

KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY * INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

**A COMPARISON OF THE IMPACT OF TEACHER FEEDBACK WITHIN AND
IRRESPECTIVE OF THE ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ZONE
OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT**

PhD DISSERTATION

Hasan SAĞLAMEL

APRIL-2018

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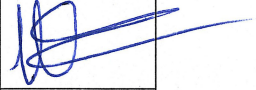

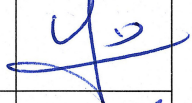

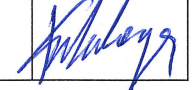
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APPROVAL

Upon the submission of the dissertation, Hasan SAĞLAMEL has defended the study titled “A Comparison of the Impact of Teacher Feedback within and Irrespective of the English as A Foreign Language Learners’ Zone of Proximal Development” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language and Literature at Karadeniz Technical University, and the study has been found fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis by unanimous/ majority vote on 15.05.2018.

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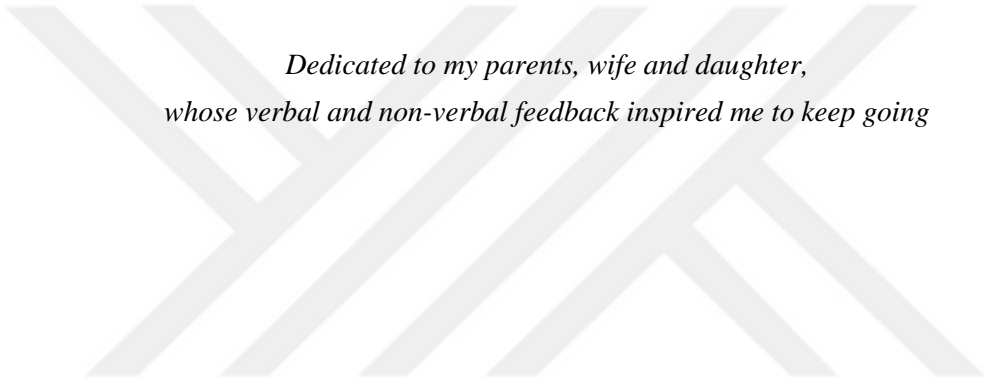
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*Dedicated to my parents, wife and daughter,
whose verbal and non-verbal feedback inspired me to keep going*

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ÖZET

Yazı eğitiminde süreçsel yaklaşımın yaygınlaşmasıyla birlikte yazılara verilen dönütler daha önemli hâle geldiği için bugün eğitimciler bazen tatminkâr düzeyde getirileri olmasa da dönüt uygulamalarına kayda değer bir zaman ayırmaktadır. Öğretmen dönütü üzerine yapılan araştırmalar da artan bu ilgi paralelinde olmakta ve verilen dönütün verimliliğine duyulan ilgi de artmaktadır. Ancak yaygın olan dönüt uygulamalarının hepsinin öğrencilerin ikinci dildeki yazma yeterliğine yeterince katkıda bulunmaması dönüt alan ve dönüt veren taraflar için kazançlı olmadığını göstermektedir. Dolayısıyla, öğretmenlerin dönüt verme uygulamalarındaki eksiklikleri gidermek için mevcut dönüt uygulamalarını geliştirecek yöntem arayışları içine girmeleri kaçınılmazdır. Bu çalışmada sürece dayalı yaklaşım ve süreç sonrası yaklaşımlardaki dönüt uygulamalarının öğrenci yazılarındaki iyileşmeye, yazma anksiyetesine, paragraf yazma özyeterliliğine ve genel olarak yazmaya yönelik tutumlara etkisi karşılaştırılacaktır. Bu araştırma için Türkiye'nin kuzeydoğusundaki bir devlet üniversitesinin hazırlık programında okuyan 97 öğrenci iki gruba ayrılmıştır. Deney grubundaki öğrencilere yakınsal gelişim alanında (ZPD) dönüt verilirken kontrol grubu öğrenciler yakınsal gelişim alanından bağımsız dönüt almışlardır. Anket, yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat, süreç günlükleri, geriye dönük protokol ve portfolyö ön yazılarıyla veri toplanılan bu çalışmada karma yöntem kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, öğrencilere yakınsal gelişim alanında dönüt verildiğinde başarı puanlarının ve yazma öz yeterlik düzeylerinin arttığını ve yabancı dilde yazma kaygısının azaldığını göstermiştir. Nitel çalışmalardan elde edilen veriler dönüt uygulamalarındaki aracılık rolünün etkinliğine dair kapsamlı bilgiler sunmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Öğretmen dönütü, yazılı dönüt, yakınsal gelişim alanında dönüt, yakınsal gelişim alanından bağımsız dönüt, yabancı dilde yazma

ABSTRACT

Especially with the development of process approach to writing instruction, the significance of feedback has gained more momentum, and teachers today spend a considerable amount of time on feedback practices even though such efforts do not always end up in satisfactory returns. In line with the growing attention, research into teacher feedback has surged considerably and heightened attention fell on the effectiveness of the feedback provided. However, not all the prevalent feedback practices have been of the desired help in facilitating learners' second language (L2) writing proficiency, resulting in a no-win situation on the part of the learner and feedback provider. Therefore, to help improve teacher feedback, viable alternatives to promote the current feedback practices will be instrumental to develop a better understanding of the conundrum. To this end, a comparison of feedback practices in process and post-process approaches is presented with a focus on the impact of teacher feedback practices on learners' revisions, writing anxiety, self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing. To achieve the comparison in question, ninety-seven English major students studying at a preparatory program at a state university in north-eastern Turkey were divided into two groups. The students in the experimental group received feedback within their zone of proximal development (ZPD), while the students in the control group, the non-ZPD students, received random help from the teacher. A mixed-methods approach was used to gather data. Questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, process-logs, retrospective protocols, and cover letters were the instruments to obtain data. The findings suggest that if feedback is delivered within learners' ZPD, it could result in higher achievement scores as well as higher self-efficacy levels and lower L2 writing anxiety scores. The findings gleaned from the quantitative data provide in-depth insights into the effectiveness of mediation in feedback practices. Overall, arguments for the integration of the sociocultural views seem to be validated.

Key words: Teacher feedback, written feedback, feedback within/irrespective of learners ZPD, ESL writing

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	: Contrastive Analysis
CF	: Corrective Feedback
DELL	: Department of English Language and Literature
<i>df</i>	: Degrees of Freedom
EA	: Error Analysis
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
<i>f</i>	: Frequency
F	: Variance
FG	: Focus Group
FLCAS	: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
KTU	: Karadeniz Technical University
L1	: Learners' Mother Tongue
L2	: Target Language
<i>M</i>	: Mean
<i>N</i>	: Sample Size
O	: Treatment
<i>p</i>	: p value
QUAL	: Qualitative
QUAN	: Quantitative
<i>r</i>	: Correlation
R	: Random Assignment
<i>SD</i>	: Standard Deviation
<i>SEM</i>	: Standard Error Mean
Sig.	: Significance
ST	: Participating Student
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
SLWA	: Second Language Writing Anxiety
SLWAI	: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory
<i>t</i>	: t Value
WCF	: Written Corrective Feedback
X	: Experimental Group
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development
Non-ZPD	: In the research context it refers to the random help in the feedback provision

INTRODUCTION

The conceptualization of this thesis derives from the researchers' call for the consideration of sociocultural factors (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006; Lee, 2014; Prior, 2006) and the need for the consideration of L2 writing from a broader perspective (Casanave, 1995, 2003; Hyland, 2007; Russell, 1999). Until the 1960s, second language writing was not considered to have much contribution to language development. Recognition of the essential role of writing as a significant component in school settings, e-mail exchanges and internationally recognized tests has contributed much to the growing significance of the writing as a key aspect of communication. In line with the growing recognition has come a myriad of approaches promoting writing skills. One among those approaches, the process approach, has been extensively adopted by many writing teachers (Hyland, 2003) in many language learning contexts.

However, quite recently, there has been an increasing interest for revisiting the effectiveness of feedback practices in different contexts, and process-oriented classrooms are not an exception. Especially with more pronounced focus of co-construction in the post-process era, writing is considered to be a social activity in which writers co-construct the meaning together with other people or some other mediational means. This study focuses on teacher feedback as teachers are one of the most important parties to help learners in meaning construction. Recently, the process-oriented writing classrooms are criticised to view writing as an asocial activity. Therefore, there is a call for the integration of sociocultural elements into writing.

On the way to socialize writing, feedback plays a salient role by creating a bridge between the writers and readers. However, not all feedback practices have been equally effective to obtain the desired outcomes. This study focuses on a comparison two feedback practices: mediated and non-mediated feedback. To this end, a comparison of feedback practices in process and post-process approaches is presented. The comparison in question is achieved through the comparison of two feedback practices: feedback attuned to learners' ZPD and feedback delivered irrespective of the learners' ZPD. A comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD students with reference to their perceptions on teacher feedback, L2 writing, L2 writing anxiety, English paragraph writing self-efficacy is conducted. Questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, process-logs, retrospective protocols, and cover letters are used to gather data.

CHAPTER ONE

1. FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Feedback is the breakfast of champions.

Ken Blanchard

1.1. Background to the Study

The writing skill, both for L1 and L2 learning contexts, is not something we are born with, but is acquired or learned through practice. When the foreign or second language writing contexts are taken into account, development of writing competence seems to be more demanding because the new territory of writing requires some scholarship which may not be compatible with learners' writing conventions in their L1. In other words, writers "particularly those who bring with them a set of conventions that are at odds with those of the academic world they are entering" (Kutz et al., 1993: 30) might be challenged by the conventions of the new or relatively unfamiliar terrain. It is this mismatch alone that can account for how learners of foreign languages feel disadvantaged when confronted with a new language in a new realm. Thus, some contextual information might be beneficial for learners to get a feel of L1 and L2 writing practices.

In Turkey, foreign language policy has been subject to continuous changes (Bayyurt, 2013), and, in the light of the documented research, the prevalence of English language in Turkey needs to be considered from a broader perspective. Despite having no official status, English in Turkey has a wide range of functions (Selvi, 2011). The set of those functions, however, does not guarantee target language proficiency especially in writing, which is considered to be among the most difficult skills to develop (Dollar and Tolu, 2015; Ekşi, 2010; Erkan and Saban, 2011; Phuket and Othman, 2015). The difficulty in question usually translates into writers' poor performance, increased nervousness as well as lower self-efficacy beliefs of their writing ability. Therefore, supporting learners with an array of needs seems to be essential, and feedback qualifies as a critical ingredient as well as a powerful tool to facilitate one's competence in writing.

Considering the diversity of feedback applications, it could be maintained that feedback is not a unitary stimulus; rather it is fragmented by practices and perceptions. One visible aspect of the changing nature is evident in the changing face of the composition pedagogy. After the rise of the process approach to writing instruction, the significance of feedback has gained more momentum,

and in today's classes teachers spend a considerable amount of time to feedback practices (Sakalli, 2007) even though such efforts do not always end up in satisfactory returns. Thus, making most of these efforts would be rewarding both for the teachers and learners.

In line with the fragmentation in the practices and knowledge, increasing the effectiveness of feedback practices seems to be a greater challenge, given the diversity of preferences. Therefore, feedback providers shoulder a tremendous responsibility to communicate their messages. In support of a representation of this responsibility, research into teacher feedback has surged considerably, and heightened attention fell on the effectiveness of the feedback provided. Linguistic input which aims at acknowledging gaps in learners' interlanguage and non-target-like utterances has been of considerable interest to researchers and classroom practitioners. However, not all the prevalent feedback practices have been of the desired help in facilitating learners' second language (L2) writing proficiency, resulting in a no-win situation on the part of the learner and feedback provider. Therefore, to help mitigate the amiss in teacher feedback, viable alternatives to promote the current feedback practices will be instrumental to develop a better understanding of the conundrum.

It has already been suggested that one way to help learners benefit from opportunities of interlanguage development has been feedback provided in response to learner errors, which has served as one of the most contentious issues in L2 writing research. Scholars in the field defined feedback, sometimes reducing the term to corrective feedback (CF) as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (Ellis, 2006: 28) as well as a "complex phenomenon with several functions" (Chaudron, 1988: 152). Since the scope of the study is more than the "utterances containing an error", prevalent feedback practices of CF will be handled from a broader perspective. The broader perspective includes feedback practices which are not confined to learners' errors. That is, feedback in English as a foreign language (EFL) writing will be considered from process-based and post-process-based perspectives.

A brief history of writing approaches will bring a solid understanding of a product versus process paradigms, even though these two camps are not impeccably in accord with the sociocultural turn. Product and process dichotomy has permeated in much of the discussions on approaches to L2 writing. The product approach lost its appeal due to its ineffectiveness in developing writers of desired competence. After the introduction of Flower and Hayes's (1981) study, in which they constructed a cognitive model of the processes of composition, composition studies were considered to consist of developmental stages namely writing, feedback, revisions, and rewriting. A process approach to teaching writing aims at equipping L2 writers through recursive strategies and techniques used in the composition process. In line with this perspective, the idea of meaning construction was more emphasized, and the earlier notion of pre-conceived information was abandoned (Chenoweth and Hayes, 2003; Raimes, 2002; Silva, 1993; Zamel, 1987). Investing much on the creation of

sophisticated texts does not necessarily lead to the attainment of the authorship; what really pays off, however, are the processes that writers undergo.

The process approach to writing has contributed to the growing role of feedback in L2 writing situations. In the process approach, the emphasis falls on “teaching writing not as product but as process; helping students discover their own voice; allowing students to choose their own topic; providing teacher and peer feedback; encouraging revision and using student writing as the primary text of the course.” (Silva and Matsuda, 2001: 67). Process-based writing refers to the processes writers go through when they happen to write. Basically, it involves stages of prewriting (brainstorming and planning), drafting (writing multiple drafts), feedback from peers and instructor (editing and proof-reading), and completion (the final product) (K. Hyland, 2003).

Despite the strengths of a process-based approach, writing as a process could not produce the expected results on several grounds. First, Cope and Kalantzis (1993) claimed that power relations could suffer from inequities in process approaches. Moreover, cognitive-centeredness, that is what happens inside writers’ head, was strongly emphasized, and it was not enough to capture all the processes that writers go through when they are developing writing (Buhowmik, 2012). Another criticism was that an asocial and individualistic view of writing was evident; the social and collaborative nature of writing was neglected (Atkinson, 2013). The scope of writing was therefore redefined in the post-process era.

The post-process approach refers to the arrival of social turn which views learning as a social act. The social turn was a reaction to asociality of structuralism in which human behaviour was reduced to closed and abstract elements (Atkinson, 2003a). Applying the neo-Vygotskian tradition of mental development, Buhowmik (2012: 2) describes “sociocultural factors” as “any socially and culturally situated and historically conditioned element that mediates human mind”. In accordance with this tradition, the term “sociocultural” is not narrowed down to social and historical elements only, but some extended meanings such as institutional practices and familial traditions are also embraced with the notion of socioculturalism.

Writing in the post-process era is quite complicated compared to earlier classifications of writing approaches. Atkinson and Connor (2008: 522) describe it as a “collaborative, historically-conditioned as well as socially- and culturally-situated” endeavour. This endeavour is evident in Atkinson (2003b: 60), who wrote:

When, in responding to a student’s essay, I ask that student to state or clarify his or her “thesis” at the paper’s beginning, I may very well be participating in a much larger discourse or ideology of the type I speculated on earlier; e.g., a functional economic system, or individualist ideology. Obviously, this kind of request comes from somewhere—it is not simply produced from notions in my head at the moment I read the student’s essay. There is little if any “innocent,”

decontextualized, skills-only teaching activity or knowledge operating in the L2 writing classroom from this point of view — it is basically all social action.

The post-process era considers the writer and writing task in a holistic way (Kent, 1999). According to Bhowmik (2012: 6), the post-process writer is “evolving, constantly bombarded by the ‘sights and sounds’ of the twenty-first century, seeks help from others, hence, collaborates, co-thinks and co-constructs, and is frequently mediated by different symbolic as well as physical tools.” Co-creation and co-construction should be highlighted here because meaning construction is carried out socially. This makes writing a social activity, which is unlike the previously ascribed asociality.

It is no doubt that sociocultural theory of learning has considerable merit in L2 learning, and repercussions of this theory are felt on L2 learners to a significant degree. According to Donato (2000: 45), L2 learning is “a semiotic process attributable to participation in socially-mediated activities”, and the L2 learners are not empty vessels, rather they are the agents who are “historically and sociologically situated” (Block, 2003: 109). Such a temptation for mediation is evident in our all daily encounters as the way we construct meaning is somehow shaped by the context we live in. Adopting an approach in which the L2 learners’ actions are clearly investigated with reference to their social context could prove to be helpful to provide a clearer picture of how things work in relation to each other in the universe.

The need to elaborate on sociocultural aspects of writing has a reasonable ground. Previous research points to the disjuncture between the feedback practices adhered by teachers and the suggested or the prescribed principals (Lee, 2008a). Even though teachers or practitioners seem to be adhering process approach in rhetoric, many turn out be “error hunters,” reducing their overall task to dealing with errors and feedback provision which is usually carried out for a single draft (Lee et al., 2015). Such a practice, in fact, is not congruent with the recursive and process-based nature of writing development. The product-based treatment of students’ writing in question is not necessarily in alignment with the requirements of the modern approaches to L2 writing.

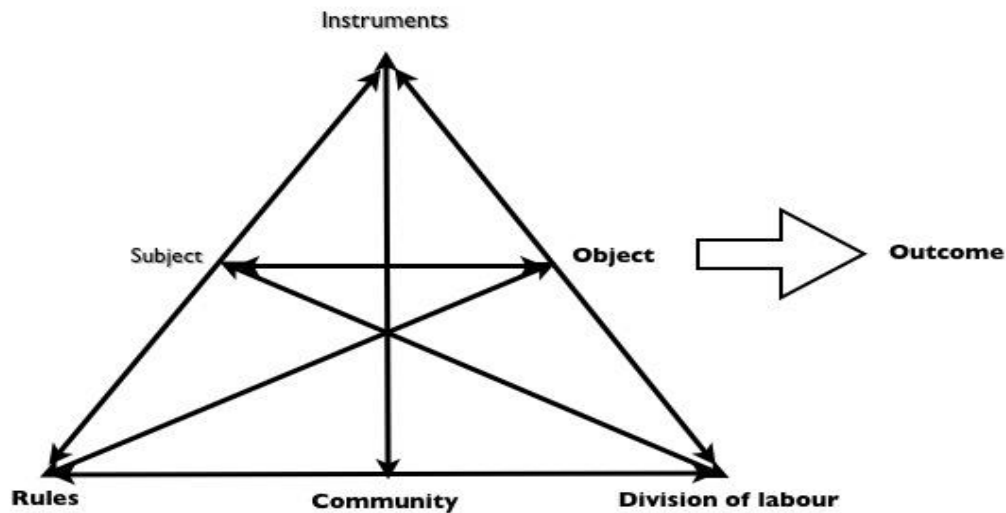
On the way to consolidate and encourage learning, feedback plays a salient role (Lee, 2017; Vygotsky, 1978) since it “provides critical information to students about their writing performance” (Zamel, 1985: 80). However, the way feedback is treated is open to discussion as the literature abounds with many studies on the delivery, provision, reception and interpretation of feedback. Even though research has contributed much on the multifaceted role of feedback, further research is warranted to explore how the contextual factors are represented from the stakeholder perspectives. Especially after the sociocultural turn, sociocultural theories of language development have helped researchers visualize the interactive nature and the dialogic aspects of feedback; however, there still exists some challenges with respect to effective feedback provision (Hyland, 2010).

Controversial findings as to whether feedback promotes L2 writers' writing quality (Ferris, 1999; Truscott, 1996; Truscott, 1999) have emerged from research. Even though many studies on CF in L2 writing have evidenced the usefulness of CF with reference to substantial improvements in student writers' writing quality, Truscott (1996; 1999; 2004; 2007) pointed to the ineffectiveness of CF on practical and theoretical grounds. CF has been pedagogically instrumental (Hedgcock and Lefkowitz, 1994) on the way to promote teachers' individualized touch and attention which is rarely possible in the everyday give-and-take of classroom discourse. Due much to its informational aspect, it plays a crucial role to help facilitate improvements (Hyland and Hyland, 2001).

Second language writing instruction has benefitted from an awakening of interest in the sociocultural aspects of writing, such as nature, delivery and negotiation of feedback on the way to develop writing competence (Panahi et al., 2013). So far, second language acquisition and learning has usually been approached from a cognitive perspective (Lee, 2011). In line with the requirements of this perspective, it is the experimental situations rather than the social context that usually counts in accounting for learning and/or acquisition. To put it differently, cognition is devoid of the learning context, and the cognitive processes are devoid of their environment. Vygotsky's (1978) seminal study in which he posited that the role social context plays is a significant one, which, in turn, highlights the need to consider some external influences. Learning in this sense occurs through a dialogue and negotiation especially in the presence of a more capable peer, as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) indicates. Moreover, it is argued that L2 researchers are required to establish a relationship between the cognitive processes with the environment (van Lier, 2004).

An exploration of the learning together with its context could be enriching because in line with the Bakhtinian perspective (1986), it is quite difficult to separate the learner, activity, and the world. The conventional view of writing development through feedback was usually explored without considering the contextual factors. Several studies, therefore, called for the inclusion of a sociocultural perspective or contextual elements in order to promote the understanding of the cause and effect relationship in learners' interlanguage development through feedback (see Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; E-J. Lee, 2011; I. Lee, 2014). To better understand the context, the interpretation of feedback was considered within the Activity Theory framework (see Figure 1 to see the connection between the physical and symbolic aspects of the environment where the activity takes place). According to Wen (2008), the activity is a unique experience that emerges through an interaction with learners, setting, motivation and histories of the subjects. Therefore, it is not reasonable to detach activity from the sociocultural context in which it is co-constructed.

Figure 1: The Structure of a Human Activity System



Source: Engeström, 1987: 78

Conventional feedback practices suffer from time devoted to, dissatisfaction with and effectiveness of feedback practices (Lee, 2014). Accordingly, teachers need to spend a considerable amount of time particularly for feedback practices. However, such an investment does not seem to be effective some learners. Moreover, individual attention cannot be provided to learners whose drafts are narrowed down to “corrections”, predominantly for linguistic aspects. The sheer emphasis on linguistic accuracy usually results in learners who “get overwhelming information about their weaknesses as communicated by the flood of red ink” (Lee, 2017: 56). These arguments seem to be closely related to practitioners who adopt the product-based pedagogy. From an assessment perspective, such kind of feedback is positioned in a summative assessment procedure in which the written corrective feedback is the typical mode of delivery.

Therefore, going beyond the conventional perspective of feedback practices, this study attempts to uncover the impact of teacher-student dialogic-based feedback practices on students’ writing proficiency, writing anxiety, self-efficacy and perceptions. Such correlates are deemed to be necessary because promoting learners’ cognitive, behavioural and motivational engagement in writing is a responsibility for teachers (Hashemnejad et al., 2014).

So far various correlates of feedback have been investigated (see Table 1). However, sociocultural aspects of writing should also be considered as they are worthy of further pursuit especially at an age where learning is shaped by different cultures and prevailing interactions. In terms of socioeducational contexts, more research is necessary to examine how the differential effects of attributes such as self-efficacy, proficiency and perception vary in relation to the overall orientation of the instructional setting in which the feedback is delivered and the foreign-language learners therein. This study, therefore, attempts to address this gap by focusing on (i) learners’ writing

proficiency, (ii) learners' self-efficacy, (iii) writing anxiety and (iv) perceptions on what constitutes helpful feedback before and after two different modes of feedback practices: feedback within learners' zone of proximal development (ZPD) and feedback irrespective of learners' ZPD. The impact of mediated teacher feedback practices on English as foreign language (EFL) learners' perceptions and practices will be explored.

Table 1: Several Correlates of Teacher Feedback in Previous Studies

<i>Research focus</i>	<i>Researcher/s</i>
A comparison of peer and teacher feedback	(Miaoa et al., 2006)
Corrective feedback in asynchronous online interaction	(Sambursky and Quah, 2014)
Effectiveness the teachers' implementation of innovative feedback approaches and its reflections on students	(Lee et al., 2015)
Feedback from sociocultural perspectives	(Lee, 2014)
Integration of feedback through blogs and portfolios	(Arslan, 2014)
Learner perceptions towards feedback	(Chen et al. 2016)
Learners' aptitude, motivation and anxiety	(DeKeyser, 1993)
Nonverbal behaviour in teachers' corrective feedback	(Wang and Loewen, 2015)
Effectiveness of written feedback	(Van Beuningen et al., 2012; Bitchener and Knoch, 2015; Liu and Brown, 2015)
Patterns of feedback (form-focused vs. Content focused)	(Ashwell, 2000)
Proficiency level of the feedback receiver	(Iwashita, 2003)
Roles for corrective feedback	(Lyster, 2013)
Sociocultural considerations in feedback provision	(Panahi et al., 2013)
Sociocultural interpretation of writing feedback	(Mustafa, 2012)
Students' participation in group peer feedback	(Yu and Lee, 2015)
Teachers' written feedback practices	(Lee, 2008b)
The amount of feedback	(Havranek, 1999)
The nexus between written feedback and non-formal learning	(Mirzaee and Hasrati, 2014)
The relationship between teacher feedback and language anxiety	(Di Loreto and McDonough, 2013)
The source of feedback	(Van Den Branden, 1997)
The type of feedback (e.g., explicit or implicit)	(Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

To go into abovementioned correlates further, perceived self-efficacy was found to be the strongest predictor of learners' writing performance as a strong relationship between writing self-efficacy beliefs, and writing outcomes were noted in many studies (see Pajares, 2003; Pajares and Johnson, 1996; Pajares and Valiente, 1999), which seems to lend support for Bandura's claim that one's writing performance could be anticipated through his/her self-efficacy. It is not surprising, therefore, that self-efficacy beliefs could be informative of the subsequent writing performance (Pajares and Valiente, 2006). With this in mind, building on writing proficiency requires some

investment on the way promote learners' self-efficacy. According to Pajares (2003), four main sources have been influential to form self-efficacy perceptions. These four sources are, namely i) one's interpretation of his/her mastery experience, ii) people's experiences emanating from the observation of other people, iii) verbal messages and social persuasions received from others and iv) the degree of anxiety and stress which are the representations of their psychological states.

Moreover, due much to the anxiety-provoking nature of language learning situations, when developing a new language, the chance of confronting with learners "whose minds go blank, who continuously pray not to be delivered a turn or who just freeze when they are called upon" (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2013: 377-378) is not remote. An increasing number of studies on language anxiety research have addressed to the detrimental effect of language anxiety on learner performance. A skill-based analysis of anxiety-provoking nature of the L2 classes suggests a strong association between productive skills, especially writing and speaking and learners' L2 performance. Since these skills require production which can be monitored by others, fear of judgements and evaluations of others might interfere. Thus, the need to help learners fight with anxiety, if not totally eradicate it, should be a concern for instructors and institutions.

English major students want to feel themselves included in the community of target language writers (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2015), but it is relatively demanding for learners to acquire their new writer identity. Language anxiety is a construct in which learners of a specific territory falls into new realms, and due to the novel nature of the new territory, feeling comfortable in this new realm takes some time and effort so that learners might truly feel themselves acclimatized to the new avenue. It is, therefore, highly likely for learners to feel apprehensive in this new domain. What triggers the anxiety-provoking nature of language learning particularly in writing classes is that quality of writing in L2 is closely related to the learners' degree of writing apprehension.

Second language writing anxiety (SLWA) is defined as "a general avoidance of writing behaviour and of situations thought to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing" (Hassan, 2001: 4). SLWA can lead to negative effects on learner performance (Cheng, 2004; Horwitz, 2001). For instance, several studies conducted in Turkey (e.g., Atay and Kurt, 2006; Kahraman, 2013; Kurt and Atay, 2007; Yaman, 2010; Zerey, 2013) draw attention to the debilitating role of writing anxiety, and most of the studies agree on the notion that feeling nervous in the writing class might be a predictor of a worse performance than usual. Efforts, therefore, should be made to help learners i) develop self-confidence as L2 writers, ii) increase their self-efficacy, iii) feel more secure and claim ownership in the new territory, iv) fight against challenges that might impede their performance, vi) socialize themselves in the target community through getting engaged in a decent and meaningful tasks, and vii) encourage collaboration through facilitating the cooperation with stakeholders.

Among the studies cited above, some point to the role of feedback provision, either teacher or peer-led, as an anxiety-lowering method (Kahraman, 2013; Kurt and Atay, 2007). For instance, Kurt and Atay (2007) conducted a study in which 86 pre-service English teachers received feedback in two modalities: a) (experimental group) both peer and teacher feedback and b) (control group) teacher feedback only. The researchers found that peer feedback group had a significantly lower level of writing anxiety at the end of the feedback sessions. In another study, Kahraman (2013) investigated the effectiveness of teacher feedback on writing anxiety of the 125 freshman students. The findings revealed that the increase in students' scores resulted in a lower degree of writing anxiety. It could be concluded that the type of feedback could be a determinant of one's degree of writing anxiety. However, going further into the teacher feedback as it covers range of differences on a continuum might be reasonable, and it seems therefore more research into feedback practices as anxiety-lowering instruments could bring a higher ecological validity.

In addition to L2 writing anxiety, gender has been a variable in many studies on language anxiety, self-efficacy and achievement. Basically, the essence of the matter is that males and females are likely to manifest different behaviour in language learning contexts. Particularly for this study, the reactions of males and females to teacher feedback are investigated. Recognition of gender-specific tendencies would be a significant move towards educational equity (Constantinou, 2008) because gender inequality has been a topic of debate in academic settings, and the differences between the genders cannot merely be explained through the biological differences. As Graddol and Swann (1989: 8) put it:

Whether one is male or female is not just a biological fact, it assigns one to membership of one of two social groups. A great many consequences – social, economic and political – flow from this membership. Women and men, girls and boys, are treated in systematically different ways (by both men and women); they have different experiences at school, at work and at home; they do different things and different things are expected of them. In other words, women and men have different life experiences to an extent that cannot be satisfactorily explained by simple biological differences between the sexes.

It seems that apart from being a biological phenomenon, gender should not be approached as a “fixed and unalterable dimension that is imposed on us from on high” (Goddard and Patterson, 2000: 27), rather understanding it as part of the “internal forces” might be a better conceptualization. Swan (1992: 11) pointed out that “external forces are so powerful that there is little possibility of change”. To put it for gender, it is not a fixed biological fact, but a dimension that can be constructed.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

It could be asserted that the contextual and sociocultural dimensions of teachers' work have attracted sporadic attention (see Goldstein, 2001). Even though the feedback provider and feedback recipient are context-bound variables, they are treated to be decontextualized in the conventional

feedback practices. That is, contextual and sociocultural dimensions are disregarded (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b). Conventional feedback practices were considered in a cognitive realm, but with the consideration of contextual factors such as goals, writing tasks, L2 proficiency, and other variables, more has been done to promote the embracing nature of sociocultural theories. However, it could be argued that not much has been achieved as only few studies have been conducted with the framework of the socio-cultural or socio-cognitive perspective (Englert et al., 2006; Manchon and de Haan, 2008).

The literature on the sociocultural aspects of feedback practices is rather scarce. Even though there is a great deal of research on the correlates of corrective feedback especially in a process-based instruction, there is less published research about how feedback is mediated in an effort to develop writing proficiency. Learners are provided feedback, but mere provision of feedback may not lead to corresponding improvements in the subsequent drafts. It is essential, therefore, to monitor how L2 writers go through with the feedback they are provided. This study attempts to fill the gap in feedback delivery and provision systems considering the actual and the desired feedback practices which in fact emanate from the teacher-student mediation practices.

Conventional feedback practices fail to achieve the desired efficiency, satisfaction and timing both on the learners' and practitioners' perspectives (Lee, 2014); therefore, the call for revising the current feedback practices is a timely reminder. The efficiency in question is distorted due to the teachers' tendency to reduce feedback practices to error-hunting, and satisfaction is mostly ignored as little room, if any, for the stakeholders is offered for the consideration of individual development, which in turn leads to inadequate appraisal of the existing feedback practices. Despite undue focus on linguistic errors, which rarely amounts to request for revision in content and organization, managing the time devoted to feedback is essential on the part of the teacher. However, even if the teacher may know the proper way, the school rules might push them to be less committed in igniting change. This point is aptly put by Lee (2014: 207), who remarked:

The need to provide timely feedback, as another rule, results in the get-the-job-done mentality among some teachers who have to burn the midnight oil to finish their marking, during which time quality may have to be compromised. For some teachers, although they may endorse the value of alternative feedback approaches such as focused error feedback in a process-oriented classroom, their beliefs come into direct conflict with the policy stipulated by the school (rule), and they remain powerless to initiate change because of the hierarchical relationships in schools and their lack of autonomy (community and division of labour) to implement change.

Reflecting on the studies on written feedback, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994: 142) noted: "L2 educators are particularly interested in how teacher intervention in writing instruction influences the composing process, and more specifically, in how apprentice writers react to the feedback they receive on their immediate and final products." However, coming up with a unique means of instrument as the sole predictor of a tendency could be misleading because the treatment or the

phenomena does not take place in an isolated nature. There exists therefore an urgent need to incorporate sociocultural lens. The need in question partly emerges out of the need for more discussion on the impact of teacher feedback (Lee, 2014).

Studies into L2 feedback have usually been approached from cognitive perspectives and writing within the cognitive framework is considered to be a process of planning, reviewing, monitoring, evaluating, revising (Sasaki, 2002; Zamel, 1983). In Zamel's (1983) description, writing is a "non-linear, exploratory, and generating process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (165). However, despite the emphasis on contextual factors, studies are still attached to the cognitive perspective (Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000), and, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 466) emphasized, "We are still a long way from full understanding of how feedback interacts with the L2 learning process." Thus, it seems imperative for practitioners to go beyond the cognitive perspectives.

There seems to be a gap between the desired and actual level of contextual embeddedness. The current feedback research is mostly "acontextual" and "non-social" (Goldstein, 2001; 2006). Thus, the contextual factors are not duly integrated. However, based on research into feedback studies, it could be worthwhile mentioning that feedback does not take place in a vacuum, but a varying degree of interrelating subsystems might interfere (Brock, 1995). These subsystems may not be free from the repercussions of contextual factors. In Leki's (1992: 125) words, teachers' reaction to student writing is "laden with political content". Hence, seeking ways to uncover the content in question would be a reasonable endeavour as the investigation of context might yield productive.

Relatively few studies have been conducted to see the impact of sociocultural feedback practices, and these studies offer a limited variety in research design as well as a limited impact. The existing studies are not designed in an experimental fashion, and therefore a control group is lacking, which makes it difficult for researchers to draw firm conclusions. Moreover, the impact of the studies is narrowed to students' revisions in subsequent drafts or writing achievement. Therefore, how feedback is related to affective variables is yet to be further investigated.

1.3. Research Questions

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. What is the impact of teacher feedback within and irrespective of learners' zone of proximal development?
 - a) Is there a difference between the preferences of learners in the control and experimental group feedback after the feedback sessions?
 - b) Is there a difference between the performance of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?

- c) Is there a difference between the perceptions of learners in the control and experimental group towards feedback practices after the feedback sessions?
 - d) Is there a difference between L2 writing self-efficacy of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?
 - e) Is there a difference between the writing anxiety of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?
2. Do male and female students differ in their writing performance, self-efficacy beliefs and writing anxiety level after the feedback sessions?
 3. What kinds of mediational means do Turkish EFL learners use for their L2 writing assignments?
 - a) Is there a difference between the mediational means of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study aims at investigating the effectiveness of two feedback modalities, namely feedback within learners' ZPD and feedback irrespective of learners' ZPD. Feedback has been a controversial issue especially after Truscott's vehement call for the abandonment of feedback practices on several grounds (1996; 1999; 2007). However, as many researchers claimed (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener and Knoch, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; Russell and Spada, 2006; Sheen, 2007), feedback plays a facilitative role in writing development. Much of the feedback practices are designed in line with the process approach. However, a burgeoning body of literature calls for a paradigmatic shift that sees learning and teaching as essentially social activities (Block, 2003, 2007; Cole and Engestrom, 1993; Lantolf, 2000; Prior, 2006) rather than cognitive. The cognitive aspect here refers to the writing process at an individual level, while the social or sociocultural aspect approaches writing development as a co-constructed process. To address this gap, the study is designed to investigate the effectiveness of feedback practices from two different perspectives.

Several studies point to the usefulness of error feedback regarding the improvements on L2 writers' accuracy. However, these studies in general do not help the readers see the delayed impact or ignore the students' own contribution. Sociocultural feedback considers learning as a dialogic (language-mediated) interaction in which the interaction between the expert and novice is mediated (Anton, 1999). ZPDs in this manner act as opportunities in which one's accumulation of knowledge is assisted by the more capable peers. Through such scaffolding, the learners are in a way helped to become more independent in the subsequent stages. The independence in question could be described as move from teacher reliance (other regulation) to self-initiated reliance (self-regulation). The emancipatory role of ZPDs is also evident in Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 470-471), who proposed: "the learner's performance, including corrective behaviour is completely self-generated and

automized and mistakes emanate from legitimate slips of the tongue, or the pen, rather than from incomplete learning.” In order for such a mediation to take place, there is need to capture how feedback is interpreted in the eyes of learners.

The reported findings for student opinions and reactions to feedback in early studies point to attitudinal ambivalences. Hounsell (1987) found that meaning, and structure and content were two mainstream aspirations for teachers when providing feedback. Some studies pointed to the primacy of grammar (Saito, 1994; Radecki and Swales, 1988) especially with reference to its usefulness from students’ perspective, while feedback on content and organization was not welcomed in Leki (1991). A similar sentiment was voiced by Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994), who found that feedback on content, organization, and style took a back seat. Moreover, a balanced desire for content and language-based feedback was also evident (Lee, 2005). The abovementioned research findings indicate that the learners’ inclination for a particular type of feedback is not fixed; rather it is shaped in historical processes. Therefore, in the midst of a fragmented world where learner preferences are more varied than before, the need to mediate feedback is greater than ever.

The proposition that feedback is necessary from the learner perspectives is evident in many studies (Ferris, 1995; Leki, 1991; Yeh, 2016). However, there does not seem to be a consensus on how, and even whether, to give L2 students feedback on their written errors (Truscott, 1996; 1999). This study attempts to address the abovementioned gaps through a comparison of two feedback modalities. Most studies conducted on written feedback in EFL/ESL contexts focus on the writing performance of the students in subsequent drafts; thus, other correlates of the feedback practices such as self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety seem not to have received the due respect they deserve (Ruegg, 2014). Besides, as cognitive and sociocultural aspects were involved, contextually-rich data were gathered. Both qualitative and quantitative data were used for triangulation purposes.

Multiple stakeholders are likely to take advantage of the outcomes of the study. First of all, the call for the consideration of feedback practices could benefit practitioners who want to come up with practical applications of feedback practices from cognitive and sociocultural perspectives. Most of the time, teachers or other practitioners search for a handy solution for what to pay attention to when providing feedback. Many studies abound with prescriptive suggestions, and such a “dos and don’ts list” might appear to be of minor significance. However, adding the contextual considerations, the study attempts to bring a proper degree of ecological validity for the feedback practices followed. Moreover, teacher trainers are likely to benefit from the outcomes. In many contexts, feedback provision literacy is something which is expected to take care of itself for learners. The trainers can help practitioners to make smart investments in feedback provision. Smart decisions are more likely to benefit learners, whose L2 acquisition is shaped by the quality of the feedback.

1.5. Purpose of the Study

Drawing a comparison between mediated and non-mediated feedback experience, which is also referred to as feedback within learners ZPD and feedback irrespective of the learners' ZPD, the study attempts to investigate the impact of two feedback modalities- feedback offered within and irrespective of the learners' ZPD- on learners' perceptions, achievement, L2 writing anxiety and self-efficacy. Such an attempt helps crystalize the impact of conventional feedback practices in L2 writing contexts, find a way to replace the current practices with more effective feedback ones, and see the impact of such practices on learners L2 writing proficiency, writing anxiety, writing self-efficacy, and perceptions.

The findings gleaned from the study are assumed to contribute to the theory and practice aspects of the written feedback practices. To this end, the following aims are pursued throughout the study:

- to explore EFL students' perceptions towards writing
- to explore their perceptions towards written feedback
- to see the impact of two different feedback modalities on learners' L2 writing anxiety
- to see the impact of two different feedback practices on learners' paragraph writing self-efficacy
- to draw a comparison of males and females in terms of their achievement
- to draw a comparison of males and females in terms of their level of writing anxiety
- to draw a comparison of males and females in terms of their level of self-efficacy
- to contribute to the growing body of literature in the same field

Mentioning briefly, the current study is an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of two different feedback modalities. The effectiveness is handled in terms of uncovering the learners' perceptions towards writing and feedback, L2 writing anxiety, paragraph writing self-efficacy, and achievement. To begin with, exploration of people's perceptions could help crystallize how people make meaning, understand and relate things in the world, and demonstrate behaviour. In most situations, people's behaviours could be determined through the investigation of their beliefs and perceptions. Therefore, following the motto "perception precedes being", it could be claimed that the way one acts is somehow shaped by the way s/he thinks. The perceptions which are focused in the study are related to two dimensions: perceptions about L2 writing and perceptions about written feedback. It is known that these two variables are closely related to each other as feedback is used as a tool for writing development. Therefore, understanding feedback as a detached activity may only provide a partial picture of reality.

Language anxiety has permeated into many language learning situations as language learning is an anxiety-inducing activity in its own nature. Since teacher feedback is “often fraught with frustration and uncertainty” (Ferris, 2014: 6), it could be anxiety-breeding for some learners and in some situations, making the need to address the anxiety of feedback receivers is critical. As a high level of anxiety is usually associated with a lower level of performance, the pursuit of ways to find the less-anxiety provoking ways is an important attempt on the way to create a conducive atmosphere. Thus, the search for contexts which are relatively less anxiety-provoking is a necessity, and this study examines the pursuit of such a context with reference to two feedback modalities. So far, several attempts were made to examine the anxiety level of learners in certain feedback situations. However, this study aims at examining the issue from a comparative aspect.

With regards to self-efficacy, teachers shoulder a tremendous responsibility to empower learners with a can-do attitude towards better writing performance. However, since a greater part of the writing development attempts are achieved through feedback practices, finding the viable ways to ensure the learners’ self-efficacy is a necessity for teachers. Thus, such a search for fostering a can-do attitude takes us to helping learners enhance their sense of self-efficacy because self-efficacy is a potential correlate of how people think, feel and behave.

Another correlate of the feedback practices in many studies is related to the impact of them on learners’ achievement. Higher achievement is a desirable goal for many programs, and scores seem to tell more about students’ performance than other related correlates. More importantly, at a time of increased accountability, decision-makers, institutions, teachers, parents and students are informed by the learner performance through achievement scores. Therefore, the effectiveness of a particular feedback practice could partly be determined through the score-based outcomes.

It is also worth noting that responding to teacher feedback is not a purely cognitive activity. Learners benefit from sources such as dictionaries, rules, friends and so on. However, to what extent those sources are referred to is a question that needs to be investigated. Moreover, since two different feedback practices are carried out throughout the study, whether the implementation of sources or mediational tools change in two different practices is examined.

1.6. Methodology

The present study presents an analysis of the learners who received feedback in the light of process and post-process approaches. Namely, mediated feedback practices and feedback practices in the process approach are compared with reference to their impact on learners’ beliefs, performance, self-efficacy and writing anxiety. Considering the documented literature, the variables in questions are closely linked to learners’ writing development as well as writing achievement. Such a comparison is drawn by presenting an analysis of the learners before, during, and after the tutorial

sessions. These developmental stages are examined through the pre-test, treatment, post-test, and delayed post-test sessions.

This research is a mixed-methods study, following a qualitative and a quantitative paradigm to better comprehend how student perspectives and writing are shaped through teacher feedback. Therefore, both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered. Qualitative methods were used because they are “most often used to understand the cultural or everyday practices of individuals and social groups” (Schultz, 2006: 359). To fulfil that goal, informal conversational interviews, in addition to semi-structured open-ended question interviews were used to collect data. In agreement with Patton’s (2002) claim, using the qualitative data gathered from semi-structured interviews, process-logs, stimulated recalls and cover letters helps capture students’ point of in a way which is not controlling and open. Moreover, quantitative data from the self-efficacy questionnaire (pre-post), writing anxiety scale (pre-post), teacher feedback scale (pre-post) and student performance grades (pre-post) were used. Even though qualitative aspects of the study are of more focus, it is believed that quantitative data to be elicited through the scales and measurements in question are of great help for the researcher to make some inferences about the impact of feedback. The focus on the qualitative aspect helps to bring an insider perspective, uncover the multiple realities of the individuals, and seek insight rather than explain the relationship between events through mere statistical procedures.

Feedback, from a sociocultural perspective, qualifies as a mediated learning interaction so long as the learner, teacher and the material are adequately involved in the process. Sociocultural research requires a broader perspective of evidence of learning rather than focusing solely on the snapshots of learner performance (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007). Analysis of a single interaction as provided in Aljaafreh and Lantolf’s (1994) study as well as over the course of months and years could provide some evidence of the dialogic nature of the feedback provider and feedback receiver interaction. Moreover, evidence of development should not be restricted to the linguistic development. Lantolf and Thorne (2007: 208) depict the grip that quality of mediation might change, if not learner performance:

What may change...is the frequency and quality of assistance needed by a particular learner in order to perform appropriately in the new language. On one occasion a learner may respond only to explicit mediation from a teacher or peer to produce a specific feature of the L2, and on a later occasion (later in the same interaction or in a future interaction) the individual may only need a subtle hint to be able to produce the feature. Thus, while nothing has ostensibly changed in the learner’s actual performance, development has taken place because the quality of mediation needed to prompt the performance has changed.

In accordance with Feuerstein et al. (1988), three criteria must be satisfied to establish a mediated learning interaction: (1) intentionality/reciprocity, (2) transcendence, and (3) meaning. Lee (2014) applied these criteria to feedback and came up with the following explanations. Accordingly, intentionality suggests “the teacher’s deliberate effort to mediate feedback for students, directing

their attention to the strategies needed to solve their problems in writing (...) as opposed to the conventional unfocused or haphazard manner in which feedback is delivered” (204) while reciprocity refers to the active teacher-student interaction. Transcendence is ascribed to students’ transfer of feedback from one situation to another while meaning pertains “the significance of the interaction, achieved by the teacher helping learners interpret the significance of the task and what they have accomplished in writing, mediating a sense of achievement” (204). Efforts were made to help these criteria to be actualized.

The population consists of EFL learners who are enrolled in an English major program at a state university in the north-eastern Turkey. Students from four classes in which the researcher in this study was teaching were the focus. First, all students were asked to respond to a writing task taken from TELC Mock Examination for B2-C1 level (see Appendix 18). Then they were asked to fill in a questionnaire which consists of six sections: demographic questions, feedback preferences and practices, second language writing anxiety, perceptions on written feedback, English paragraph writing self-efficacy and factors affecting L2 writing. Out of these students, each participant was given a number in the SPSS, and the odd numbers were put in the experimental group while the even numbers were put in the control group. The students in the experimental group were asked to attend 12-week tutorial sessions in which they received mediated feedback within their ZPD, while the learners control group received written feedback irrespective of their ZPD. The students were told that they were supposed take part in tutorial sessions each week and these sessions would be held free of charge.

The ZPD learners or the learners in the experimental group were briefly informed that they would receive feedback face-to-face. These tutorials were conducted either in the tutor’s office or in class. Each session lasted about 15 minutes for per person and stimulated recall protocols were administered to see how the feedback provided was interpreted by the learners. Learners in the control group, however, received feedback irrespective of their ZPD. That is, they received only written feedback, and there was no tutorial session or negotiation of meaning afterwards.

1.7. Data Processing and Reliability

The data gathered through questionnaires were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16. The scales used were found to be reliable and used in previous studies. However, a piloting was carried out particularly for this study to ensure that the items were valid and reliable. The piloting for these scales was carried out with the students who were studying in the prep program one year before. These students also took writing classes and benefitted from teacher feedback practices. The data gathered through the interviews, process logs, cover letters and stimulated protocols were analysed using inductive content analysis. To ensure consistency and trustworthiness, the researcher shared the interview transcripts with students and then created codes and themes out

of the transcribed data. Next, two researchers who had experience in qualitative studies were asked to create codes and themes out of the same transcribed data. The consistency of the codes was compared and any possible inconsistencies were revised.

1.8. Definitions of Terms

Even though some of the terms described below might have different meanings depending upon the context they are used, the operational definitions of them are given as follows.

Foreign language (FL): Even though the terms second language and foreign language are used interchangeably in many studies, the term “foreign language” will be preferred more due to the sheer contextual concerns. Following the Kachruvian division, since Turkey is positioned in the outer circle with reference to English use, it would be more meaningful to treat it as a “foreign language”. Foreign language is described as follows:

A language which is not the native language of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc. Foreign languages are typically taught as school subjects for the purpose of communicating with foreigners or for reading printed materials in the language. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 224-225)

Target language: The language which a person is learning or trying to learn. For the study context, it is the English language.

Teacher feedback: Even though the term corrective feedback springs to mind with its grammar-focused connotation, teacher feedback in this study involves the aspects of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar and mechanics (see Maarof et al. 2011 for a similar operational definition).

Corrective feedback: Corrective feedback refers to “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (Chaudron, 1977: 31).

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD): It is a central and frequently referenced concept in the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory. ZPD could be defined as the distance between the current level of performance and potential development of a learner. In Richards and Schmidt’s (2010: 644) words, it is: “The distance between what a learner can do by himself or herself and what he or she can do with guidance from a teacher or a more capable peer. The theory assumes that learners use the techniques used during collaborative efforts when encountering similar problems in the future.”

Feedback: It stands for “comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons” (Richards and Schmidt’s (2010: 217).

Feedback within learners’ zone of proximal development/Mediated feedback: In this study, feedback within learners’ zone of proximal development and mediated feedback are used interchangeably. In conventional feedback practices, student-teacher interaction is usually missing, and feedback practices lack reciprocity. However, the premise of the mediated feedback is human cognitive abilities are co-constructed with the tools, either material or symbolic. Feuerstein et al.’s (1988) three criteria of interaction, namely (1) intentionality/reciprocity, (2) transcendence, and (3) meaning count as mediated feedback in this study.

Feedback irrespective of learners’ zone of proximal development/Unmediated feedback: Unmediated feedback or feedback irrespective of the learners’ zone of proximal development refers to teacher written feedback which lacks teacher-student interaction. The feedback practices are only in written form, and the teacher-student negotiation is limited to coded feedback and teacher comments (praise, criticism and suggestions).

L1: The L1 is the native language of the learners and for this study it refers to Turkish for a great majority of learners.

L2: Second language refers to the language being learned or spoken. For this particular context, it is used for the English language.

English as a second/foreign language: English as a second or English as a foreign language are sometimes used interchangeably even though these two concepts invoke a different meaning. Given that the boundaries of circles described by Kachru are more blurred after the emergence of fragmented worlds with fragmented identities, the division between is not clear-cut. However, as a researcher, I believe even a poor classification will be better than none. Here, Richards and Schmidt (2010) eloquently describe the division as follows:

In a loose sense, English is the second language of anyone who learns it after learning their first language in infancy in the home. Using the term this way, no distinction is made between second language, third language, etc. However, English as a second language is often contrasted with English as a foreign language. Someone who learns English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities for use outside the classroom, in a country in which English does not play an important role in internal communication (China, Japan, and Korea, for example), is said to be learning English as a foreign language. Someone who learns English in a setting in which the language is necessary for everyday life (for example, an immigrant learning English in the US) or in a country in which English plays an important role in education, business, and government (for example in Singapore, the Philippines, India, and Nigeria) is learning English as a second language. (196-197)

1.9. Organization of the Study

This dissertation is organized into four chapters. The first chapter outlines the process and post-process approaches to L2 writing and provides a rationale on the theoretical framework as well as brief methodological information regarding the research design.

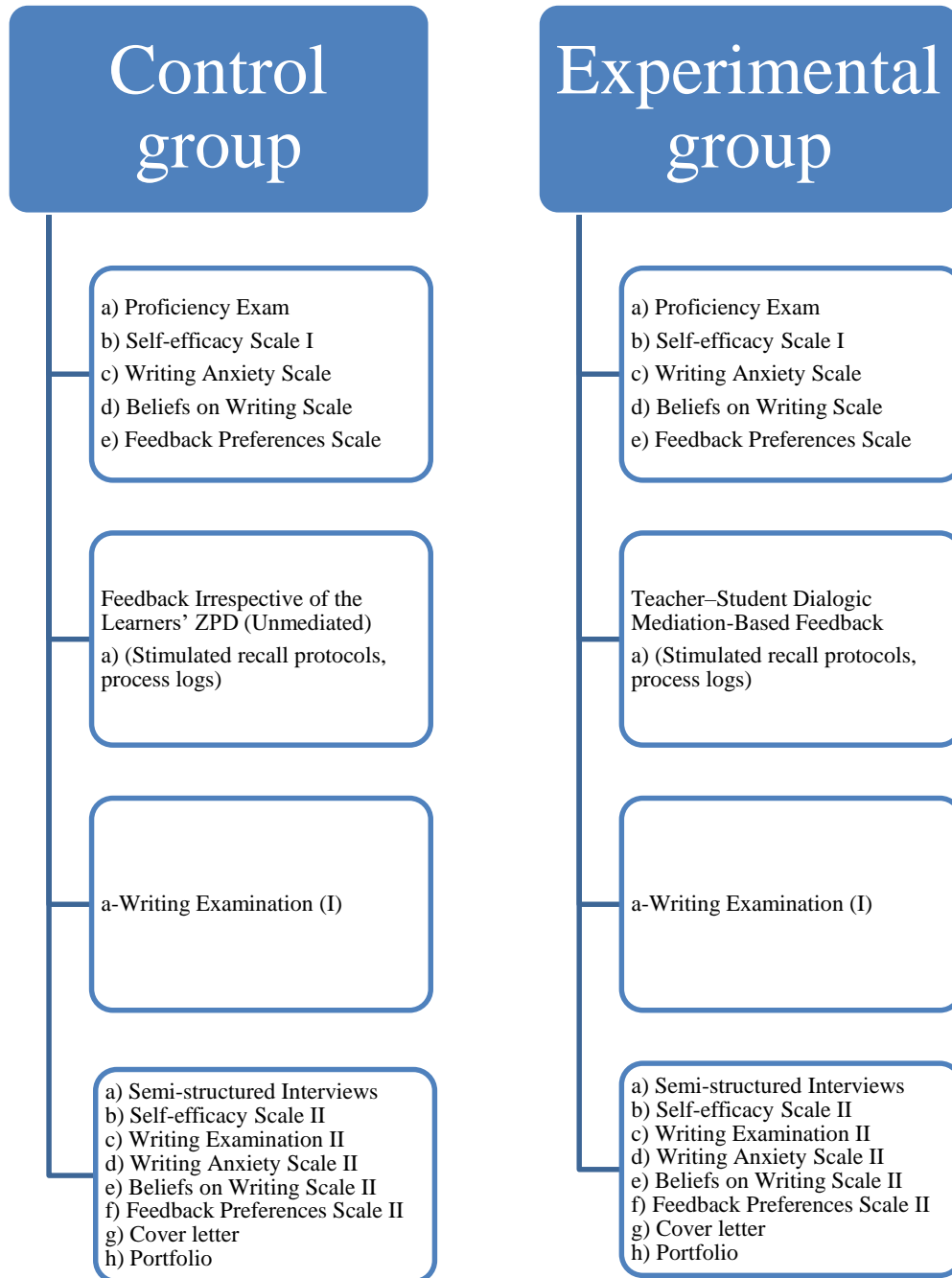
The second chapter maps the terrain beginning from approaches towards L2 writing, taxonomy of the written feedback types, the correlates of feedback types with a focus on foreign language writing anxiety, self-efficacy and achievement.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the methodology of the study. The setting, participants, research design, instruments, data collection as well as data analysis processes and ethical issues are described.

The fourth chapter presents the analysis of the data coming from questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, process logs, cover letters, and stimulated recall protocols. For the quantitative data, I provided descriptive as well as inferential statistics. Moreover, themes developed from the qualitative data are elaborated. In the last part, the main findings are highlighted with a focus on the pedagogical implications and limitations of the study. The chapter briefly evaluates the methodology, and addresses limitations and implications for future research.

The following figure presents an outline of the research instruments employed to gather data.

Figure 2: An Outline of the Steps Followed



CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

So feedback is not just what gets ranked; it's what gets thanked, commented on, and invited back or dropped. Feedback can be formal or informal, direct or implicit; it can be blunt or baroque, totally obvious or so subtle that you're not sure what it is.

(Stone and Heen, 2014)

2.1. Introduction

This chapter delineates the relevant theoretical background and research on different approaches to second language writing. Particularly, the product, process and genre approaches are elaborated with particular focus on the sociocultural theory. After a discussion on the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches in question, some practical information about the definition, uses, and effectiveness of different feedback types is provided. As the experiment will focus on the comparison of feedback practices in the framework of process and post-process pedagogies, much discussion is devoted to the theoretical underpinnings of process approach pedagogy and sociocultural-theoretical framework. This part is followed by the significance and research on second/foreign language writing anxiety, writing self-efficacy and writing proficiency.

2.2. Approaches to the Teaching of L2 Writing

Second language writing teaching is not a matter of sheer hands-on experience. The practitioners' decisions are usually guided by their beliefs and practices. That is, practical as well as theoretical knowledge of writing determines the procedures that the teachers might follow. For instance, the selection of course materials, tasks, methods, teaching styles are usually shaped by the decisions which are, in fact, guided by the practical and theoretical knowledge (Hyland, 2003). Therefore, conceptualization of approaches to writing might help people teaching writing make informed decisions. Such a conceptualization might be handled differently. However, following the Badger and White's (2000) division, three mainstream approaches, namely the product, the process, and the genre approach, will be explicated.

Before delving into the approaches, it might be better to highlight some issues about the conceptualizations. Even though various conceptualizations and divisions could be made, such divisions should not be misleading for the practitioners. Understanding them as "core dichotomies" could be misleading (Hyland, 2003: 1) as the approaches could prove to be complementary. Thus,

Badger and White's (2000: 157-158) explanation regarding the encompassing nature of writing teaching is noteworthy: "writing involves knowledge about language (as in product and genre approaches), knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose for the writing (as in genre approaches), and skills in using language (as in process approaches)." However, despite the difficulty of setting artificial boundaries, a categorization might still make it more digestible for analysis.

2.2.1. The Product Approach

The product approach to writing is also named as the traditional approach or traditional paradigm. The teaching model in this approach was based on audio-lingual principles, and it used to be quite influential until 1970s even though the practices of it still continue today. What counts according to this approach is "the composition of correct texts" (Lynch, 1996: 148). The composition of such texts could be achieved through helping learners develop writing habits which include writing model passages and detailed correction of student writing.

A particular analysis of the significance of the "product" and its basic characteristics might be useful to draw a clearer picture of the approach. The emphasis in this approach falls on the product, and it is not surprising that learners' first draft is also the last draft. The final product is evaluated by the accuracy of language use. As the focus of the writing is on the product, several issues could be highlighted. First, accuracy precedes fluency and creativity (Varli, 2001). The emphasis on accuracy makes the fluency and creativity have a back seat. The learners, therefore, are expected to develop habits of acceptable language forms. Moreover, the audience and the reader are neglected concerns (Zamel, 1987). The teacher, in the product approach is considered to be the sole audience. Thus, learners feel that they write for the teacher. Another highlight in the approach is the focus on form rather than the meaning. Form refers to linguistic system which is represented through grammatical structures and accuracy in this context. In addition, the stages that the writers go through are assumed to be linear rather than a recursive process. Since writing does not include a series of stages that require multidrafting, a recursive process in which a particular form of writing is constructed and reconstructed. However, even though a particular piece of composition can be written in one sitting, we can still mention some stages writers go through.

Badger and White (2000) mention four stages in the product approach: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. Initially, the features of a text are familiarized to the learners. It could be achieved through reading the model texts. Next, in the controlled and guided writing stages, the learners are required to practice targeted features such as a formal or informal opening in a letter. In the controlled and guided writing stages, learners are offered a little degree of freedom. However, in the free writing stage, writing becomes an engagement in which real life activities are practiced.

Despite the emphasis on ‘linguistic knowledge’, which, in turn, helped learners organize and construct their own products, the product approach to writing was disillusioning for many writers for several reasons. To begin with, the undue focus on grammatical aspects, the lack of opportunities for the writers’ creativity and the prescriptive nature of writing were not fitting for the emerging demands of the writers (Badger and White, 2000). Moreover, the overemphasis on multiple drafting (Horowitz, 1986), scarcity of ESL/EFL teachers who received training tailored for teaching writing, the ESL teachers’ inclination to hold to traditional beliefs and the practitioners’ focus on personal experience are some pitfalls voiced by Leki (1992). In the light of the criticisms above, the need for the emphasis on the processes of writing was more frequently pronounced in the 1970s.

2.2.2. The Process Approach

Much of the early discussions on approaches to writing evolved around product and process dichotomy. The focus on product lost its appeal due to lack of effectiveness in developing writers. The product approach to writing encouraged students to write according to the topics assigned and evaluated by teachers. As a result, the students were not given the opportunity to benefit from feedback as it was the product that counted. However, with the advent of the process pedagogy, writing was regarded as a process of:

...helping students discover their own voice; of recognizing that students have something important to say; of allowing students to choose their own topic; of providing teacher and peer feedback; of encouraging revision; and of using student writing as the primary text of the course. (Matsuda, 2003: 67)

In the words of Tribble (1996:160), the process approach is “an approach to the teaching of writing which stresses the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of good writing practices rather than the imitation of models.” Understanding the process that a writer goes through, then, is of salient value to understand the process itself. Upon the need in question, Flower and Hayes’ (1981) work used protocol analyses -a new research methodology in composition at the time- to investigate the cognitive processes writers go through. Unlike the introspective studies, composition processes were analysed through the writers’ transcripts on composition processes. This helped the researchers capture what really happened when one happens to write. The researchers created a cognitive model and asserted that (a) composing was not a linear process but a recursive one and (b) the composing processes were hierarchical (e.g. idea generation is a sub-process of planning). What is noteworthy about Flower and Hayes’ (1981) model is that although they outlined three distinct parts of composition, namely, the task environment, writing process, and writer’s long-term memory, writing process seems to have received the most importance in research and teaching practices. In subsequent development, we find that process research continued to flourish, and composition teachers attested much importance to students’ learning of the processes of writing.

The shift from the product approach to the process one was noticeable in the early 1970s. The work of Emig (1971) is cited as one of the pioneering works pointing to the composing processes learners go through. Specifically, the writing processes of the twelfth graders were analysed. Emig provides strong indictments arguing that the agents of writing instructions are not truly equipped to teach writing. Since they do not approach writing as a process, and the then-current teacher-centeredness do not really serve to the desired level of composition development, they turn out to be an example of ‘anachronism’.

Even though there were attempts to crystalize what the approach suggests for the writing classroom, the fact that not all learners go through the same process makes it necessary to revisit the characteristics of the approach. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), process writing approach promotes (a) the author’s voice, (b) the consideration of writing as a contextualized activity, (c) the use of multiple-drafts, (d) the variety of feedback providers (the teacher, peers, and real audiences), (e) provision of meaningful content as well as grammar usage, (f) the idea that writing is a recursive rather than a linear process, and (g) learners’ awareness of audience and plans. The suggested characteristics, undoubtedly, contribute to the text construction. However, expecting each and every writer to achieve the abovementioned criteria might be unrealistic. For instance, even though the increase in the feedback providers could be a significant merit of the process approach, especially in EFL settings, achieving the criteria of “real audience” might be a challenge for many writers. The idea of real audience is a salient opportunity for writers to gain more recognition and have further impetus to write. However, for some EFL contexts, it does not seem to be duly achievable. It could be attributed to the fact that many writers or students write -or think they write- for their teachers. Such a reductionist view of the process approach places no wiggle room for practitioners especially in the EFL context. This takes the discussion to the consideration of the “processes” in the process approach. The notion that the process is a unitary concept was challenged in the post-process era. Therefore, a context-specific definition of the process approach might be better than a passive acceptance of a generic concept.

Even though process-oriented pedagogies have been prevalent in settings such as North America, all EFL contexts do not equally benefit from the writing outcomes to be harnessed through process-oriented writing approaches. That is, as the process approach to writing was not “a wholly positive innovation” (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 87), it was not free from criticism. One of the chief criticisms towards process writing is the undue reliance on cognitive-centeredness (Buhowmik, 2012). Here, cognitive-centeredness refers to what goes through in one’s head when s/he is composing something. The writing processes were not only linked to the cognitive efforts of the writers. Therefore, there was a need to broaden the concept of writing processes. Such a need seems to find expression through the application of sociocultural theory.

Especially in the post-process era, the sheer emphasis on cognitive effort may not account for the whole meaning construction process. Moreover, the individualistic and asocial view of writing (Atkinson, 2003) was another shortcoming of the approach. Writing in the process approach is seen as an individual endeavour, even though some participatory activities in process writing such as peer feedback do not really pay off. Writing in this manner cannot be detached from the particular context in which the writing takes place. What a single composition takes to create is not merely the cognitive effort of a particular writer; contextual complexity must be addressed to provide a clear picture of writing.

In parallel with the changes in writing pedagogies, the connotations of “writing process” have changed considerably after the consideration of writer and writing in a holistic way (see Matsuda, 2003; Kent, 1999). Bhowmik (2012: 6) eloquently describes the post-process writer as follows: “A post-process writer is evolving, constantly bombarded by the “sights and sounds” of the twenty-first century, seeks help from others, hence, collaborates, co-thinks and co-constructs, and is frequently mediated by different symbolic as well as physical tools.” It appears from the transition from the process to post-process pedagogies that there is need to fill the void of the shortcomings described above.

Even though the investment on process of self-discovery is to be credited, the emphasis on writers made it difficult to develop an effective teaching of composition. Writing in the cognitive view of writing is considered to be a problem-solving activity (Bhowmik, 2012). “Planning, defining rhetorical problems, positioning problems in a larger context, elaborating definitions, proposing solutions, and generating grounding conclusions” (Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005: 6) are noted to be some stages in problem solving activity.

Process writing was traditionally situated in a cognitive realm. The process approach to writing deals with the expressions of meaning rather than the product itself. According to Zamel (1982), familiarising the students with errors would not help the composition of further texts. The investment should be made in the processes of composition. Zamel’s (1982) study revealed that understanding the processes had a strong bearing on writing successfully. Linguistic competence on its own was not a strong predictor of achievement in writing. Therefore, processes one should follow rather than accuracy-based evaluations were more meaningful. In another study, Zamel (1983) drew a comparison of the stages that skilled and unskilled L2 writers follow when writing a composition. The skilled writers, unlike the unskilled ones, demonstrated similar procedures of writing development: organization of the ideas came the first, then they wrote recursively, and it was followed by editing and proofreading. Therefore, texts should be analysed considering the stages followed when creating something.

In accordance with the process approach, a single attempt on its own was not satisfactory to acquire the desired writing competence. Writing is a recursive process in which multiple drafts help promote the writers' engagement in writing. Flower and Hayes (1981) depicted the stages writers go through before the completion of a piece of writing, namely composing involved writing, feedback, and revisions or re-writing (Hyland, 2003). The processes writers go through rather than a completion in one sitting facilitate their writing. More efficiency in writing could be achieved through undertaking various processes (e.g., planning, writing, revising, and so forth) (e.g., Zamel, 1983). Thus, stakes are high when the interest is directed towards processes.

2.2.2.1. Sociocultural Theory and the Process Approach to Writing

Modern second language writing pedagogy suggests that the process approach and sociocultural theory are good fellows. The process approach regards writing as a continuous engagement which is constructed through the entire process of planning, drafting, revising, editing, and distribution. Sociocultural theory, on the other hand, views writing as an activity which is "socially situated and best achieved through collaboration with and dialogic feedback from peers and teachers" (Slavkov, 2015: 80). Therefore, understanding the main tenets of sociocultural theory might be worthwhile to develop a better understanding of the process approach.

A sociocultural turn or sociocultural approach indicates that the acts of humans cannot be viewed in isolation from the social milieu in which the events are constructed (Wertsch, 1991); that is, human actions are mediated. Therefore, understanding human relations in their own context is of significant focus. The theoretical underpinnings of the approach are rooted in Vygotsky's work on mental reasoning. Vygotsky's ideas were influential for the coming decades, and many studies put his theory as a departure point.

Vygotsky's ideas are built around mediation (Lantolf, 2000b). Mediation is defined as "the influence of various signs and tools on everyday human actions" (Bhowmik, 2012: 8), and tying a knot or marking a stick to remember something are provided as examples of mediation in Vygotsky (1978). In line with this, understanding the factors or operations that are deemed to be external to the individuals could be enriching to investigate mental functioning of people. According to Vygotsky, mental functioning can be explored in three thematic categories: (a) Developmental or genetic analysis, (b) the claim that mental functioning derives from social life, and (c) the claim that all human actions are mediated by tools and signs (Wertsch, 1991: 19).

The thematic categories can be summarized as follows. Developmental analysis requires people to evaluate one's progress over time rather than jumping to conclusions hastily. Therefore, according to Vygotsky, "snapshots of mental functioning could not provide a true picture" (cited in Bhowmik, 2012: 7) of the mental processes one is involved in. Therefore, the historical context must

be captured to unravel the complexity of the relationship between/among phenomena. The second proposition among the thematic categories is related to the role of social life on capturing humans' mental functioning. Humans are social beings, and understanding humans occurs at both instrumental and intermental (social) levels (Bhowmik, 2012). In other words, mental functioning could be explored both through the investigation of the people and their interaction with others.

Moreover, tools, either/both physical and symbolic, could help explain the mediation that takes place. For instance, an investigation into vocabulary development of individuals could result in various mediational tools such as dictionaries, games etc. Humans shape these tools making use of their environment. Therefore, investigating individuals alone cannot provide the whole stakeholders of vocabulary development.

Process-based pedagogy has surely contributed much to the professionalization of the composition studies. Since the process approach to writing is interpreted differently by different scholars, it is not surprising that there is not a single description of the approach. The process approach to writing is defined in a continuum ranging from a prescriptive linear formula for producing a paper to problem-solving tasks. Silva and Matsuda (2001: 67) describe the process approach as “an approach that emphasizes teaching writing not as product but as process; helping students discover their own voice; allowing students to choose their own topic; providing teacher and peer feedback; encouraging revision and using student writing as the primary text of the course.” In line with this definition, allowing learners pave their own way and find their own voice is essential. Flower and Hayes's model of process approach is widely accepted and “planning-writing-reviewing framework” are the key stages (as cited in Hyland, 2003: 11). Even though the framework sounds fixed, Zamel (1983: 165) pointed out that process approach to writing is a recursive process, saying “non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to proximate meaning.”

Even though the cognitive paradigm of process writing has received considerable attention, writing processes could not be reduced to a prescriptive formula. However, it was found that a fixed way of writing formula is not possible given that the individuals vary from one another remarkably (e.g., Bizzell, 1992; Kent, 1999). The “social view” of writing was different from the earlier two paradigms as the writing performance was not in the mandate of the individual talents, but in the social environment and the contextual support. The social view suggests that individuals' performance is also linked to the social and cultural backgrounds writers come from. The move from cognitive paradigm to social view is labelled as social turn is still categorized in process theory (e.g., Atkinson, 2003a; Trimbur, 1994), and the social turn calls for the inclusion of context in the process of composition development. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005: 8) claimed that “writing, as a form of literacy, is inherently social, transactional process that involves mediation between the writer and his or her audience”. Therefore, writing process does not take place in a vacuum; it takes some

negotiation and interaction before creating a piece of writing. Writing requires the inclusion of the tastes and needs of the audience (Gee, 1996, 1998), and writing in this sense is a socialization process (Shaughnessy, 1977).

From structuralism to the social turn, writing research has been intertwined with the swinging pendulum of counter-frameworks. Understanding human behaviour was reduced to “closed, abstract, formalized systems of oppositional elements” (Atkinson, 2003: 4). However, with the advent of counter-frameworks such as sociolinguistic (e.g., Hymes, 1972), interpretivist (e.g., Geertz, 1973), poststructuralist (e.g., Derrida, 1976; Foucault, 1972), ethnomethodological (e.g., Garfinkel, 1967) and social constructionist (e.g., Berger and Luckmann, 1966) approaches, the argument for the social turn became more compelling.

The argument for writing as a social act is anchored in the notion of dialogic sense making nature of human beings. Grappling with writing, therefore, merits explicit consideration of contextual factors. This view was largely fuelled by Olson (1999: 7) when he wrote:

Writing is public in that writing always already is a social process, an involvement with other language users; writing is an interpretive act, one that involves sense-making and a relation of understanding to others’ paralogic hermeneutic act that is not governed by any codifiable, universal rules; and writing is always already situated in that writers always begin from and operate within specific contexts (although they are never imprisoned within these contexts) that are dynamic and open to interpretation.

The process approach starts with a cognitive view of writing in which the writers’ efforts can solely account for the composition development. However, context was also included over time, and this meant the corresponding inclusion of social and cultural elements. The shift of focus from the sheer mental functioning to contextual forces heralded the beginning of the post-process era. Kent (1999: 8) argued that there was not a unitary process a writer could follow when constructing a piece of writing:

Breaking with the still-dominant process tradition in composition studies, post-process theory or at least the different incarnations of post-process theory discussed by many of the authors represented in this collection endorses the fundamental idea that no codifiable or generalizable writing process exists or could exist.

In the light of the suggestion above, one could think of processes rather than a unitary process. Moreover, it seems that the social aspect of writing is stressed in both the process and post-process pedagogies. Thus, there is need to go through process and post-process approaches critically.

2.2.2.1.1. Why a Sociocultural Approach to Second Language Writing?

Lei (2008) pointed that with the growing emphasis on sociocultural turn, the studies conducted in the framework of sociocultural theory have spawned. The traditional approaches to writing can be handled in the framework of Cartesian dualism of mind and body while a sociocultural approach takes a holistic view of these two. As Prior (2006: 54) argued, the process approach to writing is “too narrow in its understanding of context and was eclipsed by studies that attended to social, historical, and political contexts of writing.” The Cartesian dualism fails to provide an encompassing view of events because, as for writing, the production of texts requires a proper degree of association between the mind and the contexts. For this reason, the socially-, culturally-, and politically-situated activity of writing can be represented by a sociocultural approach.

The traditional process research of L2 writing is predominantly reduced to cognitive activity; therefore, researchers call for a more comprehensive view of writing (Atkinson, 2003; Casanave, 2003). A sociocultural approach to writing could prove to be feasible and realistic in today’s classrooms of diversity. Writers from different backgrounds, with different narratives can stand on a common ground when writers with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds strive for a place to embrace the aforementioned commonality. Process writing in this sense is limiting because it deals with “the person” but not with the “the person-in-the-world as member of a sociocultural community” (Lave and Wenger, 1991: 52). Therefore, process research within the framework of sociocultural theory (see Block, 2003; Lantolf and Poehner, 2008; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) can be a way out to scrutinize the holistic complexity of the body and the mind, or the writer and the writing context.

2.2.3. The Genre Approach

Following Badger and White’s (2000) classification, in addition to the product and process approaches, the genre approach has been an influential pedagogy. Recently, genre denotes language use for particular purposes in particular social contexts. According to Tribble (1996), types of literature, e.g., lyric, tragedy, novel, or different types of film etc. can all be taken as examples of genre. The development of the genre approach is associated with wider recognition of the approach in Australia (Gee, 1997).

The premise of the approach is that literacy could be a key solution to achieve equality (Gee, 1997). The process approach to writing did not create the desired effects as the writing development of the Australians were not found to be adequate (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993). Thus, there was a search for a novel approach to teach literacy. The problem, however, was that the teaching of literacy was not tailored for the Australian society. Therefore, people there had to seek alternative approaches

to create equal opportunity (Varlı, 2001). In line with such a pursuit, there was a tendency to address more to factual writing rather than narrative/expressive writing.

All texts, or to put it in line with literacy pedagogy, all genres, have a social purpose. As different texts aim at achieving different things, it may not be a good idea to approach all texts in a linear fashion. Such a reductionist view may not give us the nuanced or the multi-layered picture of the social reality (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993). It is not accidental, therefore, that the focus in genre writing is communicating with readers. Such communication, according to Hyland (2003), can be achieved through purposeful prose:

The central belief here is that we don't just write, we write something to achieve some purpose: it is a way of getting something done. To get things done, to tell a story, request an overdraft, craft a love letter, describe a technical process and so on, we follow certain social conventions for organizing messages because we want our readers to recognize our purpose. These abstract, socially recognized ways of using language for particular purposes are called genres.

The argument above suggests that writing is not a fixed process, rather the writers are required to follow some conventions to communicate in the target language. To achieve that, learners are expected to develop their writing skills in different text types. Recently, the genre approach has gained a wider recognition. The significance of genre orientation is closely linked to the incorporation of contextual elements as well as discourse aspects. That is, the scope is more than disembodied grammar. According to Badger and White (2000: 157), the recognition of writing as an activity which "takes place in a social situation, and is a reflection of a particular purpose, (...) can happen consciously through imitation and analysis" should be credited.

However, several critical voices were heard, questioning the premises of the genre approach. First, the learners are assigned a passive role as their text production attempts are underestimated (Badger and White, 2000). The room for creativity was found to be quite limited with the approach as there was little space for the writers to follow their distinctive way of creating things. Some other criticisms levelled are the separation of the form and content (Badger and White, 2000), its eclectic nature which can amount to "anything goes" approach (Weideman, 2001), and the possibility for the imposition of dominant genres (Luke, 1996). So far, the product, process and genre approaches have been introduced. Table 2 presents the major differences between, product and process and genre theories of writing.

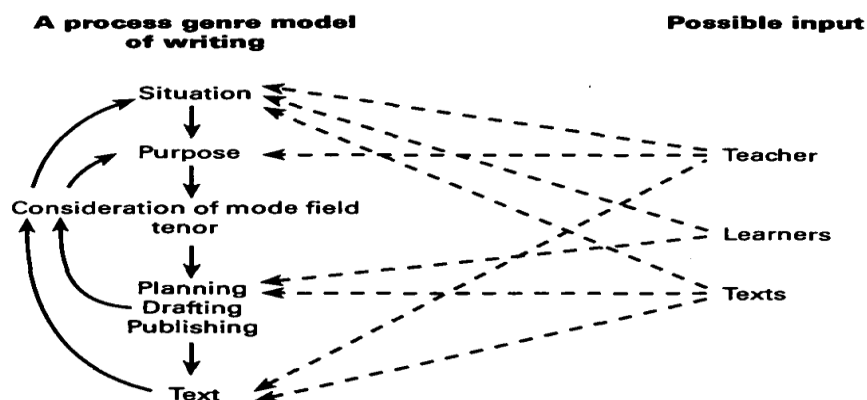
Table 2: Differences between the Product, Process and Genre Approaches

Product	Process	Genre
Traditional curriculum attempts to transmit fixed cultural and linguistic contents through curriculum but fails those who do not find a comfortable home in the culture of schooling.	Progressivist curriculum ... operates with a set of cultural and linguistic presuppositions that are loaded in less explicit ways to favour a certain sort of middle class culture and discourse.	The pedagogy behind genre literacy... establishes a dialogue between the culture and the discourse of institutionalised schooling, and the cultures and discourses of students.
Traditional curriculum sets out to assimilate students, to teach them cultural and linguistic uniformity in the interests of constructs like 'national unity' and 'failing' those who along the way do not meet up to these singular expectations.	Progressivist curriculum values differences but in so doing leaves social relations of inequity fundamentally unquestioned.	Genre literacy... uses cultural and linguistic difference as a resource for access.
Traditional pedagogy tends to draw it towards a textual, classroom and cultural authoritarianism.	The tendency of progressivist theory is to reduce the teacher to the role of facilitator and manager in the name of student-centred learning which relativises all discourses.	Genre literacy sets out to reinstate the teacher as professional, as expert on language whose status in the learning process is authoritative but not authoritarian.
Traditional curriculum ... rigidly structures the knowledge it values as universal into dictatorial syllabuses, dogmatic textbooks and didactic teaching practices.	Progressivism ... favours unstructured experience, natural immersion, and an eclectic pastiche of curriculum content.	The pedagogy that underlies genre literacy uses explicit curriculum scaffolds to support both the systematic unfolding of the fundamental structure of a discipline and the recursive patterns that characterise classroom experience.
Traditional curriculum... puts a premium on deductive reasoning by positing received epistemological truths as the point of departure.	Progressivism... puts a premium on inductive reasoning based on experience.	In the pedagogy of genre literacy, students move backwards and forwards, through alternate processes of induction and deduction, between language and metalanguage, activity and received knowledge, experience and theory.

Source: Cope and Kalantzis (Eds.) 1993: 17-18

Even though there seems to be certain cut-off lines between and among the approaches, separation of these as entities totally detached from each other could be a challenge. Touching partly to the considerations of approaches as a broader unity, Badger and White (2000: 159) came up with a suggestion in which they integrate the approaches mentioned above in a genre process approach. The genre process model is represented in the following figure (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. A Genre Process Model of Teaching Writing



Source: Badger and White, 2000: 159

The figure above suggests a combination of approaches. The figure depicts the coalescence of the knowledge about language, knowledge of the writing context, and skills in using language. The process genre model has five features. First, the situation of an activity should be created. The situation should be simulated genuinely to make it engaging for learners. Next, the purpose of the text is identified. Other aspects of the social context are presented. Then the text is created. The interaction between the steps is evident through the arrows which point to the recursive nature of the genre process.

So far, three major approaches to teaching writing were presented. As the major focus of the study is teacher feedback, understanding how teacher feedback is situated in the approaches is evident. However, it could be argued that feedback is not a fixed pattern, and there is need to understand how feedback is viewed in second language acquisition literature.

2.3. Perspectives on Errors and Feedback

The pursuit of efficient feedback has become a concern for researchers for long. However, quite recently, especially in the last three decades, a burgeoning body of literature has been devoted to the quest for the potency of written feedback (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012). Before delving into the definitions of feedback, it might be worthwhile to see the lingering perspectives on errors and feedback.

2.3.1. Perspectives in Early Studies

Especially until the introduction of process-based pedagogy into writing instruction, much of the teacher feedback practices were reduced to language errors (Zamel, 1985). Such an obsession with errors seems to have some line of reasoning especially in the product approach to writing

instruction. Even after the introduction of the process-based pedagogy, the investment in error correction occupied a great deal of space in teacher feedback (Lee, 2008b). Therefore, conceptualizing errors might be a worthwhile attempt before delving into the process-based pedagogy.

Early studies on errors, for instance, studies dating back to the 1950s and 1960s, conceptualized errors as a negative aspect. In accordance with the behaviourist perspective errors were considered to be a trap on the way to language acquisition. Thus, occurrence of errors was considered something to be avoided. Brooks (1960) referred to the distorted notion of error when she wrote “error, like sin, is to be avoided and its influence overcome” (as cited in Bitchener and Ferris, 2012: 4). Since the pedagogical initiatives of the behaviourist approach did not produce the expected results—mimicry of good models and then communicating with the internalized rules—transformation of audiolingual training did not turn into communicative use. Therefore, pedagogical practices of behaviourist accounts such as mechanical drills, memorization activities and involvement of learners in Contrastive Analysis (henceforth CA) were fundamentally questioned. Moreover, the disillusionment with CA implanted the idea of a systematic approach to learner errors, which later ended up in Error Analysis (henceforth EA).

Advancements in psychology were giving way to a new theory of learning. Skinner’s (1957) advocacy of the prominence of environment in shaping the way one learns was challenged by Chomsky (1959) and Piaget (1970). What was reduced to outward manifestations and observable stimuli was being replaced by nativist accounts of Chomsky, who argued that children are guided by an innate faculty and are resistant to error correction (see Bitchener and Ferris, 2012). In the 1970s, the principles of the behaviourist model were questioned, and the principles of naturalistic second language acquisition (henceforth SLA) were considered to be the right explanation. Krashen (1981) pointed to the futility of error correction as SLA, for him, was an implicit process of comprehensible input.

With the advent of communicative approach, the connotations of errors were no longer negative; rather, they were considered to be signs of learners’ interlanguage development (Russell, 2009). Meaning and negotiation, rather than grammatical errors, were the focus of attention; therefore, correction of errors was at times skipped for the sake of fluency. In the 1990s, error correction with a focus on form was suggested to be useful by several researchers (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990). Evidence favouring the necessity of grammatical awareness and corrective feedback, especially for certain structures and certain learners (e.g., Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; DeKeyser, 1995; Lalande, 1982), has helped much in shifting the focus back on errors. For instance, in an experimental study, Lightbown and Spada (1990) compared the learners who were exposed to natural classroom exposure and those who were exposed to form-focused activities. The ones in the latter group outperformed the ones who received natural classroom exposure. An overview of early

perspectives provides the changing nature of focus from utility to futility and vice versa. Thus, recent studies which have more methodological rigor can deepen our understanding of errors and error correction.

2.3.2. Recent Perspectives on Feedback

After the recognition of the usefulness of errors, many conceptualizations have been made depending on the disciplinary orientation of the researcher (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). According to linguists, they are conceptualized as negative evidence. Discourse analysts deem it to be a repair strategy. For psychologists, the term negative feedback is more preferable. Moreover, for second or foreign language teachers, the term corrective feedback (henceforth CF) is preferably used.

Recent perspectives on error and written CF are shaped by cognitive and socio-cognitive processes. That is, there is emphasis on how human brain processes input alone and how an individual interacts with his/her social environment to construct meaning. How meaning is created in an individual's brain and how a person's brain functions or reacts to certain types of corrections are some major areas of research. Especially with the introduction of Vygotskian beliefs and practices, a new landscape of research has sought to understand how the meaning is co-constructed. However, practical applications of how mediation is achieved in feedback sessions and its impact on learner variables deserve more attention.

In process writing pedagogy, response to a student's work is an affective dialogue (Harmer, 2004: 109). Therefore, for this study, the term "responding" rather than "correction" will be of more preference. "Response" compared to "correction" seems to be more inclusive because it embraces suggestions and praise as well. Thus, feedback providers, in this line of thinking, shoulder the responsibility of going beyond mere corrections. To put it in Harmer's (2004: 109) terms, "the teacher's intervention is designed to help students edit and move forward to a new draft." How the intervention takes place has been and could still be subject to numerous studies.

The focus of teacher feedback especially with the advent of the process approach to writing has somehow shifted, and teacher feedback runs the gamut from error correction to content and organization (Lee, 2008b). Just to provide a picture of the representation of the shift in focus, as Ferris's (1997) study indicated, grammar and mechanics had a 15% share in teachers' comments while content and organization included an 85%. More recently, it could be argued that there is a call for a move to provide a balanced coverage of grammar, content, style and organization (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b).

In addition to the error correction, teachers' written comments have been of concern for researchers (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Early studies indicated that the teacher commentary was

usually detached from the text, imprecise, and negative (Zamel, 1985). However, in line with the process-based evaluation of writing, teacher feedback gained a more contextual spirit. There was a call for teachers to provide text-specific comments. The comments were recommended to have constructive criticism as well as praise (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Through such engaging tasks, teachers were encouraged to avoid appropriation (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b). Before going into research-based findings, it is important to understand the theoretical bases of feedback in general.

2.3.2.1. Student Perceptions of Feedback

Learner perceptions play a significant role in understanding the effectiveness of teacher written feedback. Being a significant stakeholder in the feedback process, learners could be informative of the efficiency of the feedbacks they receive. Early studies on teacher written feedback did not touch perceptions, and perception-focused studies on teacher written feedback received a perennial interest after the 1980s. Studies indicate that feedback and motivation are significantly related (Ferris, 1995) in the sense that students are likely to have a lower motivation in the case of a negative feedback.

In terms of data collection instruments, survey was the mostly used to capture students' perceptions (Zhan, 2016). Learner preferences of feedback are varied as a single type of feedback may not be indicative of the preferences in general. Different aspects of writing were the focus for learners (Leki, 1991). Regarding the usefulness, students many studies indicate that teacher feedback is a positive contribution on the way to writing development (Ferris, 1995). Feedback on content, form and organization were noted to be of predominant gains for learners. In addition to variation in perceptions in aspects, a balanced treatment of form and content (Leki, 1991) were the preferred ways for learners. The learners' thirst for elaborate comments (Keh, 1990), unbalanced treatment of praise, criticism and suggestions (Ghazal et al., 2014), much emphasis on error correction (Bitchener, 2008) were among the findings in different studies. Atmaca (2016) drew a comparison between the perceptions of teachers and students towards teacher written corrective feedback. Even though there was not a statistically significant difference in the quantitative analysis, the qualitative part indicated that students demonstrated some variation in adopting the written corrective feedback. Moreover, the interviews conducted with 24 learners in Hong Kong reported the inclinations of students for positive and negative feedback. Hyland (2013: 186) stated,

Where feedback is perceived as timely, individualized and focused it conveys encouragement and a sense of the importance of writing, but where it is seen as perfunctory, delayed and unrelated to their individual needs, these messages are negative and fail to support students' efforts to master academic writing practices.

Even though students' demand for teachers' comments appears to be well-established, considering the variations in preferences, lack of a fixed pattern for feedback preferences could be pointed out. In the absence of those fixed patterns, consideration of students' views together with

contexts is essential. The investigation of feedback devoid of the interplay of the related stakeholders, the interactions between the mediational means such as dictionaries, textbooks, would not give the full picture. As Lee (2008: 69) aptly put, teachers' feedback practices are shaped by their "beliefs, values, understandings, and knowledge, which are mediated by the cultural and institutional contexts, such as philosophies about feedback and attitude to exams, and socio-political issues pertaining to power and teacher autonomy." Similarly, learners' perceptions of teacher feedback are influenced by a myriad of factors.

2.4. Theoretical Bases of Feedback

Laying the theoretical basis of feedback seems to be a challenge as feedback has a place in many theories of SLA. One source of theoretical support for corrective feedback comes from Swain's output hypothesis. Swain (1985, 1995) argued that learning occurs when learners encounter a gap in their L2 linguistic knowledge, that is, their awareness of L2 gaps might help them repair and their output. Therefore, when learning, learners go through the stages of noticing, hypothesis-testing, and metalinguistic function. Noticing refers to students' awareness that they cannot produce something properly. Hypothesis-testing stage is a trial-and-error phase in which the learner tests his/her production by getting some feedback from an interlocutor. Finally, the metalinguistic function refers to the reflection of the input or internalization of the linguistic knowledge that the learner is exposed to. Since a certain degree of grammatical knowledge is necessary to produce something in the target language, grammatical forms are placed importance. To achieve a proper degree of grammaticality, repair in the classroom discourse, therefore, is essential.

Another source of theoretical support for CF comes from Long's Interaction Hypothesis. According to the hypothesis, input alone cannot account for the complexity of the language acquisition process. In order for input to be comprehensible, the L2 learners or interlocutors are demanded some modification. The rationale is that simplification in production is more likely to result in the noticing of rules. Production is a key necessity because it may "*force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing*" (Swain, 1985: 249). The impetus for Swain's theory of output comes from her observations of children learning French in a French immersion context. The children's lack of desired proficiency triggered her to attach significance to producing in the target language. Therefore, when foreign language learners are provided some CF regarding the production of syntactic elements, it is more likely to modify or repair the gaps in their interlanguage development.

On the other hand, Schmidt (1990), in his Noticing Hypothesis, posits that input should be consciously registered or noticed to become intake. For years, the dominant theories of SLA pointed to the unconscious nature of language acquisition process. Therefore, in Schmidt's (2001: 39) terms, attentional space is a consideration that determines the language development rate:

For SLA, the allocation of attention is the pivotal point at which learner external factors (including the complexity and distributional characteristics of input, the discursive and interactional context, instructional treatment, and task characteristics) and learner internal factors (including motivation, aptitude, learning styles and strategies, current L2 knowledge and processing ability) come together. What happens then within attentional space largely determines the course of language development, including the growth of knowledge (establishment of new representations) and the development of fluency (access to those representations). Evidence continues to accumulate that noticing has a strong impact on second and foreign language learning.

Moreover, a relatively similar concept, uptake, was proposed by Slimani (1992), who investigated the link between L2 instruction and learning. Uptake, as she defines it, is “the learner’s perceptions of what they have learned from the interactive events they have just been through” (Slimani, 1989: 224). She gathered data using uptake sheets distributed to learners and argued that post-lesson recall charts revealed different degrees of recall.

More recently, Lyster and Ranta (1997: 49) approached uptake differently and conceptualized it as “student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance.” It goes from this definition that teacher feedback might be influential on learners’ meaning construction. Even though feedback does not necessarily have to be provided by the teacher, the teacher is placed at the centre of the stage in many studies, and teacher stances, teacher beliefs, and the impact of teacher feedback on learners’ writing has become some of the chief concerns of many investigations (e.g., Ferris, 1997; Hyland and Hyland, 2001; Stern and Solomon, 2006). Hendrickson’s (1978) major list of questions serves to make researchers’ categories of questioning explicit:

1. Should learners’ errors be corrected?
2. When should learners’ errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting?

The documented literature abounds with studies pointing to the conflicting results on the questions above, even though some resort to intuitive judgements. Therefore, rather than drawing sweeping generalizations, it might be better to refer to studies which report adequate contextual and methodological details. However, before going into studies on correction or feedback, some definitions would create more certainty for contextualizing the findings and discussions.

2.5. Definition of Feedback

The term feedback is used as an umbrella term for any feedback type, making it difficult to grasp the nuances in the intended meaning when used for subcategories. For instance, feedback may refer to peer feedback, teacher feedback, positive feedback, negative feedback, metalinguistic feedback and so on, depending on the contexts used. Therefore, the types of feedback might be categorized as co-hyponyms and are replaced by the superordinate term feedback. It might be appropriate to start with a definition of feedback rather than jumping into CF. Winne and Butler (1994: 5540) stated 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, metacognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies.” As the term might apply from a coach’s motivating behaviour to a performance chart of a particular game on a computer screen, narrowing it down could help visualize the context better. However, the bottom line is there is some verbal or nonverbal information presented to individuals regarding a task or a process. Lee (2017) brought together two definitions of feedback. Accordingly, feedback can be described as “information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding” (Hattie and Timperly (2007: 81), with “direct, useable insights into current performance, based on tangible differences between current performance and hoped for performance” (Wiggins, 1993, 182). Wiggins’s (1993) emphasis of the current and hoped for performance could be interpreted as a passage between the actual performance and potential development, which is in line with the sociocultural theory of learning.

The term CF, according to Lightbown and Spada (1999), suggests the information passed from the teacher to the learners about the accuracy and appropriateness of the attempted task. The feedback giver, in this definition, is assumed to be the teacher. Even though peers or other people might be involved in feedback provision practices, it is usually the teacher who is at the centre of feedback provision (Hyland, 2006). In another definition, CF is described as information supplied to learners about an error committed of linguistic form (Loewen, 2012; Sheen, 2007). The nature of the information provided is to be highlighted here because feedback creates a bridge between language forms. According to Panova and Lyster (2002), CF helps learners notice the gap between their interlanguage forms and the target language forms as well as develop hypothesis and avoid making further errors.

2.6. What should Effective Feedback Include?

There has been a shift from the product approach to process approach in feedback delivery. Even though some practitioners follow the former way because of its more manageable and less demanding nature, adopting a fixed mindset where learners’ intelligence rather than their effort are credited might be misleading. Therefore, teachers should help learners develop a growth mindset

through which learners will have opportunities to improve their skills (Sigott, 2013). Changing the definition of linguistic competence/s has contributed to a corresponding change in feedback delivery as well. This change can be made visible through Sigott’s (2013:11) representation of the shifting paradigm of language competence (see Table 3).

Table 3: Component-by-skill Matrix as a Representation of Language Competence

	Listening	Reading	Speaking	Writing
Phonology/ Orthography				
Morphology				
Vocabulary				
Syntax				
Fluency				

Source: Sigott, 2013: 11

However, according to the researcher, the conceptualization of language competence, considering it through today’s lens, was somehow reductionist as the following considerations are not taken into account:

1. It does not take into consideration the purpose for which language is used.
2. It does not take into consideration the setting in which language is used.
3. It does not include differences in register of language use.
4. It does not include patterns of language beyond the sentence, i.e., cohesion and coherence.

The need for being armed with different competences has become more apparent after the introduction of the communicative movement. Canale and Swain (1980) developed a model that involves discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence as well as linguistic competence. Discourse competence refers to “the ability to perform communicative acts which make sense in the speech situation at hand and which serve the speaker’s or writer’s communicative intentions” (Sigott, 2013: 12). It includes the surface markers of intersentential connections as well as patterns of discourse organization such as topic sentence, supporting sentence, supporting detail, concluding sentence in a paragraph. Sociolinguistic competence denotes the ability to choose appropriate speech acts in a specific situation while strategic competence refers to a person’s ability to keep the conversation going in the event of a communication breakdown. The use of clarification requests as well as some facial expressions might be given as examples of this sort. The change into a communicative realm is tabulated in Sigott (2013: 12) as follows (see Table 4):

Table 4: Communicative Language Competence based on Canale and Swain (1980)

		L	R	S	W
Grammatical competence	Phonology / Orthography				
	Vocabulary				
	Morphology				
	Syntax				
	Sentence-grammar semantics				
Discourse competence	Cohesion				
	Coherence				
Sociolinguistic competence					
Strategic competence	Verbal communication strategies				
	Non-verbal communication strategies				

In accordance with the emphasis on the communicative aspects, teacher feedback has gained a more communicative spirit. However, it should be highlighted that there is not a single approach to feedback provision, and this variety makes the studies on feedback variety potentially fruitful as the quest for effective feedback requires the teachers to be equipped with several feedback types.

2.7. Types of Feedback

The usefulness of feedback has been a hot debate for researchers, and many studies argue that feedback facilitates teaching and learning (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Leki, 1991). However, unpacking the situations and types of feedback might prove to be instrumental to better conceptualize and advance further efforts into effective feedback. That there is no single way of feedback provision makes the categorization of feedback essential.

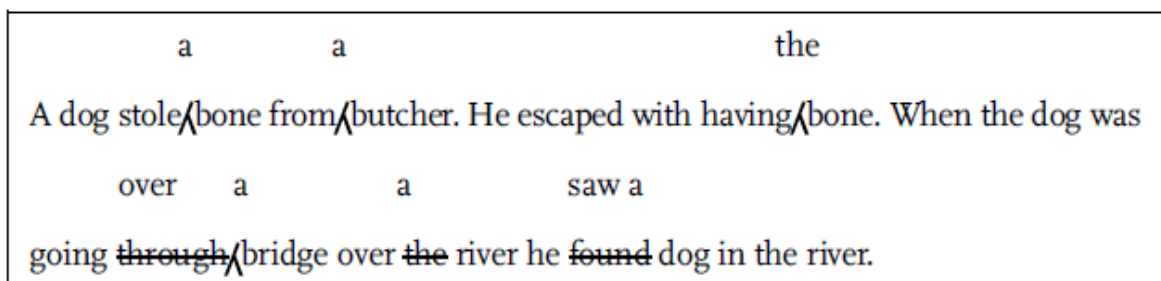
The format of feedback might greatly vary. It might be a spontaneous response to a learner's piece of writing or a formal diagnostic test result. It might be teacher or peer-oriented. Moreover, it could be negative (features which do not match with a norm are highlighted) or positive (norms which meet the demands are highlighted) (Sigott, 2013). Moreover, the feedback offered could serve different functions. With reference to the functions, feedback is divided into three types: praise, criticism, and suggestions (Hyland and Hyland, 2001: 186). Praise is "an act which attributes credit to another for some characteristic, attribute, skill, etc., which is positively valued by the person giving feedback," while criticism refers to a statement of dissatisfaction with a particular work or piece. Suggestion, the third category, encompasses an explicit call for betterment and is usually equated with constructive criticism. Due to its ambiguous nature, positive feedback has not received much attention in SLA theories. As CF is usually associated with negative feedback, praise and suggestions are not elaborated here. Even though various conceptualizations could be made, Ellis's (2009) typology will be the departure point.

2.7.1. Direct Corrective Feedback

It is difficult to mention the supremacy of either feedback modality as many contextual factors may interplay with effectiveness. Van Beuningen et al. (2012) claimed that more rigorous studies are necessary to claim the supremacy of different modalities of feedback. However, some categorization of feedback is necessary to see the impact of different feedback practices and reinvigorate the more effective feedback practice/s tailored for a specific context. Such divisions might be of help in determining the effectiveness of feedback.

According to Ellis (2006), one possible division is “input-providing corrective feedback and output-pushing corrective feedback.” Through the former one, the correct reformulation is made by the teacher or the interlocutor through recasts, and in the latter one the teacher/peer encourages the learners to do self-repair through his/her prompts (Lyster, 2002, 2007; Ranta and Lyster, 2007). A similar division to input-providing CF, and output-pushing CF is categorized as explicit or direct CF and implicit or indirect CF. Explicit CF is described as “the process of providing the learner with direct forms of feedback” (Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen, 2009: 83). Explicit correction includes the crossing out of a word, phrase or morpheme and/or explanation of grammar rules (see Figure 4 for an example).

Figure 4: Sample Direct Correction



Source: Ellis, 2009: 99

Direct correction has been found to be efficient in several studies (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener and Knoch, 2010; Leki, 1991; Van Beuningen, 2008). Leki (1991) found that the students preferred their teachers to provide direct feedback. In Bitchener’s (2008) study, the students who received explicit feedback outperformed those who did not receive written CF. Moreover, direct correction was also found to have long-term effects (Bitchener and Knoch, 2010; Van Beuningen et al., 2008). Chandler’s (2003: 268) words on the potential supremacy of the direct feedback seems to be credited here as follows: “Direct correction is best for producing accurate revisions, and students prefer it because it is the fastest and easiest way for them as well as the fastest way for teachers over several drafts.” As learners are offered the opportunity of instant internalization in direct feedback practices, they seem to be advantaged over the ones who could make not sure of their hypothesized corrections.

2.7.2. Implicit Corrective Feedback

Implicit or indirect error correction however refers to the identification of the error type, but not providing a correction (Bitchener and Knoch, 2010). This process could be achieved through underlining, circling, indicating or using coding errors (see Figure 5 for an example).

Figure 5: Sample Implicit Correction

A dog stole X bone from X butcher. He escaped with XhavingX X bone. When the dog was going XthroughX X bridge over XtheX river he found X dog in the river.
X = missing word
X __X = wrong word

Source: Ellis, 2009: 100

Implicit feedback can be achieved in coded or uncoded forms. Coded forms are described as identification of the type and location of the error, while Bitchener et al. (2005: 193) define uncoded feedback as “instances when the teacher underlines an error, circles an error, or places an error tally in the margin, but, in each case, leaves the student to diagnose and correct the error.” The hypothesis of indirect feedback is that during the self-editing process learners go through a profound language processing process, which, in turn, could lead to facilitation in long-term acquisition (Bitchener and Knoch, 2008). In order for indirect feedback to be duly successful, a certain level of metalinguistic proficiency is necessary; otherwise, as Chandler (2003) observed, learners who receive indirect correction may not make sure whether their corrections are accurate. However, some other studies revealed that there was not a significant difference between the two feedback types (see Frantzen, 1995).

2.7.3 Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback

Metalinguistic corrective feedback includes the teacher’s provision of some metalinguistic clues as to the nature of the error. This is usually achieved through the codes developed by the teacher on the margin. The article in Figure 6 depicts an example of metalinguistic correction through codes. Instead of “article” the abbreviation “art” is used, and “WW” stands for “wrong word” and “prep.” stands for “preposition”.

Figure 6: Sample Metalinguistic Correction

art.	art.	WW art.
A dog stole bone from butcher. He escaped with having bone. When the dog was		
prep.	art.	art.
going through bridge over the river he found dog in the river.		

Source: Ellis, 2009: 101

Gholaminia et al. (2014) conducted a study to draw a comparison between the effectiveness of direct corrective and metalinguistic feedback types. The study was conducted with 91 learners of English language department, studying at an Iranian university. The findings revealed that the learners who received metalinguistic feedback outperformed the ones in the direct feedback group. As the researchers reason, the students receiving coded feedback reacted to the drafts more responsibly, making faster progress and becoming more motivated to decrease, if not eradicate, their errors. Moreover, Ebadi (2014), who carried out an experimental study, found similar findings in favour of the metalinguistic focused feedback group. Khodi and Sardari (2015) also drew a comparison of the effectiveness of different corrective feedback types, namely metalinguistic corrective feedback, both in focused and unfocused form, and traditional feedback. The findings suggest that learners who received metalinguistic and unfocused feedback for 12 sessions had higher scores in the post-test. In another study, Rezazadeh et al. (2015) revealed that once the learners are familiar with the rules and explanations of the codes, it proves to be more useful in facilitating learners' awareness of articles.

2.7.4. Reformulation

Reformulation is another type of corrective feedback type. Reformulation refers to the revision of a text by a native speaker to make it sound more native-like (Ellis, 2009). Even though the native speaker is emphasized as a reference point, such an expectation does not seem to be realistic for all EFL contexts. Therefore, the text revision by a more capable peer could prove to be equally helpful. Myers (1997) provided an example of a reconstructed sentence. A sentence like "Lisa at night watches TV" was reconstructed by the native speaker as follows: "Lisa watches TV at night". Here, it should be kept in mind that rhetorical factors as well as grammaticality are taken into account. For a text-level example of reformulation, Myer's (1997: 8) example can best fit the purpose of this thesis. The original narrative was written by a non-native speaker and revised by a native one. Then corrections were made in the second draft.

Sample Personal Narrative

I had a bicycle. I really loved that bike. It was the best toy that I ever had. I bought in Miami in one trip that I did with my father and my brother. My father bought a bike for my brother too. It was better than mine, but now I know that I prefer mine. Those times I used to ride my bike with my friends. My friends lived in the same block where I live. We used to go to the park and to make long trips in the city. My bike was red and beautiful. It was little because I was little too. It was easy to ride it. It had low weight and strong tires. Maybe, it was one of the best in the block. One day we planned an exciting trip to the mines of stone. We didn't go. We planned another trip, and this time was to the hills of north part of the city.

The following part presents (see Figure 7) the reformulation made by a native speaker. The requests for additions, omissions and changes are made within the text.

Figure 7: Sample Reformulation

Narrative Reformulated:

```
>I had a b(y)c(i)cle. I really loved that bike. It was the best
toy that I ever had. I bought in Miami (in one) trip that I (did)
with my father and my brother. My father bought a bike for my
brother, too. It was better than mine, but now that I prefer mine.
(Those times) I used to ride my bike with my friends. My friends
lived (in) the same block where I live. We used to go to the park
and to make long(s) trips in the city. >My bike was red and
beautiful. It was little because I was little too. It was easy to
ride it. It (had low weight) and strong tires. Maybe(.) it
was one of the best (in) the block.
>One day we planned a exciting trip to (the mines of stone).
We didn't go. We planned another trip, and this time was to
the hills of north part of the city.
```

Source: Myers, 1997: 8

After the native speaker's revision, the text on the next page was created as a response to the request for the changes. The reformulated parts include preposition mistakes, spelling mistakes, verb tense mistake, word form, missing verb, punctuation mistake (comma), and awkward expression.

Corrected Version of the Narrative:

I had a bicycle. I really loved that bike. It was the best toy that I ever had. I bought it in Miami on a trip that I made with my father and my brother. My father bought a bike for my brother too. It was better than mine, but now I know that I prefer mine. I used to ride my bike with my friends. My friends lived in the same block where I lived. We used to go to the park and to make long trips in the city. My bike was red and beautiful. It was little because I was little too. It was easy to ride it. It was light and had strong tires. Maybe it was one of the best on the block. One day we planned an exciting trip to a rock quarry. We didn't go. We planned another trip, and this time it was to the hills of the northern part of the city.

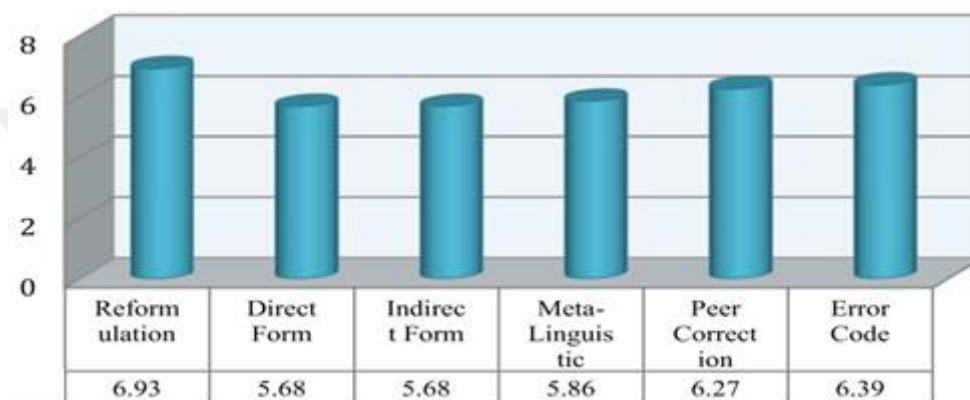
Reformulation can be helpful for "noticing the gap" (Thornbury, 1997: 328). Here the expression "noticing the gap" should be handled with caution as it is a reference for Swain's output theory, which postulates that language acquisition has much to do with language production. According to Izumi et al. (1999: 423), when one produces something in a particular language, s/he will have the chance to "test comprehensibility and linguistic well-formedness of their interlanguage" and develop an awareness of the metalinguistic aspects of language. Moreover, noticing function can be triggered if learners "notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only partially, about the target language" (423).

However, the process of reformulation is not easy. Cohen (1989: 4) proposes that the reformulator should "rewrite the paper so as to preserve as many of the writers' ideas as possible, while expressing them in his/her own words so as to make the piece sound native-like." Obviously, such a meticulous concern is usually appreciated, but it is not practical for a teacher to go through all the sentences because it might take a considerable span of time (Cohen, 1989; Myers, 1997). Another concern raised by the teachers, as Myers (1997) revealed, is the little opportunities for students to work on the revised texts.

Cohen (1989) compared teacher-corrected compositions with peer reformulations and found that the teacher-corrected compositions were more welcomed by the learners. Reformulation on its own caused mixed reactions because teacher assistance was necessary to grasp what was corrected and why it was corrected. It seems reformulations, albeit their productive outcomes with conscious learners, did not offer the opportunity of mediation as much as teacher-corrected compositions. Another study on the effectiveness of reformulation was carried out by Sachs and Polio (2007). Using think aloud protocols, the impact of explicit correction behaviour on students' revised editions was compared with that of reformulated texts. The learners in the reformulation group performed significantly better, and the findings demonstrate that learners who verbalized their errors during the think-alouds were more likely to correct them in their subsequent drafts. More specifically, out of

261 errors, 173 were changed whereas 88 were not treated the following day. However, of the errors not verbalized, only 78 were subject to changes, while 138 remained unchanged. As the findings suggest, reformulation of learner drafts help them “see for themselves what has gone wrong, in the operating conditions under which they went wrong” (Johnson, 1988: 92). Sanavi and Nemati (2014) also designed a study in which they tested the effectiveness of six types of feedback, namely reformulation, direct CF, indirect CF, metalinguistic CF, peer feedback and error coding. The findings, as the following figure suggests (see Figure 8), the learners in the reformulation group outperformed the ones in other groups.

Figure 8: Effectiveness of Feedback Types



Source: Sanavi and Nemati, 2014: 6

2.7.5. The Focus of the Feedback

The focus of the feedback is another categorization defined by Ellis (2009). This category describes whether all the errors or some specific errors are to be corrected. Speaking metaphorically, unfocused CF can be likened to a bird’s eye view with reference to its general overview, while an analogy with focused CF and an archaeologist scavenging through the remnants of a particular thing can be drawn.

Even though focused and unfocused feedback was used in early studies, a comparison of the impact of focused versus unfocused feedback practices in a single study is a late bloom. Ellis et al. (2008) conducted a study comparing the effectiveness of unfocused and focused CF. Of 49 Japanese students, some were provided focused feedback, namely on articles, whereas the unfocused group received CF on articles as well as other error categories. The results reveal that both types of correction were equally effective. However, some methodological limitations of the study should be noted to treat the findings with care. The focused and unfocused division was not duly made because article corrections were heavily dominant. Moreover, the impact of article focused design was only investigated on the article use, that is, the accuracy of structures which were not targeted was not considered. Another focused written CF study was done by Sheen et al. (2009), who also worked on

the effectiveness of CF on the English article system alone as well as some other grammatical structures. The focused group was found to outperform the unfocused one. However, the systematicity of the procedures followed was negatively affected when some errors were ignored. As van Beuningen et al. (2008: 282) pointed out, “students might have been confused noticing that some of their errors were disregarded.”

Recently there has been a move from a comprehensive error correction to focused error correction. So far, the “focus” in focused error correction studies has usually been the errors in definite and indefinite English articles and past tense use. The underlying idea of a focused design is that specialized correction of errors might enable learners to become more triumphant (Ferris, 2001). Some other studies also pointed out that both focused and unfocused error correction practices yield similar productive results (Frear, 2010; Karimi and Fotovatnia, 2010). Farrokhi and Sattarpour (2012) investigated whether direct CF promotes high-proficient L2 learners’ accuracy in the accurate use of two functions of English articles (the use of “a” for first mention and “the” for subsequent or anaphoric mentions) and whether the focused vs. unfocused practices result in greater gains in the accuracy of grammar forms. Findings from the two experimental groups, focused and unfocused, and a control group were compared. The learners in the experimental group outperformed the control group learners. When the experimental groups were compared, it was found that the learners in the focused CF group used articles more accurately than the other group.

Rouhi and Samiei (2010) also conducted a study on the effectiveness of focused and unfocused indirect feedback on the use of simple past tense in L2 writing. There were three groups of students, focused group, unfocused group, and control group, and no significant difference was observed among those three groups. In another study, Frear (2010) investigated the use of past tense (copula verbs, regular and irregular verbs, all of which are in active voice) in students’ revisions. The researcher established three groups of students, namely the focused CF group, unfocused feedback group and no feedback group. The results reveal that even though all three groups improved their accuracy, learners in the experimental conditions did significantly better in the revised texts. Overall, the results suggest that focused written CF can prove to be more effective than unfocused one in helping learners, especially the highly proficient ones, to acquire the use of articles.

2.7.6. Computer-Assisted Feedback

Recently, it has become possible to come across many instances in which computer-assisted feedback was enhanced by intelligent computer-assisted language learning systems. Integration of computer-assisted feedback opportunities in different languages is likely to trigger further investment and might result in an increased validity and reliability of evaluations. The prevalence and increasing reliability and validity studies on computer-assisted testing and feedback practices have brought the question of change in the agents of feedback provision. However, it could be argued that computer-

assisted feedback can be a useful addition, though not a replacement for teacher feedback (Lavolette et al., 2015).

Moreover, since computer anxiety is yet another consideration, it is quite likely for learners' computer anxiety to interfere into learners' receptivity to feedback modes. Matsumura's (2004) study indicated that students' level of computer anxiety might be predictive of their feedback preferences. Two hundred and eighteen Japanese EFL learners who varied in computer anxiety took part in the study, and findings suggest that feedback choices varied according to individuals' computer anxiety. Therefore, in order not to disadvantage students who have a high degree of computer anxiety, a unitary form or "one-size-fits-all" approach to feedback provision should be avoided.

Heift (2010) developed E-Tutor, which was originally named German Tutor for teaching German. The program offers the development and functionalities of an intelligent computer-assisted language learning system and helps individualizing the learning experience and immediate feedback opportunities. Moreover, intelligent grammar checkers with a proper degree of accuracy were developed. One example is *BonPatron*, a grammar, spelling and expression checker for French learners. Burston (2008) examined the efficiency of the program using a corpus of 10 compositions. The checker detected 88% of the errors with low rates of miscorrection. The use of intelligent grammar checkers for English language learners, however, did not yield that much accurate. O'Regan (2010) found that *Grammar Slammer* detected 24% of errors in a learner corpus while the detection amount was 14% for *Spell Check Plus*, 40% for *White Smoke Perfect Writing 2009*, and 16% for *Right Writer 5.0*.

Computer-assisted feedback delivery is not reduced to grammar checkers. The implementation of blogs has also been influential in effective feedback provision. In a quasi-experimental study Kayaoğlu (2008) investigated the effectiveness of a forum-based blog in which tertiary level learners developed a positive attitude towards writing. The findings suggest that the opportunity of "genuine audience" adds much to the process-based nature of the writing pedagogy. In the absence of readers from different circles, what students seem to be doing is writing to please the teacher rather than providing strong arguments to sound convincing. Çiftçi (2009) found that both in-class and blog group students having been involved in peer feedback sessions demonstrated significant gains on content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Arslan (2014) integrated blogs and portfolios to provide feedback. Considerable improvement in basic elements of writing skill such as process, organization, content, language use, vocabulary, mechanics, and accuracy was observed.

In the light of the abovementioned research findings, it could be argued that the search for the 'best' feedback practice is ill-wised as different institutional, classroom and task contexts might require a diversity of situations which reject uniformity. As Hyland and Hyland (2006: 88) articulated, "it may be ... that what is effective feedback for one student in one setting is less so in

another.” Thus, no single feedback type can guarantee the best success. Therefore, conclusions to be drawn pertaining the “optimum feedback” might be suggestive rather than definitive. Ellis’s (2009: 106) call for a sociocultural perspective is justified once again then:

Indeed, a sociocultural perspective on corrective feedback would emphasize the need to adjust the type of feedback offered to learners to suit their stage of development although how this can be achieved practically remains unclear in the case of written corrective feedback where there is often limited opportunity to negotiate the feedback with individual learners.

2.8. Studies on Teacher Written Feedback

According to Hyland (2007), various feedback options as well as socially and cognitively-oriented activities should be included in writing instruction. Most of the time, feedback delivery is teacher-led, and learner preferences of feedback are not taken into consideration. Though teacher feedback is not the sole medium, much of the literature is devoted to teacher feedback. Therefore, determination of the learners’ preferred feedback modality and negotiation of learners’ expectations will promote stakeholder engagement efforts. To help learners progress within their zone of proximal development ZPD (Wette, 2014), peer interactions and teacher-led instruction which also covers teacher feedback are essential.

Disparate philological stances have been influential in determining the role of teacher written feedback. These stances range from the futility and harmfulness of the feedback practices (Truscott, 1996) to the facilitating role of feedback practices (Leki, 1991; Shaughnessy, 1977). Before drawing a conclusive line, it might be better to state why corrective feedback has emerged as a contentious issue. Hyland and Hyland (2006: 83) stated that practitioners do not really make the most of corrective feedback because of the conflicting views: “While feedback is a central aspect of L2 writing programs across the world, the research literature has not been equivocally positive about its role in L2 development, and teachers often have a sense they are not making use of its full potential.”

Before going into a categorization of studies, it might be better to highlight that conducting a well-controlled research in CF is quite demanding because external variables are not easy to control (Guenette, 2007). According to Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), empirical studies of teacher feedback represent three major categories: (a) descriptive studies of what teachers do when they respond, (b) research on the effects of teacher comments, and (c) surveys of student opinions about teacher feedback. The results in the first two categories have not been as consistent as those in the third, but Ferris and Hedgcock cite four relatively consistent results overall: (a) Students appreciate teacher feedback; (b) students see value in teacher feedback in a number of areas, not just language errors; (c) students are frustrated by teacher feedback that is cryptic and illegible; and (d) students value a mix of encouraging and constructive criticism.

Early studies on teacher CF reported that the quantity of errors did not increase, but error types were subject to several changes (Ferris, 2015). Studies of qualitative nature included think aloud protocols or retrospective interviews on the effectiveness of teacher CF, while controlled experimental studies have been popular in the last 15-20 years. With the introduction of corpus linguistics, investigation of the frequency and types of errors has become possible (Ferris, 2015).

Lee (2009) organized a teacher education seminar on feedback and proposed that a feedback revolution is necessary. She found that more than half of the participating teachers were ready for change, while some others had some reservations about such concerns as lack of professional training, lack of support from the stakeholders and some practical constraints such as large classes, heavy workloads and tight teaching schedules. The chasm between the feedback beliefs and practices is described by a catch-22 situation, that is, teachers in general have favourable perceptions regarding the feedback implementation because they have the conviction that revolutionary ideas with reference to feedback might empower them, but practical challenges impede them to make appropriate progress. In another study, Lee (2009: 15-18) revealed that teachers' beliefs and practices regarding written feedback are not congruent with each other. The findings can be tabulated as follows (see Table 5):

Table 5: Teacher Beliefs and Practices Regarding Written Feedback

<i>Teacher practices</i>	<i>Teacher beliefs</i>
Teachers pay most attention to language form	but they believe there's more to good writing than accuracy
Teachers mark errors comprehensively	although selective marking is preferred
Teachers tend to correct and locate errors for students	but they believe that through teacher feedback students should learn to correct and locate their own errors
Teachers use error codes	although they think students have a limited ability to decipher the codes
Teachers award scores/grades to student writing	although they are almost certain that marks/grades draw student attention away from teacher feedback
Teachers respond mainly to weaknesses in student writing	although they know that feedback should cover both strengths and weaknesses
Teachers' written feedback practice allows students little room to take control	although teachers think students should learn to take greater responsibility for learning
Teachers ask students to do one-shot writing	although they think process writing is beneficial
Teachers continue to focus on student written errors	although they know that mistakes will recur
Teachers continue to mark student writing in the ways they do	although they think their effort does not pay off

The literature on the belief-practice divide in feedback delivery seems to gain support from studies in Turkey. Özbay and Kayaoğlu (2008) highlighted the issue of “what EFL writing teachers say but fail to do” in feedback provision. Even though content-based feedback takes the initial seat with reference to the perceived importance, the analysis of the retrospective protocols suggests that the practitioners' feedback practices are grammar-focused.

Teachers' belief systems could be predictive of the progression of the learners' writing performance. Bhowmik (2012) found that the production of L2 texts included more than cognitive processes. In an effort to vividly describe the categories of division of labour, the researcher developed 6 activity system elements to achieve "context-specific, social and cultural affordances", namely instructors, friends and classmates, writing centre tutors, family members, and people in the world. It was also argued that literacy is ideological. The belief systems of writing teachers are culturally grounded, and concepts in L2 writing such as thesis statement are based on teachers' cultural orientations.

2.9. Foreign Language Writing Anxiety

The study of foreign language anxiety has moved from the investigation of language anxiety as a specific construct to skill-specific analysis. After the recognition of foreign language anxiety as a specific construct that is peculiar to language learning situations (Scovel, 1978), the definition, sources, effects and correlates of foreign language anxiety were better understood, conceptualized and analysed. However, since language anxiety, among some other variables, is a learner variable, an investigation into language anxiety and its relationship to some other variables such as gender, achievement and so on have not established a unitary conclusion (Daly, 1991; Scovel, 1978). In early studies, it was argued that time for establishing a strong link between language anxiety and language acquisition was not ripe yet. Scovel (1978: 132), for instance, pointed out that "It is perhaps premature to relate it [anxiety] to the global and comprehensive task of language acquisition." However, recently, the link between language anxiety and second language learning has been well-documented. Since foreign language anxiety is a situational anxiety, investigation into different situations might be enriching for future research (Stewart et al., 2015).

Horwitz et al. (1986) investigated the early literature on language anxiety and pointed to a gap in understanding the relationship between L2 anxiety and L2 achievement. To mitigate this gap, they came up with an instrument designed specifically to measure the level of language anxiety that one suffers particularly in a foreign language learning context. This scale is called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (henceforth FLCAS). The FLCAS was used in many studies, and usually a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and foreign language achievement was the case (Aida, 1994; Brown, 2008; Horwitz, 2001; Liu, 2006; Woodrow, 2006).

Language anxiety research has put speaking and writing skills in the initial seats as these two skills are usually more anxiety-provoking than others. The FLCAS has been extensively used to identify foreign language learners' language anxiety level. However, part of the criticism addressed to the FLCAS is that it approaches foreign language anxiety as a holistic construct, without giving due emphasis on skill-specific language anxiety (Torres and Turner, 2016). The result, therefore, is that anxiety-provoking nature of all language skills is partially represented or underrepresented.

Since speaking and writing are the skills which are represented through the items, learners' nervousness in these skills can be taken as their apprehension in all skills. Therefore, a skill-based measurement of anxiety might provide more accurate results.

Since foreign language anxiety is a situational anxiety, it is observed that learners suffer more in some language learning situations than others. Especially in early studies, oral performance was highlighted as a strong anxiety-provoking component. However, more recently, the emphasis has shifted to other components. So far speaking anxiety (Kayaoğlu and Sağlamel, 2013; Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2013), reading anxiety (Saito et al., 1999), grammar anxiety, listening anxiety (Elkhafafi, 2005), pronunciation anxiety (Baran-Łucarz, 2014) were noted to be the skill-specific forms of language anxiety. The situation for foreign language writing also requires a separate mention. According to Cheng (2002), L1 and L2 writing anxiety should be treated differently. Research into L1 writing anxiety gained momentum after the 1970s. However, foreign language writing anxiety has gained attention quite recently and there have been an increasing number of studies into the impact of foreign language anxiety especially on learners' writing performance.

2.9.1 Research on L1 and L2 Writing Anxiety

In Turkey, studies into L1 and L2 anxiety have not gone unnoticed. On the L1 writing anxiety camp, several researchers pointed to the associates of writing anxiety (Bayat, 2014; Cocuk et al., 2016; Karakaya and Ülper, 2011). Bayat (2014) investigated the effectiveness of a 10-week process writing approach in the pre-school teaching program in an experimental study. At the end of the program, participants in the experimental group outperformed the ones in the control group. Moreover, findings from the Writing Apprehension test reveal that learners in the control group were more anxious than the ones in the experimental group. Cocuk et al. (2016) found a positive correlation between anxiety and disposition in writing. In another study, Karakaya and Ülper (2011) aimed at finding the predictive variables of writing anxiety. Accordingly, extramural writing practice, in-class writing activities by 1-8 grade teachers, time devoted to watching television, and gender were noted to be significant predictive variables, and those variables explained only 9.5% of writing anxiety.

Even though foreign language anxiety studies have recently been increasing rapidly in Turkish EFL context, English writing anxiety attracts relatively more attention compared to L1 writing anxiety or writing anxiety experienced in other foreign languages. The reason could be attributed to its growing prevalence in different domains, ranging from literary works published to songs composed in English, because it is the most common and the most important foreign language of the country (Selvi, 2011). Moreover, since a considerable number of learners do not even consider themselves to be proficient in the native language writing, they develop some preconceived notions

regarding foreign language writing (Kahraman and Yalvaç, 2015), which in turn might result in learners shying away from foreign language writing situations.

Several studies indicate that in Turkey, learners of English experience an average or a high level of anxiety (Atay and Kurt, 2006; Kahraman and Yalvaç, 2015; Zerey, 2013) and efforts have been made to lower learners' anxiety. Due much to its debilitating function, foreign language writing anxiety or second language writing anxiety are considered a threat to written competence. Writing anxiety particularly in higher education is rooted in earlier learning experiences, and institutions of higher education are expected to help promote a smooth transition to a conducive atmosphere for learning. Secondary school writing emphasis is narrowed to guided writing practices, while tertiary level expectations require learners to produce well-organized texts (Zerey, 2013). Therefore, there exists a considerable mismatch between what learners can achieve and what they are expected to achieve especially when they move into language courses at university level. To put it differently, it seems the gap between learners' performance in interlanguage and expected written performance in the target language is wide. Moreover, the test-driven nature of the curriculum in the primary and secondary schools, the absence of writing component in high stakes tests and the little room devoted to writing at tertiary level are highlighted as serious concerns (Aydın, 2010). It is quite likely, therefore, for learners to feel insecure as they venture into a new territory the boundaries of which they are not duly familiar.

Several commonalities can be identified in the studies on L2 writing anxiety research conducted in Turkish EFL context. First, studies in general point to the debilitating role of writing anxiety and a considerable number of studies used a mixed methods approach consisting mostly of Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (henceforth SLWAI) developed by Chen (2004). Portfolio keeping and choosing an effective feedback provision are cited to be possible ways to reduce English writing anxiety. Moreover, the participants are usually from English major students enrolled in a preparatory program at a university. The case for English major participants should be noted here because they are expected to position themselves in the academic discourse community of the target language (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2015).

Efforts were made to overcome L2 writing anxiety, and ways to alleviate language anxiety were sought. One effective method to decrease it was portfolio keeping (see Ok, 2012; Öztürk and Çeçen, 2007). Prospective teachers in Öztürk and Çeçen's (2007) study lowered their anxiety after their portfolio keeping experiences. As the participants claimed ownership of their own learning, expanded their vocabulary and promoted their critical thinking as well as creativity after their experiment with portfolios, they exhibited a more favourable disposition towards writing in English. In another study, Atay and Kurt (2006) examined the writing anxiety of prospective language teachers in Turkey. The majority of the participants had high or average anxiety, and those having average and high anxiety found it difficult to organize their writing as well as create new opinions in

the target language. Moreover, the participants cited lecturers and their early L2 writing experiences as the chief reasons for anxiety arousal. That the teacher could have some share in anxiety arousal was a consideration in Kurt and Atay's (2007) study. The researchers compared the effectiveness of teacher and peer feedback in an eight-week study. The researcher used a mixed methods study in which they used SLWAI developed by Cheng (2004) and interviewed 20 participants in the experimental group, and concluded that participants in the peer writing group demonstrated less foreign language writing anxiety than the ones who received teacher feedback. In another study, Yastibaş and Yastibaş (2015) conducted an 8-week research in which they investigated the impact of peer-feedback on learners' writing anxiety in English as a foreign language context. The researchers employed a mixed-methods study and gathered data through SLWAI, interviews and diaries. At the end of the program, most of the learners were positive towards peer feedback even though some had reservations regarding their peers' ability to provide feedback for their compositions. The learners who took a positive stance pointed to the educational and supportive nature of peer feedback, which in turn helped them feel more comfortable.

The findings on the anxiety-breeding agents were not uniform. Zerey (2013) investigated the level of writing anxiety English major learners experience and the underlying reasons for anxiety-provoking situations. The researcher gathered data from 68 tertiary level students studying at an ELT department. The majority of the learners were found to suffer from English writing anxiety. Moreover, age and socioeconomic situation were found to have significant correlations with writing anxiety while teachers were not found to be anxiety-breeding agents.

The form of feedback as well as gender and proficiency were also found to be significant correlates of writing anxiety. Kahraman's (2013) study presented a comparison of indirect and metalinguistic practices. Sixty-three English major students participated in the study, and the study showed that the learners in the metalinguistic feedback group, the ones who received coded feedback, improved their writing performances significantly. Almost all participants in the study had favourable attitudes towards feedback, and at the end of the study, the participants in the coded feedback group decreased their anxiety considerably. In another study, Öztürk and Saydam (2014) examined the relationship between gender, proficiency level and English writing anxiety. Making use of both qualitative and quantitative data gathering techniques, the study concluded that females are more anxious writers than males. Moreover, the participants reported that poor vocabulary knowledge, failure in the organization and creation of ideas, being unfamiliar with the assigned topic and negative evaluation were among the reasons for them to harbour the feelings of unease.

As the early studies reveal, the type of feedback provided to learners might have an impact on their writing anxiety and writing performance. Another link between the feedback practices writing is related to the learners' self-efficacy. Research has consistently demonstrated that there is a link between the writing performance and the writing self-efficacy of learners (Pajares, 2003). Because

writing is as much an emotional as a cognitive activity, affective components strongly influence all phases of the writing process. Thus, researchers have the responsibility to explore affective measures with an eye toward developing a “theory of affect” to help students understand how these affective processes may inform their writing.

Feedback, either negative or positive, is an effective tool of assessment to help gauge current practice. Negative feedback was considered to be essential for learners especially when the positive feedback or positive input might at times do not lead to the interlanguage development of learners (White, 1991). Especially in L2 language learning situations, the cases of L1 interference are not rare. Therefore, language learners replacing the gaps in the target language with the existing information from L1 might be overgeneralizing some forms of L1 use in the L2 situations. When negative evidence is provided, it might be useful for the learner to avoid such forms of overgeneralization (White, 1991). The negative evidence or negative feedback might mitigate the deviations from the target language forms and “narrow the range of possible hypotheses that can account for the data” (Carroll and Swain, 1993: 358).

Even though the idea that negative feedback might facilitate learners’ language development finds support from scholars, the extent and the type of feedback is open to discussion. Since researchers from different settings usually worked on different aspects of feedback effectiveness, conflicting results were found (Pica, 1994). Carroll and Swain (1993) found that the effectiveness of negative feedback was determined by the type of the feedback. Feedback in the form of cues was found to be less useful than the errors whose location was highlighted and accompanied by feedback with grammatical rules. In their study, Spada and Lightbown (1993: 205) pointed that the communicative nature of feedback could add some depth to the desired effectiveness highlighting the usefulness of “corrective feedback provided within the context of communicative interaction.” Moreover, the level of learners who receive feedback is another variable to consider. Carroll et al. (1992) reported that compared to less advanced learners, more advanced ones benefitted more from corrective feedback.

The investigation of feedback from the perspective of sociocultural theory of learning has given rise to broadening the lens when investigating and interpreting the results (see Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf and Pavlenko, 1995; Lalande, 1982). The sociocultural framework is usually associated with the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective and Vygotskian notion of the ZPD. According to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), CF should be mediated. Thus, CF, in this framework, is a social activity and has much to do with the interaction of the teacher and the student. Compared to other asocial views of feedback, the sociocultural notion that error correction is a social activity is a major differentiation. Actually, the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective posits that knowledge construction or learning is a matter of social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), and through an

interaction or collaboration, knowledge is co-constructed. The situation applies to the mediation during the feedback tutorials.

Knowledge construction, according to Vygotsky, “is a movement from the interpsychological plane (between individuals) to the intrapsychological plane (within an individual)” (McCarthy and McMahan, 1992: 18). In other words, knowledge construction starts with interaction with interlocutors and internalized by the individual. Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995) describe this as a shift from the intermental activities to intramental activities. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 467) detailed what really counts as a shift from intermentality to intramentality:

A fundamental tenet of sociocultural theory is its thesis that human mental activity is essentially a mediated process in which symbolic, and socioculturally constructed, artifacts, the most pervasive of which is language, play an essential role in the mental life of the individual. Hence, linguistic activity, including speaking and writing is an indispensable component of such mental operations as voluntary memory, voluntary attention, planning, monitoring, the formation of intentions, rational thought, and learning. Furthermore, these processes are inherently social in origin and their development in children proceeds from the social, or intermental domain, to the individual, or intramental domain, as a consequence of the linguistically mediated interaction which arises between children and other, often more experienced, members of their sociocultural world, including parents, teachers, siblings, older peers, etc.

Here, it should be noted that not all the interactions result in learning. Interactions within the learners' ZPD are more likely to qualify as internalized or digested input. The ZPD is “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978: 86). When the ZPD is considered with reference to a language learning context, the complicated network between the individual and his/her environment requires some give and take because learning is not a monologic activity: “the teacher, the learner, their social and cultural history, their goals and motives, as well as the resources available to them, including those that are dialogically constructed together” (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994: 468) are involved in meaning making.

Another issue to highlight in the Vygotskian framework is the guided support which is provided by the more capable peer to the less capable one. This is actually called scaffolding and described as “a situation where a knowledgeable participant can create supportive conditions in which the novice can participate, and extend his or her current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence” (Donato, 1994: 40). Scaffolding is more than simple help. Since this form of help requires a bidirectional way, only the help which qualifies as a joint effort of the novice and expert (Donato, 1994) can be taken as a scaffolding experience. Therefore, if the feedback utility is the concern, the effectiveness can be evaluated depending on the negotiation between the novice and the expert.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study is a good point of departure for those who want to take a sociocultural perspective. The study reveals the progressive analysis of 3 learners of English who received feedback within the ZPD. In the light of the findings, mediation of the expert novice interaction can be taken as an effective feedback practice so long as the feedback is within the ZPD of the learner. Despite its practical insights into the integration of sociocultural aspects, the study was descriptive in nature, which makes it difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding the usefulness of CF. In a similar study, Nassaji and Swain (2000) attempted to determine the effectiveness of feedback provided in learners' ZPD or irrespective of their ZPD. Two Korean learners of English studying in Canada took part in the study. One of the participants received random feedback, that is, it was not clear that the input or the feedback was in the learner's ZPD, while the corrective feedback for the second learner was a collaborative effort. The results suggest that help within the learner's ZPD proved to be more useful than the randomly provided feedback.

The feedback effectiveness in the studies described above (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji and Swain, 2000) focused on the corrective aspect. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997: 42), "provision of corrective feedback (...) encourages self-repair involving accuracy and precision and not merely comprehensibility." Here, form is not the end, rather meaning and communication are targeted (Chu, 2011). CF has different functions to play. Therefore, it should not be regarded simply as "correction". It both creates an awareness that an error has occurred and elicits revised learner response. However, provision of the "correct form" might lead to repairs in interlanguage rules (Chaudron, 1988), and such rules might also determine the quality of content. Therefore, drawing a clear-cut cut-off line between form and content might not be easy.

So far, many studies have been conducted on L2 writing anxiety and L2 writing self-efficacy. However, the scope here was narrowed to their relevance to feedback (see Table 6 for a summary of research on L2 writing anxiety and L2 writing self-efficacy).

Table 6: Research on L2 Writing Anxiety and L2 Writing Self-Efficacy

Year	Researcher/s	Methodology	Participants	Findings
2003	Pajares, F.	Literature review	-	The study provides an overall analysis of previous studies and suggests that teachers shoulder a great responsibility to nurture learners' self-efficacy
2007	Kurt, G. and Atay, D.	Mixed-methods (SLWAI+Interview)	85 pre-service teachers in Turkey	The peer feedback group were found to be less anxious than the control groups
2009	Lin, G. H. C., and Ho, M. M. S.	Qualitative (Interviews)	16 university students in Taiwan	Peers and teachers are deemed to be a great source of anxiety-provoking conditions
2011	Shah, P. et al.	Quantitative (self-efficacy questionnaire, performance)	120 Malaysian secondary school students	A significant relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance
2013	Sarkhoush, H.	Quantitative (WAT, SWS, WAQ, Writing task scores)	50 IELTS students in Iran	A negative correlation between writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension; -writing apprehension and attitude towards writing; -writing apprehension and writing performance. A positive correlation between -self-efficacy and attitude towards writing; -self-efficacy and writing performance
2013	Hetthong, R. and Teo, A.	Quantitative (Writing self-efficacy questionnaire)	51 English major students in Thailand	A significant correlation between writing self-efficacy and writing performance
2013	Di Loreto, S. and McDonough, K.	Quantitative (Correlational: instructor feedback and student anxiety)	53 ESL students in Quebec	A significant negative correlation between students' perceptions of feedback and test anxiety
2013	Zerey, Ö. G.	Mixed-methods (SLWAI, Second Language Writing Anxiety Reasons Scale, semi-structured interviews)	63 English major students enrolled in a prep program in Turkey	The majority of the participants suffer from writing anxiety; pedagogical practices of teachers do not seem to be influential on learners' writing anxiety
2007	Atay, D. and Kurt, G.	Mixed-methods (SLWAI+open-ended questionnaire)	86 pre-service teachers in Turkey	More than half of the participants suffered from writing anxiety; anxious students tend to have problems of creating ideas and organizing thoughts; instructors and past experiences are reported to be the chief sources of anxiety
2014	Salem, A. A. M. S. & Al Diyar, M. A.	Quantitative, (Writing anxiety scale, writing self-efficacy scale, achievement test)	90 intermediate level students in Kuwait	A negative correlation between writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy; Writing scores are a predictor of male students' writing anxiety
2014	Hashemnejad et al.	Quantitative (Self-efficacy scale; IELTS writing tasks)	120 Iranian English major students	No significant difference between male and female students' self-efficacy and performance correlation;
2014	Rezaei, M. and Jafari, M.	Mixed-methods (Writing Anxiety Inventory+semi-structured interviews)	120 EFL students in Iran	A high degree of language anxiety is usually associated with cognitive aspects: high expectation, fear of negative feedback, low self-confidence, poor linguistic knowledge
2014	Öztürk, G. and Saydam, D.	Mixed-methods (SLWAI+EWSS+semi-structured interviews)	240 students from 8 different universities	Proficiency level of the participants was not a factor influencing the participants' L2 writing anxiety; females are more anxious than males
2015	Kırmızı, Ö. and Kırmızı, G. D.	Quantitative (SLWAI; Causes of Writing Anxiety Inventory; Writing Efficacy Scale)	172 students enrolled in a Turkish university	Males have higher levels of writing self-efficacy; a negative correlation between writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy

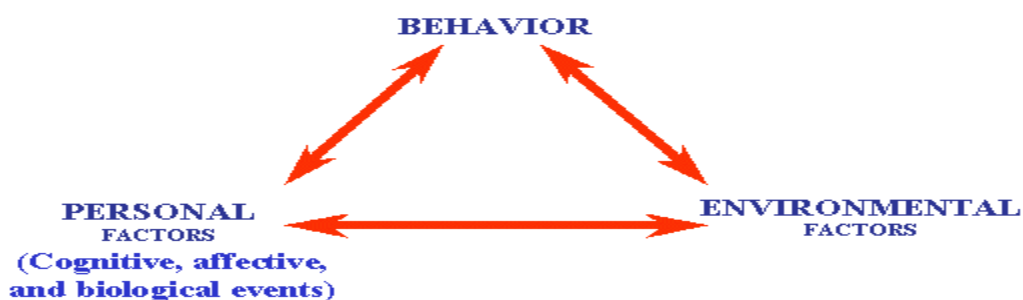
2.10. Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The pursuit of understanding learners' motivations and self-efficacy beliefs is quite justifiable in a world of learner differences and fragmented identities. It is argued that instruction alone cannot do much to increase learners' self-efficacy (Masche, 2013). In this case, instructors shoulder a great responsibility to empower learners so that they feel more secure in the new territory of the target language. However, when catering for differences, it should be kept in mind that, for some learners, the ownership of a socially desirable degree has been the sole impetus for undertaking language learning courses, which might, in fact, create an anxiety-breeding situation as well as a threat to learners' self-efficacy. Therefore, the self-efficacy of learners in general and of foreign language learners in particular has recently received considerable attention, and, in parallel fashion, investigating the inner processes of learners has gained momentum.

Bandura (1977), who introduced self-efficacy as part of a larger theory, contributed greatly to the recognition of the construct. From a broader perspective, socio-cognitive theory posits that people's beliefs, ideas and activities are guided by their self-beliefs (Nicolaidou, 2012) and these self-beliefs might be influential in their school success and failure (Pajares, 2003). As it is also beliefs that will help predict the success of an individual in a particular task, it is desirable for teachers to help nurture learners' self-efficacy beliefs as well as their performance in courses.

In social cognitive theory, the determinants of human cognition and behaviour are reciprocal in nature, that is, personal, environmental and behavioural factors should be considered in a holistic way, not as separate entities. The interrelatedness mentioned is illustrated as follows (see Figure 9):

Figure 9: Interrelatedness of Behaviour, Personal Factors and Environmental Factors



Source: Pajares, 2005: 341

Due to the interplay of behaviour, personal factors and environmental factors, it might sometimes be overwhelming to establish a clear causality. However, many studies linked a high level of self-efficacy with favourable outcomes. In educational research, self-efficacy has received considerable attention particularly in three areas (Pajares, 2003). Namely, the relationship between career choices and self-efficacy beliefs, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their instructional

practices and self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance and/or achievement have been the fields of inquiry. Despite a high premium placed on English writing skills, self-efficacy beliefs in writing has received modest attention (Pajares, 2003). The case for language learning settings is no different. Many studies (Açikel, 2011; Chen, 2007; Chen and Lin, 2009; Erkan and Saban, 2011; Hetthong and Teo, 2013; Shah et al., 2011; Shang, 2010; Termit and Saravana, 2012; Woodrow, 2011) point to a strong link between language achievement or writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs.

The term self-efficacy is defined as “judgments of their [people’s] capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1997: 391). Prior to the emphasis on cognitive operations, what occurred or what might have occurred in people’s minds were not thought to be influential. However, Bandura (1986) rejected the reductionist notions of behaviourism, which could not account for the novel utterances children produce and argued that human functioning is related to self-referent beliefs. In tandem with this reasoning, people’s behaviours could be predicted by beliefs. As was aptly put by Pajares (2003: 195), people’s self-beliefs could determine their thoughts, feeling, and actions:

In this sociocognitive perspective, individuals are viewed as proactive and self-regulating rather than as reactive and controlled by biological or environmental forces. Also in this view, individuals are understood to possess self-beliefs that enable them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings, and actions. In all, Bandura painted a portrait of human behavior and motivation in which the beliefs that people have about their capabilities are critical elements. In fact, according to Bandura, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities, what he called self-efficacy beliefs, than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have.

Several terms related to the “self” such as *self-esteem*, *self-belief*, *self-concept* or *self-confidence* are employed in language learning situations, even though they are sometimes interchangeably used with self-efficacy. However, some of these terms fail to capture what is really meant through self-efficacy (Woodrow, 2011). Self-efficacy is a domain-specific construct, and individuals have varying degrees of self-efficacy beliefs for different situations. For instance, an individual’s self-efficacy belief regarding paragraph writing in English refers to his/her belief regarding his/her paragraph writing skills. Self-esteem stands for confidence and satisfaction of abilities, and self-concept reflects belief of self-ability. While self-efficacy refers to judgements of individuals about their own ability, the definition for self-confidence is less precise and it suggests a person’s trust on a wider range of own resources or strengths.

2.10.1. Sources of Self-Efficacy

Four main sources have been influential to create self-efficacy perceptions (Bandura, 1994). These sources are, namely, mastery experience or performance results, vicarious experience, positive

persuasions, and psychological or emotional state. To mention each briefly, mastery experience is the most efficient way to enhance self-efficacy. Success increases self-efficacy while failure lowers it. If learners interpret the outcomes favourably, this would increase their self-efficacy. However, just the opposite is true if the outcomes are interpreted as failure. Vicarious experience refers to the imitation of other people's task performance. Observing others doing the same task helps one to get involved in the same task. Bandura (1994: 27) argues that "the impact of modelling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models." The presence of models helps learners to appraise their own capabilities in relation to other people's similar attainments. Verbal and social persuasion might also improve their self-efficacy. Learners, if conveyed positive appraisals, can increase their self-efficacy. Therefore, efforts to persuade might prove to be successful if the persuader is knowledgeable and credible. Lastly, people's state of anxiety, mood, stress, fear, tension, aches, and pain might be influential in determining their self-efficacy beliefs. As Bandura (1994: 73) pointed out, "reduce[ing] people's stress reactions and alter[ing] their negative emotional proclivities and interpretations of their physical states" is essential to enhance their performance. Otherwise, being exposed to fears makes people feel vulnerable, thereby influencing their performance in a negative way.

Even though the diagnosis and sources of self-efficacy can be traced, it seems clear from the existing literature that opportunities to enhance learners' self-efficacy beliefs are largely missing. In an effort to address this gap, Ahmadian et al. (2015) employed dictogloss in writing classes. The results reveal that learners who received cooperative activities had higher self-efficacy levels. However, it is worthwhile to emphasize that it is usually the teachers as well as the individuals who have low self-efficacy beliefs to eradicate the negative perceptions which might pervade their academic endeavours, and, in turn, give up struggling. Pajares (2003: 152) succinctly put it:

It seems obvious that teachers should endeavour to prevent students from developing negative perceptions in the first place. Given the academic failure that some students experience, this is a challenging task. Nonetheless, it is evident that students should be able to face difficulties, or even fail, without losing the confidence required to try again and to improve.

2.10.2. Self-Efficacy in Writing

Self-efficacy both in L1 and L2 writing has been a promising avenue of research as the interplay between beliefs of writing skills and writing practices has been the subject of considerable debate. Studies on writing self-efficacy contend that peoples' beliefs of self-efficacy play an instrumental role in anticipating writing performance (Hetthong and Teo, 2013; Nicolaidou, 2012; Pajares and Valiente, 2001; Pajares, 2003; Prat-Sala and Paul Redford, 2012; Woodrow, 2011).

Studies investigating the association between self-efficacy and writing performance have demonstrated a positive correlation between these two variables. Torres and Turner (2016)

investigated the link between foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy with reference to specific tasks in different language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Two hundred and six tertiary level students learning Spanish took part in the study. The study indicated that students who are more anxious than others had relatively less self-efficacy. Moreover, while students' language anxiety was not significantly different with reference to different skills, self-efficacy beliefs differed significantly. Hosseini Fatemi and Vahidnia (2013) carried out a study to explore the relationship between EFL learners' writing self-efficacy and writing performance. They found a significant relationship between writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs both for English specific and general self-efficacy. A similar relationship between writing performance and writing self-efficacy was observed in Sarkhoush (2013). In another study, Kırmızı and Kırmızı (2015) found a strong negative correlation between the EFL learners' self-efficacy and language anxiety. Except for punctuation, the participants demonstrated a low level of self-efficacy. Moreover, Sarkhoush (2013) indicated a negative correlation between writing apprehension and self-efficacy.

A gender-based comparison of self-efficacy beliefs on English major students' writing performance has led to conflicting results. Language arts usually coincide with a feminine orientation, and writing is considered to be a female domain. This association is made explicit by Pajares (2003: 150-151), who argued for a balanced self-view which encompasses feminine expressiveness and masculine instrumentality:

Language arts in school is typically associated with a feminine orientation in part because writing is viewed by most students, particularly younger students, as being a female-domain. As a consequence, a feminine orientation is associated with motivational beliefs related to success in writing. One challenge before language arts educators is to alter students' views of writing so that it is perceived as relevant and valuable both to girls and boys. A challenge for all educators, and for the broader culture, is to continue to expound and model gender self-beliefs that encompass both the feminine expressiveness and the masculine instrumentality that are critical to a balanced self-view.

A seminal conclusion to be drawn from several studies could be that stronger confidence was indicated by females at least through middle school (see Pajares and Valiante, 2001; Pajares et al., 1999). Even though the female learners' stronger confidence might date back to earlier education periods, it might change as learners get older. Drop in confidence level is likely to occur as exposure to masculine discourse is likely to intensify in subsequent education levels (Cleary, 1996). Moreover, it is worth noting that female learners' writing performance does not lead to a corresponding level of confidence in writing. One explanation to account for the females' incongruity of performance and self-efficacy beliefs could be interpreted as a gender difference in the sense that boys have a tendency to be self-congratulatory whereas girls are inclined to be modest (Wigfield et al., 1996). Moreover, the discrepancy in orientations might be rooted to female learners' use of a distinct "metric" which might mask or accentuate their actual ideas or feelings (Noddings, 1996). Even though females indicate similar levels of self-efficacy beliefs, when asked to draw comparative judgements, they

outperform males in their immediate environment (Pajares, 2003). One study to support this proposition was carried out by Kırmızı and Kırmızı (2015). In their study, males were found to have a higher level of self-efficacy. However, the association of self-efficacy with a certain gender is not the only finding. Hashemnejad et al. (2014) conducted research to identify the relationship between the two variables across two genders. T-test results indicate that a statistically significant difference between writing performance and writing self-efficacy was not the case both for the male and female participants. Therefore, suggesting a one-size-fits-all conclusion cannot create a precision given the multiplicity of variables and diversity of circumstances.

To conclude, considering the shifts from the product to process approach and to genre approaches, I could argue that there is a tendency to elaborate on the processes writers go through when they are constructing meaning. The shift from one approach to another is an indicator of the ineffectiveness of a particular approach to writing. Moreover, in the light of the discussions in the process approach, there appears to be a need to view the “process” not as a unitary concept, but a set of processes. That a single process cannot account for the complexity of the path writers go through is in line with the propositions of the post-process approaches. Moreover, even though process approach has been one of the predominant improvements in the second language classrooms, it is not free from criticism. Therefore, given the possible contextual variations, practitioners shoulder the responsibility to accommodate or assimilate the key features of the process approach. With reference to the typology of the teacher written feedback, it could be stated that some of the approaches and a considerable amount of literature on teacher written feedback are still shadowed by corrective feedback applications. Even though teacher feedback includes, but not limited to, corrective feedback, reducing it to sheer mistakes might be limiting. In the light of the presented literature, it could be argued that the approach and feedback types to be opted are subject to contextual variations. While peer feedback is a preferred modality to help decrease anxiety in some settings, some others indicate that peer feedback is not a credible source of feedback. While females are more anxious have less self-efficacy in some contexts, some other studies indicate the greater degree of female self-efficacy. Given the correlates of L2 writing anxiety, gender, perceptions, achievement and L2 writing self-efficacy, there seems to be a greater need to contextualize writing as well as feedback. Such a contextualization might require capturing learner voices in different contexts.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

In the new millennium, we still wonder whether our feedback is effective, whether students understand it, whether they will act upon it to improve their writing and learning, whether they read it all. (Burke and Pieterick, 2010: 11-12)

3.1. Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate the impact of mediated and unmediated feedback practices on the perceptions, performance, anxiety levels, and self-efficacy beliefs of English majoring students. In this way, the impact of different feedback modalities, namely feedback within learners' ZPD and feedback irrespective of learners' ZPD, on students' perceptions, subsequent revisions, writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy is explored.

This chapter is devoted to the description of the methodology used in the research. The following sections of this chapter describes the research questions, design of the study, the setting in which the study took place, the participants and the sampling method of the study, the instruments used in the study, the data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and the piloting work.

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What is the impact of teacher feedback within and irrespective of learners' zone of proximal development?
 - a) Is there a significant difference between the preferences of learners in the control and experimental group feedback after the feedback sessions?
 - b) Is there a significant difference between the performance of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?
 - c) Is there a significant difference between the perceptions of learners in the control and experimental group towards feedback practices after the feedback sessions?
 - d) Is there a significant difference between L2 writing self-efficacy of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?
 - e) Is there a significant difference between the writing anxiety of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?

2. Do male and female students differ in their writing performance, self-efficacy beliefs and writing anxiety level after the feedback sessions?
3. What kinds of mediational means do Turkish EFL learners use for their L2 writing assignments?
 - a) Is there a difference between the mediational means of learners in the control and experimental group after the feedback sessions?

3.2. Research Paradigm

A mixed-methods approach was used in the study to investigate the impact of teacher feedback in EFL writing from process and post-process perspectives. According to Johnson et al. (2007: 123), a mixed-method approach “combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (...) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”. However, recently Creswell and Plano Clark (2007: 5) included a more comprehensive view in their definition. Their definition involves a method and a methodological orientation:

Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone.

In the 1970s and 1980s, a paradigm war was prevalent owing to the ideological differences between qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. Up to the 1970s, quantitative research was the upheld paradigm due to the reign of positivism, and it dealt with data in quantitative form, whereas qualitative data were more interpretive (De Lisle, 2011). Quantitative research focused on quantification of data to reach a broader understanding of the population tendencies. The struggle between the two paradigms was fuelled by incompatibility thesis, the myth of good science dualisms, which pitted one approach against another (Howe, 1988). However, the recent interpretation of qualitative and quantitative paradigms provides a more encompassing form of these two approaches, and they are situated at different ends of a continuum rather than being treated as binary opposites (Newman and Benz, 1998). Following this period, qualitative and quantitative researchers recognized each other and benefited from each other through incorporating the once fierce rivals (Dörnyei, 2011).

3.3. Mixed-Methods Approach

In early 21st century, mixed-methods research gained wider recognition as it became the third methodological movement (Creswell, 2012; Tashakkori and Charles, 2010), and some followers of

it went as far as to assert “Monomethod study is the biggest threat to the advancement of the social sciences” (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005: 375). There were even followers claimed that findings to be obtained through quantitative research could be of a higher rank (Dörnyei, 2011). Even though such ambitious claims sound over-arching, the research methodology was chosen to promote the strengths and minimize, if not to eliminate, the weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The idea of combining qualitative and quantitative research was introduced in the 1970s. Denzin (1978) used the term “triangulation” to refer to the combination of multiple perspectives, be it researchers, research methods, theories, or data sources. Such a combination is likely to prove to be more valid as findings are exposed to more than one test (Erzberger and Kelle, 2003). Lee and Greene (2007) highlighted the advantages of mixed methods studies stating that more detailed analysis is possible via the information to be gathered from more than one single source.

Dörnyei (2011: 170-173) provided the following typology of mixed method designs:

- Survey with follow-up interview;
- Questionnaire survey facilitated by preceding interview;
- Interview study with follow-up questionnaire survey;
- Interview study facilitated by preceding questionnaire survey;
- Concurrent combinations of qualitative and quantitative research;
- Experiments with parallel interviews;
- Longitudinal study with mixed methods components;
- Combining self-report and observational data

This is an experimental study as the main aim is to explore the impact of teacher feedback in EFL writing from process-based and sociocultural perspectives. The researcher made use of qualitative and quantitative methods to capture the complexity of the events and attitudes. Mixed-methods research, as Creswell (2012: 535) indicated, helps researchers benefit from the strengths of either research methodology:

Mixed methods research is a good design to use if you seek to build on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data, such as scores on instruments, yield specific numbers that can be statistically analysed, can produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends, and can provide useful information if you need to describe trends about a large number of people. However, qualitative data, such as open-ended interviews that provide actual words of people in the study, offer many different perspectives on the study topic and provide a complex picture of the situation.

The temptation to triangulate the findings finds support from the nature of investigation into teacher feedback. When previous studies on this issue were analysed, lack of systematicity and replicability in feedback research was noted as a great methodological weakness especially in early

studies (Liu and Brown, 2015). Moreover, many of the studies conducted so far were deemed to have poor ecological validity as the context of the feedback was not duly provided to the readers (Storch, 2010). Therefore, the need to bring methodological rigor with ecological classroom validity (Ferris, 2010) has been a concern throughout the study, and to address this need, a mixed-methods design was opted. Mixed-methods design involves a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods. This study follows a concurrent mixed-methods design and the researcher “converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem” (Creswell, 2009: 14).

3.4. Research Design

In this research, a quasi-experimental design (the matching-only pretest-posttest control group design) was used to see the impact of mediated learning experience through feedback practices compared to the conventional process-based feedback practices. This design is deemed to be the appropriate research technique on several grounds. I attempted to match the learners in two groups based on their proficiency writing scores. However, some other variables such as writing anxiety, self-efficacy, and perceptions towards feedback as well as second language writing were not matched. According to Fraenkel et al. (2012: 275), such sort of matching on one variable may not achieve randomization, “The researcher still matches the subjects in the experimental and control groups on certain variables, but he or she has no assurance that they are equivalent on others.” Therefore, using the matching-only pretest-posttest control group design was deemed to be appropriate.

Moreover, generalizability was another concern. According to Dörnyei (2007: 34), “the quantitative inquiry is systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts.” The possibility of generalizing the findings to other contexts is a great strength of experimental group designs. This strength is considered to be of significant value for this study as feedback effectiveness is a long-revolving debate which requires further scrutiny. Moreover, the pretest- posttest control and experimental design is considered to be a “good” design (Kerlinger, 1970), and the fundamental pillars of the experimental designs are founded on the ability “to test the impact of a treatment (or an intervention) on an outcome, controlling for all other factors that might influence that outcome” (Creswell, 2013: 218). Fraenkel et al. (2012: 275) present the matching only pretest-posttest control group design as follows (see Table 7):

Table 7: The Matching-Only Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design

Treatment group	M	O	X	O
Control group	M	O	C	O

Accordingly, the participants both in the treatment and control group were matched (M), and following the pretest, only the experimental group (X) was exposed to an intervention whereas the control group (C) received no treatment. After this, data from both groups were gathered and compared to see the impact of the treatment (O). As Cohen et al. (2007: 275) pointed out, there exists a significant difference between a true experimental and a quasi-experimental design. The difference lies in randomization. Even though the control and experimental groups were matched on the proficiency score variable, there is no guarantee that other variables such as L2 writing anxiety and L2 writing self-efficacy match.

As stated above, one significant issue to be kept in mind in matching only pretest and posttest control group designs is the matching of participants (Fraenkel et al., 2012) on a certain variable, and I took this into consideration when choosing and matching the participants.

3.5. Sources of Data

As a mixed-methods approach is followed, qualitative as well as quantitative forms of data were employed. The choice this approach meant the inclusion of different philosophical stances. Usually studies are positioned in a continuum of qualitative and quantitative paradigms. Mixed-methods research is situated in the middle of this continuum (Creswell, 2013). An analysis of the constituents of this paradigm reveals the examination of qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The source and the interpretation of these forms of data are described below.

3.5.1. The Quantitative Data

The quantitative data for the study comes mainly from the questionnaires (demographic questions, perceptions towards teacher feedback, the SLWAI, attitudes towards L2 writing, English composition writing self-efficacy) and writing assessment scores. Further information about these components is provided in the instruments section.

3.5.2. The Qualitative Data

A fixed definition of qualitative research does not seem to be possible when the definitions are analysed in a chronological order. Creswell (2007: 36) argues that the definitions on qualitative research have witnessed an evolutionary change from “social construction, to interpretivist, and on to social justice.” A recent definition on qualitative research, therefore, goes as follows:

QUAL research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, QUAL researchers use an emerging QUAL approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study,

and data analysis that is inductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report or presentation includes the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, and a 'complex description and interpretation of the problem, and it extends the literature or signals a call for action. (Creswell, 2007: 37)

As given in the definition above, qualitative inquiry involves a process and procedures. According to Creswell (2007), the characteristics of qualitative research are also described as follows:

To begin with, qualitative researchers gather data without manipulating the environment, and the researchers' task is to explore the naturally occurring events/experiences as they are. Therefore, situations where individuals experience a particular event rather than a lab situation are favourable for the researchers' meaning making. For this research context, the teacher was the researcher, and I as a teacher had a chance to observe the students' naturally occurring experiences in feedback situations. Such interference has enabled me to become a data collection instrument. While it is usually questionnaires or other sources of measurement that are used to gather data, I myself collected the data from multiple sources. That I was part of the data gathering enabled me to explore the meanings are created by the participants, not by the authors from literature.

Moreover, the use of an inductive data analysis is another issue to be highlighted with reference to the qualitative research. The data analysis in qualitative research is not fixed; therefore, I had a chance to go back and forth to generate a new theory rather than testing an existing one when analysing data. This constant search for codes and themes helped me build a bottom-up view of organizing patterns and themes. Apart from the inductive analysis, the constantly evolving nature of research could be represented through emergent design. Thus, the initial plan, questions, the forms of data collection, individuals studied and the sites visited are all amenable to change throughout the research process.

Qualitative researchers do not take a static and a prescriptive notion of culture, rather culture is defined contextually and is dynamic (Cunico, 2005). In accordance with this view, there is need to develop an insider perspective when understanding cultural practices and other forms of behaviour. Thus, as a researcher I developed an ethnographer perspective and reflected on issues through my own lens. The ethnographer identity enabled me to bring something from their background and their situation, paving the way and giving room for multiple views and realities. Moreover, I did not seek to establish cause and effect relationship between/among factors, rather I aimed at drawing a larger picture to provide an account of "complex interactions of factors in any situation".

The qualitative data for the study come from the open-ended questions in the questionnaires, which were conducted both before and after the feedback sessions (see Appendix 24 for a sample transcription), focus group interviews conducted after a-14-week experimental study, two audio-

recordings in feedback sessions, stimulated recall protocols, process logs and cover letters. A brief explanation for each instrument is provided in the instruments section.

When analysing the qualitative data, content analysis was used. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) provide a summary of three distinct qualitative approaches to content analysis, namely, conventional, directed, or summative. The approach to be taken in this study was the conventional inductive approach. As the researcher did not hold a fixed pattern before gathering data, new insights to emerge were allowed.

In order to develop codes from the data, a word by word transcription was conducted (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Then the initial analysis or the initial coding was done after taking notes on the concepts and thoughts through the emerging codes. Next, I attempted to establish some links between the codes in order to create meaningful clusters (Patton, 2002).

3.6. The Research Context

The participants consist of preparatory school students who were enrolled in the Department of English Language and Literature (henceforth DELL) at Karadeniz Technical University (henceforth KTU), Trabzon, Turkey. The university is located in north-eastern Turkey, and each year a considerable number of students are admitted to different departments. Recent figures (see Table 8) suggest that there are 59.057 (The information provided by the administrative information systems unit updated on 31.12.2015 last) active students enrolled in different programs. The distribution of the students across programs is described below.

Table 8: Distribution of Students Enrolled in the Programmes of Karadeniz Technical University

<i>Programs</i>	<i>Number of students</i>
Vocational Programs	10.794
Undergraduate Programs	38.572
Undergraduate Programs (Vocational schools)	478
MA/MSc Programs (Without thesis)	864
MA/MSc Programs (With thesis)	5.747
PhD Programs	1.399
Pedagogic Formation Certificate Programs	1.205
Total number of active students	59.057

As Table 8 suggests, undergraduate programs are the most populated ones. As for the departmental information, each year, about 140 students enrol in a mandatory preparatory program. This number suggests the total number of students enrolling in regular and evening programs. A proficiency and placement test is administered at the dawn of each semester, and preparatory school exemption is determined based on either the students' grades in these tests or students' accreditation

of high-stakes tests such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Language Proficiency Test (YDS) etc., or documentation of study history in a native speaking country. The passing grade of the incoming participants is 70, and enrolling students who got a grade of 69.5 and above are exempted from the prep program. The exemption ratio is usually about 10% even though this ratio increased to some 20% in the past few years. This increase could be attributed to the increasing exam literacy of the incoming students because there is a growing emphasis at schools and private teaching institutions to help learners become armed with a proper degree of proficiency. That there are courses designed particularly for proficiency courses could be a manifestation of the exam literacy in question.

The enrolling students either pass the proficiency test and take departmental courses or study in a prep program at least one semester. The program offers skill-based courses, and all language skills—reading, writing, grammar, listening and speaking—are covered throughout the semester. Writing course is offered 4 hours a week for two semesters. It is considered to be an important skill since all the participants are English major learners, and they usually want themselves to be accepted in the target language writing community. Apart from these, as a teacher, I had taught the course several times before.

Despite the emphasis on testing procedures, especially in the earlier circles of educations, tertiary level students' experiment with writing skill development deserves a special merit. That the learners in this context are English major learners makes the situation more critical because due much to the learners' English related prospective and immediate jobs, writing in English is placed considerable emphasis. English language proficiency stands as a genuine occupational requirement in most cases; however, learners' degree of language anxiety and self-efficacy stand as two inhibiting factors which potentially lead to a worse performance than usual. Studies conducted by KIRMIZI and KIRMIZI (2015) and Kurt and Atay (2007) bear testimony to gravity of the problem of anxiety Turkish EFL learners suffer, and, not surprisingly, the debilitating role of anxiety is highlighted as a negative association of writing performance.

Lack of focused contextual details in studies conducted in Turkey makes it difficult to reach conclusions and draw a clearer picture of the writing practices. Therefore, I benefitted from tacit knowledge in earlier studies conducted in the same department as well as anecdotal evidence based on my observations. Arslan and Zibande (2010) conducted a study to investigate the learners' attitudes towards the use of fairy tales in writing classes. The picture taken prior to the use of fairy tales is rather gloomy. Accordingly, the requirements of routine paragraphs and essays create a chaotic sameness on the part of the learners, and repetitive assignments and boring classes turn out to be anxiety-breeding. Moreover, there seems to be a need to help make the learners' transitions as smooth as possible. When learners enrol in the department, they do not usually feel themselves well-prepared for writing tasks they are likely to encounter. This is partly due to the learners' lack of

preparedness in this transition process. Especially for the learners who are at the early stages of their writing development, writing is a challenging experience, and failure to write in a desired way might “cripple early writing endeavours” (Cameron et al., 2009: 270). This is aptly portrayed by Cameron et al. (2009: 272) as follows:

(...) beginning academic writers face a considerable writing challenge. They are developing their understanding and practice of writing as a messy process of writing and rewriting that brings ideas into being, and can be thrown into turmoil when they cannot seem to ‘get it right’ the first time. They only have others’ finished work to compare theirs with; generally they do not see the messy drafts of their peers and supervisors. And their own critical voice tends to be far stronger than their creative voice.

The critical voice of learners was a case when Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu (2015) investigated the perceptions of academic writing. The researchers carried out a study to explore the perceptions of learners who were taking *Academic Writing*. They found that a considerable number of learners had difficulty in shifting between the rhetorical argumentation patterns. Adorned language and elaborate style in the native language was not correspondingly reflected into the learners’ L2, which made them feel inferior in terms of argumentation patterns.

Based on my informal conversations with the learners, the greatest share of the reason could be attributed to the exam-driven system, which offers little room, if any, for written communication. Therefore, learners, both in their L1 and L2, do not feel themselves well-prepared in writing proficiency. An explicit illustration of this could be the few number of written tasks students were required to complete before enrolling the university. Moreover, student reports in an earlier study indicated that students did not write enough in their L1 (see Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2015). The average writing tasks for the classes was usually 3, and no learner reported to have received feedback from their L1 or L2 instructors. This deficiency was explicit in the learners’ accounts in the questionnaires because many learners reported that they had received no feedback for their writing.

Further elaboration of the context could be enriching to better understand the texture and makeup of the writing instruction in Turkey. According to Leki (2001), writing teachers are challenged by daily practices which include class and time constraints, poor quality of L2 teachers and learners’ lack of preparedness in their L1 as well as ideological challenges emanating from the centre-imposed writing pedagogies. Lack of a reflective stance for EFL writing instruction seems to split the instructors into two camps: strict adherence to the rigours of Western writing scholarship and the difficulty of following western writing pedagogies which has much to do with the learners’ inability to challenge the authority. The supporters of Western writing pedagogy, however, seem to take writing instruction for granted, without justifying the needs. Leki’s (2001: 14-15) observation regarding the system in Turkey could be taken as a departure point:

What is somewhat amazing in the article is that nowhere do we learn why these students in Turkey, studying psychology, engineering, or even French and German literature, were required to take an English writing placement exam and to enrol in English language writing courses. It is entirely possible that this was an English medium school. The point, however, is that neither the author, nor the editors, nor the reviewers appeared to have felt the need to have the article explain why such students would be required to take English writing courses. Why would it seem unnecessary to explain this situation? Perhaps because, to many professionally involved with writing instruction, taking English writing courses, no matter what the context, is so self-evidently appropriate that no explanation is called for. It is this kind of failure of imagination that presents a serious challenge to EFL writing teachers, the simple questioning of the appropriacy of and reasons for imposition of EFL writing instruction.

After the provision of the writing conventions in Turkey in general, some contextual information about the school environment could be helpful to see the events through broader lens. A process-based curriculum is applied in the courses, and, as for assessment, students sit for two exams held in the 9th and 16th weeks for their first and second Visa. For their final grades, students are required to submit a portfolio which consists of the paragraphs and/or essays, depending on the covered topics. The midterm exams usually include the components of a paragraph such as topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence exercises as well as paragraph writing. Finally, a typical portfolio represents the semester's effort and consists of a cover letter, one, two or three drafts and a final version of the paragraphs and essays. However, since the study was carried out in the first semester, essays are not included in the portfolio. Peer-feedback sessions are also included in the curriculum; however, since the focus of the thesis is on teacher feedback, only the teacher's feedback is of primary focus.

Considering the process-based nature of writing tasks, studies conducted over a long time span might comfortably sit for writing research. Early studies on teacher written feedback usually focused on immediate corrections in subsequent drafts (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b). However, particular snapshots of learner performance may not be a true indicative of the learners' genuine performance. That is, consideration of feedback effectiveness should be held in a long-term. Therefore, Yates and Kenkel's (2002) call for the evolving mastery of overall text construction was kept in mind to see effectiveness of the feedback practices in a long-run. To achieve this, learners' reaction to teacher feedback was monitored over a semester period.

3.7. Participants

To ensure the abovementioned conditions, students studying in Preparatory Class A and Preparatory Class B (both regular and evening programs) were chosen as participants. The participants already had quite similar OSYM scores. To promote the possibility of equivalent groups, the students from four classes were selected based on their writing test performance, and a statistical matching process was followed. According to Fraenkel et al. (2012: 284), in statistical matching:

Each subject is given a “predicted” score on the dependent variable, based on the correlation between the dependent variable and the variable (or variables) on which the subjects are being matched. The difference between the predicted and actual scores for each individual is then used to compare experimental and control groups.

The students, therefore, were matched depending on the success scores in the proficiency test administered at the dawn of the year (see Table 9 for matching). The names in the list were shuffled, and the control and the experimental group were decided based on their writing scores in the proficiency test. All these procedures have enabled me to minimize the possibility that there was noticeable difference between the ZPD and non-ZPD groups.

The participants of this study were adult English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Except for 3, all learners were from Turkey, ranging in ages from late teens to mid-twenties. Specifically, their ages ranged from 17 to 25 with a mean of $M= 18.4$. They were taking the writing course listed as *HZR 101 Writing* in the fall semester. Following the determination of the PREP A and PREP B classes, the researcher divided the feedback provision procedure into two modes: feedback sessions within and respective of learners’ ZPD. When the list from the Registrar’s Office is taken into account, there are 136 students who are enrolled in preparatory students. However, only 115 of the students appeared at the department. Out of this number, 97 students were included as the remaining dropped out, did not take the proficiency exam, or did not submit a written work regularly. Out of 97 students, 61 (62.9%) were female and the remaining 36 (37.1%) were male. As women outnumber men in all classes, this ratio is not surprising. As for the ZPD/non-ZPD distribution, the number of ZPD students was 48, and non-ZPD students were 49. Moreover, all participants filled in cover letters, and out of the 97 in question, 36 participants took the semi-structured interviews, 18 filled in process logs, and stimulated recall protocols were carried out with 8 participants.

Table 9: Performance Profile of the Participants before the Feedback Sessions

	Writing score	Writing anxiety mean score	Perceived self-efficacy mean score		Writing score	Writing anxiety mean score	Perceived self-efficacy mean score
ZPD1	60	2.1	80.0	Non-ZPD1	25	3.2	40.0
ZPD2	70	3.9	40.9	Non-ZPD2	45	3.1	59.1
ZPD3	45	1.8	80.0	Non-ZPD3	53	2.3	61.3
ZPD4	60	1.8	83.0	Non-ZPD4	55	2.3	26.5
ZPD5	60	3.1	75.2	Non-ZPD5	65	2.9	73.0
ZPD6	62	4.0	61.7	Non-ZPD6	45	4.1	66.1
ZPD7	58	2.5	68.7	Non-ZPD7	58	2.5	74.8
ZPD8	56	3.2	68.3	Non-ZPD8	55	4.0	16.1
ZPD9	80	2.9	62.5	Non-ZPD9	60	3.3	61.7
ZPD10	65	2.0	82.6	Non-ZPD10	50	3.3	62.6
ZPD11	52	3.2	72.6	Non-ZPD11	70	3.7	27.8
ZPD12	72	1.9	69.6	Non-ZPD12	63	3.3	50.0
ZPD13	55	3.1	54.8	Non-ZPD13	45	2.2	55.2
ZPD14	50	3.1	50.4	Non-ZPD14	70	2.9	82.6
ZPD15	50	3.0	66.1	Non-ZPD15	80	2.8	61.7
ZPD16	50	2.4	72.6	Non-ZPD16	85	3.3	57.8
ZPD17	75	2.8	64.3	Non-ZPD17	60	3.3	69.6
ZPD18	50	3.3	64.3	Non-ZPD18	64	2.3	81.7
ZPD19	45	2.4	72.6	Non-ZPD19	80	2.7	53.0
ZPD20	40	3.1	58.3	Non-ZPD20	64	2.0	90.4
ZPD21	62	2.2	73.9	Non-ZPD21	50	2.8	30.0
ZPD22	60	2.8	63.5	Non-ZPD22	58	1.9	71.7
ZPD23	65	2.5	55.2	Non-ZPD23	62	3.6	54.0
ZPD24	60	2.7	69.1	Non-ZPD24	70	2.8	70.2
ZPD25	65	3.8	53.9	Non-ZPD25	65	3.4	68.5
ZPD26	52	2.9	43.9	Non-ZPD26	63	2.9	73.9
ZPD27	55	3.0	39.1	Non-ZPD27	55	4.5	36.5
ZPD28	53	3.2	48.5	Non-ZPD28	62	4.4	29.1
ZPD29	70	2.8	78.7	Non-ZPD29	60	4.3	46.1
ZPD30	60	2.6	63.9	Non-ZPD30	60	2.7	51.7
ZPD31	60	3.2	60.4	Non-ZPD31	55	3.2	59.6
ZPD32	40	3.5	60.4	Non-ZPD32	45	3.1	60.7
ZPD33	50	4.5	27.0	Non-ZPD33	75	2.2	62.2
ZPD34	50	2.7	62.6	Non-ZPD34	55	4.3	53.0
ZPD35	74	3.3	52.2	Non-ZPD35	78	3.0	42.2
ZPD36	56	2.0	64.8	Non-ZPD36	56	3.2	59.6
ZPD37	45	3.8	36.5	Non-ZPD37	58	3.4	43.1
ZPD38	45	4.0	54.8	Non-ZPD38	65	2.4	76.1
ZPD39	30	3.2	61.7	Non-ZPD39	58	2.9	52.2
ZPD40	75	1.5	66.5	Non-ZPD40	67	2.5	47.0
ZPD41	45	2.6	61.7	Non-ZPD41	20	4.5	54.6
ZPD42	50	2.9	52.6	Non-ZPD42	60	2.6	83.9
ZPD43	60	2.9	48.7	Non-ZPD43	60	2.7	60.0
ZPD44	65	2.0	65.7	Non-ZPD44	54	2.6	50.4
ZPD45	50	2.4	47.8	Non-ZPD45	65	2.0	58.7
ZPD46	45	3.0	66.1	Non-ZPD46	62	2.7	52.6
ZPD47	70	2.7	84.8	Non-ZPD47	4	2.5	11.7
ZPD48	58	3.6	57.4	Non-ZPD48	60	3.6	36.5
				Non-ZPD49	20	3.5	26.5

With reference to their educational background, the majority of the students received their education in state schools. This is evident from the participants' responses to demographic information section in the questionnaire (see Table 10). It could be argued that the learners preferred

state schools in different levels of education, and preference for private schools increased in high schools. The competitive environment in high schools due to the imminent nationwide placement test could be provided as a justification for this increase. Apart from these, learners' study abroad experience could also be provided to have a clearer picture of the learners.

Table 10: Participants' Educational Background

	Primary school	Secondary school	High school	University
State	95	96	91	1
Private	2	1	6	1

Out of the 97 participants, 20 reported that they had been abroad. With regards to the learners' perceived proficiency, most of the learners considered themselves to be intermediate level. Reading and listening were the skills which students considered to be the most proficient, while speaking and writing were the skills students felt least competent. Judging from the mean values, it could be inferred that learners felt themselves less competent in productive skills. Following the traditional division of active and passive skills, speaking and writing are categorized as active skills. This finding is in line with the pronounced emphasis on the learners' poor performance in those skills (see Akpinar and Cakildere, 2013; Uztosun, 2011).

In support of learners' perceived poor proficiency in writing, their writing behaviour outside the language classes could be provided. When outside-the-class frequency of the skill performances is taken into account (see Figure 10), it is seen that reading is the skill mostly practiced. It is followed by listening and grammar. Writing, however, was the least practiced skill outside the classroom (see Figure 11). It seems that schools shoulder a great responsibility as there is a disconnection of learners between the in-school and out-of-school practice of L2 writing.

Figure 10: Mean Values and Standard Deviation of the Perceived Proficiency Levels across Different Language Skills

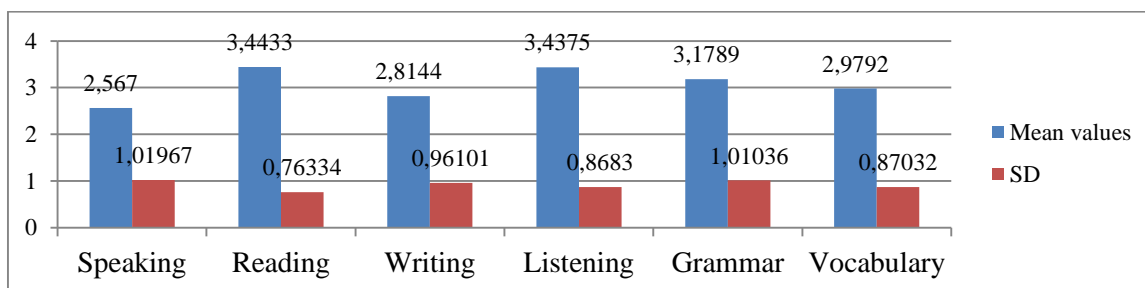
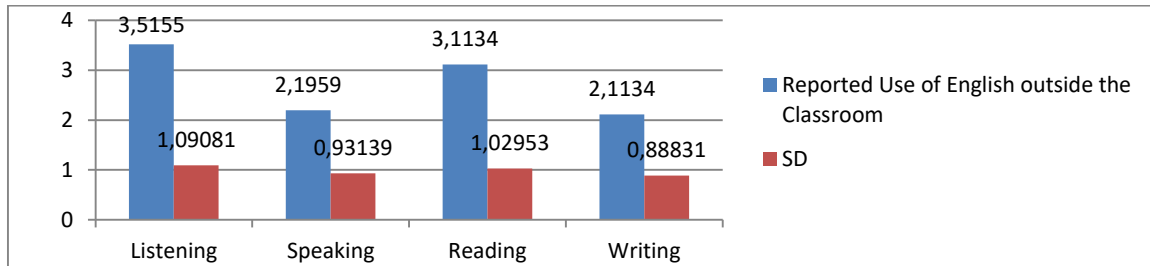


Figure 11: Reported Use of English outside the Classroom



Next, the learners were categorized into two groups based on their writing scores in the proficiency exam. After writing down the writing scores, the two groups were listed, and the odd ones in the list became the ZPD group, while the even numbers were chosen to be the non-ZPD group (see Table 11).

After the matching procedure, the researcher administered a questionnaire in which five subcomponents, namely ELF writers' achievement, writing anxiety, self-efficacy, and perceptions towards teacher feedback and writing were addressed. Moreover, out of the 97 students, 36 students participated in the focus group interviews (18 ZPD and 18 non-ZPD), 18 (9 ZPD and 9 non-ZPD) filled in process logs, stimulated recall protocols were conducted with 8 (4 ZPD and 4 non-ZPD) learners, all students (97) submitted a cover and 1 sample feedback (from a ZPD learner) from the first and the last session was transcribed to indicate the progress of the learner. The next part outlines the procedure followed during the feedback delivery.

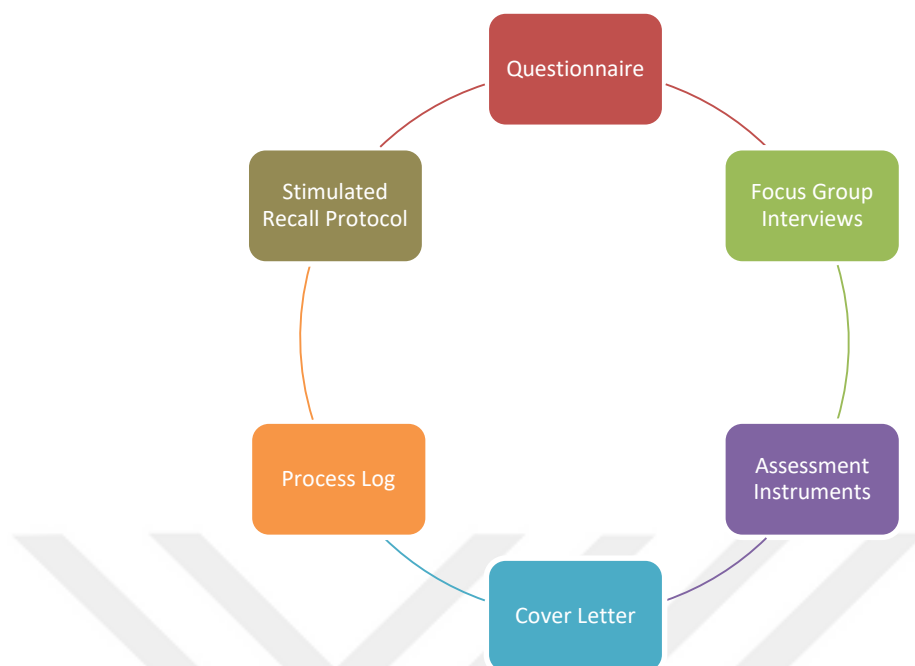
Table 11: Participants in the ZPD and non-ZPD Group

ZPD Group			Non-ZPD Group		
Pseudo name	Age	Gender	Pseudo name	Age	Gender
ZPD1	18.0	F	Non-ZPD1	21.0	M
ZPD2	19.0	F	Non-ZPD2	17.0	F
ZPD3	17.0	M	Non-ZPD3	18.0	M
ZPD4	19.0	M	Non-ZPD4	18.0	F
ZPD5	18.0	M	Non-ZPD5	18.0	F
ZPD6	18.0	F	Non-ZPD6	18.0	F
ZPD7	19.0	F	Non-ZPD7	19.0	M
ZPD8	17.0	F	Non-ZPD8	18.0	F
ZPD9	17.0	F	Non-ZPD9	17.0	F
ZPD10	18.0	F	Non-ZPD10	17.0	F
ZPD11	18.0	F	Non-ZPD11	19.0	F
ZPD12	17.0	F	Non-ZPD12	18.0	F
ZPD13	18.0	M	Non-ZPD13	18.0	F
ZPD14	18.0	F	Non-ZPD14	19.0	M
ZPD15	18.0	F	Non-ZPD15	20.0	M
ZPD16	17.0	F	Non-ZPD16	18.0	M
ZPD17	18.0	F	Non-ZPD17	19.0	F
ZPD18	23.0	F	Non-ZPD18	19.0	F
ZPD19	17.0	F	Non-ZPD19	19.0	M
ZPD20	18.0	F	Non-ZPD20	18.0	M
ZPD21	18.0	F	Non-ZPD21	19.0	F
ZPD22	18.0	F	Non-ZPD22	23.0	F
ZPD23	19.0	F	Non-ZPD23	19.0	F
ZPD24	19.0	F	Non-ZPD24	18.0	F
ZPD25	19.0	M	Non-ZPD25	18.0	F
ZPD26	19.0	F	Non-ZPD26	18.0	M
ZPD27	18.0	M	Non-ZPD27	17.0	M
ZPD28	18.0	M	Non-ZPD28	19.0	F
ZPD29	19.0	M	Non-ZPD29	19.0	F
ZPD30	18.0	M	Non-ZPD30	19.0	M
ZPD31	18.0	F	Non-ZPD31	18.0	M
ZPD32	18.0	M	Non-ZPD32	18.0	M
ZPD33	18.0	F	Non-ZPD33	18.0	M
ZPD34	19.0	F	Non-ZPD34	18.0	F
ZPD35	18.0	M	Non-ZPD35	18.0	F
ZPD36	18.0	F	Non-ZPD36	19.0	M
ZPD37	18.0	F	Non-ZPD37	18.0	F
ZPD38	18.0	M	Non-ZPD38	17.0	F
ZPD39	18.0	F	Non-ZPD39	18.0	F
ZPD40	18.0	M	Non-ZPD40	18.0	M
ZPD41	18.0	M	Non-ZPD41	18.0	F
ZPD42	18.0	F	Non-ZPD42	19.0	F
ZPD43	18.0	F	Non-ZPD43	19.0	M
ZPD44	18.0	F	Non-ZPD44	19.0	M
ZPD45	18.0	F	Non-ZPD45	18.0	F
ZPD46	18.0	M	Non-ZPD46	18.0	F
ZPD47	18.0	M	Non-ZPD47	19.0	M
ZPD48	18.0	M	Non-ZPD48	25.0	F
			Non-ZPD49	23.0	F

3.8. Instruments Used

As this is a mixed-methods study, various data gathering tools were employed in the data collection process. The following figure (see Figure 12) illustrates the instruments used in data gathering.

Figure 12: The Instruments Used in the Study



3.8.1. Questionnaire

A comprehensive questionnaire was used to elicit demographic data; identify the participants' second language writing anxiety, attitudes toward L2 writing, English composition writing self-efficacy, and mediated writing strategies; and explores their perceptions of teacher feedback. Some information regarding each component is provided below.

The first component, section A, consists of demographic questions and perceived English use. This part aims to gather information about the background of the participants. These items aim at exploring learners' language proficiency, writing background and their writing practices in general (see Part A in Appendix 5-6). Particularly, the participants' gender, age, graduation background, study abroad experience, perceived proficiency across different language skills, reported use of English as well as writing outside the class helped the researcher get insight into the responses elicited from the data obtained. Such information on the background and English use is deemed to be helpful to have a clearer idea of contextual considerations.

The second part is devoted to elicit information about the perceptions on teacher feedback. This section aims at exploring the use of teacher-written feedback and was adapted from Bultrón (2014). The adapted version consists of 22 items aiming at crystallizing teacher feedback practices and students' preferred feedback modality (see Part B in the questionnaire). It is scored on a five-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The third section attempts to capture the learners' degree of second language anxiety. To this end, an adapted version of the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was used. This questionnaire was adapted from the SLWAI (Cheng, 2004), and it consists of 22 items. These items aim at defining the extent to which learners of a second/foreign language feel anxious. The questionnaire proved to be reliable and valid (Cheng, 2004), and was adapted in many studies. It is scored on a five-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Four of the items (11, 15, 17, and 21) were negatively worded and reverse scored. The anxious learner (a high level of anxiety) according to this scale is the one who scores above 65 points, the one who scores 50 or less according to the scale is deemed to have a low level of anxiety, the ones who score 51 and 65 are considered to be moderately anxious. The SLWAI consists of three components, namely Cognitive Anxiety, Somatic Anxiety, and Avoidance Behaviour. These subcomponents were found to be reliable in piloting session: 0.894 (overall reliability), 0.861 (Cognitive anxiety), 0.886 (Somatic anxiety), 0.708 (avoidance behaviour-if one item deleted) (see the reliability statistics for the abovementioned subcomponents). The statements of the original 22 items were translated and modified by the researcher so as to make the translated version reader friendly (see Part C in the questionnaire).

Fourth, it was thought that delineating learners' preferences would not be detached from their attitudes and motivation towards writing. Therefore, learners' motivation and perceptions on writing were aimed to be captured. To achieve this, Bultrón's (2014) questionnaire on the use of teacher written feedback in essay writing was adapted to the research context. This instrument involved some statements ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). This part consists of 22 items, and these items capturing the degree of learners' engagement in writing practices were developed, and the role and the type of feedback that triggered learners' motivation were identified. These items were lacking the sociocultural aspects. Therefore, some items were added to see a picture of the learners' engagement in writing (see Part D in the questionnaire). Part D section consists of 2 subsections: teacher feedback practices and teacher feedback preferences. The teacher feedback practices part involves 8 statements about the teachers' feedback giving patterns and students' reactions to it. The teacher feedback preferences part contains 14 items that aim at capturing the students' preferred feedback modality in writing classes. Ratings were done on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

In addition to the four sections above, the fifth section attempts to identify the English Composition Writing Self-Efficacy of students. This part involves 23 items which aim at measuring the degree of learners' perceptions of their writing competence. Since the focus of the semester was on paragraph writing, the items were particularly designed for paragraph writing. A considerable number of learners do not feel themselves adequately equipped with writing proficiency; therefore, building or helping learners nurture their self-esteem is necessary. However, whether mediated feedback sessions help learners develop their self-esteem more than the feedback practices in process

writing approach is yet to be substantiated by research. I adapted the self-efficacy scale developed by Pajares et al. (2001) to measure the learners' tendency (see Part E in the questionnaire).

The scale comprised of 0-100 rate ranges and included statements that assessed perceived writing self-efficacy beliefs. The focus of the items ranged from higher order of concerns of paragraph development to lower order concerns of paragraph development. The participating students were asked to rate themselves from "cannot do at all" at one end of the scale, "completely certain can do" at the opposite end and "moderately can do" in the middle. Making use of the self-efficacy measurement guidelines developed by Bandura, many researchers experimented to contextualize the scale frames particularly for their own field and context. These scales typically had a range from 0 to 100; however, some other claimed that 5 or 7 point Likert scales should be used instead of a wide range. However, Bandura (1997; 2006) argued that scales which have fewer intervals run the risk of having less reliability and sensitivity. Another support in favour of using a 0 to 100 scale comes from Pajares et al. (2001), who stated that unlike a 5 point Likert scale, a self-efficacy scale of 0 to 100 range was a stronger predictor of performance. For effective discrimination purposes, 0 to 100 scale was used to assess participants' perceived self-efficacy in writing.

Even though the quantitative part of the questionnaire contained many items to identify learners' orientation towards feedback preferences, further information regarding the learner's engagement in L2 writing was deemed to be necessary to establish a sound ground for discussion. Therefore, open-ended questions about learners' emotions, favourable activities, and the support they receive from others were asked to the participants. This part involves 6 parts which attempt to discover the mediated strategies that L2 writers are involved in. Since writing is considered as a mediated activity in sociocultural aspects, analysing the interactions of learners and environment is of great necessity (see Part F in the questionnaire). Again, I asked my colleagues who have taught writing to make sure that the items were digestible, and, after a negotiation process, we built consensus on 7 parts as well as an extra part to help learners express their further wishes, expectations, complaints, and/or suggestions, if any.

3.8.2. Focus Group Interviews

Focus group interviews involve "a group format whereby an interviewer records the responses of a small group" (Dörnyei, 2007: 144). Based on the collective experience of the participants, the respondents can get into an insightful discussion after brainstorming together. As for the distinguishing aspects of interviews in this study, they were made on a voluntary basis, and 36 students in groups of six took the semi-structured interviews. The selection of the students was done on a voluntary basis, and half of the students were taken from the ZPD students while the other half were ZPD ones. The word voluntary should not be misleading and should not be equated with biased. Such voluntary-based selection was done to promote the involvement of the participants. To make

sure that the participants are accessible and available at different stages of the study, the voluntary basis of participation was not deemed to be inherently wrong.

It is suggested that the ideal number for focus group interviews is six (Dörnyei, 2007); therefore, I divided the volunteering students into groups of six. One observation regarding the responses in the focus group interviews is about the similar answers. Brainstorming during the interview process is expected to help the participants to challenge or get inspirations from each other. However, I noticed that what one respondent said usually became a reference point, and the participants rarely challenged each other during the interviews (see sample focus group interview in Appendix 9). The interview items aimed at soliciting the respondents' perceptions, experiences and preferences of written feedback (see Appendix 8 for the whole items). At the beginning of the interviews, the respondents were told that the talk would be recorded for research purposes, and their identity would be kept confidential. Upon getting the approval of the participants and their consent form (see Appendix 1), I conducted the interviews. A quiet atmosphere was chosen for this purpose because the atmosphere chosen, especially with reference to acoustic considerations, would affect the voice quality of the records. Moreover, since I acted both as a researcher and the writing teacher, I took several measures to ensure trustworthiness of the data.

To ensure the credibility of the researcher, research methods, conclusions, Patton's (2002: 552-553) inquiry elements, namely the credibility of the researcher, rigorous methods, and the philosophical belief of the qualitative inquiry were taken into consideration. Patton's (1990) considerations of the researcher were highlighted. The following information about my stance and position as a researcher is provided:

- professional training,
- biases and experience in the situation,
- understanding of the method of data analysis,
- how issues of entry and continued evaluation or observation were handled,
- the conceptual framework upon which the study was built

I started teaching writing 10 years ago, and for the specified period, I have thought writing in accordance with the process approach. In line with the process approach to writing, I have been advocating the use of writing portfolio. Prior to my current assignment in the English Language and Literature Department, I was using on-line portfolio at KTU SOBE and the student drafts were corrected using colour codes and open-ended comments were provided for each draft (see <http://www.mywritingportfolio.net/mwp/> for further information). Currently I have undertaken a voluntary task in the Writing Centre of KTU Department of English Language and Literature. The centre provides individual consultations with writing instructors, as well as group workshops. I have

also attended seminars on writing assessment out of my professional curiosity. Apart from the departmental research courses, I also took qualitative and quantitative research classes as a visiting student, and I used qualitative and quantitative inquiries in some of my previous research. Since I was the practitioner (course teacher) and the researcher at the same time, my stance as a researcher could be described, in the classification Cohen et al. (2011: 457), as “observer-as-participant” (see Table 12). I did not inform the students about my position as a researcher as I did not want their responses to be biased. Being both a researcher and a teacher had several advantages and limitations. First, it gave me the opportunity to observe the participants’ behaviour in their natural learning environment. Moreover, the viewpoints of the participants rather than the course teacher were explored through our social interaction. This gave me the opportunity to create, recreate, assimilate and accumulate first-hand information through my observations and students’ reports and interviews.

Table 12: The Researcher Stances

<i>Researcher role</i>	<i>The degree of participation</i>
The complete Participant	A member of the group who conceals her/his role as an observer, whose knowledge of the group/situation may be intimate and who may gain ‘insider knowledge’, but who may be viewed with suspicion or resentment by the other members when his/her true role comes to light and who may lack the necessary objectivity to observe reliably.
The participant-as-observer	A member of the group who reveals his/her role as an observer, whose knowledge of the group/situation may be intimate and who may gain ‘insider knowledge’, but who may lack the necessary objectivity to observe reliably and with whom confidences and confidential data may not be shared or given respectfully.
The observer-as-participant	Not a member of the group, but who may participate a little or peripherally to the group’s activities, and whose role as researcher is clear and overt, as unobtrusive as possible.
The complete Observer	Only observes (overt or covert) and is detached from the group, e.g., an outside observer, or where the observer is not covert but whose presence is unnoticed by the group e.g., an observer at a crowded rail station.

Teacher as a researcher is a great opportunity to empower teachers as well as stripping them out of restrictions precluding them from creating their distinctive voices (Kayaoğlu, 2015). According to Hui and Grossman (2008), “teacher as a researcher” role could promote meaningful classroom experiences. In many situations “researchers” and “teachers” are assigned identities which do not seem to be compatible with each other. Such a position pushes teachers to be confined to take a “consumer” identity. However, teacher as a researcher paradigm, even though having limitations such as researcher bias (Best and Khan, 2003), has considerable merit in empowering teachers to become savvy practitioners.

Another plus point to teacher-as a researcher or the observer-as-participant position is that teacher as a researcher could be seen as a significant step to contribute to knowledge democracy (Rowell and Hong, 2017). Knowledge democracy is associated with “widely shared, jointly generated and utilized to help marginalized groups to gain voice, re-frame issues and debates and

expand their visibility and power” (Brown et al., 2003: 85). In language learning/teaching contexts, native speakers and native speaking countries have been the reference point for many aspects, though sometimes undeservedly. Knowledge democracy serves as an alternative globalization rather than the sheer globalization of a Western monopoly (Rowell and Hong, 2017). When approaching “knowledge/s”, it is important to keep various epistemologies in mind. Therefore, teacher as a researcher could be a way out for our search of equity. Through such equity, the researchers are likely to be empowered as the “agents” of knowledge construction rather than becoming passive consumers. Such a move might be a key to go beyond Eurocentric epistemology and a monoculture of knowledge construction.

However, that I was the researcher and the teacher at the same time made me cautious about some ethical concerns. One of the greatest problems in researcher as a participant situations is about the researcher’s objectivity. In this case, to bring a degree of objectivity to the research (Robson, 2002: 98) and minimize observer effect such as inconsistent, selective coding, I tried to keep some distance with the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). I told the students that I was gathering data for research purposes, but I did not reveal all the details, rather I did specify that the research was on feedback effectiveness and their writing achievement. This lack of emphasis on the real purpose was in line with Cohen et al.’s (2007: 274) call for measures to promote objectivity:

In educational research it is easier to conduct a blind experiment rather than a double blind experiment, and it is even possible not to tell participants that they are in an experiment at all, or to tell them that the experiment is about X when, in fact, it is about Y, i.e. to ‘put them off the scent’.

So as to minimize the role of “teacher as authority,” the students were assured that participation in the interviews and questionnaires was to be carried out on a voluntary basis, and all participants were treated fairly. Therefore, students felt themselves unpressured to take part in research. The students were informed about the research, and the ethical considerations were taken into account. They were told that the data to be gathered were to be used only for research purposes and their identity would be kept confidential. A consent form (see Appendix 1) was given to the participants who took part in the study. Findings from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire (pre-and post), process logs, stimulated recall protocols and cover letters were also examined to triangulate the findings.

3.8.3. Process Logs

The need for understanding the perceptions of learners about the effectiveness of feedback practices has already been noted. It is expected that the learners’ experiment with feedback especially before during and after the writing stages could be informative of their writing development. Therefore, process logs were employed to gather data about the developmental processes of the

learners. Process logs have been extensively used to capture student reactions to writing classes or the strategies they use in order to complete their writing tasks (Hyland, 2003). A rich account of participant reflections could be helpful to elicit information about the social and psychological processes and views regarding the writing tasks. Moreover, these logs could “supply a meta-language to talk about their experiences” (Hyland, 2003: 258).

The treatment or feedback sessions took place after the second week. The students received feedback on their paragraphs submitted the week before. The participants wrote process logs (see Appendix 12-13) for the paragraphs they wrote and submitted them along with their completed paragraphs. In this study, the process log adapted from Lei (2008) was used. The instrument attempts to elicit students’ perceptions and practices on what particularly happens in the preparation, during writing and revision processes. The following are the questions addressed in the process logs.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section I: Preparation for writing

1. What is the assignment topic? What are you required to do? Do you like it? Why or why not?
2. Do you know much about the assignment topic? If yes, what are they and where was your knowledge from?
3. How are you going to get ideas for the assignment?
4. What are your goals in writing the assignment?
5. What are your roles when writing the assignment? Have they affected your preparation? If yes, in what way?
6. Did you talk about the topic with anyone before writing? If yes, whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?
7. What did you actually do to get ideas for the assignment?
8. What tool/resources (e.g., the Internet, instructor, tutor) did you use and how did you use them in the pre-writing stage?
9. In which language did you prepare for the assignment and why did you use this language or these languages?

Section II: Writing a paragraph (including the whole process of writing and revising until the submission of your paragraph)

10. Have your goals affected how you wrote the paragraph? If yes, in what way?
 11. Did your goals change during the writing process? If yes, what are the changes?
 12. Did you talk about the paragraph with anyone during writing? Whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?
 13. Are there any problems in your writing? If yes, can you describe five major problems and how you handled them?
 14. Are you satisfied with your final version? Why or why not?
 15. Can the final version represent your writing ability? Why or why not?
 16. What tools/resources (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use and how did you use them when writing the first draft?
 17. What tools (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use for revision and how did you use them?
- (Adapted from Lei, 2008)

As the questions indicate, the learner’s familiarity with the topic assigned, how they feel about the topic, the sources they are likely to benefit, writing goals, target readers, and the medium of the

writing task were requested to be defined. Following the report on the preparation process, the learners were asked to report on whether there were any changes in the target readers, goals and perceptions. The problems the students encountered in the writing process (if any), the tools benefitted, and satisfaction with the current form/draft were some issues the students were requested to elaborate. A total of 18 students filled in the process logs (see sample answers to a process log in Appendix 14).

3.8.4. Stimulated Recall Protocols

Stimulated recall is one of the introspective methods that is used to elicit data about the thought processes that people go through when they are involved in a task or activity (Gass and Mackey, 2000). Henderson et al. (2010: 3) describe it as “an empirically rigorous introspection data collection tool that allows the interviewer to elicit, identify and explore participants’ thinking.” The introduction of stimulated recall methodology into language acquisition has led to an increase in our understanding of how language acquisition takes place.

Understanding how language acquisition takes place is not an easy process. Since such a process is not a linear one, people are likely to provide multiple realities for their language development. To put it for feedback situations, employing an introspective research methodology could prove to provide enriching justifications for how people react or respond to teachers’ praise, criticisms and suggestions.

It is assumed that verbalization of internal thought processes would help capture the complicated nature of learner decisions. Learner decisions is not a matter of “all-or-none” procedure, rather it should be facilitated through cognitive and psychological processes. According to Corder (1973), spontaneity in data gathering would not give the full picture. Thus, people should be triggered to elicit information.

Stimulated recall methodology uses visual or oral prompts to help the respondents or learners recall the mental processes they use. Gass and Mackey (2000) make it clear that some help should be given to learners to guide and assist them to access to the original event:

(...) stimulated recalls are used to explore learners’ thought processes or strategies by asking learners to reflect on their thoughts after they have carried out a task. Stimulated recalls are carried out with some degree of support, for example, providing learners with an audio-recording of themselves speaking, or giving them a picture they drew in response to L2 directives. While hearing or seeing these stimuli, learners are asked to recall their motivations and thought processes during the original event.

In this study, the stimulated recall protocols were used to triangulate the findings from the open-ended questionnaires as well as the semi-structured interviews. When eliciting data regarding

the mental constructs of people, respondents are likely to produce data which may not establish direct reference to the concrete contextual details (Borg, 2006). Moreover, it is assumed that asking the respondents about their responses to feedback might prove to be less productive than asking them about their responses to particular teacher feedback. Therefore, rather than asking the respondents, say, how they feel after their failure to respond to a suggested response, it might be a better idea to provide a direct reference through making it more accessible to them (see Appendix 15 for the questions addressed and Appendix 16 for a sample transcription of a stimulated recall protocol).

Stimulated recall methodology was employed in feedback situations in many studies (e.g., Alkhatib, 2015; Karaağaç, 2014; Mirzaee and Hasrati, 2014; Yu and Lee, 2014). Particularly, in this study, I asked the respondents to go over their portfolio tasks. By showing their drafts, the teacher attempted to stimulate the respondents to recall their experiences. In this way, some information was elicited regarding the changes the learner has made or was supposed to make. I asked them to clarify what they had done in specific situations. For instance, “You have made changes here correctly (or corrected successfully) from the feedback provided by the researcher. Could you please tell me what helped you to change (or correct)?” is a request from the respondents to understand their justifications for their reactions to teacher feedback.

A total of 8 respondents were interviewed. Half of the respondents belonged to the ZPD group, that is, they were provided feedback within their ZPD, and the remaining 4 belonged to the non-ZPD group, which meant they received random help. The analyses of the stimulated recall protocols as well as the content analysis of the other interviews were carried out by me.

3.8.5. Cover Letters

Cover letters are used in previous research to triangulate data (Aydın, 2010; Yildirim, 2013), and, in this study, cover letters helped me to benefit from the learners’ reflective journey. A typical cover letter is a written statement which enables the writers to reflect on what they have written. In this study, the cover letters sought to identify the student’s reflections of his strengths and weaknesses, traces of development, the most and the least favourite writing pieces, and the techniques benefitted during the writing process (see Appendix 10). The reflections on those topics were informative of the learner’s perceived challenges and developments. A total of 97 cover letters were analysed using the content analysis, and the findings are elaborated in Chapter 4.

What makes cover letters to be a research instrument which particularly provides data relevant to this study is that the students are in a position to give overall judgments of their experiment with paragraphing. The cover letters included seven questions in which the learners were asked to reflect on their journey into portfolio development. The items were adapted from Bullock and Weinberg (2009), and they attempted to crystallize the learners’ experiences when they were writing

paragraphs. Particularly, they aimed at identifying the learners' perceived traces of development as well as their perceived challenges or emphasis for development, emotional reactions to the paragraph topics (the most and the least favourite paragraphs), the techniques that work well when they are writing and their overall judgement of their authorship (see a sample cover letter in Appendix 11).

Using cover letters has a valid rationale in this study. Unearthing the traces of development is deemed to be a necessary act because exploration of the students' self-judgements rather than scores might be more meaningful to help identify the cause and effect relationship between the learners' act and their perception. At a time when numbers gleaned from quantitative studies seem to resonate more than hidden learner stories, lending a sympathetic ear to learner voices and making them part and parcel of decision-making is a salient need. Moreover, learning about the learners' reactions towards the writing tasks could also be informative of their perceptions to drafts in particular and L2 writing in general.

The instructor informed the students about the cover letter writing and recommended them to put things in a personal and relaxed tone. The aim here is to help learners create a bridge between their L2 writing competence and emotional states. Connecting to and with the students at an emotional level helped create a bigger picture of how they view writing tasks as well as their own writing self-efficacy. Such a critical appreciation is thought to contribute to the learners in terms of developing their self-assessment skills, creating their own learning agenda rather than being preoccupied by an institutionally-driven program.

3.8.6. Assessment Instruments

Assessment instruments include the proficiency test scores, the first and the second mid-term exam results as well as portfolio evaluations. The proficiency exam was administered at the beginning of the semester. A writing task which was taken from TELC Mock Examination for B2-C1 level (see Appendix 18) was administered. Next, the first and the second mid-term exams were carried out and at the end of the semester, the students handed in their portfolios (see portfolio submission form in Appendix 17), which were used for the final grades. All the assessment instruments were included in the study because it is believed the impact of feedback practices may not quickly be manifested. Therefore, in many studies posttests as well as delayed posttests are calculated to see the progression of the learners over a period of time. Moreover, the learners' writing performance were also measured in the mid-term exams. The use of several instruments for assessment gave me the opportunity to look at the learners' progression not only in timed-writing tasks but also extended assignments. The details of the measurements in the assessments are given in 3.12 (reliability validity concerns).

3.9. Feedback Provision Procedure/Treatment

Feedback provision procedures includes both mediated and unmediated feedback practices. Mediated feedback practice and unmediated practice is also named as feedback within the learners' zone of proximal development or feedback irrespective of learners' zone of proximal development. Feedback, either mediated or unmediated was delivered to learners throughout a 14-week program. The details of the feedback provision are described below.

First, all students were asked to respond to a writing task. This was done to check whether the classes really match in terms of their proficiency at the beginning of the study. Since this is an experimental study, such a concern for matching is deemed to be necessary. The first composition of the students was taken as a departure to see their writing proficiency, and it was graded by two examiners who have teaching and assessment experience in writing. In this way, the learners' initial profile was obtained, and it gave some insights into the problematic areas that are to be treated in due course. The learners were not subject to a focused corrective pattern, rather a variety of errors were handled in the feedback sessions. Since the school follows skill-based courses, not all grammar errors were the focus as I, as an instructor, believe that grammar obsession will turn out to be yet another error hunting procedure.

The written data consists of all the teacher feedback given to 97 EFL writers on a 14-week English proficiency course at a Turkish university. Students both in the control and the experimental group were required to submit a paragraph of 150-200 words each week, and their first drafts were provided feedback within one week. After their revisions, they were either provided feedback one more time or asked to write the final draft or put their second draft as the final version for each paragraph assignment. In line with the process approach conventions, multiple drafts and extensive feedback were used (Raimes, 1992). However, considering the contextual factors, several adaptations have been made. First, surface revision requests were not always delayed to the final editing. The followers of the process writing pedagogy usually emphasize a delay of the form-focused feedback to the final draft, and content-focused feedback is handled in the earlier drafts. However, as Ashwell (2000) argued, this order might be amenable to change given that content-based feedback priority does not always result in expected outcomes. Moreover, in line with the pedagogy, multiple drafting was practiced. The learners, in many situations wrote two drafts before the final version. However, if the topic sentence was strong enough and was supported adequately, a third draft was not requested. As learners were informed about the multiple drafting at the very beginning of the semester, they were recommended to type on a keyboard. Making such kind of adaptations considering the contextual needs and sensitivities is in accord with the post-process approach to writing. Writing in the post-process approach is not comprised of a single process that could be approached using a prescriptive model. Therefore, in order establish mediation, context-bound considerations such as the number of tasks, topic assignment, submission period should be taken into consideration. Such

considerations might be helpful to establish knowledge democracy. The reconsideration of the process approach is in line with the call for “knowledge democracy” (Openjuru et al., 2015). Rather than a passive acceptance of the western essayist traditions, the search for ways to make the process approach aligned with contextual needs might be a more reasonable investment for writing teachers.

The three functions of feedback as suggested by Hyland and Hyland (2001: 186), namely praise, criticism, and suggestions, were included in these written sessions except for paragraphs which demonstrated a very high or low degree of commitment. Of these functions, praise refers to positive valuation of one’s work, criticism points to the expression of disapproval or dissatisfaction, and suggestion refers to “an explicit recommendation for remediation, a relatively clear and accomplishable action for improvement, which is sometimes referred to as “constructive criticism.”

It is thought that the treatment part cannot be detached from instruction. Therefore, before moving into the procedures followed in feedback sessions, some information regarding the writing programme followed was provided. The following are the activities carried out in the classes.

3.9.1. Implementation of the Writing Programme

The writing program took 14 weeks, and the contents of the program was aligned to the Introduction to Academic Writing (3rd ed.) by Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue (2007). The following steps were taken in line with the programme.

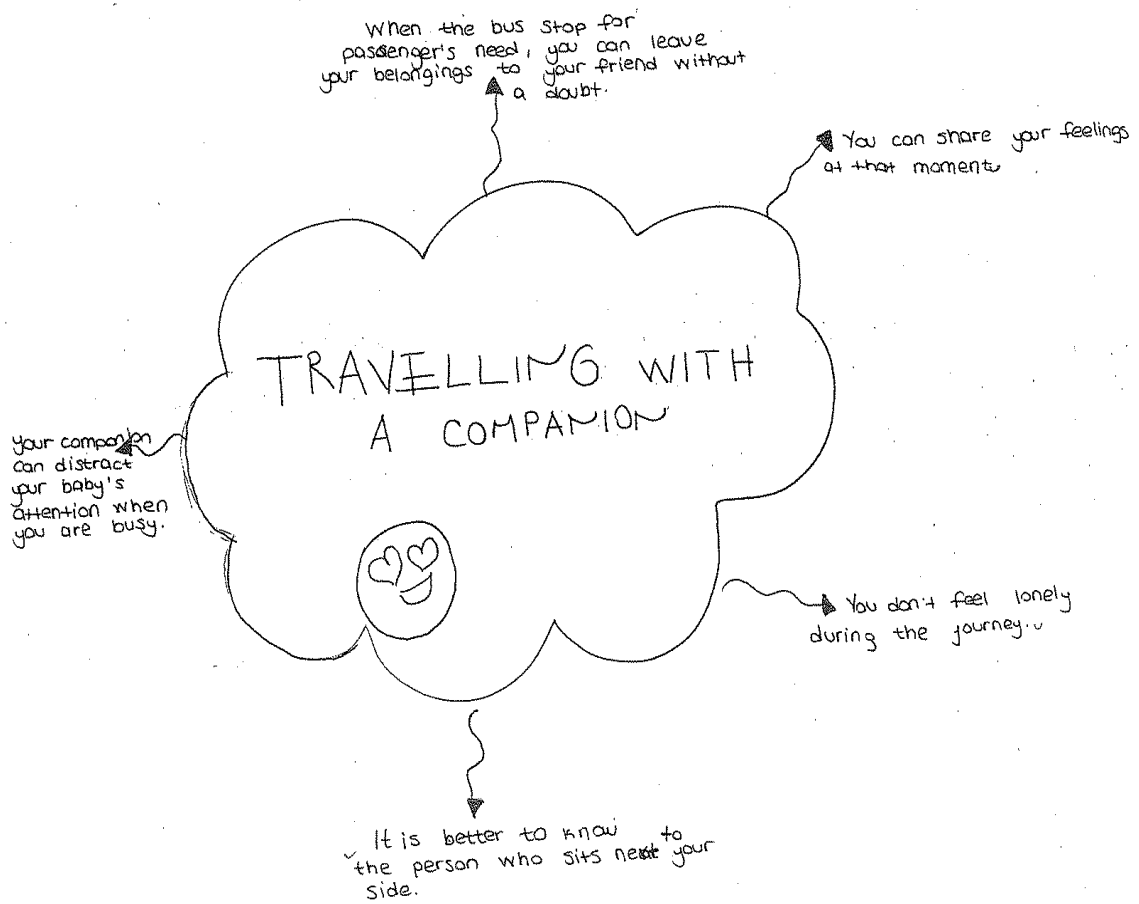
3.9.1.1. Pre-writing

At this stage, I did my best to trigger learners’ creativity. In this way learners are encouraged to find their way to approach a topic. Rather than producing a written work, developing ideas is the most significant step that learners can take. Focusing on accuracy or form is a burden on learners when developing ideas. Thus, the learners, before getting into accuracy concerns, were encouraged to develop a meaningful organization. It is the meaning that counts at this stage, and, to achieve this, I and the students spent a concerted effort to develop a coherent piece of writing. I provided peer feedback sheets (see Appendix 22) to students to help them approach the written texts with some considerations in mind. The main aim of the pre-writing stage is to help students generate ideas and encourage them to write (Brown, 2007). In this way, learners are expected to approach the tasks with ease and greater confidence.

3.9.1.1.1. Brainstorming

It might be demanding for learners to jump into writing all of a sudden. Therefore, they were paired or grouped to produce some ideas (words, phrases, sentences) together. Figure 13 shows a sample brainstorming activity of a group of learners. The brainstorming activity was used as a departure point for writing development and the students were encouraged to think ahead before writing the whole draft.

Figure 13: Sample Brainstorming Activity



3.9.1.1.2. Planning

Before the writing stage, the students were encouraged to plan their writing or organize the information. This planning could be carried out as a group activity to make things more cooperative and digestible (see Appendix 23 for photos from group work). An example of an outline is provided below (see another outline in Appendix 31). This outline provides a plan of the steps to be taken in each part of the paragraph.

Sample Outline

Regular/B

(Group Assignment)

BAD DRIVERS

T.S.: Three kinds of bad drivers

The first kind is wannabe Grandprix racer.

- drives aggressively

- steps on the gas and roars away a millisecond before it turns green

- drives in the passing lane

- ignores speed limit

The second kind is modern multitasker.

(drivers such as working mothers and overworked businessmen and women)

- eat something, drink something or discipline children on the phone when driving

The third is cautious driver.

- drives slowly and carefully

- drives no faster than 40 mph on highways & slows down to 30 on every curve

- comes to a full stop before inching around the corner

C.S.: 3 types of bad drivers: speedsters, slowsters or just inattentive drivers

3.9.1.2. Drafting

After brainstorming, learners compose their first draft. First, they are encouraged develop their ideas, and not to worry about accuracy (Seow, 2002). It is assumed that obsession with accuracy might not prove to be forward-moving for learners. Multiple drafting is necessary to help learners organize their ideas and present them in a fluent manner. Feedback plays a salient role in achieving and guiding multiple drafting (Hyland and Hyland, 2006a; 2006b). The feedback might be given by the teacher, students (peers) or self-evaluation might be carried out (see sample group work activity in Appendix 20 and 32).

3.9.1.3. Evaluating, Structuring and Editing

As the writing was almost ready for the readers, it was high time students focused on form and produced an accurate form of writing. Here, the peers and the teacher could help promote the accuracy of the text through their feedback.

Self-editing is a method in which the author goes through his/her own text. This editing covers hunting for errors, revising the content and so on. It is always a good idea to use a self-evaluation rubric to guide the learners as they may not be fully familiar with what they are expected to do. To this end, self-editing sheets at the end of the coursebook followed were used to encourage the learners keep track of their own writing development.

In proofreading or peer-editing phase, the students change their drafts with others and an evaluation process starts. It might be difficult for novice writers to get into editing process at first. However, teachers can offer some training and provide some checklists to overcome this issue (<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/approaches-process-writing>) (see Appendix 21 for a peer feedback worksheet and Appendix 33 for peer feedback).

3.9.2. Procedure for Learners in the Control Group

The non-ZPD student received random help from the teacher; that is, the teacher did not take the learner's ZPD into consideration when providing the feedback. The learners in this group received unmediated feedback. Unmediated feedback refers to lack of reciprocity in this study. Since the learners in the control group received feedback not attuned to their ZPD, there was not a special scaffolding effort on the learners' drafts. Correction codes were used to indicate the suggested repairs, and comments were made to evaluate the learners' performance (see Appendix 34 for correction symbols). In the second and the third weeks, to reach a consensus with the learners, I explained what each code refers to. The evaluation of the student performance was done both considering the learners' paragraphs in the timed assessments and the portfolio. The students were told that the portfolios had a greater contribution to their overall writing grade, so they knew about the significance of the tasks for their writing development as well as writing grades.

The procedure for the control group included only written feedback (see Appendices 25-30 for sample teacher written feedback). The feedback applications took place not in the presence of the learners. Therefore, out-of-class period was chosen for the feedback applications. The feedback provision procedure included the revision requests for grammar mistakes as well as provision of suggestions regarding the content, vocabulary, organization and mechanical considerations. There was a balanced teacher response of the form-focused and content-focused patterns, and the form-focused as well as meaning-focused patterns were handled together, rather than following certain

cycles. Feedback for an average paragraph took between 5-8 minutes, and usually in the comments part, I tried to sandwich criticism and praise in order to soften a critical blow.

3.9.3. The Treatment Procedure for the Experimental Group

The experimental group was created from the students taking writing classes in the preparatory program. These feedback sessions were scheduled to take place outside their weekly writing classes, and sometimes it was held at the end of the writing classes. The students were told that they were supposed take part in feedback sessions each week, and these sessions were held free of charge.

The learners in this group received feedback attuned to their ZPD or mediated feedback. Mediation here refers to the interaction between the teacher and the learner. It is assumed that through such interactions, or modifications, learners are expected to go further (Feuerstein and Feuerstein, 1991). The mediation process could be taken as an extension of Feuerstein's proposition that "a child's learning is shaped by the intervention of significant adults" (Williams and Burden, 1997: 67). In order to achieve mediation, attempts were made to empower learners through helping them to learn knowledge skills and strategies, provide sustainable interaction, achieve reciprocity, and assist learners until they become self-directed. Such efforts to create interaction and reciprocity mainly resulted in establishing eye-contact, building rapport with the learners, and co-construction of meaning (see Appendix 22 for photos from mediated feedback practices). Therefore, unlike a teacher-learner role, the teachers or feedback providers are assigned a mediator role in the feedback sessions. Such a role makes teachers learning partners, which seems to shatter the traditional hierarchical roles of teachers and students.

Unlike the teacher feedback which is merely written for the remaining students, these feedback sessions involved face-to-face feedback sessions in which the feedback was mediated. Therefore, the students usually considered it as face-to-face or oral feedback even though it was both oral and written. At the end of the feedback sessions, semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 7-8) were carried out with the participating students to get their perceptions about their feedback practices and preferences. As part of the course syllabus, the students were assigned to write one out of class paragraph per week on a topic assigned by the teachers for a total of six paragraphs (see Appendix 4 for the course syllabus).

The learners were informed that they would receive feedback during their feedback sessions with the researcher. The sessions were conducted in a one-on-one format in the tutor's office or in the classroom. Each session lasted about 15 minutes for per person at the beginning of the study, while it decreased to 7-8 minutes in the following weeks. At the end of the feedback practices, some stimulated recall protocols were administered to see how the feedback provided was interpreted by the learners.

As previously noted, the learner in the experimental group received the treatment or feedback within his/her ZPD. Feedback within one's ZPD actually refers to the assistance or help provided by the teacher. Since different learners have different ZPD levels, the degree of assistance provided for each learner is usually different, and Aljaafreh and Lantolf's Regulatory Scale was used to determine the required degree of assistance or see whether any assistance is necessary (see sample feedback in Appendix 19).

The degree of the assistance is determined through the Regulatory Scale developed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994). A help continuum of 12 levels are described in this scale, and at the one end of the continuum stands implicit help, which indicates that the learner can develop self-regulation. At the opposite end of the continuum is other regulation, where the help is explicit. 0 at the first level indicates that the learner is provided no help. L1 refers to role of the teacher as a potential partner in a particular setting, and, in Level 2, the teacher reads aloud the part containing an error. At this stage, no explicit help is provided, and the learner is considered as approximating the self-regulation end of the continuum. The opposite end of the continuum, however, shows that learner responses or revisions are other regulated, and the help provided is explicit. One thing to highlight here is that throughout the stages in the continuum mentioned above, there exists a dialogic interaction. The dialogic nature of the interaction is in line with the Vygotsky's emphasis of sociocultural aspects on accounting for one's learning. Therefore, in this interaction, the teacher shoulders the responsibility of a more capable peer whose assistance or scaffolding might facilitate student learning.

The feedback was provided in a face-to-face format. However, it should be noted that not all face-to-face feedback sessions have a sociocultural perspective in terms of ZPD. Therefore, Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) frame was employed to provide scaffolding in learners' ZPD. A regulatory scale was employed to determine the stages that learners go through. Here, the learners were asked to read and find the errors. After this stage, the teacher made some implicit attempts to help the participants diagnose and repair their errors. Depending on the feedback receiver's interpretation of the errors, the teacher adjusted the tune and provided due assistance (see Table 13).

During the first session, learners were asked to take a proficiency test in which they were presented their first writing task. The scores assigned on the proficiency test served as an indication of the participants' writing proficiency. Due to practical considerations, a writing test rather than a comprehensive proficiency test seemed to be a more reasonable instrument as the learners' overall proficiency would not be a good indicator of their writing proficiency especially in exam-driven contexts like Turkey. As the high stakes test include grammar and reading components, writing, listening and speaking skills are not given priority.

Table 13: Regulatory Scale

Regulatory Scale-Implicit (Strategic) to Explicit
0. Tutor asks the learner to read, find the errors, and correct them independently, prior to the tutorial.
1. Construction of a “collaborative frame” prompted by the presence of the tutor as a potential dialogic partner.
2. Prompted or focused reading of the sentence that contains the error by the learner or the tutor.
3. Tutor indicates that something may be wrong in a segment (e.g., sentence, clause, line)-” Is there anything wrong in this sentence?”
4. Tutor rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognizing the error.
5. Tutor narrows down the location of the error (e.g., tutor repeats or points to the specific segment which contains the error).
6. Tutor indicates the nature of the error, but does not identify the error (e.g., “There is something wrong with the tense marking here”).
7. Tutor identifies the error (“You can’t use an auxiliary here”).
8. Tutor rejects learner’s unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error.
9. Tutor provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form (e.g., “It is not really past but something that is still going on”).
10. Tutor provides the correct form.
11. Tutor provides some explanation for use of the correct form.
12. Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.

Source: Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 471)

The first post-test (Week 12) was administered 10 weeks after the treatment session, and the delayed post-test took place 3 weeks after the post-test session. During both post-test sessions, all students were given 60 minutes to produce a text (at least 150-200 words in length) on a new topic.

Apart from the writing tasks in the examinations, the students were required to prepare a portfolio, which consisted of out-of-class assignments. The out-of-class assignments are comprised of the paragraph tasks which are included in the students’ portfolio. These portfolios consist of a cover letter, 6 take-home paragraphs (both the earlier version(s) and the final version), and other in-class work. As the focus is on the paragraphs student produced out of the classroom setting, emphasis is given to the quality and the quantity of work in student portfolios. Cover letters are used in previous research to triangulate data (Aydın, 2010), and, in this study, cover letters helped me to benefit from the learners’ reflective journey.

As this is an experimental study, only one prompt was provided to the learners in each case. It was thought that offering a variety of prompts would bring different levels of difficulty and marker consistency (Coombe et al., 2010). As variation in topic choice could bring different rhetorical patterns, dealing with the topics of different nature, even if they belong to the same genre, could result in variance in scores. Moreover, a variety of alternatives could make it more difficult to achieve intra-rater reliability because raters themselves bring something from themselves to the text, and it could advantage some learners while disadvantaging others. The genres and the prompts are given below.

Table 14: Writing Topics Assigned

Genre	Topic/Prompt
Description parag. (Person)	Describe one of your classmates.
Description parag. (Event)	Describe a typical wedding in your hometown.
Description parag. (Place)	Write a paragraph describing the best place to do homework. In your prewriting, you might list all the relevant items/locations. Consider issues such as appropriate lighting and colours, and the first thing people should or would notice when they walk in. Then put all the parts together so that they work well as a whole. Use a spatial order in your paragraph to help readers “see” your room.
Narration parag.	Write about a memorable visit you have made to your friend/relative(s). Narrate the story from your own experience. In your paragraph, include a comment or two about your story. Try to include the following details: When you went Where you went How that visit was Why you visited him/her/them
Classification parag.	Imagine that you are a real estate agent and someone new to the area has asked you for suggestions about where to look for a home. Write a paragraph classifying local neighbourhoods into three or more types. For each type, include an explanation with one or more examples
Process parag.	How to look fashionable on a limited budget.
Compare & contrast parag.	Write about the differences between going to a movie to having a movie night at home.

The tasks used throughout the study were the tasks that are assigned in the classroom. These tasks were designed in parallel with the paragraph type that is focused. The learners were briefly introduced the basic paragraph writing conventions in the first 2 weeks. Then they were assigned some tasks on description, process, narration, cause-effect, opinion, comparison/contrast paragraphs. Every student had to complete three 150–200-word writing tasks in the semester. The writing tasks are provided in Table 14 above.

3.10. Sampling Procedure

A purposive sampling procedure was employed to choose the samples for the questionnaires. According to Cohen et al. (2007: 114-115), in purposive sampling, “researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought.” However, to avoid bias, a matching procedure was employed at the beginning of the study, and the students were divided into two groups: a ZPD error treatment procedure and a non-ZPD treatment procedure. The student in the ZPD error treatment group (the learners who received sociocultural feedback) received feedback within his/her ZPD while the non-ZPD learners received feedback irrespective of their ZPD which is described under the process feedback procedure. The learners in the ZPD error treatment procedure group received feedback for 12 sessions. Each feedback session lasted about 8 or 15 minutes, which is almost the same time limit for written only feedback sessions. The learners in the ZPD error treatment group (experimental group) and non-ZPD learners (the control group) were assigned the same paragraph topics. Some of the feedback sessions were tape recorded and then transcribed verbatim. After that, an analysis phase followed. At the end, the students were tested for any improvement on their writing skills and

perceived L2 writing anxiety, self-efficacy beliefs and perceptions towards L2 writing as well as teacher feedback.

Apart from random sampling, convenience sampling procedure was employed. According to Cohen et al. (2007: 113), convenience sampling “involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time. That is, convenience sampling is largely practical (Dörnyei, 2007). Considering the need to have easy and better access to participants, this sampling procedure was chosen. Moreover, it was assumed that convenience sampling would make data collection procedures manageable. As the participants were expected to spend considerable time and effort for the stimulated-recall protocols, semi-structured interviews and process-logs, achieving the “willingness to volunteer” (Dörnyei, 2007: 99), which is deemed to be essential criterion in convenience sampling, would not be possible for all learners. Given the circumstances described above, convenience sampling was opted.

3.11. Data Analysis

As the study included both the qualitative and quantitative components, different analysis techniques were used to analyse the data obtained from the learners. The quantitative data come from the questionnaires and analysed through the SPSS 16 while the qualitative component was analysed through the inductive content analysis. Namely, the effect of feedback provision on (a) learner self-efficacy, (b) L2 writing anxiety, and (c) the perceptions of L2 writing and teacher feedback, and (d) differences of learner performance in the control and experimental groups in the first and final drafts were translated into numerical data and created the quantitative part. The semi-structured interviews held at the beginning and at the end of the study, process logs, cover letters and stimulated recall protocols created the qualitative part of the study. The qualitative data were analysed using the inductive content analysis.

Moreover, a sample teacher-student interaction in the first feedback session was transcribed to help see the microgenetic development of the student. Then the relevant episodes from the transcribed data were highlighted. A relevant episode for this context can be defined as any grammatical correction, or lexical, organizational or content-based suggestion. Following the identification of episodes for ZPD and non-ZPD learners, an analysis of the students’ errors was conducted to see their microgenetic development.

A sample episode from the teacher and learner interaction was provided, and a microgenetic and a macrogenetic analysis were carried out. The microgenetic analysis was carried out by comparing the degree of help in two episodes within one feedback session while the macrogenetic analysis refers to the comparison of the amount of help across sessions (see Aljaafreh and Lantolf,

1994). The difference in the quality of help (degree of help) was taken as an evidence of the learner's improvement.

3.11.1. Procedures Before the feedback Sessions

Before starting their revisions, the learners were provided a handout, accompanied by oral instructions, on how to interpret and use the error codes in their texts. The teacher shortly explained the new task's topic for the next week. Each paragraph was read in order to detect the recurring problems and develop some insights into the procedures that I think go well with the student. The learners were asked to go through their paragraphs and identify the parts that need improvement. A collaborative session began in the next phase.

3.11.2. During Feedback Procedures

During the feedback sessions, Van Lier's (1996: 196) six principles of scaffolding were kept in mind:

Contextual support: A safe but challenging environment: errors are expected and accepted as part of the learning process.

Continuity: repeated occurrences over time of a complex of actions, keeping a balance between routine and variation.

Intersubjectivity: mutual engagement and support: two minds thinking as one.

Flow: communication between participants is not forced, but flow in a natural way.

Contingency: The scaffolded assistance depends on learners' reactions: elements can be added, changed, deleted, repeated, etc.

Handover: the ZPD closes when learner is ready to undertake similar tasks without help.

In this phase, the teacher-the researcher for this study- and the learner negotiated their ZPD. The aim here, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 469) suggest, "is to offer just enough assistance to encourage and guide the learner to participate in the activity and to assume increased responsibility for arriving at the appropriate performance." So, the interaction takes place between the two parties: the novice and expert. The novice was the learner who benefits from the expert's experience, the expert in this context was the classroom teacher or the tutor who served as "a more capable peer". Through negotiation, it was hoped that the parties would compromise. The expert shoulders some responsibilities in this process. First, the learner's actual level of competence was catered because this process was not like the conventional "one size fits all" fashion feedback patterns. Therefore, the participants were encouraged to negotiate rather than impose the "correct" versions.

At the dawn of the feedback sessions, the learners were asked to self-evaluate their paragraph. However, for the errors that were gone unnoticed, a collaborative reading process began. In the case

of error identification, the tutor stopped the reading, and correction process began. The questions include, though not limited to, the following items:

“Do you notice any problem, or is there anything wrong in this sentence?” This is a general question which aimed at attracting learners’ attention to an error. However, in the case of a failure in recognition, the attention was narrowed down to the location where the error took place. A question such as the following worked well to elicit some response “Is there anything wrong in this line or segment?” The idea here was to help the learner become a party in the decision making process. However, if the learner could not still diagnose the problematic part, a more explicit strategy was followed. This time specific clues regarding the nature of the error were given. For example: “Pay attention to the tense of the verb.” If the learner still had problems with the identification of the error, the tutor identified and asked the learner to correct it. For instance, “Use the past participle of the verb.” If the learner provided no response, the tutor corrected the answer, providing a brief grammatical explanation.

To make the process long-lasting, both the teacher and the students took notes during the feedback provision process. The teacher’s task was limited to the provision of error correction codes as well as other requests for content-based and organizational changes. The error coding system comprised codes for different linguistic error types, classified under three categories: (a) *lexical errors*: word choice; (b) *grammatical errors*: word form (e.g., verb tense, singular/plural), word order, incomplete sentences, and addition or omission of a word; and (c) *orthographical errors*: spelling, punctuation, and capitalization (see Van Beuningen et al., 2012). Moreover, content and organization were also considered depending on the learner’s ZPD.

3.11.3. Developmental Criteria

The progress of the learners, or to put it in Aljaafreh and Lantolf’s (1994) terms, “microgenetic growth of the learners’ interlanguage,” was examined using five criteria. The first two criteria were adopted from Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994). The former is a more traditional product-oriented criterion, in which the learners’ improvement was examined using pre- and post-tests. The pre- and post-tests was taken from TELC mock examination for B2-C1 level.

The second criterion was Aljaafreh and Lantolf’s (1994: 470) developmental scale in which “five general levels of transition from intermental to intramental functioning as the learners moved through the ZPD toward self-regulation and control over the target structures”. This aspect was considered to be essential to monitor whether the learner went through an emancipatory stages of development. That is the reliance on the tutor or the other regulation was expected to evolve in self-reliance, which was determined through the frequency and quality of help that the tutor provided in

subsequent stages. Basically the three parameters namely, need for intervention, noticing an error, and correcting the error, which were in line with Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), were used.

The third criterion is the adapted version of the English Composition Writing Self-Efficacy Scale developed from the measurement of Pajares et al. (2001). The scale involves 23 items measuring the degree of learners' perceptions of their writing competence, particularly in paragraph writing. The scale comprised of 0-100 rate ranges and included statements that assessed perceived writing self-efficacy beliefs. For effective discrimination purposes, a 100 scale rather than a Likert scale was chosen. The reliability and validity analyses were calculated. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in the pre- and posttest were $\alpha = .95$ and $\alpha = .94$ respectively.

The fourth criterion was the Teacher Feedback Scale (see Appendix 5-6) which was administered both at the beginning and at the end of the feedback sessions. This scale was adapted from Bultrón (2014). An adaptation was deemed to be necessary because the assumption in the instrument is that only the written aspect is considered, and it is designed to measure the learner perceptions particularly towards the feedback provided for essays. However, as the feedback was reduced to paragraphs, and both written and oral feedback was provided in the feedback sessions, the items, therefore, were reworded.

The fifth criterion was about the learners' L2 writing anxiety. In line with the previous studies, learners exposed to feedback sessions are expected to have a lowered level of anxiety. The premise here is that feedback might play a role in alleviating the learners' anxiety and help them become empowered to contribute to the learning environment through a better performance than usual.

According to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994: 470), the move in learners ZPD could be traced through the move from intermental to intramental functioning. The following are the transitional levels that represent the stages of development:

Level 1. The learner is not able notice, or correct the error, even with intervention from the tutor. At this level, the learner does not have a sufficient basis from which to interpret the tutor's moves to provide help, and probably has no awareness that there is even a problem. The tutor, therefore, must assume full responsibility for correcting the error. Thus, rather than providing corrective help, the tutor's task is to bring the target form into focus and, in so doing, begin the process of co-constructing the ZPD with the learner.

Level 2. The learner is able to notice the error, but cannot correct it, even with intervention. This indicates some degree of development, but more importantly, even though the learner must rely heavily on the tutor, in contrast to level 1, an opening is provided for the tutor and the learner to begin negotiating the feedback process and for the learner to begin to progress toward self-regulation. The help required tends to be toward the lower, explicit, end of the regulatory scale given (...).

Level 3. The learner is able to notice and correct an error, but only under other-regulation. The learner understands the tutor's intervention and is able to react to the feedback offered. The levels of help needed to correct the error move toward the strategic, implicit, end of the regulatory scale.

Level 4. The learner notices and corrects an error with minimal, or no obvious feedback from the tutor and begins to assume full responsibility for error correction. However, development has not yet become fully intramental, since the learner often produces the target form incorrectly and may still need the tutor to confirm the adequacy of the correction. The learner may even reject feedback from the tutor when it is unsolicited (e.g., “Let me see if I can do it alone”).

Level 5. The learner becomes more consistent in using the target structure correctly in all contexts. In most cases, the individual’s use of the correct target form is automatized. Whenever aberrant performance does arise, however, noticing and correcting of errors do not require intervention from someone else. Thus, the individual is fully self-regulated. The five transitional levels represent, then, three general stages of development. The first stage, encompassing levels 1 through 3, represents other-regulation in which the learner must rely in some way on another individual in order to perform. Without help from someone else, the individual is not able to notice or correct his or her errors. The next stage is partial self-regulation, encompassing level 4. At this stage, learners are fully capable of detecting and correcting their own mistakes without outside feedback; their performance, however, is not automatized. The third, and final developmental stage, is that in which the learners’ performance, including corrective behaviour, is completely self-generated and automatized and mistakes emanate from legitimate slips of the tongue, or the pen, rather than from incomplete learning.

The developmental criterion presents the degree and the content of help or assistance provided by the teacher. During the feedback sessions, the participants were subject to such kind of help which were arranged from the most indirect to direct levels. In this way, learners’ microgenetic development could be monitored in an experimental basis.

3.12. Validity and Reliability Concerns

To ensure content reliability and eliminate researcher bias, the interview transcriptions were validated by the respondents, and the data were triangulated. Such triangulation involved the inclusion of different perspectives from the teachers, students and the researcher, combination of methods and instruments. First, before going into details about the constructs used, how the feedback sessions were followed was compared with the colleagues working in the Writing Centre. To promote the consistency and comparability of assessment judgements, photocopies of a particular draft was used using a rubric (see Appendix 39). It was concluded that these three feedback forms were highly consistent.

Moreover, an inclusive survey which consists of five parts was used to compare the findings obtained from the control and experimental groups. This survey was piloted with the colleagues other PhD-holder colleagues in the department. These colleagues were also doing PhD in the same institution. As most of the items in the data gathering tools were translated, the colleagues proved to be quite supportive to address to the need “to produce a close translation of the original text so that we can claim that the two versions are equivalent”, and to “produce natural-sounding texts in the target language, similar to the words people would actually say” (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010: 51). The piloting session took a considerable span of time. I personally asked my PhD colleagues to go over the items first individually, and then a collaborative effort with our PhD circle was made to ensure that the items were clearly understood by the participants. Since the most items were

translated, some items did not really communicate in Turkish. Therefore, each and every item was checked several times. After the piloting sessions with the colleagues, the students studying KTU DELL PREP classes were asked to comment on the comprehensibility of the items. Based on the piloting work, it was concluded that the extensive number of parts could create questionnaire fatigue on learners. Therefore, the whole questionnaire was divided into two parts to mitigate this problem.

Moreover, the respondent validation, or ‘‘member checking’’ (Mertens, 2014) process enabled the participating students to access to data and seek their input and evaluate the authenticity of the data they provided. Moreover, reliability analysis was conducted both for the qualitative and quantitative data. The data gathered through questionnaires were analysed using the SPSS 16. Data gathered through the open-ended questions in the questionnaires conducted prior and after the study, semi-structured interviews, process logs, stimulated protocols and cover letters were analysed using inductive content analysis. To ensure consistency and trustworthiness, the researcher shared the interview transcripts with the students and then created codes and themes out of the transcribed data. Next, two researchers who has experience in qualitative studies were asked to create codes and themes out of the same transcribed data. The consistency of the codes was calculated to be 85%, which meant that a considerable number of the codes developed were consistent. Then inconsistencies were revised.

The following table (see Table 15) indicates the reliability coefficient for the scales used. As the scales were used both at the beginning and at the end of the study, the reliability measures for both constructs were provided. However, since a considerable number of the respondents did not receive teacher feedback before the implementation of the writing course, the reliability measure for the teacher feedback (pre) part was not provided. The Cronbach Alpha value for each scale was calculated to be above 0.60. According to Dörnyei (2007), warning bells might sound if the Cronbach Alpha estimate is below 0.60. Thus, it could be argued that the reliability coefficient values for the scales were acceptable.

Table 15: Correlation Coefficient Values for the Scales Used

	Number of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha (Pre)	Cronbach’s Alpha (Post)
Teacher Feedback	22	-	.70 (one item deleted)
L2 Writing Anxiety	22	.898	.908
Perceptions of L2 Writing	23	.710	.712
Paragraph Writing Self-Efficacy	23	.954	.945

Apart from the validity and reliability concerns of the questionnaires, assessment of writing could be considered as a thorny issue. Validity and reliability issues play a significant role in judging the usefulness of a measurement. To achieve validity, I employed tasks which are in line with the paragraph genres covered and cooperated with the colleagues in the Writing Centre of the department. Moreover, two raters rated the paragraphs, and, therefore, rater reliability was a big

concern. Rater reliability refers to the degree of agreement over time and between raters. It is divided into two categories, namely intra-rater reliability and inter-rater reliability. The former refers to the raters' own consistency of scores on two different occasions while the latter stands for different raters' similar ratings of test takers' performances (Alderson et al., 1995).

In order to achieve a proper degree of inter-rater reliability, a colleague employed in the same department and who taught writing in previous semesters was asked to rate the papers. In order not to affect the scorer's judgements, the scores from the first rater were not made available to the second one. Moreover, a rubric that all scorers were familiar was chosen. As the scorers were already using the rubric for writing measurement, it was not difficult for them to digest the rubric and reach a consensus. The scores from the two raters were found to be consistent ($\alpha = .93$; $p = .00$). The mean values for the comparisons were found to be 75.41 and 74.11. Despite a proper degree of consistency between the scorers, a third rater with the similar expertise was asked to respond in the case of a relatively high discrepancy (>10). In line with a suggested resolution of rater discrepancy (see Young et al., 2013), the average of the scores was taken as the scorers had similar experience in teaching writing. The assessment of portfolios was carried out by the researcher, and a second rater was not used in the portfolio assessment procedure. Unless a special effort was made, distinguishing the ZPD and non-ZPD learners during the evaluation was not the case.

3.13. Piloting

Pilot studies for research instruments help determine the feasibility and success of the full-scale studies. Oppenheim (1992: 180) argued that pilot work could help predict the ensurance of successful attitude statement: "The writing of successful attitude statements demands careful pilot work, experience, intuition and a certain amount of flair." Therefore, investing on piloting procedures would translate into investing on the success of the full-scale ones.

The pilot study took place over spring semester in 2015. Administering a pilot study is essential to ensure that the items in the research instruments mean the same to the respondents, thereby ensuring to elicit useful data. According to Dörnyei (2002), the piloting procedure can yield fruitful to determine ambiguous wording, instructions that communicate better, provide insights into the time to be allocated and the appearance of the questionnaire. The pilot study in my context served two purposes: (1) I had a chance to pilot the feasibility of the research methods and instruments; (2) it was an opportunity for me to scrutinize and revise research questions.

The piloting was conducted both for the quantitative and qualitative parts. Dörnyei's (1992) suggested stages were followed during the piloting work. First, there was an initial piloting of the item pool. For the quantitative part, four colleagues in our PhD circle were asked to go over the items in the questionnaires. First, they went over the items on their own, and then two group sessions were

devoted in our research meetings in which everyone discussed the relevance of the items. For the qualitative part, one colleague who has a great deal of experience in qualitative studies was asked to go over the items. This was done to avoid a possible frustration in the full-scale study because as I positioned myself as the “teacher as a researcher”, chances were the items would be biased during the interview.

Then the feedback received from the initial piloting sessions was taken into consideration in the final piloting stage. A group of learners who were taking the same class in English Language Teaching department were asked to respond to the questionnaire items. This served as an undeclared pretest. The next step was item analysis. The learners were asked to critically evaluate the items, and in the light of their suggestions, one question was further elaborated. For instance, for the item that reads “In which contexts do you write in English?”, some prompts (social media, classroom, journal, newspaper etc.) were added the word “context” was interpreted differently by the students. Moreover, in one of the open-ended questions “When I start to write in English, I feel...” most students did not provide a sound reasoning; therefore, they were asked to give reasoning for their answers. Following these three stages, preliminary findings were obtained from the analysis of the data.

3.13.1. Findings from the Pilot Study

Fifty-four participants took the questionnaire. Out of this number, 44 were females, 9 males, and one person did not indicate their gender. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 36 with a mean of 19.2. Moreover, the focus group interviews were carried out with 24 participants 18 of whom were female while the remaining ones were males. The participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 36, with a mean of 20.4. Ninety-three per cent of the participants indicated that their perceived proficiency was either intermediate (66%) or upper intermediate (27%) while the other learners put themselves in lower levels of proficiency. More than half of the participants stated that they sometimes did out-of-school writing. Of the remaining ones, 11 rarely did out-of-school writing and 3 did not do any out-of-school writing at all. Nine people reported that they usually did out-of-school writing, while the other 2 said they always did out-of-school writing. It is clear from these figures that exposure to out-of-school writing practice is not extensive.

3.13.1.1. Learners’ Perceptions of Teacher Feedback

When learners’ perceptions regarding the feedback practices were explored, it was seen that learners in general have a high opinion of the feedback practices. This assertion can easily be evidenced by the high mean values which ranged from 4.2 to 4.7 (see Table 16). The highest ranking means were obtained from items that read “Teachers’ feedback helps me improve my writing” and

“Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods.” These means indicate that students in general favour teacher feedback, and they received feedback in different forms. That students value teacher feedback is supported by several items which have a high mean. “I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing”, “I take my teacher’s feedback into consideration in my next writing,” and “I find my teachers essay feedback system very helpful and motivating that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated” were the items that received a high mean rating ($M=4.6$).

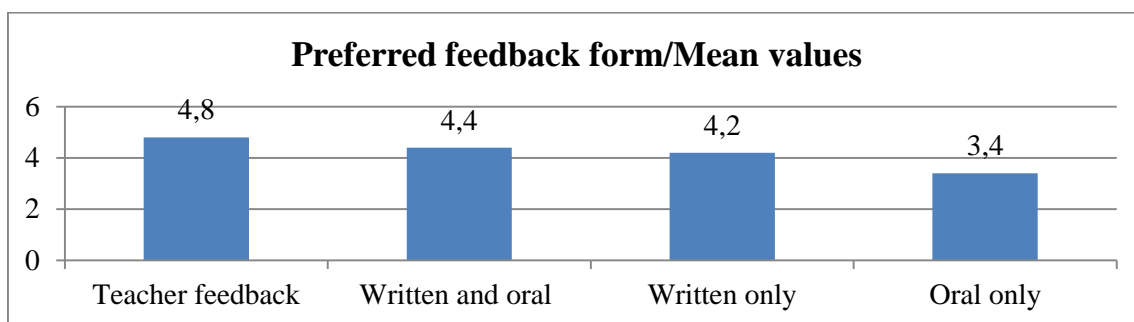
Regarding the item “Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods”, as teachers in Turkey rarely receive feedback training, it is quite understandable that learners receive feedback in different types and forms. Some feedback training; however, could help teachers reach a proper degree of moderation. The lowest means were obtained from items that read “I am generally satisfied with my early feedback” and “My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback.”

Table 16: The Learners’ Perceptions of Teacher Feedback

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD+D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SA+A</i>
Teacher’s feedback helps me improve my writing.	54	4.78	0.46		1.9	98.1
In general I am satisfied with my early feedback.	54	4.20	0.68		14.8	85.7
I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing	54	4.63	0.52		1.9	98.1
I take my teacher’s feedback into consideration in my next writing.	54	4.65	0.55		3.7	96.3
My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback	54	4.24	0.87	3.7	16.7	79.6
Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods.	54	5.00	0.00		7.4	92.6
I always understand my teachers feedback on my writing.	54	4.46	0.54		1.9	98.1
I find my teachers essay feedback system very helpful and motivating that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	54	4.67	0.61		7.4	92.6

Learners’ strong emphasis on teacher feedback is evident in several studies, and the findings in this study are in line with the studies pointing to supremacy of teacher feedback. When learners’ preferences of teacher feedback are further explored, it is seen that learners demand a combination of written and oral feedback more than any form alone (see Figure 14). This finding deserves further emphasis because it reveals that learners in general welcome feedback and desire to benefit from feedback practices to the fullest extent. It is important to help learners through feedback without obscuring their communicative intent. However, if different feedback forms are compared, written feedback alone received more popularity than oral feedback alone.

Figure 14: The Learners' Preferred Feedback Modality



When the mean values were grouped, it was seen that peer feedback, lack of teacher comments, lack of teacher correction, lack of correction for all errors and favouring scores rather than corrections did not have a high mean. Part of the explanation for these low means could be i) learners do not appreciate their peers' feedback as their peers are considered incapable ii) if teacher feedback practices are narrowed down to "correction work", learners do not feel they receive individual attention, iii) when some errors are treated and some not, from the learners' perspective, chances are the errors which were not attended to could result in fossilization. The item that reads "The score I get is more important than my teacher's corrections and comments on my composition." should be treated with caution as a considerable number of learners (42.6%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the item (see Table 17).

Table 17: The Learners' Feedback Preferences

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD+D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>SA+A</i>
I prefer my classmates to give me feedback on my essays	54	1.80	0.81	83.3	13	3.7
I like it when the teacher corrects only the most serious errors I make in my writing.	54	2.41	1.32	66.6	14.8	18.5
I prefer my teacher to indicate my errors rather than commenting on them.	54	1.80	1.02	83.3	9.3	7.4
It would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of my errors and just made some general comments.	54	2.11	0.98	72.2	20.4	7.4
The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition.	54	2.56	1.00	46.3	42.6	11.2

When the mean values for some other concerns regarding feedback preferences are taken into account, it is obvious that teacher feedback serves as a reflection of what they did wrong and what they did right ($M=4.4$). The use of codes ($M=4.2$) as well as encouraging learners to do the correction themselves ($M=4.2$) were also highlighted. Moreover, it could be argued that feedback for the most serious mistakes ($M=4.0$) and feedback placed in the margins of papers ($M=3.9$) are welcomed.

3.13.1.2. Learners' L2 Writing Anxiety

In order to measure the level of L2 writing anxiety the learners experience, the SLWAI, developed by Cheng (2004) was used. The internal consistency reliability of the original scale was 0.894, as measured by Cronbach's coefficient, which indicates that it was a highly reliable scale. The scale consists of three subscales, namely Cognitive Anxiety, Somatic Anxiety, and Avoidance Behaviour. When the subscales were analysed with reference to internal consistency, it was seen that each subscale possesses reasonably high internal reliability. As shown in Table 18, the Cronbach alpha value for Cognitive Anxiety was 0.850, for Somatic Anxiety 0.866 and 0.674 for Avoidance Behaviour.

Table 18: Reliability Scores of the Piloted Instrument (SLWAI)

Consistency of Items in SLWAI	
Cognitive Anxiety	0.850
Somatic Anxiety	0.866
Avoidance Behaviour	0.674
Overall Reliability	0.894

When the items are analysed with reference to the mean scores (see Table 19), the need to improve writing skills is evident for learners. Positive feedback, writing out of the classroom, and future career were reported to be significant necessities for learners. However, a considerable number of learners think that they do not need writing for their daily life even though a considerable number of learners believe that they are not only writing for their English teacher. Another finding to highlight from the findings is the feelings of nervousness learners harbour when they happen to share their writings with their peers. This finding is in line with the high mean score which points to the fact that learners value teacher feedback.

Table 19: Mean Scores of the Piloted Instrument (SLWAI)

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. I think knowing the knowledge of the topic I am writing about in L2. makes L2 writing easier.	54	4.38	0.83
2. I believe I need to use L2 writing with people outside the classroom.	54	4.57	0.77
3. I think I need to improve my L2 writing.	54	4.48	0.93
4. I believe I need to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles.	54	4.20	1.00
5. I think I experience difficulties writing issues about L2 culture.	54	3.68	1.10
6. I have the strategy to recognize my errors during my revision.	54	3.55	0.95
7. I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily in L2 writing.	54	4.33	1.01
8. I think. I can write to different readers easily.	54	3.38	1.02
9. I have confidence to show my writing to my peers.	54	3.53	1.14
10. I am confident to receive any criticism for my writing from my readers.	54	4.09	0.85
11. I write in L2 because I need it in my daily life.	54	2.35	0.87
12. When I write. my purpose is to give my audience good impression about myself.	54	2.98	1.30
13. I only write to my L2 writing teacher.	54	2.09	1.05
14. I practice writing regularly. because I want to be a good L2 writer.	54	2.62	0.88
15. I have to be a good L2 writer for my future career.	54	4.62	0.78
16. My L1 and L2 readers' positive feedback encourages me to write.	54	4.64	0.76
17. Writing is my best method that I use to express my feeling on paper.	54	3.5	1.08
18. I write because I believe that. L2 writing accuracy will help me to be a professional person at work.	54	4.55	0.86
19. My negative previous learning experience will not stop me from improving my L2 writing.	54	4.11	1.14
20. My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.	54	3.85	1.27
21. I don't feel nervous when I happen to show my writings to my peers.	54	2	1.13
21. Writing for different readers (teacher. classmates. friends on social media etc.) encourages me to write.	54	3.62	1.15
22. Writing skill can best be improved through outside sources (film. pen pals. dictionary etc.) rather than school.	54	3.01	1.17
23. I do not have difficulty in writing something about my own culture.	54	3.83	1.02

3.13.1.3. Paragraph Writing Self-Efficacy

An investigation into the mean values of the items suggest that learners find it relatively easy to benefit from other sources. It is followed by the self-efficacy beliefs in the use of transition words and provision of support for the arguments. However, learners' self-efficacy in grammar is rather low (see Table 20). The items "I can make sentences without grammar mistakes" and "I can find my mistakes easily" had the lowest mean scores. A gender-based comparison suggests that females have a lower self-efficacy (see Table 21). However, the difference is not statistically significant $p = .553$. That there were 9 males compared to 45 females in the study could result in an overrepresentation of

females. Therefore, it is thought that data to be obtained from all prep classes could provide a much more accurate picture.

Table 20: Mean Scores Indicating the Learners’ Overall Self-Efficacy Levels (Pilot Study)

Gender	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>
M	9	3.56	0.38	0.13
F	45	3.44	0.60	0.09

Table 21: Mean Scores Indicating the Learners’ Self-Efficacy Levels (Pilot Study)

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I can benefit from different sources (dictionaries, the Internet etc.) effectively.	54	4.28	1.02
I can use transition words appropriately.	54	3.85	0.90
I can provide examples, facts and details to support my ideas.	54	3.80	0.71
I can support my sentences appropriately.	54	3.80	0.83
I can present my ideas clearly.	54	3.74	0.94
I can write an appropriate topic sentence.	54	3.67	0.97
I can present my ideas in unity.	54	3.61	0.88
I can write a concluding sentence appropriately.	54	3.61	0.96
I can organize my thoughts appropriately.	54	3.57	0.90
I can use singular/plural forms appropriately.	54	3.56	0.92
I can write appropriate supporting sentences.	54	3.56	0.72
I can use the mechanics appropriately.	54	3.50	0.97
I can use synonyms appropriately.	54	3.48	0.97
I can write a paragraph without irrelevant sentences.	54	3.48	0.95
I can easily discuss my ideas when writing.	54	3.43	0.79
I can easily spell the words.	54	3.41	0.92
I can easily write a paragraph.	54	3.32	0.97
I can use the appropriate words.	54	3.13	1.01
I can use prepositions appropriately.	54	3.11	1.06
I can find my mistakes easily.	54	2.83	0.82
I can write in different genres (narration, description, cause-effect etc.) easily.	54	2.82	0.68
I can make sentences without grammar mistakes.	54	2.74	1.01

3.13.1.4. Focus Group Interviews

To ensure internal validity, the items of questions were shared by the colleagues employed in the same department. The data obtained through the semi-structured interviews were analysed using the constant comparison method based on grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), one of the qualitative methods, to provide further insight into the learners’ feedback preferences. The focus group-interviews were carried out in groups of six, and then the recorded data were transcribed verbatim. Then a colleague was asked to check the accuracy of the transcribed data.

The data from the semi-structured interviews helped unearth some more clues about learners’ inclination to corrective feedback. The interviews revealed that learners’ seek for individual

attention, scaffolding and constructive feedback can be supported through the feedback provision in their ZPD. The learners in general demand professional assistance (4), face-to-face feedback (5), feedback tailored to their ZPD (8), metalinguistic feedback (6) as well as encouraging words and opportunities for writing out-of-writing classes (see Table 22). Several examples and explanations of these accounts are shared for validity purposes.

Table 22: Themes Developed from the Semi-Structured Interviews (Piloting)



3.13.1.4.1. Individual Attention

To mention each briefly, when learners feel that they are given professional assistance, they take it as an appreciation of their involvement as well as personality. Usually the professional assistance by the teacher is more appreciated. This is explained by a learner in the first focus group interviews as follows:

It makes more sense when the teacher gives feedback both verbally and by showing the mistake directly while discussing. There will be a pile of writings in the end and we will see our mistakes when we go back and read them. For example, whether we put a comma there or not. It affects our writing in a way feedback affects our next writing. Discussion made one-to-one also works. Both, for me [FG 1].

The need for one-to-one feedback practice is voiced by another learner as follows:

Face to face feedback would be more beneficial. When it is done in class, other students also get involved and it gets hard to focus on the feedback. There are a lot of people suffering from this problem. So it would be more useful and permanent for everyone to be called to the teacher's room and work on it face to face [FG 2].

Another learner supported the nexus between individual feedback opportunity and learning outcomes. Accordingly, if feedback is provided, it might translate into better paragraph writing skill.

I went home and rewrote it in that evening. My first sentence was problematic. I had used so many clichés. After rewriting, the teacher sent me a feedback saying my closing sentence was poor. He told us that we could send him our writings whenever we wanted and he would definitely check them. We had an opportunity to get feedback individually.

That time I fixed the first and then the last sentence. It gets better if you keep writing [FG 5].

What these accounts share in common is that learners need feedback which is tailored to their ZPD. It seems classroom feedback or written feedback does not offer enough opportunities for learners to make their voices heard. When learners feel that their voice is missing, it is difficult to argue that feedback provided is really received or negotiated. Learners in general hold the idea that negotiating feedback with the teacher adds much depth to the feedback process rather than receiving coded feedback because codes are not informative enough to capture the expected richness. This sentiment is clearly demonstrated by a learner in the focus group interviews:

We Turkish people are too lazy to go over everything... Those feedback symbols don't explain anything to me. Sometimes we are supposed to rewrite a whole sentence and it can't be done with symbols only. There should be a communication. We are human beings. Talking means everything [FG 4].

Apart from the overtly stated preferences, some criticisms regarding the learners' early feedback practices shed light into structuring future feedback delivery. Learners reported that they were following collaborated feedback practices, and they were noisy, limited in appeal and contribution of everyone made it difficult for the writer to stick to distinguish the more credible suggestions. Moreover, when the remarks are not substantiated by further explanations, it is not informative enough for the learners. For instance, which is narrowed to words such as "good" or "wonderful", does not inform the learners about what really worked well with a particular piece of composition.

3.14. Teacher Roles

To help learners develop their writing, writing teachers perform different roles, sometimes even conflicting ones, to reinforce writing behaviour. These include various responsibilities such as acting as a teacher, evaluator, facilitator, proof-reader, gatekeeper, and reader at the same time (Leki, 1990). It is expected that learner accounts will help capture the role the teacher plays. For my position, I felt myself like a coach. However, considering the theoretical framework in the study, the teacher serves as the more capable peer. Such a role is deemed to be necessary to help provide learners feedback within their ZPD.

3.15. Ethical Issues

As humans take part in the study, ethical considerations were kept in mind so as to minimize, if not totally eradicate, the risks. My role as a researcher would create a problem as this would create further anxiety for learners. Therefore, I assured the learners that I was collecting data for research

purposes, but I did not specify my research lest some learners would disguise their real thoughts and feeling and provide socially desirable responses instead. This is termed as the Hawthorne effect, and it might pose a threat to the internal validity since the participants are likely to demonstrate a better performance due just to the novelty of the treatment (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

Before embarking on the study, I got departmental permission from the head of the department (see Appendix 2-3). I explained the aim and the procedures to the departmental administration, and a written permission was granted to me to carry out the research. Furthermore, I briefed on the details of the semi-structured interview to help the participants feel comfortable. Then I asked all the interview participants to sign a consent form reassuring that (i) they had no risk, (ii) the learners' identities would be kept anonymous and (iii) data to be gathered from the interviews were to be used for research purposes only. Actually, as no question and response from the participants included face-threatening information, I felt comfortable at this stage. The respondents were assured that their names would be kept confidential. When reporting the data obtained from the learners, the respondents' names were indicated with (R). To avoid the use of gender-biased pronouns, the pronouns for both genders together, such as s/he, and his/her were opted. Apart from these, I paid attention not to advantage or disadvantage any students or groups throughout the study. Even though I paid attention to all emerging issues, when ethical concerns are the case, I was aware that the bottom line no procedure could be definitive (Merriam, 1998). Therefore, it could be argued that the researcher shoulders a great responsibility to judge and address to the issues that emerge in a particular context.

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. The research design, sources of data, the context, the participants, the feedback provision procedure, reliability, validity and ethical considerations followed instruments employed in this study, and the piloting procedure as well as the preliminary findings from the piloting are presented (See Figure 15 for an illustration of the research design). As the presentation of details could provide a clearer picture of the context, thereby increasing the ecological validity, attempts were made to provide a comprehensive account of the research background. The next chapter is devoted to the findings from the research conducted and the findings are discussed referring to previous literature.

Figure 15: The Research Design of the Study

Research Questions	Differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners’ Feedback preferences Writing performance L2 writing anxiety				Perceptions of L2 writing L2 writing self-efficacy The use of mediational means							
Research Design	Quasi-experimental Design The matching-only pretest-posttest control group design											
Data	Tradition Quantitative								Quantitative			
Instruments	Proficiency Visa Questionnaire Portfolio				Open-ended questions Stimulated recall protocols Focus group interview Cover Letter							
Data analysis	Descriptive				Content analysis							
	Parametric t-test Non-parametric Mann Whitney U test											
Piloting	Piloting of the item pool Initial piloting								Final piloting			
Procedure	Experimental group Feedback attuned to learners’ ZPD				Control group Feedback not attuned to learners’ ZPD							
Sampling	Random				Purposive							
	Questionnaire	97	Focus group interview	36	Cover letter	97	Process log	36	Proficiency-Visa- Portfolio	97	Stimulated recall protocol	18
Validity and Reliability	Writing centre (calibration) Phd holders (opinion) Prep students Member checking Cronbach alpha											
Ethical Considerations	Consent form Consent form from the department											

CHAPTER FOUR

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (Vygotsky, 1978: 57).

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussion, and indicate how findings are interpreted. The findings gleaned from different data sources are discussed with particular focus on the effectiveness of the two different feedback modalities -mediated or unmediated feedback- in question. First, the learners' preferences of feedback modalities before and after the feedback practices are delineated. Next, the quantitative findings on the relationship between feedback and three other correlates, namely second language writing anxiety, paragraph writing self-efficacy, and perceptions of L2 writing, are presented. Then the chapter provides a platform of learners' voices following their answers to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, process logs, stimulated recall protocols, semi-structured interviews, cover letters and a transcribed version of two feedback sessions.

4.2. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

The quantitative data are comprised of four sections: feedback practices and preferences, second language writing anxiety, perceptions and practices regarding English L2 writing and English paragraph writing self-efficacy. The analysis part includes descriptive as well as inferential information.

4.2.1. Analysis of the Learner Perceptions on Teacher Feedback

4.2.1.1. Feedback Preferences in General

Capturing the preferences of learners will enable a better synchronization of teachers' feedback practices with student needs. To this end, the learners' perceptions regarding their preferences of feedback and L2 writing are explored. The following items in Table 23 provide a picture of learners' preferences of feedback. The table provides information about the preferred agents of feedback provision, the type of feedback to be provided and how it is to be.

It seems that learners' beliefs of feedback agents are slightly different when the pre- and post-perceptions of ZPD and non-ZPD learners are compared (see Table 23). At the very beginning of the semester, some of the learners had no opinion of teacher and peer feedback as a great many learners had no previous feedback experience. Therefore, a great many learners left the items in Part B (the items from 2 to 8) blank. Throughout the courses, they had the opportunity to face with both the teacher and peer feedback. In accordance with the findings, as for the agent of feedback provision, teacher feedback is deemed to be the more credible form compared to peer feedback. This is evident from the high mean values of the item 1 which reads "Teacher's feedback helps me improve my writing". At the beginning of the semester, the mean values for ZPD and non-ZPD learners were $ZPDM=4.56$ and $non-ZPDM=4.53$. However, at the end of the study, more learners were of the conviction that teacher feedback promoted the writing skills ($ZPDM=4.81$; $non-ZPDM=4.78$). The numbers suggest that, even though there is not a big difference in terms of the two groups of learners' perceptions towards teacher feedback, the ones in the ZPD group had greater faith in teacher feedback. Reading the difference through the percentages, while 46 learners in the ZPD group (95.8%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the 1st item in Table 23, this number for the non-ZPD learners was almost equally high (95.9%). In another item that reads "I find my teachers'/teacher's feedback system very helpful that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated." (see the 8th item in Table 23), the mean values for the perceived level of help in the ZPD group increased from 4.18 to 4.69, while non-ZPD group had a mean of 3.92 and 4.57 respectively. The teacher as a credible source of feedback provision is in line with Hyland and Hyland's (2006b) argument. Even though teacher feedback is the predominant focus of this dissertation, in line with the process approach, learners also benefitted from their peers' feedback. However, it should be noted that the feedback from the classmates was not welcomed much. In the 9th item which reads "I prefer my classmates to give me feedback on my writing." the mean value (M) decreased from 2.21 to 1.77 for the ZPD learners, while the mean value for the non-ZPD learners decreased from 2.33 to 1.65. This finding indicates that a considerable amount of the participants did not have a high opinion of peer feedback. In a study on the effectiveness of teacher versus peer feedback, Ruegg (2014) drew a comparison between the effect of teacher and peer feedback on learners' writing self-efficacy, and found that peer feedback alone could be detrimental to learners' writing self-efficacy. Thus, even

though peer feedback is an opportunity for learners to get reader response, thus being one of the significant steps of the process approach, it appears that not all phases of process approach might prove to be instrumental in all situations.

Table 23: Mean Scores Displaying the ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners' Perceptions of Written Feedback Before and After the Feedback Practices

	PRE-FEEDBACK PERCEPTIONS						POST-FEEDBACK PERCEPTIONS					
	ZPD Learners			Non-ZPD Learners			ZPD Learners			Non-ZPD Learners		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Teacher's feedback helps me improve my writing.	47	4.56	0.85	47	4.53	0.83	48	4.81	0.67	49	4.78	0.51
2. In general I am satisfied with my early feedback.	20	3.85	1.13	13	4.08	0.76	48	4.54	0.80	49	4.14	0.79
3. I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing	23	3.39	0.65	15	3.87	0.52	48	4.69	0.72	49	4.61	0.70
4. I take my teacher's feedback into consideration in my next writing.	21	4.44	0.68	15	4.27	0.70	48	4.58	0.79	49	4.49	0.77
5. My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback	17	3.61	1.18	14	3.71	0.91	48	4.17	1.00	49	4.20	0.76
6. Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods.	20	3.71	1.25	14	3.43	1.34	48	3.15	1.38	49	2.88	1.22
7. I understand my teachers feedback on my writing.	20	3.94	0.79	13	4.00	0.58	48	4.21	0.87	49	4.12	0.78
8. I find my teachers' feedback system very helpful and motivating that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	20	4.18	0.67	13	3.92	1.19	48	4.69	0.75	49	4.57	0.82
9. I prefer my classmates to give me feedback on my writing.	48	2.21	0.92	49	2.33	1.11	48	1.77	0.93	49	1.65	0.83
10. I prefer my teacher to give me feedback on my writing.	48	4.77	0.47	49	4.56	0.61	48	4.83	0.63	49	4.73	0.70
11. For my compositions, I prefer written feedback.	48	1.92	1.03	49	1.75	0.85	48	3.65	1.36	49	4.45	0.82
12. For my compositions, I prefer oral feedback.	48	3.18	1.18	49	3.22	1.21	48	3.50	1.27	49	3.04	1.44
13. For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback.	48	4.14	1.14	49	4.16	1.09	48	4.58	0.65	49	4.08	1.08
14. I like it when the teacher corrects all the errors I make in my writing.	48	4.02	1.04	49	3.94	1.30	48	3.94	1.41	49	3.96	1.34
15. I prefer my teacher not only correct my errors but also indicate them and ask me to correct them myself.	48	3.37	0.79	49	3.22	0.82	48	4.27	1.25	49	4.29	1.08
16. I like it when the teacher corrects only the most serious errors I make in my writing.	48	2.44	1.17	49	2.69	1.08	48	2.40	1.12	49	2.53	1.23
17. I prefer my teacher to indicate my errors rather than commenting on them.	48	3.52	1.34	49	3.63	1.20	48	1.98	1.16	49	2.24	1.16
18. It would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of my errors and just made some general comments.	48	2.35	1.04	49	2.45	1.16	48	2.25	1.12	49	2.53	1.17
19. I think it is better to write the feedback in the margins than at the end.	48	4.04	1.05	49	4.08	1.02	48	3.98	1.26	49	3.92	1.04
20. I like it when the teacher uses codes or symbols to help me with the nature of my errors.	48	3.65	1.16	49	3.71	1.02	48	3.88	1.31	49	4.16	0.87
21. I don't like it when my teacher comments only on what I did wrong and does not mention what I did well.	48	3.06	0.70	49	3.12	0.81	48	4.38	1.00	49	4.37	0.86
22. The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition.	48	2.31	1.03	49	2.45	0.96	48	2.13	0.96	49	2.73	1.02

Satisfaction with the early feedback is an aspect which is informative of feedback effectiveness. While the satisfaction mean for ZPD students was 3.85 before receiving feedback in the prep programme, it increased to 4.54. For non-ZPD students, the level of increase was less than the ZPD ones. The mean value increased from 4.08 to 4.14. The increase level in the both groups suggests that the feedback practices pursued in the control and the experimental groups were found to be effective for learners. When the effectiveness for the two groups are compared, the mean scores were 4.54 (ZPD) and 4.14 (non-ZPD) respectively, and this difference was found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$). It suggests that after the feedback practices, the experimental group were more satisfied with the feedback they received.

The use of feedback in subsequent writings for both groups increased considerably for both groups. For the third item (I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing), the mean value for the ZPD learners was 3.39, while non-ZPD learners had a mean of 3.87. At the end of the study, however, the mean values increased to 4.69 and 4.61 respectively. In a similar item “I take my teacher’s feedback into consideration in my next writing”, the mean value for the ZPD group increased to 4.58 from 4.44., while the non-ZPD group had a mean of 4.27 at the beginning and 4.49 at the end. Moreover, the mean value for the fifth item that reads “My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback” increased for both the ZPD and non-ZPD learners after the feedback sessions. While it was 3.61 for the ZPD learners, it increased to 4.17 in the second administration. For the non-ZPD learners, an increase from 3.71 to 4.20 was observed. The sixth item “Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods” intends to measure the learners’ perceptions of the consistency of the feedback received. It follows from the findings that the learners were exposed to several different feedback procedures before taking the prep class writing. The mean values indicate that the learners had more consistent feedback in the prep program as the values decreased to 3.15 from 3.71 (the ZPD group), and 2.88 from 3.43 (the non-ZPD group). When it comes to comprehension (see item 7 in Table 26), both groups seem to have benefitted from the sessions. While the mean score for the ZPD group was 3.94 at the beginning, it increased to 4.21. The other group had a mean of 4.00 at the beginning, and it increased to 4.12. Considering the higher mean values, it appears that the ZPD group benefitted more from the feedback practices than the control group.

The items 11, 12 and 13 provide insights into the desired feedback modality. According to Table 26, the preference for written feedback only for the ZPD group increased from 1.92 to 3.65. The non-ZPD group had a mean of 1.75 at the beginning. However, after the feedback sessions, the mean values increased to 4.45. In the ZPD groups, the seek for oral feedback only increased to 3.50 from 3.18. For the non-ZPD learners, however, it was 3.22 at the beginning, and it decreased to 3.04. That is, non-ZPD learners believed less in the effectiveness of oral feedback only situations. This could be interpreted as an indication of the perceived transient and elusive nature of speech, which may not necessarily translate into long-term outcomes for writing development. The need to marry

written and oral feedback was articulated through the higher mean values in the 13th item. The learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group had almost the same mean value in the pretest: 4.14 the former and 4.16 the latter. After the feedback practices, the mean value for the ZPD group increased to 4.58 and decreased to 4.08 for the non-ZPD group. It follows from all these that except for a sharp increase in the preference of written feedback, the learners' pursuit of oral and both oral and written feedback did not change much. The items on the preferred feedback modality indicated that both written and oral feedback were the opted type both before and at the end of the study. However, other options of modalities, that is oral feedback alone and written feedback alone, were not that much popular. A remarkable increase in the mean value of the written feedback preference was the case. It could be attributed to the participants' seek for communication in the target language. Such a communication is authentic, and in line with the principles of the constructivist approach, both parties -teacher and the students- construct their meaning upon the other's stance point. According to Lee (2014: 206), the co-construction of meaning in the feedback process makes the activity a sociohistorically mediated one. The author argued that the presence of human interaction helps identify the actions embedded: "(...) because human thinking and learning do not occur in a social vacuum but are instead shaped by the activities in which people participate. To better understand human actions, it is crucial to know the context in which actions are embedded." The human interaction in feedback delivery process might be of considerable help to learners and teachers as they are likely to exchange their expectations and crystallize their ideas better.

The remaining items indicate further details about their preferences. The item that reads "I don't like it when my teacher comments only on what I did wrong and does not mention what I did well." (see item 21 in Table 23) had a mean of 3.06 (ZPD) and 3.12 (non-ZPD). Following the mean scores after the treatment, it is evident that the participants desire a balanced treatment of their compositions (ZPDM=4.38; non-ZPDM=4.37). That is, both the strengths and weaknesses should be dealt with at the same time. The demand for a balanced view of the feedback practices seems to be well-grounded. The documented literature suggests that premature or insincere praise is unlikely to be effective for learners (Brophy, 1981). Moreover, Ferris's (1995) study reveals that constructive criticism instead of platitudes is much appreciated. Hyland and Hyland (2001: 207) propose a balanced view of the praise, criticism and suggestion, suggesting hedges, question forms and personal attribution could "enhance their relationship, minimise the threat of judgement, and mitigate the full force of their criticisms and suggestions." Therefore, the onus falls on teachers to keep the balance, or, in line with the echoing title of Hyland and Hyland, "sugar the pill."

In feedback situations, learners are expected to pave the way for self-regulated learning. In line with the desired level in question, a sudden increase is visible in the mean score of the item seven. The pursuit of self-correction, therefore, could be associated with increased awareness through the feedback practices. The fifteenth item "I prefer my teacher not only correct my errors but also indicate them and ask me to correct them myself" had a high mean of preference after the treatment

($ZPDM_{post}=4.27$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=4.29$), while the mean scores for the ZPD group was 1.63 and non-ZPD group 0.95. The learners' desire to see the correction of all errors both before (item 15th) ($ZPDM=3.37$; $non-ZPDM=3.22$) and after the feedback sessions ($ZPDM=4.27$; $non-ZPDM=4.29$) could be read as an important sign of learners' receptivity to feedback. In line with the receptivity in question, feedback in the margins ($ZPDM_{pre}=4.04$; $ZPDM_{post}=3.98$; $non-ZPDM_{pre}=4.08$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=3.92$) and the mere identification of errors ($ZPDM_{pre}=3.52$; $ZPDM_{post}=1.98$; $non-ZPDM_{pre}=3.63$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=2.24$) were the preferences decreasing respectively. Probably, the participants understood the sheer emphasis on these aspects as the deprivation of some parts of feedback, and they did not want to miss anything about feedback in general. However, there were some items which had a mean score below the average. Namely, the items "I like it when the teacher corrects only the most serious errors I make in my writing" ($ZPDM_{pre}=2.44$; $ZPDM_{post}=2.40$; $non-ZPDM_{pre}=2.69$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=2.53$), "It would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of my errors and just made some general comments" ($ZPDM_{pre}=2.35$; $ZPDM_{post}=2.35$; $non-ZPDM_{pre}=2.45$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=2.53$), and "I prefer my teacher to indicate my errors rather than commenting on them" ($ZPDM_{pre}=3.52$; $ZPDM_{post}=1.98$; $non-ZPDM_{pre}=3.63$; $non-ZPDM_{post}=2.24$) were the ones that received lower mean scores. It is quite apparent that learners value feedback and generally are eager to benefit from feedback as much as possible. In addition, the item "The score I get is more important than my teacher's corrections and comments on my composition" had a low mean value for ZPD learners both in the pre- and posttests ($M_{pre}=2.31$; $M_{post}=2.73$), which indicates that learners' quest of feedback does not seem to be for instrumental purposes. However, for non-ZPD learners, the mean values increased from $M_{pre}=2.45$ to $M_{post}=2.73$.

When these mean scores of items related to learners' feedback inclination are compared for the ZPD and non-ZPD students, it is found that there is not a statistically significant difference for all items at the beginning of the study (see Appendix 35). At the end of the study, despite several differences between these two groups, the items in general had similar means. That is, learners' preferences of feedback do not seem to change much according to the learners' feedback modality. To read it differently, feedback, regardless of the mode of delivery, appears to be welcomed by the learners. Only four items in the posttest showed a statistically significant difference (see Table 23). These items are "In general I am satisfied with my early feedback," "For my compositions, I prefer written feedback," "For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback," and "The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition." Compared to ZPD learners, non-ZPD learners had higher means in 2 items ($p < .05$). To be more specific, non-ZPD students demonstrated a greater satisfaction with the feedback they receive especially after the treatment. The receptivity to feedback is an important concern as it has already been suggested. One manifestation of the receptivity in question is the greater mean scores of the non-ZPD learners for written feedback. As the group was exposed to written feedback only, they seem to have indicated their desire to receive more feedback in written form. However, such an increase for the written

modality was not the case for the ZPD learners. It is likely that the ZPD learners do not find it adequate to be exposed to written words only. However, for the non-ZPD learners, since it was the only modality of feedback they were familiar, it could be interpreted as learners' continuing desire to benefit from further written feedback opportunities. Another considerable discrepancy, which could also be read as the learners' continuing desire to receive feedback is about ZPD learners' strong preference for the combination of written and oral feedback in the posttest. The difference between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners was found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$). Moreover, when the learners were asked to respond to an item on the comparison of the supremacy of either achievement scores or corrections that result in learning, the non-ZPD learners found it more important to get a high score. It appears that lack of negotiation along the feedback provision might result in learners who are more inclined to opt for instrumental motivations. However, more extensive data are needed to make this assertion. Table 24 tabulates the significant differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners in the posttest.

Table 24: The Comparison of the ZPD and non-ZPD Learners' Preferences of Teacher Feedback

	Perceptions on Teacher Written Feedback (Posttest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
2. In general I am satisfied with my early feedback.								
ZPD	48	4.54	.80	56.46	2710	818	-2.850	.004
Non-ZPD	49	4.14	.79	41.69	2043			
11. For my compositions, I prefer written feedback.								
ZPD	48	3.65	1.36	40.59	1948.5	772.5	-3.124	.002
Non-ZPD	49	4.45	.82	57.23	2804.5			
13. For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback.								
ZPD	48	4.58	.65	55.12	2646	882	-2.374	.018
Non-ZPD	49	4.08	1.08	43.00	2107			
22. The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition.								
ZPD	48	2.13	.96	40.97	1966.5	79.5	-2.912	.004
Non-ZPD	49	2.73	1.02	56.87	2786.5			

4.2.1.2. Gender and Learner Preferences

Regarding the differences in gender, it could be argued that in general there are not significant differences both in the pretest and posttest situations. However, one item in the pretest and two items in the posttest were found to be statistically significant (See Table 25). Both in the pre- and posttest situations, the use of codes and symbols were found to be of greater significant value for women. That is, the use of codes and symbols was perceived to be more useful for the women. Moreover, the

results show that men and women differed in their magnitude of written and oral feedback preference. A statistically significant difference was observed for the thirteenth item, and the men demonstrated a higher level of a marriage of written and oral feedback.

Table 25: The Comparison of Male and Female Learners' Preferences of Teacher Feedback

20. I like it when the teacher uses codes or symbols to help me with the nature of my errors.	Male and Female Learners' Preferences of Teacher Feedback (Pretest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann Whitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>
Male	36	3.36	1.10	41.58	1497.00	831.000	-2.074	.038
Female	61	3.87	1.04	53.38	3256.00			
13. For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback.	Male and Female Learners' Preferences of Teacher Feedback (Posttest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann Whitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>
Male	36	4.61	.90	59.06	2126.00	736.000	-3.025	.002
Female	61	4.16	.90	43.07	2627.00			
20. I like it when the teacher uses codes or symbols to help me with the nature of my errors.	Male and Female Learners' Preferences of Teacher Feedback (Posttest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann Whitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
Male	36	3.67	1.20	40.15	1445.50	779.500	-.402	.012
Female	61	4.23	1.02	54.22	3307.50			

When the males and females were compared according to the feedback groups, statistically significant differences were observed in two items both in the ZPD and non-ZPD groups. With reference to the mean scores in the pretest, there was not a significant difference between the males and females except for one item. The females in the ZPD group had higher mean values ($p < 0.05$) in their preference of codes and symbols. Moreover, the analysis of teacher feedback preferences in the posttest demonstrates that the males in the ZPD group preferred to have a greater preference for peer feedback and a combination of oral as well as written feedback ($p < 0.05$). For the non-ZPD group, there was a statistically significant difference in the reported preferences of males and females. The females in the non-ZPD group demanded more written feedback as well as a greater use of codes and symbols.

4.2.2. Analysis of the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory

English writing anxiety of participants is highlighted on several grounds: i) the learners' overall writing anxiety before and after the study, ii) the three components of the Second Language Anxiety Scale before and after the study, iii) L2 writing anxiety levels of males and females, iv) L2 writing anxiety levels of the ZPD learners and non-ZPD learners. Since the items in the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory were ordinal and ranked, it is probable that the findings could be affected by the outliers. Therefore, non-parametric tests were used.

When making an analysis of the L2 Writing Anxiety, the overall anxiety scores before and after the study is examined for the ZPD and non-ZPD learners (see Table 26). A comparison of the mean scores suggests that learners in both groups felt less anxious after the feedback sessions. However, a comparison of the ZPD and non-ZPD learners reveals that the difference is significant after the feedback practices (Mann-Whitney U-Test $z=-2.234$; $p = .025$) (see Table 26). As this finding alone does not tell much whether the difference should be attributed to the feedback sessions or not, further investigation was carried out to interpret this result. Since the scale is comprised of three subscales, a detailed analysis of these scales might help clarify the findings. Therefore, each and every subscale was analysed to see the link between second language anxiety and feedback practices.

Table 26: The Comparison of the Language Anxiety Levels of the Learners Before and After the Feedback Practices

Overall anxiety (pre)	Overall Anxiety (Pretest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	<i>P</i>
ZPD	48	2.89	.58	44.99	2159	983	-1.390	.165
Non-ZPD	49	3.08	.60	52.93	2593			
Overall anxiety (post)	Overall Anxiety (Posttest)							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	<i>P</i>
ZPD	48	2.63	.62	42.33	2042	866	-2.234	.025
Non-ZPD	49	2.94	.63	55.53	2710			

The decrease of the L2 writing anxiety level after the feedback practices reflects a potential effectiveness of the feedback in lowering L2 writing anxiety. This finding is in line with the previous research on the positive impact of feedback provision on lowering learners' anxiety (Kahraman, 2013; Kurt and Atay, 2007). Yet, it should still be treated with caution because many confounding variables are likely to cloud a particular causality. For instance, the participants' acclimatization of themselves with the system, the fact that learners took writing classes or were exposed to L2 writing could all be some possible explanations for learners to find L2 writing less anxiety-breeding. Therefore, it might be a hasty generalization to account for the decrease in lowered anxiety levels to feedback practices. However, findings from the qualitative data as well indicate the instrumentality of the feedback provision on the way to alleviate learners' anxiety. Previous studies on teacher feedback usually demonstrated the detrimental aspect of teacher feedback as it could increase the feedback receivers' anxiety or decrease their confidence (Ferris, 2002; Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1996). These findings on the debilitating nature of teacher feedback, however, do not seem to be in alignment with the formative role of teacher feedback. The discrepancy of findings could be attributed to the feedback atmosphere and feedback modes chosen.

In accordance with Cheng's (2004) L2 writing anxiety scale, writing anxiety has a tripartite view. These are, namely, cognitive anxiety, somative anxiety, and avoidance behaviour. Cheng associated cognitive anxiety with the mental aspects and symptoms such as worry, preoccupation,

negative expectations and concern about other people’s thoughts. Thus, it is believed that being subject to these symptoms might prove to be anxiety-breeding. An analysis of the items will help see the learners’ trajectory of cognitive anxiety (see Table 27).

Table 27: Mean Scores Displaying the Learners’ Cognitive Anxiety before and after the Feedback Practices

	GR	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. While writing in English, I get nervous.	ZPD	48	3.06	1.23	48	2.54	1.18
	Non-ZPD	49	3.33	0.99	49	3.02	1.18
3. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.	ZPD	48	2.27	1.05	48	2.04	0.94
	Non-ZPD	49	2.67	1.18	49	2.33	1.07
7. I worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others.	ZPD	48	3.23	1.45	48	2.75	1.41
	Non-ZPD	49	3.35	1.48	49	3.02	1.45
8. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.	ZPD	48	3.67	1.21	48	3.29	1.37
	Non-ZPD	49	3.63	1.29	49	3.71	1.21
12. I am afraid that the other students would deride my English composition if they read it.	ZPD	48	2.15	1.25	48	2.02	1.14
	Non-ZPD	49	2.78	1.39	49	2.53	1.19
15. I don’t worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.	ZPD	48	2.81	1.33	48	3.17	1.15
	Non-ZPD	49	2.96	1.32	49	2.80	1.19
16. I am afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	ZPD	48	3.00	1.32	48	2.77	1.26
	Non-ZPD	49	3.08	1.30	49	2.94	1.11
19. I am afraid that my English compositions would be rated as very poor.	ZPD	48	3.42	1.05	48	2.98	1.18
	Non-ZPD	49	3.41	1.27	49	3.16	1.21

Cognitive anxiety refers to the fear-inducing thoughts of the learners in language learning contexts. When the mean scores at the beginning of the study are analysed, it is seen that the highest ranking means belong to the items that read “If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade” (ZPDpreM=3.67; Non-ZPDpreM=3.63), “I am afraid that my English compositions would be rated as very poor” (ZPDpreM=3.42; Non-ZPDpreM=3.41), and “I worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others” (ZPDpreM=3.23; Non-ZPDpreM=3.35). These items indicate that learners in general position their writing performance in relevance to other people’s performance. Therefore, they “evaluate” or “rate” their performance comparing themselves with others. The average mean scores belong to the items 1, 15, and 16. Judging from the mean scores, the item “While writing in English, I get nervous”, which had a mean of 3.06 (ZPD) and 3.33 (Non-ZPD), points to the anxiety-provoking nature of writing. When the learners’ composition is chosen for discussion, they do not experience too much anxiety because people reportedly do not care about what others think of their compositions. The third and the twelfth items got the lowest mean values. Even though these items were similarly constructed, they had lower means. It could be attributed to two factors. One is that learners do not find it anxiety-provoking if they think that other people or learners read their compositions. However, if the evaluation translates into marking or grades, it leads to anxiety arousal. For instance, the third item “While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated”

had a very low mean compared to items. The interpretation of “evaluation” here is the key point. If learners have the conviction that the “evaluation” has a positive connotation (usually associated with any comment, feedback which the learners value), then it is not considered to be debilitating. However, when evaluation is equated with exams and grades, it seems learners tend to shy away from such evaluation-based judgements. The following table (see Table 28) shows a comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD learners with reference to their cognitive anxiety.

Table 28: Comparison of ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners’ Cognitive Anxiety

	Cognitive anxiety (Pretest)							
	N	M	SD	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	P
ZPD	48	3.00	0.68	45.21	2170	994	-1.316	.188
Non-ZPD	49	3.16	0.70	52.71	2583			
	Cognitive anxiety (Posttest)							
	N	M	SD	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	P
ZPD	48	2.65	0.74	42.77	2053	877	-2.161	.031
Non-ZPD	49	2.99	0.67	55.1	2700			

When the ZPD and non-ZPD learners’ cognitive anxiety is compared, it could be seen that learners felt less anxious after the feedback sessions. However, there does not seem to be a significant difference between the two groups for the cognitive anxiety subcategory. It could be inferred that feedback, regardless of its modality could create a less-anxiety breeding situation for writing situations.

Another subcategory of second language anxiety scale is somatic anxiety. Somatic anxiety is associated with behaviour leading to physiological arousal such as sweating, numbness, upset stomach and pounding heart (Cheng, 2004). In the somatic anxiety group, “I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint” (ZPDpreM=3.92; Non-ZPDpreM=4.16; ZPDpostM=3.46; Non-ZPDpostM=3.86), and “My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint” were the items with the highest ranking means before taking feedback in the department (ZPDpreM=3.67; Non-ZPDpreM=3.84) and after the feedback sessions (ZPDpostM=3.31; Non-ZPDpostM=3.63). “My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition”, “I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions” and “I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when write English compositions” were found to be moderately anxiety-breeding, while “I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure” and “My body starts shaking when I write English compositions” received less than average mean scores (see Table 29). Even though some decrease in the posttest anxiety mean scores was noticeable for almost all of the items, such a decrease was not the case for the 20th item that reads “I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.” Even if time pressure, which occurs in examination situations for this group of learners, was not a factor that triggers learners’ writing anxiety as much as other factors, it seems that is not affected by feedback practices.

It follows that feedback practices might be influential to eradicate some unrealistic beliefs and nervousness. However, the role of feedback might not be felt in exam situations. Since anxiety is a situational construct, it is quite expected that, at some particular situations, learners feel more anxious than others. Test anxiety was reported in previous studies, and correlated with inadequate test-taker qualities (Bachman and Palmer, 1996), unfamiliar content and unfamiliar test format (Young, 1991) and time constraints (Ohata, 2005). It might be deduced that test situations outweigh the learners' anxiety coping strategies. However, further studies investigating the role of test anxiety in particular could shed light on the issue.

Table 29: Mean Scores Displaying the Learners' Somatic Anxiety Before and After the Feedback Practices

	GR	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
2. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.	ZPD	48	3.92	1.05	48	3.46	1.37
	Non-ZPD	49	4.16	0.83	49	3.86	1.00
6. My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.	ZPD	48	3.04	1.15	48	2.92	1.38
	Non-ZPD	49	3.22	1.34	49	3.20	1.41
10. My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.	ZPD	48	3.67	1.10	48	3.31	1.36
	Non-ZPD	49	3.84	1.07	49	3.63	1.09
13. I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.	ZPD	48	3.31	1.29	48	2.88	1.25
	Non-ZPD	49	3.33	1.30	49	2.98	1.07
18. I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when write English compositions.	ZPD	48	2.75	1.00	48	2.44	1.13
	Non-ZPD	49	3.06	1.14	49	3.00	1.10
20. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.	ZPD	48	2.63	1.18	48	2.67	0.97
	Non-ZPD	49	2.98	1.09	49	3.00	1.17
22. My body starts shaking when I write English compositions.	ZPD	48	1.75	1.21	48	1.60	0.96
	Non-ZPD	49	2.29	1.32	49	1.73	1.13

A comparison of the control and experimental groups indicate that ZPD learners reported a relatively lower level of anxiety both in the pre- and posttests. The difference, however, was not statistically significant $p > .05$ (see Table 30).

Table 30: Comparison of Learners' Somatic Anxiety Before and After the Feedback Practice

	Somatic Anxiety (Posttest)							
	N	M	SD	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	P
ZPD	48	3.01	0.75	44.76	2148.5	972.5	-1.471	.141
Non-ZPD	49	3.27	0.86	53.15	2604.5			
	Somatic Anxiety (Posttest)							
	N	M	SD	MeanRank	Sum of Rank	Mann WhitneyU	Z	P
ZPD	48	2.75	0.89	44.88	2154	978	-1.431	.152
Non-ZPD	49	3.06	0.83	53.04	2599			

Avoidance Behaviour subscale involved 7 items related to avoidance of writing (see Table 31). These include procrastination and withdrawal. When learners feel insecure, it is reinforced by a delay or cancellation. That is, learners become less involved in writing. Judging from the items in the Avoidance Behaviour subscale, it could be argued that learners' inclination and/or involvement in Avoidance Behaviour decreased in general. The first item in the scale "I often choose to write down my thoughts in Turkish and translate them into English" had a mean of (ZPDpreM=2.79; Non-ZPDpreM=3.35) before the feedback practices. However, this tendency decreased to (ZPDpostM=2.10; Non-ZPDpostM=3.16). That is, fewer learners opted for ways to translate their ideas from the mother tongue into the target language. Another item on the avoidance of English writing "I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions" evidenced the learners' increasing inclination of risk taking and less avoidance. Including both the ZPD and non-ZPD group, thirty-five learners (36.1%) elicited either strongly agree or agree at the beginning, but the percentages for the option "strongly agree" and "agree" fell to 28 learners (28.9%). An increase in mean values in item 9, 14 and 17 should be treated with caution. It suggests the increased avoidance behaviour of learners in writing situations. Such avoidance tendency might be rooted to L1 writing habits. Part of the reason for it could be attributed to a possible failure in creating meaningful tasks. If learners cannot create learning tasks in which they communicate in a meaningful way, they might resort to L1 use to fill the void of failure in L2 communication. When learners are exposed to similar tasks again and again, chances are they will have little driving force to write in L2. Therefore, creating meaningful tasks which appeal to learners might help sustain their motivation and harness their writing talents.

Table 31: Mean Scores Displaying the Learners' Avoidance Behaviour Before and After the Feedback Practices

	Group	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in Turkish and translate them into English.	ZPD	48	2.79	1.25	48	2.10	1.22
	Non-ZPD	49	3.35	1.27	49	3.16	1.30
5. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.	ZPD	48	2.96	1.17	48	2.58	1.18
	Non-ZPD	49	2.96	1.12	49	2.82	1.25
9. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English (e.g., social media).	ZPD	48	1.88	0.98	48	2.33	1.21
	Non-ZPD	49	2.06	1.16	49	2.49	1.21
11. I would use English to write compositions.	ZPD	48	3.35	0.98	48	3.02	0.98
	Non-ZPD	49	3.33	0.99	49	3.14	0.89
14. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.	ZPD	48	2.31	0.93	48	2.19	1.00
	Non-ZPD	49	2.22	1.01	49	2.37	1.05
17. I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.	ZPD	48	3.04	1.05	48	2.90	1.08
	Non-ZPD	49	3.22	1.09	49	3.22	1.03
21. I don't feel nervous when I happen to show my writings to my peers.	ZPD	48	2.31	1.32	48	2.31	1.11
	Non-ZPD	49	2.43	1.10	49	2.35	0.99

When the mean values are compared, it is seen that the ZPD group had a lower mean value both before and after the feedback practices. However, the non-ZPD group demonstrated a higher mean value. The difference in the posttest was found to be statistically significant ($p > .05$) (see Table 32).

Table 32: Comparison of Learners' Avoidance Behaviour Before and After the Feedback Practices

(Pre test)	Avoidance Behaviour							
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	MannWhitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
ZPD	48	2.66	0.55	46.05	2210.5	1034	-1.025	.305
Non-ZPD	49	2.80	0.48	51.89	2542.5			
(Post test)	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	MannWhitneyU	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
	ZPD	48	2.49	0.52	42.47	2038.5	862.5	-2.271
Non-ZPD	49	2.79	0.60	55.4	2714.5			

In the light of the findings above, it could be suggested that the learners demonstrated a significantly lower level of writing anxiety after the feedback practices. It could be attributed to feedback practices as well as other possible confounding variables. One way to test the role of feedback practices, in addition the findings from qualitative research to be described below, could be analysing the effectiveness of the different feedback modalities employed through the study. To this end, a comparison between the anxiety level of learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group was drawn. The following table presents the differences (see Table 33).

Table 33: Mean Scores Displaying a Comparison between the L2 Writing Anxiety Level (mean values) of Learners in the ZPD and Non-ZPD Group

	ZPD	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>
Anxietypreoverall	ZPD	48	2.89	0.58	0.09
	Non-ZPD	49	3.08	0.60	0.10
Anxietypostoverall	ZPD	48	2.63	0.62	0.10
	Non-ZPD	49	2.94	0.63	0.09
Cognitivepre	ZPD	48	3.00	0.68	0.10
	Non-ZPD	49	3.16	0.70	0.10
Cognitivepost	ZPD	48	2.65	0.74	0.11
	Non-ZPD	49	2.99	0.67	0.10
Somaticpre	ZPD	48	3.01	0.75	0.11
	Non-ZPD	49	3.27	0.86	0.12
Somaticpost	ZPD	48	2.75	0.89	0.13
	Non-ZPD	49	3.06	0.83	0.12
Avoidancepre	ZPD	48	2.66	0.55	0.08
	Non-ZPD	49	2.80	0.48	0.07
Avoidancepost	ZPD	48	2.49	0.52	0.08
	Non-ZPD	49	2.79	0.60	0.09

When the L2 writing anxiety of learners is considered with respect to the feedback modality, it is seen that the ZPD learners, compared to the non-ZPD group, had a lower anxiety level in all subscales as well as the overall anxiety level. Several issues could be highlighted upon the comparison of ZPD learners and non-ZPD learners with respect to anxiety scores. First, with reference to the overall means of anxiety scores after the treatment, the control and the experimental groups demonstrated a statistically significant difference ($p < .05$). The comparison of learners in the control and experimental groups for all subscales did not point to a statistically significant difference. That the difference in these two subscales was only the case in the post-inventories could be attributed to the difference in the nature of the feedback practices. When the difference is interpreted in p values, a statistically significant difference is evidenced. The mean score for the ZPD group was 2.89, and it declined to 2.63 after the treatment. Likewise, the mean score for the non-ZPD group decreased to 2.94 from 3.08. The difference between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners in the posttest was found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$). There could be several implications of these findings. There seems to be a great deal of responsibility on educational institutions in terms of arming learners with a proper degree of willingness to communicate in the target language, and, feedback, whether delivered for ZPD or non-ZPD students plays a significant role in helping learners fight against writing anxiety. It assumed that one way to acclimatize the learners to the “system” is through feedback, and they can tailor the teachers’ expectations through feedback. A greater familiarity with the system could mean less certainty for learners, which, in turn, could result in a less anxiety-provoking situation. However, as it has been noted above, there is need to support the possibilities in justifications through other data gathering instruments.

4.2.2.1. L2 Writing Anxiety and Gender

With respect to gender, it was observed that females were the more anxious group both at the beginning and at the end of the study. The difference was statistically significant in both situations (see Appendix 36 for an item-based comparison). Before the treatment, the p value for gender was ($p = .004$), while it was ($p = .006$) after the treatment (see Table 34). That women were the more anxious group was a common result in many language anxiety studies (Aydın, 2008; Dalkılıç, 2001; Kırmızı and Kırmızı, 2015; Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu, 2013; Sertçetin, 2006).

Table 34: Comparison of the Male and Female Learners’ Anxiety Before and After Feedback Practices

Overall Anxiety	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	MannWhitneyU	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
Malepre	36	38.25	1377.00	38.25	1377	711	-2.891	.004
Femalepre	61	55.34	3376.00	55.34	3376			
Malepost	36	38.83	1398.00	38.83	1398	732	-2.734	.006
Femalepost	61	55.00	3355.00	55.00	3355			

The fact that females are consistently the more anxious group in several studies merits further scrutiny and makes it necessary to provide a justification. One explanation is that when reporting the level of anxiety, it is likely for women to interpret the items differently. Accordingly, even though both genders suffer from a similar degree of anxiety, it is likely that they demonstrate their anxious behaviour differently-maybe using different words or endorsing different answers. Moreover, consideration of “nature” and “nurture” might bring much complexity to a possible explanation. On the one hand, writing anxiety is treated as a situational anxiety; however, given the significant difference between males and females, the difference between males and females might be associated with some other factors other than situations. The justification here could be rooted to genetic makeup. In such a case, a person’s anatomy and biological sex should be the reference point of explanation. To this end, findings on anxiety and depressive disorders indicate that females are more than twice as likely to suffer from disorders (Bekker and van Mens-Verhulst, 2007). That females are more wired to grow anxious is usually related to low testosterone level.

On the other hand, since writing anxiety should be treated as type of a situational anxiety, it might be more reasonable to look at the “nurture” rather than nature. That is, the focus should fall on what is learnt in the society rather than an explanation through genetic disposition. Thus, some qualitative data could help to unearth why women are more likely to suffer from anxiety arousal. The search for an explanation in this realm makes it necessary to examine the prevalent social biases which assign females a vulnerable role make them prone to anxiety arousal.

Apart from a general gender-based comparison, a group-based comparison was also drawn. That is, the males and females in the ZPD and non-ZPD groups were compared. A Mann Whitney test indicated that the cognitive anxiety of the female ZPD learners both in the pretest and posttest was significantly higher ($prep = .02$; $postp = .012$). For the non-ZPD learners, while there was a significant difference between males and females considering the cognitive anxiety of learners in the pretest ($p = .031$), a statistically significant difference was not the case in the posttest ($p = .30$). In both both situations, the female learners reported a higher level of anxiety.

4.2.3. Analysis of the Learner Perceptions about L2 writing

It is no doubt that perceptions of writing have an impact on learners’ writing behaviour. Therefore, capturing the learners’ perceptions will help understand learner investments in L2 writing. The learners’ perceptions were analysed under 4 subscales: receptivity to L2 writing, future outcomes of L2 writing, challenges L2 learners experience, and L2 audience. As Table 35 shows, a considerable number of learners believe positive feedback received from the readers could enhance learners’ L2 performance.

Table 35: Mean Scores Displaying the Learners’ Receptivity to L2 Writing before and after the Feedback Practices

Receptivity to L2 Writing	Group	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
1. I think knowing the knowledge of the topic I am writing about in L2 makes L2 writing easier.	ZPD	48	4.33	0.81	48	4.50	0.88
	Non-ZPD	49	4.22	0.69	49	4.37	0.76
6. I have the strategy to recognize my errors during my revision	ZPD	48	3.75	0.76	48	4.17	0.60
	Non-ZPD	49	3.71	0.94	49	3.43	0.96
9. I have confidence to show my writing to my peers.	ZPD	48	3.35	1.02	48	3.79	0.90
	Non-ZPD	49	3.06	0.92	49	3.12	0.99
10. I am confident to receive any criticism for my writing from my readers.	ZPD	48	4.13	0.89	48	4.25	0.67
	Non-ZPD	49	3.90	0.92	49	3.96	0.96
16. My teacher’s positive feedback encourages me to write.	ZPD	48	4.02	0.75	48	4.69	0.72
	Non-ZPD	49	4.22	0.74	49	4.59	0.61
17. Writing is my best method to express my feelings on paper.	ZPD	48	3.56	1.13	48	3.46	0.99
	Non-ZPD	49	3.45	1.16	49	3.33	1.25
20. My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.	ZPD	48	4.33	0.93	48	4.17	1.02
	Non-ZPD	49	3.88	0.99	49	3.80	1.06
23. I do not have difficulty in writing something about my own culture.	ZPD	48	3.75	1.00	48	3.73	1.03
	Non-ZPD	49	3.71	0.87	49	3.65	0.99

Receptivity to L2 writing actually means learners’ openness to L2 writing. The abovementioned items indicate that learners have a high mean of receptivity. The items related to the L1 and L2 readers’ feedback, possession of topic knowledge, confidence to receive criticism, and previous L1 writing experience indicate the learners’ motivation to get engaged in L2 writing. That all scores of mean values were above 3 indicate the learners’ positive inclination to become part of the L2 writing community. The desire to possess an L2 writer identity could be interpreted as the respondents’ willingness to create, construct and develop their L2 writer self. An item-based analysis reveals the gravity of the learners’ enthusiasm.

At the beginning of the study, the learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group had similar mean scores. Except for one item, there was not a statistically significant relationship. The item which demonstrated significant difference (MannWhitney U $p = .014$) was “My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.” More learners in the ZPD group demonstrated a willingness to love writing and they established a relationship between L2 and L1 writing competence suggesting that L1 writing behaviour triggers L2 writing practices. Even though the opportunities to receive feedback were reported to be rare for learners at the beginning of the study, the learners had a chance to receive feedback throughout the semester, and the high mean value continued. This suggests that the learners’ high opinion of feedback as a contributing factor was coupled with a welcoming feedback experience. Therefore, it is worth noting that feedback stands as a facilitating tool for learners’ L2 writing development. Writers’ familiarity with the subject is an issue to be highlighted. The item “I think knowing the knowledge of the topic I am writing about in L2 makes L2 writing

easier” was approved by a great majority of the respondents. Here some information based on my informal conversations could be enriching. In fact, I tried to choose topics of interest for both males and females. Due to the experimental nature of the study, I had to control several variables, and the topic choice was one of them. In order to avoid topic effect, I assigned only one topic each week. However, several students complained about the topic limit throughout the weeks. For instance, some learners were not interested in fashion. Thus, they reported that they faced some difficulties when writing. Providing several topics could be a viable alternative to overcome this problem in future feedback practices; however, it could still create a problem of topic variation.

When it comes to the comparison of the posttest results, there were three items which indicated the significant differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners. The items and the mean values are tabulated as follows (see Table 36):

Table 36: Comparison of the Learner Perceptions about L2 Writing (Posttest)

		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann Whitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
6. I have the strategy to recognize my errors during my revision	ZPD	48	4.17	0.60	4.17	0.60	639	-4.174	.000
	Non-ZPD	49	3.43	0.96	3.43	0.96			
9. I have confidence to show my writing to my peers.	ZPD	48	3.79	0.90	3.79	0.90	750	-3.219	.001
	Non-ZPD	49	3.12	0.99	3.12	0.99			
20. My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.	ZPD	48	4.17	1.02	4.17	1.02	912.5	-2.009	.045
	Non-ZPD	49	3.80	1.06	3.80	1.06			

In accordance with Table 36, compared to non-ZPD learners, ZPD learners reported to have greater strategies to recognize their errors, greater confidence to show their writings and greater level of aid from their L1 practices. In the light of the differences mentioned, there is room to argue that mediation of feedback could be an effective way to empower learners with greater confidence, which is likely to be a viable investment for improved writing quality. It follows that mediation can bridge the gap between teaching and assessment by creating a “dynamic” nature in assessment. A similar finding was observed in oral assessment practices in a Turkish EFL setting (see Yılmaz Yakışık and Çakır, 2017). The participants who took the enrichment program in which the teacher-learner dialogues were mediated demonstrated better performance both regarding the oral performance scores and appropriate use of verbs when narrating a story.

4.2.3.1. Future Outcomes of L2 Writing

The subscale on the future outcomes of writing includes items related to why and to what extent L2 writing will be benefitted in the future. The following table (see Table 37) presents the learner perceptions of future outcomes of L2 writing before and after the feedback practices.

Table 37: Mean Scores Displaying the Future Outcomes of L2 Writing before and after the Feedback Practices

Future Outcomes of L2 Writing	Group	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
2. I believe I need to use L2 writing with people outside the classroom.	ZPD	48	4.63	0.49	48	4.52	0.77
	Non-ZPD	49	4.35	0.86	49	3.96	0.98
11. I write in L2 because I need it in my daily life.	ZPD	48	2.35	1.08	48	2.21	1.11
	Non-ZPD	49	2.10	0.87	49	2.20	0.91
14. I practice writing regularly because I want to be a good L2 writer.	ZPD	48	2.42	0.94	48	2.75	1.04
	Non-ZPD	49	2.55	1.02	49	2.61	0.98
15. I have to be a good L2 writer for my future career	ZPD	48	4.75	0.44	48	4.71	0.71
	Non-ZPD	49	4.69	0.58	49	4.57	0.68
18. I write because I believe that L2 writing accuracy will help me to be a professional person at work.	ZPD	48	4.56	0.74	48	4.65	0.81
	Non-ZPD	49	4.53	0.71	49	4.27	0.91
19. My negative previous learning experience will not stop me from improving my L2 writing.	ZPD	48	4.10	1.10	48	4.04	1.07
	Non-ZPD	49	3.80	1.06	49	3.80	1.17

As for the attached significance, learners in general have a high opinion of the scholarship in L2 writing especially for their future professions. The high mean scores both before and after the treatment support this notion. As for the pretest results, the respondents believe that L2 would be a great investment for professional as well as practical reasons. “I have to be a good L2 writer for my future career” (ZPDM=4.75; Non-ZPDM=4.69) and “I write because I believe that, L2 writing accuracy will help me to be a professional person at work” (ZPDM=4.56; Non-ZPDM=4.53) are two items that indicate a high degree of approval from the respondents. Moreover, the need to use L2 writing with people outside the classroom was either strongly agreed or agreed by a great majority in the pretest. A similar percentage of respondents pointed out that they needed extramural activities to make their writing proficiency stronger.

A possible mention regarding the future investments and outcomes of L2 writing is about the learners’ previous writing experience. It is likely for learners to be less motivated by their previous negative experiences. Thus, it is expected that negative experiences might curb the writers’ future endeavours. However, of the respondents, a considerable number indicated that they had faith in that their negative previous learning experience would not stop them from improving their L2 writing. Given that previous attempts to write in L2 were few at the beginning of the study, the respondents’ perceived experiment with earlier negative learning experiences shows the respondents’ ongoing enthusiasm to get involved in L2 writing.

Even though the respondents believed that L2 writing has a remarkable share for their future career, their investment does not seem to match with their perceptions. The mean values for the eleventh and the fourteenth items demonstrate the participants’ writing practices in their real life. It appears that even though writing acts as a salient investment for the respondents’ future, such an anticipated need does not translate into immediate action.

4.2.3.2. Challenges L2 Learners Experience

L2 writing experience is not a smooth sailing; it brings some challenges. These challenges include the ones related to perceptions or some challenges that emerge during actual practices. Some perceived needs of learners are provided in Table 38. When the pretest findings are examined, the figures suggest that the need for L2 writing improvement takes the lead with a mean of 4.63 (ZPD) and 4.65 (Non-ZPD). When the other items are further explained, suggestions regarding the improvement of L2 writing can be made. Exposure to L2 native writers' styles (ZPDM=4.13; Non-ZPDM=4.27) and the means to convey the desired message (ZPDM=4.02; Non-ZPDM=4.20) and inclusion of outside sources rather than school (ZPDM=3.25; Non-ZPDM=3.39) are among the items above the mean scores.

With reference to the posttest challenges of ZPD and non-ZPD learners, it is seen that ZPD learners reported greater challenges in items 5 and 7. It follows that they had less faith in outside sources and felt a greater need to express what they really want to say. Part of the reason for this could be that they usually come into close contact with the course teacher, whose help was reported to be of salient value. Thus, benefitting from sources other than the teacher could be interpreted as a risk. Moreover, their interaction with the teacher in feedback sessions might have made them more aware of their writing weaknesses. The remaining items (3, 4 and 22) point to the greater need of non-ZPD students.

Table 38. Mean Scores Displaying the Challenges L2 Learners Experience before and after the Feedback Practices

Challenges L2 Learners Experience	Group	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
3. I think I need to improve my L2 writing.	ZPD	48	4.63	0.70	48	3.54	0.65
	Non-ZPD	49	4.65	0.52	49	4.41	0.57
4. I believe I need to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles.	ZPD	48	4.13	1.04	48	3.88	0.70
	Non-ZPD	49	4.27	0.88	49	4.35	0.75
5. I think I experience difficulties writing issues about L2 culture.	ZPD	48	3.90	0.95	48	3.71	1.09
	Non-ZPD	49	3.73	1.06	49	3.69	0.92
7. I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily in L2 writing.	ZPD	48	4.02	1.12	48	3.69	0.83
	Non-ZPD	49	4.20	0.93	49	3.22	1.10
22. Writing skill can best be improved through outside sources (film, pen pals, dictionary etc.) rather than school.	ZPD	48	3.25	1.04	48	3.54	0.65
	Non-ZPD	49	3.39	1.02	49	4.41	0.57

When the differences are compared, it is seen that there was not a statistically significant difference in the pretest situation. However, a comparison of the posttest challenges by the ZPD and non-ZPD learners indicates significant differences in 3 items (see Table 39).

Table 39: Comparison of the Challenges L2 Learners Experience (Posttest)

	Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Mann Whitney U	<i>Z</i>	<i>P</i>
3. I think, I need to improve my L2 writing.	ZPD	48	3.54	0.65	33.75	1620	444	-5.748	.000
	Non-ZPD	49	4.41	0.57	63.94	3133			
4. I believe I need to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles.	ZPD	48	3.88	0.70	40.58	1948	772	-3.135	.002
	Non-ZPD	49	4.35	0.75	57.24	2805			
22. Writing skill can best be improved through outside sources (film, pen pals, dictionary etc.) rather than school.	ZPD	48	3.69	0.83	54.52	2617	911	-2.012	.044
	Non-ZPD	49	3.22	1.10	43.59	2136			

The results reveal that a considerable number of learner desire to become part of the target language writing community. On the other hand, the great need to be immersed in the L2 writing culture suggests lack of contentment with the actual writing practices. One thing for sure could be the learners' communicative intent to write in L2. Moreover, that a considerable percentage of the participants remained neutral regarding the use of external sources for writing development could be taken as a suspicion of the adoption of those sources. Thus, the message for the educators could be picking or benefitting from those sources wisely.

Culture stands as a sixth skill in language acquisition; therefore, there is need to empower learners with the hard as well as soft skills such as culture. When learners' needs are compared with reference to language variable, a huge difference can be noticed between learners' perceived cultural competence in their L1 and L2. While 61.09% of the learners reported that they experienced difficulties when writing on issues about L2 culture, a greater share of the respondents 65% pointed to their strength in writing something about their own culture. In support of increased familiarity with the cultural elements in L1, 72.2% of the respondents believe that L1 writing habits can facilitate their L2 writing. Even though the conviction that L1 writing proficiency correlates with L2 writing proficiency finds considerable support from literature (Karim and Nassaji, 2013; Rinnert and Kobayashi, 2009), in line with the main tenets of Contrastive Analysis, L1 transfer might develop into "bad" habits. Therefore, even though L1 transfer in L2 writing might promote learners' writing competence; it is likely that it might not yield fruitful in terms of several aspects such as content, lexical choice, organization and so on.

4.2.3.3. L2 Audience

L2 writing scholarship requires a consideration of the rhetorical patterns attuned to the audience's expectations. Therefore, the L2 writers are expected to develop a sense of audience or audience awareness. Developing such awareness can help writers look at their texts through different lenses. The table below (see Table 40) presents the items related to the sense of audience. The mean

scores belonging to the pre- and posttest questionnaires are described to help see the general tendency.

Table 40: Mean Scores Displaying the Sense of L2 Audience before and after the Feedback Practices

L2 Audience	Group	PRETEST			POSTTEST		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
8. I think I can write to different readers easily.	ZPD	48	3.21	1.01	48	3.50	1.05
	Non-ZPD	49	3.16	1.09	49	3.47	0.94
12. When I write, my purpose is to give my audience good impression about myself.	ZPD	48	3.25	1.30	48	3.44	1.25
	Non-ZPD	49	3.29	1.26	49	3.41	1.26
13. I only write to my L2 writing teacher.	ZPD	48	2.38	1.16	48	2.31	0.99
	Non-ZPD	49	2.57	1.21	49	2.78	1.39
21. Writing for different readers (teacher, classmates, friends on social media etc.) encourages me to write.	ZPD	48	3.73	1.03	48	3.67	0.97
	Non-ZPD	49	3.59	0.96	49	3.51	0.98

An increase in mean scores can be observed in items 8 and 12. In line with the 8th item, which reads “I think I can write to different readers easily,” the learners seem to have developed their self-efficacy to appeal to different readers. Such an increase might be attributed to different readers that learners communicated with or are likely to communicate with. During the classroom practices, learners were encouraged to work in pairs or groups and provide feedback to each other’s writing. Moreover, they were informed about a classroom journal which was expected to be published at the end of the year. All these things seem to have affected their audience awareness. In addition to the varied readership, learners appeared to have developed a positive writing self-image. Such an image is evident in item 12. While the mean score for the 12th item was 3.25 (ZPD) and 3.29 (non-ZPD) at the beginning of the study, it increased to 3.44 (ZPD) and 3.41 (non-ZPD) at the end of the study. The remaining two items require much consideration. An increased sense of audience is reinforced in item 13. More people in the ZPD group disagreed with the teacher as the sole audience. Even though feedback practices included the teacher and the students, it seems that the interactions in the ZPD group created an awareness that writing was not a task done for teachers. In line with item 21, despite an increased sense of the audience, it should be highlighted that not all the readers were encouraging enough. My informal observations tell me that the students were not happy when they received feedback from their peers. Again, it might be part of the learners’ reaction to their peers as they, reportedly, did not duly appreciate their writing attempts. Moreover, it is also possible that since writing practice was usually subject to evaluation, it was possible for learners to claim that they were writing to teachers.

A gender-based comparison of the learner perceptions of L2 writing in the pretest and posttest indicates that there is not a statistically significant for receptivity, future outcomes, and L2 audience subscales ($p > 0.05$). However, a statistically significant difference was found for the challenges subscale ($prep = .20$; $postp = .031$). Accordingly, even though the males and females did not

demonstrate significant differences in general, it is seen that the females were challenged by the requirements of the L2 writing community more than their counterparts. However, there was not a significant difference when the comparison was drawn for the ZPD and non-ZPD groups in particular.

4.2.4. Paragraph Writing Self-Efficacy

Before embarking on the statistical procedures, a test of normality was conducted to see what sort of test to be used (see Table 41). Based on the findings from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the normality test result was not statistically significant, which meant that the data were normally distributed. Therefore, parametric tests were opted for inferential statistics.

Table 41: Normality Test Scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	P	Statistic	df	P
Self-efficacypremean	.078	97	.164	.972	97	.034
Self-efficacypostmean	.076	97	.200*	.947	97	.001

Accordingly, the mean value before the feedback practices was 58.39. However, it increased to 68.96 after the treatment. The increase in self-efficacy means could be accounted for learners' increased familiarity with the writing tasks, writing contexts, writing environment and so on. However, the average scores do not provide details about the degree of self-efficacy in different feedback modalities. When the feedback modality in the pretest is taken into consideration, the ZPD learners had an average of 61.88, while the non-ZPD ones had 54.97. In the posttest, however, there was a sharp increase in self-efficacy scores (see Table 42). The ZPD learners had an average mean of 76.32 whereas non-ZPD participants exhibited an average of 61.75.

Table 42: Mean Scores Displaying the Self-Efficacy Scores in the ZPD and non-ZPD Group

	ZPD	N	M	SD	SEM	F	Sig.	t	df	P
Self-efficacy pretest	ZPD	48	61.88	12.68	1.83	3.919	.051	2.208	95	.030
	NON-ZPD	49	54.97	17.66	2.52					
Self-efficacy posttest	ZPD	48	76.32	8.71	1.26	6.008	.016	6.043	95	.000
	NON-ZPD	49	61.75	14.31	2.04					

The difference between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners was significant both in the pre- and posttests. It seems that feedback worked for both groups as there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores. The mean self-efficacy score for the ZPD group was 61.88 before the feedback practices. After the feedback sessions, however, the mean score for the ZPD group increased to 76.32. For the non-ZPD group, the mean score rose from 54.97 to 61.88.

Table 43: An Item-Based Analysis of the Pretest and Posttest Self-Efficacy Scores of Learners in the ZPD and Non-ZPD Group

<i>English Paragraph Writing Self-Efficacy</i>	<i>Pretest</i>							<i>Posttest</i>				
	ZPD	N	M	SD	t	df	P	M	SD	t	df	P
1. I can easily write a paragraph.	ZPD	48	49.58	20.52	1.044	95	.299	71.46	16.76	4.304	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	45.10	21.71	1.045	94.880	.299	56.53	17.39	4.306	94.976	.000
2. I can easily spell the words.	ZPD	48	62.60	20.88	1.183	95	.240	76.15	17.45	3.790	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	57.02	25.34	1.185	92.310	.239	60.82	22.06	3.799	90.984	.000
3. I can write an appropriate topic sentence.	ZPD	48	55.00	19.24	.998	95	.321	77.29	17.59	3.290	95	.001
	non-ZPD	49	50.61	23.75	1.001	91.783	.320	64.69	20.01	3.295	93.918	.001
4. I can use the mechanics appropriately.	ZPD	48	66.46	23.83	.982	95	.329	69.38	19.40	2.518	95	.013
	non-ZPD	49	61.22	28.40	.984	92.823	.328	58.78	21.95	2.522	94.014	.013
5. I can make sentences without grammar mistakes.	ZPD	48	53.54	22.45	1.463	95	.147	67.29	17.59	4.615	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	46.63	24.01	1.464	94.799	.146	48.78	21.66	4.625	91.865	.000
6. I can use singular/plural forms appropriately.	ZPD	48	72.29	20.65	1.339	95	.184	80.83	17.11	2.600	95	.011
	non-ZPD	49	66.02	25.19	1.342	92.164	.183	71.02	19.92	2.604	93.419	.011
7. I can use transition words appropriately.	ZPD	48	73.65	18.84	3.178	95	.002	82.08	13.36	3.210	95	.002
	non-ZPD	49	59.39	24.87	3.187	89.394	.002	72.24	16.62	3.217	91.547	.002
8. I can use prepositions appropriately.	ZPD	48	62.60	18.79	3.019	95	.003	72.08	15.01	4.663	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	49.59	23.36	3.026	91.562	.003	55.71	19.26	4.674	90.469	.000
9. I can use the appropriate words.	ZPD	48	58.33	17.42	1.540	95	.127	72.60	16.44	4.068	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	51.84	23.60	1.545	88.341	.126	55.71	23.72	4.083	85.597	.000
10. I can support my sentences appropriately.	ZPD	48	65.31	18.95	1.597	95	.113	80.73	13.37	4.497	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	58.37	23.57	1.601	91.531	.113	63.67	22.70	4.520	78.013	.000
11. I can organize my thoughts appropriately.	ZPD	48	60.06	21.00	1.698	95	.093	79.38	13.90	4.833	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	51.84	26.35	1.702	91.245	.092	62.24	20.34	4.852	84.964	.000
12. I can write a concluding sentence appropriately.	ZPD	48	57.92	19.78	.379	95	.706	78.54	16.37	3.097	95	.003
	non-ZPD	49	56.12	26.36	.380	89.004	.705	67.14	19.69	3.103	92.579	.003
13. I can write a paragraph without irrelevant sentences.	ZPD	48	60.21	18.51	1.586	95	.116	81.04	12.42	4.628	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	53.37	23.62	1.590	90.660	.115	64.49	21.51	4.653	77.100	.000
14. I can use synonyms appropriately.	ZPD	48	57.50	22.92	1.445	95	.152	78.02	14.90	3.518	95	.001
	non-ZPD	49	50.31	25.99	1.447	93.981	.151	63.27	25.03	3.536	78.517	.001
15. I can write appropriate supporting sentences.	ZPD	48	56.98	17.06	1.842	95	.069	75.63	14.72	2.540	95	.013
	non-ZPD	49	49.18	23.96	1.848	86.801	.068	64.08	27.91	2.555	73.108	.013
16. I can present my ideas in unity.	ZPD	48	59.48	17.81	2.242	95	.027	79.17	13.50	5.057	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	50.20	22.59	2.248	90.876	.027	60.82	21.30	5.079	81.464	.000
17. I can easily discuss my ideas when writing.	ZPD	48	55.42	20.52	1.756	95	.082	74.79	16.76	4.578	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	47.76	22.39	1.758	94.588	.082	56.94	21.33	4.589	90.747	.000
18. I can provide examples, facts and details to support my ideas.	ZPD	48	61.88	18.30	1.437	95	.154	79.58	14.43	4.768	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	55.71	23.54	1.441	90.357	.153	60.61	23.58	4.790	79.823	.000
19. I can present my ideas clearly.	ZPD	48	60.94	22.21	.868	95	.388	77.50	16.82	3.686	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	56.73	25.36	.869	93.837	.387	63.06	21.43	3.695	90.722	.000
20. I can find my mistakes easily.	ZPD	48	52.50	19.95	.493	95	.623	64.69	13.74	4.439	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	50.41	21.79	.493	94.570	.623	48.37	21.54	4.458	81.746	.000
21. I can write in different genres (narration, description, cause-effect etc.) easily.	ZPD	48	44.38	19.78	1.737	95	.086	68.54	13.99	5.957	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	36.94	22.29	1.739	94.092	.085	47.76	19.82	5.977	86.415	.000
22. I can submit my assignments on time.	ZPD	48	86.46	13.17	2.596	95	.011	81.15	26.60	2.348	95	.021
	non-ZPD	49	74.49	29.16	2.614	67.092	.011	67.96	28.65	2.350	94.732	.021
23. I can benefit from different sources (dictionaries, the Internet etc.) effectively.	ZPD	48	90.10	12.05	1.440	95	.153	87.40	18.57	.474	95	.636
	non-ZPD	49	85.51	18.60	1.446	82.471	.152	85.51	20.52	.475	94.410	.636

An item-based analysis also reveals that self-efficacy scores of learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD groups had statistically significant differences especially after the feedback practices. Table 43 shows an item-based analysis of the pretest and posttest self-efficacy scores of learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group.

As the table above indicates, both in the pretest and posttest situations, the ZPD learners had higher mean values for each question. In the pretest comparison, the discrepancy was found to be statistically significant for the items 7, 8, 16, and 22. That is, the mean values for the perceived ability to use transition words and prepositions, present ideas in unity, and the ability to submit assignments on time were higher in favour of the ZPD group. However, in the posttest situation, except for the item 23, all items demonstrated a considerable difference. It could be attributed to the ZPD learners' intensive dialogue with the teacher. One possible reading in this regard is that ZPD learners perceived the mediation with the teacher "adequate".

Considering the mean values in the pretest and posttest, except for a few items, there was a considerable increase in the mean values in the posttest. For the ZPD group, the decrease in values was the case for the items 22 and 23. For the non-ZPD group, there was a decrease in the mean values of the items 4, 20, and 22. It is evident that even though there were considerable gains in many aspects, non-ZPD learners felt themselves less secure in terms of grammar and submission time. The findings indicate that even though the two groups received feedback in similar forms, the non-ZPD learners felt less self-efficacious in terms of form-focused aspects. That the ZPD group indicated considerably higher means for almost all items is a finding that should be approached critically.

Self-efficacy of the learners was also analysed by gender (see all items in Appendix 38). An independent samples t-test was conducted to investigate the differences between males and females. It was found that the males had a higher level of self-efficacy both before and after the feedback practices. The following table (see Table 44) presents the mean scores belonging to each gender before and after the study.

Table 44: Mean Scores Displaying a Comparison of Males' and Females' Self-Efficacy Scores

	Gender	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>
EPREMEAN	Male	36	62.11	14.56	2.43
	Female	61	56.20	16.06	2.06
EPOSTMEAN	Male	36	72.03	12.79	2.13
	Female	61	67.15	14.30	1.83

Even though the males and the females had different self-efficacy scores in the pre- and posttests, the difference was not statistically significant both before the feedback provision $t(95) = 1.812, p = .073$ and after the feedback provision $t(95) = 1.688, p = .095$ (see Table 45). It might be difficult to compare this finding with earlier studies because the self-efficacy here refers to paragraph

writing self-efficacy. When the analysis of the gender-based differences was conducted for the ZPD learners in particular, it was seen that there was a statistically significant difference in the pretest ($p = .014$). The males demonstrated higher means of self-efficacy ($M=67.8$) than the females ($M=58.6$). However, in the posttest, the difference was not statistically significant ($p = .364$). For the non-ZPD group, the while there was not a significant difference in the pretest ($t(47)=.627$; $p = .534$), but in the posttest situation, the females demonstrated a statistically significant difference ($t(47)=2.028$; $p =.048$).

Even though the documented studies usually approach self-efficacy as a general construct, some discussion could still be made with reference to the higher self-efficacy level of males. In line with the related literature, males exhibit a higher level of self-efficacy. Such a high level could be related to the women’s use of a different metric (Noddings, 1996) when measuring their perceived anxiety. That males demonstrated a higher level of self-efficacy in EFL contexts is also evident in some other studies (Doğan, 2016, Kırmızı and Kırmızı, 2015, Sağlamel and Doğan, 2016). Wigfield et al.’s (1996) explanation of a significant gender difference could also explain the discrepancy. Accordingly, males demonstrate a self-congratulatory behaviour, whereas girls are inclined to be modest.

Table 45: T-test Comparing Males and Females in Terms of Perceived Self-Efficacy

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
L2 writing self-efficacy (pre)	Equal variances assumed	1.263	.264	1.812	95	.073
L2 writing self-efficacy (post)	Equal variances assumed	.065	.799	1.688	95	.095

4.2.5. Feedback Modality and Achievement

Writing achievement of the learners could be a demonstration of the effectiveness of the feedback practices. Thus, the participants’ assessment scores obtained through different assessment tools were analysed to keep track of their achievement. The scores were obtained from a proficiency test, two achievement tests, and a portfolio. The proficiency test is the one administered at the beginning of the semester and the achievement test scores were obtained from the visa scores and portfolio refers to the collection of students’ paragraphs including the multiple drafts and the final version.

Table 46 shows the mean scores of learners in four assessment situations. The lowest mean scores were observed in the proficiency test. The learners in the ZPD group had a mean of 56.78, while the non-ZPD group had an average of 58.16. Despite a growing exam literacy of the learners, learners’ writing grades at the very beginning of the preparatory classes are low. The reason for such lower scores could be the lack of well-preparedness for the academic writing conventions which are followed in the university setting.

Table 46: Mean Scores Displaying the Students' Performance across Different Assessment Tools

	ZPD	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SEM</i>
Proficiency	ZPD	48	56.77	10.53	1.52
	NON-ZPD	49	58.16	13.30	1.90
Midterm 1	ZPD	48	77.63	8.95	1.29
	NON-ZPD	49	70.69	13.16	1.88
Midterm 2	ZPD	48	80.81	9.52	1.37
	NON-ZPD	49	66.37	20.20	2.89
Portfolio	ZPD	47	89.06	5.32	0.78
	NON-ZPD	47	80.32	12.40	1.81

The differences between the learners' scores could be explicated through employing t-tests. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores in the proficiency test. The difference between the two mean scores was not found to be statistically significant ($t(95) = -.571$, $p = .569$), with the non-ZPD group scoring higher. Since there was not a statistically significant difference, it was thought that the learners in the two groups exhibited similar performance. However, it appears from Table 47 that the difference between learners became higher in the following tests.

In the achievement tests, the mean scores got higher, and the discrepancy between the learners' scores between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners became greater. In the first midterm, the mean score for the non-ZPD group was 70.69, while it was 77.63 for the ZPD group. In the delayed posttest, the mean score was 66.37 for the non-ZPD group, while the ZPD group had an average of 80.81. The difference between the mean scores of ZPD and non-ZPD group was found to be significant both in the first midterm ($t(95) = 3.028$, $p = .003$) and the second midterm ($t(95) = 4.490$, $p = .000$) (posttest and delayed posttest) (see Table 47). Finally, as for the portfolio evaluation scores, the difference between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners was found to be statistically significant, with ZPD group performing higher. The mean score for the non-ZPD group was 80.32, while it amounted to 89.06. The difference between the portfolios performance was found to be statistically significant $t(92) = 4.442$, $p = .000$ (see Table 47). The increase in learner performance especially in feedback within the learners' ZPD context requires some consideration in terms of the relatively increased effectiveness.

It follows from these findings that the feedback in the learners' ZPD could make a significant contribution. The teacher and learner interactions in the ZPD group create a degree of reciprocity and dialogic interaction which is desirable for language acquisition contexts. According to Mustafa (2012), mediating through the feedback process could decrease the reliance on the teacher and initiate self-regulation. Moreover, to establish mediation, face-to-face conferencing plays a significant role in establishing relationship (Hyland and Hyland, 2006a).

Table 47: T-test Scores Displaying the Students' Performance across Different Assessment Tools

	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>P</i>
Proficiency	.178	.674	-.571	95	.569
			-.572	91.040	.569
Posttest 1	2.766	.100	3.028	95	.003
			3.040	84.726	.003
Posttest 2	10.958	.001	4.490	95	.000
			4.520	68.615	.000
Portfolio	4.114	.045	4.442	92	.000
			4.442	62.359	.000

4.3. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

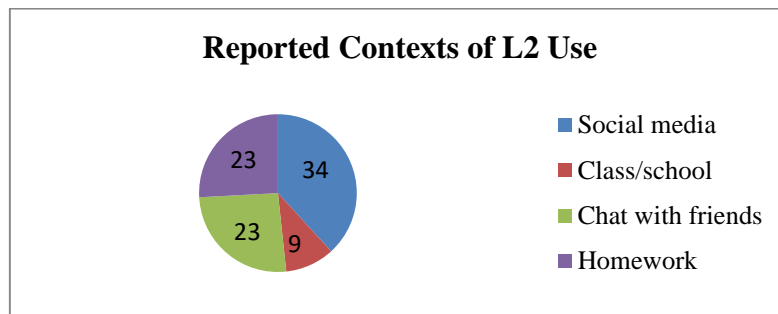
When analysing the qualitative data, content analysis was used. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) provide a summary of three distinct qualitative approaches to content analysis, namely, conventional, directed, or summative. The approach to be taken in this study was the conventional inductive approach. As the researcher did not hold a fixed pattern before gathering data, new insights to emerge were allowed.

In order to develop codes from the data, a word by word transcription was conducted (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Then the initial analysis was done making notes on the concepts and thoughts through the emerging codes. The initial coding was achieved in this way. Next, the researcher attempted to establish some links between the codes in order to create meaningful clusters (Patton, 2002).

4.3.1. Analysis of the Open-Ended Items in the Questionnaire (Pre)

The sociocultural consideration of writing requires to go beyond the individual, and context dichotomy and approach writing as a contextually situated practice. To this end, how writers position themselves is a necessity to unravel in order to take the broader social context. The thematic analysis of the open-ended items revealed elements related to learners' contexts of writing behaviour, reasons for studying at the department, students' perceived emotions during their L2 practice, the most frequently referred sources throughout L2 writing, and things students appreciate as well as things learners desire to change. The analysis of the L2 writing contexts reveals that learners tend to use L2 writing predominantly for having fun. It goes from here that schooled writing practices are not conceivably relevant to their immediate use of writing. That is, except for the requirements of the school, writing is considered to be a skill which seems to have little out-of-school relevance.

Figure 16: Reported Contexts of L2 Use



With reference to the contexts that learners write (see Figure 16), 34 learners (18 ZPD; 16 non-ZPD) reported that they experiment with L2 writing in social media. Facebook, Twitter, Whatsapp and Messenger were the sites reported to be benefitted extensively. Moreover, L2 writing was also used for chatting with friends, and a considerable number of users (n=23; 10 ZPD; 13 non-ZPD) highlighted the role of informal conversations to develop their L2. A great challenge in the interpretation was about drawing a clear-cut distinction between chatting and using social media. Based on my observations, in most cases, social media tools were used for chatting. However, as further clues for the chatting was not the case, I thought chatting would be a different category here. Twenty-three participants (12 ZPD; 11 non-ZPD) acknowledged that they were using their L2 to do their homework, or write their diary. Another theme developed was the use of English writing in formal situations. When L2 writing in formal situations was considered, 9 people (5 ZPD; 4 non-ZPD) explained that they were writing in English in their language classes. That the number of utterances regarding out-of-school writing outweigh the schooled ones makes us think of the emerging gap between the formal instruction and actual practices. Therefore, the need for educational institutions to bridge the gap is becoming a serious concern.

Regarding the distribution of the themes for the ZPD and non-ZPD learners, it could be argued that there was not a striking difference as learners highlighted social media chatting homework, diary, and other practices in their responses. Therefore, the two groups considering the approximate values in qualitative and quantitative studies were similar at the beginning of the study. The following parts give details about the perceptions of learners by providing concrete evidence of what those learners stated.

With reference to the gender distribution, out of 34 students, with 24 of them being females, stated that they used English writing mostly on the internet and the social media (Facebook, WhatsApp etc.). Ten males also held the same statement. Thirteen out of twenty-three people said that they wrote in English at home, either with homework, or with a diary. English writing in the classroom was also mentioned by the students (6F; 3M), with some saying that they only did writing in the classroom or at the university.

4.3.1.1. Reasons for the Departmental Choice

Capturing the learners' motivations for studying could be enriching to better understand the learners. When the relevant information regarding the learners' departmental choices was analysed, the following 4 themes were obtained: (1) increased opportunities for developing language proficiency, (2) increased job opportunities, (3) interest for the target culture, and (4) YDS result.

4.3.1.1.1. Increased Opportunities for Developing Language Proficiency

Development of language proficiency is a concern highlighted by many of the participants (n=44). Even though the department offers more than language proficiency, from the perspectives of the respondents, the "content" aspect of the departmental courses took the second seat. Most probably, the respondents take language proficiency as a precursor for their future jobs. To exemplify, "*I love English, and I think to learn it will be an advantage to me in future*", said ST6 (non-ZPD), while a similar sentiment "*To develop my English*" was voiced by ST33 (ZPD). Language development through the departmental courses is seen as an investment especially for career purposes. The job opportunity perspective will be handled separately even though it is difficult to separate the linguistic and materialistic gains. As Norton (1995: 17) put it, investment in language learning will help learners benefit from "symbolic and material resources which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital." Thus, it would not be poorly grounded to call the investment in language proficiency as an investment in cultural capital.

Among 44 students who stated that they enjoyed the English language or/and Literature, 28 students (46% of all females) were females, and 16 (44% of all males) were males. Moreover, job opportunities were an influential motive for English learning, and 31 learners stated that they were studying in the department for their future career, or to simply improve their knowledge. Out of this number 18 were female, while 13 were male. Moreover, of the students who stated that they were studying in English language and literature simply because they did not earn the right to study in another department, 5 were females and 2 were males.

4.3.1.1.2. Increased Job Opportunities

Increased job opportunities (n=31) were highlighted by a considerable number of the respondents. Usually the choice of department was associated with teaching and translating. One of the respondents (ST4; ZPD) stated that s/he wants to be an English teacher and translator, while another learner (ST27; ZPD) pointed out, "*I want to become a teacher after getting a teaching certificate*". Even though the department is not an English Language Teaching Department, the learners consider that the departmental differences can be mitigated by the teaching certificate which is obtained upon completion of one-year teaching programme to teach English in state schools in

Turkey. Another respondent revealed that his/her job choice as a translator would be reinforced by the departmental courses. *“Actually I wanted to be a translator, but to develop myself much more, I chose this department”*, said a respondent (ST24; ZPD), implying that choice of the department was appropriate both for the job prospect as well as for ongoing development.

That a remarkable number of learners stressed the job factor as a justification for their decisions is in line with previous studies in Turkish EFL context. For instance, as Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012) indicated, language investment is considered to be an opportunity to join the international job market. In another study, Selvi (2011) argued that English language competence is considered to be an essential asset for prospective job applicants. Therefore, a language teaching program or a writing course that has limited relevance to prospective work opportunities or conditions may not be motivating enough for the learners. It follows that learners’ motive for departmental choice has a significant bearing in their pursuit of future job opportunities.

4.3.1.1.3. Interest for the Target Culture

Even though theories of motivation point to different explanations regarding the motivational intensity of the learners at a particular situation, there is plenty of evidence that a motivated learner develops a positive attitude towards the target language. In accordance with the early theories, there was a major difference between instrumental and integrative motivation. The term integrative motivation denotes “individual’s willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups” (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 59). Accordingly, foreign language learning was a matter of necessity emerging from learners’ sheer interest in the target culture or the people of target culture with whom they desire to identify themselves, or pragmatic reasons such as obtaining a job or a passing grade. Learners in the initial category were deemed to be integratively motivated, while the latter category fell into instrumental disposition. However, the distinction between the instrumental and integrative motivation has become more blurred today (Lamb, 2004).

Cultural elements have driven some learners (n=8) to opt for the department. However, the word culture was not uttered as much as the elements that exhibit learners’ instrumental dispositions. When the learner accounts are referred to *“At first, I wanted to be an English teacher; however, I chose this department to become well-equipped and benefit from the [target] culture”*, stated a respondent (ST72; ZPD), while a similar reasoning was used by another *“I want to learn English better and become more cultured.”* (ST94; ZPD). It appears from the learners’ accounts that the department offers more than other departments in terms of cultural elements. In line with this perception, for those who want to benefit from the mental discipline of the target culture, English language and literature departments stand out as a viable choice. The literature on the comparisons of instrumental and integrative motivation demonstrates that more learners are instrumentally motivated (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2009). Based on the answers on departmental choice, the finding that

job prospects outweigh the integrative drives seems to be congruent with the earlier studies even though the respondents were not explicitly asked to choose between the alternatives.

Much of the credit about culture category can go to the departmental courses that potentially promote learners' cultural awareness. "*I love literature*", said ST97 (ZPD), and another respondent (ST94; ZPD) explained that "*I want to learn all aspects of English, and I want to learn about English language a bit further*". Perceived contribution of cultural content is enriching for the learners, and the learners' connotations of the cultural content are usually "better English", "more cultural aspect," "curiosity," and "love".

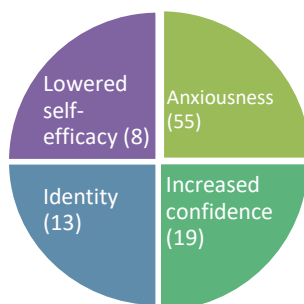
4.3.1.1.4. YDS Results

The departmental choice does not appear to be a sound rationale for all respondents. Several respondents (n=7) indicated that the motive for their departmental choice was a matter of their score. Those students usually stated that studying at an ELT program was their priority. The following explanation "*Actually I was hoping to study in an ELT program; however, I believe that I will have opportunities to improve myself here,*" (ST23; non-ZPD) clearly portrays why an English language and literature department was not their initial choice. Another respondent argued that "*I could not obtain a score to get enrolled in an ELT program.*" (ST27; ZPD). Learners studying in the program know that they can get a teaching certificate and continue teaching, but they seem to place English language teaching in the first seat as it is seen as a short cut for their career. Moreover, the emphasis on reading should be highlighted here as learners usually associate English language and literature programs with heavy reading tasks.

4.3.1.2. Learners' Feelings during L2 Writing Situations

Understanding the psychological constructs such as anxiety and self-efficacy was done through the scales. However, written reports of student feelings help the reader "see" their feelings in an unstructured way. Since L2 writing is a different realm for learners, it is not surprising that such a process invokes different feelings for learners. The open-ended item "When I start writing in English, I feel.....because....." aimed at capturing the learners' feelings. The following themes were developed as a result of the content analysis.

Figure 17: Encoded Answers Suggesting How the Students Feel When They Happen to Write in an L2 Writing Situation



As the figure (see Figure 17) indicates, anxiousness, a new L2 identity, increased confidence and insufficiency are the major themes developed. Before the provision of a fine-grained analysis of each theme, some clarifications regarding the nature of the study might cast some light on the learners’ anxiety continuum. Of the 4 major themes developed, only the “new L2 identity” is not embraced by the continuum. The other themes, namely, anxiousness, increased confidence and insufficiency can be mapped on a continuum.

4.3.1.2.1. Anxiety

L2 writing anxiety is a state of nervousness learners are likely to experience when developing their writing skills. Even though it is not treated as a stable predisposition as of the trait anxiety, the situational effects of the anxiety-breeding nature of the L2 writing classes was evidenced in a considerable number of learners. Out of 90 responses to the item, 55 (30 ZPD; 25 non-ZPD) reflected the respondents’ anxiety arousal in L2 writing situations.

The following excerpts in Table 48 indicate the learners’ nervousness in L2 writing situations. While a respondent stated that s/he felt anxious (ST1; ZPD), others provided some hints to help the researcher establish causality. Generally, increased anxiety level was associated with lack of vocabulary, fear of making mistakes, the inability to express one’s self, insecurity with grammar mistakes, difficulty of a focused writing, the nervousness arising from the audience concerns, time limitations and the perceived difficulties regarding the incompatibility with the target language forms of expression. The last item in the table needs to be handled differently because the anxiety of the learner is explained through a metaphor. Getting stuck in “a dark well” reveals the urgency of the need to escape from the alarming situation. Such a situation can be described with fear, nervousness, and hopelessness and so on, thereby triggering learners’ language anxiety. The following excerpts present an example of each code mentioned. Most of the items below are in line with the items in writing anxiety scale; therefore, judging from the findings from the open-ended items in the pretest, it could be argued that a considerable number of learners felt anxious at the beginning of the study.

Table 48: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Anxiety in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST1; ZPD)	<i>I feel so anxious.</i>
(ST29; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel indecisive because I don't know which vocabulary is more suitable to use.</i>
(ST36; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because I am afraid of making mistakes.</i>
(ST42; ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious and nervous because I can't express myself clearly.</i>
(ST48; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious and nervous because I don't think I can write grammatically true.</i>
(ST57; non-ZPD)	<i>I have the fear that I will not be able to write to the topic.</i>
(ST62; non-ZPD)	<i>I want to produce something good and I feel compelled to affect the person who will read my work.</i>
(ST86; ZPD)	<i>I feel tense and stressed especially if there is time limitation.</i>
(ST92; ZPD)	<i>I feel tense and unease because I do not think that I write in an appropriate way in English.</i>
(ST14; ZPD)	<i>I feel I was trapped in a dark well.</i>

On the opposite end of the anxiety continuum are the learners who reported to feel confident when they are writing in the target language (see Table 49 for sample excerpts).

Table 49: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Confidence in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST28; non-ZPD)	<i>If I can write fluently I feel good because it makes me tempted to write more and more.</i>
(ST31; ZPD)	<i>I feel good and successful.</i>
(ST49; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel happier because I can see my development in English.</i>
(ST50; non-ZPD)	<i>I see how easy I find it to express myself because it is an opportunity to express myself in English.</i>
(ST64; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel as if I were a painter who will portrait a beautiful woman: excited and secure.</i>
(ST76; ZPD)	<i>I feel secure and peaceful because I really enjoy experimenting with English, and the more I experiment, the more delighted I feel.</i>
(ST83; ZPD)	<i>I feel cool because showing what I know makes me feel good.</i>

As the excerpts in Table 49 indicate, the respondents feel themselves either better or advantaged to cherish the new identity. Feeling better or confident is caused by the temptation to write more, feelings of success, noticing the target language development, the joy of self-expression, experiment with the target language and the opportunity of share. When the words “write fluently”, “successful”, “happier”, “peaceful” and “cool” are analysed, it is seen that a proper degree of confidence in writing translates into a positive disposition. Another metaphoric explanation “*I feel as if I were a painter who will portrait a beautiful woman: excited and secure*” (ST76; ZPD) also adds to the positive disposition in question. Portraying a beautiful woman is a positive reinforcement for a painter. Likewise, it could be deduced from ST64’s (non-ZPD) excerpt that writing in L2 acts as a promoter of one’s potential in writing.

In terms of gender differences, it appears that males express more satisfaction, while females expresses more anxiety and insufficiency. Satisfaction with the writing performance was voiced by 19 (52%) males and 15 females (24%). However, a great number of students (n=55) stated that they felt anxious and insufficient about writing. Sixty-five percent of the females and 42% of the males indicated their concerns.

It has already been mentioned that when learners happen to write in a new language, they find themselves in a new territory. Therefore, they adopt different selves. These new “selves” had all positive connotations for this study. This could be attributed to the “freedom”, as one of the respondents (ST23; non-ZPD) insisted. That learners identify themselves with a positive self-image in the new territory should be highlighted. ST4 (ZPD) and ST9 (ZPD) provided a neutral stance, saying they felt in a different world (see Table 50). For another learner, the new “self” was associated with a noble man. In addition, “a new baby” analogy was also drawn to indicate the proximity between L2 writing and infants. The new baby could be interpreted as innocence, tabula rasa and increased room for creativity. Thus, the learners’ identity in the L2 writing process can be interpreted as the shifting selves of L2 writers. That is, they construct, inhabit and revise new identities when they step into the writing territory.

Table 50: Sample Answers Indicating Learners’ New Identity in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST3; ZPD)	<i>I feel myself as a noble man.</i>
(ST4; ZPD)	<i>I feel myself in a different world.</i>
(ST6; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel myself like a baby.</i>
(ST9; ZPD)	<i>I feel different.</i>
(ST26; ZPD)	<i>I feel like a professional writer.</i>
(ST93; ZPD)	<i>I feel comfortable and in a different mind because my ideas become English then.</i>

4.3.1.2.2. Low Self-Efficacy

The new territory of writing is not always welcome. The unease due to the learning situation is a significant consideration for learners. It might also be associated with anxiety; however, because of the respondents’ reports of self-efficacy, it will only be associated with self-efficacy, which, in this particular situation, refers to the respondents’ beliefs about their capabilities (see Table 51 for sample excerpts). To illustrate from the respondents’ excerpts, “*I feel myself insufficient*” says ST11 (ZPD) without providing a rationale for such an insufficiency. Another respondent (ST27; ZPD) drew attention to his/her lack of practice saying “*I don’t have any idea because I don’t write anything in English.*” Lack of performance accomplishments, in accordance with Bandura’s (1977) reasoning, is a reason for lower level of self-efficacy. Moreover, that the respondents desire a competence similar to their L1 competence makes their feelings of insufficiency graver. Poor vocabulary is another reason for the learners’ low self-efficacy. Therefore, one respondent (ST94; ZPD) felt that the dictionary use made her lose the sight of what she was doing.

Table 51: Sample Answers Indicating Learners’ Insufficiency in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST11; ZPD)	<i>I feel insufficient.</i>
(ST27; ZPD)	<i>I don’t have any idea because I don’t write anything in English.</i>
(ST70; non-ZPD)	<i>When I compared my Turkish and English competence, I feel that I am insufficient in English, and this makes me feel unable to express what I desire.</i>
(ST94; ZPD)	<i>I feel extremely busy looking up dictionaries because my vocabulary is quite limited.</i>

4.3.1.3. Learners' Preferred Ways to Improve L2 Writing

Investigation of writing development using a sociocultural lens might help capture the learners' meaning making. The development of L2 writing does not take place in a vacuum; rather it is accompanied by various mediational means such as dictionaries, native friends, the Internet and so on. What is more is the learners have preconceived ideas to develop their L2 writing practices. Regarding the L2 writing improvement, dictionary use, reading, practicing writing, chatting, receiving feedback, watching something, using social media, doing homework, translating texts and listening to something were the mediational means benefitted. The following list presents the techniques either as an activity in general, as in listening, or as an artefact benefitted using that particular activity, as in listening to CDs, and their frequency of their mention in the answers to the open-ended questions (see Table 52).

Table 52: Preferred Ways to Improve L2 Writing (Pretest)

Codes	<i>f</i>
Dictionary	37 (17 ZPD; 20 non-ZPD)
Read(ing)	27 (12 ZPD; 15 non-ZPD)
Write(ing)	23 (12 ZPD; 11 non-ZPD)
Chat(ing)	17 (12 ZPD; 5 non-ZPD)
Feedback	14 (9 ZPD; 5 non-ZPD)
Watch(ing)	6 (3 ZPD; 3 non-ZPD)
Social media	6 (4 ZPD; 2 non-ZPD)
Homework	6 (4 ZPD; 2 non-ZPD)
Translation	4 (2 ZPD; 2 non-ZPD)
Listen(ing)	3 (1 ZPD; 2 non-ZPD)

An analysis of the item on the mostly preferred ways to improve writing revealed that dictionary use was the most frequently used method (n=37). Even though some respondents named electronic dictionary sites (n=4), the others just mentioned it as a dictionary. Dictionary use was followed by reading. When the collocations of reading are analysed, books, journals, and newspapers were the more frequently referred ways (n=23). Moreover, writing practice itself was employed by the respondents quite often. Most preferred forms were diary (n=11), short paragraphs (n=3), and note-taking (n=2). The remaining ones either did not specify the genre, they just mentioned "sentence writing", or their preferred way was not a recurring code. Chatting with friends is a theme which is difficult to categorize. It is assumed that some learners refer to the "writing" aspect of chatting, while others refer to the spoken aspect. However, what remains is learners get engaged in conversations, either spoken or written, to improve their L2 writing. For instance, "*I talk with foreigners on the social media*", said a respondent (ST5; ZPD), while another reported "*I am sending messages to my friends.*" (ST78; non-ZPD). It should be highlighted here that the spoken format was usually preferred with "foreigners" or "native speakers" while the written format was opted for "friends".

In addition, feedback (n=14) stands as a help for learners to improve writing. In most cases (n=9), teachers were mentioned as the providers of feedback, whereas friends were also cited to be

the feedback providers in two cases. The remaining codes developed were about watching (n=6), social media use (n=6), homework (n=6), translation (n=4) and listening (n=3). It appears from the frequency of the codes that dictionary use and reading were the strategies mostly followed, while listening and translation were the least followed ones.

Answers provided to the open-ended questions in the pretest indicate several differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners. From the respondents in both the ZPD and non-ZPD groups, a considerable number (n=36) stated that they often used English on the social media, including applications such as Facebook, Messenger, YouTube and WhatsApp. The social media or the tools of social media was mentioned by 20 ZPD learners, while 16 non-ZPD learners also pointed to these tools. Apart from social media, the use of English for classes, homework and other study purposes were frequently cited. Out of 20 learners who reported to be using English for such purposes, 13 were ZPD students. Moreover, the use of English at home was also mentioned among the environments. Among the 10 who reported to be using English at home, the majority belonged to ZPD learners with a number of 6. A small amount of 3 of the learners stated that they used English in online games. Two of these were non-ZPD, and they also added that they used English in online chatting as well. These findings indicate that ZPD learners are more involved with the environment and benefit more frequently from the mediational means.

Moreover, a comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD learners in terms of the activities referred to most to improve L2 writing reveals that ZPD learners made an extensive use of dictionaries. Dictionary use was mentioned by 41 learners, 25 of which came from the ZPD learners. Reading was preferred by 15 non-ZPD learners out of 25. The use of social media to improve L2 writing was noted by 25 learners, 14 of which belong to the non-ZPD group. Moreover, 4 ZPD learners out of 6 stated that they were keeping diaries.

In terms of the reasons cited, 71 among all the learners said that they're studying English literature because they simply enjoy English, or literature, or both. Some of these students also stated that it would be beneficial for their future. Forty-one of these learners were from the ZPD group, which indicates that mediation seems to have a bearing to contribute to the learners' intrinsic motivation. Fifty-six learners mentioned reported that English was an investment for their future career jobs. Out of this number, 31 belonged to the ZPD group and the remaining belonged to the non-ZPD group.

With reference to L2 writing anxiety, remarks indicating the favourable and unfavourable dispositions of learners were noted. Seventeen learners out of twenty-four stated that they felt different, confident about the change in language while writing, and satisfied with their progress. On the other hand, among 38 learners, 26 in the ZPD group stated that they felt anxious. That it was the ZPD learners who both reported the anxiety-inducing and anxiety-lowering aspects of L2 writing is

a significant consideration. In line with the findings from L2 writing anxiety scale, the ZPD learners were less anxious than their counterparts. However, they still highlighted the anxiety-provoking nature of L2 writing which is likely to emanate from new tasks and their own expectations in L2 writing situations.

Students' reports on the sources benefitted included dictionaries, documents, news and books, social media, feedbacks and writing diaries. Thirty-seven students stated that they used dictionaries the most or along with the other realias and techniques. Among these students, 22 were females, and the other 15 were males. Reading materials such as newspapers and books were mentioned by 18 females and 9 males. A similar amount of learners (13F; 10M) reported the use of writing practice (usually through social media) as a writing aid. Apart from social media, feedbacks (9F; 5M), watching writing-related videos (4F; 2M), homework (3F; 3M), translation (1F; 3M) and listening (1F; 1M) were mentioned to be the tools that contribute to writing development.

An analysis of the things the learners desired change reveals that the way classes are presented (n=35), the instructor's behaviour towards students, and complexity of the classes are among the reported ways to be changed. Twenty-five (71%) of these students were females and the rest were males (n=10). In addition to the presentation of classes, changes in the way homework is used or assigned were voiced by 17 respondents. Ten out of 17 were females and the remaining were males. Some students said that there should be more homework, and some said that homework should be removed entirely. For instance, *"I don't give homework and I make my lessons funny."* (ST16) was a sentiment expressed by a male learner. However, a female learner (ST44) stated that *"Even if the students are challenged, I would assign them a couple of topics and ask them to write essays. I would apply strict rules for this to happen."*

As for the aspects that the learners found useful to promote their L2 writing, topic relevance, positive feedback, confidence were cited frequently. A total of 21 students said that having knowledge about the writing topic was an encouragement for them. Two-thirds of this number belonged to females. Fifteen learners indicated that positive feedback or feedback in general from the instructor helped them feel better about writing, and 8 of them were males. Moreover, among 30 students pointing to the confidence they gained either through the knowledge obtained, experienced harnessed or topic choices inspired, the majority (18) were females and the remaining ones were males.

Among the things that the learners were not satisfied with were the time allocated to writing tasks (n=13), greater freedom or assignment of more topic choice (n=18), and lack of writing confidence and discouraging attitudes of peer feedback (n=38). Out of the 13 respondents calling for further time allocation, 7 were females. Similarly, with reference to topic assignment, females (n=14)

outnumbered the males (n=4). Lack of confidence either emanating partly from the respondents' mistakes in writing or their peers' discouraging feedback were noted by 26 males and 12 females.

4.3.2. Open-Ended Items in the Questionnaire (Post)

4.3.2.1. Learners' Feelings during L2 Writing Situations

An examination of respondents' reported feelings after the feedback sessions demonstrate some changes especially in terms of frequency even though similar themes were developed both before and after the feedback sessions.

4.3.2.1.1. Increased Sense of Confidence

Especially for learners who speak English not as their L1, L2 writing requires a proper degree of confidence and emotional bond. In order for such bond to grow, however, learners need to execute courses of action and exercise control over their own lives. The respondents reported that their investment in L2 writing paid off. The learners' perceptions of satisfactory outcomes were usually related to their manifestation of better writing behaviour. For instance, as one of the learners (ST3; ZPD) indicated, earlier performance accomplishment serves as a motive for their greater confidence. This finding is in line with Bandura's (1977) examination that earlier accomplishments contribute to one's self esteem. Moreover, the increased faith that one can write [ST5 (ZPD); ST21 (non-ZPD); ST23 (non-ZPD)], increased confidence due to personal development [ST14 (ZPD); ST25 (non-ZPD)], increased curiosity (ST20; non-ZPD), writing with ease (ST21; ZPD) and variety (ST22; ZPD) were the reported outcomes. A significant point to highlight was that while there were more anxiety reports at the very beginning of the study, the excerpts demonstrating learners' nervousness were replaced by a feeling of confidence (see Table 53).

Table 53: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Increased Self-Confidence in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
<i>(ST3; ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel happy because I convince myself to success by saying I've done it before.</i>
<i>(ST5; ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel like I'm writing in my own language because I believe that I have enough knowledge to write.</i>
<i>(ST14; ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel self-confident because I develop myself.</i>
<i>(ST20; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel excited because I curious about the completion of my writing.</i>
<i>(ST21; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel comfortable because I can write more easily than at the beginning.</i>
<i>(ST22; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel excited because generally I write interesting writings.</i>
<i>(ST23; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel free and self-confident because I realize I can do it.</i>
<i>(ST25; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I feel good myself because I see that I have the reward of my efforts.</i>

4.3.2.1.2. Learners' Perceived Anxiety

Anxiety arousal was the most frequently stated aspect at the beginning of the study. However, the level of anxiety was observed to decrease considerably after the feedback practices. Yet, having received feedback did not seem to make some learners less anxious. To put it differently, having developed writing skills does not make some learners less anxious. In Thompson's (1980) words, the ability to write might be overshadowed by the fear of writing. In such cases, despite the learners' efforts to write well in L2, their perceived anxiety is likely to curb their efforts.

It is clearly evident from the participants' comments that (see Table 54) learners had a much clearer image of the level and the causes of their anxiety. For instance, as one respondent (ST9; ZPD) told, their anxiety stemmed from their desire to write well. Moreover, a similar sentiment was voiced by ST59 (non-ZPD), who argued that s/he wanted to be successful. Apart from the desire to write well and be successful, learners' increased awareness of the fact that their introductions were poor was stated by ST12 (ZPD). The pitfall of nervousness in L2 writing was associated with lacking the necessary vocabulary (ST43; non-ZPD), a feeling of ineffectiveness (ST72; ZPD), time limitation (ST18; ZPD), and getting stuck [ST11 (ZPD); ST12 (ZPD); ST89 (ZPD)].

Table 54: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Anxiety in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST9; ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because I want to write a good paragraph.</i>
(ST11; ZPD)	<i>I feel thoughtful because I cannot decide what to write about the topic.</i>
(ST12; ZPD)	<i>I feel impatient because nothing comes to my mind, and I have difficulty in introduction.</i>
(ST18; ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because of limited time and unknown topic.</i>
(ST43; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because I am afraid not to find appropriate words.</i>
(ST59; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because I don't think that I am successful.</i>
(ST72; ZPD)	<i>I feel anxious because I am afraid that I can't write clearly and effectively.</i>
(ST89; ZPD)	<i>I feel uncomfortable a little because I can't decide what to write.</i>

4.3.2.1.3. Learners' Reported Self-Efficacy in L2 Writing Situations

Increased self-efficacy is an outcome which is crucial for writing development. Early studies showed that there is a positive relationship between L2 writing self-efficacy and L2 writing achievement. Considering the respondents' excerpts (see Table 55 for sample responses indicating the learners' self-efficacy), it could be suggested that success in L2 writing leads to increased feelings of happiness [ST10 (ZPD), ST85 (ZPD)], comfort [ST76 (non-ZPD), ST88 (ZPD), ST93 (ZPD)], and excitement [ST80 (non-ZPD)]. As ST76 (ZPD) pointed out, the writing tasks paved the way for a gradual improvement in L2 writing. This was made explicit when s/he said, "*I feel better day by day because writing in English increases my self-confidence.*"

Table 55: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Increased Self-efficacy in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST10; ZPD)	<i>I feel happy because writing in English increases my self-confidence.</i>
(ST76; ZPD)	<i>I feel better day by day because writing in English increases my self-confidence.</i>
(ST93; ZPD)	<i>I feel comfortable because I trust myself.</i>
(ST88; ZPD)	<i>I feel comfortable because I can write easily.</i>
(ST85; ZPD)	<i>I feel better because I start to write better than before.</i>
(ST80; ZPD)	<i>I feel excited because I am impatient to write.</i>

4.3.2.1.4. Learners' Reported New Identity in L2 Writing Situations

That learners acquired a new identity through L2 writing has already been mentioned. Learners' reasoning might help create a cause and effect relationship for their identity accounts (see Table 56). As ST6 stated, writers with the new self-seem to claim less ownership in the target language as they are not the "landlords": "*I feel like a guest who has just arrived home because I start to re-edit everything on a new language.*" (ST6; non-ZPD). Moreover, two of the learners wrote that their new identity requires them to make editorial adjustments. ST6, for instance, wrote about his/her editing behaviour, while ST62 (non-ZPD) felt like a corrector. Moreover, ST24 (ZPD) pointed out that L2 writing put him/her in the shoes of a native speaker.

Table 56: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' New Identity in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST6; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel like a guest who has just arrived home because I start to re-edit everything on a new language.</i>
(ST24; ZPD)	<i>I feel like somebody else because I try to think like a native speaker.</i>
(ST62; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel like a writer and corrector because I think about details, seek unity and later write.</i>
(ST41; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel ambitious myself because I know the more I write, the more I learn.</i>

A few learners demonstrated that they felt insufficient (see Table 57) when they happen to write in L2. The learners reported that the feelings of insufficiency derive from poor word power [ST8 (ZPD); ST34 (ZPD); ST70 (non-ZPD) and poor grammar (ST34; ZPD). Even though the number of learners who voiced insufficiency was few, it must be noted that all of them indicated their weaknesses in vocabulary. It follows that learners' vocabulary competence or self-efficacy beliefs of vocabulary might be closely related with their writing competence. In documented literature, similarly, maximizing vocabulary strategy to alleviate L2 writing anxiety was also noted to be a considerable way because vocabulary strategy was found to be a strong correlate of L2 anxiety (Lucas et al. 2011).

Table 57: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Insufficiency in L2 Writing Situations

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST8; ZPD)	<i>I feel insufficient in finding words because I don't know too much vocabulary.</i>
(ST34; ZPD)	<i>I feel incomplete because I don't know enough vocabulary and grammar.</i>
(ST70; non-ZPD)	<i>I feel incompetent grammatically. Moreover, my vocabulary knowledge is so weak, and, not surprisingly, I forget words.</i>

With reference to the feelings and gender, a considerable number of female learners (n=15) were driven by feelings of anxiety. The learner reports indicate that lack of topic knowledge and mistakes were the chief reasons for the anxiety arousal. As one female respondent (ST32) reasoned, “I feel anxious myself because I am afraid of making mistakes.” When the feelings of males are considered, it could be maintained that they had both positive (9) and negative (9) feelings towards L2 writing. That the percentage of female respondents who reported anxiety outweighed the males finds support in the related literature as well as the findings from the quantitative aspects of the study.

4.3.2.1.5. Most Preferred Ways to Improve L2 Writing (Posttest)

The following table (see Table 58) presents the tools and/or sources learners benefitted most to improve their writing after the feedback practices.

Table 58: Preferred Ways to Improve L2 Writing (Posttest)

Codes	<i>f</i>
Feedback	57 (34 ZPD; 23 non-ZPD)
Dictionary use	34 (20 ZPD; 14 non-ZPD)
Internet use	13 (8 ZPD; 5 non-ZPD)
Read(ing)	10 (7 ZPD; 3 non-ZPD)
Homework	7 (4 ZPD; 3 non-ZPD)
Watch(ing)	6 (2 ZPD; 4 non-ZPD)
Diary	5 (4 ZPD; 1 non-ZPD)

Learners’ preferred ways to improve their L2 writing seems to have changed to a considerable extent. First of all, the use of feedback practices to improve writing almost quadrupled. While only 14 respondents stated that they employed feedback on the way to improve writing prior to the treatment, this number amounted to 57 following the treatment. It could be inferred from this sharp increase that learners benefitted greatly from feedback and/or considered feedback as a great potential to improve L2 writing. For dictionary use, there was not a considerable change: 37 codes were counted for dictionary use before the implementation of study whereas the frequency went down to 34. Besides feedback and dictionary use, the following codes were developed: the Internet use (n=13), reading (n=10), doing homework (n=7), watching something (n=6), and writing diary (n=5).

Regarding the sources referred to, more than half of the females (54%) reported the role of feedback as a helpful tool. Following feedback, the females mentioned dictionaries frequently (20), and some indicated the role of feedback as well as dictionaries. As for males, 19 (52%) said feedbacks helped them the most, while 11 stated the effectiveness of dictionaries.

Among 30 students who stated that they got help from their friends and family, the females, with 21 female learners which is 34% of all females, outnumbered the males. The number of male students that stated the biggest help was provided by their family and friends was 9, which was 25%

of all male learners in the group. Seventeen students said that they did not get help from anyone. The number was divided with 12 females and 5 males. Twenty-eight students said that their teacher and his feedbacks helped them the most, and 19 of these students were females. Five students, 4 females and 1 male, also added that they used the internet for help. For both males and females, the sources were benefitted seem to be similar. However, females usually report to employ a greater number of sources. Moreover, the sources they benefitted are more varied.

4.3.2.1.6. Factors That Facilitate Learners' L2 Writing Performance

As it was not certain whether learners wrote regularly prior to the study, the respondents were asked to comment on the things that contributed to their writing development. As table 59 shows, familiarity with the topic and the feedback that they received were the top facilitators. They were followed by positive comments and topic choice. It follows that topic selection could be a significant predictor of the learners' development in L2 writing. Topic selection is observed to be closely related with the codes for "familiar topic" and "topic choice" codes. Moreover, feedback on their work appears to affect the learners' perception of positively contributing factors. Positive comments are also part of the feedback learners receive. Therefore, it could be inferred they play a key role in increasing learners' positive attitudes towards L2 writing. The respondents also listed mistakes, improvement in writing, increased self-confidence, ability to write, grammar, pleasure of learning, regular writing practices, unlimited time and familiar words as other contributing factors.

Eighteen students said that relevant topics and having knowledge about the topic gave them the most encouragement, and 12 of these students were females. Positive feedback was the biggest boost in morale for a considerable number of females (n=12), while a lower number of 6 males held the same statement. Some males also stated that learning from their mistakes and making progress made them feel better. Apart from this, dictionary use, the Internet use, reading, doing homework, watching something and keeping diaries were noted by both genders.

Table 59: Factors Facilitating the Learners' L2 Writing Performance

Main Theme	Codes	<i>f</i>
Things affecting the respondents' writing performance in a positive way	familiar topic	18
	feedback	18
	positive comments	15
	topic choice	10
	mistakes	6
	improvement in writing	4
	self-confidence	3
	ability to write	2
	grammar	1
	pleasure of learning	1
	regular writing	1
	unlimited time	1
	familiar words	1

4.3.2.1.7. Factors Debilitating the Learners' L2 Writing Performance

Learners' writing performance and writing development is not a linear path. They are challenged by various factors. Table 60 provides the codes and frequencies developed from the learners' written accounts. The respondents' factors of negative feelings were various. The leading factor was found to be having no idea about the topic, which was stressed 24 times. Uninteresting topic choice (n=10), mistakes (n=10), and time limitation (n=9) were other frequently mentioned reasons. Though not frequently, the following were listed by the respondents: negative feedback (n=4), noise (n=4), poor grammar (n=4), poor vocabulary (n=4), poor handwriting (n=2), stress (n=2), topic limitation (n=2), lack of concentration (n=1), negative thoughts (n=1), poor sentence variety (n=1), poor writing ability (n=1), low writing self-efficacy (n=1), and rules (n=1).

Table 60: Factors Debilitating the Learners' L2 Writing Performance

Main Theme	Codes	<i>f</i>
Things affecting the respondents' writing performance in a negative way	no idea about topic	24
	mistakes	10
	uninteresting topic	10
	limited time	9
	negative feedback	4
	noise	4
	poor grammar	4
	poor vocabulary	4
	poor handwriting	2
	stress	2
	topic limitation	2
	lack of concentration	1
	negative thoughts	1
	poor sentence variety	1
	poor writing ability	1
	low writing self-efficacy	1
rules	1	

Even though the teacher assigned topics does not seem to be in line with the expected pedagogical practices of the Choice Theory (Glasser, 1998), which posits that learners need to develop a sense of belonging and have freedom and fun to promote learning behaviour, it goes from the findings that a healthy dose of teacher-selected topics could prove to be instrumental. In the writing classroom, in most cases, the onus usually falls on teachers when determining the topic. However, related literature suggests that failure to adjust the dose might result in unexpected outcomes even for student-selected topics. For instance, Lee (1987) conducted a study in which the teacher-selected and student-selected topics were compared, and the result was in favour of the teacher-selected topics. In Lee's (1987: 181) words, "the natural process approach did not prove to be as effective as those methods which emphasized teacher directed activities." It goes from the findings that a diet of self-selection of topics might help learners develop a better sense of ownership. However, lack of adequate room for choice making might result in learners who fail to self-regulate their own learning.

Out of all 97 participants, 28 students said that a topic they are not interested in or have limited knowledge of affected them negatively. Of the 28 learners, 27% of the females, and 30% of the males held this statement. Moreover, lack of time was also found to be a significant problem for ten learners, half of whom are females. Eighteen students said that lack of confidence that is either caused by the lack of knowledge or experience was affecting their performance in writing. Fourteen of these students were females, and 4 males.

Considering the outcomes from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, it could be argued that i) learners make use of various mediational means when developing L2 writing. Sometimes the external sources such as the use of social media, chatting with friends and so on outweigh their in-school writing investments; ii) learners' departmental choices are guided by (1) increased opportunities for developing language proficiency, (2) increased job opportunities, (3) interest for the target culture, and (4) YDS results; iii) L2 learners' writing experience brings them anxiousness, a new L2 identity, increased confidence as well as insufficiency; iv) even though the learners benefitted from different mediational means when developing L2 writing, the role of feedback as an aid to overall writing quality was highlighted more than half of the learners; v) the mediational means learners employed got less in diversity at the end of the study, while feedback became the most frequently reported community-mediated means or strategy; vi) except for watching, learners in the ZPD group benefitted from all the mediational means more than the ones in the non-ZPD group.

4.3.3. Analysis of the Process Logs

The use of process logs was instrumental to capture the learners' reactions to the topics, sources of information they referred to when creating their writing, the perceived audience, reasons to write, writing roles, satisfaction with the writing performance. The logs were given to 6 learners for each task. These logs were obtained in a written format. The following is a description of the analysis of the learners' accounts.

4.3.3.1. Learners' Reactions to Topic Choice

The process logs reveal that learners' affinity with the topic determines their achievement in a particular task. That is, if the topic assigned bears relevance to their real life experiences and interests, it makes them advantageous because learners, even if they are not well-armed with target language proficiency, have a potential reservoir to exploit. Such a finding was exemplified by a respondent, who said, "*The topic of the task was 'The Best Place to Study'. What I was supposed to do was to tell about the environment I could study the best at. I liked the topic because there are things that I can say about it and because of that I will have less trouble writing about it.*" (ST2; ZPD). A similar account in which the respondent made an association between his/her real life and the topic of the

assignment was as follows: “It [The topic] was ‘How to look fashionable on limited budget’. We were asked to research how we could shop with a low budget. I liked the topic because what we were asked to do was to describe something that girls usually do, and that seemed easy to me.” (ST51; non-ZPD). A further example came from a respondent who told that s/he liked the topic requiring them to describe a memorable visit simply because s/he had recently been on one. As the accounts indicate, the experiential nature of topics could prove to be facilitating the L2 writing performance. That is, learners are likely to invest more time and energy than usual for such topics.

4.3.3.2. Reported Sources of Information for Particular Assignments

Some assignments required the learners to do some research. The topics like ‘Weddings in your hometown,’ ‘The best place to do your homework,’ and ‘Classification of local neighbourhoods’ required some learners to do some research before starting their works. The use of process logs also aimed at capturing the sources of information because it is believed from a sociocultural perspective that knowledge construction does not take place in a vacuum. That is, learners inevitably benefit from and interact with their environment. The respondents revealed that they benefitted from their direct experiences (n=10) and indirect sources (n=9). Direct experiences consisted of the learners’ observations of their immediate environment, experiences and their existing knowledge. As for their immediate environment, one respondent said, “*Describing the room that I was present in was enough.*” (ST78; non-ZPD). Another one referred to his /she experience, saying: “*..., and combined it [what I found on the Internet] with what was practices in my region and presented it to my reader.*” As for employing their existing knowledge, one respondent said, “*I already had some thoughts about the topic.*” (ST20; non-ZPD). There were also learners who reported that they benefitted from external sources for information. They told that they consulted their friends, surroundings, the Internet, and books on the related topic. The following quotes (see Table 61) demonstrate the learners’ ways of getting information:

Table 61: Sample Excerpts with Reference to the Benefitted Sources

<i>The Source</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
The Internet	<i>I will gather information from the web. (ST4; ZPD)</i>
A friend	<i>I’ve gathered the information about the topic from a friend of mine who lives in my hometown. (ST61; non-ZPD)</i>
A book	<i>But before writing, I obtained information from the book on how to write a process paragraph. (ST37; non-ZPD)</i>
The surrounding	<i>I will gather information from my impressions from my surroundings. (ST88; ZPD)</i>

4.3.3.3. Target Audience

The learners in the study were inquired about their target audience. The data obtained show that the target audience was the writing instructor, students or anyone. The overwhelming majority of the learners pointed out that it was the teacher who they wrote to. As one respondent put it, “*That*

is my lecturer. Because I'm trying to write applying what he teaches us, the teacher was my target audience.” (ST24; ZPD). It is obvious that the teacher is an essential customer for the assignments. However, that learners only communicate with the teacher is a challenge in that real life writing tasks are not only targeted for teachers. This reductionist view of the audience might hinder the learners' productivity, and learners might lose sight of the intended outcomes. On the other hand, the very same issue could be interpreted as a plus for those learners who need to be guided in what to write. That is, teachers as audience might guide learners to write for a particular reader. Through their exchanges with teachers, learners are offered the opportunity to mediate with the community.

Apart from learners who wrote merely to teachers, there were two respondents who came up with different audiences. One wrote, *“I write all of my texts with the ‘from seven to seventy’ motto. It doesn't smell of sincerity, but it doesn't cloy the reader either. The reason why I chose this was because I'm also quite pleased by this type of writing.”* (ST4; ZPD). The other one said, by making particular reference to the topic ‘the best place to study,’ *“My target audience is the students who can't find a place to study. I chose it because this would attract their attention.”* (ST30; non-ZPD). Moreover, one respondent stressed that s/he would not attempt at all. His/her motive was that it was just a course requirement. S/he said, *“I wouldn't have the idea of writing about this if it wasn't a task,”* (ST37; non-ZPD) implying that s/he does not care about the target audience as the task was not duly communicative for them.

Consideration of audience has a message for the language educators. Treating audience as a stakeholder in the writing process suggests that writing is more than a cognitive effort. It suggests that learners of L2 writing somehow mediate their writing and co-construct it considering the people who are likely to read them (Lee, 2011). Thus, Donato and McCormick's (1994: 453) claim that writing is “a by-product of mediation” seems to be collaborated here.

4.3.3.4. The Learners' Reasons to Write

The learners were also asked to describe the reasons for which they wrote. The chief reasons for writing were improving their writing skills, addressing to the task requirement, conveying a particular message, and satisfying their desire to write.

One chief reason was to improve their writing skills. In fact, one respondent said, she wrote *“to learn how to write a process paragraph.”* (ST51; non-ZPD). For another learner, the main motive was simply to address to the task requirement, which can be observed in the following excerpt: *“I tried to tell the audience that money doesn't affect fashion.”* (ST78; non-ZPD). In addition, reasons such as *“it was a task”* were the recurring explanation for many of the respondents [e.g., ST30 (non-ZPD), ST61 (non-ZPD), and ST94 (ZPD)]. Moreover, some other learners reported that they were writing because they enjoyed it, and wanted to communicate in the target language. This is made

explicit when a learner said, “...sometimes I write just because I enjoy it.” (ST9; ZPD). To sum up, even though the learners were assigned the same tasks, they had varying reasons to write. The variety of reasons might be the representations of learners’ different stance points, and it might not be a good idea to approach the learners in the same way. Following the same line of reasoning, it could be argued that they approach tasks differently as they bring different things to the texts they write. It is thought that capturing and catering for the differences and appealing to such nuances are likely to empower writers. Of particular note here is the variety of reasons inherently assigns the writers new roles in the new writing terrain.

4.3.3.5. L2 Writing Roles

It had already been noted that writing in L2 has granted new roles for writers. These new roles actually assigned them new audiences even though the majority wrote they were writing for teachers. “*My role as a writer is to write as it was asked. My role as a writer has an effect on my writing. It causes me to write better,*” (ST2; ZPD) said one respondent, pointing to the fact that the new role helped her promote his/her writing. Impressing the target audience was another role aimed at. One respondent said, “*My role as a writer is to impress the audience, and this has an effect on my writing because in order to impress the audience, my writing should be clear.*” (ST37; non-ZPD). There was one respondent in particular who thought his/her writing was not affected by any roles. The learner said, “*Because I don’t see myself as a writer, I don’t think I have a role.*” (ST83; ZPD). Moreover, personal interests affect the roles for writing as can be deduced from the following excerpt: “*My role as a writer is, as a girl, to be someone who is familiar with fashion. And yes, it does. My knowing about the topic and actively following it makes my work easier.*” (ST74; non-ZPD). It follows from the learners’ accounts that the role learners shouldered determined their proximity to the task achievement. The traces of such roles could be found through the respondents’ desires to “impress” (ST24; ZPD), “work easier” (ST78; non-ZPD) and “write better” (ST20; non-ZPD), while the word “writer” was a concept that could not be identified with one of the learners (ST83; ZPD). The failure to assign a writer role should be given serious consideration. Even though writing in L2 makes learners to become “writers” potentially, not all the learners position themselves as writers as writing requires a proper degree of competence, which is mistakenly associated with native speakers only, in the target language.

4.3.3.6. Writing Help

Writing is a socioculturally situated activity. In line with this preposition, it is inevitable to view writing as a co-constructed activity rather than a product of mere transmission. Therefore, investigation of the help learners receive might provide some evidence of the mediational means the learners benefit in writing construction. The learners in the study were asked to tell what help, if any, they received in writing their assignments, and where the help came from. Consulting a friend was

found to be a common answer. One respondent said, *“I talked to a friend of mine who lives in the same region as I do in order to obtain more detailed information about the topic (ST35; ZPD).”* It seems clear that the student compensated for his/her shortcoming in an area by asking a friend about it. Another source of help was the Internet. *“I used the internet, looked for multi-regional traditions,”* said one respondent (ST37; non-ZPD). This shows that the student tried to compensate for his/her lack of knowledge by going online and checking things. Still another respondent told that s/he used dictionaries and *“... tried to prevent using the same words repeatedly, and used their synonyms.”* (ST12; ZPD). It seems obvious that the student tried to avoid using the same words and used a dictionary in order to find synonyms for the words s/he had used before. A less frequently mentioned source of help, as a respondent referred to, was the writing course material, which has proved to be instrumental in order to *“learn how to write such paragraphs from examples (ST51; non-ZPD).”* The respondent seems to take advantage of the sample paragraphs in the book. Finally, there were a couple of respondents who said they did not benefit from any resources. In fact, one of them said, *“I was my source.”* (ST74; non-ZPD). That a great many of the respondents referred to external sources during writing is a manifestation of the co-construction of knowledge. Throughout the writing process, the learners negotiated meaning through the help they received. The help received from external sources in fact created a social interaction, and such an interaction, in fact, resulted in a greater emotional support, which is in line with the Vygotskian notion of the ZPD.

4.3.3.7. Sensitivity to the Teacher’s Concerns

What might go in parallel with the teacher-mediated nature of the writing is understanding the teachers’s concerns or feedback practices. The respondents were asked whether their assignments were affected by their teacher’s concerns and feedback. Apparently, the learners’ assignments were shaped by the teacher’s potential choice of vocabulary. For instance, one respondent said, *“The teacher of this class likes conjunctions, complex sentences, and the usage of different words. (ST37; non-ZPD).* Therefore, s/he tried to choose his/her vocabulary accordingly. Another respondent said, *“I tried to write guessing what he would call wrong, or what he would say is missing.”* (ST51; non-ZPD). In line with this, another one said, *“I was more careful with the mistakes he was sensitive about.”* (ST74; non-ZPD). These indicate that the learners tried to keep in mind what the teacher could say as part of the feedback they were going to receive. Avoiding plagiarism was another issue that was raised by some learners. One respondent said, *“Sometimes, taking sentences from the Internet crosses my mind, but I know that my teacher will notice that. Because of that, I write my own words. And that’s more fruitful for me.”* (ST61; non-ZPD). Similarly, another respondent said, *“... if my teacher tells me to write in one way, or to prevent writing in one way, my writings will be shaped according to that.”* (ST20; non-ZPD). These comments show that the learners pay attention not only to what they write but also to how they write. On the other hand, there were a considerable number of respondents who thought their writing was not affected by what their teacher said. For example, one respondent said, *“The instructor didn’t know about the region I was describing.*

Because of that, I added some extra things and wrote (ST94; ZPD).” Another one said, “... *my only concern is my writing.*” (ST84; ZPD). This was also affected by the type of writing. For instance, one respondent said, “*Because it was a description paragraph, I didn’t use any assumptions (ST2; ZPD).*” The instances of excerpts provided above suggest that L2 writers do somehow take the L2 audience into consideration. Moreover, in accordance with Lee’s (2011) categorization of mediational strategies, consideration of plagiarism and the temptation to replace words with their synonyms suggests that the learners’ writing is rule-mediated, while the Internet stands as an artefact-mediated source. Of particular focus here is, learners did not seem to mention their own rules, rather they seem to report on to what extent they comply with the rule-mediated strategies. Another issue to be highlighted is the non-ZPD learners’ perceptions of form-focused orientation of teacher feedback is quite different from the non-ZPD learners’ content-focused orientation of the teacher feedback. That is, ZPD learners touched more on content-based issues, while the control group had a form-focused agenda. The difference could be attributed to the increased opportunities of mediation in the ZPD group. Since the learner and the teacher are more likely to co-construct texts in the ZPD group, the experimental group was more sensitive to the teacher concerns as the content was more emphasized than form.

4.3.3.8. Satisfaction with the Latest Draft

The learners were asked evaluate their writing performance, and their responses provided insights into their perceptions and self-efficacy. Out of 18 responses, almost all respondents (n=17) referred to their satisfaction with the latest draft of the then-current writing task. The following table (see Table 62) lists the respondents’ answers to the question: “Are you satisfied with your final version? Why or why not?” The first nine responses given in asterisks (*) are taken from ZPD learners and the remaining 9 belong to the students in the non-ZPD group.

When the learners’ responses are analysed, it could be seen that learners in the ZPD group mentioned reduction in their mistakes, writing development, appropriateness for the context and improvements in content. However, most learners in the non-ZPD group mentioned reduction in mistakes, error-free writing and correctness. One interpretation of this discrepancy could be related to the feedback variety. Even though the learners in both groups received feedback regarding content, grammar, organization, vocabulary, and mechanics, the learners in the ZPD group seemed to have touched aspects other than grammar in their responses. As both groups were provided feedback which involves the same contents, the palpable interpretations for this are: a) learners in the control group (non-ZPD) did not make any mistakes with organizational, content-based, lexical, readership aspects -however, judging from the portfolio assessments, this was not the case for learners-, b) the learners in the experimental group increased their appreciation of writing more than their counterparts, c) learners in the ZPD group also increased their awareness of the teacher expectations.

Table 62: Sample Excerpts Indicating the Extent of the Learners' Satisfaction with the Feedback Practices

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
(ST30; non-ZPD)	<i>Not yet. I only got one feedback, and I still think I might have mistakes*.</i>
(ST24; ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied because I think now it's error-free, but maybe it's just my thinking*.</i>
(ST2; ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied. I like seeing my development*.</i>
(ST94; ZPD)	<i>Yes. Better than the first. I fixed my mistakes. There are differences between the old and the current one*.</i>
(ST4; ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied with the final situation of the writing.*</i>
(ST88; ZPD)	<i>Yes. It was an understandable and appropriate writing for a magazine context*.</i>
(ST35; ZPD)	<i>Yes, I'm satisfied. Because with the feedback I got, I could fix my mistakes and write a better paragraph*.</i>
(ST12; ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied. I fixed my mistakes. I did some additions on some parts*.</i>
(ST95; ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied with the final status of the writing, because it was my second paragraph, and with my content and grammar additions, it became a better paragraph*.</i>
(ST51; non-ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied. I fixed the mistakes I made.</i>
(ST61; non-ZPD)	<i>Yes, I'm satisfied because it became error-free.</i>
(ST78; non-ZPD)	<i>Yes.</i>
(ST74; non-ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied, I have less mistakes. And that made me happy.</i>
(ST37; non-ZPD)	<i>I'm satisfied, but I'm not sure of the correctness of every sentence.</i>
(ST20; non-ZPD)	<i>Yes. Thanks to the feedbacks my instructor gave me, I reduced my mistakes to zero.</i>

The final state of the writing was found to be satisfactory for the learners because the feedback they received was found to be influential. This is reported by one of the participants in the ZPD group as follows: “Yes, it does [I see some improvement in my writing] because I saw what could happen with the correction of small mistakes.” (ST2; ZPD). The traces of the usefulness of feedback practices can be found in this account. Another learner in the ZPD group remarked, “Yes, it does [I see some improvement in my writing]. The reason for that is when I compare it with my previous writings, it looks satisfying.” (ST35; ZPD). Moreover, some other learners in the ZPD group told that their final draft was “grammatically accurate (ST2; ZPD),” “reduced [his/her writing] mistakes (ST83; ZPD),” “increased my [his/her] awareness” (ST85; ZPD) and gave them the opportunity “to transfer what was in my [their] mind” (ST12; ZPD). There was a learner who was not happy with the latest draft, and s/he reasoned with himself/herself, saying, “No, because I used the instructor’s ideas for the final state of the writing. Not mine (ST24; ZPD).” It appears that the teachers’ feedback provision proved to be quite influential on the learner. However, the learner does not seem to be happy with the teacher’s over-involvement which left little room for the learner voice. One explanation for this situation could be the traditional power issues between the feedback provider and feedback receiver. Apparently, the traditional role assigned to teachers as more powerful agents was not replaced by a dialogue of mutual involvement in some situations. In the absence of such mediation, it is not surprising for a learner to feel that his/her distinctive voice is not heard.

In the non-ZPD group, there were accounts which included learners’ satisfaction, hesitation, and dissatisfaction. To show his/her satisfaction, one learner commented that “I see that I’m making progress (ST51; non-ZPD).” A similar aspiration echoed in a similar account: “because it [the final draft] has become what it is now thanks to the feedbacks.” (ST20; non-ZPD). From the learner’s perspective, the chief contributor to the final version is seen as feedback. Despite all other potential

contributors such as the textbook, the class, the teacher and so on, that it is the feedback that gets much of the credit should be underlined. Another learner expressed his/her reservation, saying: “*I don’t entirely know that (ST74; non-ZPD).*” The suspense here is interpreted as a reaction emanating from the lack of improvement or lack of adequate progress. For another learner, the then-current form of the paragraph was not satisfying, and s/he made it explicit, saying, “*No, it doesn’t. Because the current version has become what it is because of the feedbacks (ST64; non-ZPD).*” The implication here is that the learner could not achieve self-regulation. The learners’ overall tendency towards the final draft was pleasing on the part of the learners. However, the learners in the two groups had different reasoning for the things that contributed to the latest draft. It could be argued that feedback, if not mediated, could be regarded as a push rather than a negotiated means of improvement.

4.3.3.9. Resources Referred to

Process logs also indicate that dictionary, the Internet, books, teachers, friends and the word document itself were the referred sources. The distribution of the sources is presented in Table 63. As the table suggests, dictionary use both during the 1st draft writing and after receiving feedback was the most commonly reported activity to improve L2 writing. The dictionary use was followed by the Internet use and the use of dictionary, and internet was pronounced more when learners received feedback. From the students’ accounts, it is evident that they did not consult the teacher after receiving the feedback even though such consultancy was the case during the writing process. Moreover, referring to friends, books and word documents (used for spelling and finding synonyms) were the other sources less frequently cited, and judging from the reported data, benefitting from these sources either remained the same or decreased after receiving feedback. The learners made use of dictionary and internet more after their first drafts. It could be suggested that the help or recourses referred to to get help were unidirectional in nature. That is, learners did not communicate much during the writing process except for the interactions between friends and teachers.

Table 63: Resources Referred to During the First Draft

	Dictionary	Internet	Teacher	Friends	Books	Word (Spell-check)
Sources referred to during the writing process (1 st draft)	9	6	2	1	3	1
Sources referred to after receiving feedback	11	7	0	1	1	0

A comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD learners could illustrate the diversity of the sources benefitted in L2 writing process. The respondents who received feedback within their ZPD revealed that they benefitted most from the instructor, dictionaries and the Internet most. The respondents in the non-ZPD group did not pronounce the teacher or the instructor as a source referred to. Instead,

dictionaries, the Internet, books and friends were mentioned as the sources benefitted. It seems that for non-ZPD learners the sources were more varied.

4.3.4. Analysis of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The semi-structured interviews conducted with the ZPD and non-ZPD learners revealed the learners' perceptions of teacher feedback with particular reference to feedback types, the medium and amount of feedback, challenges preventing them from using teacher feedback, and the connection between feedback and L2 writing anxiety as well as the feedback and L2 writing self-efficacy. These themes will be handled in the following sections.

4.3.4.1. Receiving Feedback from the Teacher

The semi-structured interviews, which were held at the end of the semester, were quite informative to understand the participants' reactions to teacher feedback as well as suggested and actual feedback preferences. All learners in the semi-structured interviews said that teacher feedback is a credible and salient form of feedback. Such a remark could be substantiated through the participants' use of the adjectives of varying degrees such as "important," "pretty important," and "definitely important". Among the reasons the participants provided were the growing recognition, identification and correction of mistakes, increased tendency to refer to other sources, increased ability to think faster, long-term remembering of the issues highlighted, and increased affective arousal (see Table 64). Hence, it follows that teacher's feedback serves as a linguistic, cognitive, and affective aid for students. It should be noted here that students in both the ZPD and non-ZPD groups had unequivocally positive responses towards teacher feedback.

Table 64: Sample Answers Indicating the Effectiveness of Teacher Feedback

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
<i>(FG1; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>We correct our mistakes.</i>
<i>(FG2; ZPD)</i>	<i>With feedback I completely figure out where I am wrong.</i>
<i>(FG6; ZPD)</i>	<i>I can clearly see my progress when I read my previous feedback.</i>
<i>(FG6; ZPD)</i>	<i>It means that I don't make those mistakes anymore and my paragraphs' content got better.</i>
<i>(FG2; ZPD)</i>	<i>It forces me to go to a grammar book and look for vocabulary items.</i>
<i>(FG3; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I start thinking faster.</i>
<i>(FG4; ZPD)</i>	<i>I can guess where I make mistakes.</i>
<i>(FG5; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>We see where we lack.</i>
<i>(FG6; ZPD)</i>	<i>My third or fourth draft will be better.</i>
<i>(FG3; ZPD)</i>	<i>I don't make the mistakes I did again.</i>
<i>(FG3; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>I remember your warnings and what you emphasized.</i>
<i>(FG6; ZPD)</i>	<i>It shows that you care about us.</i>

The reliance on the teacher as a credible source of feedback provision has some grounds for the learners. For example, when the learners were addressed the question "Don't you feel that way when it's someone else making corrections?", they reasoned that the effectiveness of teacher

feedback and trustworthiness of teacher feedback is a serious plus compared to feedback from other sources. The following sentences could be given as an example.

One learner argued, *“It is different when you get feedback from the teacher.”* (FG1; non-ZPD). The difference implied might be equated with effectiveness, which was a concern for another learner who drew a comparison with feedback from other sources: *“It’s [Other sources] not equally effective ... the teacher is the one who corrects the mistakes and knows what is right. It’s more reassuring for me to learn it from the teacher since I’m sure that he knows what’s right and shows me the right way.”* (FG1). Moreover, the concern for trustworthiness is considered to be integral for learners. When other sources were the case for feedback, it was peers that sprang to the learners’ mind. It could be because they also received peer feedback from their classmates for their in-class activities. However, their attitude towards peer feedback was not positive. To exemplify, one learner said, *“I can’t trust peers - are they accurate?”* (FG4; ZPD). Another said: *“Peers are careless about feedback.”* (FG4; ZPD). However, several peers as feedback providers rather than a single one was suggested as a credible solution: *“I don’t trust friends, so I ask several friends.”* (FG4; ZPD).

In addition to its potential advantage over peer feedback, teacher feedback plays a significant role for learners’ language development. When the learners were asked, *“Do you think your teacher’s feedback is helpful for your improvement of the English language? If so, how?”* they provided answers pointing to the usefulness of feedback for skills other than writing such as grammar development, vocabulary development, speaking development, translation development, increasing thinking speed, departmental needs, and achieving coherence and cohesion.

Apart from language development, learners feel that teacher feedback is confidence assuring. As a learner in the FG1 pointed out: *“It’s important, because it may not be enough and useful if it’s only our friends or us who point out the mistakes in our writings. However, with your guidance, we think what you say is definitely true, and it creates feeling of trust. We feel confident while our errors are being corrected.”* It goes from the findings above that teacher feedback stands as a great aid with reference to its linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. The finding that teacher is a credible source for learners is in line with the early studies (Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994). Even though both groups seem to agree on the usefulness of feedback practices, students in the non-ZPD group reasoned the effectiveness of the feedback sessions especially on their mistakes. It would be taken as a form-focused interpretation of the written feedback. This difference is also apparent in the preferred types of feedback.

4.3.4.2. Learners’ Preference of Feedback Types

Capturing the learners’ preferred type of feedback helps learners invest in more reasonable and more effective feedback practices. Therefore, learners were asked a question about their preferred

way of feedback. In order to familiarize the learners with feedback types and elicit meaningful answers, some meta-information was shared with the participants. Upon the completion of the interviews, it was seen that using correction codes was the most informative way for the learners. The explanations given are tabulated as follows (see Table 65):

Table 65: Sample Answers Indicating the Effectiveness of Coded Feedback

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Excerpt</i>
<i>(FG1; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>Using codes would be a better option for all learners. Some students might think the teacher has already corrected it and wouldn't learn anything.</i>
<i>(FG2; ZPD)</i>	<i>If you correct it, I won't learn. Codes help me learn more.</i>
<i>(FG3; non-ZPD)</i>	<i>Codes help me find out what to use.</i>
<i>(FG4; ZPD)</i>	<i>You look at me and wait for me to find my mistake. Then I never forget it.</i>

To analyse the excerpts briefly, the learners in FG1 (non-ZPD) and FG2 (ZPD) told that the use of codes was informative. Learners exposed to coded correction are required to think about the type and location of the errors as well as other contextual repairs. Therefore, in the light of the learners' accounts, they can mediate between their own learning and teacher-led suggestions rather than considering it a spoon feeding practice. Thus, correcting the learners' mistakes without giving them the right answers was commensurate with the suggested goals even in early studies on L2 feedback (Allwright, 1975; Long, 1977). Such a teacher-driven learning, as a learner in FG4 (non-ZPD) remarked, may not translate into permanent learning:

I think using codes. I don't know, maybe it is because we have started with it and we've got used to it, but sometimes when I misuse a preposition and you write a code there, it makes me question which preposition I should choose instead. However, if you only underline the mistakes, I may never figure out what to do. Since you show me my mistakes, I can use "the" properly without forgetting it. However, if you correct it directly, I can't keep it in my memory since I'm not the one who corrects it I.

The informative value of coded correction is also underlined by another learner in FG3 (non-ZPD). Moreover, the excerpt belonging to the learner in FG4 (ZPD) gives the hint of the outcomes of face-to-face feedback sessions. Rather than determining the mistake beforehand, the mistakes are determined in a face-to-face fashion.

The literature on coded correction has usually been positive about the pedagogical implications. The documented studies usually point to the positive psychological consequences. Hyland (2003) draws a comparison between direct correction in which the feedback is provided through "red ink" and indirect coded feedback and finds coded feedback less threatening. Similarly, Harmer (2007) found it less damaging to employ coded feedback. To wrap up, the pedagogical as well as psychological aspects of coded correction are deemed to be noteworthy gains.

4.3.4.3. The Medium of Feedback

Given that the participants are learners of English as foreign language in a Turkish context, discussion of the medium of feedback does not seem to be an effort in futility. Before jumping into discussion, it might be worthwhile to provide some learner accounts to help the reader see their line of thinking. The first account (FG1; non-ZPD) provides a picture of a learner who adheres to the English only feedback. As s/he put it:

It's English for us to become familiar with it. We won't be getting feedback only in prep class; we'll get feedback in future as well. We'll write in English; we'll speak English or we'll put ourselves forward if necessary. So I think English is better in terms of getting used to it and being familiar with it.

Moreover, the medium of feedback also shapes the learners' thinking. It is because when feedback is co-constructed, learners tend to think or shape their ideas accordingly. Therefore, when feedback is in English, it could assist learners to construct in English rather than Turkish, the native language. This is aptly put by a learner in FG3 (non-ZPD): “*When it's Turkish, we tend to think in Turkish. However, you have to think in English when feedback is English.*”

That the learners will constantly be exposed to English through departmental courses, either through writing or speaking, makes them compelled to get into English in any form. Receiving feedback in English, therefore, would not be an exception. However, when other concerns are taken into account, the answer is not clear-cut. First, feedback in the target language does not guarantee intelligibility. The following account from FG1 (non-ZPD) bears some relevance to this issue:

When I first came here as a prep student, the teachers were giving lectures in English, they were speaking English, and I couldn't understand anything. They were so fast, and I couldn't catch the words at first. Now I've made progress, but sometimes I still can't understand and translate English sentences. It means I can't totally understand it. Yes, if you give feedback in English, I may not understand it and not be able to correct my mistakes.

Moreover, pinpointing a specific language could diminish the impromptu nature of feedback. The flexibility to switch between the languages is an important consideration to promote intelligibility. Therefore, some learners' call for the abandonment of a single language as the medium of feedback makes it demanding to place less emphasis on a certain language. For instance, “*When you give written feedback, you give verbal feedback as well, so it's both ways. English and Turkish together is the best,*” (FG4; ZPD) said a respondent, while another specified both English and Turkish, saying “*You could explain it in Turkish later if we couldn't understand it.*” Taking all into consideration, the medium of feedback is a situational consideration and adopting a prescriptive approach as to the medium of feedback could be misleading. Suggesting that “feedback should only be in x language” could deprive the learners of either native language or target language mediational means. Thus, especially non-native teachers, if they have the opportunities, should be empowered to

benefit from the linguistic repertoire of both the mother tongue as well as target language. A “target language only” procedure might be an investment from the scratch. However, feedback within learners ZPD should give room for flexibility to switch from one language to another to enable learners benefit from their past experience. The majority of the respondents in both groups demand for flexibility in language, and the need for flexibility is expressed by one learner (FG2; ZPD) through the following words: “If you used English while writing and Turkish while explaining, it would be more understandable.”

4.3.4.4. Learners’ Reactions to Feedback

Table 66 shows the reactions of the respondents towards positive and negative feedback. The table indicates both the participants’ feelings, behavioural reactions and examples of “positive” and “negative” feedback. As the table demonstrates, good feedback for all learners is associated with favourable outcomes both for the participants’ feelings and behaviours. Learners said that they feel “good,” “informed,” “enlightened,” “extremely happy,” “confident,” “successful,” “eager,” “ambitious,” and “developed” when they receive good feedback. The feelings are accompanied by behaviours such as “*It affects other paragraphs, too,*” “*I even want another topic to write on*” and “*It encourages me to pursue writing.*” (FG1; non-ZPD). From these learners’ accounts, it could be deduced that receiving good feedback makes the learners to become more motivated to write, striving for subsequent tasks and/or drafts. This finding complies with the students’ and teachers’ ranking of the feedback mode in Hamp-Lyons and Chen (2001).

Negative feedback, on the other hand, was, in general, found to be a demotivating for the students, which is obvious in the following excerpts of the students. “*I feel I’ll make mistakes anyway*” (FG6; ZPD), “*I don’t feel like writing*” (FG5; non-ZPD), “*I feel less motivated for the next assignment*” (FG3; non-ZPD), “*Writing the same things over and over again becomes boring*” (FG3; non-ZPD), and “*I feel embarrassed*” (FG6; ZPD) were some of the sentences the respondents uttered. In addition to cognitive aspects, some behavioural decline was evident. It is surfaced when the respondents said, “*It discourages me - I give up sometimes,*” “*I made more mistakes in my third draft and decided not to write the fourth one* (FG2; ZPD),” “*My fourth draft ruined my enthusiasm for writing* (FG5; non-ZPD),” and “*My brain stops* (FG3; non-ZPD).” These accounts bear testimony to the fact that negative feedback plays a detrimental role especially resulting in a giving up of further attempts.

Moreover, receiving negative feedback would not deter some respondents from continuing their interlanguage development. That is, corrections do not discourage learners. “*I do not feel disappointed with simple mistakes - like forgetting a preposition,*” (FG5; non-ZPD) said a learner, while another claimed that s/he did not feel hopeless. This could be attributed to the learners’ desire to promote their writing and the trust between learners and the teacher. In other words, for some

learners, negative feedback might pave the way for positive outcomes. Some further examples reflecting the respondents' sentiments towards "good" and "bad" feedback are presented in Table 66.

Table 66: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Reactions to Positive and Negative Feedback

Learners' Reactions When They Receive Positive Feedback	Learners' Reactions When They Receive Negative Feedback
Good	I do not feel disappointed with simple mistakes - like forgetting a preposition
Informed	I feel I'll make mistakes anyway
Enlightened	I don't feel like writing
Extremely happy	I don't feel hopeless
Good feedback makes me happy	I feel less motivated for the next assignment
Confident	Writing the same things over and over again becomes boring
I feel more successful	I feel embarrassed
I feel I made progress	It would be good for me - both positive and negative feedback
I feel more eager to write	I feel more eager when I get negative feedback
It makes me more ambitious	My brain stops
I write more eagerly	The more I learn the better it gets
It gives me hope of success	Helps me make more effort
It affects other paragraphs too	It discourages me - I give up sometimes
I want to write more	It helps me think more
It encourages me to pursue writing	I can't make any more sentences
I even want another topic to write on	I don't want to do the forthcoming assignments
It encourages me	I made more mistakes in my third draft and decided not to write the fourth one
"You made a great effort. Your content is good"	I remove the problematic sentence
You said I was one of the rare people who understood it	I try to look on the bright side
It doesn't affect me no matter how many mistakes I've made	It makes me sad to make mistakes even after you show me how to do it
"great job"	"It seems like you wrote this in a hurry"
"block the car"	My fourth draft ruined my enthusiasm for writing
	We learn what was wrong and figure out what not to do next time
	I want to write more but receive feedback because every time I write there are mistakes

"The positive" and "the negative" dichotomy is a difficult issue to tackle. "Positive feedback" or "good feedback" for the learners seems to be equated with praise and eagerness to write further. However, "negative feedback" is a matter of criticism which usually makes learners feel demotivated. As teachers are usually confronted with situations in which they are to demonstrate a mixture of praise, criticism and suggestion (Hyland and Hyland, 2006b), they are usually in a position to provide a balanced view. To achieve the balanced view, it might take teachers to mitigate criticisms through hedges and avoid excessive complaints in order to be constructive (Hyland and Hyland, 2001).

Apart from what learners feel in the event of positive and negative feedback, their descriptions provided meaningful contributions to the discussion of favourable and unfavourable feedback types.

The table below (see Table 67) shows how the students perceive teacher feedback. An examination of the students' accounts provides the following findings.

The respondents' connotations of "positive" feedback include the ones either without mistakes or with little mistakes. Moreover, teacher as the feedback provider as well as his/her praise are the most-cited connotations. When the respondents were asked to specify the negative feedback, they came up with the misunderstood topics, overly repeated drafts, writing about abstract things, the ones with many mistakes and content-based demands. Desirable feedback, however, was usually associated with drafts including a combination of written and oral feedback, praise, teacher-based explanations as well as specific grammar explanations while excluding critical mistakes. The learners' mention of the degree of mistakes for all feedback types is a serious concern. Even though a high number of mistakes was found to be a positive contribution for one of the learners, for the others, the fewer the mistakes, the better for learners. Moreover, that a great deal of learners pointed to both written and oral feedback makes it compelling for the learners to revisit the notion and function of feedback provision. The next part includes some reasoning as to why learners need to be supported by oral and written mediums.

Table 67: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Perceptions of Feedback

Positively perceived feedback	Negatively perceived feedback	Desirable feedback
The one full of mistakes	Misunderstood topic	Written and oral combined
Simple/minor mistakes	Too many drafts	Without critical mistakes
Teacher feedback	Imaginary things	Praising feedback
Praise	Too many mistakes	Feedback with teacher explanations
One with few mistakes	Needs further explanations	With specific grammatical explanations

A comparison of the ZPD and non-ZPD learners' reaction to positive and negative feedback could be informative of the respondents' interpretation as well as expectations. Some interpretations of good feedback in the non-ZPD groups resonate the elements of "mistakes". For instance, in FG3, "In one of my paragraphs, I made only three mistakes. It was my first draft. It was very good! I was so happy and felt like I did a good job," said a respondent, while another (FG5) told: "My descriptive paragraph about a memorable visit was quite long. You found very few mistakes in it and made positive comments about it. You wrote that its structure was very good and it served as a model for a descriptive paragraph. You liked it." Moreover, the following conversation between a learner and the teacher could also give a picture of the abovementioned form-focused view of feedback:

T: Can you describe the most effective/positive feedback you have received?

S: The first one - with the least mistakes.

T: The one about introducing your friend?

S: I didn't use any relative clauses in that paragraph since it's my first writing. I start each sentence with "he", so it's faultless.

The content development was mentioned by another learner (FG3) who said: *“You once wrote ‘vivid explanation’ on my paper. When we give more details and write powerful descriptions, we receive more positive feedback.”* However, the case for ZPD learners were usually about motivation. *“It affects other paragraphs as well”* said a learner in FG2. Another told *“I go home right away and happily correct my mistakes thinking that you like it.”* (FG6). It appears that learners in both groups are encouraged by positive feedback, and in some cases positive feedback is equated with less mistakes especially for non-ZPD learners.

4.3.4.5. The Amount of Feedback

The amount of writing is usually associated with the written or verbal explanations on the learners’ written work as well as the combinations of the feedback in the drafts. The former one consists of in-text coded corrections as well as marginal comments and suggestions. Moreover, process-based writing pedagogy suggests that writers should go through a prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing processes in order to create a piece of writing. In line with this pedagogy, learners were asked to go through those stages before completing their final drafts. As the process requires the writers to create multiple drafts, it resulted in different amounts of feedback, which, in turn, resulted in different interpretations.

For some learners, “the more the merrier” is the motto as feedback plays a key role for their language development. *“More time is necessary,”* said a learner in FG4 (ZPD). However, this motto does not apply to all learners as more feedback could have a detrimental effect on learners’ writing. *“I would feel bored writing the same thing for the fifth time,”* said a learner in FG5 (non-ZPD). Coupled with the feeling of boredom, feedback, as another learner in FG1 reported, could shadow the writers’ fluency. In support of the writing fluency that matters, the following words could be taken: *“I don’t think that it’s necessary to receive too much feedback. If we made the same mistakes in other paragraphs, we could correct them then. I think it would be better to write more paragraphs and focus on more topics. We can fix our mistakes in future one way or another* (FG1; non-ZPD).” The suggested amount, from the viewpoints of learners, could be considered as a degree where the communicative intent of learners is not disturbed.

A comparison of the ZPD and non-ZPD groups in general would demonstrate that the ZPD learners are quite eager to get feedback, while the learners in the non-ZPD group are not much receptive to get feedback again and again. A learner who created 3 drafts reported that receiving feedback in a single draft could be a better indicator of his/her progress:

... but sometimes you point out issues which you haven’t mentioned in the earlier draft. Even though we’ve corrected the first one, you don’t see our progress, because there are still mistakes that you haven’t realized in the first place. Since you see the mistakes in the second draft you’re supposed to see in the first one, it makes it seem like there’s no progress.

In brief, the ZPD and non-ZPD learners do not appear to demonstrate the same degree of receptivity to the amount of feedback they receive. Especially for non-ZPD learners, there seems to be a need to negotiate the feedback amount.

4.3.4.6. Challenges Preventing the Learners from Using Teacher's Feedback

Compared to other sources, teacher feedback is considered a credible source of feedback. However, several actual or potential impediments to learners' progress were reported by learners. The semi-structured interviews indicated that written feedback alone may not create the desired effectiveness. Lack of face-to-face assistance, detailed explanations, and long-term retrieval stand out as major handicaps on the way to fully benefit from feedback practices. When a learner pointed to his/her reservations about the written feedback, s/he was asked to elaborate on the reason/s. The following conversation in the FG2 (ZPD) could be given as a beginning challenge of written feedback:

T: Can you describe your desired feedback?

- *I think this one [then-current feedback practice] is pretty good. Written and verbal feedback being together is the best anyway.*

- *Same.*

T: What about only written feedback?

- *It wouldn't have any effect on me.*

- *Me too.*

- *I mean it would be limited...*

- *Because communication is crucial for writing and feedback. Talking about our mistakes face-to-face and questioning why something is wrong or why another sentence isn't used there...*

T: Isn't it possible to communicate through writing?

- *It is, but communicating with each other face-to-face is more effective for us to see our mistakes.*

- *It becomes limited when it's in writing.*

T: Why is it more effective? Any specific examples?

- *You ask us. For example, I made a mistake once. You asked me to tell you that again. What I told you there wasn't the same with the one I had written. Then we realized. You said "Look, you wrote it down like this, but what you said is not what you had written here". When we have a discussion like this, we can keep it in mind.*

- *Yes. When it's written, I mean, when you just underline [the mistakes] and write the codes, we keep questioning how it should be done. However, we can ask you what to do instead and why you write that certain thing there. That's why written and verbal feedback being together is better.*

- *Yes.*

- *Here's what happened the other day: After I received my last feedback, there was this article mistake again, I wrote "in cinema" and you said it should be "in the cinema", because this way it indicates a certain cinema. When you explain things in this way, we don't forget them and we also learn them, so it's better.*

- *When I read the feedbacks, I remember the things you say.*

- *Yes.*

- *Same.*

T: If it's written only?

- *If it's written only, I wouldn't understand most of it. The question "What should I do here?" would remain.*

- *What we write seems correct to us. If you gave us written feedback only, I wouldn't know the reason behind my mistake. It's like "Why did the teacher write this here?" However, we can ask you why it is wrong, why its usage is not correct when we are face-to-face and that's the way we learn.*

The conversation above shows the learners' perceptions of the need to communicate when receiving feedback. Writing alone is considered "limiting" for learners. Moreover, when the learners were asked to specify what made face-to-face interactions different, they revealed that they found it easier to remember. Finally, when the feedback is written only, it is not appealing for some learners. For instance, some had difficulty in deciphering what those codes refer to. Therefore, the opportunity to "negotiate" the feedback rather than take it for granted was the preferred way.

Moreover, feedback within learners' ZPD was considered more detailed, interactive as well as fruitful thanks to the opportunities of exemplification. It was detailed because the learners had a chance to ask to the teacher about his/her weak points or points requiring emphasis. Moreover, the chance to negotiate through the feedback sessions meant co-construction of the text. Such co-construction was considerably helped by the equalized power issues. In traditional feedback practices, it was the teacher who was always in a superior position. However, feedback offered within learners ZPD triggered interaction, diminishing the superiority of either party. Moreover, the flexibility of examples was another plus for learners. It is examples that make the distance between the concrete and abstract narrower, and face-to-face interaction enables learners to shift between the linguistic and metalinguistic information. Moreover, the degree of explicitness is also an opportunity for the learners and teachers as they "graduated" along a continuum of explicitness (Ellis, 2017).

Despite the great gains of the feedback within learners' ZPD, several pitfalls were noted (see Table 68). A quicker approach to feedback because face-to-face interaction sometimes took a long time. The seek for quick feedback provision was coupled with another learner's suggestion regarding the assignment of more teachers as feedback providers. Besides all these, the teacher's handwriting, concentration problems of feedback receivers were noted to be the handicaps on the way to effective feedback.

Table 68: Codes Developed to Indicate the Reported Advantages and Disadvantages of Feedback within or Irrespective of the Learners' ZPD

Advantages	Disadvantages
Communication	Exams
Ease of retrieval	Poor time management
Less hesitations	Collaborative analysis
Clarification	Need for more teachers
Negotiation	The use of codes
Provision of details	Teacher's handwriting
Interaction	Concentration problems
Opportunity to visualize	Feedback receiver variations
	Topic choice

The ZPD and non-ZPD learners both pointed to the need for mediation in the feedback process. “When it’s written only, it’s not useful or let’s say not very useful” said a ZPD learner in the FG2, while another (non-ZPD) in FG3 said: “*I never brought my paragraphs to you again [after I corrected the mistakes] to ask you how it looked like. There were always exams.*” implying that there is need to build consensus after the revisions. Two learners remarked the teacher variation as a possible challenge for writing development. The learners indicate that teacher plays a significant role on the way to promoting affective make-up:

FG4: If you weren’t my teacher, there would be some challenges. If there were a totally different teacher and he got angry with us all the time saying things like “What kind of a paragraph is this?”, and he were much more tough and strict... but it’s not a problem with you.

FG4: Your attitude towards us [is good]. Of course you are our teacher, but I don’t feel shy when I bring you the same paragraph for the third time, because I know that you would never say “That’s enough! It’s just a paragraph after all. How old are you!” We’re not afraid of you. It wouldn’t be useful if we were afraid of you, but it is. We like you.

The non-ZPD learners stressed the disadvantages more, while the ZPD learners usually highlighted the advantages. The interactions in the feedback sessions, therefore, could be said to contribute to the learners more than through linguistic outcomes.

4.3.4.7. Feedback and Anxiety

Second language writing, as has already been noted, is a process which is subject to anxiety arousal. Especially at the beginning of the writing courses, the initial impressions of the learners revealed a considerable amount of accounts related to learners’ nervousness in L2 writing situations. After feedback sessions, considering the learners’ reports, there were learners (n=10) who articulated their feelings of lowered anxiety.

An examination of learners’ accounts suggests that the correlation between feedback and anxiety is not purely linear. However, it could still be argued that feedback practices help much on the way to lower learners’ anxiety. One learner (FG2; ZPD) stated that his/her anxiety has been reduced significantly.

In the first weeks, I couldn’t write at all. I hadn’t experienced writing on my own before. I didn’t want to write. I didn’t want to have any writing assignments. I didn’t want to write and I was afraid of exams. However, I improve myself as I keep writing and I find out what’s correct and better thanks to the feedback I have received and I think it’s beneficial for my writing. It makes me get rid of my fear at least.

That the feedback plays an anxiety-lowering role was voiced by another learner (FG4; ZPD), who stated, “*I used to feel worried wondering if it’s very bad before I received feedback, but now I feel excited to see my mistakes.*” It follows from this that each draft is a hypothesis testing for

students, and it takes some time to reach a conclusion. However, before reaching a conclusion, learners feel some degree of uncertainty.

Even earlier positive feedback could be a source of anxiety because learners may think that the teacher has a high opinion of the person after a positive feedback. Since the learners think that the teachers will have a high opinion of the author rather than the text, the temptation to write as effective as the previous task(s) makes learners strive for more effort than usual. As a learner in FG6 (ZPD) pointed out, accumulation of writing practices did not really result in a waning of his/her writing fear:

My anxiety increases sometimes. Let's imagine I receive feedback and it's very well and you like the paragraph so much. I say "Now my teacher thinks I'm good at this", but when I start to write the next paragraph, I feel worried thinking this one should be better than the previous one, I shouldn't end up writing a poor paragraph, I should keep up the quality.

Except for very rare exceptions, we can speak of a developmental anxiety trajectory in which learners start writing with a high degree of fear, and a gradual decrease in anxiety levels follows as their familiarity with writing tasks increase and teacher expectations unfold. A similar view was expressed by another learner in FG4 as follows: *"I wasn't feeling anxious at first. I used think let's write and give it to the teacher. Now I make an effort to write better and think about which words to use."* The learners' pursuance of "making better" make them more tempted to produce better than usual, which in turn triggers their anxiety. Therefore, it could be argued that their anxiety is perfectionism-induced. In line with such a situation, learners' get-the-job-done mentality evolved into a growing responsibility of efforts.

The anxiety-lowering impact of written feedback is in accord with several studies in literature (Di Loreto, 2013; Kahraman, 2013; Kurt and Atay, 2007). For instance, in Di Loreto's study (2013), the researcher investigated the correlation between students' perceptions and writing anxiety. The results indicate that there was a reverse relationship between positive perceptions and language anxiety level of learners.

When the ZPD and the non-ZPD groups are compared, the learners in both groups reported to a gradual decrease in their anxiety level even though some were tempted to write better in their subsequent drafts, which, somehow triggered their anxiety. Such kind of anxiety, since it is likely to result in improvements in student writing, could be taken as a facilitating anxiety. A non-ZPD learner (FG1) put it as follows: *"My anxiety got worst. I didn't know what topic sentence means at first. I wrote and I thought that I could express myself better. However, now that I learn some things and know that what I wrote then was bad, I write nervously."*

As the excerpt suggests, learners' familiarization with the writing requirements creates a feeling of unease as learning new things made them more accountable and responsible. Even though such a familiarization-based anxiety may not be equated with the feelings of uncertainty that a considerable number of learners experienced at the beginning of the semester, it still adds to the learners' tension as new writing tasks require greater requirements. Moreover, learners in both groups repeatedly stressed exams as an anxiety-breeding factor. Considering especially the ZPD learners' anxiety-inducing nature of new writing tasks in the open-ended items in the posttest sessions, feedback in writing sessions could prove to be an anxiety-lowering tool, but some situational form of anxiety in subsequent writing tasks might still persist or intensify.

4.3.4.8. Feedback and Self-Efficacy

As far as the learners' self-efficacy is concerned, many of the learners stated the increase in their self-efficacy levels. The words and expressions used extensively to address the increase were intensive practice, the ability to write faster, the growing ability to produce ideas in the introduction paragraph, and better planning.

One learner in FG6 (ZPD) stated that s/he improved his/her confidence considerably. *"The more we write the better our confidence gets. I think writing paragraphs boosts my confidence."* Here, feedback is not directly mentioned. For another learner, exposure to writing increased his/her writing speed. The learner did not state whether such increase in writing speed and "the ability to write well" was directly related to the feedbacks; however, it could be inferred from the text that mistakes which are identified through feedback provision was influential.

I can say that when I first started to write, I used to think so much about how I would write, how I would make sentences, I was always worried. Okay, there were just two topics in our exam and I probably made some mistakes (I haven't seen my exam paper yet), but I realized that I could write very fast all of a sudden and I really believed that I could manage to write very well. I believe this right now. (FG6; ZPD)

For another learner in the same group, the difficulty of writing introductions was not a big concern at the end of the semester. Such a consideration is put as follows:

At first, I used to have difficulty with introduction parts in my former paragraphs. We should also have some ideas about the topic, like, what can I write about this one? I used to worry because of these introduction and ideas about the topic issues. What can I write and how would my teacher react if there were so many things wrong with my sentences? I used to feel anxious, but now it feels like I can correct them even if I make mistakes, I can do that, it's possible, I can make mistakes, it's normal. I gained self-confidence. It doesn't bother me to make mistakes anymore.

A similar sentiment was evident in a learner in FG4 (ZPD):

I love writing in Turkish. I believe that I'm good at it, they say so. When I first came here, I didn't believe that I was capable of writing in English in the same way. I thought that I couldn't create the same atmosphere, I couldn't write that way. However, as I received feedback, I came to believe that I could do it; because I can see the improvement with my own eyes, how rarely I make mistakes and how it will get better with your comments. So I feel confident about it now. I have no such worries, but I did have in the beginning, I thought I couldn't write and give the same impression.

Learners in the FG2 (ZPD) provided more specific details of increase in their self-efficacy. One, for example, increased his/her self-efficacy in word choice:

I can't say that I'm a great academic writer. I make so many mistakes in relative clauses, adjectives etc... For example, I can use more adjectives in my paragraphs. I think that no one can say that they are enough in that way, but I believe that I feel much more confident than I did in the first day of this semester.

Some others revealed that they felt comfortable in meeting the requirements of word count. “*I was having a hard time reaching 150 words including my name and the date, now you want 200 words and I can easily write between 150-200 or 230 (FG2; ZPD).*”

Apart from the perceived improvements in word count, organizing a paragraph was a source of improvement for a learner: “*The ways of planning writing are engraved in my mind now. The topic sentence, the second one, the examples and the concluding sentence... I have figured out how to write as planned.*” (FG4; ZPD).

Self-confidence trajectory is a process of developmental stages. Learners shift back and forth along a continuum of self-efficacy beliefs, and, as a respondent suggested, the increased self-efficacy is a matter of learners who has had hands-on experience.

When we first started studying here, we didn't even know what to write and how to write it. What is a topic sentence? What is a concluding sentence? We know none of them. We didn't know how to write. I wrote my first paragraph using the same words from the book, changing their location only. But in my last paragraph, I realized that I could form sentences without stumbling and I didn't make so many mistakes. We still make errors of course, but not as much as we used to do. There is a huge difference. (FG2; ZPD)

It has been noted that learners benefit from external sources when developing writing. Therefore, writing is not an attempt that solely takes place in learners' minds. However, the potential effectiveness of the external sources does not guarantee or confer to the actual effectiveness. For instance, having a native friend is considered a form help for learners. However, such a potential does not translate into desired outcomes. This was the case for a learner who had a native-speaker friend:

I've been already writing before I started studying here. I have an Irish friend. I used to get help from him, but he didn't help me improve myself, he used to point out my mistakes only. I corrected

my mistakes or I changed the words. However, the university has been more effective. At least I started to think differently and broadly. (FG2; ZPD)

The help the learner received was reduced to correction of mistakes. However, the learner believes mere correction does not help improve himself/herself. For another learner, the desired competence was not the case. As the learner put it:

We have made progress, but we are still incompetent in some areas. For example, we should learn phrases. There are so many good phrases we can use. It doesn't work if we don't know them. As you said, instead of using the same word repeatedly, we need to know its synonym in order to make the paragraph more effective.

The low self-esteem or perceived incompetence is evident in another learner. S/he expressed it as follows: *"In my opinion, we suffer from low self-esteem only during exams. Even though we can't make a proper sentence while writing, we feel happy since we have made more complex sentences before (FG3; non-ZPD)."*

Following the learner's remarks, it could be argued that self-esteem is associated with writing situations. That is, learners are likely to foster a "can do attitude" in some situations more than others. For this particular situation, it was exam situations that did not help them develop a can-do attitude. Besides these situations, the learners themselves could be the source of a low self-efficacy. The following conversation between the researcher and one of the learners explicates the complexity of the relationship between self-efficacy and feedback.

S: I don't consider myself enough. I'm a bit greedy.

T: Why?

S: It's being greedy. It doesn't make me feel confident. You give me positive feedback, it's all good, but I still feel inadequate. (FG5; non-ZPD)

It could be understood from the conversation above that despite a positive feedback from the teacher, s/he was not satisfied with his/her performance. Therefore, suggesting that learners' own "metric" might be more efficient than those of the teacher would not be poorly grounded. Moreover, the learners' handling of L2 writing self-efficacy and L2 writing anxiety together merits some special mention. Self-efficacy of learners was found to be negatively related with the language anxiety of learners (Doğan, 2016; Kırmızı and Kırmızı, 2015). That is, when the learners' anxiety level is high, their self-efficacy values are usually low or vice versa. Thus, any investment to lower L2 writing anxiety might contribute to their self-efficacy.

When the ZPD and non-ZPD groups are compared, it seems that the ZPD groups reported to be particularly confident in writing faster (FG1), paragraph organization (FG6; FG2); writing topic sentences and concluding sentences (FG1; FG6), and finding mistakes (FG6). However, elaboration of a topic (4), writing supporting and concluding sentences (FG5); writing a

concluding sentence parallel to the topic sentence (FG5; FG6), getting stuck when developing ideas (FG2); writing phrases and finding synonyms (FG3), and poor grammar (FG3) were among the difficulties reported. One thing to highlight here is that the learners' reports on increased self-efficacy was elaborated by the ZPD group more. This finding adds some support for the results from the paragraph writing self-efficacy scale. It appears that feedback within the learners ZPD assured them a can do attitude.

4.3.5. Analysis of the Cover Letters

Cover letters were used in the study to elicit data about the participants' perceived weaknesses and strengths, capture the reactions of the learners towards the writing tasks, hear the learner voices regarding the perceived progress and improvement. The information gathered provided insights into the learners' beliefs as well as emotional reactions along a semestre period.

4.3.5.1. Perceived Strengths and Weaknesses

At the end of the semester, the participating students were asked to self-report their strengths and weaknesses when writing in L2. The following table presents the recurring codes developed from the learner excerpts. Judging from Table 69, it seems evident that the weaknesses reported are more pronounced than the strengths. Moreover, the identifications of the weaknesses were clustered better compared to strengths which are usually fragmented. An analysis of the codes developed indicates that grammar and word choice are two influential points learners highlighted. Improvements in grammar were noted to be a significant plus for some learners (n=9), while some others (n=29) still consider themselves not adequate enough. It would be worthwhile to highlight the fact that many of those who harbour the feelings of insufficiency in grammar are from the non-ZPD group. Therefore, one palpable interpretation of this finding is lack of negotiation. When feedback is not negotiated, all suggestions, comments and corrections might appear as a mistake which is associated with grammar. It follows that mediating feedback might affect the learner perceptions and approach their "mistakes" with different lenses.

Table 69: Codes Developed to Indicate the Learners' Perceived Strengths and Weaknesses

<i>Perceived Strengths</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Perceived Weaknesses</i>	<i>n</i>
Grammar	9	Poor grammar	29
Impressive word choice	7	Awkward word choice	13
Rich content	6	Poor/limited sentence structure	11
A high degree of coherence	6	Poor support	10
Well-supported	6	Article mistakes	10
Variety of sentence patterns	4	Poor cohesion	4
Perceived improvements	4	Flawed mechanics	3
Good organization	3	SV agreement mistakes	2
Strong topic sentence	3	Poor spelling	2
Frequent writing practice	3		
Increased self-efficacy	2		

As for the word choice, seven learners pointed to it as their strength while 13 learners still believe that there is more to do with word choice. The other strengths reported were rich content (n=6), a high degree of coherence (n=6), well-supported paragraphs (n=6), the richness of sentence patterns (n=4) such as simple, complex, compound and complex-compound sentences, learners' perceived improvements (n=4), well-organized paragraphs (n=3), strong topic sentences (n=3), frequent writing practice (n=2), and increased self-efficacy (n=2). Some learner voices could make the strengths and weaknesses in question more explicit (see Table 70).

Table 70: Sample Answers Indicating Learners' Perceived Strengths and Weaknesses

<i>ZPD Learners</i>	<i>Non-ZPD Learners</i>
<i>My first paragraph includes many weak adjectives and types of sentences, though the last one is quite good. (ST4)</i>	<i>My weaknesses are writing topic sentences and combining the sentences or grammar. My strengths are good flow of ideas.(ST6)</i>
<i>My weaknesses are mostly inexperience, articles, and the sentence structure. My strengths are grammar, and integrity of the paragraph. (ST9)</i>	<i>I'm weak in grammar and I don't work much to improve myself. I'm good at connecting the sentences and I'm imaginative. (ST41)</i>
<i>I should write longer words support them with examples and make it flawless. To me, the strength of my writings is that I don't get out of the subject and that I don't make grammar mistakes.(ST17)</i>	<i>My weaknesses are getting out of topic and making grammar mistakes while writing. My strength is my ability to find examples to defend my thesis. (ST47)</i>
<i>One of the best parts of my writing was when I was writing the compare and contrast paragraph "Watching Movies in the Theatre or at Home" which was rich in content, and I had various ideas about. On the other hand, I should get better to organize this paragraph. Soon, I should make sure that my ideas flow from one to the next.(ST32)</i>	<i>My strength is writing supporting sentences, because if I have knowledge about a topic, giving examples and supporting the topic sentence will be easy for me. My weakness is to think deeply about the topic, because the topic is the most important part of a paragraph. (ST51)</i>
<i>The weakness of the subject-verb agreement can almost be seen in every single draft. Organization, though, is the strong part that I saw from the feedbacks I got from the instructor.(ST35)</i>	<i>I saw that I was making progress, fixed my mistakes with grammar and articles. Apart from that, I now can dominantly put what I have in my mind to the paper. (ST61)</i>
<i>The length of my first assignment was one and a half pages from a small notebook, the last one was a full paragraph. The sentence structure of the first assignments I wrote were simple, like subject and verb, but moving on the last ones, the sentence structure was more various, and the words used were better ones. (ST79)</i>	<i>I can establish the integrity of the topic. However, small grammar mistakes that I don't recognize are a problem that I need to get rid of. (ST68)</i>
<i>I think my choice of words in the "look stylish with limited budget" paragraph was quite right. Because I didn't know the English of some Turkish idioms, there were some meaningless sentences. (ST90)</i>	<i>My weakness is not being able to make a good start. I'm really bad at topic sentences. I worked for a month to fix that problem. My grammar was bad as well, but I practiced. (ST70)</i>
<i>I should present more examples to make words have stronger meanings. I think the strong side of my paragraphs is that my grammar mistakes weren't too many. (ST97)</i>	<i>My weaknesses in "A future academician" were the structure of sentences, in "Wedding", I had some weaknesses on intelligibility, and continuity. In "A Visit" the structure of sentences were bad, but my worst writing was the one about movies. (ST77)</i>
<i>The paragraphs I wrote at the first times are a lot weaker than the ones I wrote lately. Because, my knowledge about how to write a paragraph was so little. For example, my first paragraph "Poet& Academician" was really weak in terms of the usage of words, and the sentences I formed. But, I can see that I improved myself as time goes on. (ST42)</i>	<i>My strength is my imagination. I can set good sentences up in my mind that I will write the text about. I'm bad at grammar. (ST78)</i>

The perceived weaknesses apart from grammar and awkward word choices were poor/limited sentence structure (n=11), inadequate supports (n=10), article mistakes (n=6), mistakes about linking sentences (n=4), flawed mechanics (n=3), lack of SV agreement (n=2) and poor handling of spelling

(n=2). The excerpts on the left are taken from the ZPD students, while the ones on the right were obtained from non-ZPD students. An examination of the learner responses from the cover letters indicates that ZPD learners emphasized grammar as their strength, while grammar was the most cited weakness for the non-ZPD group. This could be interpreted as a representation of the increase in the self-efficacy beliefs of the ZPD students. Since learners had face-to-face interactions with the teacher, it was more of a possibility for them to monitor themselves from the perspectives of their teachers. In other words, it is likely that learners construct their grammar ability from the perspectives of others. Therefore, teachers' verbal persuasion and learners' opportunities of vicarious experiences are two likely opportunities.

4.3.5.2. Perceived Traces of Development

With reference to the manifestation of their writing development in their L2, the respondents came up with several factors that triggered the improvement process. Even though a great many pointed to the effects of their development, there were some learners mentioning the motives for the development. Basically, feedback practices were the major influence that triggered writing development. The progress was visible to the authors through their increased awareness in writing (n=17), writing with less mistakes (n=27), increased sentence complexity (n=11), word choice (n=5), promotion of organizational efficiency (n=4), improvements in cohesion (n= 3), content (n=7), punctuation (n=7), building support (n=3), and the ability to think faster (n=4) (see Table 71).

Table 71: The Participants' Perceived Traces of Development

Main Theme	Codes
Perceived traces of development	Increased awareness in writing (n=17) Feedback (n=19) Writing with less mistakes (n=27) Increased sentence complexity (n=11) Vocabulary (n=15) Promotion of organizational efficiency (n=4) Cohesion (n=3) Content (n=7) Punctuation (n=7) Support (n=3) Increased ability to think faster (n=4)

The following table presents sample excerpts from the ZPD and non-ZPD learners' voices (see Table 72).

Table 72: The Participants' Perceived Traces of Development (Sample Excerpts)

ZPD Learners	Non-ZPD Learners
<i>Yes, of course I can see. In my first paragraph I copy the entire article from a roof because I didn't know how to write a paragraph. but now I can write without any doubts. I can use long sentences in my paragraph, I can write to my topic sentence and concluding sentence better compared to my first paragraph.(ST42)</i>	<i>Compared to the start, a small increase must have happened, because I've never written any paragraphs in English. No education was given on this subject. I might have made a lot of mistakes at the beginning because I started learning here, and spent a lot of effort here as well. But I think I will make progress as I write, and see my mistakes.(ST78)</i>
<i>Of course. Because there is a big difference between the first paragraphs , and the last ones. This has happened thanks to the feedbacks from our instructor.(ST19)</i>	<i>Not yet in my opinion. (ST61)</i>
<i>I can see a progress in myself. I couldn't write good at all in my high school times, but now I improve myself as time goes. The lessons are really helping with that. I learn things that I didn't know, and try to use them in my writings (ST17)</i>	<i>Yes, writing frequently and in an order improved me. I fixed my mistakes in the feedback my instructor gave me, and that helped me a lot. But of course I need more improvement (ST6)</i>
<i>Yes, I see. I had no idea about writing in the beginning, we were free to use the book and the dictionary. Now when I take that paper in my hand and compare it with my first writing, I see an improvement in my grammar, variety of sentences, and content.(ST72)</i>	<i>Of course I can see. In every next draft, I can see improvement such as the use of words, prepositions, grammar, and especially content.(ST67)</i>
<i>I'm looking at the first writing paper I wrote, and to be honest, I think I was a little bit shy to write as I like. Therefore, I can freely say that, I'm having the gift at gab new, if I compare my first and the last writings.(ST41)</i>	
<i>Of course. Types of sentences, vocabulary, and adjectives have improve.(ST90)</i>	

It is evident from the quotes given in Table 72 that, in general, learners in the ZPD group exhibited their developments through more details. However, the case for non-ZPD learners is a bit different. They were inclined to use sentences which were compounded with a negative ending. To illustrate, a learner told that s/he improved his/her sentence complexity as well as paragraph development skills through writing a better topic sentence and concluding sentence. Another learner in the ZPD group revealed that feedback was influential in his/her writing development while another learner created a link between his/her writing development and writing lessons. What contributed to another learner is the process-based pedagogy followed. Accordingly, the learner feels s/he has made an improvement and indirectly reveals the sources that contributed to his/her writing development: “Yes, I see. I had no idea about writing in the beginning; we were free to use the book and the dictionary. Now when I take that paper in my hand and compare it with my first writing, I see an improvement in my grammar, variety of sentences, and content.” (ST72).

A gender-based analysis suggests some differences in the way the two sexes perceive their development. In general, both males and females considered their development positively, and except for 5 learners, all respondents reacted positively about their improvement. While males pointed to increased awareness in paragraph writing (n=7), a better command of vocabulary (n=4), a considerable decrease in mistakes (n=10), cohesion (1), improved organization (n=4), the ability to think faster (n=1), increased self-confidence (3), improved content (n=3), sentence complexity (n=5), punctuation (1); females touched increased awareness (n=10), increased sentence complexity (6),

vocabulary (n=11), decreased number of mistakes (n=17), cohesion (2), content (4), punctuation (n=6), support (n=3) and increase ability to think faster (n=3). A considerable number of learners reasoned that their current progress had something to do with the feedback sessions. Among 19 learners who explained their progress through feedbacks, 14 were females. Moreover, there were 4 females and one male who thought that their improvement were not adequate. “*A small increase*” (ST65), “*not full improvement*” (ST23), “*not so much*” (ST79), “*I do not want to answer this question*” (ST68) were the expressions the female respondents used to express their poor improvement or hesitations of their progress. The male respondent (ST6) stated: “not yet in my opinion.” Given that the students who appeared not to be happy with their progress belonged to the non-ZPD group, it could be argued that if feedback is not mediated, the students’ evaluation of their progress could be more critical.

4.3.5.3. The Most Favourite Piece of Writing

Of the paragraph tasks they were assigned, the most favourite paragraph ones are given in a sequential order (see Table 73). The process paragraph on ‘How to look fashionable on a limited budget’ was the most favourite of the majority. Compared to the process paragraph, the compare and contrast paragraph task ‘Write about the differences between going to a movie to having a movie night at home’ gained half popularity. It was followed by narration paragraph on ‘A memorable visit’ and a description task on ‘Hometown wedding ceremonies’. The chief reasons provided for the favourite choice were: i) the enjoyability factor, ii) identification with the topic, iii) having adequate amount of information, iv) positive feedbacks. To demonstrate how an enjoyable topic turns into more efforts, one respondent said, “‘*How to look fashionable on a limited budget*’, because I really enjoyed while writing it. My choice of words and the sentence structure were so good for me.” (ST77; non-ZPD). If a topic attracts a person, it translates into more efforts than usual. Another learner promulgated a similar view saying, “‘*Weddings in Düzce*’ was my favorite, because I knew everything about this topic, and I enjoyed while I was writing.” (ST47; non-ZPD). Research on topic selection reveals that the prompts which require the learners to share their own experience are found to be easier (Weigle, 2012). Thus, the texts build on the learners’ experience could prove to be more rewarding for learners.

Moreover, topic identification has a seminal effect for learners to get involved in writing. In plain words, if people find something from themselves, it is fairly easy for them to get engaged in a particular writing task. For instance, one learner stated, “‘*A memorable visit*’ was my favourite, because it included a memory of mine. I could write about the topic without thinking, but with sincerity.” (ST32; ZPD). Thus, offering learners topics that might “touch” them will help ensure nurturing their cognitive and affective makeup. It might be more likely for those learners to invest more for such an appealing piece of writing. Having information about a particular topic made some learners to be able to transform their knowledge. As one learner pointed out: “*My favourite writing*

was ‘Watching movies at home or the cinema’ because I had to do some research from the internet before writing it. In this way, I got some information, and it helped me with how to write my paragraph.” (ST38; non-ZPD). Being equipped with information and being able to convey information was a double gain for some learners. The ability to transform content into form was found satisfactory for learners because what remains at the end of the day for them might be the content benefitted. Lastly, receiving favourable feedback was a driving force for some learners to write on a particular topic. In the words of a learner, “*Typical local wedding ceremonies was my favourite, because I got good feedbacks, and I liked talking about my race.*” (ST70; non-ZPD). It appears from the learners’ accounts that what makes a topic favourable depends on a variety of factors. Topic enjoyability and topic identification factor can rarely be controlled, but investment on the provision of adequate information and positive feedback could be more realistic expectations in the classroom setting.

Table 73: The Participants’ Favourite Topics

<i>Topic</i>	<i>f</i>
How to look fashionable on a limited budget.	34
Write about the differences between going to a movie to having a movie night at home.	17
Write about a memorable visit you have made to your friend/relative(s).	14
Describe a typical wedding in your hometown.	14
Write a paragraph describing the best place to do homework.	11
Imagine that you are a real estate agent and someone new to the area has asked you for suggestions about where to look for a home. Write a paragraph classifying local neighborhoods into three or more types.	8

4.3.5.4. The Least Favourite Piece of Writing

It could be understood from the variety of learner answers that learners’ distance to topics is not something fixed, rather something that might depend of a number of factors. Considering the learners’ responses, the paragraph on the description of a typical wedding had a considerable share among the least favourite pieces of writing. It was followed by a task on the more appropriate place to watch a movie, and a description paragraph on a the best place to do homework. While eight people found the paragraph on the steps to be taken to look fashionable, the task on a memorable visit and the classification of neighbourhoods were cited by only a few people to be the least favorite topics (see Table 74).

The learner justifications for the low popularity of topics in question tell something about the things to pay attention to when assigning a topic. The relatively low popularity of the of paragraph topic on the description of a typical hometown wedding was usually associated with two chief reasons, namely high number of mistakes and limited knowledge about the topic. One respondent wrote: “*It was the one about weddings, actually, most of them, because every bad mistake*

demotivates me.” (ST67; non-ZPD). Mistakes in general were found to be debilitating for learners. Another learner drew attention to the limited knowledge of the topic saying, “...because the weddings where I live had nothing special, and I had no idea about this topic.” (ST89; ZPD). A third excerpt presents the combination of the two: “Wedding ceremonies in Ankara was my least favourite piece, because I had many mistakes, and didn’t know much about it.” (ST60; non-ZPD).

As for the paragraph on the classification of neighbourhoods, the mostly preferred justification was the limited knowledge of the topic, the number of mistakes, the limited time devoted to, and the difficulty in using the language of differences. The following are some learner voices. “...because I didn’t fully understand the topic, or what we were supposed to do, hence I had difficulties” (ST85; ZPD) said one learner while another reasoned the necessity of doing research, “because I had to do a research because I didn’t know about the topic, and it took a lot more time than the others.” (ST25; non-ZPD).

For the paragraphs on the comparison of the setting of movie watching, the best place to do homework, the ways to look fashionable on a limited budget and a memorable visit, the respondents came up with similar sentiments. That is, the lack of interest on the topic, limited knowledge on the topic, and the high number of mistakes were the recurring justifications for a relatively low rate of writing preference.

Table 74: The Participants’ Least Favourite Topics

<i>Topic</i>	<i>f</i>
Write a paragraph describing a typical wedding in your hometown.	27
Imagine that you are a real estate agent and someone new to the area has asked you for suggestions about where to look for a home. Write a paragraph classifying local neighborhoods into three or more types.	23
Write a paragraph about the differences between going to a movie to having a movie night at home.	11
Write a paragraph describing the best place to do homework.	9
Write a paragraph illustrating the process of how to look fashionable on a limited budget.	8
Write about a memorable visit you have made to your friend/relative(s).	3

4.3.5.5. Perceived Needs of Improvement

The respondents were asked to make a self-evaluation of their perceived needs. Exploring the perceived needs of learners could help determine the learners’ own judgments of strengths and weaknesses. Such exploration helps us visualize the extent to which learners’ grasp of learning is completed and how learners feel secure or insecure on particular topics. In other words, it will help us develop a micro perspective rather than a macro one. For this particular context, the clustered fields that need improvement are appropriate use of articles, conjunctions, grammar, mistakes, phrases, punctuation and vocabulary; further writing practice; and writing better sentences. The following table (see Table 75) presents the recurring needs, their frequency and examples of them.

Table 75: The Participants' Perceived Needs of Development

<i>Codes</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>Sample excerpt</i>
Articles	6	<i>I make article mistakes a lot. I think that is caused by my lack of attention, and as I see my mistakes in it, I will improve myself. (ST33)</i>
Better sentences (sentence variety 12, topic sentences 5, concluding sentence 2, sentence order 6)	25	<i>I can be more creative, and be more dominant on sentence structures and some phrases. (ST56)</i>
Conjunctions	12	<i>I should be able to use the conjunctions more often, and not repeat them. (ST67)</i>
Grammar	25	<i>I need to improve my vocabulary and grammar. (ST89)</i>
Mistakes	2	<i>I need to improve my grammar, because I make a lot of mistakes in grammar. (ST44)</i>
Phrases	4	<i>I can be more creative, and be more dominant on sentence structures and some phrases. (ST60)</i>
Practice	12	<i>I am not a person who is writing every time. Therefore, I have some difficulties about writing. I must write more often. (ST56)</i>
Punctuation	8	<i>I should be more careful at punctuation, I should learn not to repeat myself, and to use grammar right. (ST34)</i>
Vocabulary	26	<i>I need to learn more about the uses and meaning of the words. (ST21)</i>

When the recurring codes are taken into consideration, it could be argued that learners' desired needs and expectations cluster around lexical needs, grammatical needs, syntactical needs, practice needs. In terms of lexical needs, the participants pointed to the need to build vocabulary, and it was the most pronounced need for learners. In addition, the need to build phrases was another expectancy for lexical development. Grammatical needs in fact include the need to be able to repair the mistakes, having a good command of articles, conjunctions and punctuation. However, even though the umbrella term "grammar" encompasses the subtopics below, learners seem to have a more reductionist view of grammar. For instance, one participant argued, "*I make grammar and article mistakes, I should be careful on them.*" (ST17; ZPD). From this sentence, it appears that articles and grammar are two separate categories and none of them is a superordinate.

The male respondents in particular mentioned grammar (n=7), further practice (n=4), sentence level improvements (n=5) (especially topic sentence writing), the use of articles (n=2), vocabulary (n=5), punctuation (n=2), the use of phrases (n=1), and supporting sentences (n=1) as the desirable domains of improvement. Females, however, perceived articles (n=4), better sentences (n=20), conjunctions (n=12), grammar (n=18), mistakes (n=2), phrases (n=3), practice (n=8), punctuation (n=6), and vocabulary (n=21) as salient needs.

4.3.5.6. The Techniques/Sources Which Were Found to Be Most Helpful

The learners' cover letters included a question about the effective ways that contribute to L2 writing. It could be inferred from the repeated frequency of the codes (see Table 76) that it was feedback practices that contributed to the learners' L2 development. It was followed by the Internet and pre-writing activities. Moreover, dictionaries and research were the tools that contributed to

learners. Apart from these, books, friends and instructors, and writing practice were the reported contributors to L2 writing.

Table 76: The Techniques/Sources Reported to Be Useful

Technique/Source	<i>f</i>
Feedback	23
Internet	8
Pre-writing activities (outline, brainstorm)	8
Dictionaries	7
Research	7
Books	5
Friends	4
Instructor	4
Practice	3

For male learners, feedback (n=7), the Internet (n=2), brainstorming (n=3), dictionaries (n=2), research (n=1), books (2), and instructor (n=1), were the techniques or sources that helped them most in writing development. The remaining sources and techniques were reported by females. It appears from the findings that the males seem to benefit from external sources when they are writing or they did not report the sources as much as the females since they believe that those sources did not contribute much to their writing.

4.3.5.7. Perceived Authorship

The analysis of the learners' perceptions regarding their authorship in English writing reveals two camps of answers. On the first camp are learners 88 (91%) who believe that they have made a considerable progress. On the second camp are the learners 5 (5%) who believe they made little or no progress. The figures here provide some shred of evidence about the effectiveness of the writing course in general. However, provision of the learners' reasoning would help capture the complexity of the casuality.

4.3.5.8. Reports of Considerable Progress

It was already noted that writing in L2 is a challenge for many. Therefore, learners are positioned along an either visible or insivible continuum of progress during their L2 writing experinces. When the learners were asked to report on how they feel about writing in English, a considerable number pointed to the anxiety-breeding nature of the writing task (see Table 77). In other words, many learners harboured the feelings of nervousness and felt less secure than they would normally do. However, at the end of the semestre, the high level of anxiousness seemed to decrease. There are good reasons to attribute the decrease in anxiety to learners' progress.

Table 77: The Participants' Signs of Improvement

<i>Perceived improvement</i>	<i>f</i>
Comparison with the early writing	27
Practice	19
Fewer mistakes	13
Increased awareness	12
Feedback	6
Increased ability in sentence variety	3
Words	3
Lowered anxiety	2
Teacher	2

Learners' sense of achievement has much to do with their compared self. Usually, a comparison between the then current situation and their writing competence at the very beginning of the semestre is drawn. In line with the writing self-efficacy of learners at the dawn of the semestre, they did not feel well-prepared for writing. It could partly be contributed to the high stakes tests which do not cover the writing component. Learners' self-evaluation of their L2 writing trajectory therefore presents them favorable results. One respondent answered, "*Of course, every writing was better than the previous, because I've learned more techniques until the next writing which can support those writings, and tried as much as I could to apply them.*" (ST79; ZPD). As the quote suggests, the writing behavior might be developmental. Since the learners were keeping a portfolio, it was fairly easy for them to draw a comparison between the then current and previous writing behaviour. Some learners provided a sharp answer saying, "*Definitely yes, because this can be seen from the first and the last paragraph I wrote. My first paragraph is so simple.*" (ST46; non-ZPD). The clarity of the progress, in another learner was described as follows, "*I can see that compared to my old writings, my current writings are better. The conjunctions I've used, and my words getting more and more complex and long can be an example of that.*" (ST74; non-ZPD). The last excerpt indicates an explicit example of the progress from the learner perspective. Apart from the comparisons drawn with the early writing competence, feedback practices seem to play an instrumental role. "*As I wrote, and got feedbacks about what I wrote, I saw what I should have paid attention to, and I try to be more careful about my deficiencies.*" (ST64; non-ZPD). Feedbacks play a significant role to help learners become aware of their mistakes. Even though students from both groups credited feedbacks, the ZPD group highlighted it more. Therefore, it could be argued that mediated feedback provision has much to contribute to learners in their interlanguage development. An analysis of a learner from the ZPD group could evidence the salient role of feedback for their increased sense of authorship: "*Now I'm aware of some of my mistakes, and I try not to make them. Now I am able to read the paragraph after writing, see my mistakes, and fix them. All of the feedbacks I've gotten helped me in this subject.*" (ST49; non-ZPD). As the treatment to the learners' errors is not a suggestion tailored for all learners, feedback provision could be taken as part of the individual attention. Thus, an increased awareness of mistakes is a higher possibility for learners because the language of feedback is tailored for the

students and relevant to them. Therefore, feedback practices are forms of meaningful language and play a significant role in representing the communicative nature of language.

In addition to feedbacks, increased ability in creating sentence variety gave learners an increased sense of authorship. For instance, “*Of course yes [I am a better writer than before]. In this small time span there has been a big difference in my writing style, sentence variety, and vocabulary.*” (ST90; ZPD). One key indicator of learners at lower levels of writing proficiency is writing simple sentences. As the learners move to the other proficiency levels, they are expected to experiment with different sentence types such as compound and complex sentences. Such kind of diversification is believed to enrich the L2 writing in that the compositions are no longer comprised of uniform sentences. The learners’ engagement in different types of sentences, then, is in line with teacher expectations. For the non-ZPD group, satisfaction with sentence writing was also a case. However, sentence variety for these learners does not seem to have improved much. This is evident in the following statement from a learner in the ZPD group: “*Of course I’m better than before, because I can easily write simple sentences without having difficulties.*” (ST44; non-ZPD). The difficulties in question might still be rooted to lack of practice. However, sheer practice devoid of feedback would not make learners feel secure enough to engage in future writing practice.

On the other hand, learners seemed to have increased their writing awareness. The following quotes from learners lend support for increased awareness. Their comments include aspects like components of paragraph structure, sources of mistakes, rules of L2 writing.

Yes, I do, because I have grasped some things better, and learned the right way by making mistakes. (ST58; non-ZPD)

Yes, I’ve learned where the topic sentence, conclusion sentence, and the supporting sentences are used. (ST86; ZPD)

Yes, as I wrote, and got feedbacks about what I wrote, I saw what I should’ve paid attention to, and I try to be more careful about my deficiencies. (ST64; non-ZPD)

I guess I’m better than my past state, because now I can recognize my mistakes. (ST16; ZPD)

Yes, I’ve learned a lot of things about the rules of writing, and I can apply them. (ST5; ZPD)

As can be observed in the statements above, the learners have come to an understanding of paragraph structure. That is, they were more aware of how to create a paragraph using the appropriate constituents. Moreover, they held the conviction that their mistakes lead to an increase in their proficiency. Interlanguage development requires “noticing”, and in Schmitt’s noticing hypothesis. Schmidt (1990: 129) argued that “noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting

input to intake.” Noticing for this particular context was usually achieved through the identification of mistakes.

In addition to the increased awareness, the students also indicated that the impact of their increased writing proficiency was felt in the decreased number of mistakes in their assignments. Mistakes on the part of the ZPD learners were reduced to grammar only. The following quotes exhibit how learners’ experiment with mistakes helped them become better writers.

Yes, I think I’m better, because I have started writing with fewer mistakes, reduced my misspellings and used more words. (ST81; ZPD)

Yes, I think there are fewer mistakes in my writings and the feedbacks. (ST10; ZPD)

Definitely yes, I’ve realized that I made a lot of simple mistakes in my first writings; I try not to do those now. I’m writing more sensible sentences, and I began to recognise my mistakes myself. (ST7; ZPD)

As the sentences above illustrate, writing with less mistakes, a better use of vocabulary, spelling and coherence were some considerations for the learners. However, for non-ZPD learners the priorities seemed to be different.

Yes, I do. Because I pay attention to the more important mistakes in my writings, make less mistakes, and I can form better words. (ST30; non-ZPD)

Yes, I do. I at least think my mistakes have reduced. I also find my last paragraphs better than my previous ones in terms of sentence structure, ideas and such. (ST53; non-ZPD)

Yes, because now I can see my mistakes. I write my writings trying not to leave any question marks in the audience’s head. And the most important, I’m now writing fondly. (ST20; non-ZPD)

The excerpts above indicate that they all felt some degree of progress in L2 writing. It could be inferred after an analysis of the learners’ accounts that there is increased ability to cope with mistakes of different sorts. For instance, the ability to cope with word choice was an improvement coupled with mistakes for one student (ST48; non-ZPD), and for another the improvements in dealing with mistakes led to a corresponding improvement in sentence structure and developing ideas. For ST32 (ZPD), not “to leave any question marks in the audience’s head” was a target. That the student started writing fondly is something to be highlighted. It appears from the non-ZPD learners’ accounts that dealing with mistakes served for more meaningful purposes and created by-products that will make them navigate through paragraph writing.

The analysis of the cover letters also revealed that the participating students felt less anxious thanks to the feedback that they received.

Yes, I think I'm better compared to the past. I overcame my anxiety. With the compliments I've gotten from time to time from my instructor, my confidence has thrived. (ST97; ZPD)

Yes, I don't feel anxious like the first times. I think because I paid attention to the feedbacks I've gotten, and fixed them, they helped me improve. (ST45; non-ZPD)

As can be seen in the statements above, the feedback that the learners received from their teacher contributed positively to their anxiety. They stressed that they now feel less anxious compared to their first few days. Two factors come to the fore in this respect. First, the teacher's praise, which the teacher paid not very frequently, seems to have helped to decrease the learners' anxiety while it increased their confidence. Second, the students believe that paying close attention to the feedback received from the teacher improves the students' writing.

Another point that emerged in the learners' answers was that their practice in writing made them better L2 writers. The learners seem to strongly believe that as they wrote in English, and as they received feedback from their teacher, their English improved, which they reflected in their assignments. Writing regularly, trying to write different types of discourse, and learning from their mistakes were frequently mentioned in the learners' responses.

I think I have developed my writing skill with different techniques and regular writing. (ST76; ZPD)

Yes, the more I learn different techniques, the more my paragraphs improve. (ST15; ZPD)

I feel I improved my writing, because I wrote a lot of paragraphs, and I learned my mistakes. (ST63; non-ZPD)

I still do not think I am so good. I just think I'm improving when compared to my first paragraph. (ST54; non-ZPD)

Frequent writing and checking those writings has improved my writing compared to the first ones. (ST2; ZPD)

It can be inferred from the statements above that the learners are aware of the importance of practicing and reinforcing in their writing. Learning from mistakes, too, was voiced by a few learners. Although one learner confessed that he was not as good yet as he wished he were, he seems to take notice of how much progress he has made since the beginning of the semester. Checking for mistakes with the teacher several times was also found to be beneficial by the learners. It was stressed by a couple of students that their teacher was an important factor in making them feel they were better writers.

Yes, thanks to my instructor. (ST69; non-ZPD)

Of course, but what really improved me was our instructor's speeches about this subject during the classes. (ST89; ZPD)

It is obvious that the teacher's statements on the content of the writing course and on how to write affect the students' attitude in a positive way. Rather than the feedback provided, the learners seem to have benefitted from their teacher's in-class talk and suggestions.

Last but not least, perceived progress was associated with a better use of words. Increased lexical competence of the learners was noted to be a sign of learner improvement. The wide range and appropriate use of words were cited to be the representations of the learner improvement. The following quotes can justify how mastery of new words can promote the learners' writing skills.

Using words appropriately, Yes, I think I can write better than before because I can use different words and connect the sentences to each other. (ST15; ZPD)

Yes, I do, since I am using different words. I am always trying to use synonyms of words and being careful about content and other things. (ST91; ZPD)

Yes. I'm aware that as I write, in terms of vocabulary and grammar, I improve and reduce my mistakes. (ST26; ZPD)

When males and females are compared with reference to their perceived progress, it could be stated that males' reports indicate a higher self-efficacy. Even though respondents from both groups indicated that they demonstrate a considerable progress, for female learners, the progress was not at a desired level. The following excerpts are taken from 4 female learners, and they indicate that the learners either believe that their progress is less than they desire or cannot make sure whether they have made enough progress.

No, I don't think I have, because I used to lack knowledge, and had a lot of difficulties. I at least got a little knowledge. (ST31)

No, because I didn't know what to pay attention to while writing. (ST13)

No, I don't, because I sometimes face difficulties even while writing in Turkish. (ST36)

Yes, but I don't see myself as a writer, there's only improvement. (ST61)

That it is only females who are hesitant about their progress might be related to the lower self-efficacy scores of females. In line with literature review, it appears that females have "a different metric" when it comes to self-efficacy. Moreover, three of these four learners came from the non-ZPD group. Similar to the learners who were not happy with their progress, the reports of slow progress were relatively more pronounced in the non-ZPD group. As can be observed from the learners' accounts, learners approach texts differently. In the light of the points they have highlighted, it could be argued that grammatical, pragmatic and content-related resources improved substantially.

4.3.6. Analysis of the Stimulated Recall Protocols

The stimulated recall protocols conducted with 8 learners (4 ZPD; 4 non-ZPD) were transcribed and analysed using the content analysis. The protocols were helpful for the researcher to gain insight into what/how learners felt after receiving feedback. Their responses helped identify the things that contributed to their repair, reasons for the avoidance of repair/misrepair, learners' reaction to repair requests, and perceptions of the effectiveness of different modes of repair. The participants were given their drafts in their first tasks and asked to comment on what helped them create a successful response in a particular situation (see Table 78). Stimulating learners through the tasks might enable them to share how they worked with in a particular situation rather than the general process.

Table78: Things That Contribute to the Participants' Repair

<i>ZPD Students</i>	<i>Non-ZPD Students</i>
<i>Your feedback has helped me to make corrections easily. Feedbacks helped me the most while correcting my mistakes. (ST5)</i>	<i>I looked at the codes in the book. (ST23)</i>
<i>Actually, I understood it when I was receiving feedback. Therefore, I did not have to refer to other sources. (ST26)</i>	<i>The written feedback was the only source I benefitted. Moreover, I asked it to my classmate.(ST49)</i>
<i>I didn't take any help while fixing my mistakes. Only the instructor told me what was wrong. (ST42)</i>	<i>I had to ask to other teachers to make clarifications. (ST51)</i>
<i>Feedbacks helped me correct my mistakes. I sometimes asked what I didn't understand to my friends. (ST75)</i>	<i>I paid attention to the comments at the end of the paragraphs. I still did not understand some of them, and I asked to some friends. (ST73)</i>

From the excerpts written above, it could be argued that learners who received feedback within their ZPD referred to their teachers' suggestions (n=7) and dictionary (n=1) when repairing their mistakes. The ones who received feedback irrespective of their ZPD, however, referred to the coursebook (n=1), the Internet (n=2), classmates (n=2), teacher feedback (n=4), peer feedback (n=2). One interpretation to be drawn here could be the teacher reliance. Learners in the ZPD group pointed to the effectiveness of teacher feedback and emphasized the role of the teacher feedback. However, in the non-ZPD group, the sources learners benefit seem to be more diversified. Part of the reason for the learners' insecurity in this group could be the fragmentation in the sources learners benefit from. Since learners benefitted from a wide range of sources, it did not really translate into teacher approval. Feedback sessions in the ZPD group are co-constructed, and such a co-construction process makes the teacher part of the process. Therefore, learners can make on the spot decisions to test their hypothesis or notice their gaps in their interlanguage development immediately, so fossilization of those mistakes might be a lower possibility than non-ZPD feedback situations.

4.3.6.1. Reasons for Failure to Repair or Avoidance of Repair

The request for repairs does not always end up in successful handling of repair requests. It is a possibility that learners do not or cannot repair all the errors they make. Therefore, understanding

the underlying reasons for any particular avoidance could be helpful to capture the inclinations of learners towards the corrections. The following excerpts (see Table 79) provide responses of ZPD and non-ZPD learners to situations in which learners' corrections were not successfully done (either not corrected or miscorrected).

Table 79: The Participants' Reasons for Failure to Repair

<i>ZPD Students</i>	<i>Non-ZPD Students</i>
<i>I still cannot understand why we use it [the article "the" for this [when referring to nationality] particular situation.](ST5)</i>	<i>Actually, I did not understand it. (ST23)</i>
<i>In the second draft, I couldn't fix my mistakes fully, because I even have a fourth draft. That was the biggest problem I've had. (ST26)</i>	<i>I made the corrections, but did not have a chance to check it. (ST49)</i>
<i>When we look at the first and the second writings, articles are an issue, and I think it's because of my unawareness. I didn't know anything about what to do about articles or prepositions. I learned a bit after getting the feedback, and reduced my mistakes. (ST42)</i>	<i>I've had one mistake which I couldn't fix, but I omitted that sentence. (ST51)</i>
<i>I wrote "It generally happens in the street", which I didn't fix in the first draft. I think it's because I didn't recognize it. I didn't recognize the spelling in the first draft either, but you've told me to fix it, which I later did. (ST75)</i>	<i>Because I misunderstood the topic, I rewrote the whole paragraph. (ST73)</i>

The excerpts above show that learners in the ZPD group made mistakes because of their lack of attention or failure to understand. In other words, learners in this group did not have a proper degree of awareness or did not understand the task. In line with previous research, it could be argued that awareness raising is a realistic expectation. Unlike self-correction, teacher correction, or other corrective behaviour plays a significant role on the way to help learners "identify forms that are not yet part of the interlanguage" (Ellis, 2009: 7). One thing that should be noted could be the length of their explanations. It appears that the learners in the ZPD group tend to provide more detailed accounts of the particular error situations. Thus, the mistakes help them better stimulated, which might be an indicator of their experiment with the errors they made.

4.3.6.2. Learner Reactions to Repair Requests

In addition to the errors uncorrected or miscorrected, their reactions to the corrections were also asked. The respondents told that the treatments were not difficult in general. However, some details about how they felt and what they did afterwards could be analysed in detail. The following are some sentences from the stimulated recall interviews (see Table 80).

Table 80: The Participants' Reactions to Corrections/Repair Requests

<i>ZPD Students</i>	<i>Non-ZPD Students</i>
<i>Our negotiation made it easy for me. (ST5)</i>	<i>I did not find it difficult. Actually I made many article mistakes. When I had a problem I usually asked it to my friends. (ST23)</i>
<i>It was not much difficult. There were different mistakes, the same mistakes didn't repeat. It looks like I've fixed a great amount in the first one. When I gave the third draft, some articles were missing, but these mistakes were not in the first draft. (ST26)</i>	<i>Even though I'm 90% sure, the ten per cent of doubt makes me question whether what I've written was right or not. (ST49)</i>
<i>Easy for me because I fixed the mistake where I wrote "wedding owners are served drink" because the instructor told me that it shouldn't have been passive. (ST42)</i>	<i>I did not understand it when I first heard because I did not know them [correction codes] since it was my one of early experiences. But now I am getting used to it. (ST51)</i>
<i>Generally, feedbacks were beneficial for me, because I reduced the amount I wrote from two pages to this little, gotten rid of unnecessary sentences, and fixed my run-on sentences thanks to the feedbacks. (ST75)</i>	<i>I just understood it when you showed it. I forgot "the" there. Actually when I saw "married with", I realized the mistake and I made it "to", which sounds more reasonable. (ST73)</i>

As the sentences above indicate, the corrections were not found to be difficult by the learners. In the ZPD group, “easy”, “not much difficult”, “easy...to fix”, “beneficial” were some words the learners in the ZPD group uttered. Moreover, “not find it difficult,” “90% sure,” “did not understand when I first heard,” “just understood when you showed it” were some explanations to explain how the learners felt when they were requested to do corrections. It appears that the ones in the ZPD felt more empowered to struggle with those corrections as their talk included elements of ease. The learners in the non-ZPD group, however, did not feel that much empowered. Even though half of the participants did not encounter difficulties, the remaining two demonstrated reactions that include “10% doubt,” a low degree of familiarity. The doubt might be a potential representation of the learners writing anxiety, if not part and parcel of it. Moreover, lack of negotiation in the non-ZPD group could be a reason why the learner in the non-ZPD group did not understand the correction. It could be argued than the mediation is a necessity for learners especially at the very beginning of the feedback tasks to help learners acclimatize to the system.

4.3.6.3. Perceptions on the Effectiveness of the Two Modes of Feedback Practices

When it comes to the effectiveness of the feedback practices, there is much evidence to claim the effectiveness of the feedback practices within learners' ZPD. In general, face-to-face feedback sessions contributes to the ease of retrieval (n=1) and intelligibility (n=3), whereas the non-ZPD group pointed to insufficiency (n=2), noticing (n=1), lack of ad hoc collaboration (n=1). Further explanations will be made in relevance to the learner voices (see Table 81).

Table 81: The Participants' Reasons for Failure to Repair

ZPD Students	Non-ZPD Students
<i>What's better with face to face feedback is that it is easier to remember when mistakes are explained face to face. (ST5)</i>	<i>I saw the mistakes I did not notice while I was writing. (ST49)</i>
<i>The feedback was given face to face, so it was easy to understand because I wrote it right after. I wouldn't have understood if the instructor just wrote it and gave it to me. (ST26)</i>	<i>Written feedback alone was not enough because I did not understand many things. I prefer the combination of both written and verbal feedback. (ST23)</i>
<i>It was an advantage for me that the feedbacks were face to face, because when it's written, I can't understand until you've spoken about it. I'd like all feedbacks to be face to face, but that would be tiring for the instructor. (ST42)</i>	<i>I don't think feedbacks only on paper were sufficient because face to face feedback is better. I don't think written feedbacks are as understandable as face to face feedback. (ST51)</i>
<i>I think face to face feedback was quite beneficial. If it weren't face to face, I wouldn't have understood anything from a written feedback because I wouldn't have understood the meanings of the abbreviations. But now we know what the abbreviations mean, which means we can understand written feedback. (ST75)</i>	<i>I remember better when I get oral feedback. I do not understand much when feedback is written. During oral feedback, I can ask something that comes up – like "What about this?" (ST73)</i>

From the statements above, it could be argued that the effectiveness of feedback is usually associated with the involvement of the learners. That is, if learners felt themselves as part of the process, it contributed to the overall effectiveness. Feedback that is not negotiated, however, was inadequate for the learners because it was not found understandable. *"I don't think written feedback is as understandable as face to face feedback,"* said one learner (ST51), suggesting the significance attached. Failure to understand made one learner to seek for "the combination of both written and verbal feedback" because spoken language and written language play a compensatory role. Moreover, inclusion of paralinguistic elements as well as the linguistic ones makes oral communication a great advantage. However, in random feedback practices, learners were devoid of opportunities to benefit from cues beyond the text. Communication through the feedback is not always achievable. One significant consideration for effective communication is intelligibility. However, the written texts do not guarantee the intelligibility of the feedback practice. The following excerpt could be a very good example for this:

But with the help of feedbacks, one can progress in the process of becoming a good writer. And the best kind of feedback for me is face to face. Written feedback can be useful if it's written clearly, and showing how the mistake was exactly made. If it's just underlined or marked, I might not understand, but the mistake is defined like "wrong word" or "article", I understand what it is. (ST26)

4.3.6.4. Perceptions on the Effectiveness of the Two Modes of Feedback Practices on Subsequent Compositions

The participants were asked to report on the effectiveness of the feedbacks on reducing mistakes in their future writings, and the general tendency points to increased self-efficacy in fighting with mistakes. The following table (see Table 82) presents some learner accounts regarding the impact of corrections on future writings.

Table 82: The Participants' Perceptions Regarding the Impact of Corrections on Future Writings

ZPD Students	Non-ZPD Students
<i>I think I will still make article mistakes in my future writings. But because I've gotten used to using them, I think I will end up fixing my mistakes. (ST5)</i>	<i>I care more and I believe I will make less mistakes. I revise after I have finished writing because I fear I may have made mistakes. (ST23)</i>
<i>I don't think I would make the same article mistakes, since I've learned about articles. I don't think that I will make the simple mistakes I've done in the past again either. Because I'm afraid of making mistakes, sometimes I delete a sentence that I've written. I feel as if being corrected is an insult. (ST26)</i>	<i>I now know what preposition to use. I learned a good lesson. Things became automatic. (ST49)</i>
<i>Looking at my writings, I don't think I will make the same mistakes again, because I used to write as fast as I could to create the idea of the text, and make some mistakes. But after realizing my mistakes, I started to check them before finishing my writing. (ST42)</i>	<i>I think that feedback is a really useful means on the way of becoming a good writer, but it is not enough alone. The effort of the writer is needed as well. (ST51)</i>
<i>I don't think I will make mistakes as much as I did before, for example I won't make article mistakes, but I might make preposition mistakes. I hope I will fix that. (ST75)</i>	<i>I got only one feedback for this writing. I think I won't make the same mistakes as much as I did before, because now I double check my writings, thinking that I probably have made mistakes. (ST73)</i>

The learners' accounts demonstrate how their self-efficacy in dealing with the errors evolves. The overall conclusion here could be the possibility of the learners to make errors even though the awareness they raised will help them avoid the "silly mistakes". That is, learners believe they still make or will make mistakes, but simple mistakes will at least be avoided. Such a development could be interpreted as a representation of the learners' developmental trajectory. On the way to decrease, if not to totally eradicate errors, learners start with the errors that do not represent their serious endeavour. "Looking at my writings, I don't think I will make the same mistakes again, because I used to write as fast as I could to create the idea of the text, and make some mistakes. But after realizing my mistakes, I started to check them before finishing my writing," (ST42) said a learner. In the quote above, the learner feels that his/her own experience serves as a positive reinforcement to combat with the subsequent mistakes. The learner's recognition that checking the product for mistakes added him/her further awareness regarding the accuracy of the messages to be conveyed. Therefore, such awareness could be interpreted as part of progress from product focus to process orientation. Regarding the usefulness of feedback almost all students seem to agree that written feedback should be accompanied by spoken interaction (see Table 83).

Table 83: The Participants' Perceptions Regarding the Interaction of Written and Spoken Modality

ZPD Students	Non-ZPD Students
<i>I think the skill of the writer is more important than feedbacks. My thought is that if the instructor gave the first feedback face to face, and the others written, it would be easier for starters to understand. I think face to face feedback helps the student understand his/her mistakes. (ST5)</i>	<i>Written feedback first, oral feedback should follow. I think I must try to understand first and then ask the teacher. Otherwise, it would not be productive. (ST23)</i>
<i>But for me, face to face would be better because when you tell me my mistakes, I understand where, and what my mistakes are. When you're giving face to face feedback, if I don't know how to fix a mistake, I ask you. But when I get written feedback, if I don't know how to fix a mistake, I can't find a solution. (ST26)</i>	<i>I think the best kind of feedback would be the kind in which I first try to find my mistakes myself on a written one. It would be better to make the second feedback face to face to fix the mistakes the writer couldn't fix by himself/herself. I don't think written feedback is as good as face to face feedback. (ST49)</i>
<i>I can imagine more when we talk. Written feedback only would limit this. It makes me think there is no need to add anything else. (ST42)</i>	<i>I can write a better writing because we can discuss things simultaneously. (ST51)</i>
<i>I think face to face feedback is quite nice, and should be used in the future years. (ST75)</i>	<i>The advantage of oral feedback is that both the teacher and the students can work at the same time. (ST73)</i>

4.3.7. A Sample Analysis of the Micro genetic/Macro genetic Development of the ZPD Student

The following is an example extract from the teacher-student interactions in the first paragraph task.

Sample draft 1

WEDDINGS IN ÇANAKKALE

Weddings in Çanakkale are not so much traditional. We can say that they are mostly classic weddings. Firstly, invitation cards are printed after the wedding date has been definite and are given only the bride's and the groom's neighbourhood and relatives. In order to invite the people in their villiage to the wedding, one day before, a few person wanders door to door and gives candy. In this way, these people are ready to go to the wedding. Generally, it's organized in rural area. Chairs, tables and music system are set up one day before and in the wedding day, guests eat the meal prepared for the wedding. When the night becomes, they settles in the area. Initially, bride and groom, with the applauses and fireworks, comes to the stage and dances to romantic music, then the other couples too. After this, everyone who wants to dance oyunhavası, goes to the stage. For a while, it goes like this and then, they make jewelry ceremony, meanwhile a respectable old woman grandma or old aunt says loudly which jewelries have been weared. After the jewellery ceremony, sometimes people who wants to still dancing they dance, people who wants to go their home, they go and the wedding ends.

A transcription of the conversation between the teacher and the student during the feedback process is presented below. First, the student was asked to go through the text, and then it was time for the course instructor and the student to read the text together. The sample conversation between the teacher and the student provides a snapshot of the microgenetic development of the learner throughout the feedback session. It appears from the following conversation that the interlanguage development of the learner is co-constructed with a more capable peer. The more capable peer in this context is the teacher. A general conclusion from the learner's responses to teacher-initiated repairs is that for each error situation, the learner shifts along a continuum on a regulatory scale. On the part of the learner, there are responses which require approval because of the feelings of insecurity. That feedback offered within the learners' ZPD here refers to the face-to-face feedback. Thus, the learners' hypothesis can quickly be approved or refuted.

4.3.7.1. Sample Episode from the Teacher and the ZPD Student Interaction (Week 3)

The following conversation takes place during a feedback session.

- 1 TEACHER: Hi Sibel [Nickname]! Could you please check your paragraph to see if there are
- 2 any mistakes or not?
- 3 STUDENT: Here I have one [The student notices one of her mistakes].
- 4 TEACHER: Any other, apart from this one?
- 5 STUDENT: No.
- 6 TEACHER: Ok. Let's continue. "In order to invite the people in their village to the wedding
- 7 one day before, a few person..." Anything here?
- 8 STUDENT: A few people [Seeks approval]
- 9 TEACHER: Very good. Now "A few people..."
- 10 STUDENT: Wander.
- 11 TEACHER: A few people wander door to door and give candy. Anything here?
- 12 STUDENT: I guess no.
- 13 TEACHER: Should we use the singular or plural form?
- 14 STUDENT: Plural form.
- 15 TEACHER: What is the plural form?
- 16 STUDENT: Candies
- 17 TEACHER: That's it. "Generally, it's organized in rural area." Is there something wrong here?
- 18 Look at the spelling.
- 19 STUDENT: Mmmm
- 20 TEACHER: Should we capitalize this?
- 21 STUDENT: Okay, yes.
- 22 TEACHER: 'In rural area' What about here?
- 23 STUDENT: It sounds correct.

24 TEACHER: Which form to choose? Singular or plural?
25 STUDENT: 'areas'
26 TEACHER: Great! Let me go on. 'Guests eat the meal prepared for the wedding.' This is
27 perfect! 'When the night becomes, they settles', Something wrong?
28 STUDENT: Oh, yes, I forgot that. It must be 'settle'.
29 TEACHER: Initially, bride and groom... Which bride?
30 STUDENT: "The bride" of course!
31 TEACHER: the bride and groom, they...?
32 STUDENT: they come
33 TEACHER: 'they come to the stage to romantic music', good. 'Then the other couples too' I
34 think it is not clear here.
35 STUDENT: Mhmm, What is wrong here?
36 TEACHER: We need a verb here.
37 STUDENT: Ahh, dance too'
38 TEACHER: "For a while, it" capitalize this. So capitalize 'i'. 'It goes like this and they make
39 jewelry ceremony, meanwhile a respectable woman grandma?'
40 STUDENT: We can use a comma.
41 TEACHER: Yes. 'or old aunt says loudly which jewelries'? What about this part?
42 STUDENT: Not sure.
43 TEACHER: Is it singular or plural? [Pointing to the word "jewelleries"]
44 STUDENT: Mmm.
45 TEACHER: "jewellery".
46 STUDENT: Okay.
47 TEACHER: '...have been weared.' Wear?
48 STUDENT: I think it is correct.
49 TEACHER: Check whether this is the correct form. 'After the jewelry ceremony, sometimes
50 people who...?'
51 STUDENT: 'want'
52 TEACHER: 'people who want to still dancing'?
53 STUDENT: 'people who want to still dance' no -ing.
54 TEACHER: Good job! Let's say "who still want to dance", okay? Look at this word order.
55 'people who still want to dance, dance, people who want to go their home'
56 STUDENT: '... their home, go.'
57 TEACHER: 'and the wedding ends.' So, thank you. This is rich in content. But I would like
58 to see how you repair all these, okay?
59 STUDENT: Okay, I'll do that. Thank you!

The extracts above show the teacher-student interactions upon the learner's first composition. In the episode above, the learner, upon the teacher's request to go through the text (see line 1), notices one of her mistakes (saying "here I have one" in line 3) without any help from the teacher. This could be interpreted as an example of self-regulation (level 0) because the learner is requested to find errors and correct them independently. Following the other initiated self-correction, the teacher starts to help the learner notice the mistakes. First, an indirect approach is taken. Then depending on the learner's discovery, the corrections are made in a progressive way. The amount and quality of help is defined in response to the learner's realization of the mistakes. It is evident from the given episodes that the learner's need for help varied in different contexts. Therefore, the learners shifted between 0 and 10 in a continuum of the regulatory scale.

When the teacher-student mediation starts, the teacher implies that there might be other mistakes. Such a request could be taken as a positioning of the teacher as a dialogic partner (level 1). The call for some other mistakes is evident in line 4, and this makes it more tempting for the learner. Then the student says "no" (line 5), suggesting that there are no other infelicities. The teacher starts reading the text aloud (level 2). When the teacher says "a few person" in line 7, there is an implication of an error (level 3). The teacher again provides a prompt regarding the location of the error (level 5). Showing or implying the error location seems to be of help. In line 8, the learner responds to the teacher-initiated correction request. Therefore, the learner's interaction falls in Level 3 in regulatory scale. In line with the level in question, the learner notices the error only under other-regulation. Moreover, another other-negotiated self-repair is the case in line 10. This time the learner sounds more secure compared his/her answer in line 8. However, even though the location of error is indicated in the word "candy" (line 11), the prompt could not help the learner elicit a response (line 12). Therefore, the nature of the error is indicated by the teacher (line 13); however, the error is not identified (level 6). After the assistance on the nature of the error, the learner was able to identify the error (line 16). Capitalization of "i" (line 20) and pluralisation of "area" (line 22) also underwent a similar procedure. That is, the learner was indicated the nature of the error (level 6). Following the identification of the capitalization and pluralisation errors, there were some more teacher-initiated self-corrections. The subject-verb agreement correction in line 27 and missing article in line 29 are corrected without indicating the nature or identifying the error (level 3). According to the Regulatory Scale, the teacher indicates that something may be wrong in a segment in Level 3. Subject-verb agreement repair in "settle", the missing article before the word "bride" are in line with this. However, the missing verb (dance) is repaired through the prompts at Level 5. Another identification of the error regarding the missing verb in line 36 is level 6 help. The request to capitalize "i" is a more explicit support (level 10) while comma insertion is achieved through the indication of a mistake in a segment. Regarding the word "jewelleries", the learner cannot make a decision (line 42). Therefore, the teacher indicates the nature of the error (level 6). However, the learner's unsuccessful attempt in correcting the error, is compensated by the teacher in line 45 (level 10). The failure to find the correct past participle is a challenge as was in the case of line 45. This time the

teacher does not provide the correct answer, rather asks the learner to search for it (line 49). The subject verb agreement problem in line 51 is easily noticed by the learner. We see in line 51 that after a focused reading of the sentence, the learner comes up with the correct answer “want”. The same focused reading also results in the correction of infinitive form in dancing (see line 53). Following the correction in infinitive form, the learner is subject to a correction in word order. However, even though the location of the error is narrowed down, the learner cannot notice the mistake and the teacher provides the correct form (level 10). Following the grammatical issues, the teacher makes his remarks about the content of the paragraph, and the session finishes.

According to Nassaji and Swain (2000), the nature of help in levels from 2 to 6 is considered to be implicit, while 7-12 deemed to be explicit support. With reference to the division, an explicit degree of help was the case in three situations whereas the remaining degree of help ranged from 0 to 6. To exemplify, in the word “jewellery” (line 45), the learner needed further assistance, and the teacher provided a more explicit degree of help. Moreover, the word order mistake in the paragraph considered to be relatively challenging for the learner (lines 54-55). Therefore, it was assumed that the learner could not overcome the error as s/he was not well-informed about some plural forms. In less explicit helps, to treat the error, the teacher started with localizing the error (see Level 5 in the Regulatory Scale above). The learner did not have difficulty to produce the correct response (e.g., line 5).

Upon the interaction between the student and teacher, the learner submits the following corrected form.

WEDDINGS IN ÇANAKKALE

Weddings in Çanakkale are mostly classic weddings. Firstly, the invitation cards are printed after the wedding date has been defined and are given only the bride’s and the groom’s neighbourhood and relatives. In order to invite the people in their village to the wedding, one day before, a few people wander door to door and give candies. In this way, these people are ready to go to the wedding. Generally, it is organized in rural areas. Chairs, tables, and music system are set upon a day before, and on the wedding day, guests eat the meal prepared for the wedding. Initially, the bride and groom, with the applauses and fireworks, come to the stage and dance to romantic music, then the other couples dance, too. After this, everyone who wants to dance oyun havası goes to the stage. For a while, it goes like this and then, they make ceremony, meanwhile a respectable old woman, grandma or old aunt says loudly which jewellerys have been pinned. After the jewellery ceremony, sometimes people dance and sometimes they go their home and the wedding ends.

The following episode is taken from the teacher-student interaction during a feedback session. The student who interacted with the teacher in the 3rd and 14th weeks is the same. The task required

the learner to write a paragraph in which they drew a comparison between watching a movie at home or at the cinema. The following episode provides the opportunity to see the traces of microgenetic as well as macrogenetic development of the student.

- 1 TEACHER: Are there any mistakes in this paragraph?
- 2 STUDENT: Yes. Between going to a movie and having a movie night at home. To koymuşum
- 3 [I put “to” there]. It should be “and”. (The learner continues reading aloud) This should be “at
- 4 home.”
- 5 TEACHER: Okey. Let’s go sentence by sentence now. “There are many differences between
- 6 going to a movie and having a movie night at home. The topic sentence is neatly handled.
- 7 Firstly, the screen that the movie played...OK. The movie? Is there something wrong here?
- 8 STUDENT: I don’t know.
- 9 TEACHER: Okey. Look at the form. Is it active or passive?
- 10 STUDENT: It should be passive.
- 11 TEACHER: Is this passive now? The movie played?
- 12 STUDENT: No.
- 13 TEACHER: So we should make it passive right?
- 14 STUDENT: Hmm hmm.
- 15 TEACHER: Any recommendation?
- 16 STUDENT: The movie are ...The movie is played?
- 17 TEACHER: Ahah. Very good! While you are watching a movie in the cinema, the screen is
- 18 bigger than the one in the home.
- 19 STUDENT: Hmm hmm.
- 20 TEACHER: Anything here?
- 21 STUDENT: At home.
- 22 TEACHER: Okey. Then you don’t have to pay for a ticket if you are watching a movie at
- 23 home. In contrast, you must pay money for it in the cinema. Anything so far?
- 24 STUDENT: The comma is wrong.
- 25 TEACHER: Ahah. Also you can pop your own corn there because of this you have to buy it,
- 26 too. Okey. This is a run-on sentence. Do you know what run-on sentence is?
- 27 STUDENT: Not clear to me.
- 28 TEACHER: Actually, there are too many sentences here. So, you should divide it here.
- 29 STUDENT: Okey.
- 30 TEACHER: Yet, at home, you can do this conveniently. Having a movie at home on the other
- 31 hand, the seats are more comfortable. Are there any things that you notice here?
- 32 STUDENT: We should put something here.
- 33 TEACHER: For example?
- 34 STUDENT: When here?
- 35 TEACHER: Very good!

36 STUDENT: When you have a movie night at home, the seats are more comfortable.
37 TEACHER: Hmm hmm. For example, you can sit or lay down the way you like, whereas it is
38 limited to move in the cinema. Okey. The other difference is the sound systems. When you are
39 in the cinema, they are more powerful than the ones at home. (Pointing to at) You correction
40 is correct. Finally, in the cinema, there are people around you that you do not know. Look at
41 the word order here.
42 STUDENT: There are people you don't know around you.
43 TEACHER: Hmm hmm.
44 STUDENT: This must be in this way.
45 TEACHER: When you are at home, you can choose people with whom you will enjoy
46 watching movie. Well, this is a well-organized paragraph. The title represents the whole
47 paragraph and the topic sentence is quite strong. Maybe we can use some cohesive devices
48 like second, third...in order to enumerate the differences between the watching experience at
49 the movie or at the cinema. The second thing is some more details about the movie watching
50 at two different locations would be beneficial. For example, you say that "the screen size is
51 bigger." Can you please be more specific about screen size? You can specify the screen size,
52 how large is it? Again the same thing goes for price or prices. How much does it cost? I mean
53 some supporting details would help.
54 STUDENT: Hmm hmm.
55 TEACHER: Okey. Thank you very much.

The teacher keeps reading the text (line 30-31) and indicates that there is something wrong. The student senses that there is something missing (line 32), and the teacher asks the student to specify (line 33). The dialogue continues with the student's asking "when here?" (line 34). The teacher approves the student with a praise (line 35). Next, the student reads the corrected version (line 36). The teacher continues reading the sentences (line 37-41). In lines 40-41, the teacher points to the erroneous part and identifies the error (level 7). The student changes the word order and restates the sentence (line 42). In lines 45-53, the teacher provides feedback related to the content and organization. Then the feedback session is over.

Judging from the instances of helps in the feedback session in the 14th week, several conclusions could be drawn from the learners' microgenetic development. Considering Nassaji and Swain's (2000) framework, except for one occasion, the nature of teacher help is implicit. The most explicit help was provided in line 41, when the teacher identified the error, saying, "Look at the word order here." the other instances of help ranged from 0 to 5, which is classified in the implicit category.

With regards to the macrogenetic development, a comparison could be drawn between the episodes in the 3rd and 14th weeks. It appears that the level and quantity of help decreased in the 14th week. While there were three instances of explicit help in the 3rd week, it decreased to 1 in the 14th week. Moreover, the explicit instances of help were all in level 10 in the 3rd week, but the explicit help in the 13th week was at level 7.

It could be argued that there is an evidence of "graduated" correction of errors, which is in line with sociocultural theory (Ellis, 2017). The graduated help indicates the shift from the explicit to implicit degrees of help. This finding is in accord with early studies focusing on the negotiated help (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji and Swain, 2000). Following the evolving tendency from the explicit to implicit, in line with the arguments in the abovementioned studies, it could be argued that language acquisition is taking place.

4.4. A Comparison of the ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners in Terms of Suggested Repairs

The differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners in terms of their performance was elaborated when the examination-based performance was mentioned. An additional manifestation of the ZPD and non-ZPD learners' performance is a categorization of the teacher's markings on the paper. The numbers below, however, reflect the only highlighted parts. There might still be some other errors that are gone unnoticed, told but not marked or neglected as some are believed to be above the learners' capacity. Table 84 illustrates the amount of suggested revision requests.

Table 84: An Examination of the Suggested Repairs Based On Student Paragraphs

N	Drafts	Category	Sentence	Grammar	Orthographical	Lexical	Organization	Content
48	484	ZPD	43	457	183	152	91	118
49	530	NON-ZPD	94	621	194	274	226	232

The suggested revisions were categorized under six chief categories. Based on the findings, the non-ZPD learners received a greater request for revision. The discrepancy between the ZPD and non-ZPD learners is evident in sentence problems such as fragments, run-on sentences, choppy, stinky sentences and comma splices. While the ZPD group received 43 requests for revision, this number amounted to 94 for the non-ZPD learners. The case for grammar included many cases including tense agreement, singular/plural agreement, determiners (articles, quantifiers, demonstratives, possessives, and numbers). Therefore, the highest revision requests are evident for both groups. When the groups are compared, the experimental group had 457 requests for changes in grammar, while the control group had 621. Orthographical errors include the mechanical considerations such as punctuation, capitalization and spelling. It seems that the two groups did not differ much on this aspect: 183 requests for ZPD learners and 194 requests for non-ZPD learners. The little difference could be attributed to the similar degree of assistance learners receive from modern authoring tools such as Microsoft Word. That is, learners in both groups seem to have benefitted from orthographical check at a similar rate, and the degree of precision for such checks appears to be high. Requests for lexical, organizational and content-based revisions were higher for the ZPD group again. While the non-ZPD group had 274, 226 and 232 requests, the numbers for the ZPD group remained at 152, 91, and 128 respectively.

The comparison of these findings might reveal several conclusions about the effectiveness of the feedback practices. First, the number of drafts for per person in the ZPD group was 10.08, while the non-ZPD group had to submit 10.81. This means the non-ZPD group had to submit more than their counterparts. The request for further submission is evidenced by the greater degree of suggested repairs especially sentence, grammar, lexical, organization, and content-based revision requests. Since the number of suggested repairs for the non-ZPD group outweighed the ZPD group, what created the difference could be interpreted as a manifestation of the alignment of teacher and student expectations. It seems possible that when the expectations are exchanged through the mediation process, the learners become more involved in the process and take the ownership for their writing, which, in turn, might pave the way for more commitment for increased writing quality.

This chapter is devoted to the findings and discussion, and findings gathered from the qualitative and quantitative data are interpreted with reference to the data obtained through the data gathering instruments. The findings were discussed with particular focus on the perceptions, practices and tendencies of learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group. The chapter is followed by the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

No matter what approach to teaching one is inclined to follow, teaching always essentially proceeds through three stages. The process starts by the instructor providing some kind of input. This may be acoustic, visual or a combination of both. The students are then given the opportunity to use or produce language. Finally, they receive feedback on the language they produce or on the information they have retrieved or constructed from the language input (Sigott, 2013: 9).

This chapter presents conclusions, offers insights into the future research orientations, and notes the limitations of the study. First, an overview of research findings is explicated. Then some theoretical as well as pedagogical implications for further studies and classroom practices with reference to potential benefits to stakeholders, particularly educationalists and researchers, are highlighted. Moreover, limitations of the study are elaborated so as to help other researchers or practitioners invest in feasible initiatives and deal with the array of barriers they might confront.

The conclusions of the study include the findings elaborating the research context and a brief summary of the qualitative and quantitative findings as well as their interpretations. Given the complexity of the conflicting findings on the effectiveness of different feedback types, it could be argued, as Silva (1990) aptly put it, the issue of teacher feedback has generated more heat than light. Before jumping into mainstream discussions, one finding to be highlighted in the light of research could be related to the improvements in learners' achievements and self-efficacy, and the decrease in the L2 writing anxiety levels of learners in both groups. Therefore, it could be argued that feedback practices are helpful for language learners to promote learners' interlanguage development with relative comfort. The comfort in question comes through the learners' perceived threshold of attendance. In the words of Ferris et al. (1997: 155), "Written feedback allows for a level of individualized attention and one to one communication that is rarely possible in the day-to-day operations of a class, and it plays an important role in motivating and encouraging students". Thus, feedback, albeit its modality and form, proves to be effective if taken seriously by stakeholders.

Given the effectiveness of feedback practices in both groups, it would be worthwhile for students to develop feedback-seeking behaviour, which has been associated with positive outcomes in different domains such as job satisfaction, faster adaptation, job creativity and lower turnover (Stone & Heen, 2014: 12). Feedback-seeking behaviour is essential to help learners develop a proper degree of receptivity to their own writing performance. The pursuit of such as behaviour is evident in the authors' call for the usefulness of feedback in developing character, personality and relations:

We've heard it since we were young. Feedback is good for you—like exercise and broccoli. It makes you stronger and helps you grow. Doesn't it? It does. And our life experiences confirm it. We've all had a coach or family member who nurtured our talent and believed in us when no one else did. We've had a friend who laid bare a hard truth that helped us over an impossible hurdle. We've seen our confidence and capabilities grow, our relationships righted, and our rough edges softened.

With reference to feedback preferences, teacher plays an integral role in feedback provision. Especially compared to peer feedback, teacher feedback is highly appreciated. This could be attributed to the learners' approval seeking behaviour since learners consider feedback as a credible source. The educational context in Turkey is considered to be authority-oriented (Karabiyik, 2008; Sert, 2006), and such an assertion seems to be in line with findings which help us understand cross-cultural differences. In Western societies, the learners are more inclined to take charge of their learning, whereas the ones in Eastern societies assign teacher an authoritarian role (Palfreyman, 2003). As the teacher is deemed to be the authority in many cases, the teacher might be positioned at the centre of interactions. However, heavy reliance on teacher as the feedback providing agent might deprive the learners of the opportunities to benefit from other feedback providers such as peers. Therefore, teachers shoulder the responsibility to help learners benefit from feedback provision opportunities.

As for learners' perceptions and preferences of teacher feedback, the ZPD learners had higher means for the teacher feedback-oriented items. When the post-test mean values are compared, it is seen that the students in the ZPD group had a high opinion of teacher feedback. It is evident from the higher mean values in 7 items out of the first 8. With reference to the perceptions and preferences of teacher feedback, it was found that the learners in the ZPD group had greater satisfaction with the feedback they receive, stronger preference for both written and oral feedback, significantly less preference for written feedback only option. Moreover, the ones in the ZPD group believed that teachers' corrections and comments are more important than the scores they get. It follows that mediated teacher feedback might be influential to empower the hidden voices of the learners and help them "speak up", thereby becoming a recognized party of equal power. Feedback, if written only, may not touch all the learners in the same ways since it does not appeal to the affective makeup of all learners. What is more is that for non-ZPD learners the learning experience lacks reciprocity, which violates the Feuerstein's principles of mediated learning.

The learners' tendency to benefit from both written and oral feedback is a frequently agreed preference. It is likely that feedback provided to learners in a single modality does not always communicate, and the learners desire to be supported by language through its all enriching complexity. The "language" learners desire to communicate with involves verbal and non-verbal cues. However, feedback usually followed in process-based pedagogies, considering the current applications in Turkey, does not permit such opportunities because feedback practices, if not supported by conferencing, might be reduced to a "textual" exchange.

Another important highlight would be the anxiety lowering aspect of feedback delivered within learners' ZPD. Both at the beginning and end of the study, the ZPD group had lower anxiety scores. However, the difference in the anxiety levels of learners in the posttest was statistically significant. It appears that random feedback practices do not lower learners' affective filter to a desired extent. Thus, sensing the affective makeup of the feedback receivers is a higher opportunity when feedback is mediated. Negotiation and mediation might mean much for learners because they somehow gain recognition. Considering the responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, while anxiety and anxious were the echoing words at the beginning of the study, there was a changing form of tendency after the feedback practices. As a result, there were less codes of anxiety. In the light of this finding, it could be suggested that the feedback practices should be designed considering the affective makeup of the learners. Given that learners feel themselves somewhat vulnerable in a new territory, the need to provide support systems for them is prevalent. Negotiation through feedback could prove to remedy the need to establish interpersonal relationships with the feedback provider.

The link between feedback and achievement is a noteworthy aspect to mention. In a synthesis of 500 meta-analyses, Hattie (1999) reported that feedback is among the top five or ten predictors of learner achievement (as cited in Hattie and Timperly, 2007). However, the potential benefits of feedback cannot be realized due to a myriad of factors. Particularly for achievement consideration, the study reveals that students in both groups increased their grades in the subsequent evaluations (post-test, delayed post-test and portfolio). However, the increase in the ZPD group was significantly higher than the non-ZPD group. It seems that the efforts to individualize the feedback provision procedures seem to have "touched" the learners in the experimental group more than the control group.

In this study, timed-writing practices are considered to be of the representation of learner performance. In timed-writing contexts, more attention falls on task completion rather than mastering the issues highlighted in previous feedback practices. Thus, students' actual progress may not be adequately represented. Therefore, portfolio findings rather than one-shot exams are also considered to add to the existing evidence. Moreover, the impact of feedback is not immediately felt after a few sessions. Therefore, delayed post-test results were also obtained in order to determine the differences between the ZPD and non-ZPD groups in long term.

Feedback provision for both groups proved to contribute to the self-efficacy of learners. At the end of the study there was a considerable increase in the paragraph writing self-efficacy of learners who received either mediated or unmediated feedback. Moreover, it is evident that feedback applications in the ZPD group contributed to learners' L2 writing self-efficacy whereas the control group learners had a lower level of self-efficacy after the feedback applications. Writing self-efficacy has been associated with learners' success in language learning, and, for this study, students in the experimental group increased their self-efficacy levels as well as their achievement scores after the

feedback practices. That the increase in the experimental group was higher has some far-reaching conclusions for practitioners. Self-regulated learning experience of learners is emphasized as a desirable objective both in self-efficacy and feedback studies. However, it seems that offering feedback within learners' ZPD rather than offering random feedback offers much to meet the objective in question. Mediation helps learners much to adapt, adjust or accommodate their expectations through negotiation. Negotiations in question might pave the way for learners' greater ability to feel the pulse of the teachers, which, in turn, is likely to develop and sustain a can-do attitude which is necessary to cope with linguistic uncertainties and identity transformation.

Based on the learners' accounts, the perception of feedback seems to be heavily influenced by the feedback provider. Whether the feedback giver appreciates the feedback taker is a constant curiosity, and from the learners' viewpoints, it could be argued that the proximity of the learner and feedback provider in face-to-face sessions makes the learners more advantageous in terms of valuing teacher feedback. That is, the feedback giver in face-to-face sessions is not a detached observer or controller but an active agent who cooperates to seek betterment.

A comparison of the perceptions of learners in the ZPD and non-ZPD group with reference to their perceptions about L2 writing reveals that ZPD learners are more receptive to L2 writing especially after the feedback practices. Even though there were differences in mean values both in the pre- and posttest findings, statistically significant differences were observed after the feedback practices. Accordingly, learners in the ZPD group employ greater strategies to recognize errors, demonstrate higher confidence to share their writing with their peers and benefit greatly from their L1 writing experiences. Referring to the lower mean values, it could be suggested that there is need to create an organic link between L2 writing tasks and the use of tasks for daily practices and help the students internalize their L2 writer roles.

When the challenges L2 learners experienced were taken into account, non-ZPD learners were characterized by their perceived need for L2 writing improvement, higher eagerness to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles and less motivation to improve L2 writing through outside sources. Regarding the sense of audience awareness, ZPD learners demonstrated a greater willingness to write to different readers even though the difference was not statistically significant. It seems that mediation of feedback makes learners more motivated to write to broader audience.

With reference to gender, it is imperative that females' interpretation and evaluation of anxiety-breeding situations be further analysed. Since similar findings in many studies point to the fact that females suffer from a greater level of language anxiety than males, making the language learning process more "female-friendly" should be a concern. Empowering both genders equally might sound like a myth because biologically women have protective roles, and the modern life requires them to fulfil different roles, which makes it difficult to cope with. Moreover, even though language anxiety

is considered to be situation specific, accumulating research in psychology reveals that general anxiety disorder is experienced more in females than males (e.g. Bahrami and Yousefi, 2011; Anxiety and Depression Association of America) partly because their beliefs about uncontrollability of worry are more prevalent than men, which, in turn, results in emotional vulnerability. It seems quite expected for the higher degree of worry to creep into the language classroom, and even though language anxiety is something peculiar to the language learning situations, people's life biographies might come into their decision making. Moreover, apart from upbringing, the roles different genders are assigned might make them different in the scales of writing anxiety. Thus, the difference could be accounted for through both "nature" and "nurture".

The content analysis of the cover letters indicated that ZPD and non-ZPD learners slightly differed in their perceived strengths and weaknesses of L2 writing. The learners in both groups demonstrated reports of increased confidence, lowered anxiety, and new writing identity. L2 writing, from the perspectives of the respondents, is improved through feedback, dictionary use, internet use, reading, homework, watching and keeping diaries. Most learners who benefitted from those sources were learners in the ZPD group. For a considerable number of learners, familiar topic and feedback facilitated the learners' involvement in L2 writing, while unfamiliar or uninteresting topics, mistakes and limited time were among the factors that debilitated learner performance.

An analysis of the process logs suggests that if the topics given are of experiential nature, the learners are more likely to invest their time and energy on writing tasks. Even though learner reports of the external sources seem to be more diversified with reference to the sources of information in general, the reports of benefitted sources particularly in the writing process seem to be limited to the teacher, the Internet, friends, books and the impressions from the surroundings. Moreover, the learners had varying reasons and L2 roles, and benefitted from rule-mediated and artefact-mediated strategies. Non-ZPD learners' form-focused orientation of teacher feedback and ZPD learners' content-based treatment of teacher feedback were evidenced, and the final state of writing was found to be considerably satisfactory for the ZPD group, while the non-ZPD learners' accounts included satisfaction, hesitation, and dissatisfaction.

Semi-structured interviews demonstrated that teacher feedback served as a significant tool for writing development particularly for the recognition, identification and correction of mistakes, increased tendency to refer to sources, increased ability to think faster and increased affective arousal. That is, feedback for learners is a linguistic, cognitive and affective aid for students. Teacher feedback, compared to peer feedback, is a more credible form for both groups, and the medium and amount of feedback is a concern to be negotiated with students. The learners' search for a flexibility in the medium of feedback, receptivity to communicate through feedback, and eagerness to receive unfocused feedback preferences can all be considered as a visible or an invisible call for mediated feedback practices. That the learners are offered an opportunity to navigate along a continuum of

explicitness in the mediated feedback practices addressed a great need to communicate when receiving feedback. The ZPD and non-ZPD learners' perceived self-efficacy increased over time, and L2 writing anxiety was subject to a gradual decrease.

The cover letters which were obtained together with the students' portfolio demonstrated that for the ZPD learners' grammar was more of a strength, while the non-ZPD learners emphasized grammar as a weakness. The learners' voices regarding the needs and expectations cluster around lexical, grammatical, syntactical, and practices needs. Moreover, compared to the early writing practices, the learners who benefitted from mediated and unmediated feedback reported considerable progress, thanks mostly to the practice, decreased number of mistakes, and increased awareness. A comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD learners reveals that the ZPD learners exhibited their developments through greater details, and there were more voices regarding the critical instances in the non-ZPD group.

Apart from the instruments above, the stimulated recall protocols provided some insights into what/how learners felt after feedback. The things that contributed to the participants' repair, as well as their reasons for the avoidance of repair/misrepair, reaction to repair requests, and perceptions of the effectiveness of different modes of repair were examined. Regarding the things that contributed to learners' repair, the findings obtained seem to be in congruent with other research instruments in the study, and teacher suggestions, dictionary, coursebook, classmates and the Internet were the highlighted sources. The ZPD learners found it relatively easy to tackle with the suggested repairs, whereas the non-ZPD learners felt more empowered to struggle with the suggested repairs. Lack of attention and failure to understand were the chief reasons for the learners' failure to repair or avoid repair. Ease of retrieval and intelligibility were the echoing sentiments for the ZPD learners. However, non-ZPD learners stressed insufficiency, noticing, and lack of ad hoc collaboration. All in all, the learners in the ZPD group reported to have a higher level of self-efficacy and greater commitment to fight against mistakes. The protocols indicated that teacher was an important mediational means for ZPD learners and, therefore, cited among the things that contributed to the participants' repair whereas non-ZPD learners mentioned teacher less often. Moreover, the ZPD learners provided a more detailed answer for the teachers' repair requests, which gives the implication that mediated feedback translated into greater uptake. Feedback for the ZPD group was found to be more comprehensible, and written feedback together with spoken interaction is cited to be the desirable feedback for learners in both groups.

A sample analysis of the micro/macrogenetic development of the ZPD student suggested that the teacher's predominantly explicit form of repairs evolved into a more implicit nature. Considering the Nassaji and Swain's (2000) framework, the quantity of help in the 14th week decreased considerably. While there were three instances of explicit help in the 3rd week, it decreased to 1 in the 14th week. the explicit instances of help were all in level 10 in the 3rd week, but the explicit help

in the 14th week was at level 7. The help is considered “graduated”, and it is a manifestation that the language acquisition is taking place.

When the actual feedback practices in the learners’ drafts were analyzed, the learners’ suggested repairs were categorized under six revision requests, namely sentence, grammar, orthographical, lexical, organization and content-based suggestions. One finding gleaned from the categorizations of the learner submissions is that the number of drafts for per person in the ZPD group was relatively less, which means the non-ZPD group had to submit more than their counterparts. For the ZPD group, the request for further submission is evidenced by the greater degree of suggested repairs especially sentence, grammar, lexical, organization, and content-based revision requests. Apart from the perception level findings, learners’ actual practices also indicated that the ZPD learners received less suggestions compared to their counterparts.

As the study is narrowed to teacher feedback, most of the suggestions are tailored for teachers or teacher trainers. To begin with, fostering a conducive environment in which learners feel comfortable to make, negotiate and experiment with mistakes is essential for learners’ progress. Therefore, albeit the feedback modality, a climate of mutual trust and respect must be enhanced to promote feedback gains on the part of the learner. Such an environment offers much to contribute to a situation in which learners are less likely to suffer from language anxiety. Creating the environment through feedback is not an impossible hurdle, but such feedback practices sit at the intersection of dedicated mitigation ability. Teachers are expected to keep the balance: on the one way they aim at softening the rough edges through criticisms, on the other hand praising certain characteristics, attributes, skills, etc.

Second, it is highly essential for English language teaching programs to contribute to the assessment literacy of the teachers. Feedback has a considerable share in helping create an assessment-of-learning orientation, but a considerable number of teachers are ill-prepared to provide alternative assessment methods that promote learners’ L2 writing (Lee, 2017). In this sense, the assumption that teachers “take it for granted that providing feedback to the learner about performance will lead to self-correction and improvement” (Shepard, 2000: 11) might not be verified.

A significant consideration in the choice of a comparison of different feedback practices has been to understand the usefulness of two types of feedback: feedback delivered within the learners’ ZPD and feedback delivered irrespective of the learners’ ZPD. One of the major findings of the study is related to the need for revisiting feedback effectiveness. Since feedback provision is emphasized in process-based pedagogies, it is highly possible for feedback providers to opt for feedback practices which are aligned with these pedagogies. However, feedback effectiveness is a complex endeavour consisting of a range of factors such as the context and the type of feedback, nature of the target structure and individual differences (Nassaji and Kartchava, 2017). Therefore, consideration of a

complex interplay of factors including cognitive, affective as well as the contextual aspects could be a better predictor of the feedback effectiveness.

Since feedback provided irrespective of the learners' ZPD requires considerable cognitive endeavour for learners, much gains may not be harnessed especially unless feedback providers ensure reciprocity. Ensuring reciprocity might help increase the negotiation between feedback receiver and feedback giver. The greatest advantage of such mediation could be the fact that the feedback provider is armed with a variety of strategies and feedback types which could be tailored to a particular context. Therefore, Lyster and Ranta's (2013) call for the use of a variety of feedback types and strategies is in line with the sociocultural theory because the feedback provider has the opportunity to navigate along a continuum of explicitness to promote self-regulation.

The shift to negotiation-based feedback forms is in accord with the call for a shift from the traditional forms of education. The traditional form of education is usually described through the banking model of education (see Freire for detail). In line with that model, knowledge is transmitted by the teacher who seems to have an oppressive role. However, the pursuit of a reconciliation, as Freire (1993: 72) maintains, is a salient need: "The *raison d'être* of libertarian education, however, lies in its drive towards reconciliation. Education must begin with the solution of the teacher-student contradiction, by reconciling the two ends of contradiction." The teacher-student negotiation in feedback sessions embraces such corrections might involve contradictions which are to be reconciled. However, feedback delivered irrespective of learners' ZPD is more likely to be a unidirectional pursuit. The feedback provider is usually the teacher, and the feedback receivers are assigned a less active role compared to ZPD learners who receive negotiated feedback. The active role of both parties is desirable for all learners because students play an active role in learning situations where the teacher is no longer the "sage on the stage," imparting knowledge to a passive group of learners.

Adding a spirit of reciprocity may not sound as a big step for learners and practitioners from a low-context culture. However, for learners from low-context cultures like Turkey, it might offer much to create an individual orientation. Such an orientation should be accentuated given the contextual considerations. Traditional feedback practices push learners to become a consumer of the knowledge passed by the teachers; however, I believe through a process of mediation, the existing power relations might be shattered, and learners could become co-constructors in knowledge construction processes. Feedback practices in process-based pedagogies offer room for changing the power relations in question.

It could be argued that L2 writing requires a mediated initiative, that is, it is shaped and constructed, by numerous factors or combinations of factors. The findings from qualitative and quantitative data demonstrate that writing for learners is artifact-mediated (the Internet, dictionaries,

textbooks, L1, films, songs etc.), community-mediated (study-abroad, native speaker, prior experience-(foreign language learning,), classroom mediated, audience mediated, etc.) and rule-mediated (good writing-based criteria, plagiarism-based criteria, time-criteria etc.), which is congruent with the findings from Lee (2011), who conducted a similar study in a Korean as a foreign language context. That learners construct meaning as a result of their experiential engagement in many factors in the environment is a finding to be highlighted. Such variety of factors means a diversity of avenues for learners and writing teacher to benefit from. However, since writing and feedback practices are usually encountered in, though not limited to, schooling contexts, it is believed that benefitting from extramural activities could be instrumental in liberating students' agencies (Kalan, 2014).

The characterization of the second language writer is not fixed. It is constructed and reconstructed by the mediational means that help writers create and shape their writing. That is, the writers' actions are somehow mediated by the cultural environment they live in. The learners construct their meaning upon their relationship with their friends, dictionaries, textbooks and consider the rules and requirements of the places they are going to publish. As writing is a complex activity requiring knowledge of the vocabulary, text structure, syntax, and topic as well as sensitivity to contextual demands and audience needs, mediation between the feedback giver and feedback taker deserves considerable attention. Considering it as a solitary activity may not help much to help qualify as a social activity. Thus, it is expected that learners might become more receptive to the feedback they receive if feedback confers, in line with Feuerstein et al.'s (1988) proposition of "reciprocity", "transcendence" and "meaning". The face-to-face nature of the mediated feedback, just like the conferencing sessions in process-based writing pedagogy, facilitates the reciprocity. However, it should be noted that not all conference sessions could prove to be dialogic in nature. Therefore, the help provided throughout the feedback of conference sessions might be random help. Random help does not specifically qualify as feedback within learners' ZPD. Moreover, meaning creation takes place through interaction, not in isolation. Such kind of interaction has the potential to tailor feedback to learners' needs.

Fragmentation in writing sources benefitted from brings a greater need to communicate feedback. Variety of sources brings an increasing uncertainty, and placing teacher approval might help mitigate the unknowns and make the venture into the unfamiliar with a proper degree of certainty, which, in turn, results in the alleviation of anxiety level. It was found in the study that students in both groups demonstrated a lower level of L2 writing anxiety at the end of the study. Learners' involvement in a new realm might prove to be anxiety-inducing especially in the initial encounters. However, as they proceed into further stages and become part of the new process, it might be easier for them to acclimatize to the writing conventions by exchanging expectations. Irrespective of the feedback modality, the learners in both groups demonstrated a lowered level of L2 writing anxiety. Since the focus followed in both feedback practices was both on form and

content, the learners' attention was not narrowed down to mistakes. Such a focus on both forms, as Leki (1999) suggested, helped much to alleviate learners' anxiety. However, the same findings may not be obtained in feedback contexts that focus either on form or content.

It is essential that learners' preferences and learning pace should be taken into account for better synchronization of teachers' pedagogical objectives with students' needs in the ESL and EFL contexts. To this end, learners should be encouraged to become aware of their blind spots. However, feedback offered irrespective of the learners' expectations might not prove to be as successful as desired. When considering the learner expectations, fostering a conducive environment in which learners feel comfortable to make, negotiate and experiment with mistakes is essential for learners' progress. Therefore, albeit the feedback modality, a climate of mutual trust and respect must be enhanced to promote feedback gains on the part of the learner. Moreover, supporting learners to sustain their communicative intent (Chandler, 2003) should be the motto of each and every feedback type.

The burgeoning body of literature on the sociocultural aspects points to a surge of interest in the social turn. As Lee (2009) called for, a feedback revolution is a necessary act. The collaborative nature of learning, or in Vygotsky's terminology, co-construction of meaning, has a desirable role in learning. With the support of a more capable or knowledgeable party, the learners can produce better than they normally do. Therefore, teaching investments in this manner could be made in relation to the learners' ZPD. To this end, feedback within the learners' ZPD might fill the void of lack of interaction and negotiation in the EFL classrooms. More and more prevalent practices are expected to bring a broader dimension to the feedback delivery.

With reference to the potential members and stakeholders of the research results, at a time of increased accountability for student success and learning, teacher education programs as well as academic writing centres could benefit from mediated feedback practices. Mediated feedback practices will help hone teachers' abilities to teach writing as well as increase the benefits learners are likely to reap. Shifting in a continuum on a regulatory scale rather than considering learners as fixed agents is a flexibility all feedback providers might enjoy. Such flexibility might excite researchers who want to stay abreast of current research findings within their realm. The teachers' or researchers room for flexibility in mediated-feedback practices is a great instrument for them. Such an advantage might create a pipeline from "one-size-fits-all" types of practices to "horses for courses" legacy. Moreover, that the feedback is provided orally might help reawaken the interest to the oral character of language. The oral character in question takes us to the Ong's (2002) premise that language is nested in sound.

It should be kept in mind that the ideal level that teacher feedback can reach is not definitive. Neither a great intensity of error correction in a particular type, nor a certain degree of specification

or teacher comments can be prescribed as an ideal degree. Referring to Leki's (1990: 57) words, it is a matter of sensing the context: "How best to respond to student writing is part of the broader question of how to create a context in which people learn to write better or more easily." Hence, it is expected that the teacher-learner cooperation could provide access to creating the context in question.

Even though process-based pedagogy is accepted as a useful pedagogy, several drawbacks of the process approach should make the practitioners to be cautious when benefitting from the approach especially in feedback provision. The critical tendency to benefit from the process approach was voiced by Horowitz (1986: 446) as follows:

Its emphasis on multiple drafts may leave students unprepared for essay examinations; overuse of peer evaluation may leave students with an unrealistic view of their abilities; trying to make over bad writers in the image of good ones may be of questionable efficacy; and the inductive orientation of the process approach is suited only to some writers and some academic tasks.

In Turkey, the process approach as a credible writing pedagogy seems to be taken for granted. Practitioners tend to benefit from the pedagogy without giving serious consideration of how it works in their teaching situations. Such a pursuit in fact reduces the process approach to a "single" and "codified" procedure, which is in conflict with the post-process approaches. The post-process theory posits that there is not a certain process that can be codified. Therefore, there exists a set of processes learners go through when they are writing. Moreover, even if achieving such a formula may not guarantee learning outcomes at a desired level because disregarding the sensitivities of the context, may not yield productive for learners. As Leki (2001) maintains, the writing and feedback practices prevalent in western societies may not be applicable in non-western ones.

In addition, consideration of writing development as a solidarity activity is also a challenge for the feedback practices in the process-oriented classrooms. "The process approach ... has failed to take into account the many forces outside of an individual writer's control which define, shape, and ultimately judge a piece of writing," says Horowitz (1986: 446). Making use of the sources in question might create a bridge between the social and individual planes.

The present study has some limitations. The findings and suggestions gleaned from this study are suggestive rather than definitive. Given the complexity of contexts and multilayered dimensions, it might be relatively difficult for researchers to appeal to a multitude of variables. Therefore, coming up with compelling generalizations might be relatively difficult. For those who seek to come up with an "either or concept" of the supremacy of feedback, more encompassing forms or types of feedback could yield more fruitful. As Bitchener et al. (2005: 202) remarked, "Consequently, we would suggest that classroom L2 writing teachers provide their learners with both oral feedback as well as written feedback on the more 'treatable' types of linguistic error on a regular basis."

This study focused on the impact of unfocused teacher feedback practices in which process- and post-process-based paradigms were followed. Future research can be extended to focused (e.g. articles only) or oral feedback only. Moreover, in order to control variables, peer feedback was not included. It is widely acknowledged that peers might have a bearing in shaping writers' composition. Therefore, further studies can be conducted to investigate the role of peer feedback as well. The study focused on both form and content as process-based studies require the agents of feedback provision to have a command of both aspects. However, studies designed to investigate form-only or content-only aspects can add much depth to future discussions.

The study is limited to English major learners studying in the Department of English Language and Literature at a state university. Therefore, it would be naive to suggest the same outcomes with non-English majors. Since the English major learners are more inclined to be identified with learners of the target academic discourse community, the feedback practices may not be equally effective with non-English major students. Moreover, the focus of feedback for the learners were limited to take-home assignments and timed writing performance. Thus, in-class assignments were not in the scope of the study. It is believed that learners might demonstrate a different performance in situations where the mediational means are narrowed down to, at best, friends, dictionaries, textbooks, and the Internet.

Another limitation to highlight is that the length of the study is limited to a feedback sessions which took fourteen weeks. Future studies could be designed to investigate the impact of the feedback practices in a long term. Long-term research designs might particularly be effective in terms of analysing the feedback effectiveness through capturing the learners' uptake. Moreover, even though some snapshots of performance indicating the microgenetic and macrogenetic development of a learner was provided, future studies with fewer samples could be designed in ways that will enable researchers track the learners' progress in a systematic way. Studies focusing on the microgenetic and macrogenetic development could enable researchers see the uptake of the assistance through the feedback sessions. Even though the researcher wanted to control several variables, it does not seem to be possible to have a control over all variables particularly in the field of education (Fraenkel et al., 2012). It might be possible for other teachers in the programme to contribute to the learners' writing development through the writing tasks and feedbacks.

Moreover, another concern might be regarding the time spent in feedback sessions. Since feedback attuned to the learners' zone of proximal development took a longer span of time in some situations, especially at the very beginning, one possibility is that the differences in the results could be accounted for by time differences in both groups. Considering the different level of help learners require in writing process, assigning a fixed amount of time may not be fair. Therefore, it is likely that the practitioners devote varied amount of time especially in mediated feedback practices.

A number of suggestions can be made for future studies. This study focused on the impact of unfocused teacher feedback practices in which process- and post-process-based paradigms were followed. Future research can be extended to focused (e.g. articles only) or oral feedback only. Moreover, in order to control variables, peer feedback was not included. It is widely acknowledged that peers might have a bearing in shaping writers' composition. Therefore, further studies can be conducted to investigate the role of peer feedback as well. The study focused on both form and content as process-based studies require the agents of feedback provision to have a command of both aspects. However, studies designed to investigate form-only or content-only aspects can add much depth to future discussions. In many situations, teacher feedback is presented in a "decontextualized and broadbrush" (Lee, 2008a: 145) manner. It is highly recommended for the future studies to elaborate on the contextual information such as departmental needs, parental expectations or school environment.

As the focus of the study is teacher feedback, other sources that might prove to be effective for the learners were not given attention. Future studies could incorporate each and every mediational means either separately or in relation to each other. It might be teacher, student, computer or something else, but it seems that there seems to be much work to be done to reconcile the existing teacher-centered and exam driven culture with learner-centered learning culture.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Consent Form

SAMPLE CONSENT FORM – INTERVIEW WITH AUDIOTAPING

Consent to Participate in Research on a Comparative Study on the Impact of Teacher Feedback on ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners: The Case of EFL Students

My name is Hasan Sağlamel. I am a graduate student at Karadeniz Technical University, working with my faculty advisor, Associate Professor Dr. M. Naci Kayaoğlu in the Department of English Language and Literature. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study, which concerns EFL learners' feedback perception and preferences.

If you agree to participate in my research, I will conduct an interview with you at a time and location of your choice. The interview will involve questions about your participation in feedback interactions. It should last about 25 minutes. With your permission, I will audiotape and take notes during the interview. The recording is to accurately record the information you provide, and will be used for transcription purposes only. If you choose not to be audiotaped, I will take notes instead. If you agree to being audiotaped but feel uncomfortable at any time during the interview, I can turn off the recorder at your request. Or if you don't wish to continue, you can stop the interview at any time.

I expect to conduct only one interview with this group; however, follow-ups may be needed for added clarification. If so, I will contact you by mail/phone to request this. There is no direct benefit to you from taking part in this study. It is hoped that the research will contribute to the growing body of literature and learners' perceived ways to help promote feedback effectiveness.

Even though none of the research questions are thought to make you uncomfortable, you are free to decline to answer any questions you do not wish to, or to stop the interview at any time. As with all research, there is a chance that confidentiality could be compromised; however, we are taking precautions to minimize this risk. Your study data will be handled as confidentially as possible. If results of this study are published or presented, individual names and other personally identifiable information will not be used unless you give explicit permission for this below.

To minimize the risks to confidentiality, we will provide some nicknames for each participant. When the research is completed, I may save the tapes and notes for use in future research done by myself or others. I will retain these records for up to 3 years after the study is over. The same measures described above will be taken to protect confidentiality of this study data. Participation in research is voluntary, so you are free to decline to take part in the project. You can decline to answer any questions and are free to stop taking part in the project at any time. Whether or not you choose to participate in the research and whether or not you choose to answer a question or continue participating in the project, there will be no penalty to you or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Questions

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me. I can be reached at hasansaglamel@yahoo.com

CONSENT

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep for your own records.

If you wish to participate in this study, please sign and date below.

Participant's Name

Participant's Signature Date



Appendix 2: Request Letter to Conduct Research (Turkish)

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ BATI DİLLERİ VE EDEBİYATI BÖLÜM BAŞKANLIĞINA

İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü Hazırlık Programında doktora öğrencisiyim ve aşağıda araştırma bilgileri sunulan çalışmama veri toplamak için gerekli iznin tarafıma verilmesini arz ederim.

Saygılarımla,

I. Araştırmacı Bilgileri	
Adı-Soyadı	Hasan Sağlamel
Öğrenci Numarası	257620
Tez Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. Mustafa Naci Kayaoğlu
Anabilim Dalı	Batı Dilleri ve Edebiyatı
Program	İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı
Lisansüstü Eğitim Türü	Doktora

II. Araştırma Bilgileri	
Tezin Başlığı	A Comparative Study on the Impact of Teacher Feedback on ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners: The Case of EFL Learners
Araştırma verilerinin toplanacağı öğretim yılları	2016-2017
Araştırma verilerinin toplanacağı akademik dönem/dönemler	Güz
Araştırma yapılacak kurumun adı	KTÜ İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü, Hazırlık Programı
Araştırma/veri toplama araçlarının türü	Anket, yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat, Yazma dersi sınav evrakı
Araştırma/veri toplama araçlarının uygulanacağı kişiler	Hazırlık programına kayıtlı öğrenciler

01.09.2016

Appendix 3: Request Letter to Conduct Research (English)

KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF WESTERN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

I am a PhD student at the Department of English Language and Literature, and I am hereby seeking your consent to gather data for my research whose details are provided below.

Yours respectfully,

I. Researcher Info	
Name-Surname	Hasan Sağlamel
Number	257620
Thesis Supervisor	Assoc. Dr. Mustafa Naci Kayaoğlu
Department	Western Languages and Literature
Programme	İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı
Type of Graduate Programme	PhD

II. Research Info	
Thesis title	A Comparative Study on the Impact of Teacher Feedback on ZPD and Non-ZPD Learners: The Case of EFL Learners
Requested academic year of data collection	2016-2017
Data collection period	Fall Semester
Research setting	KTÜ Department of English Language and Literature, Preparatory Programme
Data collection instruments	Questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, writing examination documents
Participants	Students enrolled in the preparatory programme

01.09.2016

Appendix 4: Writing Course Syllabus

KTU
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE
2016-2017 FALL SEMESTER
SYLLABUS FOR
PREP CLASS WRITING SKILLS COURSE

Instructor : HASAN SAĞLAM	Class Meets on:
Office : C-310	PREP X: -----
Office Hours : -----	

W	DATE	TOPIC	SOURCE
1	SEP-26-30	Introduction	
2	OCT 3-7	The writing process	Introduction to Academic Writing
3	OCT 10-14	Process paragraphs	Introduction to Academic Writing
4	OCT 17-21	Process paragraphs	Introduction to Academic Writing
5	OCT 24-28	Narration paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
6	OCT-NOV31-04	Narration paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
7	NOV 21-27	Cause & effect paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
8	NOV 28-03	Cause & effect paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
9	NOV 04-10	I. MIDTERM	
10	NOV 11-17	Opinion paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
11	DEC 18-24	Opinion paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
12	DEC 25-01	Post-test	Introduction to Academic Writing
13	DEC 02-08	Comparison and contrast paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
14	DEC 9-15	Comparison and contrast paragraph	Introduction to Academic Writing
15	DEC 16-22	Delayed posttest	Introduction to Academic Writing
16	DEC 23-04	Final Exam	

Appendix 5: Pre- and Post-Questionnaire (Turkish)

Değerli arkadaşlar, bu anket sizlerin İngilizce **yazma becerilerine** yönelik tutum, motivasyon, kaygı ve öz yeterliklerini saptamaya yöneliktir. Ankete vereceğiniz cevaplar, araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Sonuçların güvenilirliği cevapların içtenliğine bağlıdır ve ankete vereceğiniz cevaplar gizli tutulacaktır. Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler.

Hasan SAĞLAM
KTÜ, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü

A. Demografik Bilgiler ve İngilizce Kullanımı

1. No: _____

2. Cinsiyetiniz:

Erkek

Kız

3. Yaşınız: _____

4. Mezun olduğunuz ilkokul:

devlet ilkokulu

özel ilkokul

5. Mezun olduğunuz ortaokul:

devlet ortaokulu

özel ortaokul

6. Mezun olduğunuz lise:

devlet lisesi

özel lise

7. (Varsa) Mezun olduğunuz üniversite:

devlet üniversitesi

özel üniversite

7.1. Mezun olduğunuz fakülte/yüksekokul: _____

7.2. Bölüm: _____

8. Daha önce yurt dışında bulundunuz mu?

Evet

Hayır

Cevabınız Evet ise: Ülke: _____ Süre: _____ Sebep: _____

9. Genel İngilizce seviyeniz (kişisel değerlendirme):

1 (Başlangıç)

2

3

4

5 (Çok iyi)

10. Lütfen İngilizce dil becerilerinizi 1 (çok zayıf) ile 5 (çok iyi) arasında değerlendiriniz.

Cevabınızı daire içine (örn. ①) alınız.

	1 Çok zayıf	2 Zayıf	3 Orta	4 İyi	5 Çok iyi
Konuşma	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Okuma	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Yazma	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Dinleme	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Dilbilgisi (gramer)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Kelime	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

11. Sınıf dışında ne kadar İngilizce kullanıyorsunuz?

Dinleme	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç	<input type="checkbox"/> Nadiren	<input type="checkbox"/> Bazen	<input type="checkbox"/> Genellikle	<input type="checkbox"/> Çok sık
Konuşma	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç	<input type="checkbox"/> Nadiren	<input type="checkbox"/> Bazen	<input type="checkbox"/> Genellikle	<input type="checkbox"/> Çok sık
Okuma	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç	<input type="checkbox"/> Nadiren	<input type="checkbox"/> Bazen	<input type="checkbox"/> Genellikle	<input type="checkbox"/> Çok sık
Yazma	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç	<input type="checkbox"/> Nadiren	<input type="checkbox"/> Bazen	<input type="checkbox"/> Genellikle	<input type="checkbox"/> Çok sık

12. Sınıf dışında ne kadar sıklıkla İngilizce yazarsınız?

Hiç

Nadiren

Bazen

Genellikle

Çok sık

– Hangi ortamlarda (sosyal medya, sınıf, gazete, dergi vb.) İngilizce yazdığınızı lütfen belirtiniz.

13. İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı bölümünde okuma sebebi/sebepleriniz:

--

<i>B. Dönüt Uygulama ve Tercihleri</i>	Tamamen Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
B1. Dönüt Uygulamaları (Cevabınızı daire içine (örn. ①) alınız.) Eğer daha önce İngilizce yazılar için dönüt almamışsanız 2-8 soruları boş bırakınız					
1.Öğretmenin yazılarımdaki hataları düzeltilmesi İngilizcemimi geliştirmemde yararlı olur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.Daha önce aldığım dönütler (feedback) benim için tatminkârdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Aldığım dönütleri sonraki yazılarımda dikkate alırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Her zaman öğretmenimin dönütlerini dikkate alırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Öğretmenim dönüt vermeden önce hataları göstermeye yarayan tüm düzeltme kod ve sembolleri (örneğin SV: Özne Yükleme uyumu) açıklar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Şimdiye kadar karşılaştığım öğretmenler bana farklı yöntemlerle (sözlü, yazılı, bireysel, toplu vb.) dönüt verdiler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Öğretmenimin yazılarıma verdiği dönütler genellikle anlaşılırdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Öğretmenimin dönüt yöntemini faydalı bulduğum için yazılarımda değerlendirilmesinden hiçbir endişem yok.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
B2. Dönüt Tercihleri					
9. Yazılarıma sınıf arkadaşlarımdan dönüt vermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Yazılarıma öğretmenimin dönüt vermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Öğretmenimin yazılı dönüt vermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Öğretmenimin sözlü dönüt vermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Öğretmenimin hem yazılı hem sözlü dönüt vermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. Öğretmenimin yazılarımdaki bütün hataları düzeltmesini isterim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. Öğretmenimin hatalarımı göstererek benden düzeltmemi istemesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16.Öğretmenin paragraflarımdaki yalnızca ciddi hataları düzeltmesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Öğretmen hatalarıma yorum yapmaktansa sadece onları göstermesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. Öğretmen hatalarımı tek tek düzeltmek yerine genel yorumlar yapmasını tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. Dönütlerin sayfanın sonundan ziyade yazılarımda içinde verilmesini tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Öğretmenin hatalarıma dikkat çekerken kod ve semboller (örn. Özne yüklem uyumsuzluğu için (SV) kullanmasının yararlı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Öğretmenin yazılarımdaki zayıf yönlerimin yanı sıra güçlü yönlerime de odaklanmasını isterim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Aldığım not öğretmenimin dönütlerinden daha önemlidir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>C. İngilizcede yazma kaygısı</i>	Tamamen Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. İngilizce yazarken endişelenirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. İngilizce yazarken zaman sınırlaması olduğunda endişelenirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. İngilizce yazarken değerlendirileceğimi bilirsem endişelenirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Fikirlerimi önce ana dilde yazar sonra İngilizceye çeviririm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Mecbur kalmadıkça İngilizce yazmam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Sınavda İngilizce yazmaya başladığım zaman aklıma hiçbir şey gelmez.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. İngilizce yazılarımın diğer arkadaşlarıma kıyasla daha kötü olmasından endişe ediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Yazılarım değerlendirildiğinde düşük bir not almaktan kaygılanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Sosyal medya gibi ortamlarda İngilizce yazmaktan kaçınırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. İngilizce yazarken zaman sınırlaması olursa düşüncelerimi toparlayamam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Yazarken İngilizceyi tercih ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Başkalarının İngilizce yazılarımı okurken alay edeceğinden korkarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Hazırlıksız İngilizce paragraf yazmam istenirse takılıp kalırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. İngilizce yazmaktan kaçınırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. Başkalarının yazılarım hakkında ne düşüneceğini umursamam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. Sınıfta tartışılmak üzere örnek olarak benim yazımın seçilmesi beni tedirgin eder.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Ders dışında İngilizce yazmak için fırsatları değerlendiririm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. İngilizce yazarken genellikle gerilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. Yazılarımın zayıf olarak değerlendirilebilecek olması beni korkutur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Yazma ödevlerini yapmaya başladığımda aklıma hiçbir şey gelmez.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Yazılarımı akranlarıma gösterirken çekinmem.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. İngilizce yazarken endişeden titremeye başlarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>D. İngilizce yazmaya dair düşünce ve uygulamalar</i>	Tamamen Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Bilgi sahibi olduğum konularda İngilizce yazmam kolaydır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Sınıf dışında İngilizce yazmam yazma becerilerime katkı sağlar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. İngilizce yazma becerimi geliştirmeliyim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Daha çok anadili İngilizce olan kişilerin yazılarını okumalıyım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. İngiliz kültürüne yönelik konularda yazmakta zorlanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Yazılarımı gözden geçirirken hatalarımın farkına varabilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. İngilizcede kendimi kolayca yazılı ifade etmeyi öğrenmeliyim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Farklı okur kitlesine (öğretmen, öğrenci vb.) yönelik yazılar yazmayı severim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Yazılarımı arkadaşlarımın okuması hoşuma gider.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Yazılarımı okuyacak kişilerden gelecek eleştirilere açığım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Ders dışında düzenli aralıklarla İngilizce yazıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Yalnızca okul ve dersler için İngilizce yazıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Yalnızca İngilizce öğretmenim için yazıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. İngilizce yazma becerimi geliştirmek için düzenli pratik yapıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. Kariyerim için İngilizce iyi yazmak zorundayım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. Olumlu dönütler beni yazmaya teşvik eder.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. İngilizcede kendimi en iyi yazarak ifade edebilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. İngilizce yazma becerilerimin beni iş hayatımda daha başarılı kılacağını düşünüyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. Olumsuz deneyimlerim İngilizce yazmamı ilerletmeme engel olamaz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Anadilde iyi yazmak olmak İngilizce yazmayı olumlu etkiler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Farklı kişiler için (öğretmen, sınıf arkadaşları, diğer sınıf öğrencileri, sosyal medyadaki arkadaşlarım vb.) yazmak beni yazmaya teşvik eder.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Yazma becerisi okuldan çok dış kaynaklardan (film, mektup arkadaşı, sözlük vb.) daha iyi öğrenilir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. Kendi kültürümle ilgili yazmada zorlanmam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>E. İngilizce kompozisyon (paragraf, deneme vb.) yazmada öz yeterlik</i>	Kendime hiç güvenemem			Kendime biraz güvenirim				Kendime çok güvenirim			
1. Kolaylıkla paragraf yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
2. Yazılarımda kelimeleri yazım hatasız (spelling) kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
3. İyi bir giriş cümlesi (topic sentence) yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
4. Noktalama işaretlerini doğru bir biçimde kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
5. Dilbilgisi hatası yapmadan cümleler kurabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
6. Kelimelerin tekil/çoğul durumlarını doğru bir biçimde kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
7. Bağlaçları (moreover, however, but vb.) doğru bir biçimde kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
8. Edatları (in, on, at, vb.) doğru bir biçimde kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
9. Kelime seçiminde iyiyimdir.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
10. Yazarken fikirlerimi destekleyebilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
11. Yazarken fikirlerimi belli bir düzen içinde sunabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
12. Paragraflarda iyi bir sonuç cümlesi yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
13. Paragraf yazarken fikirlerimi konusuna çıkmadan ifade edebilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
14. Kelimeleri tekrar etmek yerine eş anlamlılarını kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
15. Destekleyici cümleleri (supporting sentence) kolaylıkla yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
16. Paragraf içinde fikirlerimi anlambütünlüğü içinde yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
17. İngilizce paragraf yazarken fikirlerimi kolaylıkla tartışabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
18. Fikirlerimi destekleyecek örnek, olgu ve detay sunabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
19. Yazılarımda düşüncelerimi açık bir şekilde ifade edebilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
20. Yazılarımdaki hataları kolaylıkla bulurum.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
21. Her türde (narration, descriptive, cause-effect vb.) kolaylıkla yazabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
22. Yazma ödevlerini zamanında teslim edebilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
23. Yazma ödevlerimi yaparken kaynakları (sözlük, İnternet vb.) etkin bir şekilde kullanabilirim.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

F. Yazma Becerilerini Etkileyen Etmenler

Lütfen doldurunuz:

1. İngilizce yazmaya başladığım zaman kendimi _____

_____ hissederim
çünkü _____.

2. İngilizce yazma becerilerinizi geliştirmek için en çok ne yapıyorsunuz? (örn. öğretmen/arkadaş dönütü, sözlük kullanımı, günce tutumu vb.). Varsa diğerleri nelerdir?

--

3. Bu dersin öğretmeni olsaydınız, neleri değiştirdiniz/geliştirdiniz?

--

4. İngilizce yazmada çevrenizden bir destek alıyor musunuz? Kimden? Nasıl?

--

5. Yazı performansınızı olumlu/olumsuz etkileyen faktörler nelerdir?

Olumlu	Olumsuz	

6. Ekleme istediğiniz bir şey/ler:

--

Appendix 6: Pre- and Post-Questionnaire (English)

Dear friends, this study aims at exploring the perceptions, motivation, anxiety and self-efficacy beliefs in English writing skills. Your answers to the questionnaire will be much appreciated for research purposes. The reliability of the findings depends solely on your sincerity of answers, and your answers will be kept confidential. Thank you in advance.

Hasan SAĞLAM

KTU, Department of English Language and Literature

A. Demographic information and English use

1. Number: _____
2. Gender: Male Female
3. Age: _____
4. Primary school graduated : state private
5. Secondary school graduated: state private
6. High school graduated: state private
7. (If any) University graduated: state private
- 7.1. Faculty/Vocational School Graduated: _____
- 7.2. Department: _____
8. Have you ever been abroad? Yes No
- If your answer is yes, which country? _____ How long?: _____ Purpose: _____

9. General English Proficiency (your own evaluation):

- 1(Beginner) 2 3 4 5(Advanced)

10. Please rate your proficiency in English skills 1 (very poor) to 5 (very good). Circle (e.g., ①) your answers.

	1 Very poor	2 Poor	3 Average	4 Good	5 Very good
Speaking	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Reading	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Writing	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Listening	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Grammar	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Vocabulary	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

11. How often do you use English outside the classroom?

Listening	<input type="checkbox"/> Never	<input type="checkbox"/> Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/> Usually	<input type="checkbox"/> Quite often
Speaking	<input type="checkbox"/> Never	<input type="checkbox"/> Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/> Usually	<input type="checkbox"/> Quite often
Reading	<input type="checkbox"/> Never	<input type="checkbox"/> Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/> Usually	<input type="checkbox"/> Quite often
Writing	<input type="checkbox"/> Never	<input type="checkbox"/> Rarely	<input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/> Usually	<input type="checkbox"/> Quite often

12. How often do you *write* in English?

- Never Rarely Sometimes Usually Quite often – In which contexts do you write in English? (social media, classroom, newspapers, journals etc.) Please state.

13. Why did you choose to study in this program?

<i>B. Previous Feedback Applications and Preferences</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
B1. Feedback Practices (Please circle your answer (e.g. ①)) If you did not receive feedback before, please do not answer the items between 2-8 below.					
1. Teacher's feedback helps me improve my writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. In general, I am satisfied with my early feedback.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I take my teacher's feedback into consideration in my next writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I always understand my teachers feedback on my writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I find my teachers' feedback system very helpful; that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
B2. Feedback Preferences					
9. I prefer my classmates to give me feedback on my writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I prefer my teacher to give me oral rather than written feedback on my paragraphs.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. For my compositions, I prefer written feedback.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. For my compositions, I prefer oral feedback.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I like it when the teacher corrects all the errors I make in my writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I prefer my teacher not only correct my errors but also indicate them and ask me to correct them myself.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I like it when the teacher corrects only the most serious errors I make in my writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. I prefer my teacher to indicate my errors rather than commenting on them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. It would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of my errors and just made some general comments.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I think it is better to write the feedback in the margins than at the end.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I like it when the teacher uses codes or symbols to help me with the nature of my errors.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. I don't like it when my teacher comments only on what I did wrong and does not mention what I did well.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>C. Second Language Writing Anxiety</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. While writing in English, I get nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in Turkish and translate them into English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English (e.g., social media).	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I would use English to write compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I am afraid that the other students would deride my English composition if they read it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I don't worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I am afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when write English compositions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I am afraid that my English compositions would be rated as very poor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. I don't feel nervous when I happen to show my writings to my peers.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. I start trembling when I am writing in English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>D. Perceptions and Practices of English L2 Writing</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I think knowing the knowledge of the topic I am writing about in L2 makes L2 writing easier.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I believe I need to use L2 writing with people outside the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I think I need to improve my L2 writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I believe I need to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I think I experience difficulties writing issues about L2 culture.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I have the strategy to recognize my errors during my revision	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily in L2 writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I think I can write to different readers easily.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I have confidence to show my writing to my peers.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I am confident to receive any criticism for my writing from my readers.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I write in L2 because I need it in my daily life.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. When I write, my purpose is to give my audience good impression about myself.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I only write to my L2 writing teacher.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I practice writing regularly, because I want to be a good L2 writer.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I have to be a good L2 writer for my future career	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. My L1 and L2 readers' positive feedback encourages me to write.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Writing is my best method to express my feeling on paper.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I write because I believe that, L2 writing accuracy will help me to be a professional person at work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. My negative previous learning experience will not stop me from improving my L2 writing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Writing for different readers (teacher, classmates, friends on social media etc.) encourages me to write.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Writing skill can best be improved through outside sources (film, pen pals, dictionary etc.) rather than school.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. I do not have difficulty in writing something about my own culture.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

<i>E. English paragraph writing self-efficacy</i>	Cannot do at all	\longleftrightarrow										Highly
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
1. I can easily write a paragraph.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
2. I can easily spell the words.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
3. I can write an appropriate topic sentence.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
4. I can use the mechanics appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
5. I can make sentences without grammar mistakes.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
6. I can use singular/plural forms appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
7. I can use transition words appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
8. I can use prepositions appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
9. I can use the appropriate words.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
10. I can support my sentences appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
11. I can organize my thoughts appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
12. I can write a concluding sentence appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
13. I can write a paragraph without irrelevant sentences.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
14. I can use synonyms appropriately.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
15. I can write appropriate supporting sentences.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
16. I can present my ideas in unity.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
17. I can easily discuss my ideas when writing.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
18. I can provide examples, facts and details to support my ideas.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
19. I can present my ideas clearly.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
20. I can find my mistakes easily.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
21. I can write in different genres (narration, description, cause-effect etc.) easily.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
22. I can submit my assignments on time.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
23. I can benefit from different sources (dictionaries, the Internet etc.) effectively.	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	

F. Factors affecting L2 writing competence

Please fill in the parts below:

1. When I start writing in English, I feel _____
because _____.

2. What do you do most to improve you English writing skills? (e.g. teacher/student feedback, dictionary use, diary keeping etc.).

--

3. What would you change/improve if you were the course lecturer?

--

4. Do you receive any help from someone or somewhere when you are writing? From where/whom? How?

--

5. What helps you affect your writing performance in a positive/negative way?

Positive	Negative	

6. Anything you want to add:

--	--

Appendix 7: Semi-Structured Interview Questions (Turkish)

Katılımcının

Yaşı:

Cinsiyeti:

Tarih:

Arkadaşlar, yazma derslerinde öğrencilerin aldıkları dönütlerle ilgili düşüncelerine dair bir çalışma yürütüyorum. Dönüt (feedback) teslim edilen ödevlere alınan her türlü yazılı ve sözlü yorumu içerir. Bu mülakat esnasında sunacağınız bilgiler kayıt altına alınacak ve analiz edilecektir. Bu gizli kalacak, benden ve sizden başka kimse sizle ne konuştuğumuzu bilmeyecek. Bu mülakat esnasında paylaşılacak bilgiyi öğrencilerin dönütlere olan düşüncelerini ve hislerini çıkarım yapmada kullanabilirim ancak isminiz çalışmanın herhangi bir yerinde zikredilmeyecektir. Söyleyecekleriniz eğitimcilerin dönüt uygulamalarını nasıl geliştirecekleri hususunda ışık tutacaktır dolayısıyla açık ve dürüst olmanız önemli. Cevaplarınız final notunuzu etkilemeyecektir. Son ses kaydı tamamlanınca kayıtlar silinecektir. Mülakat 15 dakika sürecek ve eğer cevaplamak istediğiniz bir soru olursa cevaplamak zorunda değilsiniz ve istediğiniz an ses kaydını durdurabiliriz.”

1. Bir öğrenci olarak öğretmenden (dönüt) feedback almak sizin için önemli mi? Nasıl?
2. Öğretmenden feedback almanın İngilizcenizi geliştirdiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Eğer öyleyse, nasıl?
3. Sizce ne tür feedback sizin için faydalı olur/du (direk/kodlarla gösterilen/sadece gramer/sadece artikel vs.)? Niçin?
4. Ders Hocanız nasıl dönüt veriyor?
5. Genellikle yazınızdaki hangi alanlarda yoğunlaşıyor?
6. Hocanızın hangi dilde feedback vermesini isterdiniz?
7. Feedback alınca ne hissediyorsunuz? Bu sizi nasıl etkiliyor?
* Örneğin olumlu bir feedback alınca nasıl hissediyorsunuz? Bir örnek verir misiniz?
* Olumsuz bir dönüt alınca nasıl hissedersiniz? Bir örnek verir misiniz?
Size verilen dönüt miktarı hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
8. Aldığınız en iyi feedbacki tanımlar mısınız?
9. Aldığınız en zayıf/kötü verimsiz feedbacki tanımlar mısınız?
10. Sizin istediğiniz feedback nasıl olmalı?
11. Feedback alınca neler yapıyorsunuz?
12. Sizi öğretmen feedbackinin yararlı olmasından alıkoyacak şeyler var mı?
13. Öğretmenin feedbackini anlamak kolay mıdır? Eğer kolay değilse, onu daha anlaşılır kılacak neler yapılmalı?
14. Öğretmen feedbackine yönelik sorularınız, endişeleriniz ya da şüpheleriniz olunca ne yaparsınız?
15. Sizce öğretmenin yazıdaki hatalarınıza dönüt vermesinin en güzel yöntemi nedir?
16. Öğretmeninizin feedbackin verimliliğini artırması için ne gibi önerileriniz olur?

Yorumlarınız ve katılımınız için teşekkürler. Dönüt tecrübelerinizle ilgili eklemek istediğiniz birşey var mı?

Appendix 8: Semi-Structured Interview Questions (English)

Interviewees' gender:

Interviewees' Age:

Date:

Information provided to the Interviewee: [Script will be read] "As you know, I am doing a research project about how students feel about the feedback provided to you in writing classes. Feedback includes any kind of written/oral comments you may receive on your submissions. The information that you provide in this interview will be recorded and analysed. It will remain confidential; no one other than me and you will know what we talked about today. I may use the information that you share with me to make some conclusions about how students feel about feedback, but your name will never be used in a report or discussion about the research. What you share may help shed some light on how teachers can improve their feedback practices so it is important to be open and honest. Your responses will not affect your final grade in this math course. The audio tape recording will be deleted after the final report is complete. Until then, it will be stored in a locked filing cabinet. The interview will take about 15 minutes. You don't have to answer a question if you don't want to and we can stop at any time."

1. As a student, how important is receiving feedback on your writing from your teacher? Why?
2. Do you think the teacher's feedback is helpful for your improvement of the English language? If so, how?
3. What kind of feedback (e.g. direct, indirect, metalinguistic, focused, unfocused) is the most useful for you as a second language writer? Why?
4. How does your writing teacher provide feedback?
5. What aspect of your writing does your teacher's feedback mostly focus on?
6. What language do you prefer (Turkish/English) your teacher use when giving you feedback?
7. How do you feel when you receive feedback? How does the type of feedback affect you?
 - * When you receive positive feedback, how does it make you feel? Can you give an example?
 - * When you receive negative corrective feedback, how does it make you feel? Can you give an example?
8. How do you feel about the amount of feedback being provided?
9. Can you describe the most effective feedback you have received?
10. Can you describe the least effective feedback you have received?
11. Can you describe your desired feedback?
12. What do you do with the feedback provided?
13. Are there any challenges preventing you from using your teacher's feedback?
14. Is it easy to understand the teachers' feedback? If no, what could be done to make the teacher feedback more understandable?
15. What do you do if you have any questions, doubts and concerns about your teacher's feedback?
16. In your opinion, what is the most helpful way for your teacher to address your errors in writing?
17. What suggestions might you have for your teacher to improve the effectiveness of feedback on your writing?

Final Comments: Thank you for your comments and for participating in this study. Do you have final comments on your experiences with feedback?

Appendix 9: Sample Focus Group Interview

T: As a student, is receiving feedback on your writing from your teacher important? Why?

- I'd like to answer first. Of course, it's very important, because I remember the first paragraph I wrote. I didn't know how to start, where to use full stop. I was so inexperienced that the first feedback I received from you was full of red marks. Now, we try to improve ourselves and get better. Sometimes I can't notice that I make mistakes, and I reread it, but still can't find what's wrong. However, when you give me feedback, I completely figure out what my mistakes are. I mean it's so valuable for me to receive feedback from you.

- The same. I see my mistakes and improve myself. I learn where to be careful in my next paragraph.

- I don't think it's something that makes us uncomfortable. Knowing my mistakes will bring me to a better place.

- It really is very beneficial for me, and I think it is the same for everyone because I made very simple mistakes in my first paragraph. It's not because I don't know, sometimes it's a result of the lack of attention. As I realize this, I see myself in a better place now compared to my former paragraphs. I used to make very tiny mistakes, I think they have been reduced since then.

- The same. For example, you give me feedback and suggest that I should write something else instead of "however", I think about it and can't find anything, then I look into my grammar book and end up studying and improving my grammar and learning new words as well.

- It's helpful for me, too. I just asked you how to revise and you explained it to me. If I hadn't done it, my sentence would have been wrong. In order to make progress in writing, feedback is crucial if you ask me.

T: Do you think the teacher's feedback is helpful for your improvement of the English language? If so, how?

- Of course.

- Yes.

- It definitely is. We see our errors, correct them and learn how to do it right.

- As I said before, I was clueless while I was writing my first paragraph. Now, I know how to start and keep going, how and where to use a conjunction, if that conjunction belongs to another sentence or whether I'm supposed to use it when starting a new sentence or it's supposed to be in between two sentences... I can figure this out. While I'm writing on a computer, it both improves my writing in English and helps me think faster and be able to put my thoughts into words in the right way.

- Almost the same, it makes us think in English.

- Yes, true.

T: What kind of feedback is the most useful for you? I use the coding system. Correcting mistakes, underlining them or using codes, which one is better? Is there anything you don't understand in the coding system?

- I think the coding system is all right. As my friend said, the more those red marks there are, the more they draw our attention. If you corrected our mistakes there and then, it wouldn't attract my attention and I wouldn't realize my mistakes.

- It's like waiting for it to fall into your lap. For example, you write "wrong word" in feedback and I start thinking about which one I should use, which form would be correct or which conjunction I should choose, I look for it.

- And it makes me learn that subject.

- If you corrected my mistakes, I would easily write the same thing and bring it to you. Otherwise, I would add something from myself (on my own). There would be some students who wouldn't read your feedback thinking the teacher corrected it anyway.

- Exactly.

- They would write the same thing (you gave them) down and printed it out.

T: How does your teacher give feedback?

- Written.

T: It's written. We correct the mistakes a little bit and then its content, organization. Where does your teacher's feedback usually focus on?

- It focuses on punctuation or "a, an, the" usage mostly.

- Same.

- There are many article errors.

- Yes, many.

- Or wrong words.

- Same.

- For me, it's usually articles. In one of my paragraphs, there were only the article mistakes, nothing else, just so many article mistakes.

- Same.

- Sometimes preposition errors.

T: What else? Word order, organization?

- Yes.

- One or two.

- Frequently, but it is mostly what my friends said.

T: What language do you prefer (Turkish/English) your teacher use when giving you feedback?

- English.

- Turkish.
- English.
- I think I can understand it when you give feedback in English, but if there's another person who doesn't understand when it's in English, he won't understand what his mistake is as well. So it's better if you give feedback in a language which he can understand.
- Look at it this way: When we receive feedback from the teacher, while you are reading my paper, you tell me. You say "You should change this such and such...", so there is no such thing as "It must be Turkish or English". I think English is better, because we are trying to learn English. It would be the easiest way if you encouraged us to use Turkish. We would go in that direction, what an easy thing to do! We have to be pushed in order to succeed. Let it push us.
- You can explain it in Turkish when it's necessary. For example, you once told us about one paragraph in which we should be more specific about its (the thing mentioned in that paragraph) cost, elaborate on it, think specifically. You explain things in Turkish in a pretty good way.
- Yes, exactly.
- So it's English mostly, but explaining in Turkish if we can't understand it is more beneficial for us.

T: How do you feel when you receive feedback?

- Happy.
- If I have made so many mistakes, I feel upset, because I think it's all about being careless. For example, those article errors my friends mentioned are the result of the lack of attention if you ask me. I say "I wish I could have written more carefully and haven't seen all these red marks". However, it doesn't make me feel desperate, it gives me hope.
- I feel like I improve myself, because I see my mistakes and correct them. I realize that I'm getting better.
- Seeing those red marks helps us make more effort.

T: How do you feel when you receive positive feedback?

- So good.
- We feel so happy.
- It's like "I made it!"
- "It means I made progress".
- We think that we succeeded in something.

T: Any specific examples?

- For example, you know I have a "well done". I'm always like "I got a 'well done'!!" I remember the day when I got it, I immediately compared it with my first paragraph. It was like "Woow I made this mistake in my first writing, it was full of red marks, but now I can do better, I achieve success". It's similar to the speaking course. You can't speak at first, but then you start talking. I observe this,

but it ends up being disappointed when you can't get another "well done". Why doesn't it happen again? You made it once, you nailed it, you feel ambitious to make it again.

- When you write "good topic" on my paper, I feel like I can do it. I can keep doing it. However, when you write something negative, it discourages me. I think that I can't do it anyway and I give up sometimes.

- A simple example: You said "You wrote it very well" for my *Budget Saver Fashion* paragraph, and this makes me happy.

- Seeing you succeed...

- It really is great to see that there is some progress.

T: Don't you feel this way without the teacher telling you?

- We do. I do.

- I do. How? For example, I clearly remember that I had a hard time reaching 150 words while writing my first paragraph. It was 150 including the title, my name and the date. Now 150 words are not enough. I wrote 200-230 in my last paragraphs. This makes me think that it means I proceed with my writing, I write more decent and longer sentences. However, being appreciated by people in charge (the teachers) always encourages more.

T: What about negative feedback? Any specific examples?

- I have one. There was this paragraph named *Dream City*. I got a lot of feedback on it. It didn't come to an end. I brought it to you and new mistakes were found again and again. But I don't feel hopeless at all. It will get better, I need to do my best, I will, it's not a bad thing.

- I have one, too. The one about a memory. I wrote it and there was a problem in different parts each time. I guess I couldn't give so many details while writing it. In the last feedback, you pointed out on which parts I should elaborate. Frankly, I hadn't known how to write that paragraph at the beginning, then I understood what to do after I saw your feedback and I elaborated on it.

- We compared watching a movie at home with watching a movie in the cinema. I wrote it very fast at the last minute and it seemed all right to me while writing it, but I realized that I made more mistakes than I thought I did. However, I didn't get upset, on the contrary, I worked hard on it. I saw my mistake at least. I especially thought about how to correct it. As we said before, it helps us improve ourselves and think more.

T: How do you feel about the amount of feedback being provided?

- I think it's enough. Sometimes there are many mistakes and red marks in our paragraphs, but when you look at them, for example, I wrote "film" instead of "a film", it's an article mistake. So receiving feedback only once is effective, because it's just an article mistake, you make errors without realizing, but you actually know that subject. That's why once can be enough.

- It's enough.

- In general, not once but twice.

- Even three times for some people.
- It could be more than three times if there were so many errors.

T: Do you feel like twice is not enough?

- It depends on the number of mistakes.
- If I still make that mistake, yes. (/If my mistake is not corrected, yes.)
- It's about the topic actually. How? I can create a better paragraph quickly when the topic is about something that I have a good knowledge of and that I think I can put into words successfully. However, when I'm not interested in the topic, I don't know anything about it or I don't want to write, your feedback isn't enough. Even if you gave it ten times, I would bring it to you ten times with mistakes. But if I love it and I can do it, once may be enough, maybe.

T: Can you describe the most effective/positive feedback you have received?

- We were reading one of my paragraphs together. When you read my topic sentence, you said "This was the best topic sentence I have read today". I was so happy on my way home that day. You know? The topic sentence, something very important, and I made it!
- I'll go with "well done" again. I even told my family that I got a "well done" in the writing course. Such excitement, such happiness! When I sat down to write the next one, I was saying to myself "You can do it, it can happen again". I'm always in this mood. I still look at that one and feel glad.

T: Why did you get that "well done"?

I wrote very well, flawless. You didn't find any mistakes.

T: Not in terms of mistakes only. What did I especially like about it?

- You went "hmmm" and wrote "well done", I don't know.

T: It's reason wasn't obvious then?

- No, only "well done" was enough.

T: We read it together then?

- Yes, we did.

T: Any other examples for positive/effective feedback?

- You told me that my topic sentences, concluding sentences, my way of thinking and the content are all right, but I made some article mistakes as always. This motivated me. You said that I made mistakes in the use of articles, but I didn't feel hopeless or bad because of my mistakes. What I focused on was the part where you said my topic sentences and way of thinking were okay. This made me happy. I pay attention to articles in my paragraphs anymore. I hope it will get better.
- You liked both my topic sentence and concluding sentence in my *Neighbourhood* paragraph. You just wanted me to give a couple of details. I guess that one was the best one. It was satisfying.

T: Can you describe the most negative/ineffective feedback you have received?

- *Neighbourhood*. I hadn't understood the topic at all. You told me to revise after you read it. I did. But I really hadn't understood how to start, finish, what to tell at all!

T: Why did I tell you to revise?

- Because I had written something irrelevant. I hadn't understood what to tell exactly. After you explained it to me, I rewrote the paragraph and you said that it's good. You told me to add more details and make it more specific.

- Mine was the *Typical Wedding Day* paragraph, I guess. I don't remember the feedback I received and how many mistakes I made, but it was a tough one. Because it was our second assignment given in the second week. We just graduated from high school and we were supposed to write head on. That's why I had difficulty. I also didn't have so much information about the subject. It was hard to decide what to write about it, how to make sentences.

- Mine was the one about a memory. It was the worst. The biggest reason was I considered you as my friend, I thought you would understand. It is like that with my friend. She understands everything about me. We have memories together. You told me that I should elaborate on it for the readers giving details such as with whom I went and what we did there, where we stayed... I wrote it very superficially. I've got three feedback on this paragraph so far, it still continues...

T: Can you describe your desired feedback?

- The current one is good for me.

- I think it should be both written and verbal. In my opinion, the feedback you give us while reading the paragraphs with us is more effective.

- Yes. It would be really helpful if it's verbal, but it would also be very difficult for you, because there are many students. It would be really difficult for you to deal with each one of them verbally and check those paragraphs and make explanations at the same time. So feedback has to be written, but of course it would be great if it was verbal.

- I think that it should be both written and verbal, too. The feedback you give when we are together in class is more efficient.

T: Why is it more efficient?

- (In written feedback) You wrote where I have made a mistake, but what I can use instead of that, for example...

- (In verbal feedback) You give details.

- Or examples.

- ...for example, I use a conjunction in a wrong place, you say what to use instead of that.

T: Don't I give that information when feedback is written?

- You do, but it's better when it's verbal.

- Sometimes we can't understand (the written one).
- Because we communicate.

T: What does make verbal feedback so special?

- In my opinion, the most important part is this: You have five classes, naturally you're so busy. Sometimes I bring the same paragraph to you after the corrections are made, and you find new errors, the ones you haven't realized before. The most important reason of this is that you're busy. However, when feedback is verbal, I can ask you some questions and you can ask me some questions as well, it's much more interactive.
- Or let's say I make an error, you write it down, I keep questioning how to do it right. If we were together, I could ask you this question and get an answer, but since I do it myself without getting any answers, I write and it turns out to be wrong again, it keeps happening.
- When you give verbal feedback, I picture it and figure out what to use there, it stays on my mind.

T: What do you do with the feedback provided?

- First of all, I take a look at my errors. Then I open my book's last page and look for what those errors (codes) mean and how to correct them. I have been having difficulty with prepositions since high school. I open my book. What should I use? What does it mean? I make my choices according to it. I also learn this way.
- Same. I compare my mistakes with each other. I correct the ones I understand right away. Sometimes I can't figure it out, I don't know how to make it right actually. I search the internet or call my friend who is studying English Language Teaching and ask her what to use in the parts I don't understand.
- I look at my mistakes, where I have made them. While I'm studying, I think about how to change them and why I have made a mistake there in order to avoid making it again.

T: Does feedback being verbal make you feel like you need less external support?

- Yes.
- Sometimes while I'm correcting my errors, I send a message to my friend to ask her opinion about what to use in that part I can't correct. However, when we're reading it with you, you usually tell us what to do. Even if you don't say, you ask questions which help us find it on our own.
- We talk to each other, we say "That's what the teacher said, revise it accordingly", we keep what you say in mind, we share it with each other.

T: Are there any challenges preventing you from using your teacher's feedback?

- If you weren't my teacher, there would be some challenges. If there were a totally different teacher and he got angry with us all the time saying things like "What kind of a paragraph is this?", and he were much more tough and strict... but it's not a problem with you.

- Your attitude toward us (is good)... Of course you are our teacher, but I don't feel shy when I bring you the same paragraph for the third time, because I know that you would never say "That's enough! It's just a paragraph after all. How old are you!? Do it already!" We're not afraid of you. It wouldn't be useful if we were afraid of you, but it is. We like you.

- We had this teacher. When there's something wrong in our drafts or exam papers, when someone didn't understand the question and wrote something different, he would read it aloud in class. He would use offending words. If this had been happened to me... It makes you feel embarrassed in front of everyone, you feel ashamed. On top of that, you don't want to learn about your mistakes anymore. That moment turns into something you never want to remember again. However, thanks to your attitude, I don't feel bad for my mistakes or say "Why did I make mistake? How could I do it?" Yes, I feel sad because of my mistakes, but it shows me the right way, I don't feel bad.

T: Is it easy for you to understand the teacher's feedback?

- Yes.

- Yes.

- We look at the codes on the last page of the book.

- I didn't understand the code you wrote once, it was "revise", I asked my friend and she helped me.

T: What suggestions might you have for your teacher to make feedback more understandable?

- Feedback given verbally.

- Yes.

- Same.

- We can ask your advice. There's nothing that can't be understood when feedback is verbal, because I can ask you as many questions as I want such as "I couldn't understand this part, could you please explain it to me again?" It would be pretty good.

- The codes are clear. If there's another mistake unrelated to the codes and that he can't understand, he can ask it to his friend. Our friends know what we don't know in some cases. Sometimes we don't need to ask the teacher right away. I can learn it from my friend, but as verbal feedback.

T: What do you do when you have any questions, doubts and concerns about your teacher's feedback?

- We're living in the age of internet... Searching the internet... My roommate is from our department as well. Asking each other questions, we correct our mistakes together.

- Or other sources... I look up in the dictionary. You told us that there are example sentences under the words. There are prepositions with examples explained in a proper way. I read, I can understand and get the meaning. I put it into practice in my own paragraphs.

T: What is the best way for your teacher to give feedback?

- Doesn't this question sound like the one about our desired feedback?

T: Yes.

- As we said before, both written and verbal feedback.

- Together.

T: Wouldn't it be okay if it's just verbal?

- We may forget it. Words fly away, writings remain.

- Verbal feedback alone would be okay if we came to you and you explained it to us writing some notes down. It would work this way. There would be no need for us to revise and bring it to you again.

- You need to be available to do this. If you dealt with only one class, I'm sure it would be so easy.

T: What suggestions might you have for your teacher to improve the effectiveness of feedback on your writing?

- After we handed in our writings to you, it would be better if we got feedback in a short time. Otherwise we forget what we have written. "I made a mistake here! "Maybe I won't be making that mistake two weeks later, because we make progress each day.

T: What do you think about your situation in writing class now compared to your situation in the earlier stages? Have you experienced any changes in your self-confidence?

- Yes.

- As I said before, I was having a hard time reaching 150 words including my name and the date, now you want 200 words and I can write between 150-200 or 230. Of course I have! I can write fearlessly and faster. I believe that I'm writing better. Your feedback is positive as well.

- In my opinion, we have improved ourselves in terms of our self- confidence.

- Exactly.

- When I sit down to write, even before I make a challenging sentence, instead of believing that I can't do it, I feel like I can try to make it and I say "Even if I can't, my teacher will find my mistakes or maybe I can do it."

- I've been already writing before I started studying here. I have an Irish friend. I used to get help from him, but he didn't help me improve myself, he used to point out my mistakes only. I corrected my mistakes or I changed the words. However, the university has been more effective. At least I started to think differently and broadly.

- When we first started studying here, we didn't even know what to write and how to write it. What is a topic sentence? What is a concluding sentence? We know none of them. We didn't know how to write. I wrote my first paragraph using the same words from the book, changing their location only. But in my last paragraph, I realized that I could form sentences without stumbling and I didn't make

so many mistakes. We still make errors of course, but not as much as we used to do. There is a huge difference.

- And we don't make silly mistakes like we used to do before.

T: Are there any situations in which you feel inadequate and insecure?

- Of course. I always think that I can do better. Whenever I get feedback, I say "It can be better, I can write better about this topic." When I read my previous paragraphs while revising, I think that I could have written them in a better way, I could have talked about a different subject and could have started my writing differently. As we improve our self-esteem, our expectations also get higher. They are connected.

- Yes, there are some situations. If we don't have any idea about the topic, for example.

- Yes.

- Usually during exams.

- I don't feel anxious when I'm writing on my own, the sentences keep coming and I keep writing, but during exams... I don't know if it's because of the time limitation or the topic... Actually you give us certain topics, but I feel so nervous during exams, nothing comes to my mind.

- I experience that anxiety it now. Will I be able to do it on Monday?

- Will the time be enough? Will I come up with an idea to write?

- In my opinion, we suffer from low self-esteem only during exams anymore. Even though we can't make a proper sentence while writing, we feel happy since we have made more complex sentences before.

T: What is the difference between assignments and exams?

- Grades.

- Yes.

- It's systematic, there's nothing to do with you. I mean I feel afraid. When I'm writing at home, I think that if there's something wrong with my writing, you will show it to me and I'll correct it and bring it to you. However, during exams, I'm afraid to think that you will take five points off and I won't be able to correct it and I'll fail prep class. That kind of fear!

- Out of all exams it was writing I was afraid of the most at the beginning. It's still the same. I feel very uncomfortable during the writing exam. It just doesn't come to my mind and the more I feel worried the more I forget it. I can't make sentences. I can't remember the meaning of really simple words.

- Exactly!

- Once I tried to remember what "getirmek" means, it just didn't come.

- We use "am, is, are" on exam papers while we are making relative clauses in our normal writings.

T: So you make it simpler?

- To avoid making mistakes.
- To be on the safe side.
- We attempt to make more challenging and long sentences in our normal writings.

T: Do you manage to be on the safe side?

- Not very well. In that situation, what we write doesn't seem like a good writing to you. Maybe we are capable of writing much more aesthetically pleasing paragraphs using different structures, but our fears overshadow the beauty.
- We do it in order to save some time. The time wouldn't be enough if I attempted to form a longer and more difficult sentence in the exam. I know that it wouldn't.
- Actually it's possible, but as I said, you spend your time remembering only one word because of the anxiety, you run out of time.

T: Coherence/cohesion, word order, organization, mechanics etc... Which one of these you feel most confident dealing with?

- Organization. I don't digress. My paragraph's ending is associated with its beginning. There are many grammar and punctuation mistakes, but my organization is all right. You wrote "Great organization!" for some of my paragraphs.
- We don't drift away from the topic. We focus on the same subject.
- It's organization for me, too.
- Same.

T: Anything you'd like to add?

- I want to say something. Thank you so much. You must have read more than 1000 papers in this semester. You didn't hold it against us.

T: Thank you. I hope it has been beneficial for you...

- Of course.

T: ...in terms of writing, even if it's just a small step. Making progress in writing happens slowly.

- I don't think that I'm enough, but I'm aware of that I've made progress.

T: In which areas do you think you're enough?

- I can't say that I'm a great academic writer. I make so many mistakes in relative clauses, adjectives etc... For example, I can use more adjectives in my paragraphs. I think that no one can say that they are enough in that way, but I believe that I feel much more confident than I did in the first day of this semester.

- This feeling of being enough is related to our expectations from ourselves. If what I expect from myself is to write 150 words, then what I am now is enough for me. However, if I feel like I should write different paragraphs and amazing topic sentences, it's not enough. What do I expect from myself?

- You may be good compared to your friends in the department, but you still don't feel like you're enough in your own way. You want to be the best, that's why you feel that way.



Appendix 10: Cover Letter

COVER LETTER FOR WRITING PORTFOLIO

(You can write your answers either in English or Turkish)

1. Evaluate *each* piece of writing in your portfolio and write strengths and weaknesses by giving examples from your drafts to support what you say.
2. Can you see any traces of improvement in your writing? How?
3. Which is your favourite piece of writing? Why?
4. What is your least favourite piece of writing? Why?
5. What still needs improvement?
6. What techniques seem to help you most? Why?
7. Do you consider yourself a better writer than before? Why?

(Adapted from Bullock and Weinberg 2009)

Appendix 11: Sample Cover Letter

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COVER LETTER FOR WRITING PORTFOLIO

(You can write your answers either in English or Turkish)

1. Evaluate *each* piece of writing in your portfolio and write strengths and weaknesses by giving examples from your drafts to support what you say.

When I compare all my paragraphs, I can say that the text layout, details and sentence transitions are good if I have information about the topic. For example, I can use language in correct order or I can give more details about the topic like I did in Budget Saver Fashion. Or if I do not have any information about topic, I make more mistakes and more wrong word orders like I did in A Trabzon Wedding.

2. Can you see any traces of improvement in your writing? How?

Yes, of course I can see. In my first paragraph I copied the entire article from our workbook because I did not know how to write a paragraph. But now, I can write without any doubt. I can use long sentences in my paragraphs, I can write my topic sentence and concluding sentence well than my first paragraph.

3. Which is your favorite piece of writing? Why?

Budget Saver Fashion. Because in that paragraph I have a chance to show that I am improved. I did so little mistakes, and I used the words and the sentences in good order.

4. What is your least favorite piece of writing? Why?

A Trabzon Wedding. The lack of knowledge about this subject made it difficult for me to make sentences and order. When I took the first feedback in that topic, there were too many pen strokes on paper, and I could not even fix these pen strokes in the other feedbacks.

5. What still needs improvement?

I think I need to improve my use of different words. Sometimes I wiped out a whole sentence thinking that I'm making so much repetition.

6. What techniques seem to help you most? Why?

I started to read and pay more attention to English, I think it is effective.

7. Do you consider yourself a better writer than before? Why?

I think I have developed myself for reading more and writing more. And it is possible to see this difference by comparing the first writing with my last writing. I had no idea about this topic in advance, and I did not write academic in any way. But when we began to think about and write about the issues that were given to us, I learned how it worked over time. I still do not think that I am so good, I just think I'm improving according to my first paragraph.

(Adapted from Bullock, 2009)

Appendix 12: Process Log Questions (Turkish)

Süreç Günlüğü, Lei'den (2008) uyarlanmıştır.

Name: _____ Date: _____

Bölüm I: Paragraf yazmaya hazırlık süreci

1. Ödev konusu nedir? Ne yapmanız gerekiyor? Konuyu sevdiniz mi? Niçin/ Niçin sevmediniz?
2. Bu konu hakkında bilginiz var mı? Eğer varsa bu bildiğiniz nedir ve nereden biliyorsunuz?
3. Bu konuyla ilgili fikirleri nereden edineceksiniz? Bunun için tam olarak ne yaptınız?
4. Yazmadaki amacınız nelerdir?
5. Yazmadaki rolünüz nedir/Bir yazar olarak rolünüz nedir? Yazar olarak rolünüz yazmanızı etkiliyor mu? Eğer etkiliyorsa nasıl?
6. Yazmadan önce konu hakkında birisiyle konuştunuz mu? Eğer konuştusanız kimle ve ne hakkında konuştunuz?
7. Bu ödev hakkında fikir almak için tam olarak neler yaptınız?
8. Yazma süreci öncesinde hangi kaynaklardan yararlandınız (örn. İnternet, sözlük, ders görevlisi) ve bunlardan nasıl yararlandınız?
9. Bu ödevi ilk olarak hangi dilde yazdınız ve niçin bu dili/dilleri kullandınız?

Bölüm II: Paragraf yazma (paragrafın nihai teslimine kadar geçen yazma süreci)

10. Hedef kitleniz bildiği veya inandığına dair varsayımlarınız (örneğin dersi öğretim elemanı şunu sever, şunu biliyordur/bilmiyordur) paragraf yazmanızı etkiledi mi? Örnek(ler) verebilir misiniz?
11. Sizin amaçlarınız paragraf yazmanızı etkiledi mi? Eğer evetse, nasıl?
12. Bu paragrafı yazarken hiç birisiyle görüştün mü? Kimle ve ne hakkında konuştunuz?
13. Yazınızda düzeltmeniz gereken yerler var mı? Eğer evetse bunlardan 5 tanesini yazıp sonra bunları nasıl düzelttiğinizi açıkla mısınız?
14. Yazmanızın son halinden memnun musunuz? Niçin/Niçin değil?
15. Yazımın son hali sizin yazma becerinizi yansıtıyor mu? Niçin? Niçin değil?
16. Yazma sürecinde hangi kaynaklardan yararlandınız (örn. İnternet, sözlük, ders görevlisi) ve bunlardan nasıl yararlandınız?
17. Yazınıza feedback aldıktan sonra düzeltme yaparken hangi kaynaklardan yararlandınız (örn. İnternet, sözlük, ders görevlisi) ve bunlardan nasıl yararlandınız?

Appendix 13: Process Log Questions (English)

Appendix B: Process log (Adapted from Lei, 2008)

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section I: Preparation for writing

1. What is the assignment topic? What are you required to do? Do you like it? Why or why not?
2. Do you know much about the assignment topic? If yes, what are they and where was your knowledge from?
3. How are you going to get ideas for the assignment?
4. What are your goals in writing the assignment?
5. What are your roles when writing the assignment? Have they affected your preparation? If yes, in what way?
6. Did you talk about the topic with anyone before writing? If yes, whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?
7. What did you actually do to get ideas for the assignment?
8. What tool/resources (e.g., the Internet, instructor, tutor) did you use and how did you use them in the pre-writing stage?
9. In what language did you prepare for the assignment and why did you use this language or these languages?

Section II: Writing an paragraph(including the whole process of writing and revising until the submission of your paragraph)

10. Have your goals affected how you wrote the paragraph? If yes, in what way?
11. Did your goals change during the writing process? If yes, what are the changes?
12. Did you talk about the paragraph with anyone during writing? Whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?
13. Are there any problems in your writing? If yes, can you describe five major problems and how you handled them?
14. Are you satisfied with your final version? Why or why not?
15. Can the final version represent your writing ability? Why or why not?
16. What tools/resources (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use and how did you use them when writing the first draft?
17. What tools (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use for revision and how did you use them?

Appendix 14: Sample Answers to A Process Log (English)

Appendix B: Process log (Modified from Lei, 2008)

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section I: Preparation for writing

1. What is the assignment topic? What are you required to do? Do you like it? Why or why not?

ST42: The topic was “Weddings in different regions”. What we were supposed to do was to add more to our already existing knowledge with researches in order to maintain a fulfilled product. Generally, I liked the topic. Because we Turks are a nation that can't part from its traditions, this topic was one that a student could compose an at least 250-300 word paragraph. Of course because of the interaction between languages, some false transfusions have happened. Wedding convoys, etc. Even though it's natural, it's a matter that could be prevented. A topic that everyone had an idea of, but also one that was universal could be chosen, like “The games you've played as a child”

2. Do you know much about the assignment topic? If yes, what are they and where was your knowledge from?

ST42: Not much, but I have enough knowledge about the topic. The source of this knowledge is my style of living, and the experiences I've had. But because I was raised in a city, I can't say that I have so much knowledge about it. Sitting on the dowry chest, saying that the scissors don't cut to get money from the groom are some of those.

3. How are you going to get ideas for the assignment?

ST42: I gathered the information about this topic from the web, and combined it with what was applied in my region and presented it to my reader.

4. Do you have target readers for the assignment? If yes, who are they and why did you choose them?

ST42: I write all of my texts with the “from seven to seventy” motto. It doesn't smell of sincerity, but it doesn't cloy the reader either. The reason why I chose this was because I'm also quite pleased by this type of writing.

5. What are your goals in writing the assignment?

ST42: Even though my reason for writing was to improve myself, and to keep my perception on this domain, I'm certain that sometimes I write just because I enjoy it.

6. What are your roles when writing the assignment? Have they affected your preparation? If yes, in what way?

ST42: My role in writing is a writer that has read for years. I can even say that I want to be a writer who has read, and never got separated from the real life for years.

7. Did you talk about the topic with anyone before writing? If yes, whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?

ST42: No, I didn't . I don't have such a circle of friends, but I hope I will.

8. What did you actually do to get ideas for the assignment?

ST42: Internet search

9. What tool/resources (e.g., the Internet, instructor, tutor) did you use and how did you use them in the pre-writing stage?

ST42: I didn't use any resources before writing.

10. In what language did you prepare for the assignment and why did you use this language or these languages?

ST42: English.

Section II: Writing a paragraph (including the whole process of writing and revising until the submission of your paragraph)

11. Have your assumptions about what the target readers know or believe to be true affected how you wrote the paragraph? Can you give me some examples?

ST42: No, I don't think so. I pay attention to appeal to all learners. I just try to keep a balance between formality and informality.

12. Have your goals affected how you wrote the paragraph? If yes, in what way?

ST42: No, I don't think so.

13. Did your perceptions of the target readers change during the writing process? If yes, what are the changes?

ST42: No, I don't think so.

14. Did your goals change during the writing process? If yes, what are the changes?

ST42: Actually not.

15. Did you talk about the topic with anyone during writing? Whom did you talk to and what did you talk about?

ST42: I did not talk to anyone because people here are mostly from the Black Sea region, I thought they might not know about the weddings in my region.

16. Are there any problems in your writing? If yes, can you describe five major problems and how you handled them?

ST42: I like to fix my mistakes in writing not specifically, but generally. Because of that, I fixed my 17 article, 2 connecting, 9 subject-verb agreement, 2 order and 2 word mistakes all at once by resolving the grammatical logic.

17. Are you satisfied with your final version? Why or why not?

ST42: I'm satisfied with the final status of the writing, because it was my second paragraph, and over time, with my growing knowledge, it became a better paragraph.

18. Can the final version represent your writing ability? Why or why not?

ST42: Yes, It does. The reason for that is when I compare it with my previous writings, it looks satisfying.

19. What tools/resources (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use and how did you use them when writing the first draft?

ST42: As I write, I always keep "wordreference", "tureng", "oxford learners dictionaries", as well as an example paragraph open in my laptop. The topic of the example paragraph is different. Its only service is to inspire.

20. What tools (e.g., the Internet, dictionaries, tutor, instructor) did you use for revision and how did you use them?

ST42: My sources are the same while fixing my feedbacks as well. Instead of fixing just the places with mistakes, I also improve the parts where I think are weak.

Appendix 15: Stimulated Recall Protocol Questions

1. You have made changes here correctly (or corrected successfully) from the feedback provided by the researcher. Could you please tell me what helped you to change (or correct)?
2. This is an example of a grammatical/lexical error. Was it easy or difficult for you to correct this error? Why or why not?
3. Overall, was the type of feedback you received useful to you to correct the errors? Why or Why not?
4. You have not made any changes/correction here (or could not correct successfully) from the feedback provided by the researcher. Could you please tell me why?
5. You have received feedback three times on different types of errors that you made in your three writing assignments. Do you think you will make the same errors again in the future in a new writing assignment?
6. Do you think feedback is useful for you to become a proficient writer? If yes, which types of feedback do you think is most useful in your opinion and why? (The researcher will show examples of direct and indirect feedback) If 'No', why?

Appendix 16: Sample Stimulated Recall Protocol

T: Hello Ayşe. I want to get your opinions about the paragraphs you wrote and the feedbacks you got about them in the first semester.

Firstly, are you satisfied with your general progress?

ST20: Generally, yes I'm satisfied with it, because I think I've made a big progress. When I first came here, you could say that I hated writing. I was afraid of writing when I was told to, and that my mistakes would be revealed. I was afraid because I didn't know what to do while writing. That's not the case anymore, I not only feel joy while writing, I also feel excited when I get feedback since it increases my writing. Now, it's a joyful task for me.

T: On which branch do you think you've developed yourself the most?

ST20: In terms of content, I definitely developed. Apart from that, when I look at my first feedbacks, there is no trace of compound sentences, there were only simple, separate sentences. When I look at the recent ones though, I used conjunctions, articles, cared about propositions and didn't feel hesitant about using new verbs.

T: Let's look at a few old writings of yours. Do you remember the corrections in the first one?

ST20: Yes, I can say that didn't use anything about articles, and had many mistakes here. Again there were small, separate sentences without any conjunctions here.

T: How did you correct this? For example, how did you decide that "the" was missing here?

ST20: It's because that was a proper noun, which I thought needed "the".

T: Didn't you think, for example, that "a" could be used?

ST20: It's because the use of "a" might refer to anything. Actually, I meant "The wedding ceremonies in Güdül", therefore I chose "The".

T: Have you ever hesitated about anything else? Spelling, for example?

ST20: Not really, because you were present when I was correcting those mistakes for which I did not hesitate.

T: Would you feel the same confidence about your writings if the feedbacks were written?

ST20: If the feedback is not face to face, there are no explanations. Because of that, sometimes I don't even pay attention to them. When I see a mistake after a face to face feedback, I remember what the instructor told me about my mistakes, and fix them accordingly. The conversations that have passed between us are memorable

T: What is it that makes those conversations memorable?

ST20: The discussions we get in during the dialogs. If I don't question my mistakes, I just fix them and pass. But if we discuss and question them, I remember the reasons why I made them, which helps me not make them again.

T: Among the feedbacks, which one do you think is the most memorable?

ST20: It's the "Ideal room for homework", because you liked that one. I remembered it because you called it a "Good job".

T: Are there any feedbacks that have disappointed you?

ST20: There aren't any particular ones that I can point out. It's because mistakes can happen, and I don't feel disappointed about them. What I liked about the feedbacks is that at some point, my mistakes started to be about content instead of grammar.

T: Coming to your last feedback, what do you think has changed from your first feedback to the last? Are there any things missing?

ST20: In the last ones, because I started using different structures, I was having problems, but at least there weren't any simple mistakes.

T: Thank you very much for your time, Ayşe.



Appendix 17: Portfolio Submission Form

KTU

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

2016-2017 FALL SEMESTRE

PORTFOLIO SUBMISSION FORM FOR PREP-CLASSES

Name-Surname:

Number:

- Prep A Prep B
 Prep A (Evening) Prep B (Evening)

1 2 3 DRAFT

- Personal description (Describe your friend)
 Description (A typical wedding)
 Narration paragraph (A memorable visit you have made)
 Descriptive paragraph (The best place to do homework)
 Logical division of ideas (Neighbourhoods in your hometown)
 Process paragraph (How to look fashionable on a limited budget.)
 Com. & cont. paragraph (going to a movie vs. a movie night at home)
 Group work (Bad drivers/outline//Hazards of technology)
 Group work (Process paragraph)
 Group work (Report on the difference between Hawaii and Alaska)
 Group work (Compare and contrast paragraph)

Appendix 18: Proficiency Examination Writing Questions

Name-Number:

Duration: 60'

Writing Pre-test

You have been asked to contribute an article to the university magazine (150-200 words). Choose a topic and write an argumentative text. Include an appropriate introduction and conclusion.

Topic 1

Online study programs in which students attend lectures from the comfort of their homes are becoming increasingly popular.

Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of online lectures and state your personal opinion. You can use the two statements below for inspiration:

Online study programs cannot offer students the same academic standard as a real university.

Online courses have the potential to make studying much more accessible.

Topic 2

Many students stay at home with their parents during their university years. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of such an arrangement and state your personal opinion. You can use the two statements below for inspiration:

Why should you move out of your parents' house if it is near your university and living there is free?

Moving out is a vital step in becoming an adult and it builds character.

Appendix 19: Sample Teacher Feedback in the ZPD Group

T: Hüseyin please go through this paragraph and tell me if you would change anything here. Anything you would like to change?

S: About ten? Is this true?

T: We say ten age? No... We say when I was about ten...

S: I think it should be revised.

T: Which tense?

S: We go...

T: When did it happen?

S: I tried to say we are going there every summer. Her yaz gidiyoruz yani.

T: Hmm hmm.

S: Her yaz gideriz ama geçen yaz ordaydık işte. Karışık oldu.

T: So, you are talking about a story in the past, right?

S: Yes.

T: Better to use past tense. What can we say here?

S: We went...

T: Yes, or we used to go.

S: OK.

T: Do we need a preposition here?

S: To

T: Let's have a look at part one again. "When I was a child about ten, OK, anything with capitalization?"

S:

T: These ones should be capital.

S: It can't be like this? When I look at the Internet or talk to other foreign people, they use this.

T: Yeah, especially when you are communicating with someone on the Internet, it is quite acceptable to do that, but in academic writing, it not a good idea to use "i" in lower case form.

S: I always used like this.

T: Let's come back to first sentence again. When I was a child about ten, I went to my village in the summer. Hüseyin, after reading this sentence, I cannot predict what is going to come.

S: I try to explain my readers where I was.

T: That's good but what about the main event in the story. You said "stupid Oğuzhan", it does not tell the reader about that.

S: It includes just where am I.

T: But when we write a topic sentence, we should include the other sentences, right? So, the visit to my village last summer was, for example, a disaster. Or was really enjoyable. You say something about it in general, and then you come up with these two sentences. I mean, it is better to write a more general sentence so that we can predict. OK. Let's read and see further. I went to my village in

summer or we need an article here? “We used to go to our village almost every year.” Where is the village?

S: In Artvin.

T: I think specifying it could be a great advantage for learners to “see.” Moreover, presenting this at the beginning could be a great advantage. Giderdik dedik ama artık tek bir olaya indirgememiz lazım artık. Değil mi? We should narrow it down. After saying “giderdik”, it could be a great idea to switch to a more specific one. Mesela bu cümleyi daha önce alman lazım değil mi? From more general to specific. As soon as I got off my car, I ran to me friends’ near. Can we say this differently?

S: Run to near my friends; yanına vardığımda demek istedim.

T: “Ran to my friends” is OK; “when I met them” or “when I approached them”. Let me move on: I hadn’t seen them for a long time.

S: Önce giderdik deyip sonra eve geçmeliyim.

T: Exactly. After we finished, everyone ran to their home except Oğuzhan and me. We went to our play area where my neighbours’ apartment house. We went to our play area?

S: Oyun alanımız ama biz o apartmanı oyun alanı olarak görüyorduk. Komşumuzun apartmanı olan oyun alanı gibi bir şey aslında.

T: Should we say “which”?

S: I used “which” first, and I changed.

T: “Which” is better. Our neighbour’s apartment house. Is the punctuation correct?

S: Should I use it [apostrophe] after “s”?

T: Yes. You say apartment house.

S: Yes, the dictionary says so.

T: I think apartment or house. Either of them is OK.

S: We started to play...

T: What did you play? Do you remember?

S: Ball.

T: Better to tell it here. While we were playing, this one tack, what is this? My tack? I touched him hard, and I started to run away from him, and he got angry. While I was going down from the stairs, he took a big stone and threw it to head. We need a pronoun here. My head started to...

S: To bleed

T: To bleed and surprisingly, I did not cry. My mom came and took me to the home. So far so good. We need a concluding sentence right? So, what happened?

Now I cannot understand what your intention about this paragraph is. You said stupid Oğuzhan and you want to emphasize Oğuzhan because you got angry with him. I think you should mention Oğuzhan in the topic sentence. Maybe “my visit to ... village last year was a bad experience because of Oğuzhan. “ Why you got angry with Oğuzhan is the reason for writing. Let me go back to your draft again. When you went, where you went, and how that visit was. Some other adjectives could also be used in the topic sentence as well. This is a good one because you used the time signals effectively, which contributed to the organization. The revision of the topic sentence and addition of

a concluding sentence could make it more stronger. You will not finish it saying my mother took me home. Perhaps, you will finish it with a sentence similar to the first one.

S: Thank you.

T: OK. See you.



Appendix 20: Sample Group Work Activity

(Group Assignment)

Regular/B

Yakup Alici

Gamze Kolcu

Fatma Gül Aydın

SerapTamer

HOW TO SURPRISE YOUR MOTHER ON HER BIRTHDAY

Surprising your mother on her birthday is simple if you follow these easy steps. Firstly, you can order a cake which has a picture of your mother on the top of the cake. It is also important to choose a cake which is your mother's favorite one. The second step is decorating the room where the party will be celebrated. You need friends who will help you in order to decorate the room. The third step is inviting your mother's friends and close relatives. At the same time, you should call these people to invite the party a few days ago. In addition to these steps, you should not forget to buy a nice birthday gift which can admire her. These can be necklace, watch, ring, dress, a silver mirror etc. You can make her happy without buying a gift because the most beautiful gift is being together with her. The final step is making sure whether all preparations were done or not. You should check the all items exactly. For instance, check the atmosphere which the party will be celebrated. You should not forget any details. In summary, if you follow these steps, you will have an amazing birthday party for your mother.

Appendix 21: Peer Feedback Worksheet

Peer Editor: _____ Date: _____

1. Is the paragraph interesting?

yes no

Write a comment about a part that is especially interesting to you.

2. Do you understand everything?

yes no

Circle or underline any part that you do not understand, and write a comment about it.

3. Copy the topic sentence here, and circle the topic and underline the controlling idea.

4. How many supporting sentences are there in the paragraph?

number _____

Is there at least one example for every supporting point?

yes no

5. Would you like more information about anything?

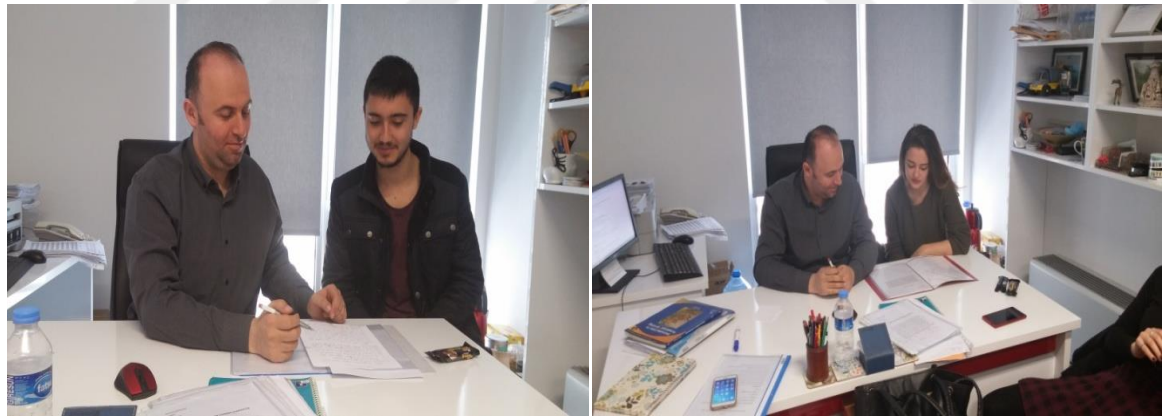
yes no

If your answer is yes, write down what you would like to know more about.

6. If the paragraph has a concluding sentence, copy it here and circle the end-of-paragraph signal (if there is one).

7. In your opinion, what is the best feature of this paragraph? In other words, what is this writer's best writing skill?

Appendix 22: Photos from Mediated Feedback Provision



Appendix 23: Photos from Group Work



Appendix 24: Sample Answers to the Open-ended Questionnaire

F. Yazma Becerilerini Etkileyen Etmenler

Lütfen doldurunuz:

1. İngilizce yazmaya başladığım zaman kendimi Zor bir durumda

bulunuyordum gibi hissederim.
çünkü yazma becerim fazla yetki kadar iyi değil.

2. İngilizce yazma becerilerinizi geliştirmek için en çok ne yapıyorsunuz? (örn. öğretmen/arkadaş dönütü, sözlük kullanımı, günce tutumu vb.). Varsa diğerleri nelerdir?

Öğretmeni dönütlerini çok önemsiyorum. Bunun dışında neler yapılabilir bilmiyorum.

3. Bu dersin öğretmeni olsaydınız, neleri değiştirdiniz/geliştirdiniz?

Wynak olarak, kulları ekipmanların daha detaylı - direkt olarakları tercih ederdim. Tazir fehlesini daha sık kullanırdım.

4. İngilizce yazmada çevrenizden bir destek alıyor musunuz? Kimden? Nasıl?

Almıyorum. Ama farklı çevrelerden yardım alabilmek için bir arayış içerisindeyim.

5. Yazı performansınızı olumlu/olumsuz etkileyen faktörler nelerdir?

Olumlu	Olumsuz
+ öğrenen yetisi var. + yazma - kula kırıltarı yetisi var + İngilizce düşünüp, yazma yetisi var + yazma yetisi var	Çok fazla zaman kırıltarı var. Bu yeti performansı düşürüyor.

6. Ekleme istediğiniz bir şey/ler:

Bu dersin içeriği, daha (speaking, listening) dersler için daha uygun.
Bu yeti iyi. Bunun için teşekkürler...

Appendix 25: Sample Teacher Feedback (1)

11.11.2016

1. Draft

Good job!

Seval BULTAN 799

Where are these residences?

Which Place You Should Live

Can you specify the price?

I strongly advice you to check out these residences; TOKI Residence, Flora Residence, and Atlantis Residence. Let's start with Flora Residence. This residence has appropriate price, so if you are a student, this residence is exactly for you. It is almost full of university students and there are very few local people, so you will feel safe. Also it is close to the stationery, the cafes and the malls. And it takes only 10 minutes to walk to the university from residence. Let's continue with Atlantis Residence. This residence is a little bit expensive. If you are keen on your comfort, you should absolutely choose here for a comfortable life. It has a wide garden and kiddie pool. And let's finish with TOKI Residence. This residence's conditions are quite good. Both local people and students live here. The transportation conditions are very good. As a result, these are the best ones. Whichever you choose, I'm sure you won't regret it.

What makes it comfortable?

Seval,

The paragraph presents logical progression of ideas. All supporting sentences relate back to the main idea. Some supporting details (price; what makes the TOKI residence comfortable) could be elaborated.

Appendix 26: Sample Teacher Feedback (2)

SİBEL YANGINCI
PREP B /353785
14.12.16

CINEMA OR TELEVISION

Clear T.S.
There are some differences and similarities between going to cinema and watching the movie at home. The film duration is the same in both. While one commercial break is given in the cinema, several commercial breaks ~~are~~ on TV. And this can extend the ending time of movie. For example, an hour-long movie can last for half an hour with frequent commercial breaks. The main difference between going to cinema and watching the movie at home is the cost. There is not much cost to watch the movie at home. In contrast, going to cinema can be very costly. Ticket which you bought to watch a movie, popcorn, and other junk foods can increase your budget considerably. The sound quality and resolution of television at the same aren't as good as cinema. Therefore, the movie may not have much effect on you when you watch the movie at home. For example, the scene you need to be scared in the movie doesn't scare you. On the other hand, the movie in the cinema feels you like you are in movie. Although both are usually different from each other, we get different and pleasant savors from both.

Well done!
Sentence structures are lively and transitions from one idea to another are handled with a considerable degree of effectiveness.
Two things could be considered in the next draft. Specific details about cost, sound/resolution quality and effect could be given. Next, adjectives and adverbs could be chosen.

Appendix 27: Sample Teacher Feedback (3)

Turgay Kör

English Language and Literature 353773

December, 16, 2016

HOME VS OUTSIDE

There are some sharp differences between watching a movie at the theater and watching it at home. First one is about comfort issue. When you at the theater, naturally you do not feel as comfortable as at home. Because there are very foreigner. You cannot laugh loudly among this people and feel uncomfortable. The other difference is video quality. On this point theater stay one step ahead of home. You know that no matter it's cost, your television cannot give you as quality pictures as the theater give you, and also you always have a chance to kiss your girlfriend there. However, you cannot eat chips at the theater because of the chip pocket's noise. If you do that, so many angry head will turn to your side with them flaming eyes which full of anger. So, you see that there is nothing similar between theater and home except from the movie that watches.

→ The T.S. has 2 specific controlling idea and clear purpose.

I wonder if there are some other comfort issues. Are there any?

Why is it so?

* Appropriate words were chosen to describe the differences.
 * Coherence apps occur in the paragraph.
 You mention comfort first. Then you go in to video quality in two different settings (which I believe further elaboration) and come back to comfort again. Please reorganize the supporting sentences

Appendix 28: Sample Teacher Feedback (4)

Muhammed Semih Çavuş
Prep A (Evening)
353741

15.12.2016

HOW TO LOOK FASHIONABLE ON A LIMITED BUDGET

Looking in vogue on a restricted budget is a piece of cake if you follow these simple steps. The initial step is to forget the newest and the most favorite marks, and scare up the really stylish fashion. Instead of shopping from famous and expensive shops, such as Prada, Louis Vuitton, and Oscar de la Renta, you can look like a person who is always shopping from one of these brands with a little trick. Due to the fact that all low budget trade marks are trying to catch up with leading brands, if you gorgeously looking for them you can find the same clothes in the common shops. ^{WF} ^P Second step is to dig out for products which are totally unmarked but as fashionable as other brand's items, in the event that you need to look fashionable keeping an updated wardrobe is very critical and you just cannot shop from customary shops for ever. Bazaars and charity sales are perfect places to buy cheap but in vogue items. Maybe there would be some problems about quality ^{ART} but you will not give a flying fudge because the items are excessively cheap owing to the fact that their producers are ordinary people and they do not want too much from you. The third and ~~the last~~ and the most effective ^{ART} step is the outlet stores. Even the most famous brands have to run at least one outlet store, in which you can find entirely same products but much cheaper prices according to the huge discounts. The only trick ^{ART} about these outlet stores ^{ART} is the "big day" These discounts drive mad people, because of that you have be ready to shop when the big day is finally at hand. After realizing these steps, you will come into the fashion in few days. ^{WO Comme Splice} ^{Excellent C.S.}

The paragraph communicates the main idea with a high degree of effectiveness. The examples provided are insightful and more importantly vivid diction helps create an upbeat image in the readers' mind.

Appendix 29: Sample Teacher Feedback (5)

Kadir Özen

353798 – Prep B Eve.

03.12.2016

Looking Fashionable

If you following these steps, looking fashionable is possible on a limited budget. Everybody want to look stylish but this is difficult to achieve because trends continuously change. Firstly, you should wear simply. For example, if you go to hang out, you can just pick t-shirt and jean. In this way, you will catch simplicity. Next, you pay attention to the one color of the dress. For instance, if you wear one color dress, you can easily find combination. The next step is that you should buy clothes which easy won't be out of fashion and you can use for many years. In this way, you'll save some money. The best significant point is that you should keep the relevant and useful parts for our way of life. These steps may appear to be very costly but it's not. As a result of these, if you have the charisma to carry it well, your job is pretty easy on a limited budget.

Could you provide some examples?

What do you mean here? Could you explain it a little bit further?

Editor (1) please reverse word order in some sentences.
(2) provide some examples and explanations for your supporting sentences.

them. The groom gives money to him. The bride's brother or cousin withdraws and that time the most famous music, which is called " Tulum ", begins. Everyone there plays horon and goes to wedding-ceremony hall. The bride and the groom display the first dance but then most of the people in hall dance and play warmly horon with a traditional music. ^{SP} ~~Bridal~~ ^{SP} couple cut the wedding cake then their relatives pin a ^{SP} ~~pieces~~ ^{SP} of jewelry on the bride and the groom. Next, everyone has fun until the late hours. Later, most of them start to go slowly. ^{SP} There is an another common tradition which continues to fun with ~~bridal couple's~~ ^{SP} friends in the groom's village after the wedding ceremony. This tradition lasts about 3 or 4 hours. They sing songs together and play horon. So such tradition can differ from one to another country. Each country or town ~~have~~ ^{SP} own traditions.

This piece is quite long and the organization is loosely treated. It might be a good idea to specify what's peculiar to ~~those~~ ^{SP} because some customs ~~can~~ ^{SP} be found all over Turkey.



Appendix 31: Sample Outline from a Group Work Activity

Outline

Topic Sentences → There are many differences and similarities between online education and traditional education.

Supporting Sentence → The first difference is that the online education much cheaper than traditional education.

Example → money on transportation

Example → clothing, food

Example → supplies for lesson

Supporting Sentence → The second but the most important difference
Example → when you don't understand anything, you can't ask to teacher.

Supporting Sentence → The another difference between traditional education and online education ----

Example → you become more sociable in traditional education.

Example → you are sitting isolated at home

Supporting Sentence → On the other hand there are a plenty of similarities between traditional and online education

Example → the same lesson in the same class

Concluded sentence → To sum up, both education opportunity have same purpose to get knowledge.

Appendix 32: Sample Group Work Activity

Deniz İskenderođlu

29.12.2016

Ođuz Esgüner

Mehmet Kartal

Yakup Alıcı

Studying or Partying All Night

Obviously, there are some different facts between studying and partying through the night. First, partying makes you physically tired. If you have a really good party, you cannot even stand on your feet on the other day. You will dance until you are dead and heads will roll on the floor. Unlike this, studying all night makes you mentally exhausted. You will read academic books or maybe articles and try to remember and understand about the subject whole night. Second, partying is a rare event. If you miss a fantastic party, you may not easily find a good party again. You might feel bad and regretful. On the other hand, studying all night is an ordinary event. If you do not study and fail in class, you can make it up in later times. Finally, partying all night is important for your social life. You might make some great friendships or, you could meet your future wife/husband there. Different from this occasion, studying all night would make you a little more successful person in your academic life. You will be successful in one of your lessons. In conclusion, both circumstances have their own good reasons. These reasons make their cases peculiar. If I were you, I would choose all night partying because it is a "once in a life time" event.

Appendix 33: Sample Peer Feedback to a Group Work Activity

Party or Study?

~~Despite~~ ^{Although} studying and partying all night have several differences, they have also similarities. Both of the activities ~~has~~ ^{have} been programmed before the night, this is one of the similarity. The other similar event is that, both action can be done with friends. They ~~are~~ ^{comma} continued all night and both effects us tiresome, on the other hand, ~~studying~~ ^{camp} all night is about plans of the future, but the other one is just for a night. ~~First~~ ^{The} one is very silent, yet the second one really loudly. Besides, studying is an activity that you ~~are~~ ^{do} sit on the desk, but you generally stand up at the party. In conclusion, there are several differences and similarities between studying and partying all night.

- 1 = C
- 2 = B
- 3 = C
- 4 = D
- 5 = B

This concept is good, but structure and content are very poor. They could have given more examples.

- 353798 Deniz KUYUMCU
- 353793 L. Efler GÜLENER
- 357069 Hasan YAĞIZ
- 353806 F. Berkay YAVUZ
- 353801 Çağla ARDA

Appendix 34: Correction Symbols Used in Feedback Practices

Symbol	Meaning	Example of Error	Corrected Sentence
p	punctuation	I live ^p , and go to school here ^p	I live and go to school here.
^	missing word	I ^{am} working in a restaurant. ^	I am working in a restaurant.
cap	capitalization	It is located at ^{cap} main and ^{cap} Baker ^{cap} streets in the ^{cap} City.	It is located at Main and Baker Streets in the city.
vt	verb tense	I never ^{vt} work as a cashier until I ^{vt} got a job there.	I had never worked as a cashier until I got a job there.
s/v agr	subject-verb agreement	The manager ^{s/v agr} work hard. There ^{s/v agr} is five employees.	The manager works hard. There are five employees.
pron agr	pronoun agreement	Everyone works hard at ^{pron agr} their jobs.	All the employees work hard at their jobs.
()	connect to make one sentence	We work together. ^() So we have become friends.	We work together, so we have become friends.
sp	spelling	The ^{sp} maneger is a woman.	The manager is a woman.
sing/pl	singular or plural	She treats her ^{sing/pl} employees like <u>slave</u> .	She treats her employees like slaves.
X	unnecessary word	My boss she watches everyone all the time.	My boss watches everyone all the time.
wf	wrong word form	Her voice is ^{wf} irritated.	Her voice is irritating.

Symbol	Meaning	Example of Error	Corrected Sentence
ww	wrong word	The food is delicious. ^{ww} Besides, the restaurant is always crowded.	The food is delicious. Therefore, the restaurant is always crowded.
ref	pronoun reference error	The restaurant's ^{ref} specialty is fish. <u>They</u> are always fresh. The food is delicious. ^{ref} Therefore, <u>it</u> is always crowded.	The restaurant's specialty is fish. It is always fresh. The food is delicious. Therefore, the restaurant is always crowded.
wo OR ~	wrong word order	Friday ^{wo} always is our busiest night.	Friday is always our busiest night.
ro	run-on sentence	[Lily was fired she ^{ro} is upset.]	Lily was fired, so she is upset.
cs	comma splice	[Lily was fired, she ^{cs} is upset.]	Lily was fired, so she is upset.
frag	fragment	She was fired. ^{frag} [Because she was always late.] [Is open from 6:00 p.m. ^{frag} until the last customer leaves.] [The employees on ^{frag} time and work hard.]	She was fired because she was always late. The restaurant is open from 6:00 p.m. until the last customer leaves. The employees are on time and work hard.
not //	not parallel	Most of our regular customers are ^{not //} friendly and <u>generous tippers</u> .	Most of our regular customers are friendly and tip generously.

Symbol	Meaning	Example of Error	Corrected Sentence
prep	preposition	We start serving dinner 6:00 p.m. ^{prep} ^	We start serving dinner at 6:00 p.m.
conj	conjunction	Garlic shrimp, fried clams, broiled lobster are the most popular dishes. ^{conj} ^	Garlic shrimp, fried clams, and broiled lobster are the most popular dishes.
art	article	Diners in the United States expect a glass of water when they first sit down. ^{art} ^	Diners in the United States expect a glass of water when they first sit down.
Ⓓ	add a transition	The new employee was careless. She frequently spilled coffee on the table. [Ⓓ]	The new employee was careless. For example, she frequently spilled coffee on the table.
¶	start a new paragraph		
nfs/nmp	needs further support/needs more proof. You need to add some specific details (examples, facts, quotations) to support your points.		

APPENDIX 35: The Comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD Learners' Perceptions of Written Feedback Before and After the Feedback Practices

			PRETEST						POSTTEST					
	ZPD	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann Whitney U	Z	Zpd vs. non-Zpd	Male vs. Female	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann Whitney U	Z	Zpd vs. non-Zpd	Female vs Male
1. Teacher's feedback helps me improve my writing.	ZPD	48	48,95	2300,5	1036,5	-0,647	0,517	0,688	50,84	2440,5	1087,5	-1,046	0,295	0,083
	Non-ZPD	49	46,05	2164,5					47,19	2312,5				
2. In general I am satisfied with my early feedback.	ZPD	48	15,68	313,5	103,5	-1,091	0,275	0,119	56,46	2710	818	-2,85	0,004	0,559
	Non-ZPD	49	19,04	247,5					41,69	2043				
3. I read the feedback from my previous writing and use this feedback in my next writing.	ZPD	48	16,72	384,5	108,5	-2,183	0,029	0,307	50,52	2425	1103	-0,69	0,490	0,577
	Non-ZPD	49	23,77	356,5					47,51	2328				
4. I take my teacher's feedback into consideration in my next writing.	ZPD	48	17,93	376,5	145,5	-0,443	0,658	0,7	50,95	2445,5	1082,5	-0,814	0,416	0,688
	Non-ZPD	49	19,3	289,5					47,09	2307,5				
5. My teacher explains the codes and symbols (SV, WW etc.) before giving feedback.	ZPD	48	16,15	274,5	116,5	-0,109	0,914	0,13	49,71	2386	1142	-0,263	0,792	0,194
	Non-ZPD	49	15,82	221,5					48,31	2367				
6. Different teachers have given me feedback in different ways by using different methods.	ZPD	48	18,92	378,5	111,5	-1,041	0,298	0,955	51,92	2492	1036	-1,037	0,300	0,930
	Non-ZPD	49	15,46	216,5					46,14	2261				
7. I understand my teachers' feedback on my writing.	ZPD	48	16,68	333,5	123,5	-0,274	0,784	0,392	51,01	2448,5	1079,5	-0,749	0,454	0,721
	Non-ZPD	49	17,5	227,5					47,03	2304,5				
8. I find my teachers' feedback system very helpful and motivating that is the reason why I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	ZPD	48	19,1	382	88	-1,713	0,087	0,68	50,96	2446	1082	-0,899	0,369	0,452
	Non-ZPD	49	13,77	179					47,08	2307				
9. I prefer my classmates to give me feedback on my writing.	ZPD	48	46,12	2214	1038	-1,042	0,297	0,306	50,41	2419,5	1108,5	-0,534	0,593	0,125
	Non-ZPD	49	51,82	2539					47,62	2333,5				
	ZPD	48	53,51	2568,5	959,5	-1,955	0,051	0,365	50,95	2445,5	1082,5	-1,106	0,269	0,089

10. I prefer my teacher to give me feedback on my writing.	Non-ZPD	49	44,58	2184,5					47,09	2307,5				
11. For my compositions, I prefer written feedback	ZPD	48	53,38	2562	966	-1,611	0,107	0,389	40,59	1948,5	772,5	-3,124	0,002	0,156
	Non-ZPD	49	44,71	2191					57,23	2804,5				
12. For my compositions, I prefer oral feedback.	ZPD	48	47,7	2289,5	1113,5	-0,466	0,642	0,579	53,05	2546,5	981,5	-1,441	0,149	0,359
	Non-ZPD	49	50,28	2463,5					45,03	2206,5				
13. For my compositions, I prefer both written and oral feedback.	ZPD	48	48,6	2333	1157	-0,15	0,881	0,615	55,12	2646	882	-2,374	0,018	0,002
	Non-ZPD	49	49,39	2420					43	2107				
14. I like it when the teacher corrects all the errors I make in my writing.	ZPD	48	50	2400	1128	-0,37	0,712	0,984	49,03	2353,5	1174,5	-0,012	0,991	0,916
	Non-ZPD	49	48,02	2353					48,97	2399,5				
15. I prefer my teacher not only correct my errors but also indicate them and ask me to correct them myself.	ZPD	48	51,45	2469,5	1058,5	-0,914	0,361	0,326	49,94	2397	1131	-0,37	0,711	0,399
	Non-ZPD	49	46,6	2283,5					48,08	2356				
16. I like it when the teacher corrects only the most serious errors I make in my writing.	ZPD	48	45,38	2178	1002	-1,312	0,189	0,325	47,84	2296,5	1120,5	-0,418	0,676	0,711
	Non-ZPD	49	52,55	2575					50,13	2456,5				
17. I prefer my teacher to indicate my errors rather than commenting on them.	ZPD	48	48,21	2314	1138	-0,284	0,777	0,48	45,26	2172,5	996,5	-1,374	0,169	0,481
	Non-ZPD	49	49,78	2439					52,66	2580,5				
18. It would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of my errors and just made some general comments	ZPD	48	48,39	2322,5	1146,5	-0,222	0,824	0,715	45,47	2182,5	1006,5	-1,266	0,206	0,514
	Non-ZPD	49	49,6	2430,5					52,46	2570,5				
19. I think it is better to write the feedback in the margins than at the end.	ZPD	48	48,6	2333	1157	-0,146	0,884	0,495	51,1	2453	1075	-0,769	0,442	0,688
	Non-ZPD	49	49,39	2420					46,94	2300				
20. I like it when the teacher uses codes or symbols to help me with the nature of my errors.	ZPD	48	48,98	2351	1175	-0,008	0,994	0,038	47,32	2271,5	1095,5	-0,617	0,537	0,012
	Non-ZPD	49	49,02	2402					50,64	2481,5				

21. I don't like it when my teacher comments only on what I did wrong and does not mention what I did well.	ZPD	48	48,33	2320	1144	-0,251	0,802	0,311	50,17	2408	1120	-0,457	0,648	0,258
	Non-ZPD	49	49,65	2433					47,86	2345				
22. The score I get is more important than my teachers corrections and comments on my composition.	ZPD	48	47,55	2282,5	1106,5	-0,531	0,595	0,678	40,97	1966,5	790,5	-2,912	0,004	0,966
	Non-ZPD	49	50,42	2470,5					56,87	2786,5				

APPENDIX 36: The Comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD Learners' Perceptions of Second Language Writing Anxiety Before and After the Feedback Practices

	PRETEST								POSTTEST							
	ZPD	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	ZPD	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	ZPD	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	ZPD	N	Mean Rank	
1. While writing in English, I get nervous.	ZPD	48	46.06	2211	1035	-1.053	0.292	0.51	ZPD	48	43.23	2075	2075	-2.056	0.04	0.14
	Non-ZPD	49	51.88	2542					49	54.65	2678					
3. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.	ZPD	48	43.99	2111.5	935.5	-1.797	0.072	0.259	ZPD	48	45.36	2177.5	2177.5	-1.329	0.184	0.592
	Non-ZPD	49	53.91	2641.5					49	52.56	2575.5					
7. I worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others.	ZPD	48	47.73	2291	1115	-0.453	0.651	0.002	ZPD	48	46.41	2227.5	2227.5	-0.919	0.358	0.013
	Non-ZPD	49	50.24	2462					49	51.54	2525.5					
8. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.	ZPD	48	48.95	2349.5	1173.5	-0.019	0.985	0.015	ZPD	48	44.79	2150	2150	-1.511	0.131	0.026
	Non-ZPD	49	49.05	2403.5					49	53.12	2603					
12. I am afraid that the other students would deride my English composition if they read it.	ZPD	48	42.53	2041.5	865.5	-2.319	0.020	0.001	ZPD	48	42.8	2054.5	2054.5	-2.226	0.026	0.129
	Non-ZPD	49	55.34	2711.5					49	55.07	2698.5					
15. I don't worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.	ZPD	48	47.65	2287	1111	-0.481	0.631	0.014	ZPD	48	53.69	2577	2176	-1.675	0.094	0.5
	Non-ZPD	49	50.33	2466					49	44.41	2176					
16. I am afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.	ZPD	48	48.21	2314	1138	-0.282	0.778	0.015	ZPD	48	46.62	2238	2238	-0.849	0.396	0.014
	Non-ZPD	49	49.78	2439					49	51.33	2515					
19. I am afraid that my English compositions would be rated as very poor.	ZPD	48	46.31	2223	1047	-1.004	0.785	0.024	ZPD	48	46.69	2241	2241	-0.825	0.409	0.019
	Non-ZPD	49	51.63	2530					49	51.27	2512					
2. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.	ZPD	48	46.64	2238.5	1062.5	-0.842	0.315	0.088	ZPD	48	45.57	2187.5	2187.5	-1.238	0.216	0.048
	Non-ZPD	49	51.32	2514.5					49	52.36	2565.5					
6. My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.	ZPD	48	46.97	2254.5	1078.5	-0.731	0.400	0.01	ZPD	48	46.05	2210.5	2210.5	-1.043	0.297	0.075
	Non-ZPD	49	50.99	2498.5					49	51.89	2542.5					
10. My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.	ZPD	48	48.24	2315.5	1139.5	-0.273	0.465	0.147	ZPD	48	46	2208	2208	-1.069	0.285	0.007
	Non-ZPD	49	49.74	2437.5					49	51.94	2545					

13. I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.	ZPD	48	48.93	2348.5	1172.5	-0.026	0.979	0.38	48	47.79	2294	2294	-0.435	0.664	0.036
	Non-ZPD	49	49.07	2404.5					49	50.18	2459				
7. I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when write English compositions.	ZPD	48	44.83	2152	976	-1.503	0.133	0.146	48	41.81	2007	2007	-2.569	0.01	0.1
	Non-ZPD	49	53.08	2601					49	56.04	2746				
20. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.	ZPD	48	44.54	2138	962	-1.596	0.111	0.466	48	45.41	2179.5	2179.5	-1.292	0.196	0.178
	Non-ZPD	49	53.37	2615					49	52.52	2573.5				
8. My body starts shaking when I write English compositions.	ZPD	48	42.97	2062.5	886.5	-2.262	0.024	0.948	48	47.96	2302	2302	-0.413	0.679	0.148
	Non-ZPD	49	54.91	2690.5					49	50.02	2451				
4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in Turkish and translate them into English.	ZPD	48	43	2064	888	-2.13	0.033	0.006	48	37.92	1820	1820	-3.935	0.000	0.032
	Non-ZPD	49	54.88	2689					49	59.86	2933				
9. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.	ZPD	48	49.02	2353	1175	-0.007	0.994	0.886	48	46.59	2236.5	2236.5	-0.864	0.388	0.457
	Non-ZPD	49	48.98	2400					49	51.36	2516.5				
9. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English (e.g., social media).	ZPD	48	47.31	2271	1095	-0.624	0.533	0.086	48	47.16	2263.5	2263.5	-0.661	0.508	0.154
	Non-ZPD	49	50.65	2482					49	50.81	2489.5				
11. I would use English to write compositions.	ZPD	48	48.3	2318.5	1142.5	-0.257	0.797	0.262	48	50.28	2413.5	2339.5	-0.475	0.635	0.786
	Non-ZPD	49	49.68	2434.5					49	47.74	2339.5				
14. I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.	ZPD	48	51.21	2458	1070	-0.804	0.421	0.014	48	47.04	2258	2258	-0.712	0.476	0.117
	Non-ZPD	49	46.84	2295					49	50.92	2495				
17. I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.	ZPD	48	51.44	2469	1059	-0.877	0.380	0.636	48	53.65	2575	2178	-1.679	0.093	0.158
	Non-ZPD	49	46.61	2284					49	44.45	2178				
21. I don't feel nervous when I happen to show my writings to my peers.	ZPD	48	51.25	2460	1068	-0.805	0.421	0.375	48	50.36	2417.5	2335.5	-0.494	0.621	0.12
	Non-ZPD	49	46,8	2293					49	47,66	2335,5				

APPENDIX 37: The comparison of ZPD and non-ZPD Learners' Perceptions of L2 Writing Before and After the Feedback Practices

	ZPD	N	PRE						POST					
			Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann WhitneyU	Z	Zpd vs. non-Zpd	Male vs. Female	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann WhitneyU	Z	Zpd vs. non-Zpd	Female vs Male
1. I think knowing the knowledge of the topic I am writing about in L2, makes L2 writing easier.	ZPD	48	51.96	2494	1034	-1.129	0.250	0.25065	52.5	2518.5	1009.5	-1.368	0.171	0.115
	NON-ZPD	49	46.10	2259					45.6	2234.5				
2. I believe I need to use L2 writing with people outside the classroom.	ZPD	48	52.75	2532	996	-1.488	0.137	0.321	57.4	2754.5	773.5	-3.16	0.002	0.11
	NON-ZPD	49	45.33	2221					40.8	1998.5				
3. I think I need to improve my L2 writing.	ZPD	48	49.65	2383	1145	-0.278	0.781	0.707	33.8	1620	444	-5.748	0	0.298
	NON-ZPD	49	48.37	2370					63.9	3133				
4. I believe I need to be exposed to L2 native writers' styles.	ZPD	48	47.66	2287.5	1112	-0.504	0.614	0.179	40.6	1948	772	-3.135	0.002	0.463
	NON-ZPD	49	50.32	2465.5					57.2	2805				
5. I think I experience difficulties writing issues about L2 culture.	ZPD	48	50.66	2431.5	1097	-0.6	0.548	0.514	49.9	2395.5	1132.5	-0.327	0.744	0.01
	NON-ZPD	49	47.38	2321.5					48.1	2357.5				
6. I have the strategy to recognize my errors during my revision	ZPD	48	49.34	2368.5	1160	-0.128	0.898	0.514	60.2	2889	639	-4.174	0	0.126
	NON-ZPD	49	48.66	2384.5					38.0	1864				
7. I need to know how to express what I really want to say easily in L2 writing.	ZPD	48	47.16	2263.5	1088	-0.687	0.492	0.025	51.2	2456.5	1071.5	-0.803	0.422	0.012
	NON-ZPD	49	50.81	2489.5					46.9	2296.5				
8. I think I can write to different readers easily.	ZPD	48	50.47	2422.5	1106	-0.533	0.594	0.196	49.5	2374	1154	-0.167	0.867	0.506
	NON-ZPD	49	47.56	2330.5					48.6	2379				
9. I have confidence to show my writing to my peers.	ZPD	48	52.51	2520.5	1008	-1.299	0.194	0.145	57.9	2778	750	-3.219	0.001	0.922
	NON-ZPD	49	45.56	2232.5					40.3	1975				
10. I am confident to receive any criticism for my writing from my readers.	ZPD	48	52.58	2524	1004	-1.321	0.186	0.035	52.7	2529	999	-1.374	0.17	0.48
	NON-ZPD	49	45.49	2229					45.4	2224				
11. I write in L2 because I need it in my daily life.	ZPD	48	51.56	2475	1053	-0.945	0.344	0.051	47.9	2297.5	1121.5	-0.416	0.677	0.588
	NON-ZPD	49	46.49	2278					50.1	2455.5				
	ZPD	48	48.65	2335	1159	-0.127	0.899	0.862	49.5	2375.5	1152.5	-0.175	0.861	0.887

12. When I write, my purpose is to give my audience good impression about myself.	NON-ZPD	49	49.35	2418					48.5	2377.5				
13. I only write to my L2 writing teacher.	ZPD	48	46.58	2236	1060	-0.867	0.386	0.479	45.0	2158.5	982.5	-1.44	0.15	0.078
	NON-ZPD	49	51.37	2517					53.0	2594.5				
14. I practice writing regularly, because I want to be a good L2 writer.	ZPD	48	47.46	2278	1102	-0.56	0.575	0.111	50.7	2434.5	1093.5	-0.624	0.533	0.439
	NON-ZPD	49	50.51	2475					47.3	2318.5				
15. I have to be a good L2 writer for my future career	ZPD	48	49.25	2364	1164	-0.115	0.908	0.976	52.3	2512	1016	-1.475	0.14	0.454
	NON-ZPD	49	48.76	2389					45.7	2241				
16. My L1 and L2 readers' positive feedback encourages me to write.	ZPD	48	53.69	2577	951	-2.08	0.038	0.381	51.8	2488.5	1039.5	-1.244	0.213	0.115
	NON-ZPD	49	44.41	2176					46.2	2264.5				
17. Writing is my best method that I use to express my feeling on paper.	ZPD	48	50.09	2404.5	1124	-0.392	0.695	0.868	50.3	2416.5	1111.5	-0.487	0.626	0.321
	NON-ZPD	49	47.93	2348.5					47.7	2336.5				
18. I write because I believe that, L2 writing accuracy will help me to be a professional person at work.	ZPD	48	49.89	2394.5	1134	-0.365	0.715	0.06	55.9	2684	844	-2.796	0.005	0.174
	NON-ZPD	49	48.13	2358.5					42.2	2069				
19. My negative previous learning experience will not stop me from improving my L2 writing.	ZPD	48	53.68	2576.5	951.5	-1.705	0.088	0.492	52.0	2495	1033	-1.084	0.278	0.851
	NON-ZPD	49	44.42	2176.5					46.1	2258				
20. My good writing in my first language makes me love writing in L2.	ZPD	48	55.67	2672	856	-2.465	0.014	0.119	54.5	2615.5	912.5	-2.009	0.045	0.708
	NON-ZPD	49	42.47	2081					43.6	2137.5				
21. Writing for different readers (teacher, classmates, friends on social media etc.) encourages me to write.	ZPD	48	51.00	2448	1080	-0.728	0.466	0.866	51.5	2469.5	1058.5	-0.894	0.371	0.415
	NON-ZPD	49	47.04	2305					46.6	2283.5				
22. Writing skill can best be improved through outside sources (film, pen pals, dictionary etc.) rather than school.	ZPD	48	46.85	2249	1073	-0.78	0.435	0.105	54.5	2617	911	-2.012	0.044	0.237
	NON-ZPD	49	51.10	2504					43.6	2136				
23. I do not have difficulty in writing something about my own culture.	ZPD	48	49.92	2396	1132	-0.34	0.734	0.484	50.2	2409.5	1118.5	-0.436	0.663	0.978
	NON-ZPD	49	48,10	2357					47.8	2343.5				

APPENDIX 38: English Paragraph Writing Self-Efficacy

			PRETEST					POSTTEST				
	ZPD	N	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
1. I can easily write a paragraph.	ZPD	48	49.58	20.52	1.044	95	.299	71.46	16.76	4.304	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	45.10	21.71	1.045	94.880	.299	56.53	17.39	4.306	94.976	.000
2. I can easily spell the words.	ZPD	48	62.60	20.88	1.183	95	.240	76.15	17.45	3.790	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	57.02	25.34	1.185	92.310	.239	60.82	22.06	3.799	90.984	.000
3. I can write an appropriate topic sentence.	ZPD	48	55.00	19.24	.998	95	.321	77.29	17.59	3.290	95	.001
	non-ZPD	49	50.61	23.75	1.001	91.783	.320	64.69	20.01	3.295	93.918	.001
4. I can use the mechanics appropriately.	ZPD	48	66.46	23.83	.982	95	.329	69.38	19.40	2.518	95	.013
	non-ZPD	49	61.22	28.40	.984	92.823	.328	58.78	21.95	2.522	94.014	.013
5. I can make sentences without grammar mistakes.	ZPD	48	53.54	22.45	1.463	95	.147	67.29	17.59	4.615	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	46.63	24.01	1.464	94.799	.146	48.78	21.66	4.625	91.865	.000
6. I can use singular/plural forms appropriately.	ZPD	48	72.29	20.65	1.339	95	.184	80.83	17.11	2.600	95	.011
	non-ZPD	49	66.02	25.19	1.342	92.164	.183	71.02	19.92	2.604	93.419	.011
7. I can use transition words appropriately.	ZPD	48	73.65	18.84	3.178	95	.002	82.08	13.36	3.210	95	.002
	non-ZPD	49	59.39	24.87	3.187	89.394	.002	72.24	16.62	3.217	91.547	.002
8. I can use prepositions appropriately.	ZPD	48	62.60	18.79	3.019	95	.003	72.08	15.01	4.663	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	49.59	23.36	3.026	91.562	.003	55.71	19.26	4.674	90.469	.000
9. I can use the appropriate words.	ZPD	48	58.33	17.42	1.540	95	.127	72.60	16.44	4.068	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	51.84	23.60	1.545	88.341	.126	55.71	23.72	4.083	85.597	.000
10. I can support my sentences appropriately.	ZPD	48	65.31	18.95	1.597	95	.113	80.73	13.37	4.497	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	58.37	23.57	1.601	91.531	.113	63.67	22.70	4.520	78.013	.000
11. I can organize my thoughts appropriately.	ZPD	48	60.06	21.00	1.698	95	.093	79.38	13.90	4.833	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	51.84	26.35	1.702	91.245	.092	62.24	20.34	4.852	84.964	.000
12. I can write a concluding sentence appropriately.	ZPD	48	57.92	19.78	.379	95	.706	78.54	16.37	3.097	95	.003
	non-ZPD	49	56.12	26.36	.380	89.004	.705	67.14	19.69	3.103	92.579	.003
13. I can write a paragraph without irrelevant sentences.	ZPD	48	60.21	18.51	1.586	95	.116	81.04	12.42	4.628	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	53.37	23.62	1.590	90.660	.115	64.49	21.51	4.653	77.100	.000
14. I can use synonyms appropriately.	ZPD	48	57.50	22.92	1.445	95	.152	78.02	14.90	3.518	95	.001

	non-ZPD	49	50.31	25.99	1.447	93.981	.151	63.27	25.03	3.536	78.517	.001
15. I can write appropriate supporting sentences.	ZPD	48	56.98	17.06	1.842	95	.069	75.63	14.72	2.540	95	.013
	non-ZPD	49	49.18	23.96	1.848	86.801	.068	64.08	27.91	2.555	73.108	.013
16. I can present my ideas in unity.	ZPD	48	59.48	17.81	2.242	95	.027	79.17	13.50	5.057	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	50.20	22.59	2.248	90.876	.027	60.82	21.30	5.079	81.464	.000
17. I can easily discuss my ideas when writing.	ZPD	48	55.42	20.52	1.756	95	.082	74.79	16.76	4.578	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	47.76	22.39	1.758	94.588	.082	56.94	21.33	4.589	90.747	.000
18. I can provide examples, facts and details to support my ideas.	ZPD	48	61.88	18.30	1.437	95	.154	79.58	14.43	4.768	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	55.71	23.54	1.441	90.357	.153	60.61	23.58	4.790	79.823	.000
19. I can present my ideas clearly.	ZPD	48	60.94	22.21	.868	95	.388	77.50	16.82	3.686	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	56.73	25.36	.869	93.837	.387	63.06	21.43	3.695	90.722	.000
20. I can find my mistakes easily.	ZPD	48	52.50	19.95	.493	95	.623	64.69	13.74	4.439	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	50.41	21.79	.493	94.570	.623	48.37	21.54	4.458	81.746	.000
21. I can write in different genres (narration, description, cause-effect etc.) easily.	ZPD	48	44.38	19.78	1.737	95	.086	68.54	13.99	5.957	95	.000
	non-ZPD	49	36.94	22.29	1.739	94.092	.085	47.76	19.82	5.977	86.415	.000
22. I can submit my assignments on time.	ZPD	48	86.46	13.17	2.596	95	.011	81.15	26.60	2.348	95	.021
	non-ZPD	49	74.49	29.16	2.614	67.092	.011	67.96	28.65	2.350	94.732	.021
23. I can benefit from different sources (dictionaries, the Internet etc.) effectively.	ZPD	48	90.10	12.05	1.440	95	.153	87.40	18.57	.474	95	.636
	non-ZPD	49	85.51	18.60	1.446	82.471	.152	85.51	20.52	.475	94.410	.636

Appendix 39: Rubric Used When Grading Examination Documents

	30-27	26-22	21-17	16-13
C O N T E N T	<p>Suits audience= an exceptionally strong sense of audience; the writer seems to be aware of the reader and of how to communicate the message most effectively.</p> <p>One idea expressed. Supporting, relevant, carefully selected details= when appropriate, use of resources provides strong, accurate, credible support.</p> <p>Creative, an easily identifiable purpose</p>	<p>A sense of audience =the writer seems to be aware of the reader, but has not consistently employed an appropriate voice.</p> <p>A loosely expressed idea, Some specific development, mostly relevant to topic= content and selected details that are relevant, but perhaps not consistently well-chosen for audience and purpose.</p>	<p>A limited sense of audience= the writer’s awareness of the reader is unclear.</p> <p>Non-specific statement and incomplete development, Insufficient details= little relevance, minimal development of main idea;, irrelevant details that clutter the text,</p>	<p>A lack of audience awareness =there is little or no sense of “writing to be read. No clear development =too short to demonstrate the development of an idea, Not related details</p> <p>Lack of focus,</p>
O R G A N I Z A T I O N	20-18	17-14	13-10	9-7
	<p>Effective lead/topic sentence=effective, perhaps creative, sequencing; the organizational structure fits the topic, and the writing is easy to follow, a strong, inviting beginning that draws the reader in A strong, satisfying sense of resolution or closure. Smooth, effective transitions among all elements =(sentences, paragraphs, ideas), logical order (time-space-importance) effective connecting/transitional words, conclusion</p>	<p>Adequate lead/ topic sentence= effective sequencing; the organizational structure fits the topic an inviting beginning that draws the reader in A satisfying sense of resolution or closure, Some connecting/ transitional words= logical, but incomplete order,</p>	<p>Weak lead, topic sentence= attempts at sequencing, but the order or the relationship among ideas may occasionally be unclear, a recognizable beginning that may not be particularly inviting; Weak sense of resolution and conclusion Some connecting/transitional words= not all placed appropriately</p>	<p>Weak or no lead/ topic sentence= a missing or extremely undeveloped beginning, body, and/or ending, some attempts at sequencing, but the order of the relationship among ideas is frequently unclear A lack of transitions, or when present, ineffective or overused transitions= a lack of an effective organizational structure. details that seem to be randomly placed, leaving the reader frequently confused</p>
V O C A B U L A R Y	20-18	17-14	13-10	9-7
	<p>Effective word use=Correct word forms, accurate, strong, specific words; powerful words, fresh, original expression, ordinary words used in an unusual way, meaning clear, effective word choice and description/ figurative language</p>	<p>Mostly effective word use=Mostly correct word forms,(words that are accurate for the most part, although misused words may occasionally appear) meaning understandable, adequate word choice, fresh, vivid expression; ordinary words used in an unusual way, some description/ figurative language</p>	<p>Some effective word use=Many incorrect word forms, meaning obscure, words that work but do not particularly energize the writing, attempts at colourful language that may sometimes seem overdone, some variety in word choice, rare experiments with language; however, the writing may have some fine moments and generally avoids clichés, little description/ figurative language,</p>	<p>Limited word choice, words that work, but that rarely capture the reader’s interest, little or no meaning, expression that seems mundane and general, reliance on clichés and overused expressions; generic, basic</p>
L A N G U A G E	25-22	21-18	17-11	10-5
	<p>Sentence variety= extensive variation in sentence structure, length and beginnings that add interest to the text. Sentence structure= that</p>	<p>Sentence variety= variation in sentence structure, length and beginnings that add interest to the text, Sentence structure= Most of the</p>	<p>Sentence variety= some variety in sentence structure, length, and beginnings</p> <p>Sentence structure = strong control over simple sentence structures, but variable control over more complex sentences;</p>	<p>Sentence variety= some variety in sentence structure, length, and beginnings, although the writer falls into repetitive sentence patterns Sentence structures= good control over</p>

<p>G E U S E</p>	<p>enhances meaning by drawing attention to key ideas or reinforcing relationships among ideas, complete sentences= strong control over sentence structure; fragments, if used at all, work well. correct verb tenses, correct word order, agreement</p>	<p>sentences are carefully crafted, with strong and varied structure that makes expressive oral reading easy and enjoyable. Mostly complete sentences= control over sentence structure; fragments, if used at all, work well. Several errors in verb tense, Few mistakes in word order, agreement, articles, negatives, run-ons</p>	<p>fragments, if present, are usually effective Some incomplete sentences, Some inconsistent verb tense, Some mistake in word order, agreement, articles, negatives, run-ons.</p>	<p>simple sentence structures, but little control over more complex sentences; fragments, if present, may not be effective. Incomplete sentences= largely phrases, Random verb tense, word order, agreement, articles, negatives,</p>
5	4	3	2	
<p>M E C H A N I C S</p>	<p>Mastery of spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, strong control of conventions; manipulation of conventions may occur for stylistic effect.. strong effective use of punctuation that guides the reader through the text. correct spelling, even of more difficult words. skill in using a wide range of conventions in a sufficiently long and complex piece. little need for editing.</p>	<p>Occasional errors in spelling, capitalization, and use of commas, periods, and apostrophes, effective use of punctuation that guides the reader through the text. Mostly correct spelling, even of more difficult words. little need for editing</p>	<p>Frequent errors in spelling, capitalization, and use of commas, periods, and apostrophes, correct end-of-sentence punctuation; internal punctuation my sometimes be incorrect,</p>	<p>Dominated by errors in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, end-of-sentence punctuation that is usually correct; however, internal punctuation contains frequent errors. spelling errors that distract the reader; misspelling of common words occurs. paragraphs that sometimes run together or begin at ineffective places. capitalization errors. errors in grammar and usage that do not block meaning but do distract the reader. significant need for editing.</p>

CURRICULUM VITAE

Hasan SAĞLAMEL was born in Bucak, Burdur, in 1980. He attended Cumhuriyet Primary School and İmam-Hatip Secondary School in Bucak. Between 1995-1999, he studied at Bucak Super High School, where he received language intensified courses. In 1999, he attended the English Language and Literature Department of Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon. After receiving his BA as a top-scoring student in 2004, he started working as a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages at Karadeniz Technical University. He did his MA in Applied Linguistics at the same university. He is currently employed as a lecturer in the same school, and his research interests include writing in EFL contexts, creative drama, language testing, language learner/teacher psychology and teacher education.

He is married with one daughter. Besides his mother tongue, Turkish, he speaks English and German.