



**THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT WRITTEN CORRECTIVE
FEEDBACK TYPES ON LEARNER AUTONOMY IN WRITING
SKILL**

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M.A. THESIS

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*To my dear mother Ülkü,
beloved wife Hayat,
lovely daughter Ebrar
and her future sibling...*

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ÖZ

Dil eğitimindeki en önemli sorunlardan biri kalabalık sınıflar ve yalnızca bir öğretmenin meşgul olduğu öğrenci sayısıdır. Bazı dil öğretmenleri her yıl yaklaşık 600 öğrenciye ders vermek zorundadır ve bazı sınıfların nüfusu bazı okullarda veya üniversitelerde 70 öğrenciye ulaşabilir. Ayrıca, Türkiye'deki çoğu üniversitedeki müfredat programına göre birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin haftalık programında dil eğitimi için sadece iki saat ayrılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, tüm öğrencilerin her bir becerideki ilerlemelerini takip etmek her zaman mümkün olmayabilir ve bu da öğrencilerin konuşma, dinleme ve yazma gibi bazı becerilere daha az önem vermesine ya da hiç önem vermemesine yol açabilir. Bu tür becerilerin gelişimini engelleyen bir başka faktör de, sınıfların aşırı kalabalık olmasından dolayı tercih edilen ölçme yöntemidir. Pek çok öğrencinin konuşma, dinleme ve yazma becerilerini kısa sürede değerlendirmek ve onlara her beceri için bireysel geri bildirim vermek her zaman kolay ve mümkün olmayabilir. Bu nedenle hem öğrenciler hem de öğretmenler, çoğu sınavda öğrencilerin sadece kelime bilgisi, dil bilgisi ve okuma becerisine odaklanmaktadır. Öğrenen özerkliği, öz-yönelimli öğrenmenin temeli olarak kabul edildiğinden (Gremmo, 1998) ve öğrencinin kendi öğrenmesini yönetebilmesi için gerekli koşulları sağladığından dolayı, bu durumun Türkiye'deki diğer üniversitelerin çoğu ve diğer bazı ülkelerdeki üniversiteler için de geçerli olduğu da varsayılarak, öğrencilerin daha özerk olmalarına yardımcı olmak, bu soruna bir çözüm olarak kabul edilebilir. Bu bağlamda bağımsız öğrencilerin ve vatandaşların her durumda kendi yollarını bulmalarını sağlamak da çok önemlidir.

(Thanasoulas, 2000). Bu çalışmanın amacı, 3 farklı yazılı düzeltici öğretmen geri bildirim türünün (öğretmen tarafından düzeltilmiş geri bildirim türü, altı çizilmiş geri bildirim türü ve kodlanmış geri bildirim türü) öğrencilerin yazma becerisindeki özerklik düzeylerinin gelişimine etkisini incelemektir. Değişim sadece öğrencilerin bir bütün olarak özerklik düzeylerinde değil, aynı zamanda özerklik kavramını oluşturan bazı alt bölümlerde de incelenecektir. Veri toplama ve analiz süreçlerinde nicel araştırma tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin özerklik düzeyleri, eğitim sürecinden önce ve sonra yapılan anketlerle ölçülmüştür. Denemeye başlamadan önce, bir grup A2 seviyesindeki İngilizce öğrencisi rastgele seçilmiştir. 2019 sonbahar döneminin başında, her grubun ortalama öğrenen özerklik seviyesini belirlemek için 3 grubun hepsine ön test olarak bir öğrenen özerkliği anketi uygulanmıştır. Aynı öğrenim özerkliği anketi, farklı yazma görevlerini içeren 10 haftalık bir yazma eğitim sürecinden sonra, son test olarak uygulanmıştır. Farklı gruptaki öğrencilere aşağıdaki gibi farklı düzeltici geri bildirim türleri verilmiştir; açık düzeltme türü geri bildirim, altı çizili geri bildirim türü, kodlu geri bildirim türü. Deneyin sonunda, her üç gruptaki değişiklikler SPSS 18 istatistik aracı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Kodlanmış geri bildirim türünün yazma becerisinde öğrenen özerkliği üzerinde olumlu etkiye sahip olduğu sonucuna ulaşılrken, diğer iki geri bildirim türünün ise herhangi bir etkisi olmadığı saptanmıştır.

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ABSTRACT

One of the most outstanding problems in language education is crowded classrooms and the number of students with whom only one teacher is engaged. Some language teachers have to teach more than 600 students each year and the population of some classes may reach up to 70 students at some schools or universities. Moreover, only two hours are allocated for language education in the weekly schedule of the first grade students in accordance with the syllabi of most universities in Turkey. Consequently, it may not always be possible to follow all the students' progress in each specific skill and this leads students to give less, or even worse, no importance to some skills such as speaking, listening and writing. Another obstacle hindering the development of such skills is the type of testing resulting from the crowd in classes. It may not always be so easy and possible to assess so many students' speaking, listening and writing abilities in a short time and give them individual feedback for each skill. Therefore, both language learners and teachers focus only on vocabulary knowledge, grammar knowledge and reading comprehension ability since they are the only fields which learners are asked about in most examinations. Assuming this situation is true for most of the other universities in Turkey and some other countries in the world, helping language learners become more autonomous is considered to be a solution for this problem

since language learner autonomy is accepted as the basis for self-directed learning (Gremmo, 1998) and it provides the required conditions for a learner to be able to manage his/her own learning. Supporting independent students and citizens to find their own ways under any situation is also accepted crucial in this context (Thanasoulas, 2000). The aim of this study is to examine the positive effects of 3 different written corrective teacher feedback types (explicit correction type of feedback, underlined type of feedback and coded type of feedback) on the development of the autonomy levels of the language learners in writing skill. The change will be examined not only in learners' autonomy levels as a whole, but also in some sub-sections composing the autonomy concept. Quantitative research design was used in data collection and analysis processes. The autonomy levels of the language learners were measured by means of questionnaires before and after the treatment. Before starting the experiment, a group of A2 level of English learners were randomly selected. At the beginning of the fall term in 2019, a learner autonomy questionnaire was administered as pre tests to all 3 groups in order to define each group's average learner autonomy level. The same learner autonomy test was administered as the post-test after a 10-week' writing education process which included different writing tasks. Language learners in different groups were given different types of corrective feedback as follows; explicit correction type of feedback, underlined type of feedback, coded type of feedback. At the end of the experiment, the changes in all 3 groups were analyzed using SPSS 18 statistics tool. It was concluded that coded type of feedback has a positive effect on the promotion of learner autonomy in writing skill, while the other two types of feedback do not have any positive effects on learner autonomy in writing skill.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR Common European Framework Reference

CRAPEL Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

The general outline of the study will be presented in this chapter. Firstly, the background of the study will be provided and then, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study and the importance of the study will be given. The assumptions and also the limitations of the study will be discussed in this part.

1.2. Background of the Study

Learning and using a language are the essential conditions for communication to take place but it may not always be possible to find the appropriate place, time, teacher and atmosphere to learn a language. Therefore, language learners must be aware of their own abilities and have knowledge about the required procedures and materials which are appropriate for their own level. Since language teachers are not always able to provide information **for** their learners, helping their students become autonomous learners is a much more convenient way to teach them a language.

Holec (1981) states that learner autonomy is “to take charge of one’s own learning [which] is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this

learning” (p.3) while Benson (2001) highlights that learner control of the cognitive processes involved in language learning is a crucial factor in what is learned. The importance of the promotion of learner autonomy can be exemplified by Nunan’s (1996) statement, “learners tend to follow their own agendas rather than those of their teachers. Besides, Dakin (1973) points out the factor of learner autonomy by saying that “though the teacher may control the experiences the learner is exposed to, it is the learner who selects what is learnt from them”. Benson (2001) states in his study that autonomous learners are more successful compared to non-autonomous learners in language learning. According to Gremmo (1998), learner autonomy is accepted as the basis for self-directed learning. It provides the required conditions for a learner to be able to manage his/her own learning. The learner is ready to do it once s/he discovers his/her own abilities, preferences, reasons to study and favourite learning styles thanks to autonomous learning principles

According to Gremmo (1998), learner autonomy is accepted as the starting point for self directed learning. Accordingly, it not only helps identify educational objectives, but also requires the regulation of psychological and strategic planning skills. It is also essential for supporting independent students and citizens to find their own ways under any situation (Thanasoulas, 2000). Learner autonomy makes it possible to activate the use of out-of-class activities (Lindstromberg & Boers, 2008) and learner-centred activities (Miller, Shuk-Ching & Hopkins, 2007).

Another function of learner autonomy is that it helps learners become more responsible for their own learning, become more intrinsically orientated and more challengeable and gain more confidence in the course (Chang, 2005). Thus, it encourages learners to learn languages more confidently, participate in the activities and do the tasks with less hesitation and more motivation in a classroom environment. It also holds the importance since it leads the way to lifelong learning (Mensch & Rahschulte, 2008).

Once the learner gets to know how to arrange his time and study plan according to his own level, he can use it in many fields throughout his life. As Little (2005) asserts, it plays a key

role in identifying individual's learning goals, selecting his learning focus, monitoring his learning progress and evaluating his learning outcomes.

Learner autonomy also comes into the fore as it encourages language awareness, self awareness, awareness of learning goals and awareness of learning options (Simard, 2004; cited in Porto, 2007). In this sense, the present value of the notion of autonomy to language teachers may well lie in its practical use both in the classroom environment and out of class studies.

Several studies have been carried out on learner autonomy both in Turkey and around the world, however the researcher could find no previous study examining the effects of corrective teacher feedback types on the development of learner autonomy. That is why it was a great necessity to conduct such a study.

The study attempted to shed light on the positive effects of different corrective teacher feedback types given in writing courses on the promotion of learner autonomy regarding the idea of searching for ways of making learners more autonomous in learning how to write in a foreign language.

1.3.Statement of the Problem

Dickinson (1995) points out that if learners are actively and independently involved in their own learning, their motivation levels increase, and in turn they learn more effectively. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that adults do not know how to formulate their own learning objectives, diagnose their own needs for learning, assess their own learning, identify learning resources and planning strategies for taking the initiative in using those resources and have their assessments validated (Balcikanli, 2006). It is highly possible that Turkish learners of English may have similar learning habits since it is a well-known fact that teacher-centered practices have been widely used in the process of teaching English (Knowles, 1980). Dokuz (2009) depicts the situation in Turkey stating that educators in Turkey are considered “a mechanical figure who sovereigns the whole class and has a potential of supervising and

directing students' behaviors about what to do, how to do it, what to learn, how to learn it, or what to read outside the classroom”.

Although learner-centered practices have started to be preferred to teacher-centered practices in language teaching methodology recently, some language teachers or institutions may still be adopting teacher-centered practices which may result in an obstacle in developing learners' autonomy. Consequently, language learners may feel overdependent on their teachers or course designers in the process of language learning if inappropriate teaching practices are used.

Just as different practices are adopted by different educators in language teaching, it is also true for the process of teaching different skills including writing. Since teacher-centered practices in writing such as giving correction type of feedback are assumed to hinder the development of learner autonomy, more learner-centered writing practices such as giving underlined or coded type of feedback need to be checked in terms of their contribution to development of learner autonomy.

One of the most outstanding problems in language education is crowded classrooms and the number of students with whom only one teacher is engaged. The researcher himself, who has to teach language approximately 600 students each year and the population of some classes may reach up to 70 students at the university where he teaches, is an example and witness of this situation. Moreover, only two hours are allocated for language education in the weekly schedule of the first grade students in accordance with the syllabus. Consequently, it may not always be possible to follow all the students progress in each specific skill and this leads students to give less, or even worse, no importance to some skills such as speaking, listening and writing. Another obstacle hindering the development of such skills is the type of testing resulting from the crowd in classes. It may not always be so easy and possible to assess so many students' speaking, listening and writing abilities in a short time and give them individual feedback for each skill. Therefore, both language learners and teachers focus only on vocabulary knowledge, grammar knowledge and reading

comprehension ability since they are the only fields which learners are asked about in most examinations.

Assuming this situation is true for most of the other universities in Turkey and some other countries in the world, helping language learners become more autonomous is considered to be a solution for this problem since learner autonomy is accepted as the basis for self-directed learning (Gremmo, 1998) and it provides a language learner with the required conditions to be able to manage his/her own learning. It is also considered to be essential for supporting independent students and citizens to find their own ways under any situation (Thanasoulas, 2000). Consequently, this study has been designed to provide us with insights into the problems mentioned above.

1.4. Aim of the Study

The main objective of this research is to examine the positive effects of three different types of corrective feedback (correction type of feedback, underlined type of feedback and coded type of feedback) in writing skill on learner autonomy. The sample will be divided into three equivalent groups randomly and the positive effects of each type of feedback on autonomy levels of the learners will be examined separately. To be more specific, the study aims at finding answers to the following research questions:

1. Does correction type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?
2. Does underlined type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?
3. Does coded type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?
4. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “readiness for learner autonomy” in writing skill?

5. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “independent writing” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?
6. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “assessment and evaluation” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?
7. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing activity knowledge” in the context of learner autonomy?
8. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing strategy use” in the context of learner autonomy?
9. Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “responsibility” in the context of learner autonomy?

The most effective ways of giving written corrective feedback are supposed to be discovered by answering these questions.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Esch (1996) highlights the significance of learner autonomy in education expressing that autonomy has formed views on education in Europe for many years, especially through the effect of the work of the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe.

The concept of ‘learner autonomy’ has long been discussed in the field of education and it has attracted the attention of the researchers since its emergence. Thus, several studies related to autonomy have been carried out in the past decades both in Turkey and in other countries in the world.

In Turkey, a large number of research studies have been carried out on autonomy related to; portfolio implementation (Egel, 2003; Isler, 2005; Koyuncu, 2006; Kose, 2006; Ogmen, 2011; Servi, 2010), academic achievement (Akbas, 2011; Arkoc, 2008; Ciftci, 2011; Gokgoz, 2008; Kucuroglu, 1997), the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students (Balcikanli, 2010; Barlas, 2012; Baylan, 2007; Coban, 2002; Dislen, 2010; Dokuz, 2009;

Durmus, 2006; Ilgaz, 2011; Ozdere, 2005; Sabanci, 2007; Sancar, 2001; Tursun, 2010; Yapiorer, 2013; Yildirim, 2005), self-access (Bolat, 1995; Cephe, 1987; Demirtas, 1996; Kocaturk, 2011), culture of learning (Karabiyik, 2008) and blended learning environments (Bitlis, 2011; Mutlu, 2008).

The topic “fostering or promoting learner autonomy” has also been dealt with by some researchers among whom are Balcikanlı (2006), Inözü (2011), Kennedy (2002), Mutlu (2008), Yildirim (2013), Urun, Demir and Akar (2014). However, when it comes to the research studies on learner autonomy in relation to written corrective teacher feedback types in writing skill, no research studies have been carried out so far neither in Turkey, nor in the world. In other words, this is the first study in the world examining the effects of different written corrective teacher feedback types in writing skill on learner autonomy.

Regarding this uniqueness of the study, the concept of promoting learning autonomy have been handled cautiously before, during and after the treatment process. Consequently, this research study is important in that it is unique and it is expected to provide useful results to be utilized by language teachers/instructors while designing their courses or choosing their feedback types for writing activities or courses.

1.6. Assumptions of the Study

This study was carried out basing on the following assumptions:

- English teachers do not use coded feedback sufficiently to give feedback on their students written assignments.
- If English teachers consider the importance and positive effects of coded feedback on the promotion of learner autonomy and prefer this type of feedback instead of correction type or underlined type of correction feedback, the autonomy level of their students can be increased.

- Variables will be taken under control while the questionnaires are being administered to the students and instructors.
- The students will be sincere and honest while responding to the questionnaires.
- The data collection instruments will have a high reliability and validity.
- All 3 groups are assumed to have similar academic capacity and English competence level.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

The study has a series of limitations which can be taken into consideration and which can be dealt with in the possible further studies. The limitations of this study are as follows:

- This study was carried out with 30 participants only and under the supervision of only 1 English teacher.
- This study was carried out with university students only.
- This study was carried out with 30 participants studying at Kutahya Health Sciences University (Kütahya Sağlık Bilimleri Üniversitesi), Paramedic Department.
- Only a pre-test and a post-test were administered to assess the learner autonomy levels of the learners which means a delayed post test was not administered to test the lasting period of the effect.
- Learners' assignments were evaluated by 2 English teachers only.
- The treatment process lasted for 10 weeks only.
- While giving feedback, the sub-skills of writing skill such as ideas, organization, word choice and sentence fluency could not be analyzed. Only conventions (mechanical errors) were analyzed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Presentation

In this part, the literature related to this study will be reviewed. It is mainly composed of two parts which are namely “Theory of Learner Autonomy” and “Theory of Corrective Feedback in Writing Skill”. Both of the topics will be reviewed in detail.

2.2. Theory of Learner Autonomy

The literature related to learner autonomy will be held in this part. First of all, the concept of learner autonomy will be reviewed including the definitions of and the misconceptions about it. Then, its pedagogical background and importance will be held. Some approaches to promoting learner autonomy and ways of doing it will be reviewed in the following parts. Then, the principles of learner autonomy will be held. Lastly, autonomous learners and their characteristics will be discussed according to the literature.

2.2.1. Concept of Learner Autonomy

The definitions of learner autonomy and the misconceptions about it will be reviewed in this part. Distinctive definitions of learner autonomy will be introduced in the first part while a set of misconceptions and misused terms will be discussed in the second part since the term “learner autonomy” has been used by people from a wide range of backgrounds for various concepts in different studies

2.2.1.1. Definition of Learner Autonomy

Even though learner autonomy has been defined by many researchers in various aspects, Little (1990, cited in Benson, 2001) notes that it is not quite possible to define learner autonomy as a single act within the context of language learning. On the other hand, he supports the notion that it is required to define learner autonomy by certain terms since there seems to be two basic reasons for it. First, he is in favour of the idea that a clear definition is crucial for construct validity which is a precondition for effective research. Secondly, such a clear definition is essential for programmes or innovations which are designed to foster autonomy as they need to rely on some basic principles to observe the changes in the behaviours of the language learners.

The most quoted one and one of the oldest definitions belongs to Holec (1981, p. 3) who expresses that autonomy is ‘the ability to take charge of one’s learning’ (cited in Thanasoulas, 2000; Benson & Voller, 1997). Whereas Vanijdee (2003) defines learner autonomy as ‘a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities – which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning’.

Holec (1981) defines learner autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (p. 3) and Benson (2001) presents a similar definition as it is “the capacity to take control of

one's own learning" (p. 47). It is also defined as "the capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action" (Little, 1991, p. 4).

Oxford (2003) states that it is not possible to support the idea that the concept of learner autonomy has been fully understood even though a number of different definitions have been made.

Ryan (1991; cited in Littlewood, 1999) remarks that the implementation of learner autonomy is one of the most crucial needs and purposes of human beings in the field of education. Consequently, he accepts autonomy as a process of 'self-determination' or 'self-regulation' in different aspects of lifelong learning. He also states that autonomy can be better developed as long as the learning environment is designed appropriate for interaction.

According to Benson and Voller (1997, p. 2), Holec's (1981, p. 3) definition can be accepted as an appropriate definition of learner autonomy in the context of language education. As a result of these different usages, it may be possible to mistake the definition of autonomy for some other similar conceptions.

2.2.1.2. Misconceptions on Learner Autonomy

The term 'learner autonomy' has still been misunderstood by different researchers even though it has been defined in many studies (Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011). Zou (2011) suggests the idea that it is because of the fact that this term has been used by people from a wide range of backgrounds for various concepts in different studies.

Benson (2001), highlights two different factors which may cause the misconceptions on learner autonomy. He is of the opinion that terminological and conceptual confusion within the field cause such misconceptions. Autonomy have some features in common with other related terms such as self-instruction, self-education, self direction, self-directed learning, self-access learning, open-learning, individualized instruction, independent learning, self-regulated learning, self-regulation, autonomous learning, distance learning, out-of-class

learning, flexible learning, autodidaxy, tandem learning, semi-autonomy and full-autonomy (Firat, 2016). Consequently, a considerable number of definitions and views to describe and define learner autonomy have emerged and there have been numerous synonyms of this term.

While some terms are used synonymously with autonomy, some other terms may have completely different meanings. It is required to clarify the meaning of those terms in order to differentiate them from the term autonomy during a study or a classroom implementation. Firat (2016) has gathered these terms and their meanings in his study:

- Self-instruction: According to Little, (1991), self instruction means learning without a teacher or in other words it refers to “without the direct control of a teacher” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11)
- Open learning: Lewis (1995) expresses that open learning offers choices within the curriculum as well as in Access. Thus, learners need to take responsibility for learning in open learning, but it is mostly utilized as an institutional project which aims at increasing the number of students while decreasing the costs.

Distance learning: Lewis (1995) is of the opinion that distance learning refers to a subset of open learning, but learners are organized in a way that they have the control over their learning process such as time, place and pace of their study.

- Individualized instruction: Logan (1980) states that individual instruction is providing individual learners with activities designed to meet their needs and accordingly the instructor is assumed to prepare and adapt materials, set objectives and evaluate the learner's ability to perform required skills.
- Flexible learning: Evans (1993) notes that flexible learning is the type of learning in which the instructor provides materials and activities and learners are mostly free to choose what to do and when to do it, but learning goals or evaluation is not a matter of discussion as they are determined by the teacher beforehand (cited in Pemberton, 1996, p. 2).

- Self-access learning: Dickinson (1987) expresses that self-access is learning through materials/facilities that are organized in order to facilitate learning process. It means self-instruction along with the use of self-access materials.
- Self-direction: According to Dickinson (1987), the term ‘self-direction’ is mostly used to describe a particular attitude towards the learning task, in which the learners accept the responsibility for all the decisions related to his or her own learning but this does not necessarily mean undertaking the implementation of those decisions.
- Self-directed learning: It is described by Knowles (1980) as a process in which learners need to take the initiative in order to diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify resources for learning, choose and implement suitable learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes. Brookfield (1985) notes that the term ‘self-directed learning’ is accepted in the literature in two senses: to mean the process of and the techniques used in directing one’s own learning, and to refer to the change of consciousness as a result of such learning (cited in Pemberton, 1996).
- Autodidaxy: Candy (1991; cited in Benson 2001) asserts that autodidaxy is described as one of the four aspects of the term self-direction. He proposes that autodidaxy as a term for referring to self-instruction which takes place outside of formal institutional settings which he calls “natural societal setting”.
- Independent learning: Independent learning refers to “learning process in which the learner, in conjunction with relevant others, can make the decisions which are necessary to meet the learner’s own learning needs”. In the case of independent learning, independent learners learn to identify their own needs and capabilities and know when, where and how help is needed (Kesten, 1987).
- Out-of-class learning: Benson (2006) states that out-of-class-learning simply refers to “the efforts of learners who take classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class”

- Self-regulation / Self-regulated learning: is mostly used to define “self-generated thoughts, feeling and behaviors” oriented to achieving goals. Self-regulation is seen as “the self-directive process through which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills” rather than “mental ability to an academic performance skill”(Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65).
- Autonomy: Autonomy refers to “the capacity to take charge of, or responsibility for one’s own learning” (Benson, 2011, p. 58).
- Semi-autonomy: Dickinson (1987) states that semi-autonomy means “the stage at which learners are preparing for autonomy” while Riley and Zoppis (1985) describe it as learners’ working in a self-access center (cited in Benson, 2011).
- Full-autonomy: According to Dickinson (1987), full-autonomy refers to the type of autonomy in which “there is no involvement of a teacher of an institution, and the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials”.
- Tandem Learning: is mostly used to refer to the type of learning process in which “two people who are learning each other’s language work together to help one another” (Lewis, 2005, cited in Benson, 2006, p. 26).

It can be concluded from all those definitions above that all these terms have a lot in common and they are somehow related to some others. It is also possible to use some of them interchangeably with autonomy as Benson (2011) states autonomy is a multidimensional concept, and it can take different forms in different contexts of learning. There are some specific features of learner autonomy on which authors have a consensus even though there have been a great deal of misconceptions about learner autonomy. The fact that autonomy is learner’s broad approach to the learning process, not an approach towards a specific task or method of teaching or learning is an example of misconception (Firat, 2016). There has been a consensus on the notion that autonomy entails taking responsibility for (control, charge of) one's own learning and consequently it presupposes a certain extend of freedom or

independence (Firat, 2016). So, it is possible to define learner autonomy regarding all the definitions above.

2.2.2. Pedagogical Background of Learner Autonomy

Galileo supported the idea of learner autonomy while Benson (2001) highlighted this fact by quoting Galileo as “you can not teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself”. The works and thoughts of these great thinkers show that autonomy is a significant concept that is somehow associated with various fields including education and philosophy and it is also obvious that the notion of learner autonomy was adopted by them whether it was called so or not.

Benson (2001) states that the introduction of learner autonomy to language education field started with the foundation of the Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project in 1971. But it was not until 1981 that the utilization of learner autonomy became widespread in language learning. Centre de Recherches et d’Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) at the University of Nancy in France was established as an outcome of the establishment of the Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project. CRAPEL, which was founded by Yves Chalon served as the basis of educational autonomy.

Finch (2001) points out that learner autonomy started to attract modern educators’ attention since the 1960s as a general educational goal and it became quite popular during 1970s and 1980s thanks to the developments of student centered approaches in language teaching. Researchers such as Benson, Little, Voller, Camilleri, Dam have presented a great deal of work in this field recently aiming to help learners take the responsibility and control of their own learning (Balcikanli, 2006).

2.2.3. Importance of Learner Autonomy

The importance of learner autonomy was mentioned slightly in the previous part. Learner autonomy is acknowledged as a significant and alluring objective in language learning and it has an undeniably important role in gaining learners' democratic and social participation in language learning. Scharle and Szabô, (2000, p. 4) stress that learning can only take place if learners are willing to contribute no matter how hard teachers try to provide all the necessary circumstances and input. So, it can be concluded that it is the learner who makes the learning happen in the first place. It is also true in learning a language as in all other fields. They also assert that the crucial key for the success in learning is a responsible attitude of the learner since he will have the intrinsic motivation and a moderate level of stress when he feels the responsibility of his own learning. In this sense, the significance of learner autonomy in language learning lies in its function as a leverage and source of motivation. Benson (2001) stated in his study that autonomous learners are more successful compared to non-autonomous learners in language learning. According to Gremmo (1998) learner autonomy is accepted as the basis for self-directed learning. It provides the required conditions for a learner to be able to manage his/her own learning and the learner is ready to do it once s/he discovers his/her own abilities, preferences, reasons to study and favourite learning styles thanks to autonomous learning principles.

According to Gremmo (1998), learner autonomy is accepted as the starting point for self directed learning. Accordingly, it not only helps identify educational objectives, but also requires the regulation of psychological and strategic planning skills. It is also essential for supporting independent students and citizens to find their own ways under any situation (Thanasoulas, 2000).

From an educational perspective learner autonomy is an important aim in language teaching. Since the time spent under teacher supervision in the classroom is limited, learner autonomy knowledge and ability is critically important for students to make use of the time they will spend outside the school. Learner autonomy makes it possible to activate the use of out-of

class activities (Lindstromberg & Boers, 2008) and learner-centred activities (Miller, Shuk Ching & Hopkins, 2007).

It is of crucial significance in teacher development as well as in language learning (Mann, 2005). While the teacher follows the activities and assignments of the students, he / she will feel the need to prepare activities of different types and levels according to the individual development and needs of the learners. Since the teacher will also take on the roles of coaching and psychological supporter, his / her personal and professional development will also progress.

Another function of learner autonomy is that it helps learners become more responsible for their own learning, become more intrinsically orientated and more challengeable and gain more confidence in the course (Chang, 2005). Thus, it encourages learners to learn languages more confidently, participate in the activities and do the tasks with less hesitation and more motivation in a classroom environment. It also holds importance since it leads the way to lifelong learning (Mensch & Rahschulte, 2008). Once the learner gets to know how to arrange his time and study plan according to his own level, he can use it in many fields throughout his life. As Little (2005) asserts, it plays a key role in identifying individual's learning goals, selecting his learning focus, monitoring his learning progress and evaluating his learning outcomes.

Learner autonomy also comes into the fore as it encourages language awareness, self awareness, awareness of learning goals and awareness of learning options (Simard, 2004; cited in Porto, 2007). In this sense, the present value of the notion of autonomy to language teachers may well lie in its practical use both in the classroom environment and out of class studies. To conclude, learner autonomy has become an important term as a result of its practical use in language learning and all other reasons which are mentioned above.

2.2.4. Approaches to Promoting Learner Autonomy

There are different approaches towards promoting learner autonomy and Benson (2001) discusses six groups of approaches. He asserts that the approaches differ in terms of what or who an approach focuses on. Different approaches focus on different elements but they are interrelated, as well. Besides, they may work in eclectic ways (Calisir, 2013). Benson (2001) discusses these approaches under six headings which are ‘resource-based, technology based, learner-based, classroom-based, curriculum-based and teacher-based’.

2.2.4.1. Resource-Based Approaches

Resource-based approaches generally focus on independent use of learning materials. The success of the promotion of learner autonomy mainly depends on the interaction between the learner and the resource. Learners should feel free to pick up the learning resource they prefer according to their level, interest and age. At least they need to express their opinions about the resource freely to make use of the resource in the best way even if it is not possible for the learner to make a choice of their own. It may not always be possible to let the learners decide which resource to use especially in over-populated classroom environments. Self-access, self-instruction and distance learning are the components of resource-based approaches (Benson, 2001). The freedom to choose from diversified teaching materials is an essential element of this approach. The learners are offered a variety of ways and opportunities to manage their own learning process.

Hedge (2000) suggests that students must have the option to make their choices for their own learning. And he also asserts that they should have responsibilities in determining the objectives of learning, deciding on the course content, choosing the method, monitoring the progress, and self-evaluation so as to build up the self-sufficiency in language learning. Since this case may not be possible in classroom environments most of the time, it can be said that this approach may not always appeal to the learners who learn mostly at school. Thus, it may

best work with the learners who prefer to study alone and use extra resources even while learning in a classroom environment.

2.2.4.2. Technology-Based Approaches

Resource-based approaches and technology-based approaches are alike in many ways as they both allow learners to practice independently with a variety of resources (Benson, 2001) but they differ in terms of the ways used to reach the resources. Technology-based approaches encourage the use of technological tools to reach the resources and to interact with the teacher and peers if there are any. Computer simulations can be given examples of the tools which are used to promote learner autonomy according to technology based approaches (Balcikanli, 2006). Computer technology have been used in teaching English since 1960s but it was not until 1990s that it became an eloquent device which is used to teach English.

2.2.4.3. Learner-Based Approaches

While resource-based and technology-based approaches focus on resource, learner-based approach focuses mainly on better learner control. It especially gives importance to the potential psychological and behavioural changes which may allow learners to take the responsibility of their own learning and improve their abilities as individual learners (Benson, 2001). Learner-based approaches also focus on learner development, learner training and strategy training. Language learning strategies are used as tools to promote learner autonomy in these kind of approaches. Cohen (1998) asserts that direct guidance in learning strategies is required to ensure learner autonomy. Accordingly, strategy-based instruction is preferred in language learning classrooms to promote the learner autonomy awareness levels of the learners.

While as seen from the items above, language learning strategies and strategy training are somehow mentioned in all the items. It shows that it has a significant function to promote learner autonomy. The primary aim of learner-based approaches is to help learners become “better” language learners (Benson, 2011, p. 155). Benson (2001) presents a few strategies adopted by adult language learners to organise their own language learning process which are; planning the content and methods, and self-evaluation of the progress and learning experience. On the other hand, O’Malley and Chamot (1990; cited in Benson, 2001) assert that metacognitive strategies involve behaviours that have been tightly related to autonomy which are planning, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self monitoring, problem identification and self-evaluation.

2.2.4.4. Classroom-Based Approaches

Benson (2001) states that classroom-based approaches focus on the control of the students over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning. He (2001) also adds that learner control over the planning of classroom activities are advised by many experimental programmes in order to get positive results with regards to promotion of learner autonomy and language teaching.

Classroom-based approaches to learner autonomy mainly deals with the environment where the learning takes place. In such approaches to learner autonomy, it is essential to provide learners with opportunities which will encourage them to manage their own learning process in a supportive and collaborative environment (Dogan, 2015). The involvement of learners in the planning and assessment of the classroom learning are the main components which are given importance in such approaches. Yildirim (2012) and Asim (2013) suggest that the teachers should provide their learners with an autonomous learning environment and they should give their learners small responsibilities and try to increase their responsibility level

in time since there might be some students who are not ready for a quick change and much responsibility.

In order to express the importance of such approaches to learner autonomy, Finch (2000) points out that it is essential for learners to take roles in the organization of classroom activities in order to develop their control over both cognitive and content aspects of learning. That is, it becomes possible for learners to develop their ability to determine the style and extent of their learning thanks to an ongoing cycle of negotiation and evaluation to the extent that curriculum guidelines allow. Benson (2001) agrees on this issue affirming that encouraging learners to develop their capacity to define and determine the content of their learning is possible to the extent that decisions are constrained by a pre-determined learning content.

Consequently, it is obvious that classroom-based approaches put emphasize on learner control, planning and evaluation of classroom learning beside the classroom activities in order to attempt to prompt learner autonomy. Thus, it can be asserted that such approaches give learners authority to decide on what should be taught and how it should be done.

2.2.4.5. Curriculum-Based Approaches

Learners are supposed to give substantial decisions about the content and learning procedures in collaboration with their teachers in curriculum-based approaches to the promotion of learner autonomy (Benson, 2001, p. 163). Accordingly, learners should be involved in the curriculum design processes by collaborating with teachers. Brown (1995) asserts that it is crucial to prepare a curriculum with more than one teacher. In other words, he means to promote the idea that curriculum development is a process in which “the staff, faculty, administration and students” have vital roles. Consequently, Curriculum Based Approaches to learner autonomy attaches great importance to learners’ control over the curriculum design according to their own needs and learning styles.

Furthermore, Benson (2001) mentions the term “process syllabus” related to the learner control over the curriculum. He puts forward the idea that learner control over the curriculum has been formalized in the idea of process syllabus, in which learners are expected to make the major decisions concerning the content and procedures of learning in collaboration with their teachers.

Breen (1987) stresses that process syllabus is composed of three main processes which are communicating, learning and purposeful social activity of teaching and learning in the classroom. The philosophy of process syllabus stems from the communicative language teaching and task based learning. Accordingly, in this process, students have to reshape the presented syllabus according to their needs and expectancies from the course. Furthermore, the stronger sort of process syllabus application does not allow a prespecified syllabus to be administered. The syllabus is determined during the learning session while the process is observed. So, the course content is decided as a result of the negotiations in the classroom (Benson, 2001, p. 165). Thus, learners automatically have roles in deciding about the communicative and social activities of the class (Yigit, 2017).

Process syllabus also promotes learner autonomy in that it enables responsibility transfer to learners for all aspects of learning (Cotterall, 2000). Learner control over the course design has been studied by many researchers and Cotterall (2000) is one of them. He investigates language course designing principles and finally Cotterall (2000, cited in Yigit, 2017, p. 26) asserts that language learners present the following principles which they find significant in the process of a language course design:

- “The course needs to reflect learner goals.
- Course tasks have to be linked to the language learning process.
- Tasks need to be parallel with real world communication.
- Learner strategies have to be incorporated into the course.
- Learners’ reflections on learning have to be paid attention to in the courses.”

Furthermore, Van Lier (1996) asserts that there should be an interaction in the curriculum design process and this interaction should involve three principles which are “awareness, autonomy and authenticity”. While the term “awareness” refers to the awareness of learning objectives, strategies, contents, learning and teaching styles, “autonomy” refers to the idea that teachers can not force learning, s/he should encourage and guide it, instead. And the last term, “authenticity” means that the materials used in the classroom should be authentic but not only taken from newspapers or magazines, but also from the world at large.

To sum up, learners’ gaining control over the curriculum does not mean a solemn learner authority designs the whole curriculum and course. It actually means that the students require the support of the teachers in order to be successful in gaining control over the syllabus design (Benson, 2001, p. 170). In other words, it is the cooperation of teachers, learners and administration what makes the promotion of learner autonomy possible according to Curriculum Based Approaches.

2.2.4.6. Teacher-Based Approaches

Teacher-based approaches to learner autonomy focus on teacher education and teacher’s development in order to promote learner autonomy (Benson, 2001, p. 171). Besides, such approaches emphasize teachers ability to give appropriate and required control to language learners over the learning process.

Learner autonomy has been accepted as a valuable notion in language teaching since it emerged and was accepted as a serious topic to research. On the other hand, the role of the teacher and the role to be shared with the learner has been a controversial subject. That is, teacher roles which refers to the roles of the teachers in the classroom may not cover the roles defined in the context of learner autonomy. Benson (2001) argues that the promotion of learner autonomy should be accomplished not only with the teacher’s ability itself but also with teacher education by gaining them the ability to give learners appropriate

responsibility to promote their autonomy. According to this statement, the scope of teacher based approaches can be assessed from two different aspects which are; the teacher's role in promoting learner autonomy and the role of teacher education in promoting learner autonomy.

As a result of the fact that learner autonomy has taken its place in language teaching methodology, the role of the teachers has changed a lot in autonomous learning compared to the roles defined in traditional teaching approaches (Celtikci, 2011). The terms which are suggested to define the teacher roles in learner autonomy include consultant, adviser, knower, helper, coordinator, resource, counsellor and facilitator (Benson, 2001, p. 171).

To sum up, learners can be their own language learning planners thanks to the support and responsibility of their teachers. Learners can also define their needs, set their objectives, select the required materials, manage their interactions and plan their work with the help of this support (Olur, 2013). Moreover, teachers can help learners to acquire the knowledge and skills which are essential for an autonomous learning atmosphere by raising their language learning awareness and by enabling them to identify their own learning styles and appropriate learning strategies (Wright, 1987, cited in Benson, 2001; Little, 2004).

In short, teacher-based approaches have a great significance for learning autonomy since learner autonomy is triggered by teacher autonomy and such approaches acknowledge the value of both teacher development and teacher autonomy. In addition, promoting learner autonomy requires continuous awareness and discourse skills from teachers (Little, 2004).

2.2.5. Promoting Learner Autonomy

As mentioned previously, autonomous learning is the ability to take the control of one's own learning responsibilities and of course developing this ability and capacity is as much important as having and using it. Promoting learner autonomy has many benefits which are discussed in the "Importance of Learner Autonomy" part of this thesis. Regarding all those

reasons to promote learner autonomy, the teachers and institutions should do their best to foster learner autonomy by utilizing the practices which allow learners to contend with learning methods in which this capacity can be improved (Benson, 2001).

If evaluated from an educational point of view, the aim of all educational processes is to help people to think, act and learn independently in relevant areas of their lives (Littlewood, 1996). Nevertheless, autonomous learning does not develop on its own and without any attempt. On the contrary, it arises from the learners' dialogues with the world to which they belong (Cotterall, 1995a). Consequently, it is essential to create an encouraging and supportive learning environment for a healthy learner autonomy to promote. Accordingly, this issue should be discussed by the educators and included in the main aims of education. Researchers have suggested a number of different ways to promote learner autonomy in language teaching so far. Dickinson (1992, cited in Cakildere, 2016, p. 74) proposed six tips in order to develop learner autonomy in a language classroom:

1. fostering independence of learners by approving and prompting them so that they could learn the language more independently,
2. making learners believe that they can learn independently and let them taste how it feels to be an independent learner,
3. providing learners with opportunities by which they can foster their independence,
4. helping individuals create learning strategies which really belong to them,
5. helping learners increase their awareness of the language as a system in order for them to discover the learning techniques they can make use of and learn adequate grammatical structures to be able to read through simple reference books,
6. sharing our language learning experience with them in order for them to know what kind of problems they might come across during language learning activities and how to deal with them (Dickinson, 1992, cited in Cakildere, 2016, p. 74).

These suggestions may serve to the purpose of promoting learner autonomy, yet it mostly depends on the learner's eagerness and ability to act independently. Their willingness and ability levels are determined by their motivation and self-confidence levels as well as their knowledge and skills (Littlewood, 1999).

2.2.6. Principles of Learner Autonomy

Holec (1981) asserts that learner autonomy covers a set of principles. These principles are so similar with the roles of an autonomous learner. According to him the principles which are accepted as are as follows:

- identifying needs and setting goals,
- choosing strategies that will be employed,
- determining the contents and the procedures,
- monitoring progress,
- evaluation of learning.

Those principles or steps have also been mentioned by some other researchers such as Cotterall (1995b) who states that learner autonomy is “the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning”.

As autonomy is a controversial and broad term, the principles which are attributed to it should also be clearly defined in order to make it obvious to which step of learner autonomy they belong. As designing a course is a part of autonomy, this step also requires some principles to be taken into consideration.

On the other hand, Benson (2012) asserts that it should be learners who decide “why, what, where, when, how and with whom” they are learning and accordingly he implies that this is the main principle of autonomous learning. According to Little (2004a, cited in Kissacik, 2016, p. 18) there are three principles of learner autonomy which are as follows:

Learner empowerment: the teacher needs to give the responsibility to the learners as much as possible.

Learner reflection: the teacher should give the learner the chance to review their learning process and content for them to be able to monitor their own progress, correct their mistakes and evaluate their learning.

Appropriate target language use: the teacher should use a genuine and appropriate language which is also scaffolded for the learners to discover their potentials and possibilities (Little, 2004a, cited in Kissacik, 2016, p. 18).

Listing the principles of learner autonomy, it would be useful to mention Little's (2004a) account of Dam's (1995) classroom practice. Little expresses that Dam's classroom practice turned out to be successful in terms of implementing and promoting learner autonomy by means of six main principles:

- The teacher of an autonomous class should use the target language in the teaching process.
- The teacher should employ good quality learning materials which were open to sharing and discussion with the learners.
- The teacher should give the learners the chance to choose their own learning strategies and the content should be open to evaluation and discussion.
- The teacher should support and control group work for the personal goals.
- The teacher should keep a record of whatever they plan, produce and assess.
- The teacher should engage learners in regular evaluation of their progress as individual learners and as a class (Dam, 1995; cited in Little, 2004).

2.2.7. Autonomous Learners and Their Characteristics

Many researchers have defined the features of autonomous learners so far and they all have put forth a set of adjectives describing their main characteristics. Besides, these characteristics have previously been brought up in this study while mentioning the definitions of learner autonomy, the roles of autonomous learners or the principles of learner autonomy. More details about their characteristics will be presented in this part.

A collection of those characteristics which are described by different researchers has been presented by Little (1991) in his study.

According to Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012), autonomous learners have a set of essential features. Hence, it can be put forth that autonomous learners;

- have knowledge about their techniques and concepts of learning
- apply a dynamic strategy to learning responsibilities
- are risk takers
- create language of interest as a different reference system, and able to adjust due to any changes discovered

- are excellent guessers and focus on structure and also the content of words.

All these characteristics are crucial for a learner to become autonomous as they help develop the capability of learners.

Beside all these characteristics, some other factors such as learner styles, learner strategies, motivation, language awareness and openness towards target language also have an important place in determining these characteristics according to Thanasoulas (2000).

As inferred from all the collections above, an autonomous learner is expected to have a positive attitude towards the concept of self, capacity, motivation, discipline, flexible point of view, persistence, responsibility, creativity, confidence, independence, having special ways to develop his knowledge as well as to be able to be conscious about the learning process (Akbas, 2011).

2.3. The Theory of Corrective Feedback in Writing Skill

The theory of learner autonomy and related literature review have been mentioned so far. In this part, the theory of corrective feedback in writing will be discussed. First of all, the approaches to second language writing will be reviewed. Second, feedback and error correction in writing will be held. After that, the importance of writing feedback, the taxonomy of written feedback types, written teacher feedback and its taxonomy and corrective teacher feedback types and its relation with written products will be reviewed. And lastly, giving effective feedback will be held in this part of literature review.

2.3.1. Approaches to Teaching Writing

The history of ESL composition since about 1945 can be viewed as a succession of approaches to L2 writing, a cycle in which particular approaches achieved dominance and then faded, but never really disappeared (Silva, 1990).

Although different researchers have made different classifications about the approaches to teaching writing, the two major approaches which are product-based and process-based writing approaches have been distinguished from the others. These two approaches are the most discussed ones among the others.

Writing skill is accepted as an important skill not only for that it enhances the development of thinking and organizational skills of second language writers but also for the reason that it helps learners to test hypotheses about the new language and provides a time to process meaning in a less stressful way compared to oral production (Demirel, 2009).

There is a set of elements with which writers have to deal when they decide to produce a piece of writing. These elements would guide the writer. To pay attention to all of the aspects of the writing activity from organization, grammar, word choice and punctuation to content, syntax, audience and purpose (Demirel, 2009). Different approaches focus on different elements involved in the production of a piece of writing.

As Raimes (1983) expresses, it is not possible to assert that there is just one true approach to teaching writing as there are many distinctive teaching styles, learning styles, and learner types. Moreover, since a great deal of different techniques, methods, teaching approaches and strategies are available to apply and there are many teachers who prefer to apply their own eclectic method, it is natural for some other writing approaches to emerge and be accepted.

2.3.1.1. Product-Based Approach to Teaching Writing

This approach is seen as a traditional way of writing. This approach emerged in order to fill the missing parts between sentence-structured writing and free writing and thus, it combined the basic principles of the current-traditional rhetoric with L1 composition instruction. (Bozkir, 2009).

Brookes and Grundy (1990) assert that a finished product is the end result of students' labors according to product based approaches and the finality and completeness of the written work is taken into consideration.

Young (1978) points out that the main focus is the analysis of discourse in sentences and paragraphs. So, product approach focuses on rhetorical patterns of classification such as description, narration, exposition, and argumentation and it draws attention to usage and style of the words and sentences in the completed piece of writing. The product approach also stresses paragraph development and organization of standard expository writing which promotes the five paragraph essay format. For many years this format was recognized among college teachers as the most appropriate form for basic college composition (Bozkir, 2009). The supporters or appliers of these kinds of approaches defend the notion that they are upholding high standards and they are in pursuit of excellence and they reason their thesis stating that "those who cannot stand the heat should get out of the kitchen." (Neman, 1995, p. 5). Accordingly, students are asked to write as similar as possible to the model text. Tangkiengsirsim (2006) points out that writing is seen as an instrument to teach grammar and general knowledge of language, and that is why the stress should be on the final product and there should be no errors in written texts.

Teacher's main role is to sustain correctness and conformity and so, grammar, spelling and punctuation errors should be minimized as much as possible in order to maintain linguistic accuracy in a written text. Thus, teacher correction is the essential type of feedback and teachers have roles as graders or markers.

Steele (2004) expresses that the organization of ideas is more important compared to the ideas. Hyland (2003) puts forth four stages for product writing as familiarization (pre-teach certain grammar and vocabulary), controlled writing (manipulate fixed patterns), guided writing and free writing.

2.3.1.2. Process-Based Approach to Teaching Writing

The process writing notion in teaching writing was first introduced by Zamel (1976) She supported the idea that the focus should be on the process of writing and focusing on the process would be beneficial to the writers of both L2 and L1 writers. The writing approaches were mainly text-oriented and they mostly put emphasis on features of the written text before the 1970s.

The main criticism that Zamel (1976, p. 70) made was mostly because of the following characteristics of the writing classes in the 1970s:

They were paying too much attention to control and guidance although grammar exercises were rejected for not having much to do with the act of writing.

They were providing inadequate practice which is nothing more than translation and substitution drills that have very little to do with the creative process of writing.

The favourite view of writing saw writing as habit formation under the influence of audio-lingual methodology and avoided error.

A confusion of grammatical ability with writing ability existed (Zamel, 1976, p. 70).

She suggested that the primary focus needs to be on the expressive and creative process of writing instead of grammar focused written pieces and thus, the main aim of writing should be communicating real life thoughts and experiences.

Zamel (1983) observed the composing processes of advanced ESL writers and she came out with some results which provide important insights into how similar proficient ESL writers are to native language writers in their approach to the development of ideas. Zamel (1983, p. 175) put forth a set of outstanding insights into the writing processes of advanced ESL writers as a result of the study she carried out:

Brainstorming and note-taking continued even after the writing began and did not happen and finish like pre-writing activities.

Revising continued all through the writing process.

Students understood that writing entails thinking, writing and rewriting.

All of the writers reread, evaluated their texts and seemed to be in interaction with their text, sometimes engaging in self-dialogue.

More skilled writers were both aware of the recursive nature of writing and, unlike less skilled writers, were able to effectively show this understanding.

Both skilled and less skilled writers paid attention to surface level issues and changes. However, more skilled writers were less concerned with surface level issues and during the writing and addressed them towards the end after addressing global issues first. Skilled writers spent more time on writing drafts. First drafts were written in the largest time, subsequent drafts required less time. Linguistic problems that may arise from writing in a second language concerned the students the least. Skilled writers did not let linguistic concerns get in the way while they were composing and used various strategies to note them and come back to them later (Zamel, 1983, p. 175).

Zamel (1983) concludes from her study that teachers should let learners see writing as a problem solving activity and that is why they should explain to their learners the relationship between ideas, forms, and organization and show genuine attention to their ideas before their form. The process-approach to writing has been criticized by some researchers since they claim that it overemphasizes psychological factors (Hyland, 2002). However, it has made it possible to handle the notion of writing from a new perspective which traditional product oriented approaches did not.

White and Arndt (1991) define process-writing and explain the complex nature of writing. It includes elements ranging from focusing on the ideas to evaluating, drafting, structuring, generating ideas and so on.

Dyson (1981) states that process-approach supports the idea of a shift of focus from the product of writing activities, which is the finished text, to the studies on the composing processes of the writers. Writing is accepted as a process in which language learners discover some new ways of thinking and making meaning according to the process approach to teaching writing.

Reid (1993) points out that the teachers who adopt process approach need to prefer the textbooks which put emphasis on personal writing (such as journals to lower student anxiety), creative ways to explore ideas, decision making and the development of narrative voice. Consequently, language learners should be free to choose a specific writing task and

topic as they are not forced to write on a specific topic in the classes where teachers prefer process approach.

The teacher of a class where process approach is applied has a crucial role since the teacher provides a positive, collaborative environment to facilitate the composing process and make the writer the center of attention (Elbow, 1981). Teacher gives feedback just like in the product approach but it centers upon ideas, content, and the negotiation of meaning instead of grammatically perfect passages.

Another function of the teacher in this approach is providing language learners with a set of strategies in order to make their writing aims clear and make them realise that they are writing to learn how to do it in real life. According to Silva (1990), the teacher who embarks on process approach to teaching writing needs to help students develop viable strategies for learners to be able to;

- get started
- draft
- revise
- edit

As a conclusion, it is possible to say about the process approach to teaching writing that “writing is a highly complex, goal-oriented and recursive activity”. It is not just a task that is done instantly with only a few cognitive actions.

2.3.1.3. The Process Approach vs. the Product Approach

There are some other approaches as well but the process-based approach and product-based approach are the most outstanding ones among the other approaches to teaching writing. One of the most outstanding differences is the role of the teacher when process-based approach is compared to and contrasted with the product-based approach. While the teacher has the

role of a facilitator or a mediator in process-based approach, s/he functions mostly as an evaluator in product-based approach.

Another featured difference between the process-based approach and product-based approach is in the way of giving feedback. The feedback is given only at the end of a specified course time or exam in product-based approach whereas it is given at different times of the writing process in order to enable language learners to review and redraft their work.

Ciftci (2011) presents a table which is cited from Shin and Lee (1997, p. 325) demonstrating the apparent differences between the process-based approach and product based approach:

Table 1

The Comparison of Product-Based and Process- Based Approaches to Writing

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Product-Based</i>	<i>Process-oriented approaches</i>
Writing process	Not considered	Considered important
Recursiveness in writing	Not considered	Emphasized
Writing techniques	Not included	Included
Focus of writing	Written product	The whole process
Prior experience and knowledge	Not emphasized	emphasized
Motivation and encouragement	Not encouraged	Encouraged
Punctuation	Emphasized	Less emphasized
Writing conventions	Emphasized	Not emphasized
Role of teacher	Evaluator	Facilitator/Mediator
Dynamic role of teacher	Not emphasized	Emphasized
Conferencing with	Not emphasized	Emphasized
Focus of the class	Teacher-centered	Student-centered
Lesson contents	Knowledge based	Strategy-based
Teaching method	Lecturing	Heuristics
Writing environment	Not considered	Considered
Peer collaboration	Not emphasized	Emphasized
Small group discussions	Not emphasized	Emphasized
Tune management	Fixed	Flexible
Feedback time	In the last stage	Throughout the writing
Individuality and differences among students	Not considered	Considered
Problem-solving ability	Not considered	Considered
Context when writing	Not considered	Considered

Shin, H. & Lee, J. (1997). "The meanings of the process-oriented approach to writing education", *Journal of Elementary Korean Education*.No:13, p. 325.

2.3.1.4. Other Approaches to Teaching Writing

There are also some other approaches to teaching writing. Raimes (1983; cited in Abisamra, 1998) presented a taxonomy of 5 other approaches to teaching writing as in the following parts. Along with the following 5 approaches below, there is also “current traditional rhetoric” approach to teaching writing.

2.3.1.4.1. The Controlled-to-Free Approach

Controlled composition is a term which supports the idea that language is speech (from structural linguistics) and that learning is habit formation (from behaviorist psychology), and has its roots in Charles Fries’s oral approach (Silva, 1990).

The audio-lingual method had been mostly adopted by second language teaching authorities in the 1950s and early 1960s. Mastering in grammatical and syntactic forms is significant according to the audio-lingual method and thus, the teachers who adopt this method use techniques which stimulate learners to master grammar and syntactic forms (Ciftci, 2011). Rivers (1968) expresses that in this approach writing functions as the complement of other skills (listening, speaking, and reading), and should be considered as a service activity rather than as an end in itself. Learners try to imitate a model work and perform ‘prescribed operations’. The creative aspect of composing is addressed only after the students reach a high proficiency level (Raimes, 1983).

Some of the activity types used in this approach are ‘changing words to clauses’ and ‘combining sentences’ (Ciftci, 2011). Once learners reach an intermediate level of proficiency, they are set free to write free compositions. While this approach focuses on accuracy rather than fluency or originality, it also emphasizes grammar, syntax, and the use of mechanics (Ciftci, 2011).

2.3.1.4.2. The Free-Writing Approach

Teachers of this approach aim to make learners write as much as possible so the teachers who adopt this approach assign a great quantity of free writing on specific topics with only minimal correction (Raimes, 1983).

Another strategy of this approach is reading aloud. Learners read their texts aloud in the classroom which makes the “audience” an important element of the writing activity. Accordingly, it would be right to say that the free writing approach focuses on the quantity of writing rather than the quality (Demirel, 2009). In other words, the stress is not on accuracy and form. It is rather on content and fluency.

2.3.1.4.3. The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

This approach embarks on the principle of starting and managing communication with other learners in different ways, in different cultures, and thus learners need to know how to arrange their ideas and organize their passages in English which is a new language for them. Paragraph-Pattern Approach stresses organization instead of accuracy of grammar or fluency of content. In order to write a correct passage, learners copy paragraphs and imitate model passages. Putting scrambled sentences into paragraph order, identifying general and specific statements, choosing or inventing an appropriate topic sentence and inserting or deleting sentences are among the activity types in this approach (Ciftci, 2011).

Matsuda (2002) defends the notion that the major negative sides of both free writing approach and controlled writing approach are that they both focus on sentence level structures. The missing part of both approaches was taking the composition activity one-step forward according to him.

The outstanding principle of the paragraph-pattern approach is to analyze a model passage and imitate its organizational pattern. This approach also follows a traditional approach to writing. The paragraph-pattern approach to teaching writing has also been labeled as “the

product approach” (Celce-Murcia 1990, p.246) since the main stress of this approach is on the finished product no matter how much importance it gives to the organizational aspect of the written work (Demirel, 2009).

2.3.1.4.4. The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

The Grammar-Syntax-organization approach can be counted as a text oriented approach since it combines the concerns of form, organization and purpose. This approach focuses on more than one composition characteristics at the same time. The followers of the grammar syntax-organization approach defend the idea that it is not right to handle the writing skill as a separate skill which is learned individually. Thus, learners are taught to pay attention to the organization feature of writing while they also work on grammar and syntax which are essential elements as well. The aim of the grammar-syntax-organization approach is to teach organizational patterns for certain kinds of writing tasks along with the language structures which are required to convey the meaning (Raimes, 1983).

2.3.1.4.5. The Communicative Approach

The communicative approach to teaching writing is classified as an audience-based approach as promoting real life interaction between writers and readers are accepted the ultimate goal of this approach. The biggest concern of this approach in teaching writing is the purpose of writing and the audience of it. Learners are treated like writers in real life and do problem solving activities and task-based activities accordingly.

Other than their teacher, the learners can also write for their classmates who can reply, comment, rewrite and summarize but do not make corrections (Raimes, 1983). Some other readers who are designated by the teacher outside the classroom can also be the audience of the written texts. If the target audience is someone other than the teacher, it may help learners to write with more appropriate content, language, and levels of formality (Raimes, 1983).

2.3.1.4.6. Current Traditional Rhetoric

Other than all the approaches above, another approach to teaching writing exists. In the 1960s, an awareness of language learners' needs to produce extended written discourse increased (Bozkir, 2009). This awareness caused an extended model of form-focused orientation to L2 writing. The aim of this approach is to teach learners to write paragraphs by arranging sentences according to prescribed formula (Silva, 1990). As cited in Telceker (2007), Applebee (1981) defines four major rhetorical patterns that students learn as description, narration, exposition, and argumentation.

Students first need to learn how to outline their passage and mostly they are expected to write three-to-five paragraph essays. Definition, classification, comparison and contrast types are among the organization patterns that learners focus on. Learners compose their ideas by making use of some readers or literary sources that they can analyze and imitating their teachers.

Logical construction and arrangement of discourse forms are the basic concerns of this approach. Writing is seen as a matter of arrangement of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns in the current traditional rhetoric approach to teaching writing (Silva, 1990).

2.3.2. Feedback in L2 Writing

Feedback is regarded as one of the most crucial components of writing as it is a way of solving problems students encounter while writing (Kaynak, 2017). Feedback is essential for improving writing ability since it is regarded as a “central and critical contribution to the evolution of a piece of writing (Arndt, 1993, p. 91)”.

An advantage of giving feedback is that it promotes language learning process as learners have the chance to see their own mistakes and learn the correct language forms and functions.

It is possible to achieve this by giving “surface level feedback”, which is a kind of feedback which focuses only on lexical accuracy, grammar, spelling, and punctuation (Hendrickson, 1978). For instance, correction of grammar errors, as surface-level errors, fosters development of spelling ability in written texts. Another type of feedback is global feedback, which deals with the development of ideas, audience, purpose, and organizational features of a text (Hendrickson, 1978). That is to say, feedback helps language learners improve their writing skills by showing the problematic parts in their texts.

There have been different definitions of written feedback. Feedback can also be defined as “input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision (Flower, 1979, p. 19)”.

Feedback is regarded as an essential tool in order to develop L2 writing skills for language learners to express meaning effectively with the help of multiple drafts (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). It is also considered important since it encourages and consolidates learning (Bozkir, 2009).

Feedback is accepted as a part of learning process since teachers want to contribute to the learners` language use for further usage (Harmer, 2001). Winne and Butler (1994, p. 574), state that feedback is information with which a learner can confirm, overwrite, add to, tune, or restructure information in memory. This definition could mean that, the purpose of feedback is (Akçay, 2015):

- to cause the learner to think
- to develop teaching and learning strategies for individual learners
- to promote deeper learning and understanding
- to boost self-esteem, motivate and inspire

Teachers` preferences, students` level, types of writing tasks and the stage of the writing process are among the factors that define the feedback type to be given by the teacher (Hyland, 2003). Hyland (2003) also asserts that the teacher should also take learning goals and content of learning into consideration while determining different reasons of feedback.

Hyland and Hyland (2006) categorize feedback into two as *summative feedback* and *formative feedback*. The main aim of summative feedback is to evaluate the text as a product. On the other hand, the purpose of formative feedback is to help language learners develop their writing skills. Teachers can either write comments or correct the errors (Akçay, 2015). There are a number of ways of giving feedback and they differ according to the goal of providing feedback. While sometimes the main focus may be on the writing process, it can be on the final product itself at other times. It was found out in a study that learners do not make use of feedback as long as teacher only gives marks to their papers (Black & Wiliam 2001). Harmer suggests that there are numerous ways of giving feedback on students' writings such as using marking scales, underlining, selective correction, using correction symbols, crossing out, question marks, reformulating, etc. (Harmer, 2004).

Erkkilä (2013) is of the opinion that all teachers may not agree on whether a text is good or bad, and it is not easy to define an exact amount and type of feedback. As every individual writer has his or her own unique way to write considering their background, it is also natural for teachers to grade a piece of text in his or her own way especially in the aspect of ideas and organization of ideas in it (Akçay, 2015).

There have been a number of other studies conducted for the purposes of assessing the effects of written feedback on learners different abilities. Lee (2008) studied the factors which affect students' responding practices. As a result of his study, he suggested four important issues which shed light on teachers' feedback practices: accountability, teachers' belief and values, exam culture, and lack of teacher training. In another study, Hyland and Hyland (2006) states that feedback is considered important to a great extent for encouraging and reinforcing learning as an element of supporting learners' writing development. Probst (1989) asserts in his study that feedback is a substantial agent which is essential for writing skills development both for its potential for student motivation and learning.

On the other hand, some other researchers have conducted written feedback studies focusing only on the development of some specific writing sub-skills. For example, Hyland (2000)

conducted a study which only deals with the development of learner autonomy via positive feedback. Hubais and Dumanig (2014) also examined the relation between learning performance and giving feedback.

On the other hand, in another study, Knoblauch and Brannon (1981) compared different types of teacher feedback in L1 writing such as oral vs. written, explicit vs. implicit, praise vs. criticism. At the end of the study, they came up with the results showing that none of those various feedback types had much impact on subsequent student writing. Similar results have been gained in Hillocks' (1986) study, in which he studied L1 teacher response. His study revealed that "teacher comment has little impact on student writing" (p. 165). Some other studies focused on the students' points of view or preferences regarding feedback to writing. For instance, Cohen and Cavalcanti (1993) examined the relationship between the feedback given by the teacher on learners' compositions, and the their thoughts about the comments, and what they did with this feedback. The result of the study showed that most students preferred to get feedback on mechanics rather than on organization.

That is to say, studies carried out on L1 and L2 writing contexts show evidence that some students experience strong emotional responses to error correction and that they regard feedback as an effective factor on their writing ability.

2.4. Studies Related to Learner Autonomy in the Language Teaching Context

Numerous studies have been carried out in the field of learner autonomy in the context of language learning. Some of these studies and the related results are listed below.

Dislen (2010) carried out a study investigating the relationship between learner autonomy and psychological well-being of the students. In Dislen's (2010) study, it was found out that students are aware of their learning responsibilities.

Egel (2003) examined the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy in her thesis study with the title "The impact of the European language portfolio on the learner autonomy of

Turkish primary school students". She found out that the European Language Portfolio was most influential in enhancing the learner autonomy of the students in the state schools.

Olur (2013) examined Turkish high school language learners' perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. She made use of the questionnaire which was adapted by Egel (2003). According to the results of the study, participants accepted that they were autonomous in general.

In the study carried out by Ciftci (2011) the relationship between self efficacy and learner autonomy was investigated. Egel's (2003) questionnaire was used in this study, too. Ciftci found out that there was a positive relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy. Cakildere (2016) also carried out a study in order to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation on a significant level in a blended learning context. According to the results of the study it was found out that European Language Portfolio promotes not only learner autonomy but also motivation of learners.

Bozkurt (2017) investigated language learners' perceptions about autonomy and their readiness for autonomy in language learning. Learner Autonomy Readiness Questionnaire which had been prepared by Nasoz (2015) was used in this study. The findings of the study indicated that learners' perceptions of autonomy were found to be related to their readiness level. They generally perceived themselves autonomous and felt ready for autonomous English language learning.

In Yildirim's (2005) study, Turkish English Language Teaching students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy was investigated. Yildirim (2005) made use of a questionnaire which was also used in 5 other theses studies which are explained in the "Instrument" part in this study. According to Yildirim (2005), while learners of English were ready to take more responsibility for and control-of their own learning they needed some support in some aspects of learning, and guidance in some others. However, future teachers of English generally reported positive views related to learner autonomy.

Karabiyik (2008) examined Turkish university students' readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with the learners' culture of learning. She also used the same questionnaire with Yildirim (2005). According to the findings, a statistically significant relationship was found between the participants' culture of learning and their readiness for learner autonomy. Consequently, learners' previous learning experiences should be considered to promote learner autonomy.

Yigit (2017) carried out a study investigating the perceptions of the students who study at English Language Teaching Department related to learner autonomy in language learning. He also used the same questionnaire as Yildirim (2005) and Karabiyik (2008). The findings of the study indicated that there are not any statistically significant differences between male and female students in terms of the perceptions of learners related to responsibilities, abilities, and activity choices.

Cibik (2017) examined the effects of Flipped Classroom Model on learner autonomy in English Language Teaching context. He used the same questionnaire as Yildirim (2005), Karabiyik (2008) and Yigit (2017) as well. It was found out that using Flipped Classroom Model in English Language Teaching context enhanced students' learner autonomy and their learning process.

Ceylan (2014) also used the same questionnaire as the authors above. She investigated "the effect of language learning strategy training on learner autonomy and foreign language achievement" in her study. The findings of the study revealed that the more strategies the students employ more autonomous they become and consequently their language learning proficiency increases.

Another study in this field was conducted by Balcikanli (2006) who examined the effect of the activities to be exploited at preparatory school on the promotion of learner autonomy. He found out that the promotion of autonomy in the foreign language classroom was achieved in a large scale which means implementing autonomy enhanced the learner autonomy of the participants.

Misir (2017) carried out a study investigating to what extent Massive Open Online Course participants are autonomous, learners' perception of their own roles in language learning, learners' perception of teachers' roles in language learning, and the autonomous learning practices the learners are involved in. The findings showed that Massive Open Online Course participants are highly autonomous and willing to take charge of their own language learning and be more responsible for their own accomplishment in online language learning.

Arkoc (2008) investigated the effect of learner autonomy on the listening comprehension success. She made use of an autonomy assessment questionnaire for listening comprehension skill. According to the results of the study, it was concluded that the application of the listening strategies has affected the success of the learners significantly.

Han (2015) investigated self-perceptions of high school students towards learner autonomy. He utilized the questionnaire which was adapted by Kocak (2003). According to the results of the investigation it was found out that learners were not in the intended autonomous level in terms of language learning.

Another study in this area was carried out by Zonturlu (2014) who examined the students' perception of learner autonomy development and their perception of learning English within a Computer Assisted Language Learning environment. She used the questionnaire which was also used by Han (2015) and had been adapted by Kocak (2003). The findings of the study showed that most of the learners had a high motivation. Besides, they tended to use some metacognitive strategies while thinking that the teacher of the lesson has more responsibility in their learning process. The participants also tended to spend a little time for outside activities to improve their English.

Sherwani (2017) investigated the relationship among learner autonomy, self esteem and choice of vocabulary learning strategies. The findings indicated that both learner autonomy and self-esteem contribute to the vocabulary learning strategies. And also it was found out that the greater the learner autonomy and self-esteem among learners, the more frequent the VLS use.

Celtikci (2011) examined the tendency of primary state school students to be autonomous learners in foreign language classes. It was found out that the learners took responsibility for their own learning and found their own learning strategies to learn more effectively. They were also aware of their own learning process.

Boyno (2011) conducted a study analyzing the factors which influence learner autonomy in the context of teaching English as a foreign language. According to the findings of the study it was reported that most of the dimensions (achievement, age, anxiety, attitude, brain dominance, emotional intelligence, experience, gender, language learning strategies, learned helplessness, learning styles, motivation, multiple intelligence areas, parental attitudes, performance assessment, the socio-economic level of the family) correlate with learner autonomy.

2.5. Promoting Learner Autonomy in Writing Skill

Holec (1981, p. 3) states that learner autonomy is “to take charge of one’s own learning [which] is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning”. The importance of the promotion of learner autonomy can be exemplified by Nunan’s (1996) statement, “learners tend to follow their own agendas rather than those of their teachers. Besides, Dakin (1973) points out the factor of learner autonomy by saying that though the teacher may control the experiences the learner is exposed to, it is the learner who selects what is learnt from them.

Learning and using a language are the essential conditions for communication to take place but it may not always be possible to find the appropriate place, time, teacher and atmosphere to learn a language. Therefore, language learners must be aware of their own abilities and have knowledge about the required procedures and materials which are appropriate for their own level. Since language teachers are not always able to provide information to their learners, helping their students become autonomous learners is a much more convenient way to teach them a language.

Thus, learner autonomy is worth to be tested as an application which may help learners become more autonomous especially in crowded classrooms in promoting their writing skills.

As presented above several studies, each of which focusing on a different aspect of learner autonomy have been carried out so far. However, when it comes to research studies on learner autonomy in relation to written corrective teacher feedback types in writing skill, no research studies have been carried out so far neither in Turkey, nor in the world. In other words, this is the first study in the world examining the effects of different written corrective teacher feedback types in writing skill on learner autonomy.

Regarding the uniqueness of this study, the concept of promoting learner autonomy have been handled cautiously before, during and after the treatment process. Therefore, this research study can be counted unique and is expected to provide useful results which can be made use of by language teachers/instructors while designing their courses or picking their feedback types for writing activities or courses.

Many different written feedback typologies are available in the literature but the typology in this study is based on the classification presented by Zheng, Warschauer, Lawrence and Lin (2014) who adapted and modified it from the studies of Ellis (2009) and Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986). The table below explains the classification of both non-corrective and corrective feedback types which were used in this study:

Table 2

Classification of Corrective and Non-Corrective Feedback Types

<i>Types of Feedback</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Corrective Feedback Types</i>	
Direct Feedback	Provides the correct form
Commentary Feedback	Does not provide correction. Instead, he or she indicates that an error exists by identifying it and/or asking for clarification
Highlighted Feedback	Does not indicate the nature of the error, but highlights it to indicate its location
<i>Non-corrective Feedback Types</i>	
Affective Feedback	Provides the writer with encouragement or the feedback provider's emotional response to the writing
Evaluative Feedback	Provides a more general evaluation of the written texts

Source: Zheng, Warschauer, Lawrence and Lin (2014) adapted and modified from the studies of Ellis (2009) and Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986).

A similar classification was also used in a thesis study investigating “the effect of three different types of corrective feedback on writing performances of English language learners” (Eylenen, 2008). Eylenen (2008) examined the effect of 3 different corrective feedback types which are namely “correction type of feedback, coded type of feedback and underlined type of feedback”. The same corrective feedback types were also examined in this study in terms of the effects on learner autonomy.

The dimensional sections which constitute the questionnaire used in this study are listed below. Their review in the literature and some studies which aim to examine those sections will also be listed and explained.

2.5.1. Corrective Feedback and Readiness in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, ‘readiness for autonomy’ which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. Then, previous studies on promoting ‘readiness’ in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.1.1. Promoting Readiness in the Context of Learner Autonomy

It is suggested that first it would be beneficial to find out what the learners know, feel and do about learner autonomy before starting to make any plans about how to promote learner autonomy. Many researchers agree on the idea that before suggesting a plan to promote learner autonomy, an investigation has to be made in order to show the alternative ways to implement autonomy in the best way (Chan, 2001b; Cotterall, 1995a; Cotterall, 1999; Spratt, Humphreys & Chan, 2002; Chan, Spratt & Humphreys, 2002; Kocak, 2003).

Many different scientific studies have been produced about the relationship between learner autonomy and readiness so far. The main factors which affect readiness have been identified in the following paragraphs.

First of all, learners' having decision making abilities is closely related to their autonomy readiness level. It is a factor that encourages them to take part in an autonomous language learning process more actively. Holec (1981) asserts that students use their decision making abilities by setting their goals, choosing the content or the techniques. As Nunan (1997) and Dickinson (1991) have made scientific studies which prove that the application of these decisions are significant not only in the class but also beyond the class.

Secondly, not only teachers roles and responsibilities but also learners' beliefs about their own roles and responsibilities are substantial for the development of their autonomous learning abilities (Lamb, 2008). Some researchers have conducted scientific studies proving that the learners who regard their teachers as facilitators are more willing to learn autonomously compared to the ones who see their teacher as the authority (Cotterall, 1995a). In another study, Littlewood (2000) has found out the result showing that even though it is not easy for teachers to change their roles from supplier of knowledge to facilitator and manager of the learning sources, most of the learners prefer to be active and independent in the learning process, not the passive receivers of the knowledge (Thanasoulas, 2000). Zhou and Chen (2005) suggest three steps for teachers to manage this role shift. Firstly, they

should encourage learners to identify their weaknesses, strengths and needs. Then, they should promote autonomous learning both inside and outside the class to make learners decide and work independently. Lastly they should provide learners choices like various tasks about their own learning process.

Thirdly, motivation of the learners is a crucial factor for the promotion of learner autonomy. According to the study conducted by Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002), higher motivation encourages learners to take more part in the autonomous learning activities outside the class. Another study shows that learners' being aware of their responsibilities in their own learning is mostly determined by their motivation level (Dickinson, 1995). Kormos and Csizer (2014), also share the result that autonomous learning behaviors of 638 Hungarian language learners are influenced by the motivational factors.

Lastly, the promotion of learner autonomy is also affected by the use of metacognitive learning strategies. Such strategies include some behaviors such as planning for learning, monitoring the learning process, and assessing the learning (Wenden, 1991; Chamot, 2009). Students can develop attitudes towards autonomous learning and they can organize their own learning (Victoria & Lockhart, 1995) which is also an essential requirement of autonomous learning. Nguyen and Gu (2013) have conducted a study asserting that learners can promote their abilities in planning, monitoring and assessing their writing task if they develop their metacognitive knowledge learning strategies.

2.5.1.2. Studies About Promoting Readiness in the Context of Learner Autonomy

While Dislen (2010) was investigating the relationship between learner autonomy and psychological well-being of the students, she also measured “readiness for autonomous learning” as a dimensional section of the study.

Egel (2003), Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011) and Cakildere (2016) used the same questionnaire which includes “readiness for self-direction” as one of the sections to be examined as well. Egel (2003) measured “readiness for self-direction” while examining the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy and Olur (2013) measured “readiness for self direction” while examining Turkish high school language learners’ perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. Ciftci (2011) measured “readiness for self-direction” while investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and Cakildere (2016) did the same in the study which aimed to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation. Moreover, Learner Autonomy Readiness Questionnaire which had been prepared by Nasoz (2015) was also used in the study by Bozkurt (2017) who investigated language learners’ perceptions about autonomy and their readiness for autonomy in language learning.

2.5.2. Corrective Feedback and Independent Writing in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, ‘independent writing’ which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. Then, previous studies on promoting ‘independent writing’ in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.2.1. Promoting Independent Writing in the Context of Learner Autonomy

The term “self-access” refers to the studies in which students are given the chance of taking charge of organising their learning (Dokuz, 2009). Independent writing can be defined as “a process in which learners can define their writing goals, select their materials and evaluate their writing process” on condition that learners do them regarding their needs. Accordingly,

the learner selects, manages, and evaluates his/her own learning activities as well as the appropriate time, place and tools to do them.

Educators may try to encourage self-directed learning as a stage at a time in schools (Benson, 2001) in order to encourage them to promote their independent writing skills. This can be managed by giving students direct access to the learning materials without any direct supervision especially at out of class times.

Self Access and independent writing terms are closely related to technological equipment such as devices used in language laboratories and the computer systems of a school. Other methods and practices which are associated with learner autonomy are more classroom-based, and comprise project work (Palfreyman, 2001) but schools with technological equipment have greater chance to promote independent writing skills when compared to the schools which are not that well equipped.

According to the information above, it is possible to define the term “self-appraisalment” as the process in which learners may reflect, make choices and arrive at personally constructed decisions, and in turn judge their own performance in learning (Dokuz, 2009).

Consequently, learners can utilize their decision-making and judging abilities in order to take responsibility for their learning. Benson (2001) stated that in the ten years before 2001, the number and extent of self-access facilities had risen so drastically that it was even possible to use the “self-access language learning” term instead of “self-directed” or “autonomous learning”.

2.5.2.2. Studies About Promoting Independent Writing in the Context of Learner Autonomy

While Dislen (2010) was investigating the relationship between learner autonomy and psychological well-being of the students, she also measured the promotion of “independent work” as a dimensional section of the study.

Egel (2003), Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011) and Cakildere (2016) used the same questionnaire which included “independent work in language learning” as one of the sections to be examined as well. Egel (2003) measured “independent work in language learning” while examining the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy and Olur (2013) measured “independent work in language learning” while examining Turkish high school language learners’ perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. Ciftci (2011) measured “independent work in language learning” while investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, and Cakildere (2016) did the same in the study which aimed to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation.

Another questionnaire which included “decision-making abilities” was used by 5 different researchers; Yildirim (2005), Karabiyik (2008), Yigit (2017), Cibik (2017) and Ceylan (2014). While Yildirim (2005) used this questionnaire to examine “Turkish English Language Teaching students’ perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy”, Karabiyik (2008) aimed to investigate “Turkish university learners’ readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with learners’ culture of learning” by using this questionnaire. And Yigit (2017) studied on “the perceptions of the students who study at English Language Teaching Department related to learner autonomy in language learning” whereas Cibik’s (2017) aim was to measure “the effects of Flipped Classroom Model on learner autonomy in English Language Teaching context”. Lastly, Ceylan (2014) used this questionnaire to examine “the effect of language learning strategy training on learner autonomy and foreign language achievement”.

Balcikanli (2006) assessed “learner choice” dimensional section as well in his study while examining the effect of the activities to be exploited at preparatory school on the promotion of learner autonomy. Lastly, Misir (2017) measured “self efforts” dimensional section in the study with the title “The Analysis of Learner Autonomy and Autonomous Learning Practices in Massive Open Online Language Courses”.

2.5.3. Corrective Feedback and Assessment and Evaluation in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, ‘assessment and evaluation’ which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. Then, previous studies on promoting ‘assessment and evaluation’ in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.3.1. Promoting Assessment and Evaluation in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Ceylan (2006) states that self-assessment is a process by which learners can assess their own progress such as through the use of portfolios. Balcikanli (2006) states that the central role of self-assessment and self-assessment instruments provided for ELP are highly encouraged in autonomy. Learners need to be aware of their own capabilities and they should also know how well they did in the assessment procedure and how much and how hard they need to study. Thus, it helps learners monitor their own language learning processes. Furthermore, it is due to self-assessment that learners have a direct involvement in the language learning process (O’Malley and Pierce, 1996).

2.5.3.2. Studies About Promoting Assessment and Evaluation in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Egel (2003), Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011) and Cakildere (2016) used the same questionnaire which included “selection of content, objectives/evaluation, assessment/ motivation” as 3 separate dimensional sections to be examined as well. Egel (2003) measured these 3 sections

while examining the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy and Olur (2013) measured them while examining Turkish high school language learners' perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. Ciftci (2011) measured "selection of content, objectives/evaluation, assessment/ motivation" as 3 separate sections while investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, Cakildere (2016) did the same in the study which aimed to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation.

Balcikanli (2006) assessed "assessment" dimensional section as well in his study while examining the effect of the activities to be exploited at preparatory school on the promotion of learner autonomy. Lastly, Arkoc (2008) administered a questionnaire with the name "Assessment Questionnaire for Listening Comprehension Skill" within the scope of the study which aimed to investigate the effect of learner autonomy on the listening comprehension success.

2.5.4. Corrective Feedback and Writing Activities in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, 'writing activities' knowledge which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. Then, previous studies on promoting 'writing activities' knowledge in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.4.1. Promoting Writing Activities in the Context of Learner Autonomy

The types and taxonomy of writing will be discussed in the "Approaches to Second Language Writing" part. Only controlled writing activities, guided writing activities and free writing activities will be discussed in this part. Learners mostly start with controlled writing

activities as the first step. They move to guided writing activities in time and in the end they try to perform free writing activities. They experience this shift from controlled to free activities as their proficiency level increases.

Mostly grammatical items are taught, reinforced or tested by means of controlled writing activities. Language teachers provide learners with an abundance of content and thus, learners can not find chance to show much of their creativity. It is mostly preferred at early stages since learners do not have enough proficiency and ability to carry out free writing tasks. Controlled writing tasks are also easier to evaluate. That is why they may be preferable in crowded classrooms as well. Learners should be able to sort out the activity types and choose the most appropriate one for their own level and learning style.

2.5.4.2. Studies About Promoting Writing Activities in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Egel (2003), Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011) and Cakildere (2016) used the same questionnaire which included “language learning activities” as one of the sections to be examined as well. Egel (2003) measured “language learning activities” while examining the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy and Olur (2013) measured “language learning activities” while examining Turkish high school language learners’ perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. While Ciftci (2011) measured “language learning activities” while investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, Cakildere (2016) did the same in the study which aimed to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation.

Another questionnaire which included “engagement in autonomous activities inside and outside the class” was used by 5 different researchers who are Yildirim (2005), Karabiyik (2008), Yigit (2017), Cibik (2017) and Ceylan (2014). While Yildirim (2005) used this

questionnaire to examine “Turkish English Language Teaching students’ perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy”, Karabiyik (2008) aimed to investigate “Turkish university learners’ readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with learners’ culture of learning” by using this questionnaire. And Yigit (2017) studied on “the perceptions of the students who study at English Language Teaching Department related to learner autonomy in language learning” whereas Cibik’s (2017) aim was to measure “the effects of Flipped Classroom Model on learner autonomy in English Language Teaching context”.

Lastly, Ceylan (2014) used this questionnaire to examine “the effect of language learning strategy training on learner autonomy and foreign language achievement”.

Han (2015) and Zonturlu (2014) both used the same questionnaire which had been adapted by Kocak (2003) in their studies which means one of the sections in the questionnaire was “outside class activities” in all 3 studies. While Han (2015) measured this property while examining self-perceptions of high school students towards learner autonomy, Zonturlu (2014) studied on students’ perception of learner autonomy development and their perception of learning English within a Computer Assisted Language Learning environment. Misir (2017) measured “broader autonomous activities” dimensional section in the study with the title “The Analysis of Learner Autonomy and Autonomous Learning Practices in Massive Open Online Language Courses”.

Also Sherwani (2017) used a questionnaire which includes “activities outside the class” section while examining the relationship among learner autonomy, self esteem and choice of vocabulary learning strategies. Cakildere (2016) also carried out a study in order to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation on a significant level in a blended learning context and one of the sections included in the study was “preferences about instructional activities”.

2.5.5. Corrective Feedback and Writing Strategies in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, the ability to use ‘writing strategies’ which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. Then, previous studies on promoting the ability to use ‘writing strategies’ in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.5.1. Promoting Writing Strategies in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Rubin (1987) defines learning strategies as “the strategies which contribute to the development of the language system in which the learner constructs and affects learning directly”. It is required for learners to be aware of the relationship between learner autonomy and learning strategies in order to be successful language learners (Calisir, 2013). The underlying reason for this relation is that learning strategies are a part of the curriculum which is prepared regarding the development of learner autonomy.

Although the classification of learning strategies is a controversial subject just like their definition, the strategies which are adopted by adults while learning language was classified into three categories by Wenden (1991) as a) knowing what language and language learning involves, b) planning the content and methods of learning and c) self-evaluation of progress and learning experience. However, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) put forth a different classification which defends the idea that this categorization should be made according to the level or type of process involved. Another classification was made by Oxford (1990) who divides them into direct and indirect strategies.

As learning strategies are mostly selected by the learners, they are closely related to the learner autonomy. Chamot (2001) states two important reasons which explain why learning strategies are that crucial in order to promote learner autonomy. Firstly, as long as the current

strategies of learners are discovered, learning processes which include cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective processes can be understood in a much better way and that is why the classification of learning strategies in this study will be held from this perspective. Secondly, it would be useful to determine the strategy profile of learners in order to comprehend and analyze less successful learners who are deprived of the awareness of strategy use.

As a conclusion, learning strategies can be counted as very essential to be included in a curriculum or even a lesson plan while preparing them in terms of fostering learner autonomy as they lead the learners to take the responsibility of their own learning in a more conscious and effective sense (Balcikanli, 2006).

2.5.5.1.1. Cognitive Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that cognitive strategies are the operations carried out directly on the material to be learned by the learner. Wenden (1991), puts forth the four steps of human learning. The first step is "selecting information from incoming data" which explains that human consciously or unconsciously differentiates and picks up the needed or useful input. The second one is "comprehending the information" which means coding the received information in a unique way as every individual has his or her own way of coding the information. The next step is "storing the information" and it can be a short term storage or a long term storage initially. And the last step is "retrieving the information for use".

2.5.5.1.2. Metacognitive Strategies

Another way to develop learner autonomy is using metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies cover all the facts which the learners go through during their cognitive learning process. Moreover, as Brown (1983; cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) argues, metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for,

monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) remark that metacognitive strategies make use of the knowledge which is acquired through cognitive processes in order to organize learning processes. Furthermore, Victoria and Lockhart (1995) remark that using effective metacognitive strategies may help students to develop a more active and autonomous attitude enabling them to take control of their own learning. Wenden (1991) mentions this relation saying that "metacognitive knowledge about language learning is the second kind of learner training content to be included in learning plans to develop learner autonomy."

Livingston (2003) expresses that cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies differ in that while cognitive strategies help learners achieve a specific goal such as reading and comprehending a text, metacognitive strategies are the strategies which ensure that the goals have been reached such as quizzing oneself in order to check if the target subject has been understood or not.

Wenden (1991) quotes Flavell remarking that metacognitive knowledge can be classified into three groups, the first of which is person knowledge. "Person knowledge" refers to the general knowledge which people have about how human learns. "Strategic knowledge" is counted as the second type of metacognitive knowledge which is the stored knowledge which people have about strategies. Relatedly, such strategies may include language learning strategies. And the third metacognitive knowledge type is "task knowledge". Students are given specific tasks such as "reading for the gist" or "true-false items" in the context of task knowledge. It mostly deals with the steps the language learners need to take and the procedures to follow to do a task or assignment.

2.5.5.1.3 Social and Affective Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define social and affective strategies as the strategies which are used to describe the ways in which learners cooperate with others and control themselves

in order to foster their learning. While the “social” part of this strategy deals with cooperation with others such as asking them questions or having a dialogue with them, the “affective” part is about controlling the emotional aspects of communication such as managing one’s anxiety while interacting with others or encouraging oneself for self expression.

They both have significant functions in fostering language learner autonomy as they both encourage learners to make their own decisions and apply those decisions in the best way possible in the learning process (Calisir, 2013). Furthermore, social strategies are essential for language learners to communicate and it is so important since learning a language requires a lot of authentic materials and real life dialogues. On the other hand, affective factors such as attitude, willingness and fears affect learners’ success and attendance as well as their autonomy. Language learners can have the chance to take more responsibility by means of these strategies. It is an undeniable fact that learners will interact more in a more motivating and encouraging environment via these strategies.

2.5.5.2. Studies About Promoting Writing Strategies in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Han (2015) and Zonturlu (2014) both used the same questionnaire which had been adapted by Kocak (2003) in their studies, which means one of the sections in the questionnaire was “language learning strategies” in all 3 studies. While Han (2015) measured this property while examining self-perceptions of high school students towards learner autonomy, Zonturlu (2014) studied on students’ perception of learner autonomy development and their perception of learning English within a Computer Assisted Language Learning environment. Celtikci (2011) studied the section “learning strategies” as well while investigating the tendency of primary state school students to be autonomous learners in foreign language classes.

“Learning strategies” dimensional section was also included in the study investigating whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation on a significant level in a blended learning context (Cakildere, 2016) In the study carried out by Cline (2000), the teachability and utilization of a metacognitive strategy in distance learning classrooms were investigated. Cline (2000) made use of a strategy use inventory as the measurement tool in the study. Lastly, Boyno (2011) used a questionnaire with the title “English Language Learning Strategies Questionnaire” while analyzing the factors which influence learner autonomy in the context of teaching English as a foreign language.

2.5.6. Corrective Feedback and Responsibility in the Context of Learner Autonomy

Firstly, ‘responsibility’ which is accepted as a component of learner autonomy will be held in the following part in the context of promoting it through corrective written feedback. It is also studies as ‘teacher’s role’ in some studies. Then, previous studies on promoting the ‘responsibility’ in the context of learner autonomy will be reviewed mentioning the instruments which were used in those studies.

2.5.6.1. Promoting Responsibility in the Context of Learner Autonomy

In traditional approaches the teacher is accepted as the one true source of knowledge and he or she is assumed to hand over the “expert” knowledge to the language learners. As the teacher is the authority in such classes, only teacher-student interaction is possible. However, in modern teaching approaches teacher domination is not favoured anymore and the teacher gains some different roles such as that of a facilitator or an observer. While students are accepted as passive receivers in traditional approaches, they still have some distinctive roles in the language learning process.

As learner autonomy is a modern concept, it requires some distinctive teacher and student roles other than just being a source or a receiver. Accordingly, the teacher is assumed to put emphasis on student-student interaction rather than just teacher-student interaction. Taking this notion to a further step, Little & Dam (2005) state that it is possible for learners to learn something new, if it is based on what they already know.

2.5.6.2. Studies About Promoting Responsibility in the Context of Learner Autonomy

While Dislen (2010) was investigating the relationship between learner autonomy and psychological well-being of the students, she also examined the change in the “teacher’s role” as a dimensional section of the study.

Egel (2003), Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011) and Cakildere (2016) used the same questionnaire which included the “role of teacher” as one of the sections to be examined as well. Egel (2003) measured the “role of teacher” while examining the language portfolio effect on learner autonomy and Olur (2013) measured the “role of teacher” while examining Turkish high school language learners’ perceptions about their awareness level of autonomy. While Ciftci (2011) measured the “role of teacher” while investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and learner autonomy, Cakildere (2016) did the same in the study which aimed to find out whether or not the European Language Portfolio fosters learner autonomy and motivation.

Another questionnaire which included the “perception of responsibilities” was used by 5 researchers who are Yildirim (2005), Karabiyik (2008), Yigit (2017), Cibik (2017) and Ceylan (2014). While Yildirim (2005) used this questionnaire to examine “Turkish English Language Teaching students’ perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy”, Karabiyik (2008) aimed to investigate “Turkish university learners’ readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with learners’ culture of learning” by using this questionnaire.

And Yigit (2017) studied on “the perceptions of the students who study at English Language Teaching Department related to learner autonomy in language learning” whereas Cibik’s (2017) aim was to measure “the effects of Flipped Classroom Model on learner autonomy in English Language Teaching context”. Lastly, Ceylan (2014) used this questionnaire to examine “the effect of language learning strategy training on learner autonomy and foreign language achievement”.

Han (2015) and Zonturlu (2014) both used the same questionnaire which had been adapted by Kocak (2003) in their studies which means one of the sections in the questionnaire was “responsibility” in all 3 studies. While Han (2015) measured this property while examining self-perceptions of high school students towards learner autonomy, Zonturlu (2014) studied on students’ perception of learner autonomy development and their perception of learning English within a Computer Assisted Language Learning environment.

Misir (2017) measured “learners’ perceptions of their own roles and learners’ perceptions of teachers’ roles” as 2 separate dimensional sections in the study with the title “The Analysis of Learner Autonomy and Autonomous Learning Practices in Massive Open Online Language Courses”.

Celtikci (2011) studied the section “responsibility” as well while investigating the tendency of primary state school students to be autonomous learners in foreign language classes.

Lastly, Sherwani (2017) used a questionnaire which includes “responsibilities towards learning” section as well while examining the relationship among learner autonomy, self esteem and choice of vocabulary learning strategies.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1.Presentation

This chapter deals with the methodology of the study. The information about the research design, participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis is presented in this part. Moreover, a comprehensive pilot study, which was carried out before the actual administration of the questionnaire, is presented in this part.

3.2. Research Design

This study was conducted to investigate the positive effects of different written corrective teacher feedback types on the promotion of learner autonomy. The study required an experimental research since the main goal was to see if there was a significant difference between the autonomy level changes in the control and experimental groups each of whom was given a different type of feedback. The autonomy levels of the language learners were measured by means of questionnaires before and after the treatment.

Before starting the experiment, a group of language learners had to be selected. All the learners needed to have similar English proficiency level and thus, it was decided that they should all be A2 level of learners. Accordingly, it was assumed that it would be appropriate

if all the participants were studying in the same class. 3 groups each of which was composed of 10 participants were designed out of a total of 30 language learners who were selected randomly. At the beginning of the fall term in 2019, learner autonomy questionnaire was administered as pre-tests to all 3 groups in order to define each group's average learner autonomy level. The same learner autonomy test was administered as the post-test after a 10-weeks' writing education process which included different writing tasks. Language learners in different groups were given different types of corrective feedback as follows; correction type of feedback, underlined type of feedback, coded type of feedback. At the end of the experiment, the changes in all 3 groups were analyzed using SPSS 18 statistics tool.

3.3. Participants

The participants of the study were randomly selected 30 students who study at the same university and department. All the participants study at "Paramedic" department at Kütahya Sağlık Bilimleri University and they are all first grade students who have compulsory English course. The universe of the study is all the first grade university students in Turkey. The sample is chosen from the same class to ensure that they all have exactly the same treatment at the same time. What differs each group was the error correction type they received. They were divided into 3 different groups randomly in order to be able to give a different feedback type to each group.

3.4. Instrument

The data collection instrument of this experimental study was a questionnaire, which was designed to collect quantitative data. A likert type questionnaire was composed by the researcher for this purpose. First of all, a great number of studies about learner autonomy were probed closely and the ones with the most appropriate questionnaires were chosen among them regarding the background knowledge of the participants. Among the

ones which stood out the most, a few studies were chosen again regarding the styles of the questionnaires which were used to collect data. All the items in these questionnaires and the dimensional sections to which those items belong were studied carefully. An original questionnaire was composed at the end of this probe. The researcher was inspired by the questionnaires in the following studies while composing the final form of the questionnaire which was used in this study:

Dislen (2010) used a questionnaire in her thesis study entitled “Students’ and Teachers’ Perceptions On The Relationship Between Learner Autonomy And The Psychological Well-Being in the ELT Context”. She states that she formed the questionnaire in her study making use of different scales in different studies. The questionnaire in her study includes four sections, namely ‘teacher role, independent work, readiness for autonomous learning and academic self-awareness’ and it was found beneficial and helpful in the composition process of the questionnaire which was used in this study.

Another questionnaire made use of in this study was adapted by Kocak (2003) from two questionnaires, one of which is composed by Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy (1996) and the other by Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002). Similarly, this adapted questionnaire was used in two different theses studies in Turkey. The first of them was written by Zonturlu (2014) and the other was written by Han (2015) in two different versions. Zonturlu (2014) handled learner autonomy from a perspective that divides learner autonomy concept into 4 dimensional sections which are ‘motivation, language learning strategies, responsibility and outside class activities’. However Han (2015) examined learner autonomy under the following dimensional sections; motivation, learning strategies, out-of-class activities and learner autonomy in general. This questionnaire which was adapted by Kocak (2003) was also used by Ciftci (2011).

Another questionnaire by which the researcher was inspired was used in 5 different theses one of which is a doctorate thesis. While Yildirim (2005), Karabiyik (2008), Yigit (2017)

and Cibik (2017) used this learner autonomy questionnaire in their master theses, Ceylan (2014) used it in his doctorate thesis. Similarly, this questionnaire was also composed of 4 different dimensional sections which are ‘perception of responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation level and engagement in autonomous activities inside and outside the class’. These dimensional sections were adapted by the researchers above from a questionnaire developed by Chan et al. (2002).

The last questionnaire which inspired the researcher was formed by Egel (2003). This questionnaire was also used in five other thesis studies carried out by Olur (2013), Ciftci (2011), Yapiorer (2013), Karagol (2008) and Cakildere (2016). The questionnaire is composed of 9 dimensions which are “readiness for self-direction, independent work in language learning, importance of class/ teacher, role of teacher, language learning activities, selection of content, objectives/evaluation, assessment/ motivation and other cultures”.

Holec (1981, p. 3) defines learner autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s learning” and he places great importance on the ability of taking responsibility in defining objectives, defining contents, defining materials and techniques, defining the place and pace of learning, and evaluating what has been learned in the language learning process for learner autonomy. Accordingly, the ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’ which was used in this study included six parts which aimed to measure different learner autonomy features which are a) readiness for autonomy, b) independent writing c) assessment and evaluation, d) writing activities, e) writing strategies and f) responsibility. The questionnaire includes 48 items, and participants were asked to answer questions on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from “1” representing “I do not not agree at all” to “5” representing “I agree completely”.

The questionnaire was administrated in Turkish. Since the learner autonomy questionnaire was adapted from different questionnaires which are originally in English and the participants were the speakers of Turkish, most of the items were needed to be translated into Turkish. This was done in order to eliminate any possible miscomprehension problems.

Then, Turkish items which were placed in the questionnaire had to be back-translated into English while writing the thesis since there were some differences between the items' original forms and their new forms after translation. The translation was made by the researcher at first, and then the translated questionnaire items were given to the Master's Degree graduates of Gazi University ELT Department to check the translation and receive their feedback. Then, the translation of the items was checked by Melissa Joanna Mingie who is an American native speaker of English and an English instructor at Kutahya Dumlupinar University.

Finally, the final version was checked by the experts, and necessary revisions were made to eliminate any possible confusion and misunderstanding. The final format of the questionnaire is presented both in English (Appendix 3) and in Turkish (Appendix 4) at the end of the thesis.

3.4.1. Items Belonging to the Dimensional Sections

The questionnaire includes 6 dimensional sections and 48 items in total. The number of items belonging to different dimensional sections are as follows:

- Readiness: 9 items,
- Independent Writing: 9 items,
- Assessment and Evaluation: 9 items,
- Writing Activities: 9 items,
- Writing Strategies: 6 items,
- Responsibility: 6 items.

The items belonging to different dimensional sections are as follows:

3.4.1.1. Items Belonging to Readiness Section

The “Readiness” section in the questionnaire is composed of 9 items. This part aims to measure the readiness level of the students for being-autonomous language learners. The item numbers of the Readiness section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 1, 2, 3, 15, 16, 18, 25, 39 and 47. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 1, 2, 3, 18, 19, 21, 28, 45, and 54.

3.4.1.2. Items Belonging to Independent Writing Section

The “Independent Writing” section in the questionnaire is composed of 9 items. This part aims to measure the ability to take responsibility in some areas such as in defining objectives, defining contents, defining materials and techniques, defining the place and pace of learning, and evaluating what has been learned in the language learning process. The item numbers of the Independent Writing section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 4, 7, 9, 10, 17, 27, 36, 44 and 46. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 5, 10, 12, 13, 20, 30, 41, 50 and 52.

3.4.1.3. Items Belonging to Assessment and Evaluation Section

The “Assessment and Evaluation” section in the questionnaire is composed of 9 items. This part aims to measure different assessment and evaluation abilities of the students. The item numbers of the Assessment and Evaluation section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 8, 11, 21, 24, 30, 32, 35, 38 and 45. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the

questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 11, 14, 24, 27, 33, 36, 39, 43 and 51.

3.4.1.4. Items Belonging to Writing Activities Section

The “Writing Activities” section in the questionnaire is composed of 9 items. This part aims to measure the knowledge of the language learners which they can use in the process of being autonomous writers. The item numbers of the Writing Activities section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 5, 6, 12, 26, 29, 34, 40, 43 and 48. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 6, 9, 15, 29, 32, 38, 46, 49 and 55.

3.4.1.5. Items Belonging to Writing Strategies Section

The “Writing Strategies” section in the questionnaire is composed of 6 items. This part aims to measure the ability to use some writing strategies such as allocating time, seeking for new and specific way to write better, making use of the feedback, brainstorming and composing outline. The item numbers of the Writing Strategies section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 13, 14, 22, 23, 28 and 41. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 16, 17, 25, 26, 31 and 47.

3.4.1.6. Items Belonging to Responsibility Section

The “Responsibility” section in the questionnaire is composed of 6 items. This part aims to measure the awareness of the language learners about the roles the teacher and learners take.

An autonomous learner is expected to identify and differentiate the roles that s/he should take. Thus, s/he needs to know when to ask for help and when to take responsibility. The item numbers of the Responsibility section in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows: 19, 20, 31, 33, 37 and 42. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1): 22, 23, 35, 37, 42 and 48.

3.4.2. Reverse Worded Items

Reversing a portion of the items is often intended to reduce the effects of response styles. It is done in order to omit carelessly answered questionnaire sheets. Mostly one of the two strategies are used for item reversal (Sonderen, Sanderman and Coyne, 2013). The first way of doing this is adding negative particles: words like ‘not’ or ‘no’ or affixal morphemes like ‘un-’, ‘non-’, ‘dis-’ or ‘-less’. The new item is called “reverse oriented” item after it goes through this change. The other way is reversing the sentence by using words which have opposite meanings. This new item is called a “reverse worded” item (Sonderen, Sanderman and Coyne, 2013). For example, “My teacher should decide on what I must write about.” is a reverse worded form of the sentence “I should decide on what I must write about.”.

Reverse worded items in the questionnaire which was used in the actual administration of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) are as follows; 4, 7, 9, 17, 19, 20, 32, 35, 36, 42, 44 and 46. These item numbers correspond to the following item numbers in the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1); 5, 10, 12, 20, 22, 23, 36, 39, 41, 48, 50 and 52.

3.4.3. Omitted Items

Some items which had been planned to take part in the questionnaire were left out considering the reliability and validity results of the pilot study in which 153 participants

took place. 7 items belonging to different dimensional sections were omitted to get the most appropriate results out of the actual administration of the questionnaire. The detailed statistics of the pilot study have been presented in the “3.6. Pilot” part in this study.

The following items were omitted from the questionnaire which was used in the pilot study (Appendix 1) and thus, they did not exist in the actual administration of the questionnaire: 4, 7, 8, 34, 40, 44 and 53.

3.5. Data Collection and Treatment

In this part, data collection procedure and the treatment which all the groups received will be held in detail. Firstly, the research type, the number of tests and test types and data collection tool will be introduced slightly. Then, the duration of the treatment, the coursebook, the topics which were covered during the treatment, the tasks which were assigned to the students and the feedback types provided to the students will be explained in detail.

3.5.1. Data Collection

A data collection tool was preferred aiming to find out language learners’ perceptions on their own a) readiness for autonomy, b) independent writing c) assessment and evaluation, d) writing activities, e) writing strategies and f) responsibility.

A quantitative research design was preferred considering the aim of the study and consequently, the data were collected through questionnaires which were applied just before the treatment as a pre-test and after the treatment process as a post-test. The same questionnaire was used both as pre-testing and post-testing tool for the study to be valid and reliable.

It should be noted that it was not possible to apply a late-post-test since the term ended right after the post-test application and because of other official exams scheduled on the

academic calendar. The responses are assumed to reflect the real and genuine opinions of the learners. Accordingly, the results that are achieved are considered to be reliable and valid. Both English form (Appendix 3) and Turkish form (Appendix 4) of the questionnaire are presented at the end of the thesis.

3.5.2. Treatment

The treatment process for this study lasted for 10 weeks in total. The table which shows the schedule for the 10-weeks' process is presented in the Appendix 5. The table also includes dates, chapters covered, activities carried out in the classroom, aims of the lessons and weekly assignments.

The course book was chosen according to the English Proficiency level of the participants who were about to start A2 Level of proficiency according to the CEFR (Common European Framework Reference). The cover page of the coursebook by Peterson (2003) is presented at the end of the study in Appendix 6. The book was downloaded from the internet site of United States Department of State. It is a free-to-download book which United States Government published for the learners of English. The table of contents for the first ten chapters in the book is presented in Appendix 7.

During the treatment process different writing tasks were given to the learners in each group. They were all given the same tasks at the same time. A total of 6 writing tasks were given by the researcher. The list of the writing tasks are presented in Appendix 8.

Learners in different groups were given different types of corrective feedback. The first group got 'explicitly corrected feedback' which means their errors were corrected explicitly by their language teacher and they saw both their errors and correct forms on their papers when they got their papers back. The second group was given 'underlined feedback' which means their writing errors were only underlined and the papers were given back. And the third group was given 'coded feedback' which means their errors were shown with the

help of a series of symbols. The writing correction codes and their meanings which are used in the study are shown in Appendix 9. They are taken from an online article written by Kaye (<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/writing-correction-code>).

After the learners handed their assignments in, they were checked by the researcher and they were given back after the necessary corrections were made. While sometimes only a letter was underlined in some sentences, even a whole sentence was underlined at other times in the ‘underlined’ correction group’s papers. Even though there were many alternative correction ways in ‘explicitly corrected’ group’s papers, only the simplest of them were preferred by the researcher. The same notion was adapted for the ‘coded’ correction group’s papers, too. No comments were made to avoid any kind of elements which may affect the reliability and validity of the study but some resources for correction were advised to those who asked for help since some groups needed it while others did not need it that much.

They were asked to correct their mistakes and hand their paper back after the advised corrections were made by the learners. They were also asked to mark the corrections they would make to be easily noticed. It was seen that some mistakes were still the same on their papers after their papers were collected for the second time but they were not graded or evaluated since the main aim of the study was to evaluate their autonomy level rather than their proficiency level.

An example of the papers belonging to different groups and different tasks are presented in Appendix 10. 6 different papers which belong to 6 different learners are examples of 6 different tasks. The first page of each paper is the example of the first format which was handed back to the learner for them to make the required corrections advised by the teacher while the second page shows the final format handed over to the teacher after the required corrections were made by them. The aim of this second submission of papers was to assure that the learners attached importance to the teacher corrections on their papers and to encourage them to research in order to evaluate and correct their own mistakes. It should be

noted that a total of 360 papers, 180 first format papers and 180 second format papers, were collected to be kept as the documents of the thesis by the researcher.

3.6. Pilot and Factor Analysis

Before the actual administration of the questionnaire which would be a base to the thesis, a pilot study was carried out on 153 participants who study at Kutahya Dumlupinar University and Kütahya Sağlık Bilimleri (Kutahya Health Sciences) University, in first grade. The participants in the pilot study carried the similar qualifications with the control and experimental groups in the actual administration of the questionnaire. They all had compulsory English course just like the 30 participants in the actual administration of the questionnaire. Similarly, their average age was between 18 and 20 and they were all living in the same town, Gediz district of Kütahya province. At the beginning of the pilot process, all items in the questionnaires were evaluated by several experts at Gazi University and Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University in order to assure the content and face validity of the instruments. The items were evaluated by the experts in terms of content validity and face validity. According to the given feedback the items in the questionnaire were revised. After the revision procedure, the questionnaire was piloted with a group of 153 participants who study at Kutahya Dumlupinar University and Kütahya Sağlık Bilimleri (Kutahya Health Sciences) University, in first grade to see the potential problems that could occur during the administration process of the actual administration of the questionnaire. The participants were selected randomly. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated to examine the internal consistency of the instruments for reliability. The measure of Cronbach Alpha for the sections are as follows:

Cronbach Alpha for 'readiness' section of the questionnaire: 0.714

Cronbach Alpha for 'independent writing' section of the questionnaire: 0.605

Cronbach Alpha for 'assessment and evaluation' section of the questionnaire: 0.617

Cronbach Alpha for ‘writing activities’ section of the questionnaire: 0.641

Cronbach Alpha for ‘writing strategies’ section of the questionnaire: 0.757

Cronbach Alpha for ‘responsibility’ section of the questionnaire: 0.722

The Cronbach Alpha measure for all sections in the questionnaire combined was 0.878 for the first format of the questionnaire which included 55 items in total.

Table 3

Reliability Statistics of the Questionnaire with 55 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.878	55

After the revision process of the questionnaire in which 7 items from different sections were omitted to assure validity and reliability, the Cronbach Alpha measure for all sections in the new questionnaire combined 0.907 which indicated that it had quite high internal consistency.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics of the Questionnaire with 48 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.907	48

Consequently, necessary revisions were made regarding the problems in the administration of the questionnaires in the pilot study and to assure validity and reliability. The total number of items changed from 55 to 48 by omitting 7 items. The wordings of some of the items were revised considering the questions of the participants while filling the questionnaire forms. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the revised questionnaire used in the pilot study was 0.907 for the new questionnaire format which was planned to be administered to the groups in the actual administration of the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Presentation

In this chapter, the data gathered through the questionnaires (pre and post tests) which aim to assess participants' learner autonomy levels are presented and analyzed in order to find the answers for the research questions of this study. The analysis process covers group statistics, the tests of reliability, the tests of normality, t-test scores of all 3 groups, paired samples t-tests of 6 sections in the questionnaire and the comparison of all 3 groups in terms of 6 different sections.

4.2. Group Statistics

There were a total of 30 participants in the study and they were divided into 3 groups randomly. Consequently, each group was composed of 10 participants. Their age were not asked in the questionnaire since they were all studying in the same grade and it was assumed that their ages were close to each others'. The gender statistics of the groups were calculated. 23 female and 7 male participants constitute the total number of the participants in all 3 groups. The table shows that while female participants constitute 76.7% rate of the total, male participants constitute only 23.3% of the total rate.

4.3. Tests of Reliability

The tests of reliability for the pilot study, the tests of reliability for the actual administration of the questionnaire and the tests of reliability for the dimensional sections which are namely “a)Readiness, b)Independent Writing, c)Assessment and Evaluation, d)Writing Activities, e)Writing Strategies and f)Teacher’s Role” will be presented in the following section. Even though all the values range between different cut offs, they are all accepted to be reliable according to the reliability evaluation criteria which this study is based on.

4.3.1. Tests of Reliability for the Pilot Study

The instruments in a scientific study must possess some values in order for the study to be valid and reliable. While the content-validity of the questionnaires was provided by means of the literature review and expert analysis, the reliability values of the questionnaires were gathered regarding Ravid’s (1994, p. 252) suggestion that “in exploratory research, even a modest reliability of 0.50 to 0.60 is acceptable although a higher reliability is always preferable. For group decisions, reliability levels in the 0.60s may be acceptable.”

Ozdamar (1999) presents the reliability evaluation criteria as in the following table:

Table 5

Reliability Evaluation Criteria For ‘ α ’ Value

α value	Reliability of the instrument
$0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$	No reliability
$0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$	Low reliability
$0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$	Quite reliability
$0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$	High reliability

Ozdamar, K. (1999). *Statistical Analysis with Package Programs*. Eskisehir, Kaan Bookstore.

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire used in the pilot study was 0.878 for the whole questionnaire. As suggested in the table above, the questionnaire used in the pilot

study was highly reliable. 153 participants attended this pilot study. Below is the statistics of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire used in the pilot study which is composed of 55 items:

Table 6

Reliability Statistics of the Questionnaire in the Pilot Study with 55 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items	Participants
0.878	55	153

After the necessary adaptations were made considering the expert evaluations and the feedback gathered through the pilot study, an adapted questionnaire emerged including 48 items instead of 55. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire used in the pilot study was 0.907 for the whole questionnaire. It means that the questionnaire used in the pilot study was highly reliable, too. Below is the statistics of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire used in the pilot study which is composed of 48 items:

Table 7

Reliability Statistics of the Questionnaire in the Pilot Study with 48 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items	Participants
0.907	48	153

4.3.2. Tests of Reliability for the Actual Administration of the Questionnaire

Reliability of the questionnaire was analyzed after pre-test and post-test measurements in the actual administration of the questionnaire as well. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the pre-test used in the actual administration of the questionnaire was 0.897 for the whole questionnaire and 0.935 in the post test:

Table 8

Reliability Statistics of the Actual Administration of the Questionnaire

Test	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items	Participants
Pre-Test	0.897	48	30
Post-Test	0.935	48	30

4.3.3. Tests of Reliability for the Dimensional Sections

The questionnaire was composed of 6 sections which are namely “a)Readiness, b)Independent Writing, c)Assessment and Evaluation, d)Writing Activities, e)Writing Strategies and f)Teacher’s Role”. The reliability value of the “Readiness” section with 9 items is 0.714 which signifies that this dimensional section has a quite high reliability as shown in the table below:

Table 9

Reliability Statistics of the “Readiness” Section with 9 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.714	9

The reliability value of the “Independent Writing” section with 9 items is 0.605. This coefficient denotes that this dimensional section has quite high reliability as shown in the table below:

Table 10

Reliability Statistics of the Independent Writing Section with 9 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.605	9

The reliability value of the “Assessment and Evaluation” section with 9 items is 0.617 showing that this dimensional section also has quite high reliability:

Table 11

Reliability Statistics of the Assessment and Evaluation Section with 9 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.617	9

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the “Writing Activities” section was 0.641 meaning that this dimensional section also has quite high reliability:

Table 12

Reliability Statistics of the Writing Activities Section with 9 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.641	9

The reliability value of the “Writing Strategies” section was 0.757 meaning that this dimensional section also has quite high reliability:

Table 13

Reliability Statistics of the Writing Strategies Section with 6 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.757	6

The reliability value of the “Teacher’s Role” section which includes 6 items was 0.722. This value shows that that this dimensional section is quite reliable, too:

Table 14

Reliability Statistics of the Responsibility Dimension with 6 Items

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
0.722	6

To sum up, all the sections in the questionnaire are quite reliable considering their Cronbach Alpha coefficient values. More importantly, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire used in the actual administration of the questionnaire was 0.907 for the whole questionnaire which means that it is highly reliable. There was one more teacher who reviewed the feedback given to the learners except for the researcher in order to provide inter-rater reliability (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2006).

As for the validity of the questionnaire, the detailed explanation was presented in “3.4. Instruments” and “3.6. Pilot” sections in this study. The adapted questionnaire was internally validated in terms of content validity and face validity by several experts in the relevant field, who thoroughly analyzed them and made some modifications after which they confirmed that the instruments were valid and ready to use.

4.4. Tests of Normality

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) point out that it is necessary to check normality of the distribution of variables when running correlations between variables. SPSS provides the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (with Lilliefors correction) and the Shapiro-Wilk normality tests and recommends these tests only for a sample size of less than 50 (Elliot & Woodward, 2007). Shapiro-Wilk test was found to be the most powerful test for all sample sizes ranging between 10 and 1000 in a study which aimed to compare some common tests for normality (Ogunleye, Oyejola & Obisesan, 2018). 4 different normality tests (Shapiro-Wilk test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Jarqua-Bera test which depends on Skewness-Kurtosis and D’Agostino-Pearson test which determines Skewness-Kurtosis) were compared for 8 or larger sample sizes and Shapiro-Wilk seemed more powerful compared to other 3 normality test types for 8 or larger sample sizes in a study carried out by Oztuna, Elhan and Tuccar (2006).

Therefore, Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests were run in addition to descriptive statistics in order to inspect whether they were normally distributed or not. In other words, Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests were applied to specify whether they were of parametric or non - parametric nature. On the other hand, these results might not be so reliable due to the small sample sizes of the groups.

Assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance have been tested before starting the inferential analyses. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk values were found to be non-

significant indicating normality for certain variables in the Underlined Teacher Correction Group and Coded Teacher Correction Group whereas those values were found to be significant which shows the possibility of non-normality for the distribution of certain variables in the Explicit Teacher Correction Group's answers. As a result of this, other measures, such as the skewness and kurtosis parameters had to be checked for a more accurate exploration in only Explicit Teacher Correction Group. Skewness and kurtosis values of the variables used in the following analyses were seen to have ranged between the normal cut offs of -3 and +3, indicating a normal distribution per variable (Bozkurt, 2017). After a last check which is a cross-check with the Shapiro-Wilk values, it was decided that all the groups' answers had normal distribution.

4.4.1. Explicit Teacher Correction Group;

Either of the values of Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilk could be preferred to check normality and Shapiro-Wilk Test was preferred by the researcher in this study. Below is the normality test of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group:

Table 15

Normality Test Results of the "Explicit Teacher Correction" Group (Shapiro-Wilk Test)

Shapiro-Wilk			
Test	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-test	0.933	48	0.009
Post-test	0.874	48	0.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The 'Sig' values were expected to be greater than 0.05 since it was hoped that they would be normally distributed but since the 'Sig' values did not exceed 0.05 they showed non-normality suspicion for the distribution. As a result of this suspect, skewness and kurtosis values had to be checked to see whether the Explicit Teacher Correction Group's scores are distributed normally or not. Since the 'Sig' values were found to be 0.09 and 0.00 which are

under 0.05, we had to check the skewness and kurtosis values in the following table for the Explicit Teacher Correction Group:

Table 16

Skewness and Kurtosis Values of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group

Test	Descriptives	Statistic	Std. Error
Pre-test	Mean	28,042	1,0097
	Skewness	0.793	0.343
	Kurtosis	0.157	0.674
Post-test	Mean	28.292	1.1531
	Skewness	-0.632	0.343
	Kurtosis	-1.057	0.674

Skewness and kurtosis values of the variables in the table were seen to have ranged between the normal cut offs of -3 and +3, indicating a normal distribution per variable (Bozkurt, 2017). It was not necessary to check the skewness and kurtosis values for Underlined Teacher Correction Group (the second group) and Coded Teacher Correction Group (the third group) since the ‘Sig’ values in their Shapiro-Wilk Tests turned out to be above 0.05. As displayed in tables above, the values show that pre and post test scores of the “Explicit Teacher Correction” Group on learner autonomy questionnaire are normally distributed.

4.4.2. Underlined Teacher Correction Group;

Below is the normality test of Underlined Teacher Correction Group:

Table 17

Normality Test Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group (Shapiro-Wilk Test)

Shapiro-Wilk			
Test	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-test	0.964	48	0.149
Post-test	0.975	48	0.391

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The 'Sig' values were expected to be greater than 0.05 since it was hoped that they would be normally distributed. The 'Sig' values are 0.149 and 0.391 for the pre and post test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group and they showed normal distribution since they exceeded 0.05. To sum up, the values show that pre and post test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group on learner autonomy questionnaire are normally distributed.

4.4.3. Coded Teacher Correction Group;

Below is the normality test of Coded Teacher Correction Group:

Table 18

Normality Test Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group (Shapiro-Wilk Test)

Shapiro-Wilk			
Test	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-test	0.956	48	0.068
Post-test	0.983	48	0.696

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The 'Sig' values were expected to be greater than 0.05 since it was hoped that they would be normally distributed. The 'Sig' values are 0.068 and 0.696 for the pre and post test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group and they showed normal distribution since they exceeded 0.05.

To sum up, the values show that pre and post test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group on learner autonomy questionnaire are normally distributed.

The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the data were normally distributed at the significance level of 0.05. In other words, the results of Shapiro-Wilk Test revealed that both pre and post test scores of all 3 groups were normally distributed so paired samples t-tests had to be run to see whether there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test values of each group's answers for each dimensional section in the questionnaire and for the questionnaire as a whole.

When the data are normally distributed, parametric data analysis should be used (Conover, 1999). Therefore, the results of the Shapiro-Wilk test led the researcher to conduct parametric tests in this study, which are the paired samples t-tests.

4.5. Paired Samples t-Test Scores of All 3 Groups in Terms of Learner Autonomy

After the normal tests were completed as assumed, paired samples t-tests were run in order to see the difference between pre-test and post-test results of the learner autonomy questionnaire which were administered to all 3 groups. Paired samples t-test was the appropriate test type to run since the change in the same group was analyzed (Mutlu, 2008).

Paired samples t-tests were conducted in order to compute the significance level and find out whether the participants' learner autonomy was fostered enough or not. According to the findings, the results of the paired samples t-tests showed that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test results of only one group while the other two groups did not go through a change when the whole questionnaire is regarded.

Some 'p' and 'r' values are used while presenting paired samples t-test results. 'p' (probability) is a value which is used in order to determine the presence of statistical significance and its level of evidence of the difference (Dawson & Trapp, 2004). The smaller the value of p, the higher the evidence we have to reject the "H0" hypothesis. The general approach to how to interpret the 'p' value is given in table below (Rosner, 2010).

Table 19
Interpretation of the Value 'p'

p value	Interpretation
$p < 0.001$	Very high statistical significance
$0.001 \leq p < 0.01$	High statistical significance
$0.01 \leq p < 0.05$	Statistical significance
$0.05 \leq p < 0.10$	Significance tendency
$p > 0.10$	No statistically significant difference

If the difference between two variables is statistically significant, 'r' (correlation) value is checked to see whether the correlation strength is high enough and have a positive value to prove that the difference is significant enough and in a positive way. Sig. value in the tables symbolizes the 'p' value.

Table 20
Interpretation of the Value 'r'

r value	Interpretation
$r < 0.2$	Very low correlation or no correlation
$0.2 \leq r < 0.4$	Low correlation
$0.4 \leq r < 0.6$	Moderate correlation
$0.6 \leq r < 0.8$	High correlation
$r > 0.8$	Very high correlation

According to the references in the table above, the 'r' (correlation) value needs to have a positive value for a significant positive difference to come out. And the level of the correlation shows the strength of the change between two variables. 'Correlation' value in the tables symbolizes the 'r' value.

4.5.1. Explicit Teacher Correction Group;

The table below displays the paired samples t-test results of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the whole 'Learner Autonomy Questionnaire'. In all of the statistical data analyses, $p < 0.05$ was accepted as the value for the mean difference to be significant (Karagol, 2008).

Table 21
Paired Samples t-test Statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the Whole Questionnaire

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	1.7896	-0.247	47	0.806

$p > 0.10$ is interpreted as “no statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test results indicate that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in the Explicit Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It shows that the students in the Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their learner autonomy abilities well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.5.2. Underlined Teacher Correction Group;

The table below shows the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’.

Table 22

Paired Samples t-test Statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the Whole Questionnaire

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	-1.1989	-2.906	47	0.006

$p > 0.10$ is interpreted as “high statistical significance”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test results indicate that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the whole questionnaire is presented below:

Table 23

Paired Samples Correlations of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the Whole Questionnaire

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	48	0.082	0.579

$r < 0.2$ is interpreted as ‘very low correlation or no correlation’. The value ‘-0.82’ shows that there is no significant change between the pre and post test scores since ‘-0.82’ has a negative value.

Consequently, there is not a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’. This indicates that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their learner autonomy abilities well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.5.3. Coded Teacher Correction Group;

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’.

Table 24

Paired Samples T test statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the Whole Questionnaire

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	7.4543	8.927	47	0.000

$p < 0.001$ is interpreted as “very high statistical significance”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the whole questionnaire is presented below:

Table 25

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the Whole Questionnaire

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	48	0.573	0.000

$0.4 \leq r < 0.6$ is interpreted as “moderate correlation” and $0.6 \leq r < 0.8$ is interpreted as “high correlation”. Moderate correlation is found but the value ‘0.573’ is close to the upper range which indicates the correlation rate is close to high correlation range.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the whole ‘Learner Autonomy Questionnaire’. It shows that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their learner autonomy abilities well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.5.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Learner Autonomy

Below is the table showing the comparison of 3 groups’ results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants.

Table 26

The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Learner Autonomy

Group	Sig. * Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.806	0.567	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.006	-0.082	Negative / no significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.000	0.573	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group.

4.6. Paired Samples t-Tests of Dimensional Sections

The second stage of analyzing the data of 'Learner Autonomy Questionnaire' was examining the six dimensional sections. The scores gained by calculating the difference between pre-test and post-tests scores of each group for each dimensional section were analyzed and the results were discussed separately. Besides, all 3 groups' results were compared to see which of them developed their specific learner autonomy abilities well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.1. T Tests Results Regarding Readiness Section

T-test results regarding 'readiness' section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly each group's results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of the 3 groups will be presented. As for the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the 'readiness' section in the questionnaire.

4.6.1.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below exhibits the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 27

Paired Samples t-Test Statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Readiness’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	3.3652	-0.528	8	0.612

$p > 0.10$ is interpreted as “no statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Explicit Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It means that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their readiness level for learner autonomy well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.1.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below displays the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 28

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Readiness’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	7.9773	1.655	8	0.136

$p > 0.10$ is interpreted as “no statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Underlined Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It signifies that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their readiness level for learner autonomy well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.1.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 29

Paired Samples t-Test Statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Readiness’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	5.4815	4.257	8	0.003

$0.001 \leq p < 0.01$ is interpreted as “highly statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a highly statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 30

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the 'Readiness' Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	0.550	0.125

0.4 $\leq$ r<0.6 is interpreted as “moderate correlation” and 0.6 $\leq$ r<0.8 is interpreted as “high correlation”. A moderate correlation is found here but the value ‘0.550’ is close to the upper range which means the correlation rate is close to high correlation range.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire. It denotes that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their ‘readiness’ for autonomy ability well enough at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.1.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Readiness

Below is the table showing the comparison of 3 groups’ results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants’ answers for the ‘readiness’ section.

Table 31

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Readiness

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.612	-	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.136	-	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.003	0.550	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen

between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.2. T Tests Results Regarding Independent Writing Section

T-test results regarding ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly, each group’s results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of the 3 groups will be presented. As for the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.2.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below exhibits the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 32

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – post-test	8.5440	3.084	8	0.015

$0.01 \leq p < 0.05$ is interpreted as “statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples t-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire.

The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 33

Paired Samples Correlations of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	0.789	0.012

$0.6 \leq r < 0.8$ is interpreted as “high correlation” and $r > 0.8$ is interpreted as “very high correlation”. A high correlation is found here but the value ‘0.789’ is close to the upper range which indicates that the correlation rate is close to very high correlation range.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire. It means that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group developed their ‘independent writing’ ability well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.2.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below displays the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 34

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – post-test	-5.3772	-3.982	8	0.004

0.001 $\leq$ p<0.01 is interpreted as “highly statistically significant difference” and the descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section but when the correlation value (*r*) is examined, it is seen that this significant difference has a negative value -0.550 as seen in the table below:

Table 35

Paired Samples Correlations of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	-0.550	0.125

The value ‘-0.550’ shows that there is no significant change between the pre and post test scores since ‘-0.550’ has a negative value. Consequently, there is not a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire. It shows that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their ‘independent writing’ ability well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment.

4.6.2.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below shows the paired samples *t*-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 36

Paired Samples T test statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	13.2357	15.860	8	0.000

$p < 0.001$ is interpreted as “very highly statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 37

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Independent Writing’ Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	0.932	0.000

$r > 0.8$ is interpreted as “very high correlation”. A very high correlation is found between the pre and post test result for this group.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire. It signifies that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their ‘independent writing’ ability well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.2.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Independent Writing

Below is the table showing the comparison of 3 groups' results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants' answers for the 'independent writing' section.

Table 38

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Independent Writing

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.015	0.789	Significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.004	-0.550	Negative significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.000	0.932	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the 'independent writing' section in the questionnaire.

4.6.3. T Tests Results Regarding Assessment and Evaluation Section

T-test results regarding 'assessment and evaluation' section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly, each group's results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of the 3 groups will be presented. As a result, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the 'assessment and evaluation' section in the questionnaire.

4.6.3.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 39

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Assessment and Evaluation’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9.7083	0.517	8	0.619

$p > 0.10$ is interpreted as “no statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Explicit Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (*p*) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant. It denotes that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their specific assessment and evaluation abilities well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.3.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below exhibits the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 40

Paired Samples T test statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Assessment and Evaluation’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	3.0678	-1.220	8	0.257

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Underlined Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It indicates that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their specific assessment and evaluation abilities well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.3.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below displays the paired samples *t*-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 41

Paired Samples T test statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Assessment and Evaluation’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	8.5937	4.464	8	0.002

$0.001 \leq p < 0.01$ is interpreted as “highly statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 42

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Assessment and Evaluation’ Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	0.691	0.039

0.6 $\leq$ r<0.8 is interpreted as “high correlation”. A high correlation is found between the pre and post test result for this group.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire. It means that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their specific assessment and evaluation abilities well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.3.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Assessment and Evaluation

Below is the table showing the comparison of the 3 groups’ results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants’ answers for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section.

Table 43

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Assessment and Evaluation

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.619	-	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.257	-	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.002	0.691	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.4. T Tests Results Regarding Writing Activities Section

T-test results regarding ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly each group’s results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of the 3 groups will be presented. Regarding the results, it can be reported that while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.4.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 44

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Activities’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	0.0226	-2.292	8	0.051

$0.05 \leq p < 0.10$ is interpreted as “significance tendency”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that a significance tendency is observed between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire but it is not enough since the value is above 0.05. Consequently, there is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Explicit Teacher Correction Group statistically since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It denotes that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their specific abilities related to ‘writing activities’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.4.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below shows the paired samples *t*-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 45

Paired Samples T test statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Activities’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	0.7177	-1.697	8	0.128

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Underlined Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It signifies that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their specific abilities related to ‘writing activities’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.4.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below exhibits the paired samples t-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 46

Paired Samples T test Statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Activities’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	7.3596	3.302	8	0.011

$0.01 \leq p < 0.05$ is interpreted as “statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 47

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Activities’ Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	9	0.823	0.006

$r > 0.8$ is interpreted as “very high correlation”. A very high correlation is found between the pre and post test result for this group.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire. It indicates that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their specific abilities related to ‘writing activities’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.4.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Writing Activities

Below is the table showing the comparison of the 3 groups’ results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants’ answers for the ‘writing activities’ section.

Table 48

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Writing Activities

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.051	-	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.128	-	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.011	0.823	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.5. T Tests Results Regarding Writing Strategies Section

T-test results regarding ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly, each group’s results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of 3 groups will be presented. As for the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is observed between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire.

4.6.5.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below displays the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 49

Paired Samples T test statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Strategies’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	1.5377	-1.916	5	0.114

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Explicit Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It shows that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their abilities to use some specific ‘writing strategies’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.5.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 50

Paired Samples T test statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Writing Strategies’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	5.5531	0.000	5	1.000

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Underlined Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It means that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their abilities to use some specific ‘writing strategies’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.5.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below exhibits the paired samples t-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 51

Paired Samples T test statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the 'Writing Strategies' Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	6.4841	8.660	5	0.000

$p < 0.001$ is interpreted as “very highly statistically significant difference”.

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that it is possible that there may be a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire. The Sig. (p) score is less than 0.05 but it is also required that the correlation rate be high enough for the change to be significant as well.

The table showing paired samples correlation statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire is presented below:

Table 52

Paired Samples Correlations of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the 'Writing Strategies' Section

Test	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	6	0.935	0.006

$r > 0.8$ is interpreted as “very high correlation”. A very high correlation is found between the pre and post test result for this group.

Consequently, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire. It denotes that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group developed their abilities to use some specific ‘writing strategies’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.5.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Writing Strategies

Below is the table showing the comparison of the 3 groups' results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants' answers for the 'writing strategies' section.

Table 53

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Writing Strategies

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.114	-	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	1.000	-	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.000	0.935	Significant difference

As presented in the table above, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is observed between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the 'writing activities' section in the questionnaire.

4.6.6. T Tests Results Regarding Responsibility Section

T-test results regarding 'responsibility' section in the questionnaire are given below. Firstly, each group's results will be analyzed separately. Then, the comparison of the 3 groups will be presented. As a conclusion, no significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of all the groups for the 'responsibility' section in the questionnaire. None

of the groups went through a significant change in their responsibility in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.6.1. Results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group

The table below displays the paired samples t-test results of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 54

Paired Samples T test statistics of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Responsibility’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	5.7377	-0.141	5	0.893

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Explicit Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Explicit Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It signifies that the students in Explicit Teacher Correction Group did not develop their ‘responsibility’ abilities well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.6.2. Results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group

The table below shows the paired samples t-test results of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 55

Paired Samples T test statistics of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Responsibility’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	4.0609	-1.761	5	0.139

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Underlined Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It indicates that the students in Underlined Teacher Correction Group did not develop their ‘responsibility’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.6.3. Results of Coded Teacher Correction Group

The table below lays out the paired samples t-test results of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire.

Table 56

Paired Samples T test statistics of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘Responsibility’ Section

Test	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre-test – Post-test	14.7299	1.767	5	0.138

Descriptive analysis of the paired samples *t*-test indicates that no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire. There is not a significant change in the learner autonomy level of the 10 subjects in Coded Teacher Correction Group since the Sig. (p) score needs to be equal to or be less than 0.05 for the change to be significant.

It shows that the students in Coded Teacher Correction Group did not develop their ‘responsibility’ well enough in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

4.6.6.4. The Comparison of All 3 Groups in Terms of Responsibility

Below is the table showing the comparison of the 3 groups’ results in terms of the availability of significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the participants’ answers for the ‘responsibility’ section.

Table 57

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Responsibility

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.893	-	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.139	-	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.138	-	No significant difference

As presented in the table above, no significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of all the groups for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire. None of the groups went through a significant change in their responsibility in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.1.Presentation

The aim of the study is to find out whether 3 different written corrective teacher feedback types (explicit correction type of feedback – underlined type of feedback – coded type of feedback) have significant positive effects on the promotion of learner autonomy or not. A pre-test and a post-test were administered for this purpose. The results have proved that while ‘coded feedback’ correction type has a significant positive effect on the promotion of learner autonomy, the other two types do not.

After analyzing the data collected via the questionnaires in the previous chapter, this section of the study provides the discussion of the data. After interpreting the findings regarding the research questions, the implications will be discussed and some suggestions will be given for further research.

5.2. Interpretation of the Findings Regarding the Research Questions

This study aims at searching for the answers for 9 research questions which are listed in the titles below. Each research question will be answered individually regarding the effect of

each feedback type on both learner autonomy as a whole and its dimensional sections. While ‘whether or not a specific type of written corrective teacher feedback has a positive effect on learner autonomy’ will be evaluated in the first three parts, ‘the most effective corrective feedback type on each dimensional section’ will be determined in the following six parts.

5.2.1. Interpretation of the Research Question 1: Does correction type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?

In order to answer the first research question “Does correction type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?”, a paired samples t-test was run to receive the Sig. score which shows whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the first group who received correction type of feedback on their writing assignment.

According to the results, the ‘p’ value which is shown as Sig. was found to be 0.806 at the significance level of 0.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the first group who received correction type of feedback on their writing assignment was not found to be significant. In other words, the treatment process did not have any significant change in the learner autonomy levels of the language learners who received correction type of feedback.

As for the sections related to learner autonomy, the table below presents the effects of ‘correction type of feedback’ on specific abilities in the context of learner autonomy.

Table 58

Results of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group Related to the Changes in Different Sections

Section	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Readiness	0.612	-	No significant difference
Independent Writing	0.015 (statistically significant)	0.789 (high correlation)	Significant difference
Assessment and Evaluation	0.619	-	No significant difference
Writing Activities	0.051	-	No significant difference
Writing Strategies	0.114	-	No significant difference
Responsibility	0.893	-	No significant difference

As seen in the table, correction type of feedback has a statistically significant positive effect on ‘independent writing’ section only, in the context of learner autonomy with a high correlation. No significant difference was observed in all the other sections.

Consequently, it can be concluded that correction type of feedback on writing does not have any significant positive effects on learner autonomy.

5.2.2. Interpretation of the Research Question 2: Does underlined type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?

In order to answer the second research question “Does underlined type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?”, a paired samples t-test was run to receive the Sig. score which shows whether there is a

significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the second group who received underlined type of feedback on their writing assignment.

According to the results, the ‘p’ value which is shown as Sig. was found to be 0.006 at the significance level of 0.05 which may mean that the effect is significant whereas the correlation rate has a negative value which is -0.082. Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the second group who received underlined type of feedback on their writing assignment was not found to be significant. In other words, the treatment process did not have any significant positive change in the learner autonomy levels of the language learners who received underlined type of feedback.

As for the sections related to learner autonomy, the table below exhibits the effects of ‘underlined type of feedback’ on specific abilities in the context of learner autonomy.

Table 59

Results of the Underlined Teacher Correction Group Related to the Changes in Different Sections

Section	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Readiness	0.136	-	No significant difference
Independent Writing	0.004	-0.550	No significant difference
Assessment and Evaluation	0.257	-	No significant difference
Writing Activities	0.128	-	No significant difference
Writing Strategies	1.000	-	No significant difference
Responsibility	0.139	-	No significant difference

As seen in the table, underlined type of feedback does not have any statistically significant positive effects on any sections in the context of learner autonomy. No statistically significant difference was observed in any sections.

Consequently, it can be concluded that underlined type of feedback on writing does not have any significant effect on learner autonomy.

5.2.3. Interpretation of the Research Question 3: Does coded type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?

In order to answer the third research question “Does coded type of feedback on writing have any significant positive effects on the autonomy levels of language learners?”, a paired samples t-test was run to receive the Sig. score which shows whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the third group who received coded type of feedback on their writing assignment.

According to the results, the ‘p’ value which is shown as Sig. was found to be 0.000 at the significance level of 0.05 which denotes that the effect is very highly statistically significant with the correlation rate 0.573 which means a moderate correlation. Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the third group who received coded type of feedback on their writing assignment was found to be very highly significant. In other words, the treatment process caused a very highly significant change in the learner autonomy levels of the language learners who received coded type of feedback.

As for the sections related to learner autonomy, the table below presents the effects of ‘coded type of feedback’ on specific abilities in the context of learner autonomy.

Table 60

Results of the Coded Teacher Correction Group Related to the Changes in Different Sections

Section	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Correlation	Result
Readiness	0.003 (highly statistically significant difference)	0.550 (moderate correlation)	Significant difference
Independent Writing	0.000 (very highly statistically significant difference)	0.932 (very high correlation)	Significant difference
Assessment and Evaluation	0.002 (highly statistically significant difference)	0.691 (high correlation)	Significant difference
Writing Activities	0.011 (statistically significant difference)	0.823 (very high correlation)	Significant difference
Writing Strategies	0.000 (very highly statistically significant difference)	0.935 (very high correlation)	Significant difference
Responsibility	0.138	-	No significant difference

As seen in the table, coded type of feedback has a significant positive effect on all the sections except for the ‘responsibility’ section only, in the context of learner autonomy. Consequently, it can be concluded that coded type of feedback on writing has a very highly significant positive effect on learner autonomy.

5.2.4. Interpretation of the Research Question 4: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “readiness for learner autonomy” in writing skill?

The positive effect levels of 3 different written corrective feedback types on readiness for learner autonomy were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which

written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “readiness for learner autonomy” in writing skill?”.

Table 61

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Readiness

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.612	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.136	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.003	Significant difference

According to the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘readiness’ section in the questionnaire. Consequently, the most positively effective feedback type for the promotion of readiness for learner autonomy was found to be “Coded Teacher Correction”.

5.2.5. Interpretation of the Research Question 5: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “independent writing” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?

The positive effect levels of the 3 different written corrective feedback types on “independent writing abilities” were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “independent writing” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?”.

Table 62

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Independent Writing

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.015	Significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.004	Negative significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.000	Significant difference

According to the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘independent writing’ section in the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the difference in Coded Teacher Correction Group is much more significant than the difference in Explicit Teacher Correction Group. Consequently, the most positively effective feedback type for the promotion of independent writing abilities was found to be “Coded Teacher Correction”.

5.2.6. Interpretation of the Research Question 6: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “assessment and evaluation” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?

The positive effect levels of the 3 different written corrective feedback types on “assessment and evaluation abilities” were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “assessment and evaluation” abilities in the context of learner autonomy?”.

Table 63

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Assessment and Evaluation

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Correction Group	0.619	No significant difference
Underlined Correction Group	0.257	No significant difference
Coded Correction Group	0.002	Significant difference

According to the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘assessment and evaluation’ section in the questionnaire. Consequently, the most positively effective feedback type for the promotion of assessment and evaluation abilities was found to be “Coded Teacher Correction”.

5.2.7. Interpretation of the Research Question 7: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing activity knowledge” in the context of learner autonomy?

The positive effect levels of the 3 different written corrective feedback types on writing activity knowledge were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing activity knowledge” in the context of learner autonomy?”.

Table 64

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Writing Activities

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.051	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.128	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.011	Significant difference

According to the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing activities’ section in the questionnaire. Consequently, the most positively effective feedback type for the promotion of writing activity knowledge was found to be “Coded Teacher Correction”.

5.2.8. Interpretation of the Research Question 8: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing strategy use” in the context of learner autonomy?

The positive effect levels of 3 different written corrective feedback types on writing activity knowledge were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “writing strategy use” in the context of learner autonomy?”.

Table 65

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Writing Strategies

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.114	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	1.000	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.000	Significant difference

According to the results, while a significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of Coded Teacher Correction Group, no significant difference is seen between the pre and post test scores of the Explicit Teacher Correction Group and Underlined Teacher Correction Group for the ‘writing strategies’ section in the questionnaire. Consequently, the

most positively effective feedback type for the promotion of writing strategy use was found to be “Coded Teacher Correction”.

5.2.9. Interpretation of the Research Question 9: Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “responsibility” in the context of learner autonomy?

The positive effect levels of the 3 different written corrective feedback types on writing activity knowledge were compared in order to answer the first research question “Which written corrective feedback type is the most positively effective in promoting “responsibility” in the context of learner autonomy?”.

Table 66

The Comparison of All 3 groups in Terms of Responsibility

Group	Sig. Pre-test – Post-test	Result
Explicit Teacher Correction Group	0.893	No significant difference
Underlined Teacher Correction Group	0.139	No significant difference
Coded Teacher Correction Group	0.138	No significant difference

According to the results,, no significant difference is observed between the pre and post-test scores of all the groups for the ‘responsibility’ section in the questionnaire. None of the groups went through a significant change in their responsibility in the context of learner autonomy at the end of the treatment process. Consequently, it is not possible to mention any positively effective feedback types for the promotion of writing strategy use among the 3 feedback types.

5.3. Conclusion

This chapter covers a brief summary of the study, implications of the study and some suggestions for further studies in the related field. Firstly, the contents of the chapters and an brief introduction of the treatment and the administration processes will be presented. Then, a set of significant educational implications addressing two main entities, who are language course designers and language teachers, will be presented in the light of the findings. Lastly, set of suggestions which may be offered by the researcher for further studies will be offered.

5.3.1. Brief Summary of the Study

The aim of this study was to find out whether 3 different written corrective teacher feedback types (explicit correction type of feedback – underlined type of feedback – coded type of feedback) have significant positive effects on the promotion of learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy or self-direction give learners the opportunity to reclaim responsibility for and control over their own education, of taking greater control of their learning, of autonomy as a right learners have (Ceylan, 2014). Hence, becoming autonomous learners may make students more competent people (Kohonen, 1991). Holec (1981, p. 3) states that learner autonomy is “to take charge of one’s own learning [which] is to have, and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning” while Benson (2001) highlights that learner control of the cognitive processes involved in language learning is a crucial factor in what is learned. The importance of the promotion of learner autonomy can be exemplified by Nunan’s (1996) statement, “learners tend to follow their own agendas rather than those of their teachers. Besides, Dakin (1973) points out the factor of learner autonomy by saying that though the teacher may control the experiences the learner is exposed to, it is the learner who selects what is learnt from them.

This study starts with the review of the literature which gives background information about learner autonomy including its theoretical and pedagogical background, its importance, its principles, the approaches to promoting learner autonomy and the characteristics of autonomous learners. Besides, literature review related to the theory of corrective feedback in writing skill was presented in this chapter.

The third chapter of the study presents information about the data collection procedure. The design of the research, the treatment procedure, the participants, the instruments, the sections in the questionnaire and the questionnaire items were introduced in the ‘methodology’ chapter. Moreover, a comprehensive pilot study, which was carried out before the actual administration of the questionnaire, is presented in that part.

The study required an experimental research since the main goal was to see if there was any significant differences between the autonomy level changes in the control and experimental groups each of whom was given different types of feedback. The autonomy levels of the language learners were measured by means of questionnaires before and after the treatment.

At the beginning of the fall term in 2019, learner autonomy questionnaire was administered as pre-tests to all 3 groups in order to define each group’s average learner autonomy level. The same learner autonomy test was administered as the post-test after a 10-weeks’ writing education process which included different writing tasks. Language learners in different groups were given different types of corrective feedback: Correction type of feedback, underlined type of feedback and coded type of feedback. At the end of the experiment, the changes in all 3 groups were compared using SPSS 18 statistics tool. Thirty participants of the study were randomly selected among the ones who study at the same university and department. The sample is chosen from the same class to ensure that they all have exactly the same treatment at the same time. The data collection instrument of this experimental study was a likert type questionnaire, which was designed to collect quantitative data about the level of learner autonomy. The final format of the questionnaire is presented both in English (Appendix 3) and in Turkish (Appendix 4) at the end of the study.

The analyses of the questionnaire results were presented in the fourth chapter. The group statistics, the tests of reliability and validity, the tests of normality, paired samples t-tests and the comparison of the groups in terms of all the tests were presented in chapter four.

The last chapter, findings and the conclusion chapter, starts with the interpretation of the findings regarding the research questions. As concluded from the analyses of the questionnaire results, while correction type of feedback and underlined type of feedback on writing does not have any significant positive effects on learner autonomy, coded type of feedback on writing has a very highly significant positive effect on learner autonomy. As for the sections in the questionnaire, correction type of feedback has a statistically significant positive effect on 'independent writing' section only, in the context of learner autonomy whereas underlined type of feedback does not have any statistically significant positive effects on any sections in the context of learner autonomy. On the contrary, coded type of feedback has a significant positive effect on all the sections except for the 'responsibility' section, in the context of learner autonomy.

The aim of this study was to determine whether or not 3 different written corrective teacher feedback types have any significant positive effects on the promotion of learner autonomy. The results show that only coded type of feedback have a statistically significant positive effect on the promotion of learner autonomy while the other two types do not.

Hence, it is concluded that language teachers who teach writing should prefer coded type of corrective feedback instead of correction type or underlined type of feedback in order to promote language learners' autonomy. Further implications which are concluded out of these results and some suggestions for further study will be presented in the following parts.

5.3.2. Implications of the Study

This study attempted to shed light on the positive effects of different written corrective teacher feedback types given in writing courses on the promotion of learner autonomy.

A set of significant educational implications can be drawn addressing two main entities, who are language course designers and language teachers, in the light of the findings which have been discussed so far.

Firstly, this study has some implications for language course designers no matter whether the teacher of the course or the institution decides some specific elements in the course procedure. English writing course designs or writing tasks in an English course should be designed in accordance with the principles of learner autonomy since it is obvious from several studies related to the importance of learner autonomy that it plays a significant role in language education process.

The findings of the study implicates that language teachers should be made aware of the importance of giving coded type of corrective feedback on learners written assignments. As the results reflect, language teachers are advised to prefer coded type of corrective feedback instead of underlined or correction type of feedback.

Language teachers should also inform their students about the the importance of coded type of corrective feedback and explain the whole procedure and codes in detail and set the goals together with their students so that they can be a part of both the writing and feedback process.

Moreover, language teachers should determine which errors should be corrected since it may not be possible to deal with all kinds of errors in a limited time.

Furthermore, language learners should be taught codes so well that they can easily understand the type of the mistake on their papers without losing time and thus, they can make sense of the correction on their own.

It would be useful for a second teacher to review the feedback if it is possible.

Language teachers should know and suggest a set of alternative ways to correct mistakes to their students for the final draft such as spell checkers and other online tools.

Language teachers should present their students with a set of resources for them to use while writing their assignments such as online dictionary tools etc.

Finally, language teachers should have the required knowledge and skills to be able to help their learners promote their learner autonomy in various ways both inside and outside the language classroom.

As for the dimensional sections of learner autonomy, a set of implications can be presented as well. First of all, regarding the improvement in the “Readiness” dimensional section, it could be stated that the learners who received “coded type of corrective teacher feedback” are in a much better position in terms of being ready to be autonomous. Accordingly, this type of corrective feedback could be preferred to improve learners’ readiness level for being autonomous individuals. Thanks to this improvement, learners can gain or develop their readiness such as;

- believing that they can improve their writing skills by studying on their own,
- enjoying attending writing classes,
- making preparations for the the writing lesson beforehand,
- being willing to write even if the teacher will not grade their writing,
- believing that they will be able to write much better at the end of the semester,
- asking their friends what they had learned in the lesson when they missed a writing class.

Secondly, regarding the significant change in the “independent writing” abilities of the learners who received “coded type of corrective teacher feedback”, it could also be possible to advise this kind of corrective feedback to those who plan to improve such skills of their learners. Owing to this improvement, learners can gain or develop some abilities such as;

- deciding on what subject to write about,
- being able to set the time limit required for writing,
- being able to search for resources such as websites and books to write more accurately.

Thirdly, it may also be possible to advise “coded type of corrective teacher feedback” when the significant change in the “assessment and evaluation” abilities of the learners who received this type of feedback is considered. As a result of this improvement, learners can gain or develop some abilities such as;

- setting their own goals in writing lessons,
- deciding whether a piece writing is suitable for their own level,
- being aware of the methods by which they can fix and correct the errors in the articles they wrote,
- observing their own progress in writing,
- being able to tell whether a writing assignment given by the teacher is suitable for their level or not,
- guessing what errors they have made in the texts they have written.

When it comes to the “writing activities” dimensional section, again only “coded type of corrective teacher feedback” has affected this section which denotes that this feedback type can also be advised for the improvement of some specific writing activities. Due to this improvement, learners can gain or develop some abilities such as;

- believing that they write better texts thanks to their individual efforts,
- believing that they write better when they write on their own,
- writing a diary in English,
- using a spell checker (program, application, website, etc.) to see and correct their mistakes in their writings,
- visiting some websites where they can practice writing in English,
- researching how a word is written when they hear it for the first time,
- writing to people from other countries in English,
- texting their friends in English.

As for the “writing strategies” dimensional section, “coded type of corrective teacher feedback” is the only one which had a positive effect among all 3 corrective feedback types examined in this study. Thus, this type of corrective feedback could be advised for the improvement of some abilities belonging to this dimensional section. Via this improvement, learners can gain or develop some abilities such as;

- trying to determine how much their skill has improved by comparing their old and new writings,
- allocating a specific duration for each part of a text they are writing,
- searching for new ways to write better,
- considering the feedback given by the teacher to be able to write better next time,
- planning the outline of the passage they will write before they start writing,
- brainstorming about what to write before they start writing.

To sum up, it is the coded type of corrective teacher feedback which is advised for the promotion of learner autonomy in total and for all dimensional sections of learner autonomy. It should also be noted that this study is just an experimental study related to the field and thus, further study will help lighten up the factors affecting learner autonomy and search ways of promoting learner autonomy utilizing possible effective ways and methods.

5.3.3. Suggestions for Further Study

This study has investigated whether or not different written corrective teacher feedback types given in writing courses have any positive effects on the promotion of learner autonomy.

As the results reflect, language teachers are advised to prefer coded type of corrective feedback instead of underlined or correction type of feedback since coded type of feedback has been found to be useful for the development of learner autonomy.

A set of suggestions could be offered by the researcher for further studies regarding the aims, the limitations and the findings of this study:

- This study has been carried out for writing skill only. Other appropriate feedback types that have not been included in this study can be compared in terms of their effects on the development of learner autonomy.
- This study was carried out with 30 participants only and under the supervision of only 1 teacher/researcher. This study is suggested to be run again with a larger number of participants and with the collaboration of more teachers/researchers so that the results can be gained more reliably.
- This study was carried out with 30 university students only. A similar study could be carried out with primary, secondary and high school students and teachers as well in order to compare the results of this study with the results of this study.
- This study was carried out with 30 participants studying at Kutahya Health Sciences University (Kütahya Sağlık Bilimleri Üniversitesi), in the Paramedic Department. A similar study is suggested to be carried out with the participants studying in other departments and at some other universities as well.
- This study was a quantitative one which aimed to measure the learners' autonomy levels before and after the treatment process and to compare them. Language learners' opinions could also be received by interviews and discussed in terms of learner autonomy as a qualitative study so that the attitudes of the language learners towards different kinds of feedback can be explored.
- Only a pre-test and a post-test were administered to assess the autonomy levels of the language learners. Beside these two tests, also a delayed post test could be administered in order to see the lasting process of the positive effects of different written corrective teacher feedback types on learner autonomy.
- Learners' assignments were evaluated by 2 English teachers one of whom is the researcher. The papers could be reviewed by more reviewers than just 2 checkers.
- The drafting process could be extended and each paper could be reviewed more than twice with more often feedback given on drafts.

- The treatment process may cover a whole academic year instead of just one semester.
- As a further study, a rubric could be used in order to grade the assignment and the parts of the rubric could be analyzed. Thus, the improvement in the sub-skills of writing skill such as ideas, organization, word choice, sentence fluency and conventions could also be analyzed in detail.
- Finally, the same research design could be set up and repeated using a different coursebook and assigning language learners different kinds of writing tasks.



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APPENDICES



Appendix 1: Learner Autonomy Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study (English Version)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant;

This questionnaire asks your views on English writing lessons and writing studies. Please tick the option that suits you. The data will only be used for academic purposes. In the survey, your name will not be asked.

Thank you for your participation.

İsmail KARABULUT

Gender : ☐ Female ☐ Male

		I Strongly Disagree	I Disagree	Not Sure	I Agree	I Strongly Agree
1	I prefer the type of education in which students are active in writing lessons.					
2	I believe I can improve my writing skills by studying on my own.					
3	I enjoy attending writing classes.					
4	I avoid writing since I know that I am not good at it.					
5	My teacher should decide what subject I should write about.					
6	I write better texts thanks to my individual effort.					
7	I do not think out-of-class activities will improve my writing skills.					
8	I do not know how to improve my writing skill outside the classroom.					
9	I think I write better when I write on my own.					
10	I cannot improve my writing skills If I do not attend writing classes.					
11	I can set my own goals in writing lesson since I know why I need to improve my writing skills.					
12	I would prefer my teacher to limit the time while I am writing.					
13	I think that my efforts to improve my writing skills contribute to my effective learning process.					

14	I use a dictionary to find the most appropriate word in writing assignments where dictionary use is free.					
15	I write a diary in English.					
16	I try to determine how much my skill has improved by comparing my old and new writings.					
17	I allocate a specific duration for each part of a text I am writing.					
18	I make preparations for the the writing lesson beforehand .					
19	I would like to choose the subject of the text to be written myself.					
20	I believe that my teacher has to decide how much time we need to allocate for a text.					
21	I would like to write, even if my teacher will not grade my writing.					
22	I write with more self-confidence when my teacher explains in detail how I need to write.					
23	I would like my teacher to correct my grammatical errors immediately.					
24	I think I can write better when the teacher sets me free in the topic selection.					
25	I search for ways to write better.					
26	I consider the feedback given by the teacher to be able to write better next time.					
27	I can decide for myself whether a piece of writing given as an example in the writing lesson is suitable for my level.					
28	I believe that I will be able to write much better at the end of this semester.					
29	I use a spell checker (program, application, website, etc.) to see and correct my mistakes in my writings.					
30	I search for resources such as websites and books to write more accurately.					
31	I plan the outline of the passage I will write before I start writing,					
32	I visit some websites where I can practice writing in English.					
33	I know the methods by which I can find out and correct the errors in the articles I wrote.					
34	I quit trying to improve my writing skills after I get the score I want.					
35	I would like to get feedback from my teacher in order not to repeat my mistakes.					
36	I need my teacher to tell me my progress in writing.					
37	I think my teacher should give me a chance to notice and correct my spelling mistakes.					
38	I research how a word I heard for the first time is written.					
39	The reason I cannot improve my writing skill is the teacher of the lesson.					
40	I do not write anything at my own will if my teacher does not assign me to write.					
41	I would like my teacher to observe my writing process while I am writing.					

42	I expect my teacher to offer me alternative types of activities in writing classes for me to choose.					
43	I can tell whether a writing assignment given by my teacher is suitable for my level or not.					
44	I believe I will not be able to write as well as my friends no matter how hard I study.					
45	I ask my friends what they learned in the lesson when I miss a writing class.					
46	I write to people from other countries in English.					
47	I brainstorm about what to write before I start writing.					
48	I would like my teacher to tell me why I should improve my writing skills.					
49	I text my friends in English.					
50	I think my teacher should decide what type of text we should write.					
51	I can guess what errors I made in the texts I wrote.					
52	The most important criterion for seeing the improvement in my writing skill is the feedback of my teacher.					
53	I don't want to receive feedback from my teacher since it demotivates me.					
54	I would like to text my friends in English.					
55	I know my areas of improvement in writing, so I would like to choose the types of activities.					

Appendix 2: Learner Autonomy Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study (Turkish Version)

ANKET

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu ankette İngilizce yazma dersleri ve yazma çalışmalarına yönelik görüşleriniz sorulmaktadır. Lütfen size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Veriler sadece akademik amaçla kullanılacaktır. Ankette isminiz sorulmayacaktır.

Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

İsmail KARABULUT

Cinsiyet : ☐ Kız ☐ Erkek

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yazma derslerinde öğrencilerin aktif olduğu eğitim türünü tercih ederim.					
2	Kendi kendime çalışarak yazma becerimi geliştirebileceğime inanıyorum.					
3	Yazma dersine zevkle girerim.					
4	Yazma konusunda yeterince iyi olmadığımı bildiğim için yazmaktan kaçınıyorum.					
5	Hangi konuda yazmam gerektiğine öğretmenim karar vermeli.					
6	Bireysel çalışmalarım sayesinde daha iyi metinler yazarım.					
7	Sınıf dışı çalışmaların, yazma becerilerimi geliştirebileceğini düşünmüyorum.					
8	Sınıf ortamı dışında yazma becerimi nasıl geliştirebileceğimi bilmiyorum.					
9	Kendi başıma yazdığımda daha iyi yazdığımı düşünüyorum.					
10	Yazma derslerine katılmazsam yazma becerimi geliştiremem.					
11	Yazma becerimi neden geliştirmem gerektiğini bildiğim için yazma dersindeki amaçlarımı kendim belirleyebilirim.					
12	Yazarken öğretmenimin süreyi kısıtlamasını isterim.					
13	Yazma becerimi geliştirmek için sarf ettiğim çabamın etkin öğrenmeye katkı sağladığını düşünürüm.					

14	Sözlük kullanmanın serbest olduğu yazma ödevlerinde, en uygun kelimeyi bulmak için sözlük kullanırım.					
15	İngilizce günlük yazarım.					
16	Eski yazdıklarım ile yeni yazdıklarımı karşılaştırarak becerimin ne kadar geliştiğini saptamaya çalışırım.					
17	Yazmakta olduğum bir metnin her bir bölümü için belli bir zaman ayırırım.					
18	Yazma dersinden önce derse hazırlık yaparım.					
19	Yazılacak metnin konusunu kendim seçmek isterim.					
20	Bir metni ne kadar sürede yazmamıza öğretmenimin karar vermesi gerektiğine inanırım.					
21	Öğretmenim not vermeyecek olsa bile yazmak isterim.					
22	Öğretmenim nasıl yazmam gerektiğini detaylıca anlattığında daha fazla özgüvenle yazarım.					
23	Öğretmenimin, gramer hatalarımı hemen düzeltmesini isterim.					
24	Öğretmen konu seçiminde beni serbest bıraktığında daha iyi yazabileceğimi düşünüyorum.					
25	Daha iyi yazabilmenin yollarını araştırırım.					
26	Bir dahaki sefere daha iyi yazabilmek için öğretmenimin verdiği dönütü dikkate alırım.					
27	Yazma dersinde, örnek olarak verilen bir parçanın seviyeme uygun olup olmadığına kendim karar verebilirim.					
28	Bu dönem sonunda çok daha iyi yazabileceğime inanıyorum.					
29	Yazılarımdaki hatalarımı görmek ve düzeltmek için bir yazım denetleyicisi (program, uygulama, internet sitesi vb.) kullanırım.					
30	Daha doğru yazabilmek için internet siteleri ve kitaplar gibi kaynaklar araştırırım.					
31	Yazmaya başlamadan önce yazacak olduğum makalenin genel hatlarını planlarım.					
32	İngilizce yazma pratiği yapabileceğim bazı internet sitelerini ziyaret ederim.					
33	Yazdığım makalelerdeki hataları tespit edip düzeltebileceğim yöntemler biliyorum.					
34	İstediğim puanı aldıktan sonra yazma becerimi geliştirme çabamı bırakırım.					
35	Hatalarımı tekrar etmemek için öğretmenimden dönüt almak isterim.					
36	Yazma konusunda kaydettiğim gelişimimi öğretmenimin bana söylemesine ihtiyaç duyarım.					
37	Öğretmenimin, yazım hatalarımı fark edip düzeltmem için bana şans vermesi gerektiğini düşünürüm.					
38	İlk kez duyduğum bir kelimenin nasıl yazıldığını araştırırım.					
39	Yazma becerimi geliştirememme sebebim dersin öğretmenidir.					
40	Öğretmenim ödev vermese, kendi isteğimle herhangi bir şey yazmam.					
41	Ben yazarken öğretmenimin yazma sürecimi gözlemlemesini isterim.					

42	Yazma dersinde öğretmenimin bana alternatif aktivite türleri sunmasını beklerim.					
43	Öğretmenimin verdiği bir yazma ödevinin seviyeme uygun olup olmadığını anlayabilirim.					
44	Ne kadar çalışırsam çalışayım, arkadaşlarım kadar iyi yazamayacağımı düşünürüm.					
45	Bir yazma dersini kaçırdığımda, arkadaşlarıma o derste neler öğrendiklerini sorarım.					
46	Başka ülkelerden insanlarla İngilizce yazışırım.					
47	Yazmaya başlamadan önce durup ne yazacağım konusunda beyin fırtınası yaparım.					
48	Yazma becerimi neden geliştirmem gerektiğini öğretmenimin bana anlatmasını isterim.					
49	Arkadaşlarıma İngilizce mesaj yazarım.					
50	Ne türde bir metin yazmamıza öğretmenimin karar vermesi gerektiğini düşünürüm.					
51	Yazdığım metinlerde hangi hataları yaptığım konusunda fikir yürütebilirim.					
52	Yazma becerimdeki gelişimi görmek için en önemli kriter öğretmenimin dönütüdür.					
53	Dönüt almak motivasyonumu kırdığı için öğretmenimden dönüt almak istemem.					
54	Arkadaşlarıma İngilizce mesaj yazmak isterim.					
55	Yazma konusundaki eksiklerimi biliyorum, bu sebeple aktivite çeşitlerini ben seçmek isterim.					

Appendix 3: Learner Autonomy Questionnaire Used in the Actual Administration of the Questionnaire (English Version)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant;

This questionnaire asks your views on English writing lessons and writing studies. Please tick the option that suits you. The data will only be used for academic purposes. In the survey, your name will not be asked.

Thank you for your participation.

İsmail KARABULUT

Gender : ☐ Female ☐ Male

		I Strongly Disagree	I Disagree	Not Sure	I Agree	I Strongly Agree
1	I prefer the type of education in which students are active in writing lessons.					
2	I believe I can improve my writing skills by studying on my own.					
3	I enjoy attending writing classes.					
4	My teacher should decide what subject I should write about.					
5	I write better texts thanks to my individual effort.					
6	I think I write better when I write on my own.					
7	I cannot improve my writing skills If I do not attend writing classes.					
8	I can set my own goals in writing lesson since I know why I need to improve my writing skills.					
9	I would prefer my teacher to limit the time while I am writing.					
10	I think that my efforts to improve my writing skills contribute to my effective learning process.					
11	I use a dictionary to find the most appropriate word in writing assignments where dictionary use is free.					
12	I write a diary in English.					

13	I try to determine how much my skill has improved by comparing my old and new writings.					
14	I allocate a specific duration for each part of a text I am writing.					
15	I make preparations for the the writing lesson beforehand .					
16	I would like to choose the subject of the text to be written myself.					
17	I believe that my teacher has to decide how much time we need to allocate for a text.					
18	I would like to write, even if my teacher will not grade my writing.					
19	I write with more self-confidence when my teacher explains in detail how I need to write.					
20	I would like my teacher to correct my grammatical errors immediately.					
21	I think I can write better when the teacher sets me free in the topic selection.					
22	I search for ways to write better.					
23	I consider the feedback given by the teacher to be able to write better next time.					
24	I can decide for myself whether a piece of writing given as an example in the writing lesson is suitable for my level.					
25	I believe that I will be able to write much better at the end of this semester.					
26	I use a spell checker (program, application, website, etc.) to see and correct my mistakes in my writings.					
27	I search for resources such as websites and books to write more accurately.					
28	I plan the outline of the passage I will write before I start writing,					
29	I visit some websites where I can practice writing in English.					
30	I know the methods by which I can find out and correct the errors in the articles I wrote.					
31	I would like to get feedback from my teacher in order not to repeat my mistakes.					
32	I need my teacher to tell me my progress in writing.					
33	I think my teacher should give me a chance to notice and correct my spelling mistakes.					
34	I research how a word I heard for the first time is written.					
35	The reason I cannot improve my writing skill is the teacher of the lesson.					
36	I would like my teacher to observe my writing process while I am writing.					
37	I expect my teacher to offer me alternative types of activities in writing classes for me to choose.					
38	I can tell whether a writing assignment given by my teacher is suitable for my level or not.					
39	I ask my friends what they learned in the lesson when I miss a writing class.					
40	I write to people from other countries in English.					

41	I brainstorm about what to write before I start writing.					
42	I would like my teacher to tell me why I should improve my writing skills.					
43	I text my friends in English.					
44	I think my teacher should decide what type of text we should write.					
45	I can guess what errors I made in the texts I wrote.					
46	The most important criterion for seeing the improvement in my writing skill is the feedback of my teacher.					
47	I would like to text my friends in English.					
48	I know my areas of improvement in writing, so I would like to choose the types of activities.					



Appendix 4: Learner Autonomy Questionnaire Used in the Actual Administration of the Questionnaire (Turkish Version)

ANKET

Değerli Katılımcı;

Bu ankette İngilizce yazma dersleri ve yazma çalışmalarına yönelik görüşleriniz sorulmaktadır. Lütfen size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Veriler sadece akademik amaçla kullanılacaktır. Ankette isminiz sorulmayacaktır.

Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

İsmail KARABULUT

Cinsiyet : ☐ Kız ☐ Erkek

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yazma derslerinde öğrencilerin aktif olduğu eğitim türünü tercih ederim.					
2	Kendi kendime çalışarak yazma becerimi geliştirebileceğime inanıyorum.					
3	Yazma dersine zevkle girerim.					
4	Hangi konuda yazmam gerektiğine öğretmenim karar vermeli.					
5	Bireysel çalışmalarım sayesinde daha iyi metinler yazarım.					
6	Kendi başıma yazdığımda daha iyi yazdığımı düşünüyorum.					
7	Yazma derslerine katılmazsam yazma becerimi geliştiremem.					
8	Yazma becerimi neden geliştirmem gerektiğini bildiğim için yazma dersindeki amaçlarımı kendim belirleyebilirim.					
9	Yazarken öğretmenimin süreyi kısıtlamasını isterim.					
10	Yazma becerimi geliştirmek için sarf ettiğim çabamın etkin öğrenmeye katkı sağladığını düşünürüm.					
11	Sözlük kullanmanın serbest olduğu yazma ödevlerinde, en uygun kelimeyi bulmak için sözlük kullanırım.					
12	İngilizce günlük yazarım.					

13	Eski yazdıklarım ile yeni yazdıklarımı karşılaştırarak becerimin ne kadar geliştiğini saptamaya çalışırım.					
14	Yazmakta olduğum bir metnin her bir bölümü için belli bir zaman ayırırım.					
15	Yazma dersinden önce derse hazırlık yaparım.					
16	Yazılacak metnin konusunu kendim seçmek isterim.					
17	Bir metni ne kadar sürede yazmamıza öğretmenimin karar vermesi gerektiğine inanırım.					
18	Öğretmenim not vermeyecek olsa bile yazmak isterim.					
19	Öğretmenim nasıl yazmam gerektiğini detaylıca anlattığında daha fazla özgüvenle yazarım.					
20	Öğretmenimin, gramer hatalarımı hemen düzeltmesini isterim.					
21	Öğretmen konu seçiminde beni serbest bıraktığında daha iyi yazabileceğimi düşünüyorum.					
22	Daha iyi yazabilmenin yollarını araştırırım.					
23	Bir dahaki sefere daha iyi yazabilmek için öğretmenimin verdiği dönütü dikkate alırım.					
24	Yazma dersinde, örnek olarak verilen bir parçanın seviyeme uygun olup olmadığına kendim karar verebilirim.					
25	Bu dönem sonunda çok daha iyi yazabileceğime inanıyorum.					
26	Yazılarımdaki hatalarımı görmek ve düzeltmek için bir yazım denetleyicisi (program, uygulama, internet sitesi vb.) kullanırım.					
27	Daha doğru yazabilmek için internet siteleri ve kitaplar gibi kaynaklar araştırırım.					
28	Yazmaya başlamadan önce yazacak olduğum makalenin genel hatlarını planlarım.					
29	İngilizce yazma pratiği yapabileceğim bazı internet sitelerini ziyaret ederim.					
30	Yazdığım makalelerdeki hataları tespit edip düzeltebileceğim yöntemler biliyorum.					
31	Hatalarımı tekrar etmemek için öğretmenimden dönüt almak isterim.					
32	Yazma konusunda kaydettiğim gelişimimi öğretmenimin bana söylemesine ihtiyaç duyarım.					
33	Öğretmenimin, yazım hatalarımı fark edip düzeltmem için bana şans vermesi gerektiğini düşünürüm.					
34	İlk kez duyduğum bir kelimenin nasıl yazıldığını araştırırım.					
35	Yazma becerimi geliştiremememe sebebim dersin öğretmenidir.					
36	Ben yazarken öğretmenimin yazma sürecimi gözlemlemesini isterim.					
37	Yazma dersinde öğretmenimin bana alternatif aktivite türleri sunmasını beklerim.					
38	Öğretmenimin verdiği bir yazma ödevinin seviyeme uygun olup olmadığını anlayabilirim.					
39	Bir yazma dersini kaçırdığımda, arkadaşlarıma o derste neler öğrendiklerini sorarım.					
40	Başka ülkelerden insanlarla İngilizce yazışırım.					

41	Yazmaya başlamadan önce durup ne yazacağım konusunda beyin fırtınası yaparım.					
42	Yazma becerimi neden geliştirmem gerektiğini öğretmenimin bana anlatmasını isterim.					
43	Arkadaşlarıma İngilizce mesaj yazarım.					
44	Ne türde bir metin yazmamıza öğretmenimin karar vermesi gerektiğini düşünürüm.					
45	Yazdığım metinlerde hangi hataları yaptığım konusunda fikir yürütebilirim.					
46	Yazma becerimdeki gelişimi görmek için en önemli kriter öğretmenimin dönütüdür.					
47	Arkadaşlarıma İngilizce mesaj yazmak isterim.					
48	Yazma konusundaki eksiklerimi biliyorum, bu sebeple aktivite çeşitlerini ben seçmek isterim.					



Appendix 5: The Treatment Schedule for 10 Weeks

WEEK NO	DATES	CHAPTERS	CONTENT OF THE WEEK
WEEK 1	March 20	INTRO PRE-TEST CHAPTER: 1 Reading Passage: 1	ACTIVITIES: • Delivering the books • Grouping the students • Administering the pre-test and taking the pre-test scores of each group. • Introduction to the course (objectives, tasks, schedule etc.) • Introduction to the book and the chapters. • Examining Chapter 1. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Go over the first 10 chapters in the book in order to grasp the main aim of the course and be familiar with the activity and passage types in the book. • Review passage 1.
WEEK 2	March 27	CHAPTERS: 2-3 Reading Passages: 2-3	ACTIVITIES: • Examining Chapters 2 and 3. • Teaching the related topics in the chapters. • Doing the related activities in the chapters. • Task 1 was assigned as homework. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 2 and passage 3 in the book. • Do the exercises in those chapters. • Do task 1: Please write a passage about your family. Introduce your family members by giving information about their names, ages, jobs, hobbies etc. Write about 100 words.
WEEK 3	April 3	CHAPTER: 4 Reading Passage: 4	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 4. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter.

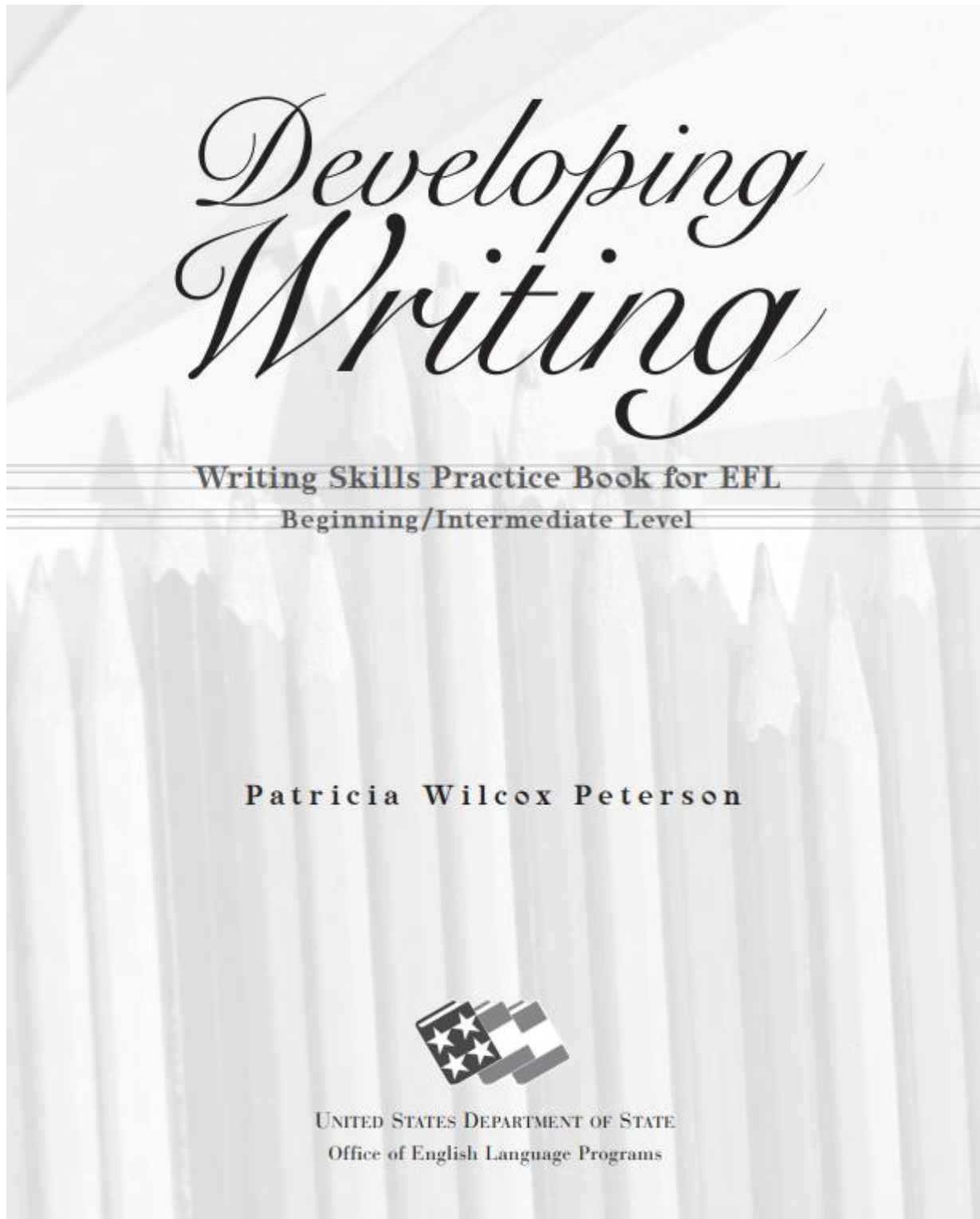
			• Task 2 was assigned as homework. • First drafts of task 1 were collected. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 4 in the book. • Do task 2: Please write a passage about your hobbies. What do you like doing in your free time? Where and when do you do them especially? Write about 100 words. •
WEEK 4	April 10	CHAPTER: 5 Reading Passage:5	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 5. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • Task 3 was assigned as homework. • first drafts of task 2 were collected. • Giving back Task 1 papers with feedback to the students for them to make the advised corrections for the following week. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 5 in the book. • Do task 3: Please write a passage about your dream job. Why do you want to have that job? What are the advantages and disadvantages of it? Write about 120 words. • Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 5	April 17	CHAPTER: 6 Reading Passage:6	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 6. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • Task 4 was assigned as homework. • first drafts of task 3 were collected. • Giving back Task 2 papers with feedback to the students for them to making the advised corrections for the following week. • The final drafts of task 1 were collected.

			WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 6 in the book. • Do task 4: Please write a letter to a friend. You can write about your family, your hobbies, your school and your city shortly. Write about 120 words. • Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 6	April 24	CHAPTER: 7 Reading Passage:7	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 7. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • Task 5 was assigned as homework. • first drafts of task 4 were collected. • Giving back Task 3 papers with feedback to the students for them to make the advised corrections for the following week. • The final drafts of task 2 were collected. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 7 in the book. • Do task 5: Please write a passage about your hometown. Where do your family live? What is the population of your hometown? What are the famous places there? What food is it famous for? What is the weather like there? Write about 150 words. • Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 7	May 2	CHAPTER: 8 Reading Passage:8	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 8. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • Task 6 was assigned as homework. • First drafts of task 5 were collected. • Giving back Task 4 papers with feedback to the students for them to make the advised corrections for the following week. • The final drafts of task 3 were collected.

			WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 8 in the book. • Do task 6: Please write a passage comparing city life (urban life) and village life (country life). Compare two different lifestyles in terms of their advantages and disadvantages. Which one would you prefer and why? Write about 150 words. • Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 8	May 8	CHAPTER: 9 Reading Passage:9	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 9. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • First drafts of task 6 were collected. • Giving back Task 5 papers with feedback to the students for them to make the advised corrections for the following week. • The final drafts of task 4 were collected. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 9 in the book. • Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 9	May 15	CHAPTER:10 Reading Passage:10	ACTIVITIES: • Examining chapter 10. • Teaching the related topics in the chapter. • Doing the related activities in the chapter. • Giving back Task 6 papers with feedback to the students for them to make the advised corrections for the following week. • The final drafts of task 5 were collected. WEEKLY ASSIGNMENT: • Review passage 10 in the book.

			Examine the teacher feedback closely and rewrite your passage correcting your mistakes.
WEEK 10	May 22	POST-TEST CONCLUSION	ACTIVITIES: - The final drafts of task 6 were collected. - Administering the post-test and taking the post-test scores of each group. - Conclusion of the course (comments, ideas and wishes) - Thanking for the attendance and contribution to the study.

Appendix 6: Cover Page of the Book Used in the Treatment



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Appendix 8: The writing tasks which were given to the language learners in all groups

Task 1:

Please write a passage about your family. Introduce your family members by giving information about their names, ages, jobs, hobbies etc. Write about 100 words.

Task 2:

Please write a passage about your hobbies. What do you like doing in your free time? Where and when do you do them especially? Write about 100 words.

Task 3:

Please write a passage about your dream job. Why do you want to have that job? What are the advantages and disadvantages of it? Write about 120 words.

Task 4:

Please write a letter to a friend. You can write about your family, your hobbies, your school and your city shortly. Write about 120 words.

Task 5:

Please write a passage about your hometown. Where do your family live? What is the population of your hometown? What are the famous places there? What food is it famous for? What is the weather like there? Write about 150 words.

Task 6:

Please write a passage comparing city life (urban life) and village life (country life). Compare two different lifestyles in terms of their advantages and disadvantages. Which one would you prefer and why? Write about 150 words.

Appendix 9: Writing Correction Codes (Editing Symbols)

Writing correction code - Try - Activities © BBC | British Council 2007

Writing correction code

Code	Use	Example
WW	Wrong word	<i>As our plane flew <u>on</u> the mountains we saw snow.</i>
WT	Wrong time	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains we <u>see</u> snow.</i>
WF	Wrong form	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains we <u>was seeing</u> snow.</i>
WO	Wrong order	<i>As our plane over the mountain <u>flew</u> we saw snow.</i>
SP	Spelling	<i>As our plane <u>flue</u> over the mountains we saw snow.</i>
P	Punctuation	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains; we saw snow.</i>
X	Extra word	<i>As our plane flew over <u>to</u> the mountains we saw snow.</i>
M	Missing word	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains <u>_</u> saw snow.</i>
R	Register	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains we <u>observed</u> snow.</i>
?	Not clear	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains we saw snow.</i>
!	Silly mistake!	<i>As our plane flew over the mountains we <u>seed</u> snow.</i>
RW	Try re-writing	<i><u>Our vehicle flies, we snow find, over mountains you saw it.</u></i>

Appendix 10: Samples of student papers from each group

Sample 1 First Draft - Coded Correction (Task 1)

= MY FAMILY =

Hello, my name is Sedanur. I am from Elazığ but my family live in WF Diyarbakır. I am a collage student in Gediz at Paramedic department.

I have got two brothers. My little brother's name is Eren. He is a student M high school. My mother's name is Yıldız. WF X His job is housewife. She likes animals.

So we have got a bird. WF X Also my mother likes cook WF and she makes delicious foods. My father's name is Mehmet. WF X His job is a policeman. He likes his job.

His hobbies WF is visiting different places. My big brother's name is Hacı. He is twenty-four years old. He likes technology and computers. I love my family and I enjoy spending time with them.

Sedanur ÖZÜL.

Sample 1 Final Draft - Coded Correction (Task 1)

MY FAMILY

Hello, my name is Sedanur. I am from Elazığ but my family lives in Diyarbakır. I am a Collage student in Gediz at Paramedic department.

I have got two brothers. My little brother's name is Eren. He is a student at high school. My mother's name is Yıldız. She is a housewife. She likes animals. So we have got a bird. My mother also likes to cooking and she makes delicious foods. My father's name is Mehmet. He is a policeman. He likes his job. His hobby is visiting different places. My big brother's name is Hacı. He is twenty-four years old. He likes technology and computers. I love my family and I enjoy spending time with them.

Sedanur Başlı

Sample 2 First Draft - Coded Correction (Task 4)

Soma road, Gınorlu avenue
Arısoy Apartmen building #48
osmangazi / BURSA

PEN FRIEND
SP

Dear Elonur,

My name is Zeynep KORKUT. My family lives in Balıkesir. I am studying university in Gedi2. I want to be a friend with you. WW WF

I am 20 years old. My hobbies read books and listen to music. My favorite dishes peas and rice. My mother is a housewife. My father died 4 years ago. My sister is a student. My sister is interested in judo.

Balıkesir also winters become hot in cold summers. Balıkesir's hoşmeim and cologne are famous. Balıkesir's clock tower and Kuvayi Milliye museum are famous. I would love to be a friend. I am waiting for your reply as soon as possible. SP

Zeynep KORKUT

Sample 2 Final Draft - Coded Correction (Task 4)

Soma road, Gınorlu avenue
Arısoy Apartmen building #4
Olmangazi / BURSA

PEN FRIEND

Dear Elanur,

My name is Zeynep KORKUT. My family lives in Balıkesir. I am studying university in Gedi'z. will you be my pen friend?

I am 20 years old. My hobbies is reading books and listening to music. My favorite dishes is peas and rice. My mother is a housewife. My father died 4 years ago. My sister is a student. My sister is interested in judo.

Balıkesir's winter season is cold, summer is very hot. Balıkesir's hoşmerim and cologne are famous, Balıkesir's clock tower and Kuşagi Milliye Museum are famous. I would love to be friend. I am waiting for your reply a soon as possible.

Zeynep KORKUT

Sample 3 First Draft - Underlined Correction (Task 2)

MY HOBBIES

Hello. My name is Gül. I live in a dorm. So I don't have much chance to do activity. But I like to travel?. I have the opportunity. I like volleyball. I like to read? books in my free time. I love to play? backgammon with my friends. I like swimming. I like listening to music. My number one hobby is travel? It is very nice to learn new things because you see new places. I have never been abroad. But I want to get out?. Can be anywhere in the world. But I don't like to travel alone. Because it can be boring.

GÜL BİNBÖĞA

Sample 3 Final Draft - Underlined Correction (Task 2)

MY HOBBIES

Hello. My name is Gül. I live in a dorm. So I don't have much chance to do activity. But I like traveling. I have the opportunity. I like video. I like reading books in my free time. I love playing backgammon with my friends. I like swimming. I love listening to music. My number one hobby is traveling. It is very nice to learn new things because you see new places. I have never been abroad. But I would like to go abroad. Can be any where in the world. But I don't like to travel alone. Because it can be boring.

GÜL BİNBOĞA

Sample 4 First Draft - Underlined Correction (Task 3)

My Dream Job

Hello, I'm Meryem. Let me talk about my dream job. After finishing primary and secondary school, I started high school. I loved English when I was little and my dream was to read the language section. But I went to health vocational high school nursing department. With the wish of my family, I liked the nursing department over time. It made me very happy to help people. So my dream job was definitely to be a health professional. I wanted to do a midwifery profession because I love children and I want to witness birth moments. But I decided to give up this idea and become a paramedic. Because it is an exciting profession and right by me. The most beautiful advantages of this profession is to bring a person back to life. It's a perfect feeling to bring people back together with their loved ones. The worst disadvantage is that a life ends in the hands. I'm sure no one wants to live this feeling. And if you want to do this profession you should love your profession despite all the negatives, just like me. If you want to be paramedic, the seconds are very important to you. Use them well...

Meryem HARMANCI

Sample 4 Final Draft - Underlined Correction (Task 3)

My Dream Job

Hello. I'm Meryem. Let me talk about my dream job. After finishing primary and secondary school. I started high school. I loved English when I was little and my dream was to reading the language division. But I went to school of health vocational high school nursing department because of the wish of my family. I liked the nursing department over time. It made me very happy to help people. So my dream job was definitely to be a health worker. I wanted study in a midwifery profession because I love children and I want to witness birth moments. But I decided to give up this idea and become a paramedic worker. Because it is an exciting profession and correct for me. The most beautiful andvantage of this profession is to bring a person back of life. It's a perfect feeling to bring people back together with their loved ones. The worst disadvantage is that a life ends in our hands. I'm sure no one wants to live this feeling. And if you want to do this profession you should love your profession despite all the negative sides, just like me. If you want to be a paramedic the seconds are very important to you. Use them well...

Meryem HARMANCI

Sample 5 First Draft - Teacher Correction (Task 5)

My city

I live in Elazığ. Elazığ is located in the eastern Anatolian Region. It's not very crowded but it ^{has} a university. For this reason ^{there are} a lot of students ^{there}. First university is ^{there}.

Elazığ is a peninsula, ^{so the three} ~~on~~ ^{it is surrounded by} ~~the~~ sides of the water. Continental climate prevails ^{there} but the weather is beautiful. There is a large park ^{and} there are ^{walking trails} ~~walkways~~. The Harput fortress is here. It is very beautiful, ~~and~~ magnificent ^{and} a historical work from ancient times. is a touristic city. People call each other "gaklas". Since ^{Castle} ~~geat~~ ^{are here} ~~is here~~, summer houses ^{and} resort ^{are here}. This place is quite fun but in winter it ~~will be~~ ^{is} very cold. You can sit in a cafe in ~~the~~ winter and chat with your friends.

^{I love its} I love ~~the~~ Elazığ. ^{and also} ~~To be~~ being a quiet city, cheap ^{and also} having many students and lakes ^{what I} ~~here~~. ^{about} ~~The~~ dislike ^{that's} ~~of~~ this place is ^{it's} cold in ^{winter} ~~water~~ and very hot in summer. The streets of Elazığ are quite wide and there is a fortification car. ~~The~~ Traffic is too much ^{and} ~~cramped~~ ^{also} it is very difficult to be ^a ~~a~~ pedestrian here.

Fatih Budan



Sample 5 Final Draft - Teacher Correction (Task 5)

My city -

I live in Elazığ. It is located in the eastern Anatolian Region. It is not very crowded but it has a university. For this reason there are a lot of students there. First university is here.

Elazığ is a peninsula, so the three sides of it is surrounded by water. Continental climate prevails there but the weather is beautiful. There is a large park and there are walking trails. The Harput Fortress is here. It is very beautiful, magnificent and a historical work from ancient times. It is a touristic city. People call each other "gökkoş".

Since castle, summer houses and resort are here. This place is quite fun but in winter it is very cold. You can sit in a cafe in winter and chat with your friends.

I love Elazığ. I love its being quiet, cheap, and also having many students and lakes. What I dislike about this place is that's cold in winter and very hot in summer.

The streets of Elazığ are quite wide and there is a fortification cor. The Traffic is too much and it is also very difficult to be a pedestrian here.

Ece Budak

Sample 6 First Draft - Teacher Correction (Task 6)

CHOOSE YOUR SIDE

Hi;

I am Aynur and 21 years old. I live in Turkey's Kutahya province. The city I live in ~~is~~^{is} small, ~~but~~^{but} I prefer the city life, although I love natural life. Because city life has many advantages ~~such as~~^{such as} better transportation, education, and health ~~facilities~~^{facilities} they are easier to reach than rural life. ~~Rural life is also~~^{They are} more difficult to reach in rural life.

If we come to the advantages of urban life, it is much easier to reach every place almost every hour compared to rural life. But transportation is sometimes difficult due to traffic and noise reasons. Rural life ~~is also~~^{and} does not have troubles like car parking ~~and~~^{and} traffic noise. ~~This~~^{This is} a great advantage for ~~the~~^{the} rural life.

If we come to other possibilities of urban life, ~~For example~~^{we can say that} educational opportunities in urban areas are more and more advanced. People in rural life prefer urban life to complete their education and determine their career. Another ~~possibility~~^{advantage} of urban life ~~according~~^{compared} to rural life is health. Compared to rural life, in urban life ~~it~~^{it} is also easier to reach medicines and health services ~~to the~~^{to the} doctor.

I would like to mention a few disadvantages of urban life compared to rural life. In urban life you have to pay a large sum of money to pay for rent and pay for transportation to ~~the~~^{your} house with a great possibility. But in rural life you can grow your own food ~~and~~^{and} you can meet the transportation costs with cheaper ~~things~~^{less money}.

I prefer urban life because there are more possibilities and advantages. However, I think it is necessary to taste the rural life.

Aynur AKSU

Sample 6 Final Draft - Teacher Correction (Task 6)

CHOOSE YOUR SIDE

Hi,

I am Aynur and 21 years old. I live in Turkey's Kütahya province. The city I live in is small, but I prefer the city life, although I love natural life. Because city life has many advantages such as better transportation, education and health facilities they are easier to reach than in rural life. They are more difficult to reach in rural life.

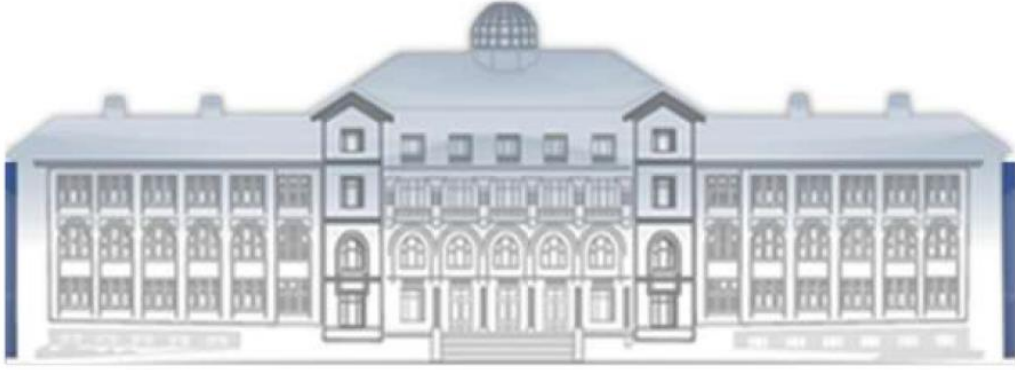
If we come to the advantages of urban life, it is much easier to reach every place almost every hour compared to rural life. But transportation is sometimes difficult due to traffic and noise. Rural life does not have troubles like car parking and traffic noise. This is a great advantage of rural life.

If we come to other possibilities of urban life, we can say that educational opportunities in urban are as are more and more advanced. People in rural life prefer urban life to complete their education and determine their career. Another advantage of urban life compared to rural life is health. Compared to rural life, in urban life it is also easier to reach medicines and health services.

I would like to mention a few disadvantages of urban life compared to rural life. In urban life you have to pay a large sum of money to pay for rent and pay for transportation to your house with a great possibility. But in rural life you can grow your own food and you can meet the transportation costs with less money.

I prefer urban life because there are more possibilities and advantages. However, I think it is necessary to taste the rural life.

Aynur Aksoy



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..