation	1	36,00		
	American Culture and Literature	3	17,00		
	Linguistics	2	24,75		
	Other				
Punctuation Error	English Language Teaching	30	26,72	5	,256
	English Language Literature	13	19,35		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	23,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	41,00		
	Linguistics	3	25,17		
	Other	2	41,00		
Spelling Error	English Language Teaching	30	26,63	5	,391
	English Language Literature	13	22,15		
	Translation and Interpretation	1	2,50		
	American Culture and Literature	1	39,00		
	Linguistics	3	29,00		
	Other	2	29,75		
Vocabulary Error	English Language Teaching	30	24,62	5	,597
	English Language Literature	13	24,46		
		1	15,50		

	Translation and Interpretation	1	37,50		
	American Culture and Literature	3	30,17		
	Linguistics	2	37,50		
	Other				

Another test is used for teachers' undegradaute education background to investigate its role in responses to effectiveness of error types in writing. No statistically significant difference was found among all error types because none of the variables had lower Sig. value than the alpha value ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 73

Difference between Teachers' MA Background and Responses to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF Types	Educational background-MA	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	English Language Teaching	25	25,50	3	,010
	English Language Literature	4	12,25		
	American Culture and Literature	4	7,00		
	Other	9	20,94		
Error identification	English Language Teaching	25	22,70	3	,779
	English Language Literature	4	18,63		
	American Culture and Literature	4	16,88		
	Other	9	21,50		

Correction with comments	English Language Teaching	25	20,56	3	,512
	English Language Literature	4	17,50		
	American Culture and Literature	4	29,00		
	Other	9	22,56		
Teacher correction	English Language Teaching	25	20,84	3	,452
	English Language Literature	4	27,63		
	American Culture and Literature	4	26,75		
	Other	9	18,28		
Commentary	English Language Teaching	25	19,90	3	,118
	English Language Literature	4	14,50		
	American Culture and Literature	4	20,63		
	Other	9	29,44		
No feedback on error	English Language Teaching	25	23,40	3	,355
	English Language Literature	4	21,75		
	American Culture and Literature	4	16,00		
	Other	9	18,56		

	English Language Teaching	25	22,40		
Personal Comment on Content	English Language Literature	4	19,25	3	,315
	American Culture and Literature	4	11,75		
	Other	9	24,33		

A Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there is only statistically significant difference in teachers' responses to use of clues or directions on an error across teachers' MA education fields (p=0,010 < α=0.05). Apart from that, there is no statistically significant difference in use of written CF types.

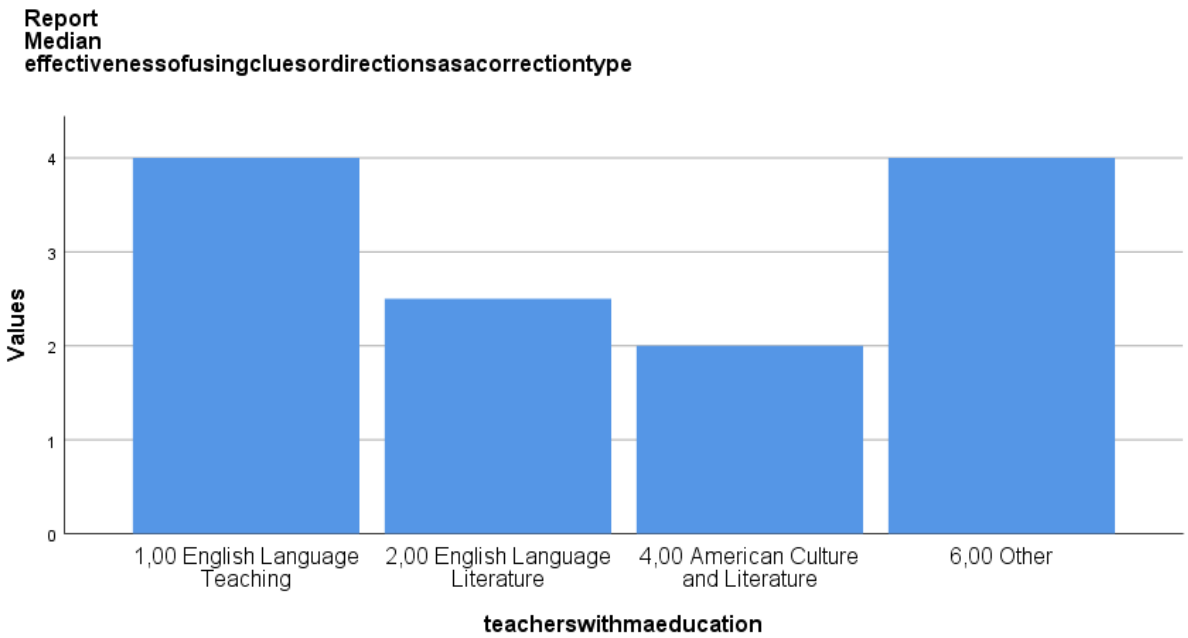

Figure 8. Median scores between teachers' MA study fields and use of clues or directions

The graph demonstrates that none of the teachers responded to "very useless" and "very useful" levels. Teachers that studied English Language Teaching and "other" study fields prefered use of clues or directions on writing errors as a quite useful technique (*Md*=4). Whereas teachers that studied American Culture and Literature consider don't find the correction technique useful (*Md*=2).

Table 74

Difference between Teachers' MA Background and Responses to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of Errors	Educational background-MA	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Organizational Error	English Language Teaching	25	23,88	3	,042
	English Language Literature	4	20,88		
	American Culture and Literature	4	9,50		
	Other	9	20,50		
Grammatical Error	English Language Teaching	25	19,76	3	,445
	English Language Literature	4	18,75		
	American Culture and Literature	4	25,00		
	Other	9	26,00		
Content / Idea Error	English Language Teaching	25	24,12	3	,083
	English Language Literature	4	18,88		
	American Culture and Literature	4	9,63		
	Other	9	20,67		
Punctuation Error	English Language Teaching	25	20,88	3	,479
	English Language Literature	4	18,63		

	American Culture and Literature	4	17,13		
	Other	9	26,44		
Spelling Error	English Language Teaching	25	21,36		
	English Language Literature	4	19,38	3	,513
	American Culture and Literature	4	15,50		
	Other	9	25,50		
Vocabulary Error	English Language Teaching	25	20,26		
	English Language Literature	4	19,88	3	,681
	American Culture and Literature	4	22,25		
	Other	9	25,33		

When teachers were asked to specify their study fields in MA education, they chose the fields that they either study at the moment or graduated before. Teachers' responses were categorized in four study fields then the relation between teachers' MA study fields and their responses to error types were analyzed. The table indicates that there is only statistically significant difference in correction of organizational errors across teachers' educational background (p=0,042 < α=0.05).

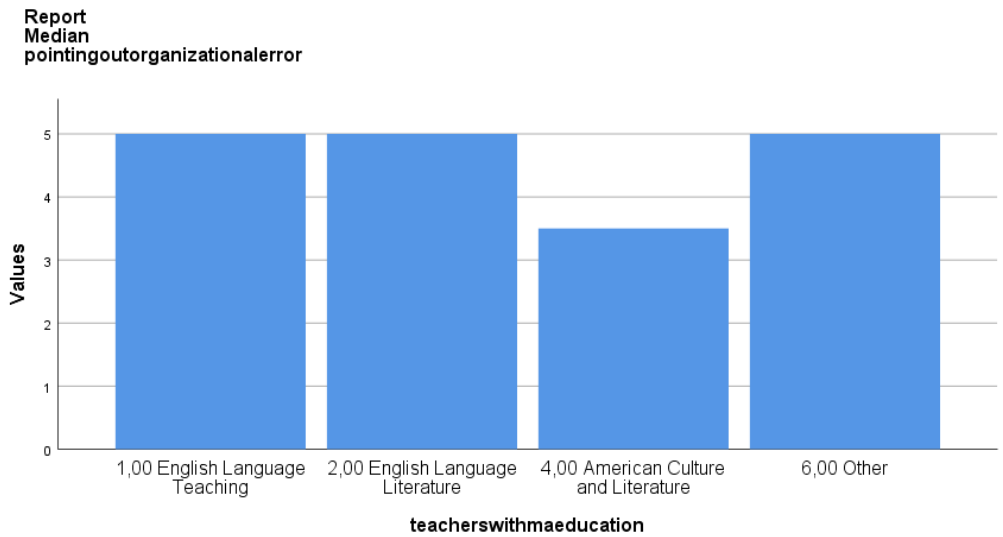

Figure 9. Median scores of teachers with MA fields in use of organizational errors

According to graph, teachers that studied graduate programs including English Language Teaching, English Language and Literature, and study fields other than English find pointing out organizational errors very useful (*Md*=5). Only teachers that studied American Culture and Literature are tied with “doesn’t matter” and “quite useful” levels (*Md*=3,50).

Table 75

Difference between Teachers' PhD Education and Response to Effectiveness of WCF Types

WCF Types	Educational background-PhD	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Clues or directions	English Language Teaching	7	6,50	2	,256
	Linguistics	1	1,00		
	Other	3	6,50		
Error identification	English Language Teaching	7	6,93	2	,358
	Linguistics	1	2,50		
	Other	3	5,00		

Correction with comments	English Language Teaching	7	6,36	2	,882
	Linguistics	1	5,00		
	Other	3	5,50		
Teacher correction	English Language Teaching	7	6,21		
	Linguistics	1	7,00	2	,811
	Other	3	5,17		
Commentary	English Language Teaching	7	5,07		
	Linguistics	1	7,00	2	,428
	Other	3	7,83		
No feedback on error	English Language Teaching	7	5,79		
	Linguistics	1	5,00	2	,709
	Other	3	6,83		
Personal Comment on Content	English Language Teaching	7	5,29		
	Linguistics	1	11,00	2	,236
	Other	3	6,00		

As it is asked previously on teachers' MA education background, teachers were also asked to specify their PhD study fields for the last categorical variable of the study. There were only three study fields that teachers either pursued or completed PhD education. In the table, there is no statistically significant difference in use of written corrective feedback types across different PhD study fields ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 76

Difference between Teachers' PhD Education and Response to Effectiveness of Error Types

Types of Errors	Educational background-PhD	*N*	Mean Rank	*Df*	*Asymp. Sig.*
Organizational Error	English Language Teaching	7	6,50	2	,007
	Linguistics	1	1,00		
	Other	3	6,50		
Grammatical Error	English Language Teaching	7	5,21	2	,222
	Linguistics	1	4,00		
	Other	3	8,50		
Content / Idea Error	English Language Teaching	7	6,57	2	,484
	Linguistics	1	3,00		
	Other	3	5,67		
Punctuation Error	English Language Teaching	7	5,64	2	,087
	Linguistics	1	1,00		
	Other	3	8,50		
Spelling Error	English Language Teaching	7	5,21	2	,107
	Linguistics	1	2,50		
	Other	3	9,00		
Vocabulary Error	English Language Teaching	7	5,21	2	,222
	Linguistics	1	4,00		
	Other	3	8,50		

A Kruskal-Wallis test is used to investigate the relation between teachers' PhD education field and their responses to effectiveness of error types in writing.

There is only statistically significant difference in correction of organizational errors across different PhD study fields (p=0,007 < α=0.05).

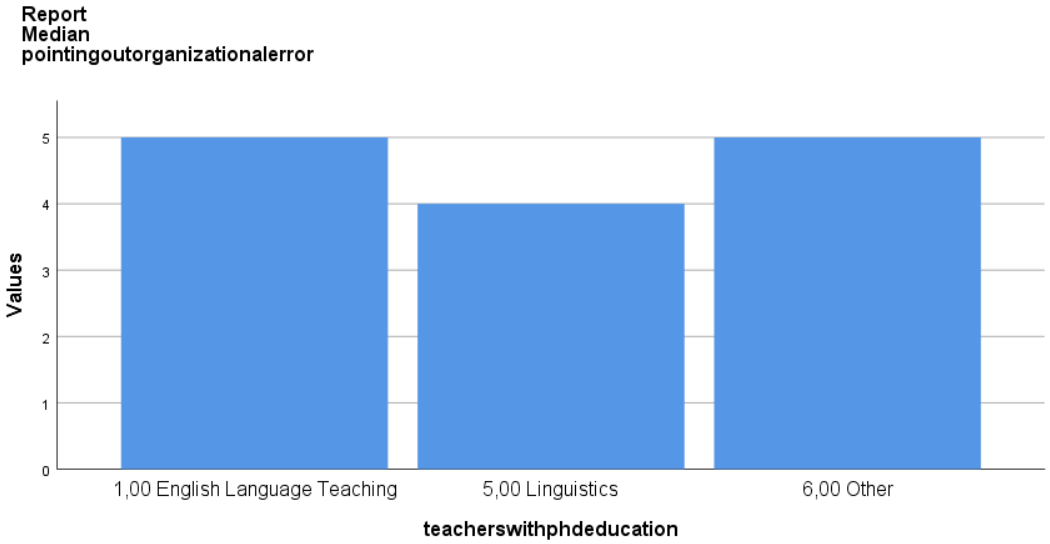

Figure 10. Median scores of teachers' PhD study fields in use of organizational errors.

Teachers that studied grauduate programs English Language Teaching and study fields other than English prefer pointing out organizational errors as a very useful technique (*Md*=5). However, teachers that pursue PhD education on Linguistics consider pointing out organizational errors as a quite useful technique (*Md*=4).

To conclude, Question 4 aims to compare teachers' responses to questionnaire items with independent categorical variables by means of non-parametric tests. In order to do that, Chi Square test for independence, Mann-Whitney U test, and Kruskal Wallis test were used respectively. Mann-Whitney tests are used for independent variables with two categories such as gender, teachers' state of MA education and PhD education. The only relation was found between teachers' state of PhD education and their responses to effectiveness of use of commentary in writing. In addition, Kruskal-Wallis test is used for analysis of independent variables inluding teachers' age, duration of teaching experience, and teachers' undergraduate and graduate study fields. Although the study fields that teachers defined for MA and PhD education are different from each other, statistically significant difference is found in response to effectiveness of organizational errors for both variables. While there is statistically significant

difference between teachers' experience in English teaching and responses to correction of spelling and vocabulary errors. Among written CF types, there are only three correction types that are relevant for analysis such as correction with comments, commentary and using clues or directions.

Question 5

The last research question of this study aims at investigating similarities and differences between students and teachers' preferences in use of written corrective feedback by comparing both open-ended and close-ended items of the study. Initially, the four research questions were designed to find out student and teacher preferences individually by means of descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests. Because both students and teachers were supposed to fill the same questionnaire form, it was found necessary to compare both groups in terms of the answers they gave. A new SPSS file was created by the researcher to compare responses to both open-ended and close-ended questionnaire items. Open-ended items are based on participants' justification of the reason of their choices for close-ended items. Each close-ended item whether it is multiple choice or likert-scale, was asked together with a follow-up open-ended item. At the last stage of the study, participants' responses to open ended items and multiple choice items were compared including amount of correction and correcting a repeat error every time.

Before conducting any statistical analysis, a Test of Normality is needed for the last time to find out if variables violate the assumption. On account of the fact that students and teachers' responses were collected on another file, the number of participants increased to 100 and involved in the study. This is likely to cause changes in determining which analysis technique to follow. In brief, the participants' responses to effectiveness of using written corrective feedback types and correction on error types were tested in terms of normal distribution.

Test of normality.

H_0: There is normal distribution among variables.

H_a: There is no normal distribution among variables.

The outcomes of Shapiro-Wilk test were taken into consideration to interpret results for each likert-scale items individually. The test of Normality on thirteen likert-

scale items indicate that the analysis is not suitable for parametric techniques because there is no Sig. value that is greater than the alpha value (p=,000 < α=0.05). Therefore, the assumption of normality is violated in comparison of students and teachers'responses to likert-scale items. Similar to previous analysis techniques in this study, non-parametric test will be used during quantitative analysis.

Chi square test. As it is stated earlier, there are two types of chi-square tests which are chi-square test for independence and for goodness of fit. The former test is used to compare two categorical variables for comparison to investigate students and teachers' preferences individually. In this study, the comparison of students and teachers' preferences in using written corrective feedback is not only limited with analysis of likert-scale items. Open-ended items that the participants were expected to fill are inluded at this stage of the study to demonstrate any statistically significant difference between students and teachers. In order to involve open-ended statements, the researcher read each one of them one by one and assigned them into themes accordingly. The themes that are both common for both teachers and students were assigned to numbers and registered in SPSS. Themes that don't fit into these categories were labeled under "OTHER" and included in the study.

Table 77

Chi Square Test between Student and Teacher Responses to Amount of Feedback

		Student	Teacher	Total
Marking all errors	Count	36	12	48
	% within student andteacher	36,0%	12%	48%
Marking all major errors not the minor ones	Count	8	28	36
	% within studentandteacher	8%	28%	36%
Marking most of the major errors not all	Count	3	5	8
	% within studentandteacher	3%	5%	8%

	Marking only a few of major errors	Count	1	1	2
		% within studentandteacher	1%	1%	2%
	Marking errors that interfere with communicating your ideas	Count	2	2	4
		% within studentandteacher	2%	2%	4%
	Marking no errors but responding to ideas and content	Count	0	2	2
		% within studentandteacher	0%	2%	2%
Total		Count	50	50	100
		% within studentandteacher	50%	50%	100%

A Chi Square test is conducted to find out the relation between students and teachers' responses to use of amount of correction. The Sig. value indicates that there is a statistically significant difference (p=0,000 < α=0.05).

Table 78

Chi Square Test between Student and Teacher Explanations on Marking Errors

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Marking all errors	Count	29	8	37
		% within student andteacher	29,6%	8,2%	37,8%
	Repetition of errors	Count	4	11	15
		% within studentandteacher	4,1%	11,2%	15,3%

	Students' profile	Count	2	10	12
		% within studentandteacher	2,0%	10,2%	12,2%
	Students' autonomy	Count	4	4	8
		% within studentandteacher	4,1%	4,1%	8,2%
	Communication on related problems	Count	2	6	8
		% within studentandteacher	2,0%	6,1 %	8,2%
	Other	Count	7	11	18
		% within studentandteacher	7,1%	11,2%	18,4%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

Table 78 demonstrates students and teachers' open-ended responses to use of amount of corrections in writing. The participants' statements were specified under six categories and reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in responding to use of amount of correction between students and teachers (p=0,000 < α=0.05).

Table 79

Chi Square Test between Student and Teacher on Repeated Errors

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Yes	Count	38	27	65
		within studentandteacher %	38,0%	27%	65,0%
	No	Count	12	23	35
		Within studentandteacher %	12,0%	23,0%	35,0%
Total	Count		50	50	100
	Within studentandteacher %		50,0%	50,0%	100,0%

A Chi-Square test is conducted to investigate the relation between students and teachers' responses to use of correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. The Sig. value is lower than the alpha value, thus, there is a statistically significant difference (p=0,021 < α=0.05).

Table 80

Chi Square Test between Student and Teacher Explanation on Repeat Errors

		Student	Teacher	Total
Repeated correction	Count	31	16	47
	% within student andteacher	31,3%	16,2%	47,5%
Autonomy	Count	10	13	23
	% within studentandteacher	10,1%	13,1%	23,2%

	Providing feedback just once	Count	7	8	15
		% within studentandteacher	7,1%	8,1%	15,2%
	Oral feedback	Count	1	3	4
		% within studentandteacher	1,0%	3,0%	4,0%
	Other	Count	0	10	10
		% within studentandteacher	0,0%	10,1%	10,1%
Total		Count	49	50	99
		% within studentandteacher	49,5%	50,5%	100%

A Chi-Square test is used to find out students and teachers' explanations for use of correction on a repeat error every time. The open-ended item is categorized in five levels and reveals that there statistically significant difference between students and teachers' responses (p=0,003 < α=0.05).

Table 81

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Clues or Directions

		Student	Teacher	Total
	Autonomy	Count	6	17	23
		% within student andteacher	6,1%	17,3%	23,5%
	Ineffective	Count	9	9	18
		% within studentandteacher	9,2%	9,2%	18,4%

	Practicality	Count	30	15	45
		% within studentandteacher	30,6%	15,3%	45,9%
	Students' laziness	Count	3	9	12
		% within studentandteacher	3,1%	9,2%	12,2%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

A Chi-Square test is used to find out students and teachers' explanations for use of clues or directions as a written CF type. Both students and teachers' responses were categorized in four levels. The Sig. value indicate there is statistically significant difference between students and teachers' responses (p=0,004 < α=0.05).

Table 82

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Error Identification

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Autonomy	Count	4	7	11
		% within student andteacher	4,1%	7,1%	11,2 %
	Ineffective	Count	33	28	61
		% within studentandteacher	33,7%	28,6%	61,2%
	Practicality	Count	11	15	26
		% within studentandteacher	11,2%	15,3%	26,5%

Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

A Chi Square test is used to investigate if there is a relation between students and teachers in terms of their responses to use of error identification. It can be inferred that there is no statistically significant difference due to the greatness of Sig. value (p=0,406 > α=0.05).

Table 83

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Correction with Comments

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Autonomy	Count	6	5	11
		% within student andteacher	12,5%	5,1%	11,2 %
	Ineffective	Count	8	10	18
		% within studentandteacher	16,7%	10,2%	18,4%
	Practicality	Count	33	16	49
		% within studentandteacher	33,7%	16,3%	50,0%
	Spoonfeeding	Count	1	19	20
		% within studentandteacher	1,0%	19,4%	20,4%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

When both participants were asked to respond to use of corrrection with comments, four categories were formed for open-ended statements. There is a

statistically significant difference between students and teachers' responses to use of correction with comments because the Sig. value is lower than the alpha value (p=0,000 < α=0.05).

Table 84

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Teacher Correction

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Autonomy	Count	5	8	13
		% within student andteacher	5,1%	8,2%	13,3%
	Ineffective	Count	27	23	50
		% within studentandteacher	27,6%	23,5%	51,0%
	Practicality	Count	11	8	19
		% within studentandteacher	11,2%	8,2%	19,4%
	Spoonfeeding	Count	5	10	15
		% within studentandteacher	5,1%	10,2%	15,3%
	Other	Count	0	1	1
		% within studentandteacher	0,0%	1,0%	1,0%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

A Chi-Square test is used to find out if there is a relation between students and teachers' responses to use of teacher correction in writing. No statistical

difference was found because the Sig. value is greater than the alpha value (p=0,391 > α=0.05).

Table 85

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Commentary

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Ineffective	Count	15	10	25
		% within student andteacher	15,0%	10,0%	25,0 %
	Effective	Count	16	15	31
		% within studentandteacher	16,0%	15,0%	31,0%
	Challenging for students	Count	4	14	18
		% within studentandteacher	4,0%	14,0%	18,0%
	Directing to the error	Count	13	6	19
		% within studentandteacher	13,0%	6,0%	19,0%
	Other	Count	0	5	5
		% within studentandteacher	0,0%	5,0%	5,0%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

As it is demonstrated in table, there is statistically significant difference between student and teachers' responses to use of commentary in writing. Students and teachers' answers were defined in five categories and a statistically significant difference is found (p=0,007 < α=0.05).

Table 86

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on No Feedback

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Autonomy	Count	6	8	14
		% within student andteacher	6,1%	8,2%	14,3 %
	Directing students	Count	13	7	20
		% within studentandteacher	13,3%	7,1%	20,4%
	Ineffective	Count	29	7	36
		% within studentandteacher	29,6%	7,1%	36,7%
	Other	Count	0	28	28
		% within studentandteacher	0,0%	28,6%	28,6%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

A Chi Square test is used to find out the relation between students and teachers' responses to no use of feedback in writing. It is revealed that the Sig. value is lower than the alpha value, therefore, there is a statistically significant difference in absence of feedback in writing (p=0,000 < α=0.05).

Table 87

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Personal Comment on Content

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Affective Reasons	Count	9	18	27
		% within student andteacher	9,2%	18,4%	27,6 %
	Directing the students	Count	20	6	26
		% within studentandteacher	20,4%	6,1%	26,5%
	Ineffective	Count	18	12	30
		% within studentandteacher	18,4%	12,2%	30,6%
	Autonomy	Count	1	10	11
		% within studentandteacher	1,0%	10,2%	11,2%
	Other	Count	0	4	4
		% within studentandteacher	0%	4,1%	4,1%
Total		Count	48	50	98
		% within studentandteacher	49,0%	51,0%	100%

A Chi Square test is used for comparing students and teachers' responses to use of personal comment on content in writing. It is indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between students and teachers (p=0,000 < α=0.05).

Table 88

Chi Square Test on Student and Teacher Explanation on Correction of Error Types

			Student	Teacher	Total
	Grammar and vocabulary correction	Count	3	11	14
		% within student andteacher	3,1%	11,5%	14,6%
	Holistic evaluation	Count	5	5	10
		% within studentandteacher	5,2%	5,2%	10,4%
	Students' autonomy	Count	12	10	22
		% within studentandteacher	12,5%	10,4%	22,9%
	Content organization	Count	19	9	28
		% within studentandteacher	19,8%	9,4%	29,2%
	Other	Count	7	15	22
		% within studentandteacher	7,3%	15,6%	22,9%
Total		Count	46	50	96
		% within studentandteacher	47,9%	52,1%	100%

A Chi-Square test is used to compare students and teachers' responses to correction of error types in writing. After responding to effectiveness of six error types on likert-scale items, the participants open-ended answers were categorized in five levels. It is revealed that there is a statistically significant difference in responses to correction of error types (p=0,026 < α=0.05).

Mann-whitney u test. Students and teachers' responses to effectiveness of likert-scale items including written corrective feedback types and correction of error types are analyzed by means of Mann-Whitney U tests. In order to carry out Mann-Whitney U test, one categorical variable and one continious variable is needed. Even though each participant group involved many categorical independent

variables, the only mutual variable both for teachers and students was gender. Thus only gender is taken into account during the analysis of responses to the likert-scale items.

Table 89

Difference between Male and Female Participants' Responses to WCF Types

WCF types	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Clues or Directions	Male	43	50,81		
	Female	57	50,26	-,098	,922
Error identification	Male	43	52,69		
	Female	57	48,85	-,673	,501
Correction With comments	Male	43	52,47		
	Female	57	49,02	-,610	,542
Teacher Correction	Male	43	51,86		
	Female	57	49,47	-,420	,674
Commentary	Male	43	52,79	-,707	,480
	Female	57	48,47		
No feedback On error	Male	43	51,69		
	Female	57	49,61	-,450	,653
Personal Comment on content	Male	43	53,63		
	Female	57	48,14	-,978	,328

A Mann-Whitney U test is used to investigate the relation between male and female participants in use of written CF types. There is no Asymp. Sig. value that is lower than the alpha value, therefore, there is no statistically significant difference in use of written corrective feedback types ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

Table 90

Difference between Male and Female Participants' Responses to Error Types

WCF types	Gender	*N*	Mean Rank	*Z*	*Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)*
Organizational Error	Male	43	51,47	-,342	,732
	Female	57	49,77		
Grammatical Error	Male	43	53,67		
	Female	57	48,11	-1,061	,289
Content / Idea Error	Male	43	49,31		
	Female	57	51,39	-,387	,699
Punctuation Error	Male	43	51,60		
	Female	57	49,67	-,346	,729
Spelling Error	Male	43	49,97	-,170	,865
	Female	57	50,90		
Vocabulary Error	Male	43	54,34		
	Female	57	47,61	-1,285	,199

Another Mann-Whitney U test is used for correction of error types in writing and the responses of male and female participants are compared. It is revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female participants in terms of correction of error types ($p > \alpha$=0.05).

The last research question of the study indicates students and teachers' preferences in using written corrective feedback in terms of non-parametric tests. Firstly, comparison of participants' responses to use of amount of correction revealed that students were in favor of marking all errors whereas teachers prefered marking only major errors rather than all of them. However, both teachers and students agree on the fact that correction must be provided every time on a repeat error to draw attention on that specific error. In addition, participants' open-ended

responses to each written corrective feedback type and overall response to six error types were compared. Chi-Square tests reveal that students and teachers have contradictory ideas in use of clues or directions, correction with comments, no feedback, personal comments on content. On the other hand, both teachers and students agree on the fact that error identification and teacher correction types are ineffective. The last open-ended item indicates that students and teachers oppose in terms of ranking effectiveness of error types. Students have tendency on prefering correction on content errors while teachers have other reasons that are excluded at this stage of comparison. While, Mann-Whitney U tests were used to find the statistical difference between male and female participants. The only categorical variable at this stage was gender of the participants; however, no statistically significant results were found.

Chapter 5

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestion

The last chapter of the thesis is composed of three distinctive part. Firstly, study results that were gathered by means of both qualitative and quantitative data will be evaluated in detail by attributing to related studies that were presented earlier in the Literature Review. The main aim in this part is to highlight whether the study findings verify previous studies or not. Because of the fact that the study included two independent study groups and only teachers participated in semi-structured interviews, the discussion of the findings will take place distinctively as quantitative and qualitative data discussion. In order to explain quantitative data, the researcher prefers to explain each questionnaire item in a partially random order. Firstly, items about amount of marking/ correction on errors will be taken into account. Among five main questionnaire items, the first and fouth items are based on asking participants the amount of marking/ correction on writing errors and correcting a repeat error every time it occurs. By this way, the participants' responses to multiple choice, likert-scale and open-ended items will be compared for students and teachers. While the second and fifth items are likert-scale items that ask participants to rank effectiveness of seven written corrective feedback types and pointing out six error types, respectively. The open-ended responses will be included at the end; however, the very last open-ended item where participants justify their reasons for effectiveness of pointing out six error types will be taken into account. The design of the quantitative data discussion aims to reflect the purpose of the study which is to compare students and teachers' preferences in use of corrective feedback. After discussion of the study findings, the study will be summarized to make final remarks. The last part suggestion intends to promote pedagogical implications that may shed light on further studies.

Quantitative Data Discussion

The first stage of the study aims at investigating students and teachers' preferences in use of written corrective feedback on quantitative terms. The research instruments were two questionnaire forms that were initially developed by Armhein and Nassaji (2010) for the purpose of comparing similarities and differences between 31 ESL teachers and 33 ESL students. In addition, the same

questionnaire forms were applied by Atmaca (2016) in Turkish EFL context where the participants were 34 EFL teachers and 34 EFL learners. On account of the fact that both questionnaires were used in a Turkish EFL context beforehand, the researcher aimed to apply the same instruments for the purpose of the study. However, the researcher intended to increase the number of participants when compared to previous studies to attain more reliable results and make generelization accordingly. Therefore, 50 English Preparatory class students and 50 English Language instructors were determined to conduct quantitative phase of the study. At the very beginning of study design, the researcher aimed at conducting paper printed questionnaires one-by-one with both groups during school time. Whereas, the whole data collection process had to be conducted online due to COVID-19 pandemic and both questionnaires were turned into online forms by the researcher. After that, these forms were sent to higher education institutions, School of Foreign Languages, and among them data from Middle East Technical University, Başkent University, and Bülent Ecevit University were used for the purpose of the study. Along with that, the researcher individually asked some of her colleagues to complete teacehers' questionnaires and send them to their students if possible. After elimination and selection of data, 50 English instructors and 50 preparatory school students included in study.

The concept of the questionnaire is based on close ended items and providing open-ended reasons for each of them in short sentences. There are five main questions in each questionnaire and they are divided in three sections according to their purposes. To illustrate, in Armhein and Nassaji's study (2010), the findings were presented into categories as amounts of written corrective feedback, types of written corrective feedback and types of errors to be corrected and open-ended answers were regarded as qualitative data. However, there will be some changes in interpretation of quantitative data. The researcher will initially consider close- ended items including multiple choice and likert-scale items. Multiple choice items are based on how many errors must be corrected in writing and if repeated errors in writing must be corrected every time or not. In the second item, there was an example sentence and seven types of written feedback correction. The participants were expected to rank their effectiveness on a likert-scale item from one to five. The third item required justification for participants' selection on each

preference previously on the second item. The last and fifth item of the questionnaire is about ranking effectiveness of six error types from one to five; however, there was only one open-ended question for justification of reasons unlike the second item.

All in all, the discussion of quantitative data will involve comparison of students and teachers' preferences by including their close and open-ended answers to ease the interpretation of analysis.

Amount of correction in writing. The answers for the first multiple choice correction in writing are demonstrated initially by means of descriptive statistics for both students and teachers seperately in Research Questions 1 and 3. Firstly, descriptive statistics for students and teachers will be evaluated. As the result of descriptive statistics, 72 % of the students expect their teachers to mark all errors in written text while only 2% of them want their teachers to mark few of the major errors which is the least prefered one by students. Whereas, 56% of the teachers prefer marking major errors and leaving minor errors uncorrected. Smilar to students, only 1% of the teachers responded to marking only a few of the major errors. When participants' responses to amount of correction were compared with their demographic variables in Questions 2 and 4, the only statistically significant difference was found between students' years of learning English and their preference in amount of correction (p=0,049 < α=0.05). Considering that 72% of the students expect their teachers to mark all errors, the researcher aimed to find out if students' years of learning English was related with their response. The Chi-Square test revealed students that had been learning English from ten to thirteen years outnumbered the other groups (32%). While there was little difference between students that had been learning English for at least 1 year (18%) and the ones for at least six to nine years (20%). These results indicates that students are still prone to rely on teachers' overall correction even though they study English for a long time. On the other hand, no statistically significant result was found between teachers' response to amount of feedback and their demographic variables. This refers to the fact that teachers' preference in use of selective correction is not related with their demographic background.

These notable differences between teachers and students in terms of marking errors refers to use of focused and unfocused feedback. These feedback

types are also named as selective and comprehensive corrective feedback due to their extend of correction (Beuningen, 2010; Ellis, 2009a). In terms of adapting unfocused or focused feedback, there are some controversies among researchers. To illustrate, some researchers support use of neither focused corrective feedback nor unfocused corrective feedback by proposing impracticality of both practices (Kepner, 1991; Truscott, 1996). According to his statement, Truscott (1996) states that unfocused corrective feedback leads to demotivation among students and lack of attention by students. In order to eliminate motivation related problems, focused corrective feedback may function better. Similarly, it is recommended for teachers that teachers should not correct every student error despite the possible problems in timing of intervention of errors. (Gorbet, 1974). This is in line with the problem that is discussed earlier in Chapter 2 that teachers overlook students' interlanguage process and rely merely on grammar correction on superficial terms. Thus teachers are supposed to be aware of students' interlanguage errors when critical errors are corrected (Gorbet, 1974; Truscott, 1996). It is also proposed that if teachers are aware of their students' interlanguage background and give them opportunity to reflect on their errors, the teachers will be able to understand the reason behind occurance of an error (Cohen & Robbins, 1976).

As the statistics are demonstrated in Chapter 4, teachers and students have contradictory expectations in amount of marking errors. In general, teachers' preferences center around use focused feedback while students prefer unfocused feedback and expect to receive correction on all of the errors. Teachers' preferences in focused feedback is in line with studies that support effectiveness on participants (Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ferris, 1999). While a great majority of students in this study are in favor of receiving unfocused corrective feedback that is believed to be more effective than focused corrective feedback in the long run (Ellis, 2009a; Sheppard, 1992). On the other hand, it is hard to draw a line between effectiveness of focused and unfocused feedback by only taking into account the number of conducted studies. To illustrate, there are studies that involve experimental groups of focused and unfocused feedback and a control group that result in no statistically significant difference between use of focused and unfocused feedback (Beşkardeşler, 2018; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Robb,

Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). When the studies that compare students and teachers' preferences, this study is contradicting with Amrhein and Nassaji's study (2010) because both teachers and students agreed on marking of all errors. The Turkish EFL version of the same study reveals that both students and teachers' have different attitudes towards amount of error correction and in tie with elimination of errors for good and leading to demotivation (Atmaca, 2016). It can be inferred this study is not statistically in line with Atmaca (2016) as well.

After completing multiple-choice test, the participants were required to justify their reasons for their preferences in amount of marking errors. As it is demonstrated in Question 5, the participants' open-ended responses were compared by means of Chi-Square tests. Each participant gave their individual responses and all of them were coded into categories. 29,6% of the students justified their reason under "marking all errors" category by claiming that students receive correction for all errors and take lessons to not to repeat same errors. Students' request for prefering correction of all errors contradicts with the study where students neglect teacher comments and show no sign of correcting errors (Marzano&Arhur, 1978; cited by Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981). In addition, 11,2% of the teachers believe that the students have tendency to repeat the same error unless it is corrected by the teacher. However, there is a possibility that teachers did not underline in their open-ended responses which is the possibility of students not being able to understand teacher comments. Even they understand what the comment refers to, students have problems in putting it into practice (King, 1979; cited by Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981). Another category that represents 11,2% of the teachers is "other" that includes teachers' own reasons that fall behind Chi-Square comparison. In general, the first research item of the questionnaire reveals that teachers and students have the same reasons for their preferences in amount of marking errors even if their expectation of amount of correction changes.

Correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. Another questionnaire item that is related to amount of marking is correction on a repeat error every time it occurs. Participants' responses to multiple-choice item were initially analyzed by means of descriptive statistics. Students' preferences reveal that 76% of them want their repeat error to be corrected each time which means that they have very certain expectations about receiving correction on a repeat error. Although there is a

statistically notable difference in students' preferences, there is a slight difference between teachers that prefer to correct a repeat error each time it occurs and the ones that prefer quite opposite. As it is demonstrated earlier, 54% of the teachers prefer correcting a repeat error every time it occurs while 46% of them correct only once. Non-parametric analysis that were used in Questions 2 and 4 demonstrated that the only statistically significant difference was found between students' preference in receiving correction on a repeat error and their years at preparatory school. What is interesting about English Preparatory Schools' preferences is the fact that the students who responded affirmatively to correction of a repeat error every time were only first year students (76%) and none of the repeat students responded (0%). This is likely to result from the fact that these two groups of students are not homogenically distributed (*n*=47 for first year, *n*=3 for repeat students). While no statistically significant difference is found between teachers' preferences in correction of a repeat error and their demographic backgound. Similar to use of selective correction, their preference in correcting a repeat error every time is not related with their background. Lastly; when total percentages are taken into account after Chi-Square test, 65% of the participants prefer correction on a repeat error every time and share a common opinion in repeat error correction. Students and teachers' agreement on correction of a repeat error every time is in line with Armhein and Nassaji's study (2010).

Because this item is based on only two levels, open-ended responses of the participants reflect more details about the reasons behind use of correction on a repeat error. When students and teachers' open-ended responses were compared, both groups have similar attitudes towards correcting a repeat error. As it is demonstrated in Chi-Square test, 47,5 % of the participants find it useful as it is more likely to draw attention to the specific by correcting it every time and eliminating the risk of repeating it. Despite the number of participants that correct errors every time, the second most popular response is related to providing student autonomy. 23% of the participants agreed on the idea that students should be encouraged to find out the reasons of their error by searching themselves. These students' attitude is related to Makino's (1993) study where students were able to monitor and correct themselves when they were provided gradually with hints that range from none to more explicit hints with the purpose of detecting errors on grammatical morphemes.

Before students' open-ended statements were turned into codes, students underlined that, their motivation increased while tracking down the reason of their errors. Ferris (1999, 2004) claims a way to involve students by teaching the ways of detecting critical errors and editing themselves. Even though the students may still in need of teacher-centered correction by means of marking and error correction codes, the students that know how to self-edit their texts will outperform the ones receive no feedback at all (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Along with that; indirect corrective feedback that appears as error correction codes may enable students to figure out their repetitive errors and raise their awareness more than teacher's direct correction (Lalande, 1982).

Whereas, teachers aim at promoting learner autonomy and interfering the process in case of difficulty. Among corrective feedback types that were presented in Chapter 2, reformulation enables students to notice the differences between a modelled target language version and the problematic structures in their either written or spoken production by themselves. This study regards reformulation in written context; however, reformulation is frequently used as a correction technique in oral communication, as well (Philp, 2003; Sung & Tsai, 2014). Although reformulation requires advancement at problem-solving skills and justification of reasons in detecting errors, teachers should make use of reformulation as a pedagogical tool and implement even for lower level students (Qi & Lapkin, 2001). Because learners' proficieny level is not the only factor at noticing reformulated models and lower level students may expect their teachers to provide recasts as corrective feedback (Philp, 2003; Sung & Tsai, 2014). The possible problem for lower level students may result from advancement of the recast form which is likely to be eliminated by building a balance between detection of nontarget-like forms and students' IL grammar (Philp, 2003). Apart from proficiency level, lenght and the number changes in a recasted utterance affects al groups of students.

Considering both teachers and students' responses to correction of a repeat error every single time it occurs, it can be inferred that their second most prefered response is conceptually in line with some of the studies (Ferris, 1999; Ferris, 2004; Makino, 1993; Lalande, 1982; Philp, 2003; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Sung & Tsai, 2014; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). 65% of the participants prefer to use correction on a repeat error every time whereas 35% of them refuses correcting the same error repeatedly.

Participants' open-ended responses are categorized under five levels and the highly prefered opinions were regarded during analysis. Although the number of participants that statistically prefer to correct a repeat error every time is almost twice as many as the ones that promote learner autonomy, the Chi-Square test analysis for open-ended reveals that teachers and students have different opinions in case of correction of a repeat error every time.

Effectiveness of written corrective feedback types. Apart from multiple-choice items that were elaborated earlier, another close-ended item is based on likert-scale format. At this stage of the study, both participants were given an examplatory sentence which is originally "Since arrived in Victoria, I have been very lonely." This sentence was given in ungrammatical form and participants were expected to rank effectiveness of each written corrective feedback type from 1 to 5 according to the scale. In the scale, 1 refers to "not useful at all/ very useless" and 5 refers to "very useful". The rest of the scales are determined according to this ranking. The examplatory sentence was corrected for seven written corrective feedback types and both teachers and students specified to what extend the WCF was effective for correction. After completing likert-scale items, the participants were expected to give their reasons for each written corrective feedback type. During discussion part, participants' responses to written corrective feedback types will be divided in seven levels including their responses to open-ended items for item 3 (See Appendix B and C). Before analyzing students and teachers' responses to each written CF one-by-one, overall frequency tables were used in order to demonstrate statistical results including mean scores and standart deviation. All in all, the researcher regards both likert-scale and open-ended responses as a part of quantitative study that contradicts with previous study designs (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Atmaca, 2016).

Clues or directions on how to fix an error. The first written corrective feedback type is based on not giving the direct correct form but using clues to detect the error for self-correction, instead. Both students and teachers' responses were initially analyzed in Questions 1 and 3 by means of frequency tables. Students and teachers are in common in use of clues and directions because in both groups "very useful" and "quite useful" scales are highly prefered by participants ($mean_{stu}$= 3,94 > $mean_{th}$= 3,72). In each group, 38% of the students and teachers considered use

of clues or directions as a very useful kind of written corrective feedback. 30% of the students and 14% of the teachers chose clues or directions as “quite useful” which is the second most prefered scale. By taking these findings into account, clues or directions are prefered by a great amount of students and teachers. The participants’ reliance on clues or directions in this study contradicts with the study where the same questionnaires were initially used (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010).

In literature, giving corrective feedback by using clues, hints or directions refers to indirect corrective feedback types. Thus, it is clear that both teachers and students have a positive approach towards indirect ways of error correction that appear in several ways including use of only error correction codes, underlining or circling the error, using brief grammar descriptions for the error, indicating the error in the marjin without marking or coding (Guenette, 2007; Ellis, 2009a). The first written corrective feedback, clues or directions, refers to the last technique as the error is only underlined in advance and at the end of the sentence the participants were instructed to specific grammar topic where they can figure out the reason for the error.

Among students’ demographic variables that were collected from participants (*N*=50), only variables such as gender, years of learning English, and high school education background were found to be relevant for statistical analysis interpretation. When students’ demographic variables are compared with their likert-scale responses, Mann-Whitney U tests and Kruskal Wallis test were used in Question 2. According to non parametric test results, none of the analysis were found to be statistically significant. Therefore, no relation is found between students’ response to effectiveness of clues or directions and their demographic background. The fact that students’ years in learning English is not related with their preferences in use of clues or directions contradicts with the study results where students’ high school and departmental background are taken into account with the purpuse of investigating which written corrective feedback type is favored and affects writing improvement (Kağıtçı, 2013).

When teachers’ responses to use of clues or directions were compared with their demographic variables, there is only statistically significant relation between teachers’ MA study fields and preferences in using clues or directions as a written

corrective feedback type. After Kruskal Wallis test, median scores for teachers' responses to clues or directions were demonstrated in a bar graph. Among MA study fields; teachers that study English Language Teaching and study fields other than English received the highest level with a median of 4 while teachers that study American Culture and Literature received the lowest level with a median of 2. Among MA study fields, teachers that study English Language Literature received a level with a median of 3. The bar graph indicates that both teachers that study English Language Teaching and study fields other than English considered use of clues or direction as quite useful as a correction type. However; teachers that study American Culture and Literature regard the corrective feedback as "not useful."

In research question 5, students and teachers' justifications of their preferences were compared by means of Chi-Square test which demonstrates the statistically significant difference. After the participants' open-ended statements were coded, almost half of the participants (45,9%) consider use of clues or directions as practical and 23,5% of them consider it as a correction type of supporting autonomy. The results are slightly in line with Atmaca (2016) because the students still have different attitudes towards receiving indirect corrective feedback. Students and teachers' affirmative attitude towards indirect corrective feedback is consistent with studies that support use of indirect correction (Sakallı, 2007 ; Diab, 2005; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hendrickson, 1978; Lalande, 1982; Bosher, 1990; Erel & Bulut, 2007; Kağıtçı, 2013). In the field, the proposal of adapting indirect corrective feedback type is derived from the fact that practitioners have trouble in using explicit correction because students are likely to disregard explicit correction that they receive on their papers (Guenette, 2007). Though motivation may be considered as a reason for students' reluctance in this case, it can be attributed to their IL background, as well (Cohen & Robbins, 1976). As it is defined earlier in Chapter 2, errors should be regarded as signs of developmental process and it is recommended for teachers to approach to student errors just as the way parents approach to their child's errors. Thus, using hints or clues that lead indirectly to the correct form will be more efficient (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Corder, 1967; Gorbet, 1974; Raimes, 1991). Other than providing direct corrective feedback to the learner, prefering alternative ways including indirect corrective feedback might turn out to be more supportive and instructive for both teachers and

students (Corder, 1967; Gorbet, 1974). As the students get acquainted with “guided learning” and “problem solving” concepts, they will be able to make progress on longer terms (Beşkardeşler, 2018). In order to effectively make use of indirect corrective feedback, it is advised for teachers to highlight the role of self-editing in terms of correcting treatable grammar errors and critical errors during lessons (Ferris, 1999; Ferris, 2004). Besides, use of clues or directions will enable students to take an active role in error treatment and the students will be no more mere receivers of feedback (Makino, 1993).

Error identification. Though the second written corrective feedback is considered to be an indirect feedback type, what makes it different from the first one is the fact that the erroneous part is only underlined by the teacher but there is no sign of correction code or correct form. Participants’ likert-scale and open-ended item responses are evaluated one by one. When students and teachers’ responses to effectiveness of error identification as a written CF type are compared,both participants received almost the same mean scores ($mean_{stu}$= 2,96; $mean_{th}$= 2,98). On the likert-scale, these means scores are approximated to “doesn’t matter” level which reflects both students and teachers’ neutral approach. The results are to some extend related to a study that proposes superiority of neither indirect or direct corrective feedback thus suggests less time-taking correction techniques (Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). According to Question 1, 28% of the students consider use of error identification as a not useful written CF type. Whereas, teachers’ percentages are distributed more homogenically and 34% of the teachers state that use of error identification does not matter to them. In Questions 2 and 4, participants’ responses to likert scale item were analyzed either by means of Mann-Whitney U test or Kruskal Wallis test. In case of teachers, neither Mann-Whitney U tests nor Kruskal Wallis tests were able to indicate any statistically significant difference between teachers’ demographic background and their preferences in use of error identification. The only statistically significant difference was found between students’ years of learning English and their preference in use of error identification as a written CF type (p=0.000 < α=0.05). The highest mean score belongs to participants that have been learning English for at least 2 years to 5 years at most (*mean*=41,50) despite the least amount of participants among all groups (n=3). The second highest mean score represent students that have been learning English at

least one year or less (*means*t=36,64). The rest of the groups, students with at least 6 to 9 years of English education and 10 to 13 years, have little are statistical difference (*means*=20,62 > *means*=17,94). As a part of Kruskal Wallis test, further analysis took place to reveal students' median scores. The bar graph indicates students that studied English for at least one year or less and the ones that studied English at least 2 to 5 years received the same median scores (*Md*=4). With a median score of 3, students that studied English at least 6 to 9 years indicated neutral attitude towards use of error identification. Students that studied English for 10 to 13 years received the lowest median score in the graph (*Md*=2).

Question 5 demonstrates students and teachers' open-ended responses to use of error identification as a written CF type. Chi Square test demonstrates frequencies of the answers under three categories which are related with ineffectiveness, practicality, and autonomy. After participants' open-ended statements were coded under three categories, the category "ineffective" turned out to be the most prefered category among others (*n*=61). The number of participants that regard error identification as a practical corrective feedback type were just over a quarter of the whole participants (*n*=26,5). Participants that stated use of error identification as autonomous were only 11,2% of the participants. Compared to first written corrective feedback type, both teachers and students had less optimistic attitude towards error identification which is also regarded as an indirect corrective feedback type. This may result from the fact that indirect corrective feedback might be interpreted by the teachers for different purposes. The level of explicitness of indirect corrective feedback techniques can be ranked from very explicit ones such as marking an error in the text and using an error code for reference to less explicit ones such as leaving a checkmark in the marjin to direct students to find out and eliminate the problem by themselves (Bates, 1993; cited by Coşkun, 2007). In this study, error identification fits into the least explicit way of indirect corrective feedback and highlights that participants are likely to appreciate indirect corrective feedback more when it is more instructive and guiding. Therefore, there are still a great number of studies that support use of direct corrective feedback in writing practices specifically when it is combined with either oral/ student conference or metalinguistic explanation (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Sheen, 2007). In

Turkish EFL context, ELT department students from two different institutions were compared in terms of their preferences in corrective feedback to writing errors. The study indicates that both groups favored teacher-directed feedback and direct correction was considered as the best correction type as they didn't find themselves competent at detecting their own errors (Coşkun, 2007). It is claimed that self-correction and indirect techniques such as error correction codes may be helpful for students to some extend; however, students are still likely to encounter problems in error treatment even if they apply for textual resources such as dictionaries or books (Kubota, 2001). On the other hand, there are studies that proposes a solution by balancing uses of indirect and direct CF types through multiple-drafts at different times (Ferris, 1995; Yalvaç, 2014). In this case, Ferris (1995) found out the students that went through at least two drafts for each assignment paid attention to teacher correction in earlier drafts rather than final one whereas the Turkish EFL students in Yalvaç's (2014) study prefered self-correcting their first drafts and expected teachers to give correct forms on final drafts.

To summarize, both students and teachers had a sceptical attitude towards error identification and reflected this on likert-scale items. Similar to that, a great majority of the participants regarded error identification as an ineffective corrective feedback type. Despite being one of the indirect correction techniques, error identificaion was not prefered as much as clues or directions.

Correction with comments. Unlike the first two written corrective feedback types, use of correction with comments is considered to be an explicit way of correcting writing errors. As indirect corrective feedback is defined earlier to clarify the concepts of correction including clues or directions and error identification, what refers to direct corrective feedback must be highlighted in advance. "Direct corrective feedback is the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure above or near the linguistic error. It may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, or the provision of the correct form or structure (Ferris, 2003; cited by Vanlı, 2013 , s. 22)". This time the examplatory sentence was underlined but the correct form and type of the error were provided by the teacher right under the sentence. Initially, students' responses to effectiveness of correction with comments refers to "quite useful" level when the mean score is approximated (means=3,68). In addition, frequency table

demonstrates that 40% of the students remain neutral in use of correction with comments. While 30% of the students find use of correction with comments “very useful”, 22% of the students find it “quite useful”. It can be inferred that students’ responses to effectiveness of correction with comments are statistically close to one another. In case of teachers, they hold a neutral attitude towards use of correction with comments in writing (*meanth*=3,20). The most prefered likert-scale is “quite useful” with 34% of the teachers. Only 10% of the teachers consider it as a very useless type of written corrective feedback. According to descriptive statistics, students are more willing to receive correction with comments on their writing errors whereas teachers neither refuse or accept using it on writing errors. Students’ willingness to receive correction with comments is in line with the study where it is proposed that students’ wrong words or phrases must be eliminated by using explicit corrective feedback and promoting accurate words in case of spoken discourse (Myer,1997; cited by Coşkun, 2007). In general, both students and teachers’ responses to correction with comments supports the results in Amrhein and Nassaji’s (2010) study.

Question 2 demonstrates comparison of students’ demographic variables with their preferences in use of correction with comments as a written corrective feedback type. The only statistically significant difference was found between students’ years of learning English and their preferences in effectiveness of correction with comments (p=0.035 < α=0.05). According to Kruskal Wallis test results, the highest mean score belongs to students that have been learning English from 10 years to 13 years (meanst=33,44). Whereas the lowest mean score belongs to students that have been learning English from 2 to 5 years which is likely to result from the number of participants at this level (n=3; *meanst*=15,50). There is also statistically little difference between students with 6 to 9 nine years of education and students with 1 year or less (*meanst*=23,32 > *meanst*= 21,21). As the mean scores of students with 6 to 9 years and 10 to 13 years of English education are taken into account, it can be inferred that students are likely to rely on more explicit correction as they spend more time on learning English. Along with that, students’ median scores in effectiveness of correction with comments were demonstrated in a bar graph. The highest score represented students that had been learning English from

10 to 13 years (*Md*=5). The rest of the groups received the same median scores (*Md*=3).

Question 4 reveals teachers' preferences in effectiveness of correction with comments in terms of teachers' demographic background. Among all variables, the only statistically significant result was found between teachers' age groups and their response to correction with comments as a corrective feedback type (p=0.049 < α=0.05). Among six age groups, there is little difference between teachers with at the age groups 62-67 and 44-49 (*meanth*=36,00 >*meanth*= 35,19). While the lowest mean score belongs to teachers at the age group 56-61 with only 2 participants (*meanth*=15,50). According to bar graph, there are three age groups that received the highest score (*Md*=4). This refers to the fact that teachers at the age groups 26-31, 44-49, and 62-67 find use of correction with comments "quite useful". While teachers at the age groups 56-61 and 20-25 received the lowest value with a median of 2,5. These two groups of teachers are tied between levels "not useful" and "doesn't matter".

Participants' open-ended statements that were coded and analyzed by means of Chi Square test demonstrates results that worth interpreting. In Question 5, both students and teachers' responses to corrections with comments were coded under four categories. Though half of the participants consider corrections with comments as a practical way of correction, there are still participants that have negative opinions (n=20). The Chi Square table indicates how students and teachers' preferences are different from each other and affected overall percentages. To illustrate, the number of the students that state practicality of correction with comments are two times more than the teachers at the same category (n=33; n=16). On the other hand, the second most prefered category "spoonfeeding" reveals that there is a statistically notable difference between students and teachers (n=1; n=19). This results from the fact that students have a minimum role in revising their errors as teachers have already taken over students'duty in finding out their own errors. As a result of that, students' revision process is merely about transcribing the correction-received text into error-free final version of the text (Vanlı, 2013). Zamel (1985) opposes the idea of teachers' using comments such as "What do you mean?", "Word Form", "Wrong Word", "Can you say this more concisely?" and consider them as an least way of helping students. In

contrast, teachers' direct intervention of errors on written text is highly prefered by students along with metalinguistic explanation at the end of the sheet (Najmaddin, 2010). Although meaning-related errors are more difficult to treat, students manage to treat surface-level errors including grammar, spelling and punctuation better when they receive direct corrective feedback (Leki, 1991; Lee, 1997). This is in line with Lee's (2008) study that students are likely to expect direct correction and written comments that involve underlining the error, categorizing them, and giving the correct form even if they are highly L2 proficient or not. In Turkish EFL context, students appreciated receiving teachers' comments on their papers along with error correction codes and instructions (Enginarlar, 1993). Even if there may be a shift in students' preferences from direct corrective feedback types to indirect corrective feedback types, this is likely to result from students' advancement at their proficiency levels and recognize the role of more implicit ways of correction (Sakallı, 2007 ; Lee, 1997; Najmaddin, 2010). The differences between the number of students and teachers indicate they have contradictory ideas in justifying their reasons for use of correction with comments. There is statistically little difference between students and teachers that prefer correction with comments as an ineffective way (*n*=8; *n*=10). The least prefered category both by students and teachers was "autonomy" and the number of participants were almost the same (*n*=6; *n*=5). Thus, participants' open-ended answers reveal that teachers and students have different opinions on use of correction with comments as a written corrective feedback type.

Teacher correction. The fourth written corrective feedback type is one of the most explicit ways of error correction. This time, teacher underlines the erroneous part and gives the correct form right under it. What differs teacher correction from correction with comments is the fact that error type is not specified by the teacher. Descriptive statistics that were used in research questions 1 and 3 reveal there is little difference between students and teachers' preferences in effectiveness of teacher correction. When the mean scores are evaluated, both students and teachers believe that use of teacher correction on writing errors does not matter at all (*meanst*=2,94 > *meanth*=2,54). In addition, frequency tables demonstrate that both students and teachers are almost in tied with "doesn't matter" and "not useful" levels. These results indicate that teachers' mean score supports teachers' neutral rating in Amrhein and Nassaji's (2010) study whereas contradicts with students'

positive attitude towards use of teacher correction. Because students that hold a neutral attitude towards teacher correction slightly outnumber the ones that regard it as a useless way of correction (*n*=15; *n*=13). Similar to that, there is little difference between teachers that prefer “doesn’t matter” level and “not useful” level (*n*=16; *n*=14). Among all teachers, only 1 of them prefered teacher correction as a very useful technique. Students and teachers’ responses to effectiveness of teacher correction are in line with each other.

Further analysis including Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests were unable to find out any statistically significant difference between participants’ preference in use of teacher correction and their demographical background. Along with descriptive statistics, Chi-Square test was used to compare students and teachers’ open-ended responses. As it is demonstrated in table, similarities and differences between students and teachers were defined under five categories. In total, half of the participants regarded use of teacher correction as an ineffective written CF type (*n*=50). Despite being an explicit corrective feedback type, the number of students that hold a negative attitude towards teacher correction outnumbers those of teachers (*n*=27; *n*=23). Even there is statistically little difference between practicality and spoonfeeding categories, students and teachers’ responses individually differ from each other. Students and teachers have similar opinions in terms of practicality of teacher correction (*n*=11; *n*=8). However, the number of teachers that state teacher correction leads to spoonfeeding are two times more than those of students (*n*=10; *n*=5). Similarly in another Turkish EFL context, students consider teacher correction as an insufficient way of error treatment compared to correction with comments and teachers agree on the fact that teacher correction leads to spoonfeeding (Atmaca, 2016). This study is also in line with Armhein and Nassaji’s (2010) study in which students’ responses generally center around teachers’ responsibility of error correction and an easier way of recognition of errors while teachers have different ideas that refer to students’ lack of attention and carelessness.

However, there are studies that contradict with these results and reflect students’ dependence on teacher correction. Students expect their teachers to cross out the incorrect form and write the correct word or structure instead that indicates students’ reliance on teachers as the main source of correction (Coşkun, 2007;

Yılmaz, 1996). Most of the students agree on the idea that only teachers are competent at error treatment thus they should take responsibility and explicitly correct errors (Lee, 2005). Moreover, receiving written comments in an explicit way from their teachers is considered to be both motivative and constructive for students (Najmaddin, 2010; Vanlı, 2013). To understand students' preferences in use of teacher correction, attention should be drawn from single-draft studies to multiple-draft studies that are more likely to shed light on students' changes in time. Though students pay attention to teacher correction, their preference may go through changes from first to final draft as students are willing to work on errors by means of clues and hints then expect direct correction on the last draft. Students also feel that receiving teacher correction on their errors will affect them positively during multiple-draft assignments (Diab, 2005; Yalvaç, 2014). Because it is seen that students' attention to teacher feedback on preliminary drafts leads to perceiving writing more as a developmental process (Ferris, 1995).

All in all, both students and teachers had a neutral approach towards use of teacher correction as a written corrective feedback type. The only reliable results were found out by means of descriptive statistics and Chi-Square test. Specifically when participants' open-ended responses were compared, it was revealed that there was a tendency to negativity in effectiveness of teacher correction for both partners.

Commentary. Although the way of error correction seems to be similar to error identification, there is a certain difference between two indirect corrective feedback types. The former is based on merely underlining erroneous part with no markings or codes whereas commentary is used by the teacher to specify the error type right under the sentence. In this case, the teacher neither corrects the error nor underlines it to draw students' attention. When the mean scores are compared, both students and teachers neither agree nor disagree the use of commentary as a written CF type (*meanst*=2,86; *meanth*=2,94). Moreover, 32% of the students and 30% the teachers stated that use of commentary in error correction does not matter at all. According to frequency tables, students and teachers have the same opinions. Compared to studies that the same instruments were initially used, teachers are affirmative in use of commentary while students remain neutral in Amrhein and Nassaji's study (2010). When the effectiveness of use of commentary was asked

to Turkish EFL students, their responses differed from each other as they are indecisive in effectiveness of commentary as a correction type (Atmaca, 2016; Coşkun, 2007). While in another Turkish EFL study where students were asked to rank effectiveness of written corrective feedback types similar to this study, students responded use of teacher commentary positively (Yalvaç, 2014).

On the other hand, students and teachers differ from each other in terms of results of non-parametric tests. There is no statistically significant difference between students' preferences in effectiveness of use of commentary and their demographic background. While in case of teachers, only two demographic variables including teachers' undergraduate background and state of PhD education are taken into account (p=0.037 < α=0.05 ; p=0.030 < α=0.05). Despite the few number of teachers with either completed or ongoing PhD education, their mean score is higher than the teachers with no PhD education (*means*=33,68 > *means*=23,19). According to bar graph, teachers that either graduated or pursued PhD education received higher score with a median of 4 whereas teachers with no PhD education had a lower median score (*Md*= 3). The results underline the fact that there is a relation with teachers' PhD education status and their preferences in use of commentary as a written CF type. Teachers' undergraduate study fields were categorized under six levels and the category that represents studies other than English had the highest mean score (*means*=48,00). Despite being the most populated groups, English Language Teaching graduates received a lower median score than graduates of "other" deparments (n=30; *means*=25,55). Besides, the bar graph demonstrates median scores among six undergraduate study fields. Graduates of English Language Teaching and English Language Literature neither agree nor diagree the use of commentary on writing errors (*Md*=3). Similarly, graduates of linguistics and translation and interpretation consider use of commentary as a quite useful way of error correction (*Md*=4). In the graph, there is a notable difference between graduates of American Culture and Literature and graduates of departments other than English (*Md*=2; *Md*=5). It can be inferred from these scores that teachers' undergraduate education background has a role in determining use of commentary on writing errors.

A Chi-Square test is used to compare students and teachers' open-ended responses to use of commentary as a written corrective feedback type. It is found

out that there is statistically little difference among participants' responses to each code; however, the number of participants that regard use of commentary as an effective written corrective feedback type outnumbers the others (*n*=31). What is worth to consider is the fact that the number of students and teachers are almost the same (*n*=16; *n*=15). While a quarter of the participants represent "ineffective" category with 15% of the students and 10% of the teachers. The rest of the categories reveal the difference between students and teachers' responses. The number of students that consider use of commentary on writing errors challenging is only 4 whereas the number of teachers are almost four times more than the students (*n*=14). However, the number of students that regard commentary as a way of directing are two times more than those of teachers (*n*=13; *n*=6). The last category "other" refers to students and teachers' individual responses that did not fit into a mutual category. This category excludes students' responses and demonstrates only a few teachers' responses to use of commentary (*n*=5). To conclude, students and teachers' responses on likert-scale item to rank effectiveness of commentary indicate differences between them. According to descriptive statistics, both students and teachers neither agree nor disagree the use of commentary as a written corrective feedback type. On the other hand, non-parametric statistics revealed there is statistically significant difference between teachers' preference of commentary and their educational background including their state of PhD education and undergraduate fields. Finally, most of the participants affirmatively justified their reasons for use of commentary despite the little differences among the other categories.

No feedback on an error. The sixth written corrective feedback type is different from the rest of the correction types due to the fact that there is no correction on an error neither explicitly nor implicitly. There is no direction, marking or comment for students' error thus the student has to find out where the error is by himself. Also, this corrective feedback type demonstrates how both participants reject absence of any kind of corrective feedback. To start with, students and teachers' mean scores are statistically close to each other and refer to "not useful" level on likert scale (*meanst*=1,62 > *meanth*=1,40). As it is demonstrated in frequency tables, 68% of the students regard no use of feedback as a very useless technique. Among students, 6% of them find no use of feedback as a quite useful

technique while only 2% of the students prefered no use of feedback as a very useful technique. Compared to students, teachers are more strict in use of no feedback as none of the teachers prefered “quite useful” or “very useful” levels. 76% of the teachers find no use of feedback as a very useless technique and 8% of them choose “not useful” level. Whereas, 16% of the teachers have neutral approach towards no use of feedback. After non-parametric statistics were conducted, the only statistically significant result was found for students’ years of learning English (p=0,019 < α=0.05). According to Kruskal Wallis test, the students that have been learning English from 2 to 5 years received the highest mean score (means=34,33). The least mean score represents students that have been learning English for from 10 to 13 years (*means*=19,13). In addition, the bar graph demonstrates students’ median scores among students’ years of learning English. Except for students that have been learning English from 10 to 13 years, all the other groups received the same median score (*Md*=3). Only students that have been learning English from 10 to 13 years received the highest score (*Md*=5). Chi Square test compares students and teachers’ responses to no use of feedback under four levels. The highest prefered category by the participants is “ineffective” which means that participants’ justifications for objecting the use of no feedback is in line with their ratings (n=36). As the second most prefered category “other” demonstrates only teachers’ indiviual responses that were coded for the analyze (n=28). Among all categories, the least prefered one is “autonomy” which indicates there are very few participants to respond to use of no feedback affirmatively (n=14). This indicates that the number of participants that consider no use of feedback as a very ineffective technique are almost three times more than the ones that consider it to be autonomous.

Students’ negative ranking on no use of feedback is in line with many studies in Turkish EFL contexts and in demand of teacher feedback whether it is implicit or explicit (Coşkun, 2007; Kağıtçı, 2013 ; Sakallı, 2007 ; Vanlı, 2013 ; Yalvaç, 2014 ; Kahraman & Yalvaç, 2015; Enginarlar, 1993; Yılmaz, 1996). Similarly, the effectiveness of error correction is supported in the studies where students that received corrective feedback outperformed the ones in control groups with no correction (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a). When the problems in WCF studies are taken into account, the ongoing debate on whether students’ errors should be corrected

or not must be evaluated. As is is stated earlier in Chapter 2, Ferris (1999; 2004) objects the findings that come against use of teachers' error correction and encourages teachers to use more proper feedback until the time that error correction is proved to be ineffective. Moreover, studies reveal that students take teachers' written comments seriously despite possible problems that result from either teacher student miscommunication or lack of text-specific personalized comments (Ferris, 1995; Ferris, Pezone, Tade, & Tinti, 1997).

On the other hand, students and teachers' response to use of no feedback in this study opposes some studies in the research field. To illustrate, one of the greatest objections comes from Truscott (1996; 1999) that led to many controversials in terms of using corrective feedback. In case of error treatment, Truscott (1996; 1999) objects the part in grammar correction and claims that correcting grammar errors on a written text does not prevent students from repeating the same error again unless they know the reason behind it. Contrary to Ferris, grammar explanations are more likely to be confusing for students as they only interact through written text. There are studies that promote Truscott's (1996) argument in case of ineffectiveness of corrective feedback. To illustrate; direct use of error corrections and general focus on surface-level errors fall short in providing L2 writing quality and accuracy for students (Kepner, 1991; Lalande, 1982; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992; Hendrickson, 1978). In addition, it is proposed that techniques such as direct corrective feedback and teacher commentary are not related with writing accuracy and teachers should spare less time on error correction that has no long term effect (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986). As it is discussed before, students' interlanguage background plays a key role in making errors and due to their incompetency at metalinguistic knowledge, they may have difficulty in justifying the reason for their errors when they are asked to review their errors (Cohen & Robbins, 1976).

All in all, both students and teachers share the same opinion that absence of feedback is only ineffective for error treatment even if there are some differences in open-ended responses. Considering the number of the studies in the research field, it is still difficult to determine whether error correction practice should be abandoned for good or not.

A personal comment on the content. The last written corrective feedback is based on making comments on the content of a written text and leaving errors unmarked. The teacher only responds to content or idea of the written text at the end of the sentence does not correct or direct students any further. The manner of the comment is depended on teachers' personal approach. Similar to use of no feedback, both students and teachers held a negative attitude towards commenting only on idea or content. When mean scores are compared, both participants agree on the fact that personal comment on content without correction is not useful (*meanst*=2,14; *meanth*=2,32). According to descriptive statistics, 38% of the students consider use of personal comment on the content as a very useless technique whereas only 6% of the students find it very useful. In teachers' case, 40% of the teachers find use of personal comment on the content very useless. Among them, only 8% of the teachers prefered it as a very useful technique. Similar to no use of feedback, descriptive statistics indicate that both teachers and students are not willing to use or receive personal comment on the content without any correction. As it is discussed in Chapter 2, the written corrective feedback may not appear in an instructive way every time but still can be used as a means of interaction between students and teachers. Apart from giving brief metalinguistic clue about error type under the sentence or marjin, just as it is used as commentary in this study, teacher comments also function as a statement of praise, suggestion, question or negative criticism. Participants' both likert-scale and open-ended responses indicate that their negative attitude is in line with the studies where students and teachers had mostly sceptical statements for use of personal comments without any correction due to lack of direct correction (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Atmaca, 2016). However, there are studies that highlight the affect of teacher comments for students when they are positive and constructive. The trend that was derived from due to administrative purposes was abandoned by teachers and more rhetorical ways of using comments were prioritized. Thus teachers' role has shifted from an automatic marker/error detector to reader and audience of the written text (Connors & Lunsford, 1993). To exemplify, students are more willing to make progress when they are encouraged by means of praisal on their written work rather than receiving criticism or no comment (Gee, 1972). Studies propose that students may go through changes in their preferences in receiving the type of feedback (Ferris, 1995; Sakallı, 2007). Similarly, teachers also may experience changes in

their preferences in manner of comment and tranform their from interrogative attitude to more constructive praisals that are more likely to be appreciated by students rather than rigid correction codes (Ferris, Pezone, Tade, & Tinti, 1997; Mahfoodh & Pandian, 2011). Whereas, teachers' incertainity of using praisal as written comments comes from the fact that the quality of praisal must be set at a level for students that turns out to be neither overstated nor deprived of informational and pedagogical purposes (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). After analysis of more than 3,000 writing papers for only organization and content-related problems, Connors and Lunsford (1993) pointed out the fact that teachers are in dilemma of using supportive comments and judgemental remarks to provide standardization. This results from the fact that teachers are tend to pay attention to papers rather than students because of the traditional concept of their profession.

Further analysis were conducted in order to investigate the relation between participants' responses to effectiveness of personal comment on the content and their demographic background. Among all variables from students and teachers, there is only statistically significant difference for students' high school background (p=0.036 < α=0.05). Despite fewer numbers of participants in their categories, Foundation and Vocational High School students received the highest mean scores (*means*=47,00; *means*=42,00). Anatolian High School graduates that have the most amount of students received a lower mean score (*means*=24,68). Besides mean scores, students' median scores were demonstrated in a bar graph for their preferences in use of personal comment on content. As it is demonstrated in the graph, Foundation High School graduates prefered use of personal comment as a very useful technique while graduates of High School of Science, High School of Social Science, and other schools considered it as a very useless technique (*Md*=1). Similarly, students that graduated from Anatolian High School, Religious Vocational High School, and Private School or College received the same median score (*Md*=2). Among other students, the ones that graduated from Vocational High School received the second highest median score (*Md*=3,50). Chi-Square table reveals students and teachers' open-ended responses to use of personal comments on content by comparing them. 30.6% of the participants prefer personal comment on content as an ineffective technique. The result is consistent with some studies where the correction type is ranked as a very bad technique and prefered by fewer

students when compared to other correction types (Diab, 2005; Leki, 1991; Sakallı, 2007 ; Coşkun, 2007). Unlike the given study results, students neither agreed or refused use of personal comments on the content in some cases (Yalvaç, 2014). The number of students that consider this correction technique as a way of direction for them to correct errors outnumber those of teachers (*n*=20; *n*=6). Likewise, the number of teachers that relates use of personal comment on content to affective/emotional reasons are two times more than those of students (*n*=18; *n*=9). Another category "autonomy" indicates that there is a notable difference between students and teachers as there is only 1 student to choose this category (*n*=1; *n*=10). The overall statistics reveal that both students and teachers agree on personal comment on the content is not an effective way of correcting error in writing.

Pointing out error types in writing. After the participants responded to both likert-scale and open-ended items for each written corrective feedback type, they were asked to complete the last part of the questionnaire. This time both students and teachers were given six common error types in a writing activity and they were expected to rank their effectiveness of being pointed out in the text from 1 to 5. When the questionnaire forms were compared (See Appendix B and C), there was one extra option for error types in students' questionnaire. It was an open-ended item that students could specify if there was an extra error type that their teachers corrected. Due to the fact that teachers' questionnaire didn't have the same item, the last item from students' questionnaire was omitted in order to eliminate possible problems in further analysis. What differs the last section from the previous one is that there is only one open-ended item at the end of the six likert-scale items. Therefore, the participants were supposed to justify their answers only once. Similar to the other open-ended items, the last one was also analyzed by the researcher and all open-ended statements by the students and teachers were read in advance. Then these answers were coded into themes and registered in SPSS 26. By this way, the open-ended responses were available for comparison on statistical terms.

Organizational errors. The first error type refers to problems such as paragraph structure or sentence order that are related to design of a paragraph or essay. Desciptive Statistics indicate that both students and teacher have positive attitude towards pointing out organizational errors (*meanst*=4,40; *meanth*=4,62). When frequencies and percentages are taken into account, students and teachers

share similarities in their preferences such as not responding to “very useless” level. More than half of the students prefered pointing out organizational errors as very useful while there are a few participants that remained neutral (*n*=29; *n*=9). Likewise, a great majority of teachers considered pointing out organizational errors as very useful. Among all teachers, only one teacher responded negatively and chose “not useful” level.

Non-parametric tests were able find out statistically significant results only for teachers’ MA and PhD study fields (p=0.042 < α=0.05; p=0.007 < α=0.05). Considering that half of the participants were studying ELT as a graduate degree, the mean score outnumbered the other groups (*means*=23,88). Whereas the lowest mean score represents teachers that studied American Culture and Literature despite the same amount of teachers with English Language and Literature (*means*=9,50). In the bar graph, teachers that either studied or graduated from certain departments including English Language Teaching, English Language Literature and other study fields prefer pointing out organizational errors as a very useful technique (*Md*=5). In contrast, teachers that studied or graduated from American Culture and Literature are tied between “doesn’t matter” and “quite useful” levels (*Md*=3.50). In case of teachers PhD study departments, overall mean scores were lower than those of MA fields due to fewer amount of teachers (*n*=11). Teachers that either studied or graduated from English Language Teaching or other deparments received the same mean scores and find pointing out organizational errors very useful (*means*=6,50; *Md*=5). There was only one teacher that studied Linguistics as a PhD field and considered pointing out organizational errors very useful (*means*=1,00; *Md*=4).

Grammatical errors. The second error type is one of the most commonly corrected by teachers that involves correction on L2 linguistic elements including word order or sentence structure. Therefore, pointing out mainly grammatical errors on a written text is related with form-focused feedback in research field. To find out students and teachers’ responses, they were asked to rank effectiveness of pointing out grammatical errors from 1 to 5. This time, statistically significant results were only found by means of descriptive statistics. Both students and teachers agree on the fact that pointing out grammatical errors is quite useful (*meanst*=4,50; *meanth*=4,28). More than half of the students prefer pointing out grammatical errors

very useful whereas only two students ranked it to be not useful (*n*=34; *n*=2). The number of teachers that find pointing out grammatical errors quite useful and very useful are almost the same; however, the former slightly outnumbers the latter (*n*=22; *n*=21). While there are few amount of teachers that prefer to be neutral in case of pointing out grammatical errors (*n*=7). When participants demographic backgrounds were compared with their responses to effectiveness of pointing out grammatical errors, statistically significant results were found neither for students nor teachers. This refers to the fact that students and teachers' affirmative response to pointing out grammatical errors is not related with any of their demographic background.

Content/ idea errors. As it is briefly discusses earlier in effectiveness of written corrective feedback types, teachers' pointing out content or idea errors is based on teachers' commenting on students' ideas that were presented in the text. Similar to organizational errors, problems in content or idea includes teachers' correction on design of the text. According to descriptive statistics, students and teachers find pointing out content/idea errors quite useful (*meanst*=4,08; *meanth*=4,44). Almost half of the students regard pointing out content/idea errors very useful (*n*=21); however, only one student ranked it to be very useless. In addition, the same amount of students chose "doesn't matter" and "quite useful" levels (*n*=14). There is statistically little difference between students that find pointing out content/idea errors very useful and quite useful (*n*=19; *n*=16). Only two teachers ranked the error type as not useful. Further analysis that compared students and teachers' demographic background with their preferences in pointing out content/idea error revealed that only students' years in learning English was found to be statistically significant ($p=0.001 < \alpha=0.05$). Students that have been learning English only for 1 year or less had the highest mean score while the lowest mean score belonged to students that have been learning English from 2 to 5 years as the are few number of students in this group (*means*=34,25 > *means*=13,17). When the median scores are compared, students that have been learning English from 10 to 13 years and 1 year or less find pointing out content/idea errors very useful. Students that have been learning from 6 to 9 years consider pointing out content/idea errors very useful but student with 2 to 5 years of English education prefer to remain neutral (*Md*=3).

Punctuation errors. Punctuation errors include correct use of punctuation marks in the text and teachers' indication of these errors. Students and teachers share the same opinion on pointing out punctuation errors as the mean scores present (*meanst*=3,78; *meanth*=3,94). Descriptive Statistics is in line with students and teachers' agreement on very usefulness of pointing out punctuation errors (*n*=18; *n*=19). Even if teachers slightly outnumber students, there is very little difference between students and teachers that prefer pointing out punctuation errors quite useful (*n*=16; *n*=14). Among teachers, only one of them prefered pointing out punctuation errors as very useless while there were only three students to rank effectiveness of pointing out punctuation errors the teachers. When non-parametric statistics were used to understand participants' preferences by means of their demographic background, no statistically significant result was found neither for students nor teachers. Even though students and teachers share the same opinion on pointing out punctuation errors, these results contradict with Armhein and Nassaji's study where (2010) teachers have more positive attitude than students.

Spelling errors. In addition to other error types, both the students and teachers were expected to rank effectiveness of spelling errors on a written text. According to the results, both students and teachers find pointing out spelling errors quite useful (*meanst*=3,94; *meanth*=4,12). The number of students that consider pointing out spelling errors to be very useful are two times more than the ones that find it quite useful (*n*=22; *n*=11). Unlike students, there is a little difference between teachers that prefer pointing out spelling errors to be very useful and quite useful (*n*=19; *n*=16). Among participants, only one student and one teacher respond to effectiveness of pointing out spelling errors as very useless. As it is demonstrated by means of non-parametric statistics and median bar graphs in research questions 2 and 4, the only statistically significant results were found for students' years in learning English and teachers' years of experience in teaching English (p_{st}=0.022 < α=0.05 ; p_{th}=0.021 < α=0.05). Firstly, students that have been learning English from 10 to 13 years received the highest mean score (*means*=32,38). The second highest score represents students that have been learning English for one year or less (*means*=27,42). Further results indicate that both students with 10 to 13 years of English education and 1 year or less education find pointing out spelling errors very useful (*Md*=5). Similarly, students that have been learning English from 2 to 5 years

consider pointing out the error type as quite useful (*Md*=4). Only students from 6 to 9 years of English education prefered to remain neutral (*Md*=3). Secondly, teachers' mean scores reveal that the highest score belongs to teachers that have been teaching from 6 to 11 years (*means*=36,27). Whereas the lowest mean score belongs to teachers with 36 to 43 years of teaching experience (*means*=2,50). According to the median graph, none of the teachers responded to "very useless" level. Teachers that have been teaching English from 6-11 and 24-29 years find pointing out spelling errors to be very useful (*Md*=5). Besides, teachers that have been teaching English from 12-17 years and 5 years or less rank effectiveness of pointing out spelling errors as quite useful (*Md*=4). Only teachers that have been teaching from 18 to 23 years were in between "very useful" and "quite useful" levels (*Md*=4,50). Whereas teachers with 36 to 43 years of experience don't find pointing out spelling errors to be useful and teachers with 30 to 35 years of teaching experience neither agreed nor disagreed it (*Md*=2; *Md*=3).

Vocabulary errors. The last error type is based on teachers' pointing out vocabulary errors that is related with use of a wrong word. Both students and teachers agree on the fact that pointing out vocabulary errors is quite useful (*meanst*=4,32; *meanth*=4,38). When frequency tables are compared, students and teachers' answers are generally in line with each other. To illustrate, 60% of the students and 52% of the teachers consider pointing out vocabulary errors to be very useful. Similarly, 22% of the students and 36% of the students respond to pointing out vocabulary errors quite useful. Only one student and one teacher have negative attitude towards pointing out vocabulary errors on a text. Non-parametric studies were able to find out statistically significant difference only for teachers' year of teaching experience (p=0.042 < α=0.05). The highest mean score represents teachers that have been teaching from 6 to 11 years (*means*=33,50). Despite the highest amount of participants in the group, teachers that have been teaching English 5 years or less received a mean score (*means*=22,78). Among all teachers, only teachers that have been teaching for 36 to 43 years received the lowest mean score (*means*=1,00). In the bar graph, teachers' median scores indicate that none of the teachers find pointing out vocabulary errors very useless. The most notable difference is seen between teachers that have been teaching for 6 to 11 years and the ones with 36 to 43 years of experience as the former find pointing out vocabulary

errors to be very useful while the latter prefers the other way round (*Md*=5 ; *Md*=2). Both teachers that have been teaching from 18 to 23 years and 24 to 29 years prefer pointing out vocabulary errors to be very useful (*Md*=5). Similar to that, teachers that have been teaching for 5 years or less and with 12 to 17 years of teaching experience consider pointing out vocabulary errors to be quite useful (*Md*=4). It can be inferred from the graph that the duration of teachers' English teaching experience is to some extend related with their preferences of pointing out vocabulary errors. Because teachers with 36 to 43 years of education don't find pointing out the error type useful and teachers with 30 to 35 years of education prefer to neither agree nor disagree (*Md*=2; *Md*=3,5).

Students and teachers' responses to pointing out error types. The very last item of the questionnaire is based on eliciting both students and teachers' open-ended statements for effectiveness of pointing out error types on a written text. This time, participants' responses to all six error types were coded in four categories. In addition, another category was added at the end of the Chi-Square table and indicated students and teachers' individual responses that were unable to compare. In general, these categories reflect participants' responses for effectiveness of pointing out error types on a text. Some categories indicate that there is a notable difference between students and teachers' responses while some of them have only very little difference. To illustrate, the students and teachers differ from each other in terms of their preferences of pointing out grammar and vocabulary errors because the number of teachers are almost four times more than the students (*n*=11; *n*=3). Besides, students and teachers' responses shed light on participants' expectations on receiving overall correction which is indicated in "holistic evaluation" category that is explained beforehand at the very first part of quantitative data discussion part. This is subordinate with the very first questionnaire item that compares students and teachers' preferences in amount of corrective feedback on a writing. The amount of students and teachers that state correction on all errors are the same in the Chi-Square table (*n*=5; *n*=5). As it is discussed earlier in evaluation of written corrective feedback types, both students and teachers emphasized the role of autonomy in error treatment. There is little difference between students and teachers; however, the number of students that state autonomy slightly outnumber those of teachers (*n*=12; *n*=10). In the last category, students and teachers' open

ended statements that didn't fit into one category were coded under "other". Compared to students, teachers had more individual reasons to state than students (*n*=15; *n*=7).

Among all these groups, the most outstanding categories are content/ organization and grammar/vocabulary categories which are elaborated in detail. In terms of the number of participants, there is a notable difference because participants that prefer content and organization errors to be pointed out are two times more than the ones that demand indication of grammar and vocabulary errors (*n*=28; *n*=14). When these categories are evaluated individually, students and teachers remarkably differ from each other. To illustrate, students that prefer content organization errors to be pointed out are two times more than those of teachers (*n*=19; *n*=9). In research field, errors on linguistic form and content/ idea of a text are defined as local errors and global errors, respectively. In this study, participants' response to pointing out content and organizational errors outnumbers those of grammar and vocabulary which results in participants' reliance on global errors. Participants' responses to preference of correction of more global errors rather than local errors leads to certain discussions in research field that support focusing on either one of these error types. As it is discussed in Chapter 2, there is a complaint about the fact that teachers' habitual behaviour of correcting form-related errors and neglecting organization, content and use of vocabulary in the text therefore their comments lead to no further than location of errors (Zamel, 1985). Teachers' assumptions on using sufficient amount of global error correction may contradict with teachers'actual practices and rely more on indicating local errors in reality despite the students' satisfaction with amount of correction (Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Hyland F. , 2003). In Masny and Foxall's (1993) study where students' level of L2 writing achievement highlights the fact that higher and lower level writers pay more attention to form-related errors than content-related errors. Feedback that focuses only on linguistic errors and indication of rule reminders is not effective by itself to improve students' L2 writing quality. Instead, discussion about meaning of a text with the teacher is more efficient on long term (Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992; Enginarlar, 1993). In addition; students' attitude towards revising either form or content errors is related with their duration of L2 writing experience, as well. To illustrate, students tend to consider revision of a draft as elimination of wrong words

and adding new ones into the text that has no positive impact on writing quality. Compared to more professional writers or experts, students neglect the urgency of correction on semantical terms. This is also results from teachers' actions in requirements of revision because teachers give high importance on marking grammatical errors and students only follow teachers' strict instructions to eliminate errors (Sommers, 1980; Chapin & Terdal, 1990). When students were compared in terms of their L2 background, whether they are FL or ESL leaners, the are still likely to be under influence of their teachers that primarily concern about focus on form. Therefore students prioritize form-focused feedback to attain writing quality and delay expecting content-focused feedback at the first step (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1996).

In most cases of writing tasks, students' main concern is to complete as many error free texts as possible; however, the students are tend to accept any kind of feedback that aims to eliminate form or content errors as long as there is teacher feedback (Abdioğlu, 2019). There are also studies that neither put forward form-focused or content-focused feedback by itself and appreciate both of them on equal terms. This argument subordinate the studies that students make use of both form-focused and content-focused feedback individually and integratively that affect positively their rewriting abilities. Besides, there is no negative impact on writing accuracy when the order of form and content-focused feedback changes (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Fazio, 2001). Although there are certain differences between groups, the last Chi-Square table demonstrates students and teachers' preferences that are in line with previously given responses. The analysis of the table can be summarized as both teachers and students find unfocused feedback useful as they accept correction of all errors. Besides, they also favor content/ organizational related errors to be corrected more than grammar and vocabulary errors. Some participants' open-ended statements also refer to the fact that directing students to correct their own errors and promotion of autonomy are highly important.

Qualitative Data Discussion

In addition to quantitative study that primarily aims at investigating students and teachers' preferences in use of written corrective feedback by comparing their responses on statistical terms, qualitative study is utilized in a form of semi-structured interviews with ten English Preparatory School instructors. The participants were invited by the researcher and were randomly selected due to time limitation to complete the study. There were seven female and three male instructors from various English Preparatory Units around Turkey. Moreover, the duration of teaching experience range from one and half year to 16 years that is considered to shed light on the relation between teachers' experience in English teaching and their preferences in use of corrective feedback. These teachers also differed from one another in terms of their educational background as not all of the teachers graduated from ELT department and they either graduated or still pursued their graduate education in various fields apart from English Language Teaching. Due to COVID-19, all semi-structured interview sessions were conducted via Zoom video calls. The whole sessions were recorded by the researcher and participants' consent were received in advance. The researcher transcribed all of the ten recordings and followed the requirements of thematic analysis. According to qualitative data analysis, there are six common themes that were derived from the participants. This section aims to focus on all these six themes and attribute study findings to previous studies in L2 research field. To start with, thematic analysis includes teachers' preferences of correction techniques that they either adapted or tried to use in writing error treatment. In addition to their responses to written corrective feedback types, teachers were also asked to respond to other techniques that take place in L2 classes such as color coding, use of error correction codes, and revision of errors on preliminary drafts. First of all, color coding appears as a technique that some of the teachers prefer to use either to draw students attention or motivate to normalize their errors. Secondly, error correction codes are known as an indirect correction of writing errors that is generally used by most of the teachers at English Preparatory Schools in Turkey. However, there are some cases that where there is no use of error correction codes or any kind of determination on correcting errors. Therefore, the whole institution is deprived of standardization and teachers have problems in evaluating written texts, accordingly. Another result for lack of

standardization is encountered when students were supposed to get grades on their written texts. Some of the teachers, specifically experienced teachers are more prone to take down students grades for the purpose of providing error free papers. This refers to the fact that these teachers are intolerant in occurance of errors of students and opposes theories that support students' L2 errors as a sign of development and interlanguage process. Also, teachers were asked whether they spend time on correction of general errors or not after correcting first drafts of the students. Many teachers responded to this question that they prefer to revise most commonly problematic linguistic structural points before handing out students' papers. When the writing process is designed as a sequence of writing drafts, it is more common to see that teachers can work on students' errrors in general and save more time in this case. The process of revision is also considered as a way of oral corrective feedback whose role has been studied by many researchers. These conferences can be evaluated as either whole-class sessions or one-on-one student-teacher interaction. Oral corrective feedback is stated to be effective if it is combined with explanation of explicit rules. In case of oral conferences, there has been a shift to more technological tool that have become indispensible with the start of COVID-19 pandemic. Some of the teachers higlighted that they felt themselves more into Web 2.0 tools to improve students' L2 writing skills and correct their errors. Teachers made use of applications called Mirro or Padlet that work in a syncronous way. In addition, these applications also enable participants to make comments on a written text and facilitate collaborative working. In this case, teachers' answers refer to the fact that Web 2.0 tools turn out be effective during online education process. The places where student-teacher conferences would take place have shifted from classrooms, teachers' offices, or schools corridors to Zoom video calls as an outcome of online education. One teacher was using this method and claimed that individual interaction with the students that are more motivated to detect their errors are very efficient. While teachers are supposed to revise students' errors they find themselves to be more cautious in order not to hurt students' feelings. To do so, teachers give an example of a sentence that is similar to that of students and indicate the reason behind the error. In general teachers find use of error correction codes very useful as these codes also enable students to take responsibility and contribute their L2 writing process. Error correction codes are regarded as indirect corrective feedback types that promote autonomy among students.

As a result of COVID-19 pandemic, there are no face-to-face classes and the whole education process is carried out on distance education. Therefore, the researcher also wanted to focus on teachers' adaptation of their writing correction to new conditions such as making use of Web 2.0 tools to correct writing errors. Although the study is based on teacher-centered correction, the source of feedback may also shared with students as peer feedback enables students to work on their errors in a collaborative way. In all of the ten interview sessions, there were only few examples of having peer interaction. Even in some exercises, teachers favor collaboration of classmates, the ultimate source of correction is still the teacher himself/herself. This leads us to the point where the power of assessment and evaluation is not shared with students and there is still dominance of teacher-centered correction.

Teachers also pay attention to not to correct all of the errors and focus on only errors that are major and critical. In order to treat these errors, teachers come with some techniques such as color coding. Some of the teachers pointed out that using red ink pen does nothing for students but other than demotivating them and making them feel incompetent at writing. Considering the fact that writing is considered as a painstaking task, teachers are aware of the fact that rigid correction techniques will adversely affect students. As it is stated earlier, teachers try to promote good ideas of the students and enable students to take credit on their good work. Providing L2 writing is related with the problems in students' L1 competency, as well. In one of the interviews, teacher pointed out that the students are not even motivated to write in their native language and have no idea about error treatment. Thus teachers normalize and expect students' problems in adapting themselves to L2 correction process.

Teachers in general complain about the fact that writing assignments, whose amount is determined by school administrators, are too much even in one semester and they have trouble in reaching out to every student to provide correction. Compared to other skills, writing evaluation requires time and energy of the students and teachers feel that they are burned out by the overload of the work and feel desperate. In Turkish English Preparatory Schools, the average number of students generally ranges from 16 to 22; however, the number is likely to increase and reach even up to 30 students per class. Besides, teachers may have more than one class

at English Preparatory School and their workload may turn out to be more unbearable. The class size problem is mentioned by most of the teachers and some of the teachers are in dilemma whether online classes work affectively for them or not. Some teachers see no difference between face-to-face and online classes whereas some of them are more regretful and consider online-classes hard to manage. Because the teachers are not familiar with their students and cannot keep a track on attendance and unable to record their L2 development. In most of the English Preparatory Schools, there are writing portfolios that students are expected to complete within a semester and these tasks also affect their overall grade and pass English Preparatory Education. It can be inferred that students' motivation is generally related with writing as many error-free texts as possible and receiving high grades. In terms of writing evaluation at English Preparatory Schools, it is proposed by teachers that writing assignments should be involved in overall assessment more to draw students' attention in writing which is mundane skills to them. It is stated that writing is a productive skill such as speaking; however, remains inferior despite their similarities. Writing examinations are proposed to be organized as an individual exam rather than a companion of grammar-based reading sections. Because students need to spend more time on organizing and laying the ground for writing and it is a far more complex process than speaking. Therefore, evaluation of writing only by itself is considered to be more functional for students on long terms.

Another factor in corrective feedback practices that the researcher pays attention is whether teachers' educational background affects their active role in L2 error treatment. Despite the few number of participants, each teacher had different qualifications in several fields. Moreover, all of the instructors were either Masters' of Arts students or graduates. There were teachers that are graduates of ELT department and non-graduates of ELT departments. Teachers that graduated from ELT departments and even pursued their MA education in ELT fields underlined that their undergraduate education is no more further than theoretical aspect of L2 assessment and there was little room for actual practice. Practicum, or pre-service teacher training in other words, fall short to improve teachers in case of writing error treatment. In most of the cases, in-service teacher training programs are agreed to be far more effective than pre-service training and teachers are also open to receive education on these terms. Due to their lack of practice in their field, it is quite

common among teachers that they learn from their colleagues and receive their feedback. Teachers that are not graduates of ELT departments generally graduated from Faculty of Letters and they try to compensate for theoretical background by either asking help from collegues or applying for certificate programs. Among these programs, teachers mentioned CELTA, DELTA and TESOL. These certificate programs are found to be effective as the teachers started to be more cautious on their practices and tried to experiment what they received during the process. However, in Turkey graudates except from Faculty of Education are expected to apply for a certificate program called “Pedagogical Formation” to be able to officially work as a teacher. Teachers that received pedagogical formation certificate complain about the fact that the process is deprived of theory and it is only centered around educational sciences. Therefore, teachers are not making use of the Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program.

Conclusion

This part of the study intends to highlight the critical outcomes of the study by summarizing. To start with, this study is implemented on 50 English Preparatory School students and 50 English Language Instructors. The selection of students were based on random sampling so that it would have no effect on students’ grades at their schools while teachers were individually asked to participate in semi-structured interviews. The two-month-long study was carried out with online questionnaire forms both for students and teachers in addition to Zoom video calls. Considering the main purpose of this study, students and teachers’ preferences in use of written corrective feedback were investigated and compared by following quantitative approach. The comparison of quantitative data reveal that students and teachers agree on certain points; however, they may have disgreements and different expectations at some cases as well. The qualitative data specifically reflects teachers’ practices, their own techniques, and further suggestions in correcting L2 errors. Teachers were asked to reflect on their educational background and the new methods they started to adapt. The further explanations are provided as in the order of research questions of this study.

1. When their responses to questionnaire items were taken into account individually, students tend to prefer marking on all errors and expect teachers to correct a repeat error every time it occurs. Besides, students find use of clues or directions as a quite useful correction technique and have a postive attitude towards teachers' pointing out both organizational and grammatical errors. Students strongly object no use of corrective feedback.
2. When students' responses to likert-scale items such as effectiveness of written corrective feedback and pointing out error types were compared with students' demographic background including gender, age, years of learning English, high school background, and years at Preparatory School revealed that there are very few statistically significant results to take into account. The results of non-parametric tests were able to find no statistically significant result for students' gender and age groups. Therefore, there is no relation between students' gender and age groups. A Kruskal Wallis test found out there was a statistically significant relation with students' written corrective feedback type and their High School background. In addition, there is a relation with years that students spend at Preparatory School and their preference in receiving correction on a repeat error. The most outstanding results were found out for students' years of learning English. There is a statistically significant relation between students' years of learning English and their preferences in effectiveness of use of error identification, correction with comments, and no use of feedback. Students' years of leaning English also refers to statistically significance on pointing out content/idea errors and spelling errors.
3. The third research question is elaborated in terms of both quantitative approach and qualitative approach. First of all, teachers share the same ideas with the students in terms of ranking effectiveness of written corrective feedback types and pointing out error types. To illustrate, teachers prefer using clues or directions to indicate written errors and cannot tolerate absence of no feedback. Moreover, teachers prioritize pointing out organizational errors more than the other error types. On the other hand, teachers' preferences in amount of marking errors and

correcting a repeat error comes against students' preferences as teachers tend to correct only major errors and the number of teachers that correct a repeat errors only once cannot be underestimated. Secondly, the only qualitative data source was ten English Preparatory School instructors in this study and the semi-structured interviews emphasize the fact that there are some problems in correcting students' L2 writing errors which mainly result from institution related problems and the possible risk of demotivating students. Along with that, writing is a challenging skills for both students and teachers because students are not even competent at their first language in terms of writing and teachers have too much workload to pay attention all errors with equal attention. The semi-structured interview questions also shed light on teachers' adaptation to online education process and making use of Web 2.0 tools along with their own techniques. In general, teachers agree on the fact that their undergraduate education is dominated by theory and there is almost no place for practice. As a result, they only have the chance of learning in the field.

4. Despite the number of non-parametric studies, only a few of them were able to present statistically significant result which refers to the point that teachers' demographic variables are not always related with their preferences in written corrective feedback. To start with, no statistically significant difference was found for neither teachers' gender nor their state of Masters of Arts education progress. Among written corrective feedback types, commentary is found to be statistically significant for both teachers with Bachelors' degree and their state of PhD education. Teachers' age group demonstrate a statistically significant result for correction with comments while there is a statistically significant result between teachers' MA study fields and their preferences on use of clues or directions. Moreover, teachers' experience in teaching English is statistically significant in terms of their preferences of pointing out spelling and vocabulary errors. Teachers'MA and PhD fields are in common with the effectivness of pointing out organizational errors which is the most outstanding result in Question 4.

5. The comparison of open-ended statements that justify students and teachers' preferences reveal a significant point that validates participants' individual responses. Both students and teachers find error identification and teacher correction very ineffective as they are direct corrective feedback types that are found to be less useful than indirect corrective feedback types. Whereas in case of justifying their reasons for effectiveness of clues or directions, correction with comments, no feedback, personal comments on content, students and teachers contradict with each other. In addition, there is overall agreement on justifying their reasons for efffectiveness of pointing out error types. Apart from all, the only demographic variable which is gender managed to find no statistically significant result.

All in all, this study managed to shed light on some points in students and teachers' responses by comparison. The results indicate that students and teachers generally have agreements on use of written corrective feedback types and error types. In addition, they both support use of unfocused feedback and prefer to correct a repeat error every time. For both participants, gender has no effect on written corrective feedback preferences. Compared to teachers, no relation was found for students' age groups. In terms of students, years of learning English enabled researcher to find out more relatable results. Both teachers and students favor indirect corrective feedback types that enable students' autonomy to take responsibility in their process.

Pedagogical Implications

When the outcomes of this study is compared with other studies that take place in Turkish EFL context, there is no study that takes into account of both teachers and students' educational background. There are studies that merely focus on students' preferences and test their affective condition in L2 writing (Vanlı, 2013); however, the profile of the participants were always limited with only one group. The study aims at figuring out the possible problems that teachers and students go through during L2 writing correction. The results highlight the fact that both students and teachers are aware of the role of indirect corrective feedback. Rather than

receiving correct form explicitly that leads to spoonfeeding, participants prefer to be directed rather than taken to the correct form. The result may encourage teachers to make use of more implicit correction techniques including error correction codes. At Preparatory School, error correction codes are considered to be effective both teachers and students. As long as the purpose of the codes are explained in detail, there will be no drawback for teachers to use codes.

In addition, students support unfocused corrective feedback which refers to the fact that students expect their teachers to correct all errors no matter what their type is. Students believe it is teachers' responsibility to detect errors and leaving students alone to do all the work will not be useful. In case of error types, it is intriguing to find out that students not only rely on grammar correction but also expect correction on content and organization. According to that, it can be inferred that teachers should not only be graders but also function as a reader and respond to students' ideas. To do so, teachers can organize whole-class revision sessions, student-teacher conferences, or use constructive comments at the end of the margin.

When students are exposed to positivity during a task that is challenging for them, they feel more motivated to carry on. Both qualitative and quantitative study underline the key role of providing motivation to students. Even the source of motivation is external, which is the power of grade in this case, students should acknowledge the importance of writing as a skill. Because writing is not only a transcribed or written version of speaking skill but also requires sequential steps of organization and preparing an outline.

Apart from all, teachers should be provided with more opportunities to practice students errors. Educational programs must spare some space for evaluation of errors as much as those of methodology design courses. In service training sessions must be promoted for all teachers and teachers should be seeking help from their peers in terms of how to treat errors. Lastly, the use of Web 2.0 tool may be the starting point for a new era of error treatment among English Instructors. Despite COVID-19, there may be promising outcomes of teachers' adaptation to new techniques in L2 teaching.

Suggestions for Further Research

The last chapter for providing suggestions for prospective studies will be proposed according to the drawbacks of this study. One of the most critical drawbacks of this study is lack of students' interviews due to time limitation and online education. Contrary to what the researcher was expecting, students agreed with their teachers on using indirect corrective feedback types. Effectiveness of indirect corrective feedback types must be elaborated individually and further studies must focus on its impact on students on long terms. Students' responses to interview questions may lead to more discussions about the ongoing debate in whether errors should be corrected and if so which techniques should be favored. The researcher assumes that students' proficiency level may create some problems in data analysis; however, translation from Turkish to English may function as an option. Another problem in L2 error correction is the source of feedback in class. Further studies may take into account of role on peer corrective feedback and investigate its impact on L2 achievement. As it is stated earlier, the role of Web 2.0 tools can be compared to traditional correction techniques that teacher used for a long time until COVID-19. It is assumed by the researcher that it is more likely to integrate students into L2 error correction process with Web 2.0 tools rather than teacher comments on a paper printed text.

Finally, educational background of teachers must be taken into account in detail. Despite this study inolves teachers' background on both undergraduate and graduate levels, teachers specifically at English Preparatory School differ from each other. More studies about educational background may be eligible for eliminating teacher and student interaction through writing paper.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A- Consent Forms

Merhaba,

Öncelikle yapacak olduğum çalışmaya ilgi gösterdiğiniz ve zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim. Bu formda çalışmanın amacı ve çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda neler yapmanız gerektiği açıklanmıştır.

Bu araştırma için Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Kurul Komisyonu' ndan izin alınmıştır. Araştırma, "ÖĞRENCİLERİN VE ÖĞRETMENLERİN İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK SINIFLARINDA YAZILI GERİ BİLDİRİM KULLANIMINDAKİ TERCİHLERİ" başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinin bir parçası olarak Dr. Öğretim Üyesi İsmail Fırat Altay danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışma; hem nicel hem nitel araştırma yöntemlerinin disiplinlerinden faydalanarak yazma çalışmalarında öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin yazılı geri bildirim kullanımındaki tercihlerini öğrenmeyi, yazma çalışmalarında hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmenlerin kullandığı düzeltici geri bildirim çeşitlerini öğrenmeyi, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler arasında düzeltici geri bildirim kullanımında olası benzer ve farklı yönleri tespit ederek karşılaştırmayı ve bütün bunların ışığında yazma çalışmalarında öğrenci ve öğretmen arasındaki hata düzeltmelerinde kullanılan geri bildirim çeşitlerinin anlaşılmasını ve buna dair sorunlara çözüm önerisi getirmeyi amaçlar.

Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılım esastır. Sizden, uygulayacağınız anket aracılığıyla istatistiksel veri toplanacaktır. Bu çalışma için belirlenen tahmini süre yaklaşık olarak 20 dakikadır. Bu veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacak ancak katılımcıların kimlik bilgileri paylaşılmayacaktır. Adınızın araştırmada kullanılması gerekecekse, bunun yerine takma bir isim kullanılacaktır.

Tüm oturumlar araştırmacı kontrolünde geçmektedir. Çalışma sırasında herhangi bir sebepten dolayı kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman ayrılabilirsiniz. Bu hususta araştırmacıyı bilgilendirmeniz yeterlidir. Bu durumda, sizden alınan veri çalışmada kullanılmayacaktır.

Bu bilgileri okuyup bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmanızı ve size verdiğim güvenceye dayanarak bu formu imzalamanızı rica ediyorum. Sormak istediğiniz herhangi bir durumla ilgili benimle her zaman iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırma sonucu hakkında bilgi almak için iletişim bilgilerimden bana ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmayı KABUL EDİYORUM.

Katılımcı Öğrenci:

Adı, soyadı:

Adres:

Telefon: İmza:

Sorumlu araştırmacı:

Dr. Öğretim Üyesi İSMAİL FIRAT ALTAY

H.Ü., Eğitim Fakültesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü,

İngiliz Dil Eğitimi A.B.D

Araştırmacı:

Öğretim Görevlisi İrem YILMAZ

Başkent Üniversitesi YDYO,

Bağlıca/ ANKARA

Consent Forms (for Teachers)

Merhaba,

Öncelikle yapacak olduğum çalışmaya ilgi gösterdiğiniz ve zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim. Bu formda çalışmanın amacı ve çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda neler yapmanız gerektiği açıklanmıştır.

Bu araştırma için Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Kurul Komisyonu' ndan izin alınmıştır. Araştırma, "ÖĞRENCİLERİN VE ÖĞRETMENLERİN İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK SINIFLARINDA YAZILI GERİ BİLDİRİM KULLANIMINDAKİ TERCİHLERİ" başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinin bir parçası olarak Dr. Öğretim Üyesi İsmail Fırat Altay danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışma; hem nicel hem nitel araştırma yöntemlerinin disiplinlerinden faydalanarak yazma çalışmalarında öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin yazılı geri bildirim kullanımındaki tercihlerini öğrenmeyi, yazma çalışmalarında hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmenlerin kullandığı düzeltici geri bildirim çeşitlerini öğrenmeyi, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler arasında düzeltici geri bildirim kullanımında olası benzer ve farklı yönleri tespit ederek karşılaştırmayı ve bütün bunların ışığında yazma çalışmalarında öğrenci ve öğretmen arasındaki hata düzeltmelerinde kullanılan geri bildirim çeşitlerinin anlaşılmasını ve buna dair sorunlara çözüm önerisi getirmeyi amaçlar.

Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılım esastır. Sizden, uygulayacağınız anket aracılığıyla istatistiksel veri toplanacaktır. Bu çalışma için belirlenen tahmini süre yaklaşık olarak 20 dakikadır. Bu veriler tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacak ancak katılımcıların kimlik bilgileri paylaşılmayacaktır. Adınızın araştırmada kullanılması gerekecekse, bunun yerine takma bir isim kullanılacaktır.

Tüm oturumlar araştırmacı kontrolünde geçmektedir. **Çalışma sırasında herhangi bir sebepten dolayı kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman ayrılabilirsiniz**. Bu hususta araştırmacıyı bilgilendirmeniz yeterlidir. Bu durumda, sizden alınan veri çalışmada kullanılmayacaktır.

Bu bilgileri okuyup bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmanızı ve size verdiğim güvenceye dayanarak bu formu imzalamanızı rica ediyorum. Sormak istediğiniz herhangi bir durumla ilgili benimle her zaman iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Araştırma sonucu hakkında bilgi almak için iletişim bilgilerimden bana ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmayı KABUL EDİYORUM.

Katılımcı Öğretmen:

Adı, soyadı:

Adres:

Telefon: İmza:

Sorumlu araştırmacı:

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Araştırmacı:

Öğretim Görevlisi İrem YILMAZ

Başkent Üniversitesi YDYO

Bağlıca/ ANKARA

Consent Forms (for Teacher Interviews)

Merhaba,

Öncelikle yapacak olduğum çalışmaya ilgi gösterdiğiniz ve zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim. Bu formda çalışmanın amacı ve çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda neler yapmanız gerektiği açıklanmıştır.

Bu araştırma için Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Kurul Komisyonu' ndan izin alınmıştır. Araştırma, "ÖĞRENCİLERİN VE ÖĞRETMENLERİN İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK SINIFLARINDA YAZILI GERİ BİLDİRİM KULLANIMINDAKİ TERCİHLERİ" başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinin bir parçası olarak Dr. Öğretim Üyesi İsmail Fırat Altay danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışma; hem nicel hem nitel araştırma yöntemlerinin disiplinlerinden faydalanarak yazma çalışmalarında öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin yazılı geri bildirim kullanımındaki tercihlerini öğrenmeyi, yazma çalışmalarında hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmenlerin kullandığı düzeltici geri bildirim çeşitlerini öğrenmeyi, öğrenciler ve öğretmenler arasında düzeltici geri bildirim kullanımında olası benzer ve farklı yönleri tespit ederek karşılaştırmayı ve bütün bunların ışığında yazma çalışmalarında öğrenci ve öğretmen arasındaki hata düzeltmelerinde kullanılan geri bildirim çeşitlerinin anlaşılmasını ve buna dair sorunlara çözüm önerisi getirmeyi amaçlar.

Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılım esastır. Bu çalışma için belirlenen tahmini süre yaklaşık olarak 20 dakikadır. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme esnasında not tutulacaktır ve sizden elde edilecek veriler gizli tutulacaktır. Bu veriler sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecek, başka kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Görüşme sırasında size yönlendirilecek sorular sınıfta yapılan yazı çalışmalarında öğrencilerin hatalarının nasıl tespit edildiği ve düzeltildiği, hangi tür düzeltici geri bildirim türünden faydalanıldığı ve başka yazılı geri bildirim türlerine yer verilip verilmediğine dair sorular içermektedir. Bununla beraber, bu çalışmada kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, **çalışma esnasında sorulardan veya başka bir sebepten dolayı ayrılmak isterseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.** Bu durumda araştırmacıya haber vermeniz yeterli olacaktır. Böylelikle sizden elde edilen veriler kullanılmayacaktır. Araştırma sonucu hakkında bilgi almak için iletişim bilgilerimden bana ulaşabilirsiniz. Çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmayı KABUL EDİYORUM.

Katılımcı Öğretmen:

Adı, soyadı:

Telefon:

İmza:

Sorumlu araştırmacı:

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H.Ü., Eğitim Fakültesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü

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Araştırmacı:

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Başkent Üniversitesi YDYO,

Bağlıca/ ANKARA

APPENDIX B: Students' Questionnaire

(1) If there are many errors in your writing, what do you think your English teacher should do? You can check more than one!

( ) Teacher should mark all errors.

( ) Teacher should mark all major errors but not the minor ones.

( ) Teacher should mark most of the major errrors, but not necessarily all of them.

( ) Teacher should mark only a few of the major errors.

( ) Teacher should mark only the errors that interfere with communicating your ideas.

( ) Teacher should mark no errors and respond only to the ideas and content.

Please explain the reason for your choice(s).

_____

_____

_____

(2) The following sentences all have the same error and a teacher has given a different type of feedback for each. For each sentence circle the number that best describes how useful the feedback is.

For example if you think the feedback is a very useful way to point out an error then circle 5. If you think the feedback is not a useful way to point out an error then circle 1.

1= not useful at all (useless) 2= not useful 3= doesn't matter

4= quite useful 5= very useful

A. Since I arrived in Victoria, I <u>am</u> very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

look at section 2 in your grammar book.

B. Since I arrived in Victoria, I <u>am</u> very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

C. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

have been (wrong tense)

D. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

have been

E. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

wrong tense

F. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

G. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

I am sorry to hear that

(3) Please explain the reasons for your choices for each type of feedback in item 2.

A. Clues or directions on how to fix an error (the teacher gives clues or directions on how a student can correct his/ her work)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

B. Error identification (the teacher points out where the error occur, but no errors are corrected)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

C. Correction with comments (the teacher corrects errors and makes comments)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

D. Teacher correction (the teacher corrects errors)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

E. Commentary (the teacher gives feedback by making comments about errors, but no errors are corrected.)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

F. No feedback on an error

Please explain the reason for your choice.

G. A personal comment on the content (the teachers give feedback by making comments on the ideas or content, but no errors are corrected.)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

(4) If you repeat an error in a writing assignment more than once do you think it is useful for your teacher to mark it every time it occurs?

Yes ( ) No ( )

Please explain the reason for your answer.

(5) If there are many different errors in your written work, which type(s) of error do you want your English teacher to point out most? Circle one number that best describes each statement.

1= not useful at all 2= not useful 3= doesn't matter
4= quite useful 5= very useful

A. Teacher points out organization errors. (Example: paragraph structure, sentence order)	1	2	3	4	5
B. Teacher points out grammatical errors. (Ex: tense, word order, sentence structure)	1	2	3	4	5
C. Teacher points out content/idea errors. (Ex: comments on your ideas)	1	2	3	4	5
D. Teacher points out punctuation errors. (Ex: . , ? !)	1	2	3	4	5
E. Teacher points out spelling errors. (Ex: word is spelled wrong)	1	2	3	4	5
F. Teacher points out vocabulary errors. (Ex: wrong word choice, wrong meaning)	1	2	3	4	5

G. Other _____

Please explain the reason for your choice(s).

_____

_____

_____

Thank you to all the students who participated in this study!

APPENDIX C: Teachers' Questionnaire

(1) If there are many errors in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's writing, what do you think is more useful to do? Please check all that apply!

( ) Mark all errors.

( ) Mark all major errors but not the minor ones.

( ) Mark most of the major errrors, but not necessarily all of them.

( ) Mark only a few of the major errors.

( ) Mark only the errors that interfere with communicating your ideas.

( ) Mark no errors and respond only to the ideas and content.

Please explain the reason for your choice(s).

_____

_____

_____

(2) The following sentences all have the same error and a teacher has given a different type of feedback for each. For each sentence circle the number that best describes the usefulness of the feedback from an intermediate to advanced ESL student.

For example if you think the feedback is a very useful way to point out an error then circle 5. If you think the feedback is not a useful way to point out an error then circle 1.

1= not useful at all (useless) 2= not useful 3= doesn't matter

4= quite useful 5= very useful

A. Since I arrived in Victoria, I <u>am</u> very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5
look at section 2 in your grammar book.

B. Since I arrived in Victoria, I <u>am</u> very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

C. Since I arrived in Victoria, I <u>am</u> very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5
have been (wrong tense)

D. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5
have been

E. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5
wrong tense

F. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5

G. Since I arrived in Victoria, I am very lonely. 1 2 3 4 5
I am sorry to hear that

(3) Please explain the reasons for your choices for each type of feedback in item 2.

A. Clues or directions on how to fix an error (the teacher gives clues or directions on how a student can correct his/ her work)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

_____

_____

B. Error identification (the teacher points out where the error occur, but no errors are corrected)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

_____

_____

C. Correction with comments (the teacher corrects errors and makes comments)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

_____

_____

D. Teacher correction (the teacher corrects errors)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

E. Commentary (the teacher gives feedback by making comments about errors, but no errors are corrected.)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

F. No feedback on an error

Please explain the reason for your choice.

G. A personal comment on the content (the teachers give feedback by making comments on the ideas or content, but no errors are corrected.)

Please explain the reason for your choice.

(4) If an error is repeated in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's writing more than once do you think it is useful to mark it each time it occurs?

Yes ( ) No ( )

Please explain the reason for your answer.

(5) For each of the following questions, circle one number that best describes its usefulness for an intermediate to advanced ESL student.

1= not useful at all 2= not useful 3= doesn't matter

4= quite useful 5= very useful

A. How useful is it to point out organization errors in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

B. How useful is it to point out grammatical errors In an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

C. How useful is it to point out content/ idea errors? in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

D. How useful is it to point out punctuation errors in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

E. How useful is it to point out spelling errors In an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

F. How useful is it to point out vocabulary errors in an intermediate to advanced ESL student's written work? 1 2 3 4 5

Please explain the reason for your choice(s).

Thank you to all the teachers who participated in this study!

APPENDIX D: Interview Questions (for teachers)

1. How long have you been teaching English as an instructor?
2. Do you think that writing gets enough recognition by school?
3. How much time do you spend on writing exercises?
4. Do you correct students' errors?
5. What tecniques do you use in error correction?
6. Do you correct all errors by yourself or do you want the student find out correct forms?
7. Do you revise students' error in the class after completing a writing task?
8. Do you think using error correction codes is useful for students?
9. Do you have any other suggestions for using written corrective feedback?

APPENDIX E: Ethics Committee Approval

Tarih: 18/01/2021
Sayı: E-35853172-300-00001402837

T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Rektörlük

Sayı : E-35853172-300-00001402837 18.01.2021
Konu : İrem YILMAZ Hk

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 24.12.2020 tarihli ve E-51944218-300-00001374312 sayılı yazı.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden **İrem YILMAZ**'ın **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi İsmail Fırat ALTAY** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**Öğrencilerin ve Öğretmenlerin İngilizce Hazırlık Sınıflarında Yazılı Geri Bildirim Kullanımındaki Tercihleri**" başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **12 Ocak 2021** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini saygılarımla rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Vural GÖKMEN
Rektör Yardımcısı

Evrakın elektronik imzalı suretine https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/hu-ebys adresinden 0d15ed88-f126-4bf5-b3b6-a84782f8db69 kodu ile erişebilirsiniz.
Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanunu'na uygun olarak Güvenli Elektronik İmza ile imzalanmıştır.

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu: 0D15ED88-F126-4BF5-B3B6-A84782F8DB69 Belge Doğrulama Adresi: https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/hu-ebys

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Bilgi için: Duygu Didem İLERİ
Memur
Telefon: .

APPENDIX F: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that…

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

( ) / ( ) / ( )

(Signature)

İrem YILMAZ

APPENDIX G: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

...../...../.....

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Educational Sciences

To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title: Student and Teacher Preferences in Using Written Corrective Feedback in English Preparatory Classes

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

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I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Lastname:	Irem Yılmaz	
Student No.:	N18138086	
Department:	Department of Foreign Language Education	Signature
Program:	English Teaching Program	
Status:	☒Masters ☐ Ph.D. ☐ Integrated Ph.D.	

ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED

ASSIST.PROF.DR.İSMAİL FIRAT ALTAY

APPENDIX H: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım haklan bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "**Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına ilişkin Yönerge**" kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- o Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. (1)
- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren … ay ertelenmiştir. (2)
- o Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. (3)

..... /..... /.....

(imza)

İrem YILMAZ

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü Üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.

(2) Madde 6. 2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanın önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü Üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.*
Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

** Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.*