T.C.
UFUK UNIVERSITY
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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' PERSONALITY TRAITS AND THEIR PREFERENCES FOR WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

MASTER'S THESIS

ZEYNEP DAŞER

SUPERVISOR
ASST.PROF. DR. CEYHUN KARABIYIK

ANKARA
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BİLDİRİM

Hazırladığım tezin tamamen kendi çalışmam olduğunu ve her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi taahhüt eder, tezimin kâğıt ve elektronik kopyalarının Ufuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü arşivlerinde aşağıda belirtildiği şekilde saklanmasına izin verdiğimi onaylarım.

† Tezimin 2 yıl süreyle erişime açılmasını istemiyorum. Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

29 / 06 /2022

Zeynep DAŞER

DEDICATION

In memory of my beloved mother

You are gone, but your belief in me has made this journey possible.

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The cover of any piece of research that leads to the production of a thesis should not only list the researcher's name, but also the names of all those unsung heroes, who offered varying degrees of support, encouragement, and guidance. A debt of gratitude is owned to all my heroes who enabled me to complete this study.

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ÖZ

DAŞER, Zeynep. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin kişilik özellikleri ile yazılı düzeltici geri bildirim tercihleri arasındaki ilişki, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2022

İkinci ve yabancı dil bağlamlarında yazılı düzeltici geri bildirim (YDG) kavramı, son yıllarda popülerlik kazanmıştır, ancak öğrencilerin görüşleri ve tercihleri gibi bu yaygın uygulamanın bazı yönleri, çoğunlukla YDG'nin uzun vadeli etkinliğine ilişkin tartışmalar nedeniyle göz ardı edilmiştir. Bu doğrultuda, nicel bir metodoloji uygulayan bu çalışma, İngilizce öğrenenlerin YDG tercihlerini araştırmak ve kişilik özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmak için yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın asıl amacı, İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin kişilik özellikleri ile yazılı düzeltici geri bildirim tercihleri arasındaki olası ilişkiyi inceleyerek, YDG literatüründeki önemli bir boşluğu doldurmaktır. Bu hedeflere ulaşmak ve araştırma sorularını yanıtlamak için Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinde çeşitli İngilizce bölümlerinde öğrenim görmekte olan 371 öğrenci araştırmaya katılmıştır. Büyük Beş Kişilik Envanteri (BFI) ve Öğrencilerin YDG Tercihleri Anketinden oluşan veri toplama araçları ile toplanan veriler betimsel analizlerin yanı sıra Pearson Ki-kare testi ve Fisher'in Kesin testi gibi çıkarımsal analiz prosedürleri uygulanarak analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmada elde edilen bulgular, katılımcıların, cinsiyet gözetmeksizin, kırmızı kalemle yazılmış, içerik ve organizasyon hakkında özel ve ayrıntılı yorumlar içeren üst dilsel, öğretmen tarafından verilen, odaklanmamış geri bildirim türünü tercih ettiklerini, doğrudan ve dolaylı geri bildirim çeşitleri için ise tarafsız bir tercih sergilediklerini göstermektedir. Katılımcılar, ayrıca YDG'nin gelecekteki hataları önlemede etkili olduğunu düşünmektedirler. Bu sonuçlar, yazma sınıflarında öğrenci hataları düzeltirken, onların çok çeşitli tercihlerine hitap eden, kişiye özel yöntemlere ihtiyaç duyulduğuna işaret etmektedir. Kişilik özellikleri açısından, katılımcılar arasında en baskın kişilik özelliğinin deneyime açıklık, en az yaygın olanının ise dışa dönüklük olduğu görülmüştür. Öğrencilerin kişilik özellikleri ile YDG tercihleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığını gösteren araştırma sonuçlarının, alandaki paydaşların çoğuna katkıda bulunması ve bu konuda daha fazla araştırma yapılmasına yol açması umulmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Yazılı düzeltici geri bildirim, kişilik özellikleri, öğrencilerin tercihleri, Türkiye'de İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretimi, hata

ABSTRACT

DAŞER, Zeynep. The relationship between EFL learners' personality traits and their preferences for written corrective feedback, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2022

The notion of written corrective feedback (WCF) in second and foreign language contexts has garnered popularity over the past few years; however, certain aspects of this ubiquitous practice, such as students' opinions and preferences have been overlooked, mostly because of the debates concerning its long-term efficacy. Accordingly, the present study, applying a quantitative methodology, set out to explore the WCF preferences of EFL learners and unearth their personality trait levels. It ultimately aimed to address a niche in WCF research by examining the possible relationship between the personality traits of EFL learners and their feedback preferences in writing. To achieve these goals and answer the research questions, 371 students were recruited from various English majors at a state university in Turkey. Data were collected by utilizing two instruments: the Big Five Inventory (BFI) and the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire and analysed by performing descriptive and inferential analysis procedures, namely the Pearson Chi-square test and Fisher's Exact test. The findings revealed that the participants preferred teacher-initiated, unfocused, metalinguistic feedback with specific and detailed comments on content and organisation which are written in red ink, regardless of their gender; however, they exhibited a neutral preference for direct and indirect feedback types. They also thought that WCF is effective in preventing future errors. These outcomes indicate the need for more finely-tuned approaches to error treatment in writing classes that cater for all tastes. In terms of personality traits, openness to experience was found to be the most dominant personality trait among the respondents, while extraversion was the least prevalent one. The results, which demonstrated no statistically significant association between learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences, are expected to contribute to most of the stakeholders in the field and feed further investigations.

Keywords: Written corrective feedback, personality traits, students' preferences, Turkish EFL context, error

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BF	Big Five
BFI	Big Five Inventory
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CF	Corrective Feedback
EA	Error Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EPI	Eysenck Personality Inventory
EPQ	Eysenck Personality Questionnaire
ESL	English as a Second Language
FFM	Five-Factor Model
IDs	Individual Differences
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MBTI	Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
SAT	Skill Acquisition Theory
SCT	Socio-cultural Theory
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
OCEAN	Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism
PEN	Psychoticism, Extraversion, Neuroticism
RQ	Research Question
WCF	Written Corrective Feedback
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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INTRODUCTION

Overview

The introduction part, which seeks to give a general outline of the study, begins with the background of the study in order to set the context and elucidate the main components of the research. Thereafter, it presents the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, and the significance of the study. Next, the research questions are provided. Finally, the section explains the limitations of the study, the organization of the study and the definitions of key terms.

Background of the Study

In our globalized world, millions of people feel the need to learn a foreign language and become polyglots because of the mushrooming benefits that it brings to their lives. When people learn a language other than their mother tongue, they can advance their careers, find a gateway into another culture, boost their brainpower, and communicate with others. However, 'to know' a language does not simply mean knowing its linguistic structures. For a holistic description of language learning, mastery of all four skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as the sub-skills like vocabulary and grammar, is paramount. Among these four basic skills, writing is of the utmost importance vis-à-vis ensuring the permanence of feelings and thoughts as well as reaching wider audiences.

Writing is a means of human communication that expresses thoughts and emotions via symbols and signs. It is the physical representation of a spoken language and a channel through which we transmit our intended messages to the receivers. Just like speaking, writing is a productive skill that enhances creativity, higher-order thinking, and imagination. Apart from these invaluable benefits, it is rather challenging for students to produce clear and well-organized written pieces of work in a language they are just learning. Since creating a comprehensible and fluent written work even in one's first language is a highly demanding job, it would be unrealistic to expect error-free products from students while performing such a difficult task in a foreign language. After all, errors are natural, and they are an indispensable part of learning.

Writing is not only difficult for learners, but it poses a challenge for instructors as it puts a huge burden on their shoulders when it comes to providing constructive feedback on

students' work, as well. Writing teachers are usually faced with the "Hamletian dilemma "To be or not to be" or "To correct or not to correct", then '*when*?', '*where*?', '*why*?', '*how*?', and '*what*?' to correct" (Kryeziu, 2015). They invest considerable time and energy in giving written corrective feedback (henceforth WCF). The term WCF refers to the "correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" (Truscott, 1996, p. 329). Over the past few decades, WCF in second or foreign language writing has garnered popularity in SLA (second language acquisition); however, contemporary debates on WCF were initiated by Truscott, who believed that it was not useful for improving writing accuracy. "Ironically, it is indeed his hardline assertion that aroused vehement disputes and increased interests over this topic rather than ended the discussion" (Chen et al., 2016, p.88). Truscott's theories were refuted by a host of researchers (e.g., Denton, 2014; Ferris, 1999; Magno & Amarles, 2011; Weaver, 2006). Such scholars assert that WCF has great value for improving students' writing as it ameliorates their writing skills which leads them to become more autonomous writers. Indeed, an overwhelming majority of recent studies found considerable benefits of WCF except for Truscott and Hsu (2008) along with Hartshorn et al. (2010). Those who believe in the usefulness of WCF state that if to err is human then to give corrective feedback should be divine as it helps students improve the accuracy of their writing.

Students, who are at the centre of this WCF issue, should be taught with their WCF preferences in mind if we, as teachers, want to achieve better results thanks to our corrective feedback practices. Knowing learners' beliefs, attitudes, and preferences about any aspect of language learning may help them develop more successful learning strategies since a mismatch between learners' expectations and what they find in the classroom might prevent them from mastering a foreign language. Likewise, learners' personality traits, as well as their age, aptitude, motivation, attitude and learning styles, are vital individual factors that impact language acquisition. Personality refers to the unique and stable characteristic features of emotions, thoughts and behaviours of a person. Several researchers have proposed hierarchical methods for categorizing behavioural measures into groupings. *The Big Five Personality Traits Model* is possibly the most notable of them all, and it is commonly used to describe personality in five broad dimensions: *extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism*, and *openness to experience* (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Understanding the relationship between learners' WTC preferences and their patterns of personality will enable teachers to provide more

individualized, learner-tailored corrective feedback in writing classes, which will be more fruitful than assuming that one size fits all. In order to shed light on these notions, this research addresses the relationship between the personality traits of EFL learners and their WTC preferences.

Statement of the Problem

In light of the growing number of studies on writing education, it has become apparent that traditional writing instruction does not meet students' and teachers' needs. The association of writing skills with a student-centred educational philosophy led to the emergence of the process-oriented writing approach. The process approach aims to create a community of learners who support one another, take ownership of their own learning, track their progress, and collaborate in evaluating their efforts (Harris & Graham, 1996). It is the responsibility of instructors to foster such a learning community, but it is clear that fulfilling all of these objectives in a school setting is challenging when class numbers are large, teachers must consider time constraints, students have limited access to relevant resources, and they have no audience other than the teacher. According to Gettings (1997), most EFL schools across the world have time, space, and resource constraints.

The concerns described above are also present at Ataturk University like many other Turkish universities, where English is taught as a foreign language. As an instructor who has been working as a tutor for writing courses in the School of Foreign Languages at Ataturk University for a long time, I have noticed that our learners are not able to achieve the pre-stated course objectives at the end of the school year. One factor that leads to our learners' poor writing performance may be that teachers often struggle to respond to student papers although students require individualized feedback. This happens mostly due to the fact that it may take an extensive amount of time to provide customized feedback to student paragraphs or essays, especially if they have a large number of students or give regular writing assignments. Because Turkish instructors usually tend to teach several packed classes, the number of papers that need to be graded may limit the amount of the writing tasks they can assign. Accordingly, it may hinder the development of students' writing skills if they do not have the opportunity to engage in enough writing activities. Another possible reason for this failure could be the instructors' unsuitable WCF practices. As noted by Zamel (1985), teachers' error correction practices commonly

have a highly arbitrary and random nature, rather than being based on a clearly defined and focused strategy (p.88). The ongoing conversations that I made with my colleagues and personal experiences which I had in my fifteen-year career led me to conclude that there is no consensus among the teachers at this institution about the provision of WCF. Therefore, we need a more systematic approach to providing CF by taking our students' needs and preferences into account since the effectiveness of WCF depends on its consistency. If writing teachers seek to adopt a learner-centred way of teaching and assessment, they should know the individual factors that impact learners' preferences. "Obtaining information about students' preferences for different types and agents of feedback, and also their personal features such as personality will be of value in designing more effective writing courses" (Ranjbar & Zamanian, 2014, p.81). However, there is a dearth of studies focusing on the relationship between EFL learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences. Therefore, this study attempts to develop a more systematic approach to WCF practices, and it aims to provide insights into the above-mentioned issues.

Purpose of the Study

To date, much ink has flown on discussing the term WCF in theory, research and practice; however, most of these studies focused on the efficacy of a certain feedback type on the written accuracy of language learners (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002). When planning and conducting WCF studies from a learner-centred perspective, the opinions, preferences, and needs of students should not be overlooked since the use of error correction by language instructors plays a pivotal role in determining the success of learners in an EFL writing class. It's critical to figure out how well teachers' WCF practices cater to students' preferences, or else when the expectations of students do not match the realities of the classroom, it can be a barrier to their learning. However, there is a missing link in many research studies about student response to writing, which is what students think about their teacher's responses (Murphy, 2000, p.82). Indeed, only a small number of studies were conducted to explore learners' WCF preferences and perceptions. Individual differences (IDs henceforth) among learners, which include cognitive, social and affective factors, are believed to have a substantial role in the speed of L2 learning and eventual degree of accomplishment, and "personality is a key factor for explaining individual differences in L2 learning" (Ellis, 2004, p. 541). According to Cook (1991), "there are three reasons for being interested in personality.

They are: first, to gain scientific understanding, second, to access people and next, to change people" (p. 3). Since the ultimate aim of L2 education is to reach learners and create the intended changes in their patterns of behaviour, studying personality in relation to SLA seems reasonable. Studies that aimed at correlating students' personality traits or types and WCF, in general, are both scarce (e.g., Banaruee et al., 2017; Shokrpour & Moslehi, 2015), and tend to produce inconsistent results. The ones which tried to explain the association between L2 learners' WCF preferences and their personality profiles are very few (e.g., Ranjbar & Zamanian, 2014). Accordingly, the purpose of this study is threefold. This study seeks to unearth Turkish EFL students' WCF preferences and explore their most dominant personality traits. Furthermore, this study aims to reveal the possible relationship between EFL learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences. By doing so, this research may benefit the students, the instructors and other stakeholders in the EFL writing context.

Significance of the Study

A substantial body of research has been carried out on the WCF construct over the last two decades both in Turkey and in the world. An overwhelming majority of these studies (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2009, 2010; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Sheen, 2007; Shintani & Ellis, 2013) delved into the efficacy of a specific WCF type (direct and indirect WCF types mostly) in improving the linguistic accuracy of students' writing and reducing their errors. Norouzian and Farahani (2012) reveal that "several aspects of written error feedback contexts have been simply overlooked or have remained on the sidelines, partly due to controversies over its long-lasting efficacy" (p.11). Students' preferences are one of these aspects, and an emerging set of studies tries to focus on the perceptions and preferences of WCF stakeholders such as teachers and students (e.g., Ene & Kosobucki, 2016; Han, 2017; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Kahraman & Yalvaç, 2015; McMartin-Miller, 2014; Simard et al., 2015). In addition, there have been ample studies on the association between learners' personality traits concerning the proficiency in EFL (e.g., Busch, 2006), different learning styles (e.g., Erton, 2010), oral performance in second language (e.g., Gan, 2008), the use of listening strategies (e.g., Karbalaei, 2008), and writing progress (e.g., Hajimohammadi & Mukundan, 2011).

The motivation for this study stems from the belief that there is a void in the literature, particularly in the Turkish EFL environment, when it comes to learners' preferences for

WCF. Indeed, after brushing up the literature, it can be stated that there is a need for further research to investigate students' preferences regarding written CF (corrective feedback) and its relationship with their personality traits, in particular. To the best of our knowledge, there are no more than a handful of studies (e.g., Ranjbar & Zamanian, 2014; Shokrpour & Moslehi, 2015) that elucidate the relationship between WCF and students' personality dimensions both in Turkey and in the world. The current research is one of the few studies that attempt to shed light on this relationship. The findings of the present study are believed to have theoretical, methodological, and practical implications in the Turkish EFL context to fill the existing gap in the literature and to help EFL teachers employ different WCF strategies which can fit different learners with varying personality traits. Hence, this study is valuable in terms of filling this void and contributing to the existing pool of literature. Besides, in terms of the WCF construct, the pendulum has swung too far towards quasi-experimental studies. This study is also important as it has a quantitative, non-experimental research design.

Research Questions

The general objective of this study is to determine the role of differences in personality traits in shaping student preferences for WCF. It specifically seeks to find out learners' most preferred feedback type, scope, source and focus as well as their personality profiles. Since this research is a fairly comprehensive one in terms of WCF, the colour of the pen that students favour when they receive written feedback is another concern of the present study. This research explores the differences between students' genders regarding their WCF preferences, as well. To achieve these goals, the present study intends to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1. What are the Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences regarding WCF?

RQ 2. What are the levels of personality traits of Turkish EFL learners?

RQ 3. Do male and female students differ in their WCF preferences?

RQ 4. Is there a relationship between the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners and their WCF preferences?

Limitations of the Study

The current study, like the great majority of scientific research, suffers from some constraints. The major possible limitation of this research lies in the fact that it is a quantitative study. More comprehensive data might be gathered through mixed-method approach. The instruments that are used to collect the quantitative data could have been diversified with semi-structured interviews to unearth the underlying rationale behind EFL learners' WCF preferences more clearly.

Another limitation is related to the sample size. This research was carried out with 371 English major undergraduates at a Turkish state university. Thus, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to all EFL contexts. The limited nature of the data obtained from a sample with unique characteristics precludes them from being applied to a broader range of situations. Furthermore, student personalities, backgrounds, and goals may differ significantly between contexts. It would be risky to extrapolate responses from one group of study subjects to a completely distinct setting.

One possible limitation is about the data collection method. Since this study relies on self-report data, the participants might exaggerate or under-report their preferences and opinions. They may also have social desirability bias, which might affect the results. Instead of being honest, respondents may choose the option that is more socially acceptable.

Lastly, to determine whether personality trait is a well-grounded variable that affects the preferences of EFL learners toward WCF, more research is required. Some additional factors may impact students' preferences for written error correction, such as their age, motivation, learning style and proficiency level. Hence, further studies should be conducted to determine how these factors influence students' preferences. Despite these shortcomings, this study still provides value in terms of addressing an aspect of the WCF construct that has received little attention before, as well as minimizing the effects of these limitations to the greatest extent feasible.

Organization of the Study

The current study is divided into five chapters besides the introduction part. The introduction part is devoted to setting the stage for the remainder of the study. It begins

with the background of the study, which defines the context and key features of the investigation. Thereafter, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, and the significance of the study are presented. The section culminates with the limitations of the study, the organization of the study and the definitions of the key terms.

The purpose of Chapter One is to give a complete literature analysis in order to create a framework for existing knowledge and the research issues addressed by the study. The chapter is divided into three subsections. In the first section, the WCF construct will be introduced and thoroughly reviewed by linking previous research and theory to the problem at hand. The second part is related to learner's preferences regarding WCF, whereas the third section focuses on learners' personality traits and evaluates the relevant research related to these two main constructs of the current research.

The general methodological approach of this study is described in Chapter Two. First, the research design is presented by explaining the major themes that will be explored using the most appropriate method for this study. Next, the setting, participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures are presented.

Chapter Three comprises the results of the quantitative data collected from the study sample. It summarises the findings and shows the gathered data in connection to each research question, utilising several tables.

In Chapter Four, the results are fused together, and the research questions of the study are comprehensively discussed in light of the major findings of the study. In addition, the outcomes of the present study are compared with those of prior research, and the similarities and differences are critically analysed.

Based on the methodology and main findings of the study, a summary of the research is given in Chapter Five. The chapter concludes with pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

Definitions of Key Terms

Several key concepts will recur throughout this study. Definitions of these terms are covered in this section in order to clearly grasp the terminology used in the current research.

Written Corrective Feedback (WCF): Ferris (2003) defines written corrective feedback as the correction of errors "including word choice, word form, and collocation, and mechanical errors such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and typing conventions" as well as grammar for the purpose of improving writing accuracy (p.42).

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): EFL stands for English as a Foreign Language which is about learning and using English in a non-English speaking environment. This concept is mainly used to talk about the non-native students who learn English in a country where English is not the predominant language or is used as a medium of instruction.

*Second Language Acquisition (SLA): "*Second language acquisition (SLA, for short) is the scholarly field of inquiry that investigates the human capacity to learn languages other than the first, during late childhood, adolescence or adulthood, and once the first language or languages have been acquired" (Ortega, 2013, pp.5-6).

Error: Norrish (1983) defines error as "a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong" (p.7).

Feedback Type: López (2021) states that "Feedback type refers to the specific strategies used to address learners' written errors" (p.5).

Feedback Scope: Feedback scope refers to the amount of feedback that is provided to learners. It is about "the number and type of errors that are addressed—either a comprehensive approach or a focus on a limited range of error categories" (Brown, 2012, p.863).

Feedback Focus: The focus of feedback is about the error types on which the teacher concentrates while providing feedback. It involves deciding on which errors to correct in a written text such as mechanical errors or errors about content and organization.

The Feedback Providing Agent: The feedback providing agent is the source of feedback such as a peer or the teacher; it refers to the person who is responsible for giving written corrective feedback.

*Personality Traits***:** "Personality traits are defined as the relatively enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguish individuals from one another" (Roberts & Mroczek, 2008, p.31).

*Students' Preferences***:** The term 'preference' can be defined as a liking for one option over another. In this study, student' preferences refer to what learners fancy in terms of written corrective feedback.

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Overview

This chapter provides a detailed review of the literature to establish a framework between existing knowledge and the research questions of the study. The chapter has three main parts. In the first part, the construct of WCF will be introduced thoroughly by presenting previous research. The second section, on the other hand, focuses on the EFL learners' preferences for WCF and the last part aims at reviewing the relevant literature associated with the EFL learners' personality traits. The relationship between the personality traits of EFL learners and their preferences for WCF will also be elucidated by demonstrating the relevant past research at the end of this chapter.

1.2. Writing Skills in Foreign Language Education

Writing is a fundamental language skill that is usually deemed to be the most difficult to master since one needs to convey his or her ideas while managing a variety of features ranging from vocabulary and spelling to organization and layout. To highlight the fact that writing is more than just putting thoughts on a piece of paper, Linse and Nunan (2006) noted that "writing is a combination of process and product of discovering ideas, putting them on paper and working them until they are presented in manner that is polished and comprehensible to readers" (p. 98). Writing comprises complicated processes, and micro and macro skills with lots of conventions to fulfil. Brown (2007) lists these sub-skills as follows.

Micro-skills
- Produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
- Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.
- Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.
- Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, and rules.
- Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

Macro-skills
- Use cohesive devices in written discourse.
- Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.

> • Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.
> • Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
> • Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing.
> • Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.
> • Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing the audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing. (Brown, 2007, p.399)

These dimensions are interconnected in such a way that progress in one sub-element can lead to progress in others. However, it is rather difficult to achieve all the above-mentioned subskills. When compared to writing in one's native language, L2 writing is a more challenging endeavour that requires the writer to constantly create, revise, and reconstruct texts, thus learners need the assistance of their teachers to achieve accuracy and fluency in this difficult productive skill. As Fromkin et al. (2014) posit, "writing is not acquired naturally through simple exposure to others speaking the language, but must be taught" (p.12). In a similar vein, Lenneberg (1967) noted that while walking and speaking are generically acquired behaviours, swimming and writing are learned skills. In most cases, the only way we learn how to swim is to be taught by another person. Likewise, "We learn to write if we are members of a literate society, and usually only if someone teaches us. Just as there are non-swimmers, poor swimmers, and excellent swimmers, so it is for writers" (Brown, 2015, p.426). More and more institutions are including writing courses in their curricula with the aim of educating their students to be good writers. Writing instruction in the field of EFL has become more essential because more international linguists are approaching writing as a subject of expertise, more papers and periodicals are published in the English language, and more international learners are seeking degrees in English-speaking nations (Santos, 2000). Rao (2007) underlines the significance of L2 writing by stating that "it stimulates thinking, compels students to concentrate and organize their ideas, and cultivates their ability to summarize, analyse, and criticize. On the other hand, it reinforces learning in, thinking in, and reflecting on the English language" (p.100). The act of writing offers learners concrete evidence that they are advancing in the target language. It also adds diversity to classroom

activities, helps give a break from verbal activities, and allows students and instructors to relax by quieting a noisy class. With these benefits of writing instruction in mind, teachers in both ESL and EFL settings use a variety of techniques to enhance the efficacy and clarity of their students' writing. The subsequent part addresses the most popular approaches to teaching L2 writing skills.

1.2.1. Approaches to Teaching Writing Skills

"For effective writing in EFL/ESL classroom, ELT practitioners suggest three approaches: product, process and genre" (Hasan & Akhand, 2010, p.78). The debate over the most beneficial approach to writing instruction has been raging in the literature for many years; therefore, educators are still looking for a comprehensive writing instruction method. This section examines the three approaches listed above along with their strengths and weaknesses, as well as the role WCF plays in each model. Additionally, by reviewing these approaches, a clearer grasp of the function of WCF and how teachers may use it in conjunction with their approach to writing instruction will be achieved.

1.2.1.1. The Product Approach

Although the product approach has its roots at Harvard University as early as the 1890s (Connors, 2003), it was not until the 1950s that it gained widespread popularity. As the name suggests, product-oriented teaching concentrates on the error-free end product of students' writing and is heavily influenced by form-focused techniques. "This approach views L2 writing as the orthographic representation of lexical and syntactic features of L2 speech" (Sheen, 2011, p.34). As this method is guided by the behavioural theory which was prevalent in the 1960s, L2 writing skills are developed by correcting grammatical errors in controlled exercises to minimize errors. In this traditional, text-based approach, which values linguistic structures and promotes accuracy, students analyse and emulate a model text. The product-oriented approach involves four stages which were explained by Hyland (2003):

1. Familiarization	: Learners are explicitly taught grammar and vocabulary, usually through reference to a text.
2. Controlled writing	: Learners manipulate fixed patterns, often by means of substitution tables.
3. Guided writing	: Learners imitate model texts.

4. Free writing : Learners use the patterns they have developed to write an essay, letter, etc. (Hyland, 2003, p.4)

By mimicking model texts, the product-oriented approach can expand learners' vocabulary knowledge as well as their grammar (Badger & White, 2000; McDonough & Shaw, 2003). According to Myles (2002), "if students are not exposed to native-like models of written texts, their errors in writing are more likely to persist" (p.7). Another benefit that this approach offers is that control writing might be useful for lower-level students. Product-oriented model has some advantages for the teacher, as well. Since writing is seen as a linear process that does not necessitate producing several drafts, evaluating students' papers in large classes is easier than the process-oriented classes where multiple drafts are written by the learners. The teacher only looks at the paper when it is done which makes the product approach more time-efficient than the process approach.

Nevertheless, several criticisms have been directed towards this approach. First, writing mindless copies of a model text is not real, creative, and communicative writing. Second, this kind of an approach does not teach students to write collaboratively since it lacks peer feedback. Third, "the product approach devalues the learners' potential, both linguistic and personal" (Prodromou, 1995, p. 21). Another problem with this approach is that since it focuses too much on the end product, it undervalues the stages which student writers follow such as brainstorming and generating ideas before drafting.

In a classroom where the product-based approach is followed, the teacher gives CF to student writing only once namely on the final draft. Irwin (2018) criticizes this situation by stating that "written corrective feedback in product oriented ESL composition classes, such as where the teacher only reads a final draft of paper or essay, tend to reflect a summative assessment approach and is often used as a way to justify a grade" (p.37). In a similar vein, Raimes (1983) points out that the main purpose of teachers' feedback is to test and grade learners. As Sommers (1982) explains, in this type of written feedback, the emphasis is primarily on correct grammar, ignoring other aspects such as meaning and content. In this model of writing instruction, as Faigley and Witte (1981) argues, teachers deem correction as "copy-editing, a tidying-up activity aimed at eliminating surface errors in grammar, punctuation, spelling and diction" (p. 400). To conclude, WCF

in this approach is not effective in minimizing students' errors; it even undermines learners' ability to write for communicative goals (Truscott, 1996).

1.2.1.2. The Process Approach

As a result of the constant criticisms that were directed towards the product approach, in the 1970s, English language teachers started to concentrate more on the writing process that learners go through. The process approach is a cognitive model of writing instruction that deals with the mental processes used during text construction. The main foci here is the person who produces the written work and the steps that this person takes before, during and after the writing process, not the error-free outcome of writing or linguistic accuracy. Unlike the linear product-oriented approach, this type of teaching deems writing as a recursive process that requires moving back and forth to write multiple drafts. Hasan and Akhand (2010) summarizes the distinction between these two approaches to writing:

> The process writing represents a shift in emphasis in teaching writing from the product of writing activities (the finished text) to ways in which text can be developed: from concern with questions such as 'what have you written?', 'what grade is it worth?' to 'how will you write it?', 'how can it be improved?'. (Hasan & Akhand, 2010, p.80)

According to the process-driven approaches, L2 writers must undergo multiple stages as described in Figure 1.

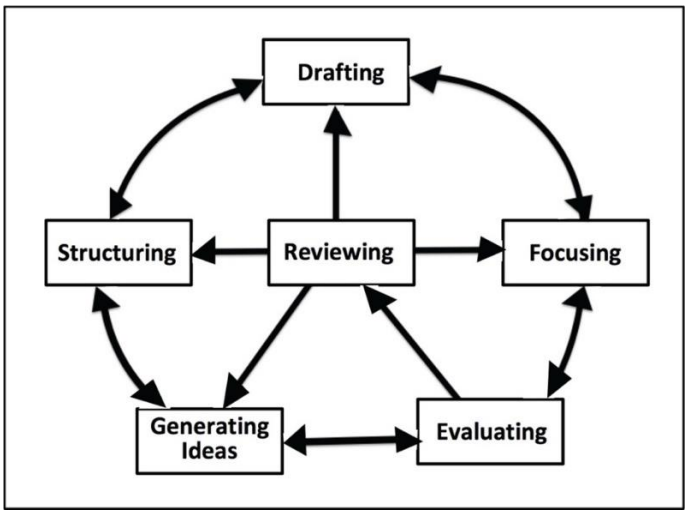

Figure 1. White and Arndt's Diagram of Process Writing

Note. From Process writing (p.43) by R. White & V. Arndt, 1991, Longman.

Several advantages of the process-oriented approach were stated by many authors such as Tyson (1999) who explains that "process-writing is learner-centred, where the teacher becomes the facilitator who helps learners realize their potential and provides students with encouragement and cooperation" (p.6). Freeman and Freeman (2004) affirm that this approach is highly motivating for students as it promotes creative, meaningful writing and collaboration through peer feedback sessions. For Brown (2013), "the process approach is an attempt to take advantage of the planned potential of writing to give students a chance to think as they write" (pp.428-429). Finally, in this model of instruction, writing is divided into manageable chunks to help students overcome certain difficulties that they face during text construction.

Despite the fact that many writing scholars (e.g., Ferris, 1997) keep favouring the process model, some researchers have raised concerns about this approach. As Sheen (2011) asserts "the process-oriented approach has been criticized for its overemphasis on content and organization at the expense of the linguistic precision and sophistication required" (p.38). Keh (1990) argues that a model like this is inappropriate for exam-oriented cultures like Asia where teachers are obsessed with preparing their pupils for standardized tests, where teachers are preoccupied with preparing pupils for tests. By referring to peer-editing, Johns (1995) argue that students who are inexperienced writers are not suitable to become editors. Furthermore, the time-consuming nature of this approach, especially in large classes, poses a challenge to writing instructors.

As process approach became relatively common in EFL classrooms, the things that teachers considered when they evaluated student writing has shifted from focusing on the surface-level mechanics to some other aspects like content, organization, and style for the purpose of encouraging learners to produce more real-life, communicative texts. Some proponents of the process approach, which minimizes the role of grammar correction in L2 writing instruction, believe that such correction belongs in the realm of grammar instruction (e.g., Zamel, 1987). Since the emergence of the process approach, students' errors have received less attention, and numerous scholars (e.g., Truscott, 1996) have questioned whether WCF is useful. Formative assessment is practiced in this model, and "it is only in the final editing stage that attention to grammatical accuracy is required" (Sheen, 2011, p.35) because it has been thought that focusing on grammar and correctness during the drafting stage hindered students' ability to flow ideas. A difference was drawn between global and local errors when the process approach to writing gained ground in

ESL research and education (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). *Local errors* were minor problems that had no negative effect on the intelligibility of the message; however, *global errors* had a greater impact on communication in terms of overall meaning; thus, it was assumed that only those errors that caused confusion should be rectified (Peleg, 2011, p.3). Rather than giving feedback only once in the end, which tends to be ineffective, the process-oriented writing approach ensures that teachers provide feedback throughout the process. WCF has been investigated extensively in the context of the multiple-draft process writing (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Sheen, 2010; Yang & Lyster, 2010). A considerable amount of research has demonstrated that learners favour CF which was given to their writings that are more than one draft (e.g., Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris, 1995; Leki, 1991). In a process-oriented class, students have three different feedback providing agents; namely, self, peer and teacher. "Teachers - in this approach - no longer act as the only source of authority on writing, but rather as assistants and consultants who encourage students to take responsibility over their writing" (Alkhatib, 2015, p.31).

1.2.1.3. The Genre Approach

Dominating the writing classes as a major instructional orthodoxy for more than three decades, the process approach created a paradigm shift from the form-based, highly structural product model to a more cognitive, complex system of the writing process. However, process- based pedagogies were not free from limitations as "they fail to consider the forces outside the individual which help guide purposes, establish relationships, and ultimately shape writing" (Hyland, 2003, p.18). By exposing students to various kinds of genres and assisting them in realizing the social uses of language in discourse groups, the genre approach, which originated in the late 1980s, attempted to address criticisms of the process model. Hyland (2003) defines genre as "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language" (p.21). This model rests on the view that writing is a context-dependent, social task. Hammond (1992, as cited in Burns, 2001) proposed a three-phase model for the genre-based approach: "modeling, joint negotiation of text by learners and teacher, and the independent construction of texts by learners" (p. 202). Genre-based instruction is usually perceived as a more developed model of the product approach since they both revolve around the analysis and imitation of various kinds of model texts such as e-mails, formal letters, memos, newspaper articles and academic essays. However, the genre method differs from the product approach in that linguistic

expertise is tied to a socio-cultural aim, and the attention is primarily on the reader's perspective not the writers' (Badger & White, 2000).

Just like the other two approaches, this model has its merits and demerits. As an advantage, Bhatia (1993) argues that by combining the functional and formal features of the language, this method gives students a deeper understanding of the conventions of the language. In addition, this audience-focused pedagogy emphasizes writing within the social context for a more real-life and communicative purpose. However, one possible drawback of this approach is that since there is too much emphasis on conventions and genre features, it discourages students' creativity. Likewise, Badgers and White (2000) blame the genre-oriented approaches as "they undervalue the skills needed to produce a text and see learners as largely passive" (p.157).

Rather than focusing solely on grammatical errors as in the product approach, teacher's WCF in the genre-based method focuses on the conventions of a specific genre; teachers respond to every element in learners' written texts, ranging from language form, style, organization, content, and mechanics. As this model is based on the sociocultural theory, teachers usually integrate group discussions in their feedback practices. "Because they are targeting the same key features and using the same terminology that was presented to the students, teachers are confident that learners will understand and utilize their comments and suggestions" (Alkhatib, 2015, p.34).

A brief review of the previously mentioned approaches to writing instruction may reveal that these three approaches are intertwined, making it difficult to distinguish between them. By keeping the possible advantages and drawbacks of each model in mind, teachers may want to use a balanced, eclectic approach that integrates two or three approaches to complement each other. When opting to adopt one of these approaches, various factors such as the curriculum, syllabus, students' proficiency levels, and their needs should be considered. However, it might be useful to emphasize that, in terms of error correction, it is apparent that the linear way of responding to student writing only when it is done is no longer seen as effective to prevent future errors.

1.3. Theoretical Perspectives on Error and Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition

Researchers and scholars in SLA are interested in understanding how people learn a second language other than their mother tongue. Therefore, they are curious to know what can be done to help learners in rectifying errors they make during language acquisition. It is relevant to ask, then, whether errors should be regarded as linguistic misconduct that needs to be avoided, or as actions that should be viewed positively since they are a sign of a learner's progress and contribute to the growth of the target language. Literature offers numerous theoretical viewpoints that should be considered before having a well-rounded opinion on this subject. "However, theoretical positions can only have validity if they are supported by research evidence" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p.3). Hence, this section presents the key theoretical perspectives that can be relevant to the role of errors and CF in SLA, followed by a discussion of some primary research that has investigated these perspectives experimentally.

Before discussing some early and recent theoretical views that either accept or dismiss the value of errors and CF in SLA, it is essential to first gain a clear understanding of the terms 'error' and 'corrective feedback'. To date, various SLA theorists and researchers have investigated and challenged the concept of 'error', which "is derived from Latin errare that means to wander, roam or stray" (Yılmaz, 2021, p.7). For example, according to Klassen (1991), errors refer to the misuse of linguistic elements in ways that are undesirable to native speakers due to inappropriate use or incomplete learning. Ellis (1997) defines errors by stating that "errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct" (p.17). To distinguish errors from mistakes, he further explains "Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows" (Ellis, 1997, p.17). Ferris (2002), specifically, defines error vis-a-vis student writing as "morphological, syntactic, and lexical forms that deviate from rules of the target language, violating the expectations of literate adult native speakers" (p.3). As Ferris (2002) expresses "There is disagreement and even controversy among writing specialists and SLA theorists as to the nature and very existence of "error" (p.20). While some scholars (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Skinner, 1953) strongly argue that errors are detrimental to the development of a second language and should be avoided at all costs, others (e.g., Dulay & Burt, 1974) deem errors as a crucial part of language acquisition

since they believe that errors provide information about the learners' current level of learning.

Another controversial term that needs clear explanation is 'corrective feedback', which has been the subject of much dispute in several areas of study. Corrective feedback has been referred to by a variety of names in the L2 literature.

> Corrective feedback is a term often found in the pedagogical field of second language teaching/learning. Its counterpart in the linguistic field of language acquisition is negative data or negative evidence; and its counterpart in the psychological field of concept learning is negative feedback. (Schachter, 1991, p.89)

Chaudron (1988) defines CF as "any teachers' behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learners of the fact of error, this response of teacher leads learners to modify their interlanguage by eliminating error from further production" (p. 150). Lightbown and Spada (1999) make a broad description as "Any indication to the learners' mistakes that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p.172). On the other hand, according to Chen et al. (2016), CF is "the responses or treatments from teachers to a learner's nontargetlike second language (L2) production" (p.85). "Although there are different definitions, in a sense, they all refer to the information that indicates directly or indirectly to the learner that there is something wrong with their output." (Karim & Nassaji, 2019, p.29). Corrective feedback may take two forms: oral and written; however, this study only concentrates on written CF. The following section seeks to address a variety of theoretical perspectives on the role of error and CF in SLA.

1.3.1. Early Perspectives on Error and Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition

Studying learner errors and their treatment has been a major focus of SLA theory and research for several decades. Language teachers may change their methodological perspectives on CF and implement the research findings to language pedagogy by carefully examining the theoretical underpinnings of error and CF. These theories either embrace or reject the importance of errors and CF in L2 learning. Accordingly, this section aims to present a brief outline of the early theoretical perspectives regarding the role of error and CF in SLA.

1.3.1.1. Behaviourist Perspectives

A quick glance at SLA research in the 1950s and 1960s shows that errors were considered negatively at that time as behaviourism dominated the field. Errors, according to behaviourists, should not be tolerated since they would eventually interfere with the acquisition of new target-like behaviors. In this regard, Brooks (1960) claimed that "error, like sin, is to be avoided" (p. 58). According to behaviourist accounts, learning was believed to take place when learners responded correctly to various stimuli. Thus, WCF "can play the role of stimuli that in turn should be met by suitable responses from language learners so as to acquire new language" (Abdelrahman, 2016, p.21). "However, the focus of the behaviorist approach was more on error prevention than error treatment" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p.4).

Based on these beliefs, a variety of instructional endeavours, such as the Audio-lingual method and contrastive analysis, have been developed. In the Audio-lingual method, learners were required "to observe and practice the right model a sufficient number of times" (Brooks, 1960, p.58) in order to create error-free utterances. However, this approach was frequently criticized for being rather repetitive and mechanical. Another educational modality that rested its grounds on behaviourist theories is Contrastive Analysis (CA, henceforth). According to CA, "it was interference from the learner's first language (L1) that was the primary source of errors" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p.4). By recognizing the different features of L2 and L1, it was hoped not only to provide explanations of the reasons for students' errors and the role teachers can play in addressing them, but also to avoid the negative transfer of the L1 (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p.4). However, a range of studies (e.g., Dulay & Burt, 1973; Hendrickson, 1978; Hussein, 1971; Politzer & Ramirez, 1973) challenged the role of CA by showing that L1 interventions cannot account for all L2 learning problems.

1.3.1.2. Error Analysis

In the late 1960s, as a result of growing dissatisfaction with CA's ability to predict learner errors and the arrival of Chomsky's cognitive psychology, errors were increasingly viewed as an active element of learning, which steered a growing interest in the systematic investigation of learner errors, known as Error Analysis (EA, henceforth). As per EA, most L2 errors have learner-internal roots and are not impacted by learners'

L1; as proposed by Selinker (1972), each student creates his own "interlanguage" with his own set of laws. EA "shifted the role of error to a positive indicator of learners' mental processes that take place during the learning of the target language from a sinful act that cannot be tolerated as suggested by CA" (Chen et al., 2016, p.86). Although EA represented a highly sophisticated perspective, it has been criticized for not considering what happens inside the learner's mind, and it was hard to ascertain if errors were caused by L1 impact or a universal process of development (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Saville-Troike, 2005). Despite CA and EA both being perceived as beneficial to teachers seeking guidance in treating students' errors, they were based on the assumption that errors needed to be corrected and that WCF had a significant role in SLA. "Little did early advocates of written CF realize that, at the beginning of the 1980s, there would be a swing in the opposite direction as Krashen and his advocates downplayed the role of error and its treatment" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 5). The subsequent part of the study will concentrate on Krashen's Monitor Model, which is commonly deemed as the first well-rounded theory of SLA.

1.3.1.3. Krashen's Monitor Model

Krashen (1982) presented five hypotheses, known as the Monitor Model, to explain the acquisition of a second language: the acquisition/learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. It is not within the scope of this study to delineate each of these hypotheses; however, the role of error correction will be briefly explained in relation to these five hypotheses. To begin with, the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis distinguishes between the concepts of "acquisition" and "learning", and Krashen (1982) believes that "Error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning" (Krashen, 1982, p.11). Krashen (1982) also argues that the role of error correction in the acquisition process appears to be negligible since language acquisition occurs naturally. As Chen et al. (2016) state, "the second hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, reveals that learned knowledge serves as a monitor to remedy the output of the acquired system and hence implies a restricted role of CF for "learning" (p.86). The under-users of this monitor, in particular, are not usually affected by error correction since they "can self-correct only by using a "feel" for correctness (e.g., "it sounds right"), and rely completely on the acquired system" (Krashen, 1982, p.19). The Natural Order Hypothesis, on the other hand, argues that students acquire the rules of a

second language in a predetermined sequence which cannot be altered by CF or formal grammar instruction. In the Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1982) maintains that second language acquisition can take place by solely receiving comprehensible input, implying that CF or form-focused instruction is unnecessary for L2 development. “As in the case of writing, research has failed to confirm that error correction has a significant impact on second language acquisition” (Krashen, 1984, p.44). Finally, the Affective Filter Hypothesis asserted that CF may impede L2 acquisition by increasing students’ fear, which causes the affective filter to become activated. Truscott (1996), who refuted the usefulness of WCF for improving writing skills, used this hypothesis as a theoretical basis for his argument that WCF is detrimental for learners as it causes anxiety and negative attitudes towards writing. Overall, a thorough examination of Krashen’s (1982) Monitor Model reveals that he denied the role of CF in “acquisition,” while he did acknowledge that CF may contribute to “learning.”

1.3.2. Recent Perspectives on Error and Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition

The last two decades have seen a great deal of research on CF’s cognitive and sociocultural significance in language learning. “These two lines of research draw upon a wide array of arguments which are influential in terms of their stated and implied inclusion of a role for CF in SLA process” (Chen et al., 2016, p.87). It should be noted that all these recent theories, except form the Sociocultural Theory, are cognitive-based theories. It would be useful to examine recent theoretical perspectives regarding error and CF such as Processability Theory, Skill-Based Theory, the Interaction Hypothesis, and Sociocultural Theory before moving on to the empirical studies.

1.3.2.1. Processability Theory

Pienemann’s (1998) Processability Theory posits that the cognitive ability of a second language learner to perceive and generate language is restricted by a language processor, which leads to a predictable sequence of learning involving distinct stages. To date, the assumptions of this cognitive method have been supported by a large body of empirical research (e.g., Johnston, 1985; Pienemann & Mackey, 1993); thus, the natural developmental order appears to be well-documented and indisputable. However, whether CF or formal education has a role in language acquisition is a point of contention. In

Processability Theory, also known as the Teachability Hypothesis, Pienemann (2007) asserts that neither explicit instruction nor CF can change the natural order. Some studies (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Mackey, 1999) agree with these assumptions, yet they also add that some variables, such as CF, can help learners advance up the hierarchy more rapidly if they are offered in line with the learners' present developmental stage. Following this notion, Bitchener and Ferris (2012) recently argued that WCF must also be at the appropriate developmental level to be beneficial. To prove these claims, Dyson (2010) carried out a study and examined the written development as a result of WCF feedback. "She found that the learners' developmental level did limit the extent to which the feedback could be used and confirmed the hypothesis that learners cannot skip stages" (Polio, 2012, p. 380). In sum, Processability Theory indicates that language development could be accelerated by CF only when it is conducted at the right level.

1.3.2.2. Skill-acquisition Theory

Skill Acquisition Theory is another cognitive approach to SLA. According to this theory, any skill is acquired by the implementation of a set of knowledge; namely, declarative, procedural, and automatic. As Polio (2012) explains, "The first involves knowledge about a skill, the second smooth and rapid execution, and the third, faster execution, with less attention, and fewer errors" (p.381). Since DeKeyser's (2015) Skill Acquisition Theory (hereafter SAT) regards language acquisition as akin to acquiring other skills, learning a language is comprised of these three stages, as well. "It commences with (1) declarative knowledge, which is the knowledge of rules, then develops to (2) procedural knowledge, which is the knowledge of how the rules are used, and through persistent practice, it gradually becomes (3) automatic" (Falhasiri & Hasiri, 2020).

Error correction serves two significant functions in the context of SAT. To begin with, feedback can offer explicit knowledge, guide the learner in focusing on weak points making sure that incorrect information is not proceduralized. Second, CF promotes the transformation of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, as it provides learners with opportunities to practice language (Bitchener, 2012). Wagner and Wulf (2016) explain the effectiveness of WCF, particularly, in boosting writing accuracy in the following way:

> Simply stated, SAT maintains that WCF would be useful whenever it contributes sufficiently to the learner's declarative knowledge of grammatical constructions. The relevant declarative knowledge, in this case, is a conscious grasp of how the grammar works. Armed with this information, learners can then practice the forms by correcting them in subsequent drafts of the same writing sample. This practice acts as a bridge from the declarative knowledge imparted by WCF to procedural knowledge of these same forms. Here, the procedural knowledge is the ability to use the grammar accurately in actual language production, as in academic writing. (Wagner & Wulf, 2016, p.260)

In 2010, Hartshorn et al. studied the efficacy of WCF from the perspective of this theory and concluded that the treatment group outperformed the control group. In a replication study, Evans et al. (2011) found similar results. However, DeKeyser (2007) maintains that further research is required to examine the nature and extent of CF during practice. All in all, it might be concluded from the abovementioned reasons that "Skill-based Theory regards CF as a facilitator in knowledge transformation" (Chen et al., 2016, p.87).

1.3.2.3. Interaction Hypothesis

Long (1996) proposed the Interaction Hypothesis to explain how language is acquired through input, output, and feedback, each happening as the interaction between the learner and the environment proceeds. According to this cognitive-based theory, CF offers negative evidence throughout the interaction process, which is essential for learners to notice their incorrect output. As Long (1996) maintains, "negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts" (p.414). Indeed, it is probably the Interaction Hypothesis, which deals with CF most extensively, among all the theories addressing the role of CF. As learners interact with peers and teachers, they can monitor their output and adjust it accordingly, which enables them to negotiate meaning and form. Researchers (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Sachs & Polio, 2007) have confirmed the effectiveness of CF on language development using the interactional model. Furthermore, the Interaction Theory emphasizes the importance of attention, and as WCF is a common practice for grabbing learners' attention to an error, it is crucial.

1.3.2.4. Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis, underpinned by cognitive psychology, could be opined as the most relevant theory regarding WCF. As described by Schmidt (2010), this theory is "a hypothesis that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered" (p. 721). In other words, an L2 student's level of conscious attention can have a favourable impact on his or her progress in language acquisition. Su and Tian (2016) describe how CF helps learners recognize the mismatch between their existing L2 knowledge and the target language:

> CF can immediately reflect learners' errors to themselves in various ways, which will not only make learners notice the error in their language forms, but also compare their interlanguage with the target language. Thus, they will realize the gap between their interlanguage and the target language and then have a metalanguage reflection. At last, they will master the correct target language form. (Su & Tian, 2016, p.442)

In the present study, the WCF provided by EFL instructors is regarded as the input that is likely to aid the students' learning to write. Since WCF encourages learners to take notice of their writing performance, the Noticing Hypothesis is of utmost importance for this study. Izumi (2002) discovered that when students were provided feedback, they paid greater attention and learned more. Similarly, in a study carried out by Mackey (2006), the teacher's WCF was found to be an important catalyst for students' noticing. All in all, it seems reasonable to believe that noticing through error correction, and WCF in particular, promote L2 acquisition.

1.3.2.5. Sociocultural Theory

All the aforementioned theories that were relevant to error and CF had their roots in cognitive psychology. These theories have been influential on L2 practitioners' views of SLA. As an alternative to behaviourism, which equates learning with habit formation resulting from a chain of stimulus-response, the cognitive model underlines the importance of rule learning through complex mental processes in which errors are seen as vital for L2 development (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Although several studies conducted from the perspective of cognitive theory demonstrate the benefits of WCF, their results are confined to certain basic rule-based aspects of language, and the generalizability of these findings needs to be tested via further research. In response to

the cognitive perspectives of SLA, Vygotsky (1978) postulated that learning is a social practice. Broadly speaking, in his Socio-cultural Theory (henceforth SCT), Vygotsky (1978) accommodates the view that language learning takes place through interactions with "more knowledgeable others" (p. 86) who are more skilled in language. This approach differs from the cognitive perspective in that it views language learning as a social practice rather than an individual activity. The collaboration and interaction between learners and more competent peers or teachers are essential for L2 learning, according to this notion. This hypothesis revolves around the concept Zone of Proximal Development (henceforth ZPD), which refers to "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86). Typically, this support and guidance take the form of collaborative scaffolding (Wood et al., 1976).

Within the SCT framework, it is possible to see how WCF provides such scaffolding for the development of the writing abilities of L2 learners. Instructors may utilize WCF to offer scaffolding for assisting learners to comprehend language structures, syntax, and other complicated writing skills. Such feedback must correspond with the learners' ZPD in order to advance the learner toward deeper knowledge and autonomy. For feedback to be within their ZPD, it must be customized to meet their needs. The SCT recommends instructors provide highly implicit feedback in the beginning and move to increasingly explicit feedback if the learner is unable to self-correct. The success of such regulated feedback is proven by several studies adhering to the SCT (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji & Swain, 2000). However, these results should be approached with caution as these studies are limited by the lack of pre-post-test designs, as well as their small sample size. In another study conducted by Storch and Wigglesworth (2010), the researchers found that the efficacy of CF was affected by both the type of errors and the proficiency of the learners. They also suggested that WCF research usually overlooked learners' attitudes, beliefs, or goals although these factors have a vital function in determining whether learners are able to benefit from CF. Therefore, the present study is significant in terms of concentrating on individual differences. In conclusion, the socio-cultural perspective considers WCF to be an important factor in helping learners develop L2 writing skills.

The preceding section reviewed the key theoretical perspectives that inform WCF research. Apparently, the notions of CF and error are viewed differently by theoreticians. Unlike early theoretical stances such as CA, EA, and the Monitor Model which do not appear to acknowledge the value of CF, more recent perspectives including cognitive or sociocultural models argue that CF can contribute to L2 learning to a certain degree. As Dudley (2011) posits, "The best theories are those that have been substantiated or validated in the real world by research studies" (p. 6); thus, a link between theory and practice is essential in L2 writing since theory provides methods to improve writing, while practice leads theory into further growth by posing questions (Zhao, 2010). The subsequent section of this chapter presents the main construct of this research, WCF, and the prior empirical studies that discuss the usefulness of WCF in L2 writing.

1.4. Written Corrective Feedback

More than three decades ago, Touchie (1986) pointed out that "language learning, like any kind of human learning, involves committing errors" (p.75). The advent of the learner-oriented process approaches to writing instruction in the 1970s underlined the treatment of these errors. Hendrickson (1978) noted that most student writers were not competent enough to rectify their own mistakes; therefore, a more knowledgeable person was needed to provide WCF. Truscott (1996) defines the term WCF as "correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" (p.329). However, this definition is quite restrictive, as L2 writing teachers frequently provide feedback on content, organization, and style, along with vocabulary and form, as well. Truscott's (1996) definition is expanded by Ferris (2003) who notes that WCF also addresses other errors "including word choice, word form, and collocation, and mechanical errors such as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and typing conventions" (p.42). The present study applies Ferris' (2003) definition of WCF, which is more comprehensive and realistic.

WCF can be planned and used in a number of aspects. According to Biber et al. (2011), Ellis (2009), and Liu and Brown (2015), feedback source (teacher, peer, self), type (direct, indirect, metalinguistic), focus (grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, organization, content), and scope (focused, unfocused) are among the various components that all play varying roles in WCF provision. There has been a great deal of progress in our understanding of that ubiquitous but controversial practice since Truscott

published his provocative article entitled “The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes” in 1996. The debate which was triggered by Trusott (1996) has taken many forms, “such as research articles, meta-analyses, scholarly syntheses of the argument on the topic, and responses / rebuttals to other authors’ research and/or arguments” (Ferris et al., 2013, p.1). This section aims to briefly review the most often cited previous studies that try to answer the question of whether WCF leads to L2 development from both a cognitive and, more recently, a social perspective.

1.4.1. Early Studies on WCF

Although we now have reams of data vis-à-vis WCF thanks to Truscott’s (1996) landmark study, a considerable amount of research has already been conducted on this controversial issue as early as the 1980s (e.g., Cardelle & Conro, 1981; Lalande, 1982; Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985). There was a period of dormancy in the second half of the 1980s during which fewer studies were carried out due to the proliferation of the communicative language teaching methodologies, that stressed meaning over form. Truscott’s (1996) seminal work, which argues that error correction has negative effects on the accuracy of students’ writing and should be quitted, revitalized the WCF research. Although Ferris (2002) acknowledges some of Truscott’s arguments, she contends that teachers should continue to provide error correction because numerous studies indicate that such practices benefit students in the short run, and that students have positive attitudes towards WCF which encourages learners to become “independent self-editors” (Ferris, 2002, p. 9).

A great majority of the initial research pertaining to WCF (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986) was about whether it improved the accuracy of student writing. Another side of the issue that was investigated by the early studies with somewhat contradictory results was about the differential effect of various types of WC on written accuracy. Several criticisms have been levelled against these early studies that were mostly published between the years 1980 and 2003. There were two main reasons for these concerns: “poor research design and lack of comparability between the studies” (Storch, 2010, p.32). In terms of design flows, the most significant problem was about the lack of a control group in most of these early studies (e.g., Fazio, 2001; Kepner, 1991; Lalande, 1982; Robb et al., 1986). Another drawback regarding the research methodology was that most of these studies (e.g.,

Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986) evaluated the improvement in the accuracy of students by only analysing the revised texts rather than the new pieces of writing. The ability to revise a text does not necessary mean that this is real learning. Secondly, it is rather difficult to compare early studies because they vary so much in so many crucial aspects, according to Ferris (2004) and Guénette (2007). These parameters include: populations, treatment, and grammatical accuracy measures (Storch, 2010, pp.33-34).

However, by referring to the studies conducted by Ashwell (2000), Chandler (2003), and Robb et al. (1986), Storch (2010) states that "in the rush to criticize and dismiss the early studies, researchers seem to have ignored some of their strengths: most were conducted in real classrooms" (p.43). Moreover, some of them (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Semke, 1984) demonstrated learners' attitudes towards WCF.

Table 1.
Summary of the most cited early research on WCF

Study	*Improved accuracy?*	*But….Qualifying notes*
Ashwell (2000)	Yes	Investigated only revised texts.
Chandler (2003)	Yes	
Fathman & Whalley (1990)	Yes	Investigated only revised texts.
Fazio (2001)	No	
Ferris & Roberts (2001)	Yes	Investigated only revised texts
Kepner (1991)	No	
Lalande (1982)	Yes	Improvement not statistically significant
Polio et al. (1998)	No	
Robb et al. (1986)	No	Investigated only revised texts
Semke (1984)	No	
Sheppard (1992)	Yes	Improvement on one measure (use of verbs) but not on another measure (sentence boundaries) Group which received content feedback outperformed group which received WCF

Note. From "Critical feedback on written corrective feedback research," by N. Storch, 2010, International Journal of English Studies, 10(2), 29., p.31 (https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2010/2/119181)

Table 1 shows the results of the most prominent early studies on WCF. The majority of these research, which seek to investigate the efficacy of WCF, found that WCF improves grammatical correctness; however, the results should be interpreted with caution because half of these studies (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) evaluated students' revised texts. On the other hand, research into the effects of various types of WCF has yielded conflicting results. Lalande (1982) found that indirect WCF led to significantly greater progress than direct WCF, but Chandler (2003) reported that those who received direct WCF made significantly more progress than those who were treated with indirect WCF. In sum, it seems reasonable to believe that despite the fact that a unanimous answer to the question whether WCF improves accuracy has not been given yet, there is growing evidence that it can help learners improve their linguistic accuracy of student writers.

1.4.2. Recent Studies on WCF

There has been a proliferation of studies published on WCF over the last two decades since Truscott (1996) proposed the abandonment of grammar correction in second language writing. These current studies, like the earlier ones, are concerned with two issues: whether WCF leads to an increase in accuracy, and whether a certain feedback type is more effective than the other. In her study entitled "Critical Feedback on Written Corrective Feedback Research", Storch (2010) reviewed some pivotal recent studies on WCF that were published from 2005 onwards to scrutinize whether these studies successfully addressed the shortcomings of the earlier research. She explained her inclusion criteria of these 12 studies by asserting that "they seemed representative of the research direction in the field" (Storch, 2010, p.34).

Table 2.
Findings of the Recent Studies on WCF

Study	*Does accuracy improve?*	*Does type of WCF make a difference?*
Bitchener (2008)	Yes: Immediate & delayed tests	Yes: Direct WCF+ written & oral explanations (mini lesson) or Direct only superior to direct + written explanations
Bitchener & Knoch (2008)	Yes: Immediate & delayed tests	No effect for type of direct WCF
Bitchener & Knoch (2009a)	Yes: Immediate & delayed tests	No effect for type of direct WCF
Bitchener & Knoch (2009b)	Yes: Immediate & delayed tests	No effect for type of direct WCF
Bitchener et al. (2005)	Yes: Immediate & delayed tests But: only on 2 of the 3 focused structures	Yes: Direct WCF+ individual conference most effective (but only on past T & articles).
Ellis et al. (2008)	No: Immediate post test Yes: delayed post test	No difference (focused vs. unfocused)
Hartshorn et al. (2010)	Yes: treatment group on post test (new writing)	Yes: dynamic WCF (= sustained, frequent) better than traditional error correction
Sheen (2007)	Yes: immediate & delayed tests	Yes: Direct+ written explanation better than direct only
Sheen et al. (2009)	Yes: immediate test Yes: delayed post test but only for focused WCF	No differences (focused vs. unfocused) on immediate test On delayed test only focused WCF led to gains
Storch (2009)	Yes: immediate & delayed post tests	Mixed findings depending on task type/length (direct vs. indirect)
Truscott & Hsu (2008)	Yes: revised text No: new texts	Not investigated
Van Beuningen, et al. (2008)	Yes: revised texts Yes on delayed post tests but only for direct feedback	Yes on revised version (direct best) Yes on new texts – but only direct

Note: From "Critical feedback on written corrective feedback research," by N. Storch, 2010, International Journal of English Studies, 10(2), 29., p.39 (https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2010/2/119181)

As shown in Table 2, those recent studies aimed at investigating the efficacy of WCF and the differential effects of various WCF types. For the purpose of addressing the design issues of the early studies, all of these recent studies (except from Hartshorn et. al., 2010) had a control group, and they all used new pieces of writing rather than revised

texts. In terms of comparability issues, Storch (2010) investigated some key aspects such as population and feedback strategies. Although most of the recent studies selected intermediate, adult ESL learners as their samples, the term 'intermediate' is not clearly defined in these studies, which means that the population of these studies vary somewhat. The feedback treatment strategies were also diverse. 9 out of these 12 studies used direct feedback and on certain errors. In Bitchener's (2008), and Sheen's (2007) studies WCF was given on English articles. It is possible to say that the treatment in most of the extant research was uniform as they utilized a one-shot treatment. Storch (2010) concludes that "in terms of comparability, the studies still vary somewhat on all the key parameters, but there is a noticeable trend towards greater uniformity in research design" (p. 38).

Regarding the results of the recent studies on WCF, Meng (2013) states that "with improved research design, this body of work has consistently shown that written CF can facilitate the acquisition of the targeted feature" (p. 80), which is also apparent in Table 2. Chong (2019) conducted a systematic review about WCF research and revealed that "findings from these quasi-experimental studies were able to demonstrate, through the inclusion of a pretest, posttest, and sometimes a delayed posttest, that direct and focused WCF exerts a positive influence on students' linguistic accuracy of word-level grammatical features" (p.71). The results of the studies shown in Table 2 also suggest that students in the treatment groups outperformed the students in the control groups.

Unlike the first question that was targeting the efficacy of WCF, the second question whether the type of WCF matters led to inconsistent results. In Storch's (2009) study, which was conducted with advanced ESL learners, the analysis of short texts with around 200-word- length demonstrated that direct WCF was more efficient in reducing errors; however, for long essays, indirect WCF was found to be more effective than direct WCF. In their study, Van Beuningen et al. (2008) found that both direct and indirect feedback improved the accuracy in revised texts, but that only direct feedback was effective in new texts.

"Although the current studies are better designed and have yielded some promising results for language teachers (and students) in terms of the efficacy of WCF, there are still a number of lingering concerns" as Storch (2009) argues (p.41). Recent research is mostly criticized for having relatively a narrow focus; especially in the ones that support WCF, only a limited number of linguistic structures are examined namely

articles (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009), past tense, and prepositions (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005). The evidence from only such a small number of structures, and only in ESL contexts, does not permit us to draw conclusions about WCF's effectiveness. Therefore, more robust research which will be carried out both in ESL and EFL settings and examine a wider range of error types is needed. Another flow in the existing WCF research is that recent studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Sheen, 2007; Storch, 2009; Van Beuningen, et al., 2008), were either experimental or quasi-experimental studies which were made in controlled environments rather than natural classroom settings and used one-shot treatment designs, which makes it difficult to measure the effects of WCF in the long-run. To call for more longitudinal research in the field, Karim and Nassaji (2019) argued that "although such studies are insightful, they cannot provide evidence for how feedback affects L2 development over time" (p.46). In addition, the impact of WCF may be influenced by a variety of learner characteristics, including attitudes, preferences, motivation, and learning styles, as well as their interconnections, yet current research appears to overlook the interrelationships between these variables. Thus, this study is valuable in terms of reflecting EFL context and contributing to the existing research as it investigates two learner variables (personality and preference) and their relationship vis-à-vis WCF in a Turkish EFL setting. "Another avenue for future research is to conduct studies that focus not only on language accuracy but also on the overall quality of writing" (Karim & Nassaji, 2019, p.46). To be a skillful writer, one must not only master linguistic rules and structures but also know how to construct unified, coherent and well-organized texts.

The present research does not seek to examine successful WCF methods; however, the preceding papers were examined to highlight how empirical evidence in favour of WCF can help shape L2 students' WCF preferences. Overall, recent research on the efficacy of WCF in L2 writing, which seems to be methodologically sounder than the earlier studies, has some ecological validity issues. Although many of the shortcomings of earlier research have been largely addressed, recent experimental and quasi-experimental studies are not free from limitations as they "tend to employ 'one off' treatments, often provided on a very restricted range of errors, and ignore the learners' goals and attitudes to the feedback provided and to improvement in accuracy" (Storch, 2010, p.29). The results obtained by an overwhelming majority of these recent studies

(e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Sheen, 2007; Shintani & Ellis, 2013) tend to prove the efficacy of WCF, yet research findings are still inconclusive regarding the differential effects of WCF strategies on the accuracy of student writing. As Wagner and Wulf (2016) states, "although WCF is a widely used pedagogical practice, its status among those researching its use remains controversial, with views ranging from strong support to total rejection" (p.260). Therefore, the subsequent part of the present study is to scrutinize the ongoing debate over the effectiveness of WCF with a more detailed review of the studies that reflect the perspectives of researchers in this domain.

1.4.3. The Debate over the Effectiveness of WCF

WCF is a ubiquitous practice adopted by writing instructors for rectifying errors in students' write-ups. An Evans et al. (2010) study, which aimed to determine the extent to which current teachers of L2 composition provide WCF, examined 1053 ESL teachers who were native English speakers and had significant college teaching experience. The results of the study showed that 92% of teachers extensively use WCF in L2 writing classrooms. Despite its popularity, there is still no consensus among practitioners and researchers on the role of WCF practices in facilitating L2 development. "Writing instructors and researchers appear to have a love-hate relationship with the issue of teacher feedback on student writing" (Ferris, 2003, p.19). Truscott, who adheres to Krashen's (1985) theoretical views regarding error correction, published his seminal article in 1996 to call for the complete abandonment of WCF practices as they do more harm than good and initiated the vigorous debate over its efficacy. Since then, a large body of literature has accumulated on the effectiveness of WCF, either affirming or refuting Truscott's (1996) claims. Before delving into detail about the current study, it's important to understand the nature of this long-standing WCF argument.

1.4.3.1. Views Against WCF

The last two decades have witnessed a growing interest in the effectiveness of WCF about which there has been an ongoing controversy since Truscott (1996) ignited the fire by his seminal article entitled "The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes". In this article that is credited (citation = 2861) by almost every single study investigating the effect of error correction on L2 writing development, Truscott

(1996) argued that grammar correction should be eliminated from writing courses by underlining the futility of the practice. He believed that grammar correction, which he defines as "correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" is not only ineffective but also harmful for student writing (p. 329). Truscott (1996) based this stance on several grounds including theoretical reasons, the findings of empirical research conducted in both L1 (e.g., Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981) and L2 contexts (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992), and practical problems. The following are his main arguments:

From a theoretical viewpoint, "he argued that error correction, as it is typically practiced, overlooks SLA insights about the gradual and complex process of acquiring the forms and structures of a second language" (Bitchener et al., 2005). Truscott (1996) deems error correction as a simple way of transferring information from the teacher to the students which does not lead to L2 development. Bitchener and Knoch (2009b) oppose this view by arguing that "learners who notice the difference between target-like input (be it oral or WCF) and their non target-like output are able to modify it as target-like output" (p. 194). In addition, recent studies pertaining to the role played by WCF in eliminating students' errors (e.g., Bitchener et al. 2005; Sheen 2007; Bitchener 2008; Bitchener and Knoch 2008, 2009b) found that learners reap the benefits of receiving feedback when they write new texts; however, more longitudinal studies are needed to see the long-term effects of WCF. Another argument that is suggested by Truscott (1996) is about the scope of WCF; namely, focused feedback which refers to providing feedback on only certain error types in students' writings, or unfocused feedback which has a more comprehensive nature and involves responding to all errors. Truscott (1996) rejects both types of feedback, believing that neither practice is effective. He claims that unfocused feedback is of no value in improving accuracy in new written work over time. However, "a comprehensive approach in written error correction might steer the awareness of the learner not only towards errors in the writing, but also to unprecedented aspects of the target language herewith enhancing more dynamic language learning" (Abdelrahman, 2016, p.40). On the other hand, he bases his denial of focused feedback on only one study (Hendrickson, 1981); thus, more evidence is needed to make such a claim. Truscott's (1996) last theoretical criticism of WCF is that grammar correction merely leads to pseudo-learning, as WCF is "typically done in terms of isolated points and without reference either to the processes by which the linguistic system develops or to the

learner's current developmental stage" (p. 347). According to Lim and Renandya (2020), "this corresponds with Krashen's (1982) Natural Order Hypothesis, which postulates that learners acquire different grammatical structures in a somewhat predefined sequence and not in the order determined by the teacher or the syllabus" (p.3). However, as Bitchener and Knoch (2009b) states "if teachers take into account a learner's current stage of development when determining their areas of focus, the potential would always exist for it to be effective" (p.195).

In addition to offering theoretical arguments to imply that WCF has no value in improving the accuracy of students' writing, Truscott (1996) argued that an array of studies (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992) provided evidence for the rejection of WCF. These studies, all of which investigated the effects of form-focused and content-based written error correction, suggested that form-oriented feedback (grammar correction) has no significant impact on adult learners' writing accuracy. Nevertheless, such findings must be interpreted cautiously due to the design flows of these empirical studies.

In Kepner's (1991) experimental research, 60 Spanish freshman and sophomore students who study at a college in America were divided into two treatment groups. This was a longitudinal study since eight journal entries were written throughout an entire semester. This study was carried out in real classroom settings; thus, it has ecological validity. One group received sentence-level (surface) error corrections, whereas the other received message-related comments. "In terms of grammatical accuracy, Kepner (1991) found a negligible difference between the group who received surface error corrections and the group who received message-related comments on their journal entries" (Peleg, 2011, p.34). However, Kepner's (1991) study suffers from some research design and validity issues. For one thing, participants were not required to revise their texts. Second, there was no control group and a pre-test measure of errors.

Robb et al. (1986) divided 134 Japanese EFL learners into four different treatment groups that were treated with progressively less explicit WCF. The results of this study revealed that there were no significant differences among treatment groups in terms of written accuracy. This nine-month-long study culminated in more convincing results as students were required to write more than one draft, which paved the way to

investigate whether WCF led to accuracy in revised texts. However, their study also lacked a control group.

Finding similar results to those from the above-mentioned studies, Semke (1984) studied 141 German EFL students by dividing them into four treatment groups: comments only, direct feedback, direct feedback with comments, and indirect feedback. Semke's (1984) study adopted a pre-test/post-test design and suggested that there were no significant differences among the four groups. The researcher also stated that WCF has a detrimental impact on students' attitudes. Since Semke's (1984) study design lacked a control group, the data cannot reveal the statistical differences between a control group without feedback and treatment groups with feedback. In addition, the study was conducted among novice-level EFL learners. Therefore, it is difficult to conclude that WCF has a negative effect on students' writing. Han (2019) criticizes Semke's (1984) study for not having a control group and argues that "the data cannot reveal the statistical differences between a control group without feedback and treatment groups with feedback" (p.29).

Another research that revealed the futility of form-focused feedback was carried out by Sheppard (1992). 26 upper-intermediate ESL students participated in the study and were divided into two groups. One group received coded feedback, while the other group received feedback on content. The results of this study revealed that content-based feedback was more effective than form-focused feedback in terms of increasing writing accuracy, but Sheppard's (1992) study was not free from limitations such as small sample size and methodological shortcomings.

Overall, the abovementioned studies (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992), all of which are referred by Truscott (1996) as evidence against WCF, revealed that error correction has no significant impact on improving the accuracy of student writing. These studies were restricted in scope, covered diverse populations, and employed different methodologies. As a result, no definitive conclusions can be drawn.

Some other studies paint a dark picture of WCF as an effective tool to improve students' writing accuracy, as well. For instance, Storch (2010) conducted a review study to examine 11 studies about the efficacy of WCF and stated that there isn't enough proof

to back up WCF's efficacy. Truscott (2007) also reviewed 12 empirical research on WCF and suggested that "the best estimate is that error correction has a small harmful effect on L2 learners' ability to write accurately" (p. 270). Truscott continued to argue his position forcefully in a series of articles (e.g., Truscott, 1999, 2004, 2007, 2009; Truscott & Hsu, 2008), to respond to the rebuttals of his views. Although he advocates abandoning error correction, "Truscott (1999) suggested that grammar correction is, in general, a bad idea until future research demonstrates that there are specific cases in which it might not be a totally misguided practice" (Bitchener et al., 2005). By the same token, although Truscott (1996) agrees that learners value teachers' responses to their errors, he maintains "that does not mean that teachers should give it to them" (p. 359)

Truscott (1996) further outlines a variety of practical concerns regarding the use of grammar correction in the writing classroom, in addition to the theoretical objections and empirical evidence proving the ineffectiveness of WCF. Spending a great deal of time and energy on grammar feedback causes teachers and students to lose concentration on other important aspects of writing, such as organization and content. Moreover, Truscott (1996) believes that grammar correction is unlikely to be successful in practice since it necessitates the fulfilment of several additional prerequisites. For example, the instructors must be able to spot errors and clearly explain them to the students. No matter how good they are at identifying and explaining errors, they may not have the time or willingness to provide high-quality corrections. Students may not understand the teacher's corrections, either.

While Truscott (1996) states that WCF is not beneficial in reducing students' errors, he takes this claim further and argues that it is harmful to learners L2 development. He argues that students may feel discouraged and experience a great deal of worry due to the inevitable discomfort of error correction which leads to anxiety. Truscott (1996) maintains that "learning is most successful when it involves only a limited amount of stress, when students are relaxed and confident and enjoying their learning; but the use of correction encourages exactly the opposite condition" (p.354). Truscott's allegations have since triggered a considerable amount of fierce debate among L2 writing researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1998; Ferris, 1999; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).

1.4.3.2. Views Which Support WCF

Due to the apparent importance of error correction and the amount of attention it receives from both teachers and learners, it would make sense to ask whether WCF is effective and appropriate, and if so, which feedback strategy is the best one. The heated debate about whether or not WCF has a positive impact on writing quality was initiated by Truscott (1996), who argued firmly that error correction has no positive impact on writing accuracy and is even harmful because it increases student writers' anxiety and causes teachers to neglect other, more important issues by focusing only on grammar. In response to the complete rejection and call for the abolition of WCF in L2 writing classrooms by Truscott (1996), Ferris (1999), the primary opponent of Truscott's (1996) arguments, published an article to evaluate Truscott's (1996) claims. In her study entitled "The Case for Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes: A Response to Truscott (1996)", Ferris (1999) stated that Truscott's (1996) arguments were "premature and overly strong" (p.2). Truscott's (1996) arguments, according to Ferris (1999), has two major flaws: "The problem of definition and the problem of support" (p.3). First, Truscott (1996) merely gives a hazy definition of grammar correction and maintains that "correction comes in many different forms, but for present purposes such distinctions have little significance" (p. 329). As a vigorous advocate of WCF, Ferris (1999) responds to this claim by stating that "there are more and less effective ways to approach error correction in L2 writing" (p.4), and that error correction can help at least some student writers if it is "selective, prioritized, and clear" (p. 4). Second, the evidence Truscott (1996) offered in support of his thesis, according to Ferris (1999), was not always thorough and was too narrow to justify his strong viewpoint. In this regard, Ferris (1999) maintains that "based on limited, dated, incomplete, and inconclusive evidence, he argues for eliminating a pedagogical practice that is not only highly valued by students, but on which many thoughtful teachers spend a great deal of time and mental energy" (p.9). To put it more explicitly, as an avid critic of Truscott's (1996) claims against WCF, Ferris (1999) contends that the studies on which Truscott (1996) founded his position have three major limitations: "(a) The subjects in the various studies are not comparable; (b) The research paradigms and teaching strategies vary widely across the studies; and (c) Truscott overstates negative evidence while disregarding research results that contradict his thesis" (p.4). Ferris (1999), while criticizing Truscott's claims regarding the ineffectiveness of error correction, conceded that Truscott had made several compelling

points concerning the theoretical issues and practical problems with providing CF, which leaves ample room for further investigation.

The call made by Ferris (2004) for more robust studies on the benefits of WCF has resulted in an increasing number of published research. Most of them were experimental and quasi-experimental studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007), which demonstrated that WCF improves writing accuracy among ESL students, yet some of the earlier studies (e.g., Chandler, 2000; Ferris, 1995, 1997, 2006; Lalande, 1982) lacked a control group, making it impossible to verify if the stated increases in accuracy were due to WCF. According to Ferris (2004), the reason this critical design problem has been ignored in most previous studies is the ethical concerns of not giving CF to certain students while offering it to others.

The results of a number of studies with control groups (e.g., Ashwell 2000; Bitchener 2008; Bitchener & Knoch 2008; Fathman & Whalley 1990; Ferris and Roberts 2001; Sheen 2007) show that WCF improves writing accuracy. For instance, Ashwell (2000) carried out a study in Japan to see if the content-then-form feedback sequence was the best approach for enhancing students' writing. The subjects were 50 first-year university students in a multiple-draft writing class that were assigned to one of the four different groups. The findings revealed that the suggested feedback sequence was not more effective than the other two feedback patterns and that the three feedback groups outperformed the non-feedback control group.

The design of Ashwell's (2000) research was based on a study that was carried out by Fathman and Whalley in 1990. 72 ESL college students were assigned to one of the four groups in Fathman and Whalley's (1990) study. The results revealed that the students in the form, content, and content and form feedback groups all outperformed the students in the non-feedback group. Similarly, Ferris and Roberts (2001) conducted a study which found that ESL college students who got indirect CF wrote significantly better rewritten texts than those who did not receive feedback. After looking at the findings from these three studies, it is possible to state that "by now, a consensus regarding the short-term effectiveness of CF is apparently established" (Meng, 2013, p.78). However, it should be kept in mind that all these studies show the short-term gains of WCF as they examined the revised texts of students' writing.

Other researchers have attempted to answer the question of whether the short-term impact may be extended to new writings and foster long-term acquisition of grammar by students. In a review of studies that have been published since Truscott's (1996) thought-provoking article, Meng (2013) found that 10 out of 11 studies revealed that error correction leads to accuracy in new pieces of writing. Van Beuningen et al.'s (2012) study, which used a genuine experimental design and a large sample size, showed solid evidence of the effectiveness of written CF. Another study that addressed the design flows of previous studies and sought to measure accuracy gain on new pieces of writing is conducted by Bitchener (2008) in New Zealand. 75 low intermediate ESL students participated in the study, which focused on two functional uses of the English article system used a pre-test/post-test design. Results revealed that WCF fostered the accuracy of the participants' writing and this improvement was retained for two months. Similarly, Bitchener and Knoch (2008) investigated the effectiveness of several forms of written CF on the development of accuracy in the use of English articles in another research. The study's participants, 144 low-intermediate ESL learners, were separated into four groups. The results reveal that, as compared to the control group, all three treatment groups improved considerably between the pre-test and the post-test.

It should be emphasized that the majority of the empirical investigations discussed above are confined to the influence of WCF on two specific linguistic traits (English articles 'a' and 'the'). As a result, the conclusions gained from the investigations have limited coverage. These studies do suggest that targeted written corrections can contribute to improving the linguistic accuracy of learners' writing, even with these caveats. In sum, the debates about the value of WCF in helping L2 students improve their writing and eliminate their errors, which began with Truscott (1996) and were refuted by Ferris (1999, 2004, 2006), have been more recently addressed by Bitchener (2008) and other researchers (e.g., Chandler, 2004, 2009; Ellis et al., 2008). Taking all the above-mentioned empirical evidence into consideration, and despite Truscott's (1996) adamant rejection of error correction and his ongoing heated debates with opposing scholars (e.g., Bruton, 2009; Ferris, 2010), there is mounting evidence that WCF increases overall student accuracy. However, due to the methodological flaws of earlier studies and ecological validity issues of recent research, it can be deduced that the topic of the efficacy of written error correction is open to further inquiry. In addition, in most WCF

research, learners' individual characteristics were not given enough consideration, which makes the present study valuable in terms of filling this gap in the literature.

1.4.4. Types of WCF Strategies

Based on the assumption that WCF improves learners' ability to write accurately and has critical value in language acquisition, several studies have turned their focus to the question of which specific type of WCF is the most effective in terms of reducing student errors. "Feedback type refers to the specific strategies used to address learners' written errors" (Bonilla López, 2021, p.5). By using both the most prevalent CF practices in writing classes and previous research, Ellis (2009) developed a typology that classifies WCF into six categories: direct, indirect, metalinguistic, focused/unfocused, electronic, and reformulation. Ellis (2009) emphasizes the significance of his classification by asserting that it is not only valuable for the design of experimental studies; it can also assist descriptive research. This research examines such issues as how teachers carry out CF and how students respond to corrections. Although the present study is guided by Ellis' (2009) typology, the three main types of WCF, namely, direct, indirect, and metalinguistic are the main focus of this research since the remaining two feedback strategies are rarely used in L2 writing classes. In the following sections, these three broad types will be explained in more detail along with the empirical research pertaining to them.

1.4.4.1. Direct WCF

As well as being the most commonly researched type of written error correction, direct WCF is also by far the most popular strategy among educators and students. Bitchener and Knoch (2008) describes direct WCF as "the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure by the teacher to the student above or near the linguistic error" (p.411). Learners who are provided with direct WCF receive explicit corrections to their written errors. This type of feedback "may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme," as well (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, p.411). The following figure illustrates a student text corrected by using direct written CF (Ferris, 2008, p.102).

Has at least lives

"Everyone ~~have~~ been a liar^ once in their ~~life~~. People who lie intentionally to harm

,

others are bad people^ and their lies are harmful too. However, there are lies that are

told

~~done~~ with good intentions".

Figure 2. Sample of Student Writing Corrected by Using Direct WCF

Note: From Feedback: Issues and options., (p.102) by D.R. Ferris, 2008, In P. Friedrich (Ed.), Teaching academic writing. (pp. 93-124), Continuum Press.

There are some other forms of direct feedback.

> Additional forms of direct feedback may include written meta-linguistic explanation (the provision of grammar rules and examples at the end of a student's script with a reference back to places in the text where the error has occurred) and/or oral meta-linguistic explanation (a mini-lesson where the rules and examples are presented, practiced, and discussed; one-on-one individual conferences between teacher and student or conferences between teacher and small groups of students). (Bitchener, 2008, p.105)

Direct WCF supporters (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Chen, 2012) contend that this type of feedback strategy is time-saving for learners, and it streamlines immediate gains. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) articulates that direct WCF has some benefits in terms of "reducing confusion" and "resolving complex errors" (pp. 209-210). In a similar vein, Wagner and Wulf (2016) state that "as linguistic complexity increases, the "directness" of WCF should also increase, though this hypothesis must be tested" (p.273). Students with low proficiency levels, who cannot rectify their errors themselves, are probably better served by direct CF than indirect error correction because they do not have to process it. Furthermore, it makes sense that more complex errors are better suited to this kind of CF. However, by referring to direct WCF, Ellis (2009) noted that "a disadvantage is that it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner and thus, although it might help them to produce the correct form when they revise their writing, it may not contribute to long-term learning" (p.99).

Research on the relative merits of different WCF strategies has largely focused on comparing direct and indirect strategies. Direct WCF, in which teachers indicate the exact location of errors, was proven to have a greater long-term impact than indirect feedback by a number of studies (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Chen, 2012). In Chandler's (2003) study, which investigated 500 ESL college students in the USA, the results revealed that direct correction worked best for producing accurate revised texts, and students and teachers favoured it since it is the quickest and easiest method to use. Van Beuningen et al.'s (2008) study aimed to find out which feedback type was more effective in reducing the errors in students' written output. The subjects were 62 secondary school students in Holland. The findings of the study revealed that both direct and indirect CF led to short-term gains, but only direct feedback produced a significant effect in the long run.

A number of SLA research on written feedback (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007) also indicated that direct feedback is more preferable, particularly for some targeted features, whereas some researchers in L2 writing emphasized that indirect feedback is critical for motivating student writers to participate in assisted problem-solving and take greater responsibility for their own learning (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Ferris, 2002, 2003, 2006). Furthermore, some other research on the differential effects of direct and indirect written error correction found no difference in revised written products (e.g., Ferris, 2006) and in new texts (e.g., Robb et al., 1986; Semke, 1984; Vyatkina, 2010). The findings of the research described above should be treated with care as "they vary enormously in at least four ways: how these two types of feedback were operationalized, whether the feedback was focused or unfocused, the nature of the writing tasks investigated, and the kinds of learners they investigated" (Shintani et al., 2013, p.105).

In addition to comparing direct versus indirect techniques, several other studies (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2007) have looked at the relative efficacy of different combinations of direct feedback. In Bitchener et al.'s (2005) longitudinal study of 53 migrant students in New Zealand, there were two treatment groups (direct feedback with oral metalinguistic explanations and direct feedback only) and one control group which did not receive any form of feedback. The researchers found that learners in the first group outperformed the others, which means that direct WCF plus oral metalinguistic explanations increased the accuracy of students' writings. Supporting

the results of Bitchener et al.'s (2005) study, Sheen (2007) also found that of the 91intermediate ESL students, the ones in the treatment group that were given direct WCF with oral metalinguistic explanations performed better that the ones in the direct-only group. To sum up, while great agreement has been achieved on the usefulness of WCF in improving the correctness and quality of student writings, the most successful type of WCF has yet to be determined.

1.4.4.2. Indirect WCF

Unlike direct correction, which involves providing overt corrections, removing unnecessary items, or adding missing words, in providing indirect WCF, as Ferris et al. (2013) states "the error is called to the writer's attention, but the correct form is not given" (p. 309). Indirect feedback may take the form of underlining, circling, highlighting omissions, or placing a cross in the margin next to the line where the error occurred (Ellis, 2009, p.99). The following figure displays an example of a student's original writing that was corrected indirectly:

"Everyone have been a liar once in their life. People who lie intentionally to harm others are bad People and their lies are harmful too. However, there are lies that are done with good intentions."

Figure 3. Sample of Student Writing Corrected by Using Indirect WCF

Note: From Feedback: Issues and options., (p.103) by D.R. Ferris, 2008, In P. Friedrich (Ed.), Teaching academic writing. (pp. 93-124), Continuum Press.

As seen in the figure above, in indirect WCF, the instructor calls attention to inaccurate forms rather than rectifying them, forcing learners to treat their errors themselves. According to the theories and research that favour indirect written error correction, this type of feedback has various advantages over direct feedback in that it engages "cognitive problem-solving skills" (Ferris, 2004, p. 60), helps students to reflect on language forms, and ultimately leads to long-term improvement in writing skills. Indirect or implicit WCF is also in line with the Noticing Hypothesis since it focuses students' attention to the gap in their current knowledge and encourages them to fill it (Schmidt, 1990). Pawlak (2014) stresses another advantage of indirect feedback by stating that it is output-inducing, which means that it encourages L2 writing students to generate the accurate form. Another primary benefit of indirect feedback is that it builds

up a learner-centred approach to teaching writing skills, where learners are active participants and teachers are merely guides and facilitators (Tudor, 1993). In addition, Ferris (2002) cites the dangers of direct feedback, claiming that teachers may misinterpret learners' texts and make inadequate corrections as a consequence. Nonetheless, she also admits that novice writers who are unable to correct their own mistakes need direct feedback.

While indirect feedback enjoys theoretical support, L2 writing students find it less appealing than direct feedback (Pawlak, 2014). "This could be because indirect feedback, due to its implicitness, may not provide sufficient information regarding what needs changing and how, resulting in confusion and frustration" (Falhasiri & Hasiri, 2020, p.26). Chandler (2003) also stated that delayed access to the right form might dismiss the positive effects of indirect CF. An overwhelming majority of the studies that investigated the students' preferences regarding the types WCF (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Diab, 2005; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcok & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lee, 2004; Radecki & Swales, 1988) found that they preferred direct CF. Such a result is also predicted in the setting of the current study in which the teacher-centred approach to writing education is mostly prominent. When it comes to L2 writing teachers, the opposite is the case. Several studies (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Polio et al., 1998) revealed that teachers favoured indirect feedback.

Studies that compare the effectiveness of direct and indirect WCF have yielded mixed results. According to Lalande (1982), indirect WCF is more effective in facilitating learners' long-term writing growth. However, this study had some design flows as it did not have a control group. Some other researchers (e.g., Ferris & Helt, 2000; Frantzen, 1995) echo the sentiment that indirect feedback produced greater accuracy gains in the long run. However, data from a study that was conducted in Iran by Nematzadeh and Siahpoosh (2017) revealed no statistically significant difference between the direct and indirect treatment groups. Ferris carried out a study in 2006 and concluded that direct WCF probably ameliorate untreatable errors, whereas indirect WCF may have a greater effect on treatable errors. Considering all these conflicting findings, it appears plausible to suppose that the effectiveness of either direct or indirect feedback is dependent on how it interacts with other variables such as the amount and timing of feedback, the proficiency level of the learner, and the writing tasks.

1.4.4.3. Metalinguistic WCF

Another type of WCF is metalinguistic feedback which, as Ellis (2009) explains, "involves providing learners with some form of explicit comment about the nature of the errors they have made" (p.100). It can either be employed through the use of error codes or through providing meta-linguistic explanations. Using error codes, which is the most common form metalinguistic feedback, involves pinpointing the inaccurate parts with abbreviated labels of various kinds of errors. Figure 4 illustrates the most commonly used error codes.

Error Type	***Abbreviation/Code***
Word choice	WC
Verb tense	VT
Verb form	VF
Word form	WF
Subject-verb agreement	SV
Articles	Art
Noun ending	N
Pronouns	Pr
Run-on	RO
Fragment	Frag
Punctuation	Punc
Spelling	Sp
Sentence structure	SS
Informal	Inf
Idiom	ID

Figure 4. Sample Error Codes

Note. From Treatment of error in second language student writing (p.102) by D. Ferris, 2002, University of Michigan Press.

As Falhasiri and Hasiri (2020) advise, "to help students understand the labels, a list of all categories along with examples for each has to be provided" (p.26). The following figure shows an example of student writing that has errors treated with metalinguistic WCF with error codes.

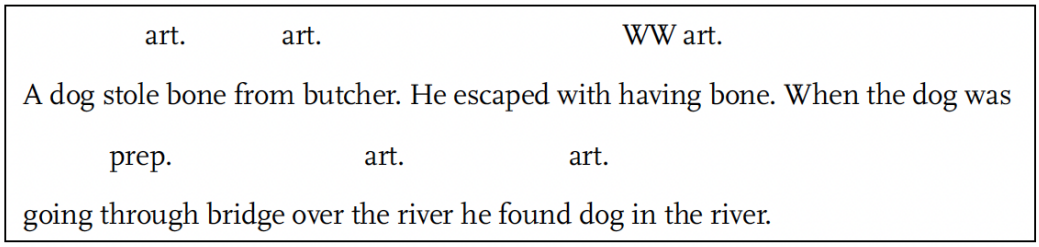

Figure 5. Sample of Student Writing Corrected by Using Metalinguistic WCF with Error Codes

Note. From "A typology of written corrective feedback types," by R. Ellis, 2009, English Language Teaching, 63(2), 97–107., p.101 (https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn023)

Several researchers have examined the efficacy of error codes in comparison to other WCF strategies. In various studies, flagging errors with editing symbols has been shown to facilitate L2 writing proficiency more than any other type of WCF (e.g., Lalande, 1982; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In Lalande's (1982) research, the subjects who were 60 students at a state university in the US were divided into four groups. There were two control groups and two treatment groups, one received coded WCF, while the other is provided with direct feedback. The results revealed that students in the coded metalinguistic feedback group outperformed the direct feedback group; however, there was no statistically significant difference between these two groups. Looking for the best way to respond to student errors, Robb et al. (1986) compared four different WCF strategies and tried to learn if coded feedback were more beneficial, but "found it no more effective than any of the other three types of CF they investigated (i.e., direct feedback and two kinds of indirect feedback)" as stated by Ellis (2009, p.101). Overall, the evidence for the effect of error codes on writing is very limited.

Besides using proofreading marks, providing metalinguistic explanations in response to errors is another form of metalinguistic WCF. This form is less prevalent than coded feedback in part because explaining errors is a time-consuming endeavour, and also the instructor must have sufficient metalinguistic expertise to explain errors in a clear and concise manner. The following figure is an example of written feedback with metalinguistic explanations.

(1) (2) (3)

A dog stole bone from butcher. He escaped with having bone. When the dog was

(4) (5) (6)

going through bridge over the river he found dog in the river.

(1), (2), (5), and (6)—you need 'a' before the noun when a person or thing is mentioned for the first time.

(3)—you need 'the' before the noun when the person or thing has been mentioned previously.

(4)—you need 'over' when you go across the surface of something; you use 'through' when you go inside something (e.g. 'go through the forest').

Figure 6. Sample of Student Writing Corrected by Using Metalinguistic WCF with Metalinguistic Explanations

Note. From "A typology of written corrective feedback types," by R. Ellis, 2009, English Language Teaching, 63(2), 97–107., p.102 (https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn023)

Metalinguistic WCF reaps similar benefits to the indirect feedback mentioned earlier "because they involve output production, guided learning, and promote learner-centeredness" (Falhasiri & Hasiri, 2020, p.27). As well as improving students' self-correction abilities, guidance from the metalinguistic WCF may ultimately enhance their grammatical competence in future writing texts. The merits of metalinguistic WCF were proven by research evidence. Sheen's (2007) study of 111 intermediate-level students who were divided into three groups revealed that the group receiving direct feedback with metalinguistic comments outperformed the direct-only group and the control group. Another study examining the relative effectiveness of direct CF and metalinguistic explanations was conducted by Shintani and Ellis in the US in 2013. The participants were 49 low-intermediate ESL students. The findings showed that metalinguistic explanations resulted in greater accuracy increases than direct feedback, but that the impact was not long-lasting. Besides these advantages, using metalinguistic feedback in responding to written errors may have some potential challenges, making it less convenient than the other feedback types. For one thing, in order to implement this feedback strategy, teacher should teach error codes in advance and make sure learners

know how to use them. Another issue is that offering metalinguistic explanations necessitates teachers to have in-dept linguistic knowledge.

After discussing many different types of WCF, it can be stated that each method of providing feedback has its advantages and disadvantages in terms of sharpening students' writing abilities. Bitchener and Ferris (2012) and Bitchener and Storch (2016) conclude that no solid conclusion can be formed on the superiority of one CF type over the others after examining a huge number of empirical research assessing the impact of different CF types on accuracy. This may be due to a variety of reasons that make broad generalization hard. Teachers should utilize one or a mixture of all, depending on several variables such as the setting, type of the error, level, age, and students' preference. Therefore, the present study, which investigates learners' preferences regarding WCF, could help teachers select the most relevant feedback type for L2 writing students. The forthcoming of this chapter will offer an overview of different errors types, which may have an impact on the efficacy of various feedback types.

1.4.5. Focus of WCF

Along with questions regarding the usefulness of WCF and which feedback type is ideal for responding to student errors, another common concern among L2 writing instructors is which kind of errors they should concentrate on. For teachers to decide which errors to mark, Hendrickson (1978) proposed three criteria for prioritizing error correction: "errors that impair communication significantly; errors that have highly stigmatizing effects on the listener or reader; and errors that occur frequently in students' speech and writing" (p.392). The most serious errors that deserve the highest priority for correction are the global errors that create communication breakdowns or obstruct the comprehension of a message (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). Such errors are usually related to the content and organization of a text or problems with word order. Global errors, according to Hanzeli (1975), should be addressed more quickly and systematically than other types of errors to. Local errors, on the other hand, do not hamper the overall intelligibility of a text. They can be minor violations of correct linguistic forms or mechanical errors related to punctuation, spelling or capitalization. With respect to the global and local errors, there seems to be an ambiguity regarding the focus on content, form and organization. Content errors affect the unity, cohesion, development,

completeness and clarity of ideas in a text, while form errors are grammatical and mechanical errors involving spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. Organization errors occur when writers fail to organize their thoughts so they are adhered to one another in a logical way with a clear introduction, body, and conclusion. Another error category that needs to be corrected involves *stigmatizing* errors. This type of errors, which are about the sociocultural aspect of L2 learning, evoke negative, irritative emotions on the reader and may lead to the learner being labelled as a less capable writer. The frequency of an error is another factor that needs to be considered while responding to written errors. "For example, the omission of the third person singular s is an error of high frequency and generality" (Touchie, 1986, p.79). Apart from these error types, one last distinction is made between "treatable" and "untreatable" errors by Ferris (1999). *Treatable* errors, according to Ferris (1999), are the ones which "occur in a predictable, rule-governed way" (p. 6). To illustrate, "subject-verb agreement, run-ons and comma splices, missing articles, verb form errors" are all treatable errors that students can resolve by learning the related grammatical rules. However, *untreatable* errors are "non-idiomatic, idiosyncratic errors" such as word choice, preposition or article errors (Ferris, 1999, p.6). Since they do not tend to follow a clear set of principles that the learner can simply refer to, Ferris (1999) suggests "strategy training and direct correction" approaches while responding to such errors (p.6). As reported by Sheen (2011), "her proposal is that teachers should correct errors that are treatable, global, stigmatizing, and frequently occurring" (p.46).

Early research on WCF (e.g., Cumming, 1985; Zamel, 1985) repeatedly demonstrated that instructors acted more like language teachers than writing teachers due to the product-oriented approaches that they adopted. As a result, they concentrated mostly, if not entirely, on students' linguistic errors rather than providing feedback on content and overall organization. By referring to teachers, Zamel (1987) claimed that "they are so distracted by language-related problems that they often correct these without realizing that there is a much larger, meaning-related problem that they have failed to address" (p. 700). However, this study was criticized for having design flaws.

The emphasis on form in teacher feedback began to shift in the 1990s with the advent of process approach to writing. Cohen and Cavalcanti conducted a case study in 1990 and discovered that the three teachers who took part in the research provided WCF in a range of areas, including vocabulary, content, grammar, mechanics, and organization. Several other studies that were performed during those years yielded similar results (e.g.,

Caulk, 1994; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lam, 1991; Saito, 1994). In addition, research conducted by Ferris (1997) revealed that 15% of instructor feedback involved language and mechanics, while 86% concerned content and development. Based on a large body of research, it seems reasonable to believe that teachers were no longer addressing only grammatical errors, but also content and organization issues.

However, there are some studies (e.g., Furneaux et al., 2007; Lee, 2008) which assert that in some L2 writing contexts, product approach is still dominant, and teachers are continuing to offer largely form-focused feedback. For example, more than 90% of the feedback given by teachers in Hong Kong was focused on linguistic form, according to Lee's (2008) research. Speaking of grammar errors, in his review of 41 studies, Chong (2019) discovered that the most widely investigated error type was concerning the English articles, a and the. Among the other types of errors examined were hypothetical conditionals, copular be, the past tense, and prepositions (Chong, 2019).

Some recent studies have looked into the difference between treatable and untreatable errors (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Van Beuningen et al., 2012). In their study of 72 ESL university students, Ferris and Roberts (2001) found that students "were more successful in editing errors in the "treatable" category (verbs, noun endings, and articles) than the "untreatable" types (word choice and sentence structure)" (p.176). Van Beuningen et al. (2012) set out to tests Truscott's (2001, 2007) claim that WCF might only be useful only when it pertains to "errors that involve simple problems in relatively discrete items" (Truscott, 2001, p. 94). The results refuted this claim and revealed that both treatable and untreatable errors are susceptible to WCF. The researchers also found that "they benefit from different types of corrections: Direct correction is better suited for grammatical errors and indirect correction is better suited for nongrammatical errors" (Van Beuningen et al., 2012, p.33).

There seems to be a consensus among researchers that while providing WCF, all significant elements of writing should be considered equally, including content, form and organization (e.g., Ferris 2003, 2014; Hyland & Hyland 2006; Zamel 1985). Similarly, according to a meta-analysis carried out by Biber et al. (2011), feedback on content and form is more successful than form-focused feedback alone. Feedback also needs to be provided on more than one draft (e.g., Ferris 1997; Hyland & Hyland 2006). After

discussing how different error types respond to feedback, it is time to concentrate on the question that asks how much feedback is enough.

1.4.6. Scope of WCF

The feedback scope is concerned with whether a teacher aims to correct all or some errors, and it corresponds to the number of targeted elements in the feedback. Brown (2012) defines feedback scope as "the number and type of errors that are addressed—either a comprehensive approach or a focus on a limited range of error categories" (p. 863). "The focused-unfocused dichotomy refers to the comprehensiveness of correction methodologies" (Van Beuningen, 2010, p.11). Focused WCF concentrates on one or a small number of error categories, while the unfocused approach corrects all errors in the student's text.

The topic of WCF scope bears both theoretical and pedagogical relevance. Research examining feedback scope or amount is influenced by theories of L2 writing and SLA such as cognitive, skill acquisition, interactionist and socio-cultural theories (e.g., Long, 1996; Mclaughlin, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978). Incorporating theory and research findings into feedback practices will help instructors better understand the degree to which they should react to errors in their students' texts. The following part is a synopsis of focused and unfocused feedback strategies and different views about their relative effectiveness.

1.4.6.1. Focused WCF

Focused WCF (also labelled as selective WCF) is a sort of feedback that handles "a single or a limited number" of linguistic items (Stefanou & Révész, 2015, p. 264). This type of feedback is prioritized by several researchers and theorists thanks to its merits. For example, Ferris (1999, 2004) favours selective feedback as this method takes teachers less time to provide feedback, and it is not cognitively demanding for students to understand feedback. Shintani and Aubrey (2016) claims that focused feedback "is considered preferable in restructuring learners' knowledge as they receive correction on the same error" (p. 301). They believe that paying attention to a small number of aspects leads to better noticing and understanding of the feedback provided. Furthermore, Touchie (1986) believes that teachers should not correct all of their students' mistakes since this will hinder their learning and agrees to rectify only major global errors that

have an impact on communication. Likewise, Sheen (2011) notes that focused WCF is valuable as it guides students to "1) notice their errors in their written work, (2) engage in hypothesis testing in a systematic way and (3) monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing explicit grammatical knowledge" (p.109). Sheen (2011) also believes that "unfocused CF runs the risk of (1) providing CF in a confusing, inconsistent and unsystematic way, and (2) overburdening learners" (p.109).

To date, several studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2008; Frear & Chiu 2015; Sheen et al., 2009; Shintani & Ellis 2013) have set out to investigate the relative effectiveness of focused and unfocused WCF, but the results remain inconclusive. In terms of increasing accuracy, focused WCF was found to be more effective than unfocused feedback by a large number of studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, et al., 2009). Similarly, some other research (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2010) which examined low-intermediate students showed that selective written feedback was effective in increasing the accuracy of revised texts. However, the majority of these research concentrated on just a few types of errors, primarily the English articles. According to Xu (2009), it is impossible to determine if WCF would be helpful in treating other error categories given the positive outcomes. According to the findings of Ellis et al.'s (2008) study, there was no difference in the usefulness of focused and unfocused CF regarding accuracy gains. On the other hand, according to the findings of Van Beuningen's (2010) study, unfocused CF is a useful teaching tool. At this moment, it appears that the dispute between focused versus unfocused feedback has no obvious winner.

1.4.6.2. Unfocused WCF

Unfocused WCF (also known as comprehensive WCF) refers to written feedback that corrects "all (or at least a range of) the errors" in texts (Ellis et al., 2008, p. 356). It is the "comprehensive correction of every error in students' writing" (Van Beuningen et al., 2012, p. 5). A study by Van Beuningen et al. (2012) asserts that comprehensive WCF has strong ecological validity since it reflects actual classroom practices. In the same vein, several other researchers (e.g., Bruton, 2009; Ferris, 2010; Van Beuningen, 2010; Xu, 2009) believe that focused CF, which targets a limited number of errors, may not practically correspond to the objectives of the classroom. Ellis (2009) admits that unfocused feedback may not be as helpful in enabling learners to acquire

certain qualities as focused feedback in the short term, yet he claims that unfocused WCF may be beneficial in the long term. Furthermore, Evans et al. (2010) and Hartshorn et al. (2010) suggest that rather than just examining a few error patterns in their writings, students must learn to edit their whole texts.

The effectiveness of unfocused WCF has been questioned by several researchers. By highlighting the affective issues raised by comprehensive feedback, Truscott's (1996) claimed that focused feedback makes "classes more pleasant (or at least less unpleasant) both for students, who would not have to confront so many criticisms, and for teachers, who would not be so overwhelmed with unpleasant work" (p. 352). He further labelled unfocused approach to error treatment as "extremely unpleasant", "time-consuming", and "discouraging", and "sea of red ink" (Truscott, 2001, p.93). Other selective correction proponents (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010) advise that L2 writing teachers should strengthen students' self-editing skills which is more essential than creating a perfect end product.

As previously stated, there has been a great deal of confusion in the literature regarding the differential effects of focused and unfocused WCF. The inconsistencies in the results of these studies might be due to a variety of factors. First, the majority of these research (e.g., Sheen et al., 2009; Ellis et al., 2008) have concentrated on various grammatical forms that may impact the usefulness of feedback. There have also been discrepancies in the definitions of focused and unfocused feedback. Focused feedback is defined in some studies as feedback that targets certain types of errors (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen et al., 2009), while other studies have defined it as feedback that responds to only one error category (e.g., Ellis et al. 2008; Sheen 2007; Sheen et al., 2009). The results of the studies on the influence of focused and comprehensive feedback on linguistic accuracy are far from conclusive. As a result of this controversy, several researchers (e.g., Ferris 2010; Storch 2010) favoured a middle ground (mid-focused approach) in which teachers correct specific but multiple error categories rather than just a few errors.

Although several studies (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; McMartin-Miller, 2014; Trabelsi, 2019) found that learners prefer unfocused WCF, it is important to remember that "haphazard" and "one-shot" feedback is unlikely to work (Pawlak, 2014, p. 110).

Before deciding what to give feedback on and what to skip, teachers should consider some factors which are "contextual (e.g., previous instruction), learner-related (e.g., learning style or personality), psycholinguistic (i.e., developmental stage), as well as linguistic (e.g., inherent characteristics of the form responsible for the error)" so that feedback can be tailored to specific contexts, avoid cognitive overload, and be systematic (Pawlak, 2014, p. 124). The subsequent section discusses the feedback providing agents who are responsible for WCF provision.

1.4.7. The Feedback Providing Agents

Teachers have three options when they have to decide who should correct written learner errors:

> (1) they can correct the error themselves, thus engaging in *teacher correction*,
> (2) they can encourage the student who has produced the inaccurate utterance to do it, thus opting for *self-correction*, or
> (3) they can ask some other student to supply the correct form, in which case *peer-correction* takes place. (Pawlak, 2014, p.149)

1.4.7.1. Teacher Correction

Teacher feedback prevails in most classes, as evidenced by existing empirical research and as most instructors would definitely confirm. Teachers' responsibility for the quality of learner output and their greater training and experience may cause this tendency. Also, students generally perceive instructor's feedback as more beneficial, and they have concerns about the quality of feedback offered by their peers or themselves (e.g., Hyland & Hyland 2006; Saadat et al., 2017). The educational context, either ESL or EFL, is another factor; as Hedge (2000) states, "in many foreign language situations, where there is little exposure to English or practice available in the community, error correction is an expected role for the teacher" (p. 288). Teachers' WCF can include comments that are either positive or negative. The tone of these comments determines whether the comments are about what students have done well (i.e., Positive) or what they have done poorly (i.e., Negative) (Nakamura, 2016, p.91). Getting positive feedback motivates students by giving them emotional support, according to Ellis (2009).

Early research into the emotional effect of feedback on students (e.g., Cardelle & Corno, 1981; Cohen, 1987) revealed that students usually regard their instructors' WCF

as negative feedback, and if teachers' comments are overly negative, students hesitate to read them since they are discouraged. Surprisingly, these studies also showed that excessive numbers of positive comments might be misleading for students. Teachers should then strike "a balance between praise and constructive criticism as it is the best means of encouraging quality writing" (Alkhatib, 2015, p.51). Several studies exploring students' views on teachers' WCF (e.g., Cohen, 1987; Lee, 2004; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris, 1995) conclude that students wish to receive positive feedback on their written products. Similarly, most research on teachers' perceptions about WCF (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Zacharias, 2007; Jodaie & Farrokhi, 2012) found that instructors thought positive comments were more effective than negative feedback in honing L2 learners' writing skills.

It is rather challenging for teachers to provide feedback particularly in large classes. Ferris (1999) maintains that for L2 writing teachers, responding to student errors is "one of the most time consuming and exhausting aspects of their jobs" (p.1). To make the most of this daunting task, teachers should alter their teaching routines and re-evaluate their grading rubrics. According to Chen (2012), teachers should explain the principles and aims of the feedback they provide, as well as the short and long-term gains of it for writing accuracy because learners might be more willing to revise their drafts when they appreciate their teachers' feedback. Ferris (2011, 2012) advises teachers to act more like a guide while treating the errors in the initial drafts; however, she believes that they can take the role of an evaluator during the feedback provision for the final draft of student writings. Goldstein (2010) notes that instructors should take their students' needs and learning objectives into account for a successful feedback practice.

Almost in all the studies that has been reviewed throughout this chapter so far, the source of WCF is the teacher. The majority of these research were challenged for being decontextualized and employing controlled experimental procedures (e.g., Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991). It cannot be denied that these studies contributed to our existing knowledge regarding WCF. However, "teacher feedback takes place within a larger classroom context that includes instruction, discussion, modeling, collaboration, and an ongoing personal relationship between the teacher and each student" (Ferris, 2003, p.34). Speaking of collaboration and valuing each student, a greater emphasis has been placed on students' responding to their own and one another's forms through self-correction and peer-feedback rather than teacher feedback due to several reasons. One

factor might be the potential obstacles that instructors' feedback might have such as inconsistency and not meeting learners' individual needs. This focus shift towards self and peer correction could also be explained by the popularity of promoting learner-centred education, learner autonomy, and collaborative learning notions of process-oriented approaches and the arguments of interactionist theories.

1.4.7.2. Self-correction

Teacher correction is not the sole technique for instructors to address student errors. While learning a foreign language, students can find and correct their errors on their own, through monitoring; they can also rectify their errors with the help of others, such as teachers or peers, who offer them hints. Though self-correction is not as popular as teacher feedback, it offers learners the opportunity to reflect on and develop the linguistic competence they have and respond to feedback in an active manner. Self-correction can help learners abandon their role as passive recipients of WCF and "stretch their interlanguage and notice the gap" (Sheen, 2011, p. 48). Hendrickson (1980) recommended that learners should be urged to fix their own errors rather than relying heavily on their instructor to correct them. Ferris (1999) also values self-editing, which facilitates learner autonomy. Even Truscott (1999), the most outspoken opponent of error correction in L2 writing, admits that strategy training and grammar teaching may be utilized as an opportunity to encourage students revise their own texts. While encouraging self-editing has shown to be advantageous, Pawlak (2014) notes that self-correction is perceived by some learners as a waste of time since they feel teachers are more qualified to give feedback. Sheen (2011) agrees this endorsement and adds that self-editing is challenging from a practical standpoint because learners who lack the essential linguistic competence may not have the ability to rectify their own errors.

Besides the contrasting views on the usefulness of self-correction, research into the role of this mode of feedback in writing classes tended to yield inconsistent results, as well. For instance, 62 college students were asked to correct the mistakes in their writings themselves in a study conducted by Makino (1993), and the obtained results indicated that self-correction was quite successful in fixing grammar errors. In a study that was carried out on 120 pre-intermediate female EFL students in Iran, Hajimohammadi and Mukundan (2011) wanted to see how two distinct correction approaches, on the one hand, and personal traits such as extroversion and introversion,

on the other hand, affect learners' writing growth. The students were assigned to either two extraversion groups or two introversion groups. The teacher corrected the writings of the two groups (one extroverted and one introverted), and the other two groups practiced self-correction. The findings showed that self-correction has a bigger influence on learners' writing progress than instructor correction. Fahimi and Rahimi (2015) set out to explore the impact of self-assessment on improving writing ability. 41 intermediate students were sampled in the study. The results bear witness to a steady development in students' writing skills.

However, the findings of some studies on self-assessment are in disagreement with the previously mentioned research. To illustrate, Kim and Emeliyanova (2019) aimed to compare self-correction and peer-feedback in their study which recruited 36 ESL learners. After the instructor provided indirect feedback to their essays, the participants revised them either individually or in pairs. The researchers found that the peer-correction group corrected errors more accurately than the self-correction group, but the findings cannot be applied to all ESL settings due to the small sample size. In a recent study by Meihami and Esfandiari (2020), 60 Iranian students were divided into three groups and subjected to self, peer, and teacher correction. Peer assessment group outperformed the other two groups, according to the findings of this study.

All in all, as an alternative to traditional way of error treatment that is performed by teachers, self-correction is of great value as it encourages student involvement in the assessment process. However, it also has some disadvantages despite the mounting support for self-correction by writing instructors. "Subjectivity is a primary obstacle to overcome. Students may be too harsh on themselves or too self-flattering" (Meihami & Esfandiari, 2020, p.95). In addition, some students may not be willing to participate in self-editing activities as they do not take it seriously. Accordingly, teachers should try to encourage their students to self-correct with intention because addressing writing through self-correction can help learners build confidence and improve their sense of self-efficiency.

1.4.7.3. Peer Correction

The contributions that language learners can make to one another have long been overlooked by L2 writing teachers. However, the practice of peer feedback has become

commonplace in second language writing classes since the introduction of process-oriented approaches. “In the literature, “peer feedback” is often used synonymously with related terms such as peer response, peer review, peer evaluation, peer editing, and peer assessment” (Lee, 2017, p.83). Liu and Edwards (2018) offered a detailed definition of this practice:

> Peer response is the use of learners as sources of information and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor, or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other’s drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing. (Liu & Edwards, 2018, p.1)

Using peer feedback in classrooms to assess L2 writing is underpinned by a range of SLA theories such as collaborative learning, interaction, and, particularly, sociocultural theories. “SCT regards learning as a semiotic process by learner participation in different socially mediated activities” (Dongyu, et al., 2013, p. 166). Collaborative peer assessment allows students to participate in a community of fellow students who comment on one another’s written product and create a real social setting with a real reader for interaction and learning. Learners’ L2 writing growth within their ZPD is facilitated by peer feedback.

The advantages of peer correction are easy to discern. Students gain audience awareness and a clear view of reader expectations of effective writing vis-a-vis content, form, and organization via peer evaluation (Liu & Hansen, 2002). It has several benefits for improving L2 students’ writing skills by increasing audience awareness and encouraging meaningful peer engagement along with fostering critical thinking skills. According to Yang et al. (2006), peer assessment may promote learner autonomy, which makes it a valuable supplement to teacher feedback, even in contexts where the teacher is believed to be the only authority in the classroom. Ellis (2009) suggests using peer evaluation after self-assessment has taken place, and he further argues that engaging students with activities in which they play an active role is important because teachers cannot do the learning for them; instead, they should be given a chance to learn on their own. Sheen (2011) suggests that in the case of self-correction failure, students can require assistance from a peer. As noted by Lundstorm and Baker (2009), peer correction is more honest than teacher correction because it allows students to see that they are not alone in their struggles, thereby decreasing their writing fear, which in turn encourages them to

produce reader-friendly texts. Likewise, Hyland (2019) argues that with the help of peer feedback, "students not only benefit from seeing how readers understand their ideas and what they need to improve, but also gain the skills necessary to critically analyse and revise their own writing" (p.198).

Despite the educational value of peer feedback, numerous scholars (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990) have contended that its applicability in the classroom setting is minimal. Those scholars have questioned whether peer review is effective for L2 students who may lack the formal knowledge to recognize their peers' mistakes. If L2 writing instructors do not offer students thorough instruction on how to perform peer editing, the scenario may result in "the blind leading the blind." (Sheen, 2011, p. 48). It is also possible that some learners are teased by their classmates, which may severely damage their self-esteem (Pawlak, 2014). Peer response is also criticized for the fact that students are not proficient enough to provide insightful comments on each other's work, and it is a rather time-consuming method of handling errors. Additionally, Carson and Nelson (1996) point out that students from communitarian cultures may focus more on maintaining a favourable group atmosphere than the critical assessment of peers' work, resulting in less beneficial feedback. The potential advantages and disadvantages of peer response are summarized in the following table.

Table 3.
Potential Pros and Cons of Peer Feedback

Advantages	Disadvantages
Active learner participation	Tendency to focus on surface forms
Authentic communicative context	Potential for overly critical comments
Nonjudgmental environment	Cultural reluctance to criticize and judge
Alternative and authentic audience	Students unconvinced of comments' value
Writers gain understanding of reader needs	Weakness of reader's knowledge
Reduced apprehension about writing	Students may not use feedback in revisions
Development of critical reading skills	Students may prefer teacher feedback
Reduces teacher's workload	

Note. From Second language writing (p.199) by K. Hyland, 2019, Cambridge University Press.

Three categories of studies examine this controversial feedback mode: "the nature of peer feedback interactions, attitudes of students toward peer feedback, and the effects of peer response on revision and/or on improvement in writing quality" (Ferris, 2003, pp.72-73). Mangelsdorf and Schlumberger published the prototype research on the nature of peer feedback exchanges in 1992, which has started an avenue of inquiry that has been pursued by a number of other scholars since then (e.g., Nelson & Schunn, 2008; Patchan et al., 2016). A sample of 60 ESL university students was asked to offer feedback on a sample student essay. The researchers "identified three general personae that the student respondents took as they approached the task: the Prescriptive stance (45%), the Collaborative stance (32%), and the Interpretive stance (23%)" (Ferris, 2003, p. 74). According to the findings, students who took a collaborative position received better marks. However, the study is limited by being decontextualized.

In addition to analysing the nature of peer feedback, the research has switched part of its attention to students' attitudes and preferences toward peer feedback. The findings of these studies are inconsistent and contradictory. Some studies (e.g., Leki, 1991; Zhang, 1995), for instance, have shown that some students doubt their classmates' ability to provide useful comments. Other researchers (e.g., Amores, 1997; Chaudron, 1984) discovered that some learners prefer teacher evaluation rather than peer feedback.

Learners' preferences regarding peer feedback will be handled in more detail in the following sections of this study.

The last category of research is about the effects of peer assessment on the accuracy of learners' texts. Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1992) investigated the impact of peer and instructor feedback on the accuracy of students' writing. The participants, a total of 30 EFL students, were split into two groups and asked to write three drafts of an essay. The results of the study revealed that the group which received peer feedback outperformed the teacher feedback group. Some other studies (e.g., Berg, 1999; Yang et al., 2006) also underscore the value of peer feedback. Berg's (1999) study of 46 ESL classrooms in the United States likewise verifies the usefulness of peer feedback in assisting writing growth although the researcher did not compare it to instructor response. Like Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1992), Yang et al., (2006) compared teacher response to peer response but reached contrasting findings. The researchers sampled 79 Chinese university students and found that teacher feedback leads to greater improvement in L2 learners' writing, while peer assessment led to greater levels of learner autonomy. However, the findings of all these studies may not be generalized to other settings due to their small number of participants. As can be seen, research on the impacts of peer feedback has yielded a mixed bag of results. McGroarty and Zhu (1997) argue that many studies on this topic are subjected to limitations because they have no triangulation of data gathering techniques and analysis procedures.

In conclusion, in traditional teacher-centred L2 classrooms, "teachers are on the providing and students are on the receiving end" of the WCF continuum (Saeli, 2016, p.1). Since the introduction of the process approach to writing instruction, which emphasizes students' independence via self and peer feedback, this viewpoint has shifted dramatically. Although a majority of L2 learners may still place higher importance on instructor comments than self and peer feedback, a great deal of research highlight the benefits of peer feedback (e.g., Hinkel, 2004; Lundstorm & Baker, 2009; Rollinson, 2005; Saito & Fujita, 2004), and self-correction (e.g., Makino, 1993; Hajimohammadi & Mukundan, 2011). Peer feedback is of utmost importance in developing the critical analysis and reading strategies that learners need, yet the efficacy of this feedback mode depends on some factors. Hyland, (2019) points out that "peer response practices are most effective if they are modeled, taught, and controlled" (p.203). As a result of peer response, students have access to a distinct source of feedback and an alternative audience. Self-

correction, on the hand, fosters learner autonomy as it encourages students to notice their strong and weak points in writing and be responsible for their own learning. Any feedback, whether from a teacher, self, or peer, can only be effective if it appeals to the individual learner. The success of a feedback source is determined in part by the preferences of students; thus, the present study aims to widen the current knowledge about learners' preferences for WCF in various aspects. The following part of this chapter contributes to this goal by presenting a thorough picture of students' preferences for WCF.

1.5. Students' Preferences

Preference is defined by the Oxford Dictionary of English (n.d.) as "a greater liking for one alternative over another or others". The term *students' preferences* can then be described as learners' likings of certain elements of learning more than others. As Ur (1996) argues, successful teaching depends on knowing how learners wish to be instructed. Educators can enhance and modify their teaching techniques by being informed about their students' preferences and opinions about the educational modalities they employ. Similarly, it is useful to understand students' perceptions and preferences with regard to WCF when designing error treatment procedures for writing classes. Because inappropriate WCF practices can stifle learning, disrupt L2 acquisition, or simply confuse students, teachers should adopt the most effective paper-marking approaches that best suit their students. In addition, instructors' feedback that is tailored to students' preferences is more likely to be accepted by learners. Accordingly, as Diab (2005) expresses "it is important to investigate L2 students' preferences for teacher feedback on writing in order to ascertain whether these preferences and expectations match those of their teachers" (p.27). Ferris (2003) also highlights the importance of investigating student preferences regarding teachers' written error treatment methods:

> Student survey research, in addition to helping us understand what students want and how they feel about what we do, can assist us in perceiving ways in which our philosophies and practices and even our specific feedback techniques are misunderstood by the students. (Ferris, 2003, p.93)

The present study aims to examine EFL learners' WCF preferences since inquiring about students' thoughts on their instructors' WCF practices might encourage

them to engage actively in their instructors' feedback and improve teacher-student communication.

1.5.1. Research on Students' Preferences Regarding WCF in the World

Truscott's (1996) provoking argument that grammar correction is unnecessary and even detrimental to student writing paved the way for a perennial concern about the effectiveness of WCF in increasing the accuracy gains of student writers. The most compelling counterargument was made by Ferris (1999) who contended that WCF helps learners eliminate their errors. Thanks to these arguments and rebuttals, the overwhelming majority of WCF research has focused on its efficacy and various types via experimental studies so far (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Fazio, 2001; Sheen et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2006). By and large, these studies which portray L2 learners as passive recipients of WCF, have overlooked students' feedback preferences and views. Despite the plethora of research on WCF, there is still a significant void in the literature analysing L2 students' preferences and instructors' feedback strategies from the perspective of students. Thus, it is the aim of this study to fill this gap and contribute to the body of knowledge on feedback-related preferences of EFL learners.

In response to this negligence of learner related factors, a new line of inquiry which is about students' preferences for WCF has gained steam. Such studies "suggest that whether and which type of feedback is effective depend on a complex and dynamic interaction of linguistic and affective factors" (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010, p.329). Learners are viewed in these studies (e.g., Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994) as active participants of error treatment practices who can both offer and utilize feedback to improve their written accuracy.

It is critical to look into students' perspectives on WCF since learners may most successfully engage the feedback that they favour. In light of this assertion, several L2 writing researchers have shifted their focus from experimental to descriptive investigations. Studies on learners' opinions and preferences can be divided into three categories. The first and most common group of research (e.g., Cohen, 1987; Diab, 2005; Ferris 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991) delved into learners' WCF preferences alone. The second set of studies (e.g., Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Montgomery & Baker, 2007) addressed the connection between learners' WCF

preferences and instructors' actual feedback practices. The third group (e.g., Hamouda, 2011; Schulz, 1996), on the other hand, compared instructors' perceptions about WCF and learners' preferences.

This first set of studies, which make up the majority of this line of inquiry, examined learners' preferences in isolation, without considering teachers' practices and views regarding WCF. Almost all of these studies (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008; Leki, 1991) found that students had favourable attitudes regarding WCF. The earliest study investigating the feedback-related opinions of students was conducted by Cohen in 1987. This prototype study surveyed 217 students at a state university in America. Cohen (1987) looked into students' perceptions of teacher feedback and discovered that they thought writing teachers should concentrate more on local problems like grammar and language use rather than global errors. Cohen's research blazed a trail in the field, but it suffered from some limitations. "First, his subjects were drawn from ESL writers, English-speaking students in foreign language classes, and native-English-speaking writers in freshman composition classes" (Ferris, 2003, p.94). Cohen (1987) did not discuss the potential effects of diverse participant features and settings on the findings of his study. Another problem was that the majority of the students wrote single-draft texts. However, teacher feedback is most beneficial when it is provided on multiple drafts.

Cohen's (1987) survey questions were posed to 155 ESL learners of intermediate level of proficiency by McCurdy (1992) and students' replies indicated that they valued the WCF that they received. By the same token, the findings of a study of 100 ESL students conducted by Leki (1991) revealed that most learners valued error-free texts, and they favoured teacher feedback, especially comprehensive WCF. Comments on content or organization were less important to the participants than grammar correction. Such findings can be expected in ESL contexts. As Hyland and Hyland (2006) claim, "ESL students, particularly those from cultures where teachers are highly directive, generally welcome and expect teachers to notice and comment on their errors and may feel resentful if their teacher does not do so" (p. 3).

A similar study was carried out by Ferris (1995) with 155 ESL learners at a university composition class to investigate learner perceptions of feedback on multiple-draft texts. The findings demonstrated that students learned from their instructors' WCF

and paid attention to it. They also thought the most valuable feedback was on language form and "paid more attention to comments of all types on preliminary drafts than on final drafts" (Ferris, 1995, p. 40). Overall, this study revealed that learners typically paid attention to instructor feedback and value stimulating comments. Ferris also stated that learners preferred instructor assessment over other feedback providing agents. The findings from this research, as well as those of Leki (1991), indicate that ESL learners generally appreciate feedback from teachers.

Radecki and Swales (1988) published a study on learners' beliefs to see what feedback related preferences and opinions ESL learners had. Similar to Cohen (1987), the researchers found that the participants valued feedback on language form, based on data obtained from 59 ESL students' self-reports. The same results were also achieved by Saito (1994) and Ferris (1995), who surveyed students about their attitudes towards feedback in an ESL setting. Radecki and Swales (1988) also concluded that learners favoured unfocused WCF. To put it another way, students expected their instructors to fix all their written errors. By interviewing students, this study adds an important dimension to the simply quantitative investigation of impressions. The researchers were able to delve further into the respondents' perspectives thanks to this qualitative approach. However, their findings would have been more illuminating if they had looked into the probable causes of student views.

What all these above-mentioned studies have in common is that they were all performed in ESL settings. "A noticeable missing piece in the picture is EFL programs in developing countries where cultural and classroom dynamics are drastically different from those found in English-speaking countries" (Chen et al., 2016, p.3). Situational and contextual variables can play a role in shaping the preferences of learners. This study is valuable as it opts for investigating EFL learners' preferences regarding WCF.

To investigate the role of these contextual variables, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) performed a study of 110 ESL and 137 EFL (German, Spanish and French) elementary level learners. The results revealed that both groups appreciated WCF. Unlike ESL learners who favoured feedback on content and organization, EFL learners who participated in the study expected more feedback on grammatical and mechanical errors because, unlike ESL students, EFL students place a higher value on accuracy in their writing. It was also found that both groups did not want their teachers to use a red pen

while treating errors. While the study provides valuable comparisons of FL and SL students' preferences, it has significant flaws due to the lack of inferential statistics, thus some of the statistical assertions the authors make are questionable.

Working with 58 students from two secondary schools in Hong Kong, Lee (2008) set out to unearth the perceptions of L2 learners. The researcher used a variety of data gathering procedures to address the constraints of the previous quantitative studies, including classroom observations, surveys, and interviews. Lee (2008) found that students reacted in favour of direct, teacher-led feedback. Another interesting result was that low-proficiency students had less favourable perceptions about WCF compared to those with high proficiency.

In an oft-cited case study on EFL learners' perceptions and preferences vis-à-vis WCF, Chen et al., (2016) recruited 64 university students with three different proficiency levels in Mainland China. The researchers collected quantitative and qualitative data through closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires. The respondents, on the whole, had a positive approach towards error treatment, irrespective of their level. They had a significant preference for direct feedback and lengthy comments on the content and language of their texts. The qualitative data also revealed that students wished to have greater control over the editing stage of their work, with less instructor involvement. The researchers recommend that teachers should provide greater comments on the content and organization of higher proficiency level students' work. It should be noted, however, that because this study used a limited sample size, the results cannot be generalized.

Chung (2015) aimed to examine Korean EFL students' perceptions regarding WCF types. The researcher employed a questionnaire to collect data and came up with comparable results to Chen et al.'s study (2016). Direct feedback with extensive explanations and comments was found to be preferred by Korean students. They had zero tolerance for receiving no feedback from the teacher.

Elwood and Bode's (2014) large-scale study shed much light on EFL learners' preferences. Data were collected from 410 first-year students university in Japan. It was found that students perceived WCF positively and preferred detailed, handwritten feedback on content as well as mechanical errors. The results also revealed that the colour

of the pen used in feedback was not an issue of major concern for students. Teachers working in similar contexts can potentially gain insights from these findings.

In another study, Oladejo (1993) investigated whether learners' preferences varied depending on their L2 proficiency level. The researcher reported that participants did not prefer peer correction. In terms of the focus of feedback, most learners wanted their teachers to correct their organizational errors. Speaking of peer correction, several studies on L2 learners' WCF preferences (e.g., Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994) indicated that students believe that feedback offered by peers will be of little use to them because they perceive their peers to have a low level of proficiency or a level similar to theirs. In another study of 10 university students in Iran conducted by Saadat et al. (2017), it was found that almost every participant preferred instructor response to peer feedback. One possible explanation for why the majority of students preferred teacher-led WCF over peer feedback is that peer feedback is seldom used in L2 writing classes. In a similar vein, the results from a study by Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) demonstrated that L2 learners wanted teacher feedback, and if their peers responded to their errors, they could feel worried about not getting enough or appropriate feedback. It would appear from these consistent findings in past research that a similar situation may occur in the present study where students might feel hesitant about their classmates' capacity to provide WCF.

Several researchers attempted to report students' preferences about the focus of WCF. Although the overwhelming majority of earlier research on L2 learners' preferences (e.g., Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Radecki & Swales, 1988) revealed that students favoured feedback on form, other researchers (e.g., Ferris, 2002; Norton, 1990) indicated that in higher proficiency and discipline-based classes, it is common for students to care content-related errors more than grammatical errors. To illustrate, Leki (2006) studied graduate students' responses in discipline-based writing settings and found that these learners' primary concern was content-related issues. In the current study, similar scenarios might also occur, in that L2 learners studying a disciplinary field (e.g., English Language Teaching) might hold the view that content-based WCF is more essential than form-related feedback.

When students are questioned about their opinions and preferences regarding the scope of feedback, a vast majority always says they expect their instructor to correct all

the errors in their writing (e.g., Diab, 2005; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hamouda, 2011; Lee, 2004; Norouzian & Farahani, 2012; Radecki & Swales, 1988). In Diab's (2005) study which was conducted in Beirut, for example, a questionnaire was administered to 156 EFL university students. Most learners wished their teacher to rectify all their errors. Also, a majority of the participants expressed that they paid more attention to the feedback on style and content. Hamouda (2011) stated, based on these findings, that if teachers did not correct every error made by students, they would lose their credibility. Ferris and Roberts' (2001) study, which also found that students preferred comprehensive feedback, is significant in that most of the 63 ESL university students who participated in the research favoured indirect WCF, contrary to most previous research.

Table 4.
Summary of Studies Investigating Students' Preferences Regarding WCF

Researchers	Context and Participants	Major Findings
Cohen (1987)	217 students at a U.S. university	Students paid close attention to the WCF from their teachers, and they expected their teachers to rectify their grammatical errors.
Chen et al. (2016)	64 EFL learners from a public university in China	Error correction, particularly direct feedback, was valued by learners. They had a great preference for detailed comments on both form and content.
Chung (2015)	100 Korean university students	Learners prefer direct WCF, and they had limited patience for feedback without explanation or providing no feedback.
Diab (2005)	156 EFL university students in Beirut	Most students preferred comprehensive explicit feedback on their writing.
Elwood and Bode (2014)	410 freshmen at tertiary level in Japan	Teachers' WCF was well received by students, who preferred thorough, handwritten feedback which tackled both mechanical errors and problems with content.
Ferris (1995)	155 ESL college learners in the USA	Students appreciated teachers' feedback with a strong preference for a combination of encouraging positive comments and constructive criticism from their instructors.

Ferris and Roberts (2001)	72 ESL students at a university in the USA	Students reacted in favour of indirect WCF with error codes, in contrast to most prior experiments, and they expected their form-focused local errors to be corrected.
Ferris et al. (2013)	10 American freshman university students	Teachers' WCF was seen as valuable by students, but it did not always encourage self-correction.
Lee (2008)	58 learners in a secondary school in Hong Kong	Students at all levels of proficiency desired more written feedback from teachers, and they preferred direct, teacher-generated WCF. Low achieving learners were less engaged in instructor feedback than those with higher proficiency levels, despite the fact that both groups opted for more explicit written feedback.
Leki (1991)	100 ESL freshman students in a U.S. university	Learners favoured unfocused, explicit feedback on form.
Saadat et al. (2017)	10 students from a state university in Iran	Almost all of the students preferred teacher to peer response. Feedback, they felt, should be dialogic and selective.
Trabelsi (2019)	75 mixed-level students in Oman	Students wished feedback to be unfocused and indirect, as well as provided by the teacher.
Vaghei et al. (2020)	150 intermediate EFL learners from several private language institutes in Iran	Feedback preferences were significantly influenced by entity mindsets, but not incremental mindsets. In terms of language learners' preferences, commentary and conferencing were most dominant, followed by peer response and self-correction to a lesser extent.

As can be seen from the limited presentation in the above table, studies on students' WCF preferences indicate that L2 students do value their instructors' response to their written works despite previous results that instructor feedback is worthless and frustrating to learners, as well as allegations that it is frequently ignored (e.g., Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985). On the whole, the findings of the above-mentioned studies imply that L2 learners mostly prefer teacher-generated, unfocused, grammar-based WCF. When analysing the cited research, it becomes clear that the vast

majority of them have relied simply on surveys to investigate student attitudes. As a result, greater in-depth examination of such perspectives is still lacking in the current literature. Conducting interviews will give more insight into the perspectives of learners along with the factors that contribute to moulding and maintaining such beliefs. Furthermore, the vast bulk of student preferences research examined these preferences in isolation. Investigating student opinions in connection with other variables such as instructors' actual classroom practices may provide a broader vision of the topic under investigation.

A second and smaller set of WCF research compared students' opinions with their teachers' actual feedback practices. For instance, by evaluating a survey questionnaire and student texts, Montgomery and Baker (2007) attempted to discover the possible inconsistencies between instructors' feedback practices and learners' views. They found that instructor feedback practices matched students' views, despite the fact that instructors delivered less feedback than the learners expected. Although this study is informative in that it compared teachers' practices and learners' perspectives, one probable drawback is that it did not consider the different, context-driven variances that exist in EFL environments.

The same alignment between teachers and students was also found in Lee's (2004) large-scale study of 320 secondary school students and 206 teachers in Hong Kong. The researcher collected data by using "(1) a teacher survey comprising a questionnaire and follow-up interviews, (2) a teacher error correction task, and (3) a student survey made up of a questionnaire and follow-up interviews" (Lee, 2004, p. 285). Data gathered from these various instruments showed that learners preferred explicit, comprehensive feedback. The study also revealed that most student participants deem teachers as the most reliable feedback source, while only a small number of learners stated that other feedback providing agents should also be used in writing classes. Lee's (2004) study also has some problematic points because instructors' feedback techniques were identified in this research by analysing instructor responses on only one student's writing. Although it is simpler to analyse instructors' comments on the same written text than to analyse all of the students' real writings, the latter gives more authentic and reliable results for completely ethnographic qualitative research. In addition, it is possible that the instructors' marking of errors in the paper might differ from their usual practice since it was an artificial text.

Oladejo (1993) claims that "teachers' opinion and classroom practice regarding CF do not always match the perceived needs and expectations of learners; such as correcting all errors as they appear, while others believe that constant correction can boost students' level of anxiety and thus hinder learning" (p. 84). Such a misalignment was found by Nemati et al. (2017) in their study of 311 students in Iran. The subjects filled out a survey about instructors' feedback techniques from the perspective of students' preferences. Elementary students were happy with their teacher's feedback methods and techniques, according to the findings. Their counterparts in intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced classes, on the other hand, were dissatisfied with their professors' feedback procedures. All the students in the study were found to favour direct, comprehensive WCF. In addition, the students stated that their teachers do not provide as many positive comments on their work as they would want.

In a similar vein, a case study of 38 university students and 1 teacher was conducted by Irwin (2018) in Japan. Questionnaires, students' essays and a teacher interview were employed to gather data. The finding revealed that learners did not want indirect feedback on their errors. However, "This preference resulted in a divergence between the students' expectations and teacher practice" as Irwin (2018) states. It should be noted that because of the limited sample in this study, it's difficult to draw broad conclusions regarding the impact and usefulness of written CF in a range of ESL or EFL scenarios.

Another study was carried out by Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) to investigate the possible (mis)matches between L2 learners' feedback preferences and teacher practices. The subjects in this case study were 9 EFL students and 3 teachers in Brazil. Although the findings of this study are similar to those of Cohen (1987) since students stated that their teachers mostly addressed grammar and mechanics in their feedback practices, the participants in Cohen and Cavalcanti's (1990) study reported that they expected their teachers to respond to errors on all aspects of writing. The research by Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) has certain drawbacks, such as the small number of subjects in a single-draft setting and the fact that these student participants had different lecturers from three separate universities.

Wan Mohd Yunus (2020) set out to examine: "(1) teacher's practices in marking students' English language compositions, (2) students' expectations of teacher's WCF,

and (3) compare whether students' expectations correspond to teachers' practices of WCF" (Wan Mohd Yunus, 2020, p.95). Overall, 64 learners and three teachers in a secondary school in Malaysia joined the research. According to the findings students enjoyed direct, unfocused feedback. The results indicated some inconsistencies between students' expectations and instructors' practices in writing courses vis-a-vis the scope and type of WCF. A majority of students expected more feedback than their teacher could provide.

A quick review of the most significant research on the relationship between students' WCF preferences and instructors' error treatment methods, as shown in the following table, demonstrates that teacher actions and student perceptions are occasionally out of sync. Such discrepancies can have a negative impact on the student's ability to achieve grammatical accuracy and the effectiveness of the teacher's WCF. As Ferris (2004) notes, to prevent discrepancies between student preferences regarding feedback and teacher practices, it is critical to explore student preferences in diverse settings because teachers should provide feedback that takes into account the particular needs and preferences of every student in various educational contexts. Bitchener and Knoch (2008) similarly claim that "motivation is more likely to be gained if teachers negotiate with students about how frequent the feedback will be given, about the type of feedback that will be given, and about what the students will be expected to do in response to feedback" (p. 210).

Table 5.
Summary of Research Investigating the Relationship between Students' WCF Preferences and Teachers' Actual WCF Practices

Researchers	Context and Participants	Major Findings
Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990)	9 EFL students and 3 teachers in Brazil	Learners' opinions and teachers' actual practices were usually aligned. They wanted unfocused, form-related feedback. Teachers' feedback practices differed in terms of the error types that they corrected.
Irwin (2017)	38 Japanese university students and 1 teacher	Although most of the students' WCF expectations were met by the instructor, there were disagreements on some points.
Lee (2004)	320 secondary school students and 206 teachers in Hong Kong	Teachers' practices and students' preferences were highly consistent. Students preferred direct, unfocused WCF.
Montgomery and Baker (2007)	13 teachers and 98 students (from various proficiency levels) at a U.S. university	Teachers' feedback practices matched students' preferences.
McMartin-Miller (2014)	3 teachers and 19 learners taking an ESL writing course at an American university	WCF techniques of the participating teachers were varied and flexible. Unfocused WCF was favoured by students.
Nemati et al. (2017)	311 students from three levels of language proficiency at several language institutions in Iran	Participants all preferred focused, direct input, yet they had differing opinions on whether their instructors' feedback procedures were satisfactory. Some discrepancies between teacher practices, and language learners' needs and preferences existed.
Saeli and Cheng (2019)	15 students in Iran	Students received overly grammar-centred WCF although learners wanted WCF on content and organization. Student preferences and teacher practices matched regarding several aspects of WCF.

In reviewing the extant research on L2 writing teachers' practices and students' preferences, it appears that there are not enough studies to paint a clearer picture of what learners expect from their teachers when they provide feedback on their written works.

Moreover, whether there are any incongruences between learners' preferences and teachers' actual classroom practices appears to be a question yet to be answered precisely. In other words, little is known about the extent to which students' preferences are reflected in their teachers' error treatment techniques due to the scarcity of investigations examining students' opinions and teachers' feedback practices, as can be inferred from the table above. Such research, which relies mostly on quantitative data, should be supported by further studies which employ various data collection techniques.

While it is important to examine the efficacy of WCF in eliminating learner errors, it is equally significant to examine teacher and student perspectives on this issue. The general assumption is that it is the teachers' responsibility to find the right method for offering WCF. On the other hand, CF is more effective when both teachers and learners have similar perceptions about feedback procedures. Despite the extensive research on WCF, there are insufficient studies comparing teachers' and students' perspectives pertaining to this pervasive practice (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Hamouda, 2011; Nanny & Black, 2017). Such studies make up the last group of research that investigate learners' opinions and preferences.

One of the most influential studies that aims to compare learners' preferences and teachers' beliefs vis-à-vis WCF is carried out by Amrhein & Nassaji (2010). In their mixed- methods study, the researchers collected data in the form of questionnaires. The subjects who were 33 ESL students and 31 teachers from Canada were questioned about their preferences regarding the type and amount of feedback that they favour as well as the reasons for their choices. Although there were several points on which teachers and students agreed, there were significant differences in their views about which feedback strategies were most effective and why they should be used. While learners favoured form-focused, direct WCF along with metalinguistic explanations, teachers preferred indirect feedback. In terms of the amount of WCF, an overwhelming majority of learners (93.9%) expected all their errors to be corrected; however, teachers believed that they should only rectify global errors that hinder communication. The students in the study preferred teacher-generated feedback, which corresponds with Lee (2008). When it comes to the reasons for their choices, students consistently stated that they would retain and learn from their mistakes better if teachers mark them explicitly. "The reasoning of the teachers, however, varied. Some teachers responded according to what they thought was useful for language learning, while some others seemed to base their responses on

what they thought students wanted" (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010, p.114). Although this study made noteworthy contributions to the field, it was limited by the fact that it was based on self-report data and had a small sample size.

In a large-scale exploratory study, Schulz (1996) employed questionnaires to 824 university students and 92 teachers in the USA in order to compare their beliefs and preferences regarding WCF. The results of this research bear witness to a generally positive attitude towards WCF by students. The outcomes of the study confirm other studies' (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Radecki & Swales, 1988) findings that students mostly prefer form-focused feedback. However, teachers disagreed with students about the importance of treating grammatical errors in writing.

Black and Nanni (2016) set out to compare learners' and teachers' WCF preferences in a Thai context. 262 students and 21 teachers in an EAP program at a university participated in the study. The proficiency levels of the student subjects ranged from intermediate to upper-intermediate. Two questionnaires were employed to the participants. The results demonstrated that instructors thought organization and content were more important than grammar and vocabulary, while students thought the opposite.

Another study with the same purpose of research was conducted by Hamouda (2011) at a university in Saudi Arabia. The researcher created a questionnaire with two versions (one for the students, and one for the teachers) to determine how students and teachers feel about and react to WCF. The data, which came from 200 first-year EFL students and 20 instructors, indicated that both instructors and learners agreed on the efficacy of WCF. Furthermore, they both held similar views on offering constructive criticism and using a red-coloured pen to mark errors. Concerning the time of feedback, both teachers and students favoured feedback that is provided in the various stages of writing, which indicates that both sides have positive attitudes about process writing. Nevertheless, some misalignments concerning the type and focus of feedback were noticed. Most students preferred direct, unfocused WCF. Unlike students, a majority of teachers favoured indirect, focused approach. In terms of feedback source, most students preferred their teacher as an agent, similar to the participants in Radecki and Swales' (1988) research. However, teachers appreciated peer-editing. Students expected the most comments on grammar and the least on content, yet instructors prioritized grammar and

content issues. Since an adapted version of Hamouda's (2011) questionnaire on students' WCF preferences is used in the current study, this research is of critical value.

Table 6.
Summary of Research Comparing Students' Preferences and Teachers' Beliefs Regarding WCF

Researchers	Context and Participants	Major Findings
Amrhein and Nassaji (2010)	33 ESL students and 31 teachers in Canada	In their opinions about the effectiveness of different types and amounts of feedback, teachers and learners both indicated similarities and differences.
Hamouda (2011)	200 first-year EFL students and 20 teachers in Saudi Arabia	While most students preferred direct, unfocused WCF, a majority of teachers favoured indirect, focused approach.
Black and Nanni (2016)	262 students and 21 teachers in an EAP program at a Thai university	Instructors thought feedback on organization and content was more valuable than feedback on grammar and vocabulary, while students preferred the opposite.
Schulz (1996)	824 students and 92 teachers at a university in the USA	Students mostly prefer form-focused feedback, unlike their teachers.

The findings of the studies pertaining to students' and teachers' WCF preferences as well as teachers' actual practices underline the positive attitudes of both sides towards written error correction as displayed in the table above. However, studying in diverse settings, most of the researchers found that students' and teachers' feedback preferences might not always match. Overall, a great majority of students prioritized direct, comprehensive form-focused WCF, while most teachers preferred indirect, selective, content-based WCF. Teachers' beliefs on WCF must be interpreted carefully, as their views about WCF and their actual practice may be incompatible. The misalignments between the two ends of the L2 writing education might lead to undesirable consequences. As a result, investigations into instructors' and students' perceptions and preferences regarding WCF in both ESL and EFL settings must continue to be conducted in order to increase the efficacy of CF in L2 writing classes. Therefore, the following part of this chapter aims to review the studies about learners' WCF preferences conducted in Turkish EFL context.

1.5.2. Research on Students' Preferences Regarding WCF in Turkish EFL Context

As previously indicated, feedback is a complex and versatile endeavour; thus, it has been the subject of significant attention both in the world and in Turkey, where the present research is carried out. In Turkish EFL context, as in other instructional settings, a large amount of attention has been paid to the relative effectiveness of various types and amounts of WCF; however, student perceptions and preferences of teachers' feedback practices still remain under-examined. It is worth noting that learning about students' preferences for feedback in writing classes might provide a mutual gain for instructors and students.

Among the few studies that have scrutinized L2 learners' perceptions and preferences of WCF in the Turkish setting, Enginarlar's (1993) research is one of the earliest and most prominent studies. By employing a questionnaire with open-ended questions to 47 freshman EFL learners at a state university in Turkey, the researcher hoped to gain insight into learners' opinions about instructors' written error treatment practices. The students who participated in the study reported positive attitudes towards teachers' feedback on their writings. They deemed WCF as a collaborative teaching and learning tool. In terms of feedback, like many other studies, this research found that students expressed a strong preference towards teacher feedback. Although this study is limited to a small sample size, it is one of the first examples of studies that reveals Turkish ELF learners' perceptions regarding WCF.

With the aim of examining students' preferences on various aspects of WCF, Kahraman and Yalvaç (2015) administered a questionnaire to 93 freshman students at a Turkish university. Data was triangulated via interviews. Respondents attached greater importance to feedback on grammatical errors than style and organization. Students highly preferred the use of red-pen when their errors are rectified. Additionally, students' opinions regarding WCF remained were found to be unaffected by gender differences. Overall, it was found that students valued teacher feedback.

In a comprehensive study, Seker and Dincer (2014) asked 457 university students to fill out a questionnaire and participate in a semi-structured interview. The

subjects reported a high preference for getting form-related WCF. In particular, the findings demonstrated that learners appreciated comprehensive feedback. This finding corroborates Kahraman and Yalvaç's (2015) results.

Geçkin (2020) surveyed the attitudes of 160 prep-class university students whose levels ranged from beginner to advanced. The researcher wanted to see if gender variations may explain learners' attitudes and preferences to WCF. Geçkin (2020) administered a questionnaire that was adapted from Ferris (1995) and Lee (2008). The results revealed that both groups gave higher credit to specific comments instead of general comments. For both male and female students, teacher was the favoured WCF providing agent. However, female participants appreciated coded feedback and expected more explicit content-based feedback on their preliminary drafts. For final drafts, they preferred feedback on vocabulary and grammar, unlike male students.

Contrary to the aforementioned studies, which examine Turkish EFL learners' preferences and attitudes regarding WCF in isolation, Atmaca (2016) performed a comparative study to investigate the perceptions of students and teachers. Employing a mixed-methods research design, the researcher sampled 34 teachers and 34 intermediate level learners at a Turkish university. According to the results, the preferences of both groups were somewhat aligned regarding the scope and type of feedback; however, there were some discrepancies in the results of the open-ended questions. Different viewpoints were held by students and instructors in comparison to their classmates or co-workers. While some teachers prioritized correcting serious errors which hinder meaning, others preferred rectifying all errors. The same situation is also valid for students. As a final suggestion, the researcher maintains that students are more likely to understand the significance of WCF when the teacher lets them know what kind of written feedback will be offered and what is expected from them as soon as writing instruction begins.

The study conducted by Bozkurt and Acar (2017) varies from existing WTC studies in Turkish EFL setting as far as the sample group is concerned. The research was carried out on 46 female secondary school students in Turkey. The goal of the study was to discover students' preferences for two forms of WCF (explicit and implicit). The feedback that the teacher offered on essays was explicit for half of the students and implicit for the other half. A questionnaire was used to gather data from students. The researchers found that both groups preferred explicit WCF, which could be attributed to

learners' having lower proficiency levels. These findings correspond to the outcomes of past research (e.g., Chandler, 2003). Both groups also acknowledged that indirect feedback was more beneficial although they preferred direct feedback. Despite its small sample size, this research is valuable in terms of being conducted on a different group of subjects.

Table 7.
Summary of Empirical Studies on Students' Preferences Regarding WCF in Turkey

Researchers	Context and Participants	Major Findings
Atmaca (2016)	34 EFL teachers and 34 intermediate-level EFL learners in a Turkish university	With regards to the scope and type of feedback, no major variations between teachers and students were determined; however, there are some discrepancies in the results of the open-ended questions in the questionnaires.
Bozkurt and Acar (2017)	46 seventh-grade female students at a vocational state school in Turkey	Students appreciated explicit WCF.
Çetinkaya and Kaya (2018)	46 students from a Turkish public university	They expected immediate WCF, especially on their language use.
Enginarlar (1993)	47 freshman students at a state university in Turkey	Students had a positive approach towards WCF, and they wanted teacher-led feedback.
Geçkin (2020)	160 prep-class university students in Turkey (levels ranging from beginner to advanced)	Female participants paid more attention to feedback on content on their early drafts than male ones.
Kahraman and Yalvaç (2015)	93 first-year students at a state university in Turkey	Students sought more grammar-focused feedback.
Seker and Dincer (2014)	457 students at a state university in Turkey	Students wished to get WCF on content and form as well as organization, which aligned well with what their teachers offered.
Üstünbaş and Çimen (2016)	120 low-level EFL students at a Turkish university	Correction with comments was found to be the most appreciated WCF type.

As the table above illustrates, studies on L2 learners' perceptions and preferences vis-à-vis WCF in Turkish EFL settings yielded mixed results, similar to the inconsistent outcomes of research on the differential effects of WCF types. To achieve consistent conclusions on this complex matter, more robust research is required. Considering the significance of aligning learners' and instructors' expectations for effective language acquisition and sound feedback practices, teachers should make an effort to learn about their students' perspectives and preferences about

educational modalities, particularly feedback treatment techniques. "When circumstances do not allow teachers to modify their classroom practices, they should explain their rationale to their students" (Hamouda, 2011, p.136).

Taking into account all of the above-mentioned research both in Turkey and throughout the world, it is possible to conclude that instructors' WCF is highly appreciated by L2 learners. Even Truscott (1999) admitted that ample research consistently demonstrates that learners demand WCF from their teachers. However, the attitudes and preferences of students regarding several aspects of feedback vary significantly. "Some students want praise, others see it as condescending; some want a response to their ideas, others demand to have all their errors marked; some use teacher commentary effectively, others ignore it altogether" (Hyland, 2019, p.180). Such findings may imply that instructor comments should be tailored to learners' individuals. Even though it could be hard for educators to meet all of these diverse requirements and expectations, having open communication with students, as well as recognizing the variables that impact learners' choices may be helpful. Therefore, the ensuing section addresses such individual differences.

1.6. The Role of Individual Differences in Second Language Learning

Success in learning a foreign language undoubtedly depends on many different factors. Among these factors are the duration and quality of exposure to the language, the length and intensity of language instruction, the choice of teaching methods, the textbooks and any other materials used, the dedication and idealism of the teacher, the skills emphasized, the environment in which instruction takes place, and the number and goals of the other students in the learning group with whom interaction takes place. Perhaps an even more dominant factor than all of these, however, is the individual differences among students. We cannot fully comprehend why people differ so much in their speed, skill and way of learning a second language unless we account for individual differences and the critical role they play in the process of SLA. As Dörnyei (2005) defines, "*individual differences* (IDs) are characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other" (p.1). The roots of ID research traced back to the late nineteenth century, with Charles Darwin's cousin, Sir Frances Galton, who is often regarded as the first to explore IDs experimentally (Dörnyei, 2005, pp.4-5). However, "the study of IDs has been a featured research area in L2 studies since the 1960s" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.6).

Research on IDs has received much interest in second language learning. After conducting several studies, which mostly depend on quantitative methods, researchers discovered that learning outcomes are affected by a myriad of individual learner characteristics. The dimensions of individual differences are generally classified as cognitive, affective, and personality-related (Gardner, 1985). However, various researchers categorize the aspects of IDs in different forms:

Table 8.
Types of Individual Differences by Some Researchers

Researcher	**Individual Differences Noted in Research**
Skehan (1989)	Cognitive and affective factors Language aptitude Language learning strategies Motivation
Larsen-Freeman (1991)	Age Cognitive Hemisphere specialization Learning strategies Other factors Personality Socio-psychological factors
Ellis (1999)	Affective State Age Aptitude Beliefs Learning Style Motivation Personality Factors
De Raad (2000)	Attitude Capacities Emotions Gender Height Ideology Interests Skills Socio-economic Status Value
Revelle (2000)	Cognitive ability Culture Emotional Reactivity Ethnic Interpersonal Styles Sex Society

Cooper (2002)	Ability Mood Motivation Personality
Dörnyei (2005)	Ability/Aptitude Anxiety Creativity Language Learning Strategies Learner Beliefs Learning Styles Motivation Personality Self-esteem Willingness to Communicate

Note. From "Understanding the effect of individual differences on second language acquisition: Focusing on personality," by S. Chen, 2020, Master's Projects and Capstones. 1128. pp. 14-16 https://repository.usfca.edu/capstone/1128

This confusion in the literature also manifests itself in studies that specifically address the issue of IDs. Cohen and Dörnyei (2002), for example, analyse individual differences under two main broad headings: learner characteristics that are beyond the teacher's control and learner characteristics that can be manipulated to maximize the learning outcomes. Age, gender, and aptitude are among the features that a teacher has no control over, but motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies appear to be controllable. Such studies tend to emphasize one or two individual differences, while the others are only mentioned briefly (e.g., Anderson, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz, 2001). Individual differences can account for success in the ultimate attainment of a foreign language and, in particular, writing abilities as explained by Kormos (2012):

> … individual differences might play a role in every stage of the writing process. Cognitive factors and motivational variables might have an influence on planning processes in terms of the complexity of ideas produced and the way they are organized. Individuals also differ in the efficiency with which they can translate ideas into linguistic form. Further variation among writers with regard to how they control execution and monitoring processes might also be observed. Finally, motivational and cognitive variables are also expected to affect how successfully students can orchestrate these writing processes. Individual difference factors can, as a result, have an effect on the quality of the final written product. (Kormos, 2012, p.392)

Sheen (2011) also emphasizes the importance of ID variables concerning WCF by stating that one explanation for the diversity of results in studies of instructors'

feedback is learners' factors. The researcher further posits that "individual difference (ID) variables-such as language aptitude, anxiety, and attitudes towards corrective feedback-influence learners' receptivity to error correction and thus the effectiveness of the feedback" (Sheen, 2011, p.129). The next part of this study will primarily focus on one of these variables that relate to individual differences: personality.

1.6.1. Personality

"Everybody has one, and yours will help determine the limits of success, happiness, and fulfilment in your life" (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). What is implied here by these researchers is *personality*, one of the most valuable assets a human being possesses. The concept of personality has been defined by several scholars. To illustrate, as stated by Pervin and John (2001), personality reflects an individual's characteristics which "account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving" (p. 4). According to Mayer's (2007) definition, personality is "a system of parts that is organized, develops and expressed in a person's actions" (p. 1). Allport (1937) also defined personality as "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems determining his unique adjustment for environment" (p. 48). A more comprehensive explanation of the term personality was made by Schultz and Schultz (2017), who also examined the origin of the word.

> Personality derives from the Latin word persona, which refers to a mask used by actors in a play. It is easy to see how persona came to refer to outward appearance, the public face we display to the people around us. Based on its derivation, then, we might conclude that personality refers to our external and visible characteristics, those aspects of us that other people can see. Our personality would then be defined in terms of the impression we make on others— that is, what we appear to be. (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.9)

1.6.2. Theories of Personality

As psychologist Lewin (1945) posits "nothing is as practical as a good theory" (p.129). A well-constructed theory facilitates a much greater level of simplicity and precision compared to knowledge that is incomplete or dispersed. Personality psychology, like all natural sciences, has organizing principles that serve as a foundation for new hypotheses and research. Psychology has been concerned with developing

systematic methods to describe human personalities since its inception. Type-based and trait-based theories represent two distinct approaches that attempt to explain personality. Although both theories are legitimate descriptive frameworks, confusing them and "treating a type theory as though it were a trait theory or a trait theory as though it were a type theory" may result in negative outcomes (Quenk, 1993, p.9).

1.6.2.1. Type-based Theories of Personality

Personality types are "those aspects of an individual's behaviour, attitudes, beliefs, thoughts, actions, and feelings which are seen as typical and distinctive of that person and recognized as such by that person and others" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 395). People of different personality types are usually considered to have qualitative distinctions, in simpler terms, "Type theories characterize people *qualitatively* according to certain distinctive categories. Where a polar opposite category exists, we don't expect a person to be appropriately described by both of the two opposite poles" (Quenk, 1993, p.10). For instance, a person can be either an introvert or an extrovert, but not both. According to type-based theories, human behaviour is not seen as a product of a person's personality type; instead, it is seen as an expression of a type.

Personality types are characterized by a variety of models, but Jung's (1927) Theory of Personality Types is by far the most well-known. The key takeaway of this model is that each individual uniquely perceives the outside world and gets energy from various channels, which distinguishes him or her from others. "Jung proposed eight psychological types, based on the interactions of the two attitudes and four functions" (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.102). The two contrasting *attitudes,* extraversion and introversion, shape the way a person perceives the external world. As opposed to introverts, who are typically timid and reserved individuals concentrating on themselves as well as their emotions, extroverts are outgoing and talkative. "As Jung came to recognize that there were different kinds of extraverts and introverts, he proposed additional distinctions among people based on what he called the psychological functions" (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.101). These *functions* are *sensing, intuiting, thinking,* and *feeling* (Jung, 1927). The first two pair of functions, sensing and intuition, is non-rational, which doesn't require reasoning, and the second pair, thinking and emotion, is rational, which includes judgments and assessments about our experiences (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.102). As explained by Jung et al., (1964), "*Sensation* (i.e.

sense perception) tells you that something exists; *thinking* tells you what it is; *feeling* tells you whether it is agreeable or not; and *intuition* tells you whence it comes from and where it is going" (p. 49). Eight distinct psychological types result from the interplay between the two attitudes and four functions. The figure below overviews Jungian personality types and their most common characteristics.

Extraverted thinking	Logical, objective, dogmatic
Extraverted feeling	Emotional, sensitive, sociable; more typical of women than men
Extraverted sensing	Outgoing, pleasure seeking, adaptable
Extraverted intuiting	Creative, able to motivate others, and to seize opportunities
Introverted thinking	More interested in ideas than in people
Introverted feeling	Reserved, undemonstrative, yet capable of deep emotion
Introverted sensing	Outwardly detached, expressing themselves in aesthetic pursuits
Introverted intuiting	Concerned with the unconscious more than everyday reality

Figure 7. Jung's Personality Types

Note. From Theories of personality (p.88) by D.P. Schultz & S.E. Schultz, 2017, Wadsworth Publishing.

Type-based theories have been heavily criticized since personality test scores are typically distributed on a bell curve rather than grouped into discrete groups. "Type-based instruments measure preferences expressed by people for one or other pole of a dichotomous pair, while trait-based instruments are used to establish the level of a particular characteristic possessed by people" (Carey & Barthelmeh, 2016, p.7). As Quenk (1993) notes, "unlike traits, type dimensions are not normally distributed in the population". Another distinction between personality types and traits is that type is "not normative; there is no 'normal' or 'best' score to obtain or type to be" (Quenk, 1993, p.10). "A popular current personality test, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), assigns test subjects to 1 of 16 categories based on three other dichotomies (sensation/intuition, thinking/feeling, and perception/judgment) in addition to Jung's introversion/extraversion distinction" (Ellis et al., 2009). Although widely used in personnel selection and personality development, the inventory has been criticized by several researchers for its low reliability and validity as well as narrow scope (Hunsley, et.al., 2004, p. 65). Despite the caveats, the test, which was developed by Isabel Myers and her mother Katharine Briggs in 1944, is commonly administered in L2 learning contexts. Dörnyei (2005) describes the instrument as follows:

> The MBTI requires people to make forced choices and decide on one pole of each of the four preferences. The permutation of the preferences yields sixteen possible combinations called "types", usually marked by the four initial letters of the preferences (because two components start with an 'I,' 'intuition' is marked with the letter 'N'); for example, Myers' own type preference was Introversion–Intuition–Feeling–Perceiving (INFP). (Dörnyei, 2005, p.20)

1.6.2.2. Trait-based Theories of Personality

Among various models that have been developed to describe personality, the trait-based approach can be regarded as the oldest hypothesis seeking to explain an individual's personality. Ancient Mesopotamian Epic of Gilgamesh "describes the "courage," "arrogance," and "stormy heart" of its hero, although it also depicts him as "wise, comely, and resolute." These are trait attributions, suggesting that Gilgamesh had distinctive qualities that reliably characterized him" (Costa & McCrae, 2006, p.96). Personality traits are the "patterns of behavior that characterize a person's response to the environment" (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989, p. 253). Traits are personality attributes that drive people to respond in a consistent and predictable way to diverse stimuli. They represent quantitative differences between human beings. McCrae and Costa (2003) point out that traits are the "dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions" (p. 25). The personality traits defined by various scholars share these common characteristics:

> "1. Traits are stable within a given individual.
> 2. Traits vary among individuals.
> 3. Traits can be measured.
> 4. Traits are responsible for closely related behaviors" (Ellis et al., 2009, p.220).

Unlike discrete type classifications, personality traits are characterized by continuous distributions, meaning that when psychologists talk about introverts and extraverts, they aren't referring to two entirely different personalities. Quenk (1993) notes that "personality traits, like other trait measures, tend to be normally distributed in the population" (p.9) and further explains the notion of traits by making an interesting analogy:

> Human characteristics like height, weight, age, and intelligence (IQ) are traits. Everyone has a height, weighs a certain amount, is a particular age, obtains a particular score on an IQ test. We merely differ in how much

> of a trait each of us has. If we measured height, weight, age, and IQ for a large number of people, we would find that few people or are very tall very short, very or heavy very light, very old or very young, very intelligent or very dull; average most people would be on these traits, obtaining some "middle" score on what is being measured. We can also describe peoples' personalities in terms of traits. We may say, "She is a very optimistic person;' or "He is quite domineering;' or "Most of the time he is rigid and anxious:' (Quenk, 1993, p.9)

The type-based theory has been critiqued as a static paradigm that fails to capture the complexity of human nature. In contrast, trait-based models are strongly endorsed by psychologists since "traits can be studied with a wide range of statistical techniques - all those methods based on the assumption of a normal distribution and continuous scores (means, standard deviations, etc.)" (Quenk, 1993, p.9). Most importantly, trait theory is the only paradigm that is grounded on and supported by empirical evidence. The following figure shows the differences between trait-based and type-based theories of human personality.

TRAIT THEORIES	TYPE THEORIES
Universals differing only in amount possessed.	Qualitatively distinct inborn preferences.
Involves measuring amounts.	Involves sorting into categories.
Normally distributed.	Bimodal/skewed distributions.
Extreme scores important for discrimination.	Midpoint separating categories important for discrimination.
Scores show amount of trait possessed.	Scores show confidence in the sorting procedures.
Behavior is *caused* by traits; a *reductive* approach.	Behavior is an *expression* of type; a *purposive* approach.
Too much or *too little* is often negative or diagnostic.	"Too much" or "too little" is irrelevant.

Figure 8. Differences between Type and Trait Theories of Personality

Note. From "Personality types or personality traits: What difference does it make," by N. L. Quenk, 1993, Bulletin of Psychological Type, 16(2), 9-13., p.12

Finding the basic traits on which all individuals vary was a difficulty that the trait paradigm faced. Dozens of new traits have been created by psychologists for several decades. Gordon Allport, an American psychologist, is often acknowledged as the originator of personality trait theories. Allport and Odbert's (1936) ground-breaking research on personality traits and their impact on behaviour emerged from his lexical examination of the English language. The researchers set out to list every single

personality-descriptor word in the English language by consulting a dictionary. At the outset of the project, they found about 18,000 words; however, after making some reductions, they ended up with 4500 words that describe human personality, and "by submitting these adjectives to factor analysis we might distill a smaller number of underlying personality dimensions or traits" (Sabet, et.al., 2018, p.14). Later, Allport (1937), who believed that traits are interrelated, and guide behaviours, arranged these traits under three major categories: "cardinal traits, central traits, and secondary traits" (Spielman et. al., 2021). These three categories are explained by Spielman et. al. (2021):

> A cardinal trait is one that dominates your entire personality, and hence your life—such as Ebenezer Scrooge's greed and Mother Theresa's altruism. Cardinal traits are not very common: Few people have personalities dominated by a single trait. Instead, our personalities typically are composed of multiple traits. Central traits are those that make up our personalities (such as loyal, kind, agreeable, friendly, sneaky, wild, and grouchy). Secondary traits are those that are not quite as obvious or as consistent as central traits. They are present under specific circumstances and include preferences and attitudes. For example, one person gets angry when people try to tickle him; another can only sleep on the left side of the bed; and yet another always orders her salad dressing on the side. And you—although not normally an anxious person—feel nervous before making a speech in front of your English class. (p.639)

Allport (1961) argued that because personality is such a complicated phenomenon, we must use a variety of credible approaches to assess it; accordingly, he named 11 primary methods as listed in the following figure.

Constitutional and physiological diagnosis
Cultural setting, membership, role
Personal documents and case studies
Self-appraisal
Conduct analysis
Ratings
Tests and scales
Projective techniques
Depth analysis
Expressive behavior
Synoptic procedures (combining information from several sources in a synopsis)

Figure 9. Allport's Suggested Methods for Assessing Personality

Note. From Theories of personality (p.289) by D.P. Schultz & S.E. Schultz, 2017, Wadsworth Publishing.

Allport's (1961) suggested methods for assessing personality (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.289) Despite its reputation as the pioneering approach to explaining personality from a trait-based perspective, Allport and Odbert's (1936) model has been criticized since it is hard to transform his notions into concrete phrases and processes that can be studied using the experimental design. As a result, his idea as a whole has sparked little research to evaluate its claim. His argument that the present and future shape one's personality more than the past is also challenged.

Another attempt to explain personality traits was made by Cattell (1957). Cattell (1957) trimmed Allport and Odbert's (1936) list of 4500 personality traits to 171 in order to make it easy to manage. He determined "16 factors or dimensions of personality: warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension" (Spielman et. al., 2021, p.639). Based on these factors, he created a questionnaire, *the Sixteen Personality Factors (16PF) Questionnaire.* Cattell's (1957) trait-oriented theory has been questioned on the grounds that it has too many dimensions. Furthermore, there are concerns regarding the construct validity of the scale.

Another theory, *the three-factor model*, for explaining personality from the trait perspective belongs to a couple who are both psychologists: Hans and Sybil Eysenck. This trait-based paradigm, which emphasizes the genetically inherited nature of

personality, rests on the notion that personality is largely determined by biology. Eysenck (1990) explains personality under three dichotomous dimensions listed as "E—Extraversion versus introversion, N—Neuroticism versus emotional stability, P—Psychoticism versus impulse control (or superego functioning)" (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.289). "Based on these two dimensions, the Eysencks' theory divides people into four quadrants. These quadrants are sometimes compared with the four temperaments described by the Greeks: melancholic, choleric, phlegmatic, and sanguine" (Spielman et. al., 2021, p. 641). Figure 10 below summarizes the traits which are related to the three factors of personality.

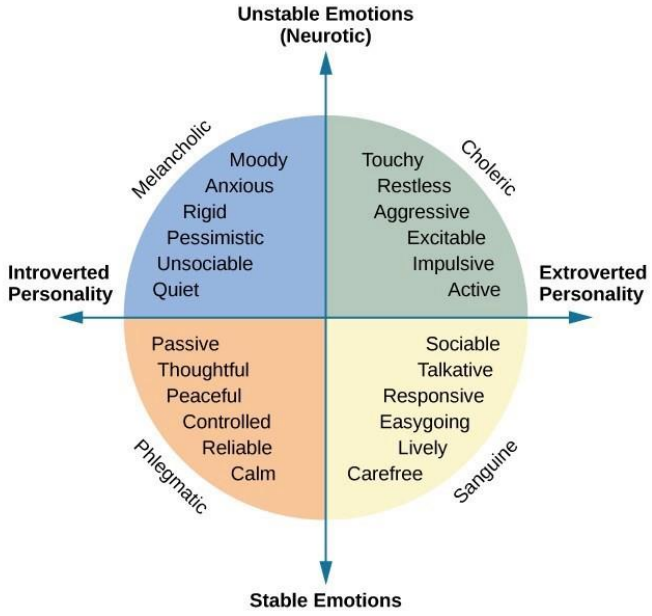

Figure 10. Eysenck's Personality Traits Model

Note. From Psychology (p.642) by R. Spielman, W. Jenkins, & M. Lovett, (2021), BCcampus.

"Eysenck developed questionnaires to measure his dimensions, such as the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI)" (Ellis et al., 2009, p.220)". Persons who score high on the *extroversion* dimension are friendly, talkative, and easily communicate with those around; however high scorers on *introversion* tend to like staying alone instead of connecting with others. As for the second dimension, *neuroticism* causes someone to become worried or annoyed easily, while those with high *stability* scores are able to control their emotions, manage stress, and remain calm under pressure. Higher levels of *psychoticism* are characterized by anger, inconsideration, impulsiveness and creativity. Scoring high on the *impulse control* dimension indicates that a person is empathetic, conventional and unselfish.

Some psychologists criticized Eysenck's three-factor model, claiming that it does not have sufficient dimensions. The instrument that was devised to assess personality under this model has been heavily criticized for being biased, incorrect, or relying on false data.

1.6.3. The Big Five Model of Personality Traits

The dissatisfaction voiced by various scholars regarding the number of personality dimensions in Cattell's (1957) and Eysenck's (1990) models has been resolved by the *Five-Factor Model (FFM),* which seems to find a middle ground. As stated by Funder (2001), it is today's most frequently recognized personality model, as well as the most precise estimate of the fundamental dimensions of personality. The idea behind this model, which is also known as *The Big Five Model of Personality (BF),* is derived from research undertaken by Allport and Odbert (1936) and Cattell (1957). The FFM was initially created by Tupes and Christal in 1961; however, Goldberg (1992) and McCrae and Costa (2003) were the major scholars who accomplished the ultimate breakthrough. In the 1970s, McCrae and Costa started a comprehensive study project that resulted in the identification of five broad factors, and they proposed the contemporary FFM, which explored personality through factor analysis. Actually, during those years, multiple independent research teams were also working on this model. All these researchers discovered five dimensions using various methodologies, but they provided each factor with distinct names and descriptions. In 1981, the most famous personality psychologists assembled in Honolulu for a conference to explore this personality framework. They reached a consensus that the FFM model was the most reliable model to explain personality. The five main dimensions or factors in the FFM are *openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism* (McCrae & Costa, 2003). The acronym OCEAN, created by John (1990), is a useful mnemonic to recall the names of these dimensions. A number of evaluation procedures, such as "self-ratings, objective tests, and observers' reports" were used to verify the five dimensions (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, p.292). The recurrent discovery of the same five dimensions across a variety of evaluation methodologies shows that these components can be used to identify personality traits. After evaluating the reliability of evidence suggesting that five basic elements represent the major components of human personality, Goldberg (1981) devised the name *Big Five*. The word *big* highlights the significance of these dimensions, while also underlining that each of these dimensions or factors comprises several related traits. In order words, each of the five biologically-based factors

acts as an umbrella term consisting of many facets. Facets give more detailed and specific information about an individual's personality. The correspondence between Eysenck's (1990) *Three-factor Model* and *the FFM* is evident. As Dörnyei (2005) indicates, "The Big Five construct retains Eysenck's first two dimensions but replaces psychoticism with three additional dimensions of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience" (p.13).

1.6.3.1. Openness to Experience

The first dimension, *openness to experience*, (also called *openness*) comprises "individual differences in imagination, sensitivity to aesthetics, depth of feeling, preference for novelty, cognitive flexibility, and social and political values" (Sutin, 2017, p. 83). People who score high on this dimension adopt an innovative lifestyle. They like learning new skills and information and have active imaginations. They are often curious, creative, and artistically inclined. Individuals who are on the other end of the spectrum are more traditional and reluctant to change. The figure below shows the facets of this dimension.

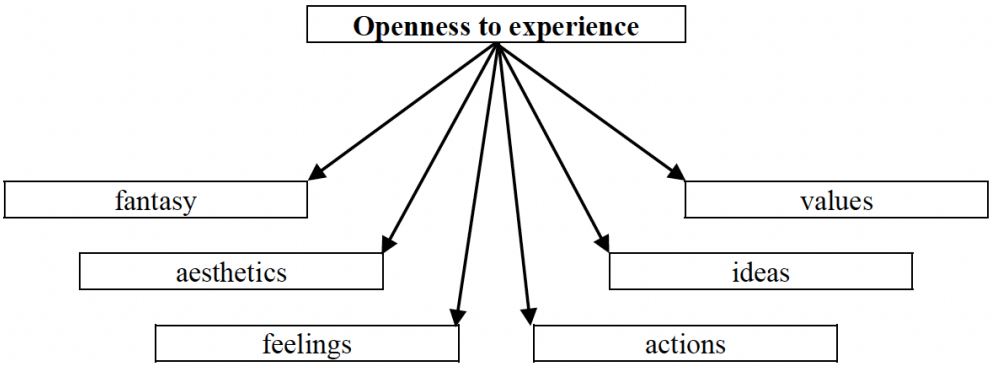

Figure 11. Facets in the Openness to Experience Dimension

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.59) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

1.6.3.2. Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is about how individuals control their impulses. Persons who score high on this dimension are success-oriented, reliable, punctual, organized and responsible, often displaying goal-directed behaviour. On the other hand, persons who

score low on this factor are lazy, careless, indecisive, and lack the responsibility to carry out their duties. The following figure illustrates the six facets of conscientiousness:

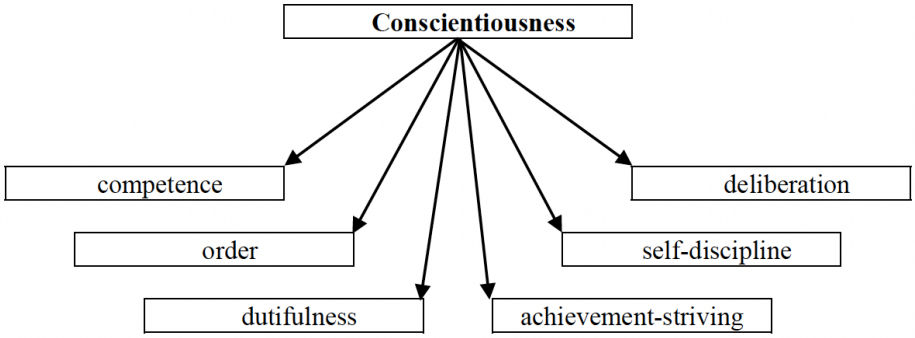

Figure 12. Facets in the Conscientiousness Dimension

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.80) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

1.6.3.3. Extraversion

Extraversion can be characterized by being outgoing, assertive, seeking excitement, and having positive emotions. Extroverted individuals are talkative and self-confident and like to engage in social activities. Introverted people; however, are those that exhibit quiet, reserved behaviours and do not like spending time with others. While higher levels of Extraversion are linked to more pleasant feelings, it may also have negative consequences, such as increased risk-taking and damage (DeYoung et al., 2012).

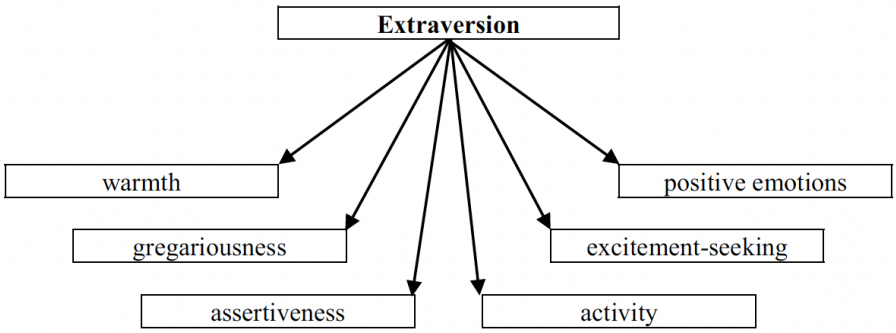

Figure 13. Facets in the Extraversion Dimension

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.49) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

1.6.3.4. Agreeableness

As Piechurska-Kuciel (2021) posits, “The trait of Agreeableness is connected with social harmony and cooperativeness” (p.68). High-scorers on the *agreeableness* trait tend to be good-natured, friendly, kind and dependable people, who get along well with others, whereas low-scorers are usually rude, uncooperative and irritable. “To some extent Agreeableness has been the ‘Cinderella’ trait of the Big Five, as it seems less related to many education, health, and work outcomes” (Furnham, 2017, p. 2). The facets of this domain are displayed in the figure below.

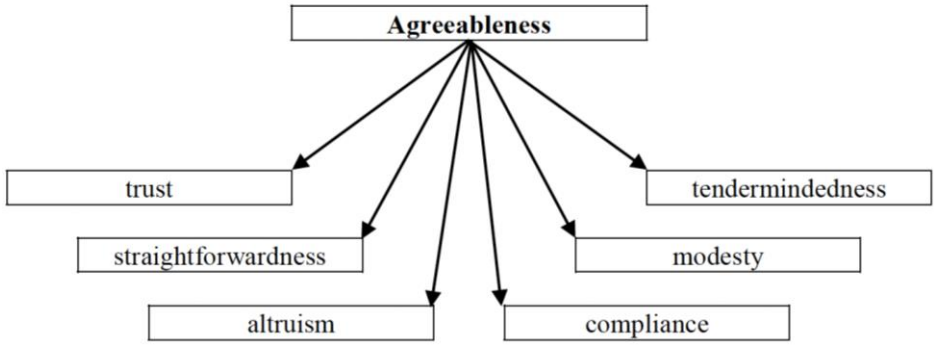

Figure 14. Facets in the Agreeableness Dimension

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.70) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

1.6.3.5. Neuroticism

The last personality factor is *neuroticism*, which is characterized by negative feelings. High-scorers on this dimension are worried, aggressive, and unstable people who are prone to emotional outbursts. “This is probably one of the most well-researched traits, whose long history can be traced back to Galen (the melancholic type) and Hippocrates (black bile)” (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, p.37). Those who score low on this trait have a high level of emotional balance. When faced with a negative situation, they remain calm, don’t exhibit impulsive behaviour and get angry quickly. Additionally, they have high self-esteem and experience positive emotions. The facets related to this dimension are illustrated by Figure 15:

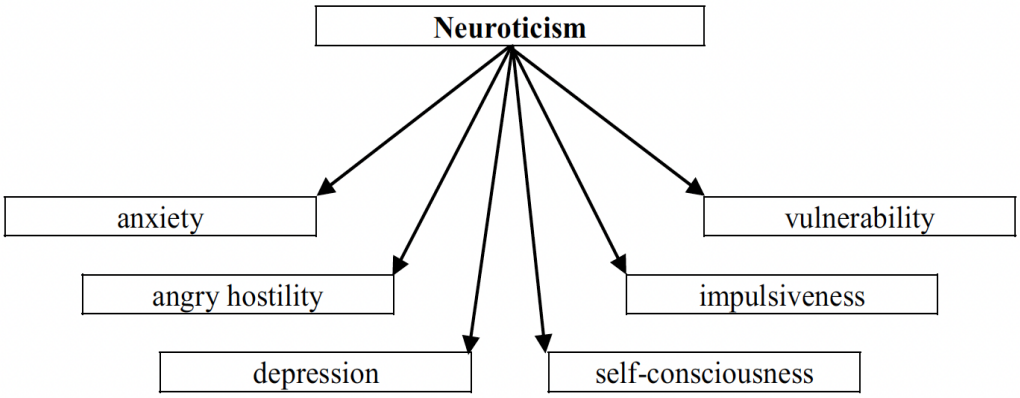

Figure 15. Facets in the Neuroticism Dimension

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.39) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

In the BF model, as mentioned above, each of the five domains or factors is characterized by six basic facets, each of which reflects its own domain (Costa & McCrae, 1995). Table 9 shows a full overview of the five dimensions together with their respective facets and two extreme poles.

Table 9.
The Five-Factor Model of Personality

Dimension	Facet	–	+
Neuroticism	Anxiety	Calm	Worrying
	Hostility	Even-tempered	Temperamental
	Depression	Self-satisfied	Self-pitying
	Self-consciousness	Comfortable	Self-conscious
	Impulsiveness	Emotional[a]	Unemotional[a]
	Vulnerability	Hardy	Vulnerable
Extraversion	Warmth	Reserved	Affectionate
	Gregariousness	Loner	Joiner
	Assertiveness	Quiet	Talkative
	Activity	Passive	Active
	Excitement-seeking	Sober	Fun-loving
	Positive emotions	Unfeeling	Passionate
Openness to experience	Fantasy	Down-to-earth	Imaginative
	Aesthetics	Uncreative	Creative
	Feelings	Conventional	Original
	Actions	Prefer routine	Prefer variety
	Ideas	Uncurious	Curious
	Values	Conservative	Liberal
Agreeableness	Trust	Ruthless	Soft-hearted
	Straightforwardness	Suspicious	Trusting
	Altruism	Stingy	Generous
	Compliance	Antagonistic	Acquiescent
	Modesty	Critical	Lenient
	Tendermindedness	Irritable	Good-natured
Conscientiousness	Competence	Negligent	Conscientious
	Order	Lazy	Hard-working
	Dutifulness	Disorganized	Well-organized
	Achievement-striving	Late	Punctual
	Self-discipline	Aimless	Ambitious
	Deliberation	Quitting	Persevering

Note. From Big five in SLA (p.30) by E. W. A. Piechurska-Kuciel, 2021, Springer Nature.

In order to assess personality using the BF model, certain tools were developed that have been utilized in numerous research investigations. Costa and McCrae (1978) devised a tool, “the NEO Personality Inventory, using an acronym derived from the initials of the first three factors” in which the BF model is used in a psychometrically suitable way (Schultz & Schultz, 2017, pp.292-293). Later, they developed three revised versions of this inventory; namely NEO PI, NEO PI-R, and NEO PI-3. These instruments are widely used all around the world; however, Widiger (1995) blasted the NEO arguing that one cannot trust that respondents would be sincere, especially in certain cases, such as staff selection, when it is beneficial for individuals to demonstrate themselves in a good way. Another instrument that aims to assess personality traits is

called the Big Five Inventory (BFI), which was constructed by John et al. in 1991. The present study employs the BFI to explore the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners. More detailed information will be provided about this instrument in the methodology chapter of this research. In the FFM, each individual has each facet although they are distributed along a spectrum from high to low.

The stability of these five factors over a lifetime is confirmed by empirical evidence. A 40-year study conducted with roughly 15,000 twins by Viken et. al., (1994) in Finland indicated a high level of stability in extraversion and neuroticism factors in both genders. This comprehensive five-factor taxonomy, which was discovered after decades of statistical analysis, is also thought to be consistent across contexts and cross-culturally relevant, "giving further evidence that personality traits may be universal psychobiological constructs" (Matthews et al., 2009, P.62). Ellis et al. (2009) state that "The five factors reappeared when questionnaires were translated into Hebrew (Montag & Levin, 1994), Chinese (McCrae et al., 1996), Korean (Piedmont & Chae, 1997), and Turkish (Somer & Goldberg, 1999) (p.240).

Although the dimensions in the FFM are comprehensive, some critics of the model argue that there are other fundamental ways individuals vary, such as spirituality. Some psychologists believe that it has certain methodological and theoretical flows despite the fact that the model has been hailed as a huge success in describing human personality (Jarmuz & Lach, 2007). The factor analysis method used for this model has been heavily attacked for its inadequacy (Block, 2001). Regardless of the objections levelled, the BF personality traits model appears to have a long future in the fields of psychology and research.

The BF model's dominance in scientific research is apparent. The present study is grounded on the BF personality trait model because of its strong theoretical basis in personality psychology and accurate measuring instruments. In order to reveal Turkish EFL learners' personality traits, the current study employs the instrument known as the BFI, which is based on this model. In the next section, the importance of personality in L2 learning will be discussed with reference to empirical research findings.

1.7. Personality and L2 Learning

It is almost certain that personality shapes human behaviour, so the question from a pedagogical standpoint is how much it influences learning. A large body of research have sought to determine the personality factors that predict academic success; however, they yielded inconsistent results (e.g., Ackerman, 1999; De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1996; Farsides & Woodfield, 2003). Some of these studies (e.g., Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2002; De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1996) found significant correlations between personality and academic performance. For instance, in two longitudinal studies, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003) found that students' success at university was closely related with their personality traits. On the other hand, some other studies (e.g., Farsides & Woodfield, 2003; Lounsbury et al., 2003) show that the correlation between personality characteristics and academic performance is frequently indirect, mediated by a multitude of factors. Likewise, neither Carrell et al. (1996) nor Ehrman and Oxford (1995) found any direct links between personality and pedagogical achievement. However, it should also be noted that, "Ability and motivation—the two ID variables that have been found to be responsible for most of the variance in students' academic performance—simply do not explain the whole picture, since personality factors act as powerful modifying variables" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 24).

Data collected from the several studies reveal that *openness to experience* along with *conscientiousness* are the two BF dimensions that are most strongly associated with learning (e.g., Blickle, 1996; Costa & McCrae, 1992). *Conscientiousness*, in particular, has consistently produced positive effects on learning outcomes (e.g., Busato et al., 2000; De Raad, 1996). In a similar vein, according to several researchers, academic performance and *agreeableness* are positively correlated (e.g., Farsides & Woodfield, 2003; Duckworth & Seligman, 2005). On the other hand, in a study conducted by Rolfhus and Ackerman (1999), as well as in some other previous research (e.g., Child, 1964; Savage, 1962), *extraversion* has been surprisingly shown to hinder academic success since extraverts prefer to socialize rather than study. As well as extraversion, *neuroticism* correlated negatively with academic success because of the anxiety aspect that it encompasses (e.g., Laidra et al., 2007). Learners who are neurotic seem to be more prone to experience anxiety issues, which has a negative influence on a variety of L2 learning attributes. The impact of the BF personality factors on linguistic anxiety were studied by

Šafranj and Zivlak (2019). The participants comprised of 296 learners. The results revealed that high amounts of Neuroticism significantly correlated linguistic anxiety.

Previous studies have indicated that personality is strongly linked to learning in general and to SLA specifically (e.g., Magdalena, 2015; Suliman, 2014). Although the BF model now dominates SLA research thanks to its ability to effectively merge all previous models, two other models are also employed in L2 studies; namely MBTI model which is based on Jung's (1927) theory of Personality Types, and Eysenck's (1990) Three-factor Personality Traits model. This model is also referred to as the PEN model, which signifies the initials of the three factors in the model. These three popular models are demonstrated in the following table in a detailed way.

Table 10.
Three Popular Personality Models Used in L2 Studies

	Eysenck PEN model	Myers-Briggs Personality Type model	Big Five model
Description		**Personality traits**	
Propensity to be calm or nervous under pressure; inclination towards embarrassment, pessimism, guilt, low self-esteem	Stability – Neuroticism		Emotional stability
Social interest, energized by social activities; inward interest, energized by solitary activities	Extraversion – Introversion	Extraversion – Introversion	Extraversion
Propensity to tolerance, aggression, Machiavellian behaviour; propensity to be logic, analytical and objective or to focus on values, warmth and relations	Psychoticism	Feeling – Thinking	Agreeableness
Orientation towards or away from goals, closure, plans, organization, norms		Perceiving – Judging	Conscientiousness
Holistic and meaning-driven vs. realistic and detail-driven perception of stimuli, interest in innovation, tolerance for ambiguity		Intuiting – Sensing	Openness to experience
Focus	Temperament	Cognitive style	Personality
Instrument manual	Eysenck and Eysenck (1964)	Myers and McCaulley (1985)	Costa and McCrae (1992)
SLA sample study	Dewaele (2002)	Moody (1988)	Verhoeven and Vermeer (2002)

Note. From Understanding second language acquisition (p.194) by L. Ortega, 2013, Routledge.

Extraversion is by far the most frequently studied dimension of personality in L2 research. This is not surprising given that this attribute is central to many personality theories. For example, Strong (1983) looked at the outcomes of 12 studies that examined extraversion and found that extraverted students outperformed in a majority of these studies that tested impromptu speech performance. In another review study, Dewaele and Furnham (1999) examined 30 studies and found that L1 and L2 fluency was generally higher among the extravert students than the introvert ones.

Among these studies, the research conducted by Verhoeven and Vermeer (2002) in the Netherlands is noteworthy for being the first study to employ the BF model in L2 research, to the best of our knowledge. Overall, 241 learners participated in the study, which sought to unearth the relationship between BF personality factors and communicative competence. The researchers utilized observation scales to explore the personality traits of the participants. Three competency types were measured: pragmatic, organizational and strategic competence. The results revealed that extraversion only correlated with strategic competence, while neuroticism and agreeableness exhibited no relationship with communicative competence. The only personality factor that had a significant relationship with all the competency types was openness to experience. As Dörnyei (2005) acknowledges, "These findings are interesting in themselves and they also indicate that if scholars include in their research paradigm a more elaborate conception of L2 proficiency than a global L2 proficiency measure, stronger and more meaningful relationships can be identified" (p.29).

A limited number of studies attempted to investigate the possible relationship between personality and writing ability or, WCF in particular. To illustrate, Layeghi (2011) looked into the connection between students' extroversion and introversion dimensions and their argumentative writing ability. The subjects, whose personality traits were found by employing Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), were 120 high-intermediate university students in Iran. The researcher discovered that introvert learners did better than extraverts. Similar findings were reached in another study conducted in the same setting, Iran. In a study performed by Jahanbazi (2007), it was discovered that introverted participants scored higher than the extrovert ones regarding the overall writing quality. In a more recent study, Boroujeni et al. (2015), who worked with 50 EFL university students, reached similar results. The reason for this tendency might be the traits that introverts possess and extrovert learners do not have, such as being careful, being able to concentrate in solitude, and coming up with more ideas when they work alone. Other studies looked into the impact of various personality types on L2 writing. Carrell (1995) discovered that learners' personality types influenced the grades their essays got, and teachers' types of personality also influenced their grading procedure. Contrasting results were achieved by a Hajimohammadi and Mukundan's (2011) study which sampled 120 pre-intermediate students. The results of this study, employing EPQ, revealed that the participants' progress in writing was

unaffected by their personality type. All in all, it can be concluded from these findings that extroverts seem to be skilled at speaking; however, they struggle to express themselves in writing.

Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between personality and SLA (e.g., Zafar & Meenakshi, 2012). While several personality qualities are thought to influence L2 learning, empirical research have yet to prove that all personality traits impact learning a second language. In light of the extant research, it is essential to implement instructional strategies that target personality impacts on L2 acquisition. There may be two goals for adjusting L2 learning in this regard. The first one is concerned with removing the negative impacts of personality qualities that inhibit L2 learning, whereas the second is concerned with fostering the personality dimensions that are beneficial to SLA. However, due to methodological issues, there appear to be contradictions in research studying the relationship between personality and L2 learning. These contradictions seem to be caused by a lack of methodological robustness in the design, sampling, and data analysis techniques (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2020). Besides, not many studies focus on the connection between personality dimensions and writing proficiency or learners' attitudes toward feedback provided in L2 writing classes. Indeed, there is a scarcity of empirical data on the correlation between personality factors and written feedback preferences of students. The current study intends to fill this void by investigating the potential relationship between EFL learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences, given the importance of various personality characteristics in L2 acquisition in general and writing skills specifically. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to review the empirical studies regarding this issue.

1.8. Empirical Studies into the Relationship Between EFL Learners' Personality Traits and Their WCF Preferences

The overwhelming majority of previous research on WCF (e.g., Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb et al., 1986) has concentrated on the efficacy of WCF in improving grammatical accuracy, an avenue of investigation which is undoubtedly worthwhile. Given the documented effectiveness of delivering WCF, the question is how to tailor feedback to be successful and suitable for the individual learner. Since the efficiency of feedback is mediated by a number of learner variables, it is critical to address learners' unique peculiarities, such as personalities and

preferences while adopting student-centred instruction. Although some studies on WCF in connection to IDs have yielded useful results (e.g., Goldstein, 2006; Rahimi, 2015), there is currently a dearth of this kind of empirical research in the field. Individual differences influence students' uptake and reactions to WCF; therefore, it's vital to investigate what students prefer and how they interpret and use instructor feedback in view of their personality traits. Nevertheless, as a significant learner variable, personality has not received the attention it deserved in the field of SLA in general and L2 writing in particular compared to other IDs such as motivation. A review of pertinent literature has revealed that there seems to be only one study that attempted to explore the relationship between students' personalities and their WCF preferences, to our best knowledge.

One study that aimed to reveal the relationship between personality traits and error correction preferences of EFL learners and instructors was conducted by Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014) in Iran. Data were collected from 41 EFL students who study at high school and university and 9 instructors by using the 60-item NEO-Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) and two WCF preference questionnaires. The feedback preference questionnaires were employed to reveal the preferences of both students and teachers regarding the focus, type and source of WCF. This quantitative research found no significant correlation between student and teacher participants' WCF preferences and their personality traits. The results also demonstrated that both subject groups prioritized grammar errors to be corrected. As for the feedback type, they both agreed on metalinguistic feedback with explanations. Regarding the feedback providing agent, teachers preferred their students to make self-correction, while students preferred teacher-led feedback. This study is valuable in that it scrutinized an aspect of WCF, which was rarely studied before; however, its findings cannot be generalized to other contexts due to the small sample size.

To put it bluntly, the question of whether there is a significant relationship between global BF personality traits of EFL learners and their WCF preferences is yet to be answered. The aforementioned study in this domain suffers from small sample size and narrow scope, and it is conducted in a different setting than the present study. Although some prior studies tried to shed light on the relationship between different personality types or traits and students' responses to various WCF types in leading to the L2 grammatical accuracy and writing progress (e.g., Abdi & Darabad, 2012; Hajimohammadi & Mukundan, 2011; Banaruee et. al., 2017), not many researchers were

interested in revealing the relationship between EFL learners' personality traits and their preferences for various aspects of WCF. Thus, the present study aims to make valuable contributions to the field with its broad scope.

By providing an overview of the complicated essence of L2 writing as well as the research that has evaluated the effectiveness of WCF, this literature review has indicated that an overwhelming majority of L2 writing research has employed a quasi-experimental design to investigate the efficacy of various WCF types on the accuracy of student writing. These studies are intriguing; however, they do not reflect students' opinions and preferences regarding WCF. According to the literature review, it seems fair to say that research "that is primarily descriptive and relies on people's words as the primary data" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 11) might provide useful information to L2 writing teachers. On the other hand, as an individual learner variable, personality traits might have an impact on L2 learners' opinions and preferences pertaining to their teachers' feedback practices. In summary, this literature review backs up the study's objectives and methodology. It aims to address the gap in the literature by surveying the students about their preferences regarding the feedback they receive on their writings as well as correlating their personality traits with their WCF preferences.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

2.1. Overview

This chapter is devoted to explaining the overall methodological design that is employed in the present study. The chapter commences with a description of the research design of the study. After introducing the study setting, participants, instruments, and data collection procedures, the data analysis procedures are presented.

2.2. Research Design

The present study aims to delve into the relationship between Turkish EFL students' personality traits and their WCF preferences. In line with this purpose and to respond to the aforementioned research questions, this study employed the quantitative approach. Informed by the positivist paradigm and deductive logic, "*Quantitative research* is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p.52). After determining the purpose and the research questions of the study, reviewing the available sources, as well as considering the target audience for the study, the researcher opted for the non-experimental quantitative approach as it was tightly aligned with the aims and the nature of the research problem.

In the current study, quantitative data were collected using a survey design. Creswell and Creswell (2018) state that "A survey design provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, and opinions of a population, or tests for associations among variables of a population, by studying a sample of that population" (p. 245). Among the methods of inquiry associated with quantitative research, cross-sectional survey design offers the advantage of the rapid collection of data. Because of the time constraints, it was not possible to adopt qualitative or mixed-method research designs. As Babbie (2001) maintains, survey design is an ideal method of collecting data for a population that is too large to be tested directly although it fails to uncover underlying

causes and explanations. It also has the benefit of being highly representative of the whole population and having a minimal cost when compared to other options.

2.3. Setting

The present study was conducted at the School of Foreign Languages along with the English Language Teaching, English Language and Literature, Translation and Interpreting and American Culture and Literature departments of Ataturk University in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. Located in the east of Turkey, Ataturk University, which was founded in 1957, is among the most well-known and oldest state universities in the country. The criterion for choosing this setting was based on the fact that the researcher works as a full-time instructor at Ataturk University, School of Foreign Languages, and this study was performed in a context where intensive Writing courses are offered at the aforementioned English major departments.

Students are admitted to these departments based on their scores on the Higher Education Institutions Examination, which is administered by the Centre for Assessment, Selection, and Placement. Except for the School of Foreign Languages which offers a one-year preparatory program, these departments offer four-year undergraduate programs for students who must pass an English proficiency test before they can be exempt from the preparatory year. Administered at the outset of the academic year, this exemption exam, which is an integrated skills examination, is used to assess students' English proficiency. Those who fail the test must enrol in a one-year preparation class. Alternatively, students should provide documentation of their standardized test scores on national or international English exams in lieu of taking the exemption exam.

2.4. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 371 students in total. The respondents ranged in age from 18 to 36 years old and were enrolled in four distinct departments at Ataturk University, namely American Culture and Literature, English Language and Literature, English Language Teaching and Translation and Interpreting. The rationale behind choosing this particular setting and subjects is based on the fact that the researcher herself works as a full-time lecturer at this university and has ease of access to the participants in the study. That is why *convenience sampling* as a type of nonprobability

sampling method was used in the quantitative data collection procedure. The following table presents the demographic information of the participants in more detail.

Table 11.

Demographic Information about the Participants

Variables		(F) Frequency	% Percent
Gender	Female	254	68.5
	Male	117	31.5
Nationality	Turkish	371	100.0
Department	American Culture and Literature	32	8.6
	English Language and Literature	133	35.8
	English Language Teaching	106	28.6
	Translation and Interpreting	100	27.0
Grade	Preparatory Class	199	53.6
	Freshman	172	46.4
Perceived Level	A1	3	.8
of English	A2	3	.8
Proficiency	B1	92	24.8
	B2	241	65.0
	C1	29	7.8
	C2	3	.8
	Total	371	100.0

The demographic data related to the participants of this study is presented in order to understand the composition and representativeness of the sample and contextualize the findings of the study. As Table 11 shows, among the 371 subjects, all of whom were Turkish EFL learners, 254 of them were female and 117 of them were male. While 199 of them were attending the preparatory class, 172 of them were first graders. The reason for choosing only these two grades as the sample of the study is that Writing courses at Ataturk university are only taught in these grades of the aforementioned departments. First graders take the Writing course for two hours per week, whereas students in preparatory classes have it for four hours per week. The subjects' perceived level of English proficiency varied from A1 to C2; however, a large number of the participants, (n=241), perceived themselves as B2 (intermediate) level students.

2.5. Data Collection Instruments

This study aims to elucidate the relationship between EFL students' personality traits and their WCF preferences. To this end, a thorough review of past research exploring the personality traits and WCF preferences of EFL students was undertaken before selecting the data collection tools. Three data collection instruments were employed to collect the quantitative data and to address the research questions: *Demographic Information Form, The Big Five Inventory (BFI)* and *Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire*. The necessary permissions were granted by the researcher to use these instruments. Five experienced writing instructors who work at the School of Foreign Languages at Ataturk University were provided copies of the data collection tools and research questions of the present study to ensure validity. These experts thoroughly examined the research questions and the instruments, which are described in detail below, to confirm the instruments' suitability and adequacy.

2.5.1. Demographic Information Form

At the outset of the data collection process, the students were requested to fill out a Demographic Information Form (see Appendix C) which was developed by the researcher. The form included questions related to the subjects' gender, age, nationality, department, grade and perceived level of English proficiency.

2.5.2. The Big Five Inventory (BFI)

The Big Five Inventory (see Appendix D), which was developed by John et al. (1991), measures the big five personality traits, *namely openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness,* and *neuroticism* by using short phrases. The items in the BFI "retain the advantages of adjectival items (brevity and simplicity) while avoiding some of their pitfalls (ambiguous or multiple meanings and salient desirability)" (John et al., 2008, p. 130). This short inventory, which consists of 44 items, provides a quick and accurate assessment of the five dimensions of personality. As Burisch (1984) asserts "Short scales not only save testing time, but also avoid subject boredom and fatigue. . . . There are subjects . . . from whom you won't get any response if the test looks too long" (p. 219). Each BFI item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Disagree strongly) to 5 (Agree strongly), and 16 out of 44 items in the scale are reverse-

coded; R denotes the reverse-scored items. The scale scores are calculated by averaging the items below for each trait, and higher scores indicate higher levels of each subscale:

Extraversion (8 items)	: 1, 6R 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36;
Agreeableness (9 items)	: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42;
Conscientiousness (9 items)	: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R;
Neuroticism (8 items)	: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39;
Openness (10 items)	: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44. (John et al., 2008, p.70)

The scale has been translated into several languages and used in different cultures with great success. In a study conducted by Schmitt et al. (2007) in 56 countries, the researchers confirmed that the BFI, which has been translated into different languages, is a reliable measurement tool that can be applied in different cultures. For the present study, the original English version of the BFI was utilized in order to measure the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners. For the scale, John et al., (1991) reported these Cronbach Alpha reliability values: .81 for Openness to Experience, .82 for Conscientiousness, .88 for Extraversion, .79 for Agreeableness, and .84 for Neuroticism subscale. Also, in the aforementioned study conducted by Schmitt et al. (2007), the reliability ratings were found to vary between .70 and .79. Accordingly, it can be said that the scale is a reliable data collection tool. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value for the whole BFI scale was found to be .74. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency was calculated for the subscales, as well. The reliability analysis indicated that Cronbach's alpha was .88 for Extraversion, .70 for Agreeableness, .81 for Conscientiousness, .82 for Neuroticism and .78 for Openness to Experience subscale. Regarding a value of .70 and above as the baseline for a reliable instrument, the BFI proved to have a satisfactory degree of reliability (Cronbach, 1951). Table 12 and Table 13 show the results of the analysis of the internal consistency of the BFI and its subscales respectively.

Table 12.
Reliability Statistics for the BFI

	Cronbach's *α*	N of items
Big Five Inventory	.74	44

Table 13.
Reliability Statistics for the BFI Subscales

	Cronbach's α	N of items
Extraversion	.88	8
Agreeableness	.70	9
Conscientiousness	.81	9
Neuroticism	.82	8
Openness to experience	.78	10

2.5.3. Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire

In the current study, to collect data regarding Turkish EFL learners' WCF preferences, Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire (see Appendix E), which was adapted from Hamouda (2011) was employed. The English version of this questionnaire was utilized in this research, and it was not translated into the Turkish language because the items were simple enough for even students with little English ability to understand. Questionnaires are typically used when gathering data from large groups of people in a relatively short amount of time. As McMillan and Schumacher (2014) stated, "A questionnaire is relatively economical, has the same questions for all subjects, and can ensure anonymity. Questionnaires can use statements or questions, but in all cases, the subject is responding to something written for specific purposes" (p.211). Although this questionnaire consists of only 12 items, it is highly comprehensive as it aims to ask students' WCF preferences regarding the colour of pen used while receiving feedback (item 1), as well as the type (items 4, 5, 6), source (items 2, 12), scope (item 3) and focus of WCF (items 7,8,9,10). It also aims to unveil learners' perceived impact of WCF on subsequent writings (item 11). The respondents were not allowed to choose more than one option for each question.

2.6. Data Collection Procedure

All required ethical and legal applications were completed prior to starting the data collection procedure, and permissions were granted from the relevant departments (see Appendix A). The respondents were assured that their participation was entirely voluntary and that all the information they provided would remain confidential and be used for academic research purposes (see Appendix B). The goal of the study was briefly presented, and subjects were required to respond to the questions honestly and accurately. The aforementioned instruments were completed by the participants in class with the researcher present. The data collection process is summarized in the table below.

Table 14.
Data Collection Procedure

Stages	Instruments	How to Apply
Stage 1	Consent form	Via a link to Google Forms
Stage 2	Demographic Information Form (Six questions)	Via a link to Google Forms
Stage 3	The Big Five Inventory (BFI) (44 items)	
Stage 4	Students' Written Corrective Feedback	Via a link to Google Forms
	Preferences Questionnaire (12 items)	Via a link to Google Forms

It took about ten minutes for the respondents to complete all the instruments, and gathering all the data lasted approximately one week. Data were obtained during the first week of April 2022. Data collection took place in the spring semester to ensure that the participants would be proficient enough in writing sentences, paragraphs or essays in their writing classes and receive WCF from what they wrote.

2.7. Data Analysis

Data entry accuracy and missing values were examined prior to data analysis. No missing values were detected in the database since it was not possible for respondents to skip information in the online system. Analyses were carried out in The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 26) program. The first step of the data analysis was to present descriptive statistics (number, percentage, mean, median, standard deviation, minimum and maximum) to prescribe and comprehend the characteristics of the sample. Thereafter, the reliability of the scale used in the research was checked with the reliability test. Research Questions 1 and 2 were addressed using frequencies and descriptive statistics. For Research Questions 3 and 4, the Pearson Chi-square test and Fisher's Exact

test were performed in order to examine the relationship between the variables. In other words, categorical data were analysed with these two tests. Fisher's Exact test was run when the assumptions of the Chi-square test were not met. To conduct the Chi-square analysis, participants were divided into two categories (high and low) for each of the five personality factors based on their BFI scores. This artificial categorization is made by utilizing a median split. Using median splits is a common practice to turn continuous variables "into dichotomous variables (that is, categorical variables with two groups). This is done by putting all cases that are below the median into a "low" group and all cases that are above the median into a "high" group" (DeCoster et al., 2011, p.199). As suggested by Farrington and Loeber (2000), this practice has some potential benefits such as making results more comprehensible and interpretable. In their study that aims to investigate the association between learners' personality traits and their preferences for game elements, Denden et al. (2018) also utilized artificial categorization for the personality trait variable. Overall, this chapter provided extensive information regarding the research design, setting, participants, the tools that were used to gather pertinent data, data collecting, and data analysis techniques.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Overview

The findings of the quantitative data obtained from the research sample are presented in this chapter. The chapter, which is organized in the same order as the research questions, commences by presenting the descriptive results and ends with the documentation of the inferential statistical results.

3.2. Descriptive Results

This section of the study documents the descriptive data on the participants' WCF preferences and their personality traits respectively. One of the ultimate goals of this research is to identify Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences for WCF under the sub-dimensions of *the colour of the pen used when providing WCF, the source of WCF, the scope of WCF, the types of WCF, the focus of WCF and the perceived impact of WCF*. Students' Feedback Preferences Questionnaire, which represents learners' opinions and preferences for WCF, was used to address Research Question 1. Table 15 demonstrates the descriptive results regarding the participants' preferences for WCF.

Table 15.
Descriptive Results Related to the Participants' WCF Preferences

Characteristic	N = 371[1]
Gender	
Female	254 (68%)
Male	117 (32%)
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	
green pen.	64 (17%)
pencil.	21 (5.7%)
red pen.	286 (77%)
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	
My classmates	3 (0.8%)
Self-correction	28 (7.5%)
The teacher	340 (92%)
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	
all the errors.	349 (94%)
some errors.	22 (5.9%)
4. I prefer the teacher	
marks the errors and I correct them.	185 (50%)
tells me the right answer.	186 (50%)
5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words	138 (37%)
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay	207 (56%)
Use a correction code	18 (4.9%)
Write questions	8 (2.2%)
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	
General comments	82 (22%)
Negative comments	8 (2.2%)
Positive comments	13 (3.5%)
Specific and detailed comments	268 (72%)
7. The most important thing in an essay is	
content.	183 (49%)
grammar.	52 (14%)
organization.	111 (30%)
vocabulary.	25 (6.7%)
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	
errors on organization of ideas.	152 (41%)
grammar errors.	133 (36%)
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).	23 (6.2%)
spelling errors.	34 (9.2%)
vocabulary errors.	29 (7.8%)
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	
Yes	263 (71%)
No	108 (29%)
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	
Correct all errors	184 (50%)
Correct all repeated errors	55 (15%)
Correct errors affecting understanding	54 (15%)
Correct only serious errors	78 (21%)
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	
Yes	70 (19%)
No	301 (81%)
12. Which statement do you agree on?	
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.	95 (26%)
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.	276 (74%)

The descriptive data for the participants' preferences for WCF are shown in Table 15. In order to reach the research objectives and answer the research questions of the present study, 371 Turkish EFL students were recruited for this research. The sample consisted of 254 (68%) female and 117 (32%) male respondents. As seen in Table 15, the most preferred colour of the pen when providing WCF was "*red pen"* (77%), while the least preferred alternative was "*pencil"* (5.7%). The results show that 64 (17%) of the 371 participants indicated that they preferred "*green pen"*. This means that a majority of the students wanted their teachers to use a red pen while rectifying their errors.

The responses of students for Question 2 in the questionnaire indicate that they mostly preferred "*The teacher"* (92%) to correct their errors. The number of the respondents who chose "*Self-correction"* was 28 (7.5%), whereas the number of the students who selected "*My classmates"* as the feedback providing agent was only 3 (0.8%). Similarly, for Question 12, 276 (74%) students agreed with the statement that "*The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students'* errors". According to the table, 95 (26%) students agreed with the statement that "*The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.*" The results indicated that the participants trusted their teachers most as the feedback providing agent.

Question 3 was related to learners' preferences regarding the scope of feedback which refers to the amount of feedback that teachers provide to student writings. The number of respondents who chose the teacher to highlight *"all the errors"* was found to be 349 (94%). Only 22 (5.9%) students selected the alternative *"some errors"* to be highlighted by the teacher. This data revealed that an overwhelming majority of the respondents prefer comprehensive WCF.

In the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire, Questions 4, 5, and 6 aimed to examine learners' preferred WCF strategies or types. For Question 4, which attempted to reveal learners' preferences regarding the explicitness of WCF, half of the sample (50%) selected the teacher *"marks the errors and I correct them"* alternative, which refers to indirect WCF and half of them (50%) selected the teacher *"tells me the right answer"* option, which means direct WCF. What is surprising here is that the participants exhibited a balanced preference regarding the explicit and implicit feedback types. For Question 5, most of the participants (56%) opted for metalinguistic feedback with explanations which was addressed by the second option, whereas only 18 (4.9%) students chose the metalinguistic feedback with codes option, to which the third option referred. Table 15 also reveals the responses of the students regarding the type of comments they would like

to receive for their writings, which is asked in Question 6. The most selected option was found to be *"Specific and detailed comments"* with 72%. A very small proportion of them (2.2%) chose *"Negative comments"* while receiving WCF, as expected.

Table 15 also presents the results related to participants' preferences for the focus of WCF (types of errors to be corrected), which was asked by Questions 7, 8, 9 and 10. For Question 7, nearly half of the participants (49%) selected *"content"* as the most important thing in an essay. *"Organization"* was found to be the second most selected option (30%), which was followed by *"grammar"* (14%) and *"vocabulary"* (6.7%). For Question 8, which asked what the teacher should point out in their essays, 152 (41%) students opted for the option *"errors on organization of ideas"*. The *"Punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.)"* option was selected by 23 (6.2%) students, which made it the least preferred error type to be corrected. For Question 9, which asked *"If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?"*, a majority of respondents (71%) opted for the *"Yes"* option, which refers to local errors, while 108 (29%) students selected the *"No"* option that indicates a preference for global errors. Question 10 asked learners what they would like their teacher to do if there were many errors in their essays. The findings which are given in Table 15 show that *"Correct all errors"* was the most popular alternative with 184 (50%), which indicated that the participants expect all their errors to be corrected regardless of seriousness.

Finally, Question 11 asked students whether they thought that they would repeat the same errors once they were corrected. This question aimed to reveal learners' opinions about the impact of WCF on their subsequent writings. The option *"No"* was chosen by 301 (81%) respondents. *"Yes"* was selected by 70 (19%) students who participated in the study. This means that most of the students believe in the effectiveness of WCF.

The BFI, which was developed by John et al. (1991), was used to measure the big five personality traits of the Turkish EFL learners in this study. Since personality trait is a continuous variable, it was required to convert it to a categorical variable in order to examine its association with students' WCF preferences, which is a categorical variable. To this end, participants were sorted into two categories (high and low) for each of the five personality factors based on their BFI scores to perform the Chi-square analysis later to answer Research Questions 3 and 4. A median split is used to create this artificial categorisation. "Dividing a sample into two groups based on whether each score on a continuous predictor variable is above or below the median prior to conducting analyses is referred to as a median split" (Iacobucci et al., 2015, p.652). Table 16 displays the

descriptive results related to the participants' personality trait levels in light of Research Question 2 which aimed to reveal participants' levels of personality dimensions.

Table 16.
Descriptive Statistics for Learners' Personality Trait Levels

Characteristic	N = 371[1]
Extraversion	
High	200 (54%)
Low	171 (46%)
Agreeableness	
High	179 (48%)
Low	192 (52%)
Conscientiousness	
High	201 (54%)
Low	170 (46%)
Neuroticism	
High	211 (57%)
Low	160 (43%)
Openness to Experience	
High	186 (50%)
Low	185 (50%)

Results for the participants' personality trait levels are presented in Table 16. As the table reveals, students' scores from the BFI demonstrate that high scorers (n = 200) and low scorers (n = 171) in the *"Extraversion"* group were found to be almost the same number as high scorers (n = 201) and low scorers (n = 170) in the *"Conscientiousness"* group. In the *"Openness to Experience"* group, high scoring learners were 186 (50%), while low scoring participants were half of the sample (50%), as well. *"Neuroticism"* group was found to have 211 (57%) high-scoring students and

160 (43%) low-scoring participants. Of the 371 respondents, 179 (48%) learners scored high in the "*Agreeableness*" trait, and 192 (52%) students scored low.

For the purpose of summarizing the data for the personality trait variable, measures of central tendency were calculated. In addition, dispersion measures were computed to better explain the variability of the scores for the five personality factors. The means, standard deviations, medians, interquartile ranges and ranges for the five personality domains are demonstrated in Table 17 in order to address Research Question 2.

Table 17.
Means, Standard Deviations, Medians, Interquartile Ranges and Ranges Related to the Participants' Personality Traits

Characteristic	N = 371
Extraversion	
Mean (SD)	3.12 (0.91)
Median (IQR)	3.12 (2.50, 3.75)
Range	1.00, 5.00
Agreeableness	
Mean (SD)	3.53 (0.62)
Median (IQR)	3.67 (3.11, 4.00)
Range	1.33, 4.78
Conscientiousness	
Mean (SD)	3.34 (0.73)
Median (IQR)	3.33 (2.78, 3.89)
Range	1.11, 5.00
Neuroticism	
Mean (SD)	3.25 (0.88)
Median (IQR)	3.25 (2.62, 3.88)
Range	1.25, 5.00
Openness to Experience	
Mean (SD)	3.69 (0.64)
Median (IQR)	3.70 (3.20, 4.20)
Range	1.90, 5.00

As shown in Table 17 above, *"Openness to Experience"* had the highest mean value (M = 3.69) among the five domains with a standard deviation of 0.64 and a range from 1.90 to 5.00, which was followed by *"Agreeableness"* which had a mean of 3.53 (SD = 0.62). Whereas 3.34 was the mean of the *"Conscientiousness"* trait with a standard deviation of 0.73, the *"Neuroticism"* trait showed a mean of 3.25 (*SD* = 0.88). The *"Extraversion"* dimension was found to have a mean score of 3.12 (*SD* = 0.91). The scores ranged from 1.33 to 4.78 for the *"Agreeableness"* trait, while they ranged from

1.25 to 5.00 for *"Neuroticism".* For *"Conscientiousness"*, participants' scores ranged from 1.11 to 5.00, and for the *"Extraversion"* trait, they ranged from 1.00 to 5.00. The *"Openness to Experience"* dimension displayed a median of 3.70 (IQR = 3.20-4.20). While the median value was found to be 3.67 (IQR = 3.11-4.00) for the *"Agreeableness"* trait; it was 3.33 (IQR = 2.78-3.89) for *"Conscientiousness",* 3.25 (IQR = 2.62-3.88) for the *"Neuroticism"* trait and 3.12 (IQR = 2.50-3.75) for *"Extraversion".* Overall, these scores make *"Openness to Experience*" the most dominant personality trait, and *"Extraversion"* the least dominant trait that the participants possess.

3.3. Inferential Statistical Results

This section displays the findings regarding the gender differences in the participants' WCF preferences as well as the relationship between the respondents' personality traits and their WCF preferences. Students' Feedback Preferences Questionnaire was used to convey the results for Research Question 3. In order to examine the relationship between gender and WCF preference, Pearson's Chi-square test of independence and Fisher's exact test were performed after verifying their assumptions. A p-value which is equal to or less than .05 indicates statistical significance (Pallant, 2020, p.362). Table 18 shows the findings of the statistical analysis regarding the distribution of preferences for WCF among the participants according to their gender.

Table 18.
Results of the Statistical Analysis Regarding Learners' WCF Preferences by Gender

	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	Female, N = 254[1]	Male, N = 117[1]	p-value[2]
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.01
green pen.		64 (17%)	54 (21%)	10 (8.5%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	14 (5.5%)	7 (6.0%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	186 (73%)	100 (85%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.63
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	2 (0.8%)	1 (0.9%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	17 (6.7%)	11 (9.4%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	235 (93%)	105 (90%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.66
all the errors.		349 (94%)	238 (94%)	111 (95%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	16 (6.3%)	6 (5.1%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.60
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	129 (51%)	56 (48%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	125 (49%)	61 (52%)	
5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.84
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	98 (39%)	40 (34%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	138 (54%)	69 (59%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	12 (4.7%)	6 (5.1%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	6 (2.4%)	2 (1.7%)	
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.34
General comments		82 (22%)	52 (20%)	30 (26%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	4 (1.6%)	4 (3.4%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	11 (4.3%)	2 (1.7%)	
Specific and detailed comments		267 (72%)	186 (73%)	81 (69%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.53
content.		183 (49%)	129 (51%)	54 (46%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	36 (14%)	16 (14%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	75 (30%)	36 (31%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	14 (5.5%)	11 (9.4%)	
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.09
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	105 (41%)	47 (40%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	91 (36%)	42 (36%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).		23 (6.2%)	19 (7.5%)	4 (3.4%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	25 (9.8%)	9 (7.7%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	14 (5.5%)	15 (13%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.60
Yes		263 (71%)	174 (47%)	89 (24%)	
No		108 (29%)	80 (22%)	28 (7.5%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.56
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	120 (47%)	64 (55%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	41 (16%)	14 (12%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	38 (15%)	16 (14%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	55 (22%)	23 (20%)	

11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.60
Yes		70 (19%)	47 (13%)	23 (6.2%)	
No		301 (81%)	207 (56%)	94 (25%)	
12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.30
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	61 (24%)	34 (29%)	
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.		276 (74%)	193 (76%)	83 (71%)	

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

Table 18 shows the gender-based distribution of preferences for WCF among the participants. The sample included 254 (68%) female and 117 (32%) male respondents. Overall, the results indicated that gender did not significantly account for learners' WCF preferences. A Chi-Square Test for Independence showed that the only statistically meaningful difference between the male and female students was about their preferences for the colour of pen used while providing WCF, $X^2(2, N = 371) = 9.09$, $p = .01$. The female participants favoured green pen more that the male respondents. The preferences of participants regarding the feedback source did not differ by gender since no statistical difference existed between groups ($p = .63$). In terms of participants' gender and their preferences for the scope of feedback, which was revealed by Question 3, there was no statistically significant association between the two variables ($p = .66$). Both female and male students preferred their teachers to highlight *"all the errors"* in their essays. In the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire, Questions 4, 5, and 6 aimed to unearth learners' preferred WCF strategies or types. Since the p-value for all these three questions ($p = .60$, $p = .84$, $p = .34$ respectively) were greater that the α value .05, no statistically significant difference did exist between the female participants and their male counterparts in terms of their favoured WCF type. Questions 7, 8, 9, and 10 aimed to reveal learners' preferred types of errors to be corrected (i.e., the focus of WCF). As can be seen by the frequencies cross-tabulated in Table 18, the association between these variables, namely gender and preference for feedback focus, was not significant. Question 11 aimed to reveal participants' opinions about the impact of WCF on their subsequent writings. The Chi-square test demonstrated that the percentage of participants who believed in this impact did not differ by gender, $X^2(1, N = 371) = .015$, $p = .60$. This means that most of the participants believed in the efficacy of WCF regardless of their gender.

The BFI was used to convey the results for Research Question 4, which aimed to reveal any potential relationship between the respondents' personality traits and their WCF preferences. In order to examine this relationship, Pearson's Chi-square test of independence and Fisher's exact test were performed after checking their assumptions. The tables below show the findings of the statistical analysis regarding the distribution of preferences for WCF among the participants according to their personality trait levels.

Table 19 displays the obtained results of the Pearson's Chi-square and Fisher's exact tests which were computed to examine the association between learners' WCF preferences and the *extraversion* personality trait.

Table 19.
Results of the Pearson's Chi- Square Test and Fisher's Exact Test for the Extraversion Personality Trait

		Extraversion			
Variable	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	High, N = 200[1]	Low, N = 171[1]	p-value[2]
Gender	371				.17
Female		254 (68%)	143 (72%)	111 (65%)	
Male		117 (32%)	57 (28%)	60 (35%)	
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.61
green pen.		64 (17%)	31 (16%)	33 (19%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	11 (5.5%)	10 (5.8%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	158 (79%)	128 (75%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.82
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	1 (0.5%)	2 (1.2%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	15 (7.5%)	13 (7.6%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	184 (92%)	156 (91%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.95
all the errors.		349 (94%)	188 (94%)	161 (94%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	12 (6.0%)	10 (5.8%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.72
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	98 (49%)	87 (51%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	102 (51%)	84 (49%)	

5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.48
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	77 (38%)	61 (36%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	106 (53%)	101 (59%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	11 (5.5%)	7 (4.1%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	6 (3.0%)	2 (1.2%)	
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.69
General comments		82 (22%)	45 (22%)	37 (22%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	5 (2.5%)	3 (1.8%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	5 (2.5%)	8 (4.7%)	
Specific and detailed comments		268 (72%)	145 (72%)	123 (72%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.44
content.		183 (49%)	99 (50%)	84 (49%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	23 (12%)	29 (17%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	63 (32%)	48 (28%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	15 (7.5%)	10 (5.8%)	
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.57
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	81 (40%)	71 (42%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	69 (34%)	64 (37%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.)		23 (6.2%)	12 (6.0%)	11 (6.4%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	23 (12%)	11 (6.4%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	15 (7.5%)	14 (8.2%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.01
Yes		263 (71%)	131 (66%)	132 (77%)	
No		108 (29%)	69 (34%)	39 (23%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.67
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	98 (49%)	86 (50%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	30 (15%)	25 (15%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	26 (13%)	28 (16%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	46 (23%)	32 (19%)	
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.84
Yes		70 (19%)	37 (18%)	33 (19%)	
No		301 (81%)	163 (82%)	138 (81%)	

12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.37
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	55 (28%)	40 (23%)	
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.		276 (74%)	145 (72%)	131 (77%)	

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

The relationship between learners' WCF preferences and the extraversion personality characteristic is shown in Table 19. A total of 200 students with high *extraversion* scores and 171 students with low extraversion scores were determined in the sample. Of the 200 participants who scored high in this personality dimension, a majority of them (72%) were female and 57(28%) were male. Additionally, 111(65%) female students and 60(35%) male students had low extraversion scores. A Chi-Square Test for Independence showed that the only statistically significant association between *extraversion* and WCF preferences was about learners' preferences for the focus of feedback, $X^2(1, N = 371) = .55$, $p = .01$. which was elicited by Question 9. The statement *"If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?"* aimed to examine learners' preferences regarding local and global error types. The students with low extraversion prioritized local errors more than the participants with high extraversion levels. However, for Questions 7, 8, and 10 which also aimed to reveal learners' other preferred types of errors to be corrected, no significant association was found between extraversion dimension and preferred error types where p-values ($p = .44$, $p = .57$, $p = .67$ respectively) were greater than .05. Question 11 aimed to reveal students' opinions about the impact of WCF on their subsequent writings. As displayed in Table 19, there is no significant association between extraversion personality trait and preferred colour of the pen while receiving feedback as the p-value (.61) was greater than .05 which means that learners with different levels of extraversion equally prefer the three alternatives. In the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire, Questions 2 and 12 aimed to examine learners' preferred WCF source. There was no significant association between extraversion and favoured feedback providing agent where p-value was found to be .82 and .37, respectively. Considering participants' preferences for the scope of feedback, there was no statistically significant association between the two variables ($p = .95$). Questions 4, 5, and 6 aimed to unearth learners' preferred WCF types. Since the p-value for all these three questions ($p = .72$, $p = .48$, $p = .69$ respectively) were greater that the α

value .05, the results did not yield a significant relationship between extraversion and preferred types of WCF. Question 11 aimed to reveal learners' opinions about the impact of WCF on their subsequent writings. The Chi-square test demonstrated that the percentage of participants who believed in this impact did not differ by the level of extraversion trait (p = .84).

The sample included 201 high-scoring students and 170 low-scorers regarding the *conscientiousness* trait. Of the 201 participants who scored high in this personality dimension, 145 (72%) were female and 56 (28%) were male. Additionally, 109 (64%) female students and 61 (36%) male students had low conscientiousness scores. A Pearson's Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test were performed to examine the relationship between the participants' WCF preferences and the conscientiousness personality trait. Table 20 displays the obtained results.

Table 20.
Results of the Pearson's Chi- Square Test and Fisher's Exact Test for the Conscientiousness Personality Trait

			Conscientiousness		
Variable	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	High, N = 201[1]	Low, N = 170[1]	p-value[2]
Gender	371				.10
Female		254 (68%)	145 (72%)	109 (64%)	
Male		117 (32%)	56 (28%)	61 (36%)	
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.37
green pen.		64 (17%)	30 (15%)	34 (20%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	13 (6.5%)	8 (4.7%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	158 (79%)	128 (75%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.40
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	3 (1.5%)	0 (0%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	15 (7.5%)	13 (7.6%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	183 (91%)	157 (92%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.97
all the errors.		349 (94%)	189 (94%)	160 (94%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	12 (6.0%)	10 (5.9%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.87
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	101 (50%)	84 (49%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	100 (50%)	86 (51%)	

5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.67
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	76 (38%)	62 (36%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	110 (55%)	97 (57%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	9 (4.5%)	9 (5.3%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	6 (3.0%)	2 (1.2%)	
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.82
General comments		82 (22%)	42 (21%)	40 (24%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	4 (2.0%)	4 (2.4%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	6 (3.0%)	7 (4.1%)	
Specific and detailed comments		268 (72%)	149 (74%)	119 (70%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.85
content.		183 (49%)	99 (49%)	84 (49%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	27 (13%)	25 (15%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	63 (31%)	48 (28%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	12 (6.0%)	13 (7.6%)	
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.66
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	86 (43%)	66 (39%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	68 (34%)	65 (38%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).		23 (6.2%)	10 (5.0%)	13 (7.6%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	20 (10.0%)	14 (8.2%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	17 (8.5%)	12 (7.1%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.14
Yes		263 (71%)	136 (68%)	127 (75%)	
No		108 (29%)	65 (32%)	43 (25%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.02
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	89 (44%)	95 (56%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	30 (15%)	25 (15%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	39 (19%)	15 (8.8%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	43 (21%)	35 (21%)	
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.98
Yes		70 (19%)	38 (19%)	32 (19%)	
No		301 (81%)	163 (81%)	138 (81%)	
12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.91
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	51 (25%)	44 (26%)	

The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.	276 (74%)	150 (75%)	126 (74%)

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

Table 20 shows the association between students' WCF preferences and the *conscientiousness* personality trait. As can be seen by the frequencies cross-tabulated in Table 20, the only statistically significant relationship between conscientiousness and WCF preferences was about learners' preferences for the focus of feedback, $X^2(3, N = 371) = .61, p = .02$. which was asked by Question 10. The findings revealed that respondents with low levels of conscientiousness valued the rectification of all their faults more than those with high levels of conscientiousness, irrespective of error type. In addition, high-scorers in conscientiousness expected their teachers to target global errors which affect understanding of a message more than their low-scoring counterparts. However, for Questions 7, 8, and 9 which also aimed to reveal learners' other preferred types of errors to be corrected, no significant association was found between conscientiousness dimension and preferred error types where p-values (p = .85, p = .66, p = .14 respectively) were greater than .05. As shown in Table20, there is no significant relationship between conscientiousness and favourite pen colour when getting feedback since the p-value (.37) was larger than the alpha value .05, indicating that learners with varying levels of conscientiousness prefer the three options equally. Question 2 and 12 of the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire examined learners' preferred WCF source. Conscientiousness and the preferred feedback agent had no significant relationship, with p-values of .40 and .91, respectively. Likewise, there was no statistically significant relationship between the two variables (p =.97) when considering participants' preferences for the scope of corrective feedback, as revealed by Question 3. The purpose of questions 4, 5, and 6 was to discover the learners' favourite feedback types. The results did not show a significant association between conscientiousness and the participants' favourite types of WCF because the p-values for all three items (p =.87, p =.67, and p =.82, respectively) were greater than .05. Question 11 aimed to capture students' thoughts on the influence of feedback on their subsequent compositions. The proportion of participants who acknowledged this impact did not differ by the level of conscientiousness trait (p =.84) according to the Chi-square test, thus there was no significant relationship between the two variables.

In terms of the *openness to experience* trait, the sample contained 186 high-scoring and 185 low-scoring respondents in total. Overall, 128 (69%) people who scored high in this personality factor were female, whereas 58 (31%) were male. Furthermore, 126 (68%) female students and 59 (32%) male students scored low on this factor. The association between the participants' WCF preferences and the openness to experience personality trait was investigated using Pearson's Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test. The collected findings are shown in Table 21.

Table 21.
Results of the Pearson's Chi-Square Test and Fisher's Exact Test for the Openness to Experience Personality Trait

		Openness to Experience			
Variable	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	High, N = 186[1]	Low, N = 185[1]	p-value[2]
Gender	371				.88
Female		254 (68%)	128 (69%)	126 (68%)	
Male		117 (32%)	58 (31%)	59 (32%)	
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.71
green pen.		64 (17%)	30 (16%)	34 (18%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	12 (6.5%)	9 (4.9%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	144 (77%)	142 (77%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.67
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	1 (0.5%)	2 (1.1%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	16 (8.6%)	12 (6.5%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	169 (91%)	171 (92%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.39
all the errors.		349 (94%)	173 (93%)	176 (95%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	13 (7.0%)	9 (4.9%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.28
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	98 (53%)	87 (47%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	88 (47%)	98 (53%)	

5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.92
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	66 (35%)	72 (39%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	107 (58%)	100 (54%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	9 (4.8%)	9 (4.9%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)	
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.51
General comments		82 (22%)	41 (22%)	41 (22%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	3 (1.6%)	5 (2.7%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	9 (4.8%)	4 (2.2%)	
Specific and detailed comments		268 (72%)	133 (72%)	135 (73%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.19
content.		183 (49%)	89 (48%)	94 (51%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	29 (16%)	23 (12%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	60 (32%)	51 (28%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	8 (4.3%)	17 (9.2%)	
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.60
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	73 (39%)	79 (43%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	65 (35%)	68 (37%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).		23 (6.2%)	15 (8.1%)	8 (4.3%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	17 (9.1%)	17 (9.2%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	16 (8.6%)	13 (7.0%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.18
Yes		263 (71%)	126 (68%)	137 (74%)	
No		108 (29%)	60 (32%)	48 (26%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.73
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	91 (49%)	93 (50%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	25 (13%)	30 (16%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	27 (15%)	27 (15%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	43 (23%)	35 (19%)	
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.30
Yes		70 (19%)	39 (21%)	31 (17%)	
No		301 (81%)	147 (79%)	154 (83%)	

12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.57
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	50 (27%)	45 (24%)	
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.		276 (74%)	136 (73%)	140 (76%)	

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

Table 21 shows the association between students' feedback preferences and the *openness to experience* personality dimension. As the table indicates, the findings did not reveal a significant association between the openness to experience trait and any of the sub-dimensions of learners' WCF preferences. There was no significant association between openness to experience and preferred pen colour ($p = .71$). Similarly, the results demonstrated no statistically significant relationship between the participants' preferences regarding the source of CF where p-values were .67 and .57, respectively for Questions 2 and 12. The Pearson's Chi-square test did not yield a significant relationship between the openness trait and respondents' preferences for the scope of feedback ($p = .39$). In terms of the preferred feedback type and this personality dimension, no significant association existed between the two variables as the p-values for Questions 4, 5, and 6 were all greater than the α value .05 ($p = .28$, $p = .92$, $p = .51$, respectively). Questions 7, 8, 9, and 10 aimed to unearth participants' preferred types of errors to be corrected (i.e., feedback focus). As Table 21 reveals, the association between openness to Experience and preference for the feedback focus was not significant ($p = .19$, $p = .60$, $p = .18$, $p = .73$, respectively). According to the Chi-square test, the proportion of the students who acknowledged the impact of WCF on their subsequent writings did not differ by the level of openness to experience trait ($p = .30$); accordingly, there was no significant relationship between the two variables.

As for the *neuroticism* trait, the sample had 211 high-scoring and 160 low-scoring respondents. Overall, 158 (75%) of those with high scores on this personality trait were female, whereas 53 (25%) were male. In addition, 96 (60%) female students and 64 (40%) male students had low scores on this personality factor. There was a significant relationship between gender and neuroticism ($p = .00$). Pearson's Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test were used to investigate the relationship between the participants' WCF preferences and the neuroticism personality dimension. Table 22 displays the results.

Table 22.
Results of the Pearson's Chi-Square Test and Fisher's Exact Test for the Neuroticism Personality Trait

			Neuroticism		
Variable	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	High, N = 211[1]	Low, N = 160[1]	p-value[2]
Gender	371				.00
Female		254 (68%)	158 (75%)	96 (60%)	
Male		117 (32%)	53 (25%)	64 (40%)	
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.25
green pen.		64 (17%)	41 (19%)	23 (14%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	14 (6.6%)	7 (4.4%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	156 (74%)	130 (81%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.26
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	2 (0.9%)	1 (0.6%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	12 (5.7%)	16 (10%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	197 (93%)	143 (89%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.83
all the errors.		349 (94%)	198 (94%)	151 (94%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	13 (6.2%)	9 (5.6%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.80
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	104 (49%)	81 (51%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	107 (51%)	79 (49%)	
5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.29
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	81 (38%)	57 (36%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	119 (56%)	88 (55%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	9 (4.3%)	9 (5.6%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	2 (0.9%)	6 (3.8%)	
6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.42
General comments		82 (22%)	49 (23%)	33 (21%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	5 (2.4%)	3 (1.9%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	10 (4.7%)	3 (1.9%)	
Specific and detailed comments		268 (72%)	147 (70%)	121 (76%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.20
content.		183 (49%)	112 (53%)	71 (44%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	29 (14%)	23 (14%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	60 (28%)	51 (32%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	10 (4.7%)	15 (9.4%)	

8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.61
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	93 (44%)	59 (37%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	72 (34%)	61 (38%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).		23 (6.2%)	12 (5.7%)	11 (6.9%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	20 (9.5%)	14 (8.8%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	14 (6.6%)	15 (9.4%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.41
Yes		263 (71%)	146 (69%)	117 (73%)	
No		108 (29%)	65 (31%)	43 (27%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.47
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	101 (48%)	83 (52%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	31 (15%)	24 (15%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	36 (17%)	18 (11%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	43 (20%)	35 (22%)	
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.83
Yes		70 (19%)	39 (18%)	31 (19%)	
No		301 (81%)	172 (82%)	129 (81%)	
12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.47
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	51 (24%)	44 (28%)	
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.		276 (74%)	160 (76%)	116 (72%)	

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

The relationship between learners' WCF preferences and the *neuroticism* personality trait is shown in Table 22 The findings indicated no significant association between the neuroticism trait and any of the sub-dimensions of students' WCF preferences. There was no statistically significant relationship between neuroticism and favoured pen colour (p =.25). Likewise, no significant association existed between the participants' preferences for the feedback source, with p-values of .67 and .57 for Questions 2 and 12, respectively. The results revealed no significant relation between respondents' preferences for the scope of WCF and their neuroticism trait (p =.39). Questions 4, 5, and 6 of the Students' WCF Preferences Questions were asked to uncover learners' preferred WCF types. Because the p-values for all three questions (p =.80, p =.29, and p =.42, respectively) were higher than .05, there was no statistically significant association between neuroticism and preferred WCF type, either. A Pearson's Chi-square test indicated no significant association between neuroticism personality trait and

preferred error types to be corrected as all the p-values were greater than .05 (p =.20, p =.61, p = .41, p =.47, respectively) for Questions 7, 8, 9, and 10. No significant relationship was found between neuroticism and the perceived impact of WCF on future writings since the p-value for Question 11 was .83.

Overall, students with high *agreeableness* were 179 people, while the number of the students who scored low in this trait was 192. Among the high scorers, 128 (72%) were female and 51 (28%) were male. Those who scored low were 126 (66%) female participants and 66 (34%) male students. The association between the participants' WCF preferences and the agreeableness trait was examined using Pearson's Chi-square test and Fisher's exact test, as displayed in Table 23.

Table 23.
Results of the Pearson's Chi-Square Test and Fisher's Exact Test for the Agreeableness Personality Trait

		Agreeableness			
Variable	N	Overall, N = 371[1]	High, N = 179[1]	Low, N = 192[1]	p-value[2]
Gender	371				.22
Female		254 (68%)	128 (72%)	126 (66%)	
Male		117 (32%)	51 (28%)	66 (34%)	
1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in	371				.97
green pen.		64 (17%)	30 (17%)	34 (18%)	
pencil.		21 (5.7%)	10 (5.6%)	11 (5.7%)	
red pen.		286 (77%)	139 (78%)	147 (77%)	
2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?	371				.02
My classmates		3 (0.8%)	2 (1.1%)	1 (0.5%)	
Self-correction		28 (7.5%)	7 (3.9%)	21 (11%)	
The teacher		340 (92%)	170 (95%)	170 (89%)	
3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight	371				.79
all the errors.		349 (94%)	169 (94%)	180 (94%)	
some errors.		22 (5.9%)	10 (5.6%)	12 (6.2%)	
4. I prefer the teacher	371				.50
marks the errors and I correct them.		185 (50%)	86 (48%)	99 (52%)	
tells me the right answer.		186 (50%)	93 (52%)	93 (48%)	
5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?	371				.33
Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words		138 (37%)	70 (39%)	68 (35%)	
Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay		207 (56%)	96 (54%)	111 (58%)	
Use a correction code		18 (4.9%)	11 (6.1%)	7 (3.6%)	
Write questions		8 (2.2%)	2 (1.1%)	6 (3.1%)	

6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?	371				.80
General comments		82 (22%)	40 (22%)	42 (22%)	
Negative comments		8 (2.2%)	4 (2.2%)	4 (2.1%)	
Positive comments		13 (3.5%)	8 (4.5%)	5 (2.6%)	
Specific and detailed comments		268 (72%)	127 (71%)	141 (73%)	
7. The most important thing in an essay is	371				.40
content.		183 (49%)	91 (51%)	92 (48%)	
grammar.		52 (14%)	21 (12%)	31 (16%)	
organization.		111 (30%)	52 (29%)	59 (31%)	
vocabulary.		25 (6.7%)	15 (8.4%)	10 (5.2%)	
8. In your essays, the teacher should point out	371				.41
errors on organization of ideas.		152 (41%)	79 (44%)	73 (38%)	
grammar errors.		133 (36%)	61 (34%)	72 (38%)	
punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.).		23 (6.2%)	13 (7.3%)	10 (5.2%)	
spelling errors.		34 (9.2%)	16 (8.9%)	18 (9.4%)	
vocabulary errors.		29 (7.8%)	10 (5.6%)	19 (9.9%)	
9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?	371				.51
Yes		263 (71%)	124 (69%)	139 (72%)	
No		108 (29%)	55 (31%)	53 (28%)	
10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?	371				.80
Correct all errors		184 (50%)	91 (51%)	93 (48%)	
Correct all repeated errors		55 (15%)	24 (13%)	31 (16%)	
Correct errors affecting understanding		54 (15%)	28 (16%)	26 (14%)	
Correct only serious errors		78 (21%)	36 (20%)	42 (22%)	
11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?	371				.03
Yes		70 (19%)	26 (15%)	44 (23%)	
No		301 (81%)	153 (85%)	148 (77%)	
12. Which statement do you agree on?	371				.78
The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.		95 (26%)	47 (26%)	48 (25%)	
The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.		276 (74%)	132 (74%)	144 (75%)	

[1]Frequency (%)
[2]Pearson's Chi-squared test; Fisher's exact test

Table 23 displays the association between the participants' WCF preferences and the *agreeableness* trait. Agreeableness and preferred pen colour had no statistically significant association (p =.97). However, it is significantly associated with preferred

feedback source, as indicated by Question 2, with a p-value of .02. Participants who scored low on this personality dimension preferred self-correction (11%) more than the high-scoring respondents (3.9%). Results indicated no significant association between respondents' preferences for the scope of feedback and their agreeableness level, as indicated by Question 3 (p = .79). Questions 4, 5, and 6 were asked to determine learners' preferences for WCF types. The p-values for all three questions (p =.50, p =.33, p =.80, respectively) were higher than .05, so agreeableness and preferred WCF type did not show any statistically significant association, either. As Table 23 displayed, agreeableness personality trait and preferred error types to be addressed did not show any significant association with all the p-values greater than .05 (p =.40, p =.41, p = .51, p =.80, respectively) for questions 7, 8, 9, and 10. The results showed a significant relationship between agreeableness and the perceived impact of WCF on future writings, which was revealed by Question 11, $X^2(1, N = 371) = .73$, p = .03. Participants with high agreeableness ratings appreciated the value of feedback for future compositions more than those with low agreeableness scores.

An overview of the findings obtained from quantitative data that relate to the research questions posed in this study unveiled learners' preferences regarding the feedback they receive for their writings, their levels of five personality traits, and the relationship between these two variables. The findings pertaining to the participants WCF opinions and preferences demonstrated that the majority of participants preferred red ink while receiving WCF. They favoured unfocused, teacher-led feedback with specific and detailed comments which targets errors on content and organization. Taking the direct and indirect feedback types into account, the results bear witness to a balanced preference. The respondents also believed the impact of feedback provided on the accuracy of their future writings. Considering the personality traits of the participants, the obtained data indicated that *openness to experience* was the most dominant personality trait, while *extraversion* was found to be the least dominant trait that the participants possess. As for the gender variable, it was found that the only statistically significant difference between male and female students was in the colour of pen they preferred while getting WCF. The results regarding the association between learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences showed that *neuroticism* and *openness to experience* traits had no significant relationship with learners' WCF preferences. However, the only statistically significant relationship between the conscientiousness trait and WCF preferences was about learners' preferences for the focus of feedback. This finding was reached for the

extraversion dimension, as well. The results revealed that there existed a significant association between agreeableness and participants' perceived impact of WCF and their preferences related to the feedback source. In the forthcoming chapter, these findings will be discussed and interpreted in light of the research questions posed in the present study.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

This chapter discusses the meaning, significance, and relevance of the key quantitative data obtained in the present study and explains how these findings are tied back to prior research in order to contribute to the existing literature and provide some instructional implications. The subsections of the chapter cover the interpretation of results that address each research question in this study.

4.2. Research Question 1: What are the Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences regarding WCF?

The present research, which applies the quantitative mode of inquiry, aims to scrutinize Turkish EFL learners' WCF preferences, determine their levels of personality traits and investigate the role of differences in personality traits in shaping learners' WCF preferences. This study produced several kernels of information regarding learners' opinions and preferences about the feedback that is provided for their writings based on the data obtained from the Students' WCF Preferences Questionnaire. The first research question of this study intends to discover and identify the Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences regarding WCF.

Question 1 of the questionnaire was intended to assess learners' preferences for the colour of the pen they preferred while getting feedback. The results indicate that a majority of the participants reacted in favour of red pen (77%) while their errors are rectified. This finding corresponds to the outcomes of several past research (e.g., Hamouda, 2011; Kahraman & Yalvaç, 2015; Orts & Salazar, 2016). Although the colour red is sometimes thought to have negative connotations, such a preference by students is quite understandable since red is a visible colour which is easy to discern, and students can immediately notice their errors if they are marked in red ink rather than a pencil or green pen. Since the red pen is the most common tool for providing WCF in writing classes in Turkey, students' preferences regarding the colour of the pen align with the actual feedback practices of instructors. However, this finding does not concur with

Semke (1984) who claimed that "The return of papers covered with the inevitable red marks results in looks of disappointment and discouragement on students' faces" (p.195).

In terms of learners favoured feedback source, the teacher was found to be the highest-ranked feedback providing agent (92%), as expected. The same result was obtained in studies conducted with diverse samples in different settings (e.g., Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Geçkin, 2020; Hamouda, 2011; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Lee, 2008; Leki, 1991; Saadat et al., 2017; Trabelsi, 2019). Students' appreciation of feedback from their teachers is not a surprising finding, given that learners mostly believe that if WCF is delivered by themselves or their peers, they cannot get enough or accurate feedback. They do not usually trust their classmates assuming that their peers have a similar proficiency level to themselves. Peer assessment may not a reliable source of feedback for them because students either excessively compliment or over-criticise each other's work depending on how close they are. Another reason might lie in the fact that peer feedback is not a mode of error treatment that Turkish EFL students are used to since it is rarely employed in writing classes in Turkey. Accordingly, the participants placed the lowest value on peer feedback (0.8%). On the other hand, learners' lack of self-confidence may be the reason why they did not favour self-correction.

For question 3, which asks learners to reflect on the amount of feedback they would like to receive, the option *"all the errors"* refers to unfocused (comprehensive) feedback, whereas the other alternative *"some errors"* refers to focused (selective) feedback. The respondents indicated a strong preference for unfocused WCF (94%), another expected finding which aligns with prior research outcomes. According to a study conducted by Leki (1991) at an American university, most students appreciated error-free essays and thus preferred comprehensive feedback. Some other previous studies also reveal that (e.g., Diab, 2005; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hamouda, 2011; Lee, 2004; Norouzian & Farahani, 2012; Radecki & Swales, 1988) a sizeable majority of learners who are sampled prefer their teachers to rectify all the errors they made. Such a preference for expecting every single error to be corrected might be attributed to the fact that if some errors are left unmarked, students might mistakenly think that there is nothing wrong with these parts.

In the questionnaire used, Questions 4, 5 and 6 all sought to address participants' preferences regarding the type of WCF. The three primary types of WCF, namely direct,

indirect, and metalinguistic feedback, are the main focus of this research, which is guided by Ellis' (2009) typology. According to the results, most of the learners opted for metalinguistic feedback with explanations. They may wish to self-correct their errors with the help of the teacher's explanations. For question 4, which was particularly about the explicitness of WCF, the option expressing the teacher *"marks the errors and I correct them"* refers to indirect feedback type, and the other option which states *"tells me the right answer"* means direct (explicit) feedback. The most surprising results were obtained in terms of this aspect of WCF, namely explicitness of feedback. While half of the learners queried favoured indirect feedback, the other half preferred direct feedback strategy, an unexpected finding that distinguishes this research from the previous studies. Although most of the prior studies found that direct feedback was appreciated more by learners for being less demanding (e.g., Hamouda, 2011; Irwin, 2018; Lee, 2008; Oladejo, 1993), some other research revealed that most students preferred indirect feedback, which is an implicit way of responding to student errors (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001). The participants showed a neutral preference for the type of feedback offered, which is about the level of explicitness of feedback, based on the mixed responses. Multiple factors could lead to this unanticipated result. One reason for learners choosing indirect feedback might be that as they are high proficiency level learners studying a disciplinary field (e.g., English Language Teaching), they might deem themselves as being capable of correcting their own errors and they might find this method more useful because it promotes mental processing and fosters their problem-solving skills. However, at the same time, they might also prefer direct WCF since they may feel that if teachers overtly highlight their errors, they will remember and learn from them better. While acknowledging the benefits of indirect correction, students might still tend to choose the easy way and be unwilling to make an effort to rectify their errors. Since teachers' actual classroom practices and students' views are inextricably linked, this finding may also indicate that students' preferences for WCF may reflect their writing teacher's paper marking techniques. In question 5, which also aimed to assess participants' preferences regarding the type of WCF, the option *"Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words"* refers to direct feedback; the option *"Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay*" implies metalinguistic WCF with explanations; the alternative *"Use a correction code"* refers to metalinguistic WCF with error codes, and the option *"Write questions"* implies indirect feedback. Since more than half of the participants (56%) opted for the option *"Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay*", the data suggests that

most learners preferred metalinguistic WCF with explanations. This finding might be explained by the notion that learners may believe that metalinguistic explanations enable them to recognize their errors and understand the nature of them more clearly. This result corroborates the findings of multiple prior investigations (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Chung, 2015). Regarding the nature of these metalinguistic comments, a majority of the participants favoured *"Specific and detailed comments"* (72%), as attested in Question 6. It seems logical to believe that the students who took part in the research preferred detailed and precise feedback so that they could better understand their errors, strengths, and shortcomings and use that feedback in future practice and learning. The findings of this study confirm the results of previous research (e.g., Chen et al., 2016; Elwood & Bode, 2014; Geçkin, 2020) which indicated that students gave high credit to precise, detailed WCF.

Questions 7, 8, 9 and 10 addressed participants' preferences for the focus of feedback, in other words, their preferences regarding the types of errors to be corrected. Questions 7 and 8, specifically, asked about learners' position towards mechanical errors and errors in content and organisation. An overwhelming majority of past research (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Radecki & Swales, 1988) suggested that learners want their teachers to rectify their errors related to form (i.e., grammar). However, the current study found somewhat contradictory data. Among all the error types, errors related to *"content"* were valued most by the participants (49%) followed by *"errors on organization of ideas"* (41%). Punctuation mistakes were found to have the lowest priority for rectification (6.2 %). This was an expected outcome since L2 learners in disciplinary fields (e.g., English Language Teaching or Translation and Interpreting) tend to believe that content-based WCF is more essential than form-focused feedback although EFL students generally prioritize accuracy in their writing more. This finding supports the results of the studies conducted by several other researchers (e.g., Ferris, 2002; Leki, 2006; Norton, 1990) who found that in higher proficiency level and discipline-based classes, students are more concerned with content-related errors than with grammatical problems. Question 9 asked the participants to exhibit their preferences related to global and local error types, in particular. For this question, the *"Yes"* alternative refers to a choice for local errors, while the *"No"* option implies a preference for global errors. Local errors are minor issues that have little influence on the intelligibility of the message; nevertheless, global errors have a serious

impact on overall comprehension. Students' perceptions of teacher feedback were first examined by Cohen in 1987, who found that students believed that teacher feedback should focus more on local problems than global errors. In a similar vein, Ferris and Roberts (2001) carried out a study with 72 ESL students at a university in the USA and found that students expected their local errors to be corrected more. The present study supports these findings since the obtained data suggest that most participants wanted their local errors to be rectified (71%). Such an outcome could be explained by students believing that their teachers should correct all errors, no matter how minor they are. This finding concurs with the results obtained from Question 10. The participants were asked what would they expect their writing teacher to do if there were many errors in their essays, and the results bear witness to a high preference for the *"Correct all errors"* option which was selected by 184 (50%) students, a finding that aligns with several prior studies (e.g., Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991). Students might be naturally curious to see all of their errors for the purpose of remembering and learning from these errors which helps them improve their writing. Finally, Question 11 asked students if they believed that they would make the same errors after they were addressed. The purpose of this inquiry was to find out how learners felt about the effect of WCF on their later writings. For this question, the *"Yes"* choice means that WCF is ineffective in enhancing future writing accuracy, whereas the *"No*" option implies that WCF is successful in increasing accuracy in subsequent writings. The results suggest that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (81%) are of the opinion that WCF has a positive impact on subsequent drafts, which validates the results of Orts and Salazar's (2016) study. This is an encouraging finding which underscores that learners value WCF and believe in its usefulness.

4.3. Research Question 2: What are the levels of personality traits of Turkish EFL learners?

The present study seeks to determine the most prominent personality traits of Turkish EFL learners, and to this end, the BFI constructed by John et al. (1991) was employed in the data collection process. The results indicate that *openness to experience*, which had the highest mean value (M = 3.69), is the most dominant personality trait of the participants of the current research. People with high scores in this personality attribute like acquiring new skills and information and having vivid imaginations. They are typically curious and creative. Fortunately, openness to

experience is found to be a salient predictor of success in L2 acquisition (Oz, 2014; Zhang et al., 2019). This finding of the present study does not go in accordance with that of Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014), whose study was conducted in Iran with a similar research objective; namely, investigating the relationship between personality profiles of EFL learners and their WCF preferences. The researchers found conscientiousness to be the most dominant personality trait among the respondents in their research. In a study conducted in a Turkish EFL setting by Asmali (2014), contrasting outcomes were discovered (2014), as well. The researcher took a sample of elementary level students from various departments at a state university and found agreeableness to be the major personality dimension among the participants. The diversity of the samples utilised in these investigations helps explain these discrepancies. In comparison to the aforementioned studies that showed different results, the current study recruited English major tertiary level learners whose proficiency levels are relatively high.

In the present research, *extraversion* was found to be the least dominant personality trait that the participants possess (M = 3.12). Extroverted people tend to be talkative, self-confident and like to engage in social activities. The findings of this study, which demonstrate that extraversion is the least dominating personality dimension, are wonderful news for the participants because extroverts typically struggle to communicate in writing despite being good at speaking. To illustrate, Layeghi (2011), who investigated the relationship between students' personality traits and their argumentative writing ability, found that introverted learners did better than extraverts. In another study conducted by Jahanbazi (2007), it was revealed that introverted individuals performed better regarding the overall writing quality than extroverted participants. This might be because introverts possess traits that extrovert learners do not have, such as being careful, focusing well in solitude, and coming up with innovative ideas when working alone. On the other hand, in their study, Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014) revealed that agreeableness was the least dominant personality trait among the respondents. This misalignment can be explained by the contextual differences between the research settings.

4.4. Research Question 3: Do male and female students differ in their WCF preferences?

Research Question 3 aims to reveal the possible relationship between gender and WCF preference. The present study consists of 254 (68%) female and 117 (32%) male

respondents. The results indicate that the only statistically significant difference between the male and female students existed in their preferences for the colour of pen used while providing WCF ($p = .01$). Although both groups preferred red pen the most, followed by green pen and pencil, their rates of preference for green pen were different. The green pen was chosen as the second most favoured coloured pen by 54 (21%) female participants and 10 (8.5%) male respondents. This indicates that female students favoured the green pen more than their male counterparts. It is possible that this preference stems from the assumption that females are more unbelligerent than males, and that they preferred green ink as a second choice because "a green pen is significantly less aggressive" even though their initial option was a red pen, which is more noticeable. Contrasting results were achieved in an earlier study by Elwood and Bode (2014) who reported that "Females exhibited nearly equal preference for feedback of different colours, while males preferred red feedback" (p.341).

Participants' preferences regarding feedback sources were not influenced by their gender since there was no statistically significant difference between the female and male respondents. Both groups trusted their teachers most to treat their errors. This result mirrors the findings of several prior studies which report teachers as the most favoured feedback providing agent irrespective of gender (e.g., Geçkin, 2020). Peer response was the option which was least preferred by both male and female participants in the present study. One plausible explanation for this tendency is that student writers might reject peer editing because they might fear humiliation from their peers and feel dissatisfied with the feedback from their classmates.

In terms of the scope of feedback, male and female students showed similar preferences as they both opted for unfocused WCF, a finding that corroborates the data from Kahraman and Yalvaç's study (2015). Unfocused WCF refers to correcting all written errors comprehensively. Both groups of students' preference for unfocused feedback might be explained by their desire to avoid the fossilisation of errors and to prevent repeating the same error in the future. Although providing such a comprehensive amount of feedback could be time-consuming and trying for instructors, learners still expect their L2 writing teachers to correct all their errors.

In a similar vein, no statistically significant association was found between gender and preferred WCF type, in terms of the degree of explicitness. However, there

was a slight difference between male and female respondents in this regard as female participants preferred indirect feedback (51%) more than direct WCF (49%). The opposite was the case for the male students. They appreciated direct feedback strategy (52%) slightly more than indirect feedback (48%), which can be attributed to the tendency that male students are not as willing as female students to develop their critical thinking skills, facilitated by indirect feedback. Unlike their female counterparts, male students might not like to be left to rectify their own errors by using the hints given by the teacher. This finding contrasts the outcomes of the study by Geçkin (2020), reporting that both groups valued direct feedback. Considering the other types of feedback, all of the surveyed students chose metalinguistic WCF with explanations above other sorts of WCF, regardless of gender. One possible explanation for this finding is that both learner groups might be inclined to use the guidance from the metalinguistic WCF to ultimately enhance their grammatical competence in future writings. Such a WCF type is not commonly used in writing classes because providing metalinguistic explanations necessitates teachers to have in-depth linguistic knowledge, and it is time-consuming for them. However, the results suggest that students still expect their writing instructors to offer explanations pertaining to their errors. Regarding the most welcomed types of comments by male and female respondents, the results revealed no statistically significant difference between the two genders. As expected, specific and detailed comments were the most appreciated type by both groups.

Considering the focus of feedback, or in other words, the types of errors targeted by WCF, the male and female participants were statistically indistinguishable since they both showed a strong preference for content-related errors to be prioritized by their teachers. Similar findings were revealed by Jahbel et al. (2020) who carried out their research at a university in Libya. For both groups of students, the second most important error type to be addressed was found to be organization errors. This was an anticipated finding as the students who make up the sample of the present study are from discipline-based classes with high proficiency levels, and instead of focusing on linguistic accuracy, they were more concerned with overall communication quality of their compositions. This inclination may also come from the dominance of process-oriented instruction in modern language classrooms. In the setting where the study was conducted, process-based writing instruction is adopted, and the participants' preferences for prioritizing content and organization errors may reflect the actual teacher practice. This finding does

not echo that of Geçkin (2020), who reported that female students wanted more content-related comments than male learners. One possible explanation for the contrasting results is that Geçkin's (2020) participants were not as homogenous as those in the current study. Her group of students were preparatory class learners who ranged in proficiency level from beginner to advanced. In terms of their preferences for local and global error treatments, male and female respondents appear to agree. Both parties expected that their local errors would be addressed. Possibly, such an outcome is the result of students believing that teachers should correct all errors, no matter how minor they are. This finding is consistent with the results of Question 10 in the survey, where participants were asked what their writing teacher should do when they had many errors in their essays. The results indicate that the majority favoured the *"Correct all errors"* alternative regardless of gender.

Regarding the perceived impact of WCF on subsequent writings, both male and female students manifested a similar pattern of opinions. The results suggest that they believe on the efficacy of error correction, a finding which is identical to that of Kahraman and Yalvaç (2015). This is an encouraging outcome. It indicates that students value WCF and believe in its usefulness.

4.5. Research Question 4: Is there a relationship between the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners and their WCF preferences?

One of the primary objectives of this study is to reveal the possible relationship between Turkish EFL learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences, an association that was rarely explored before. Overall, the findings of the statistical analysis regarding the distribution of preferences for WCF among the participants according to their personality profiles indicated no significant association. Particularly, the *openness to experience* as well as *neuroticism* traits did not have a significant relationship with any of the sub-dimensions of learners' WCF preferences. To put it bluntly, in terms of the colour of the pen, as well as feedback source, type, scope, focus and perceived impact of feedback, the participants preferences and opinions did not differ by the level of openness to experience and neuroticism traits. Students who scored low or high in these personality dimensions exhibited more or less similar preferences regarding WCF.

To the best of our knowledge, very few studies have sought to investigate the association between learners' personality dimensions and their WCF preferences, making it challenging to compare data. Indeed, the only study that can be comparable to the present study was conducted by Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014) in Iran. The researchers set out to examine the possible association between EFL learners' and teachers' personality types and their written error correction preferences in terms of feedback source, type and focus. Their subjects were 41 female students and 9 female instructors. Their work is more limited in scope than the current study; nevertheless, it is still a valuable study in that it examined one of the few unexplored areas of feedback research. Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014) found no statistically significant relationship between all the five personality types and WCF preferences of the participants. Their results indicated that students preferred grammar-based, teacher-led and metalinguistic feedback with explanations irrespective of their personality type. As mentioned above, for the openness to experience and neuroticism traits, similar results were found in the present study, except from the feedback focus. In the present study, the majority of the respondents who scored high in openness to experience and neuroticism traits exhibited preferences for content-focused WCF. In the present research, no statistically significant association was found between the participants' WCF preferences and the openness to experience trait as well as the neuroticism trait. This finding suggests that learners who scored high and low in these two traits express similar opinions and preferences for WCF.

In terms of the *extraversion* personality dimension, which is characterized by being sociable, talkative and self-confident, the participants' preferences and opinions did not differ by the level of this trait in terms of pen colour, feedback source, type and scope, as well as the perceived impact of WCF. However, the only statistically significant relationship between extraversion and WCF preference variable was found about the participants' preferences for local and global errors which was related to the focus of feedback. Although both high and low-scoring students on this trait preferred local errors to be rectified, there was a slight proportion difference between the learners who scored high and low. The data collected from the questionnaire revealed that students with low extraversion prioritized local errors more than participants with high extraversion levels. Introverted and extroverted learners have different information processing styles, which explains why less extravert learners prefer their local errors to be corrected. Students who scored low in extraversion may be more prone than the high-scoring extroverts to become

puzzled while assessing confusing information, according to Nideffer (1976). As a consequence, it is possible that less extravert students may get more confused if they are just told about their significant errors and left to fix their minor local errors themselves.

Regarding the *conscientiousness* trait, which is associated with being success-oriented, reliable, punctual, organized and responsible, students with different levels of this personality trait equally prefer several aspects of WCF such as pen colour, feedback source, type and scope, as well as the perceived impact of WCF. Similar to the extraversion trait, the obtained results indicated a significant relationship between conscientiousness and preferred error types to be addressed (focus of feedback), which was attested by Question 10. Although both high and low-scoring students in this personality attribute expected to have all of their errors corrected, there was a relatively small difference between high and low-scoring students in this trait. The findings demonstrated that respondents with low conscientiousness levels valued the correction of all their errors more than those with high conscientiousness levels. The rationale behind this outcome is that low-scorers in conscientiousness trait may wish their teachers to show all their errors to lessen their own workload because people who score low in this personality trait are known to be lazy, careless, and irresponsible to carry out their duties. Likewise, high scoring participants expected their teachers to correct errors which affect understanding more than the low-scorers in conscientiousness dimension. Participants with low conscientiousness scores are not as interested in meaning as their high-scoring counterparts, and they want all their minor and serious errors to be addressed. This finding of the present study does not align with that of Ranjbar and Zamanian (2014), reporting no significant association between conscientiousness and WCF preferences of students.

The results of the present study revealed statistically significant relationship between the *agreeableness* trait and feedback source as well as perceived impact of WCF. In both agreeableness groups, namely high and low scorers, the teacher was appreciated as the most trusted feedback provider; however, as a second choice, participants in the low-scoring group preferred self-correction (11%) more than the high-scoring learners (3.9%). One plausible explanation for this expected outcome is that students with low agreeableness levels are solitary learners who like to work alone instead of working with peers. As Asmali (2014) stated, high-scorers on the agreeableness trait are usually friendly who get along well with others, whereas low-scorers tend to be uncooperative, who like to study alone (p.5). In addition, the findings indicated a significant relationship

between agreeableness and the perceived impact of WCF on future writings, which was revealed by Question 11. The majority of the students with high and low agreeableness trait levels expressed positive opinions regarding the impact of WCF on subsequent writings. However, the participants who scored high in agreeableness acknowledged the efficacy of feedback on future compositions more than those with low agreeableness scores, a striking finding that does not correspond the outcomes of Ranjbar and Zamanian's (2014) study which reported no significant relationship between the two variables. The misalignments between the present study and Ranjbar and Zamanian's (2014) research might stem from the diverse settings and samples that the two studies utilized. Students with high agreeableness levels might have reacted that way to please their writing instructors and not to disappoint them. Also, since agreeableness is associated with positive emotionality, it is inclined to predict positive feedback responses.

To conclude, based on the results of prior studies on learners' opinions and preferences vis-à-vis WCF, the researcher of this study expected the present data to show that the participants would prefer teacher-initiated, comprehensive feedback with specific and detailed comments on content and organisation which were written in red ink. In general, these expectations were met. However, the most striking and unexpected result to emerge from the data was that a balanced preference considering the direct and indirect feedback types was observed among the sample. It was anticipated that the participants would show strong preference for indirect feedback due to their majors and high proficiency levels, yet they exhibited a neutral preference for the explicit and implicit types of WCF. Regarding the gender variable, both groups exhibited similar preferences. The discovered similarities between the female and male participants might be attributed to the fact that both groups were relatively homogeneous in terms of their proficiency since they had been attending an intense process-based writing class for at least two semesters when they participated in the study. As a result, it is not surprising that comparable patterns of student preferences for WCF were reported. The obtained data revealed that *openness to experience* is the most dominant personality trait among the participants, whereas *extraversion* is the least prevalent one. In addition, the findings on the relationship between personality traits and WCF preferences revealed that neuroticism and openness to experience traits had no significant relationship with WCF preferences. However, some significant associations between feedback preferences and extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness traits were detected. Overall, it can be

concluded from the outcomes of the present study that there is no statistically significant relationship between learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences. Thus, students' personality traits did not seem to be predictive of their WCF preferences or offer an explanation for the diverse opinions and preferences regarding WCF that they expressed.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Overview

This chapter concludes the research by summarising the major findings with respect to the research objectives and questions, as well as highlighting their value and contribution to the literature. It proceeds to discuss pedagogical implications based on the outcomes of the current study and earlier research. The chapter ends by providing direction for future research.

5.2. Overview of the Study

The present study, which employs a quantitative model of enquiry, set out to examine the WCF preferences of Turkish EFL learners, as well as their levels of personality traits. In addition, this research sought to explore the possible relationship between the students' personality traits and their WCF preferences, a topic which was rarely investigated before. To this end, 371 EFL learners at a state university in Turkey were sampled. The Big Five Inventory (BFI) and Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire were employed to collect the quantitative data. The current study makes a major contribution to research on feedback in L2 writing classes by providing a significant opportunity to advance our knowledge of the opinions and preferences of learners regarding WCF.

The findings of this research, in a broader sense, met the expectations of the researcher and suggested that the majority of participants preferred teacher-led, unfocused, metalinguistic WCF with specific and detailed comments on content and organisation, written in red ink. The surveyed students reacted in favour of the teacher as the major feedback providing agent, and they demonstrated that they did not trust their peers in error treatment. This implies an alignment between learners' preferences and what happens in the classroom since, in almost all the writing classes in Turkey, the teacher is the primary source of feedback despite the adoption of the process approach. The most surprising outcomes were reached regarding the explicitness of WCF. The participants exhibited a balanced preference for direct and indirect feedback types. It was

expected that the respondents would favour the indirect feedback type as they are high-proficiency learners who are able to rectify their own errors and aware of the benefits of this implicit error treatment strategy such as fostering problem-solving skills by operating their existing knowledge. In addition, the present study confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence by revealing an encouraging outcome that a sizeable proportion of the students believed in the efficacy of WCF in preventing future errors.

This research offers some significant insights on the interplay between gender and student preferences' about WCF. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender and learners' WCF, except for the colour of the pen used for correcting errors. Female students were found to appreciate the green pen more than their male counterparts although the most preferred pen colour was red for both genders. The traditional pen colour for error treatment is red in Turkey; thus, such a preference by male and female students indicates another agreement between students' expectations and actual feedback practices in the classroom.

This study achieved another research objective by exploring the personality traits of learners. As an individual difference variable, learners' personality profiles are of great value. Therefore, being informed about them helps teachers adopt more student-centred instruction and correction strategies. According to the data, *openness to experience* is the most dominant personality trait among the participants, whereas *extraversion* is the least common personality attribute.

The most significant insights of the research were about the possible relationship between the students' personality traits and their WCF preferences. Taken together, the results suggest that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences. However, in certain aspects of WCF, the groups differed from one another. According to the results, there were some significant relationships found between feedback preferences and *extraversion*, *conscientiousness*, and *agreeableness* personality dimensions. Data revealed that although both high and low scorers in the extraversion trait preferred their local errors to be corrected, there was a slight percentage difference between high and low scorers. Students with low extraversion put greater emphasis on local errors than participants with high extraversion levels. The results also showed that respondents with low levels of conscientiousness wanted all their errors to be fixed more than students with high levels of

conscientiousness, regardless of the type of error. In addition, respondents with high conscientiousness scores expected their teachers to address global errors that affect the comprehension of a message more than their low-scoring counterparts. Another major finding that emerged was about the agreeableness trait. Although students from both high and low scoring groups agreed that teachers are the most trusted feedback sources, participants who scored low on this personality dimension preferred self-correction more than the high-scoring respondents. Interestingly, learners with high agreeableness ratings appreciated the value of WCF for future compositions more than those with low agreeableness scores although both groups acknowledged its impact on subsequent drafts. Results indicated that neuroticism and openness to experience traits had no significant association with the WCF preferences of the students. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that WCF preferences were similar among students with different levels of personality traits. Therefore, personality traits did not appear to be a predictor of WCF preferences or offer an explanation for the varied opinions and preferences for WCF among students. The table below presents a summary of the present study.

Table 24.
A Summary of the Study

Research Questions	1. What are the Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences regarding WCF? 2. What are the levels of personality traits of Turkish EFL learners? 3. Do male and female students differ in their WCF preferences? 4. Is there a relationship between the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners and their WCF preferences?
Data Sources	**1.** In order to explore Turkish EFL learners' WCF preferences, Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire, which was adapted from Hamouda (2011), was employed. **2.** The Big Five Inventory, which was developed by John et al. (1991), was used to identify the personality traits of the participants.
Data Analysis Procedure	Descriptive and inferential analytic approaches were used to examine the quantitative data.

Main Findings	- The majority of the participants preferred teacher-led, unfocused, metalinguistic WCF with specific and detailed comments targeting content and organisation errors and provided by using a red pen. - Participants showed a balanced preference for direct and indirect feedback types. - The respondents thought that WCF is effective in preventing future errors. - Male and female students did not differ in their WCF preferences. - There was no statistically significant relationship between learners' personality traits and their WCF preferences.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

A number of pedagogical implications can be drawn from the findings of the present study and extant research evidence for improving the feedback practices in L2 writing classes. These insights are likely to contribute to the research on WCF as well as writing education by raising awareness regarding error treatment in writing. Indeed, practitioners, researchers and learners as well as curriculum designers and policymakers in EFL settings are expected to benefit from these educational implications.

Taken together, the results of this research revealed that a great majority of the learners want their errors to be spotted and corrected by the teacher, a finding which suggests that some of the priorities of the process-based approach to writing instruction such as self-correction and peer response were not appreciated and internalized by the participants. A teacher-centred model for error treatment is more likely to create dependent and inactive students, though. When provided the instruction and incentive, students are able to correct their own errors and edit their classmates' writing, which fosters collaborative learning. It would be beneficial to invest some class time in teaching students post-writing skills such as revising and editing so that they are able to self-correct with the guidance of the teacher. In addition to facilitating peer and self-assessment activities, L2 writing instructors may assist learners in recognizing their error patterns by keeping error logs and developing assessment criteria collaboratively for writing tasks.

In terms of the scope of feedback, the participants were inclined to have all their errors corrected, including both local and global ones although several studies indicated that providing focused feedback which targets only a limited number of error categories is more effective than providing comprehensive feedback in improving written accuracy (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Ellis et al., 2008; Sheen, 2007; Sheen et al., 2009; VanBeuningan et al., 2012). One of the most challenging decisions that writing instructors have to make is deciding on the amount of feedback while responding to student errors. It is probably the worst kind of feedback a learner can get when their paper is returned without any comments since it gives them nothing to act upon and thus does not facilitate learning. In a similar vein, excessive amounts of feedback might be equally harmful as students are left with too many comments to digest. As suggested by Brookhart (2008), the Goldilocks principle of "not too much, not too little, but just right" may be used in determining how much WCF is sufficient for students (p.13).

The most striking data was obtained about students' preferences for the direct and indirect types of WCF. The participants expressed neutral opinions about the explicitness of the feedback they prefer. Half of the participants preferred direct correction, which requires the teacher to highlight an error and provide its right form. These students may believe that a clue with no correction, which refers to indirect WCF, is ineffective since they require more precise advice. They prefer explicit WCF to implicit correction although indirect feedback has been found to be more effective in some prior studies (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hendrickson, 1980; Makino, 1993) as it enhances learners' problem-solving skills. In indirect feedback, students are informed about the location of an error, but they are asked to rectify this error themselves. Self-correction can boost learner autonomy while enhancing student motivation and enabling them to express empathy towards their teachers. The other half of the surveyed students in the study favoured indirect feedback, which avoids spoon-feeding and leads to cognitive processing. Perhaps the most effective technique for teachers would be to employ both direct and indirect feedback types depending on the targeted error types or proficiency level of the students. Teachers are advised to utilize direct feedback for untreatable errors that are complicated in nature. Learners with low proficiency levels may require more direction and explicit feedback, whereas high-achieving students may benefit from indirect feedback since they have sufficient knowledge of linguistic features

to correct their own errors. Another option for teachers might be to offer indirect feedback in the initial drafts of an essay and provide direct WCF for the final draft.

This study may offer valuable insights for instructors, which may guide their decision-making process regarding the types of errors they should address. It was discovered that the participants ranked errors about content and organisation highest, indicating that their major priority was overall communicative quality rather than linguistic accuracy. Organization errors arise when authors fail to order their thoughts so that they are connected to one another in a logical fashion with a clear introduction, body, and conclusion, whereas content errors damage the unity, coherence, development, completeness, and clarity of ideas in a document. It is recommended that teachers lay equal emphasis on writing components in their feedback practices. In their WCF practises, L2 writing instructors should strike a balance between error-free writing and content-related concerns. They should provide more feedback on the content and organisation for more advanced students while concentrating on correctness for lower-level students.

The gender-based distribution of preferences for WCF revealed that although an overwhelming majority of the students preferred their teachers to use the red pen while correcting their errors, the female participants favoured green pen more than their male counterparts. In light of these results, teachers are advised to keep marking errors with a red pen but try to use a green pen while correcting errors in the female students' papers. Although some studies claim that the red pen creates negative emotions and discourages learners (e.g., Dukes & Albanesi, 2013; Semke, 1984), these studies are conducted in mostly American and European contexts, thus they may not be generalized to Turkish settings. Colours have culture-specific connotations.

This research adds to the WCF literature by investigating the association between students' written feedback preferences and their personality traits, which is a valuable contribution given that prior studies in this field mostly concentrated on the efficacy of WCF in preventing future errors. Broadly speaking, the results of the analysis suggested that the personality traits of Turkish EFL learners did not significantly account for their WCF preferences. Therefore, instead of concentrating on multiple types of WCF techniques based on learners' personality traits, it appears to be a better idea to analyse these distinct feedback strategies based on some other variables such as age,

gender, learning styles, proficiency levels, or departments. To put it bluntly, if teachers would like to figure out why EFL students prefer one type of WCF over another, they should look for some influential variables. However, as in most writing classes in Turkey, learner-centred instruction cannot be implemented because of crowded classes, teachers might become aware of classroom dynamics and adopt WCF strategies that best fit their learners with different personality profiles by getting to know their personality traits. It is recommended that L2 writing teachers fine-tune their paper-marking approaches for the unique requirements of their students since a one-size-fits-all approach is ineffective. Despite the fact that WCF provision is a demanding and time-consuming task, teachers should not be hesitant to offer feedback to student texts as it enables learners to improve their writing accuracy. In addition, teachers should tailor their error treatment practices to the expectations of their students since offering feedback by neglecting their preferences and unique characteristics may be a futile effort. As Leki (1991) states, "It seems at best counter-productive, at worst high-handed and disrespectful of our students, to simply insist that they trust our preferences" (p.210). Instructors can hold whole-class discussions and one-on-one conferences about error treatment to inform learners about how WCF is aimed to impact their writing and why it is offered in that certain way. This way, students can also have a chance to express their opinions, preferences and expectations regarding WCF. Writing instructors should critically reflect on and assess their own feedback approaches, as well. It is important that teachers are aware of both their own and their students' preferences for WCF to bridge any possible gaps between the opinions and expectations of the two parties because when student expectations are mismatched with the actual feedback practices in class, students may become demotivated.

Along with researchers and practitioners, policymakers and curriculum developers may also use the findings of this study to ensure a customised learning experience for students depending on their feedback preferences. It is advisable for administrators to host seminars and workshops about writing instruction and error treatment since some teachers may not have adequate training or experience in this regard. Furthermore, instructors should be given more chances to respond to students' errors. Educational programmes should provide enough time for error treatment by increasing the weekly hours of the writing courses. All in all, it is hoped that the insights generated from WCF studies, and particularly the present research, will eventually provide more

theoretical explanations and guidelines for instructors in selecting the most appropriate strategies for WCF while considering specific instructional contexts and linguistic features as well as individual differences.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Enlightened by the findings of the present study, several recommendations could be proposed for further research. First and foremost, replication studies might be carried out in a variety of educational settings, namely high schools or other state or private universities in and outside Turkey so that more comprehensive data would be gathered and used to help the generalisability of the outcomes. Since the current research employed a quantitative methodology to collect data, prospective studies are advised to adopt mixed-method approaches that utilize various data collection instruments such as focus group discussions, analyses of student writings treated with WCF, classroom observations and semi-structured interviews.

In order to get closer to a better appreciation of WCF, further research into students' preferences for written CF and the reasons for these preferences is essential. It is hoped that the present study would inspire other researchers to perform additional research on learners' expectations and preferences for WCF so that the voices of the students could be heard.

More study is needed to determine if age, culture, proficiency level, aptitude, motivation and educational context are well-grounded variables influencing the WCF preferences and perceptions of learners. This avenue of research would be beneficial to improve the quality of instructors' feedback practices and facilitate learning. Teachers' opinions and preferences should also be investigated to gain a better understanding of the WCF notion. In addition, future studies that examine teachers' actual feedback practices in L2 writing classes along with students' WCF preferences would be of great help in understanding the (mis)alignments between learner expectations and what really happens in the classroom.

This research has opened up several areas worthy of further investigation. The most striking finding of the present study is about learners' preferences for direct and indirect feedback types, which indicated a neutral opinion. Further research regarding students' and teachers' perceptions and preferences for direct and indirect WCF and the

rationale behind these choices would be worthwhile. The relative effectiveness of these two types of explicit and implicit feedback strategies in the long run should be elaborated on, as well. Furthermore, this research clearly demonstrates the personality traits of learners but also raises the question of how different types of WCF may affect the accuracy of the writings of students with different personality profiles. The next step in WCF research should be a more in-depth investigation of the impact of IDs on overall writing quality and CF retention.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-A. Ethics Committee Approval

T.C.
UFUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu Başkanlığı

Sayı : E-81182178-605.99-19395 10.11.2021
Konu : Zeynep DAŞER (Etik Kurul Onayı)

DAĞITIM YERLERİNE

İlgi : Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünün 07.10.2021 tarihli ve E-96064710-5014.10-18342 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversitemiz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi **Zeynep DAŞER**'in, **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ceyhun KARABIYIK**'ın tez danışmanlığında devam ettirdiği "**The Relationship Between EFL Learners' Personality Traits and Their Preferences for WCF - İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Kişilik Özellikleri ile Yazılı Düzeltici Geri Bildirim Tercihleri Arasındaki İlişki**" başlıklı tez çalışması, Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulumuzun 05.11.2021 tarih ve 2021/08 sayılı toplantısında Yükseköğretim Kurumları Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Yönergesi çerçevesinde değerlendirilmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun olduğuna oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini saygılarımla arz/rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Mustafa KILIÇ
Kurul Başkanı

DAĞITIM:
Gereği: Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne
Bilgi: Rektörlük Makamına

APPENDIX-B. Consent Form

Dear Participant,

This study is carried out by Zeynep DAŞER at Ufuk University. The aim of this study is to determine the relationships between EFL learners' personality traits and their preferences for written corrective feedback.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to fill in two questionnaires. Please answer the questions in a way that reflects your thoughts with all their reality, not the way you think they should be. Sincerity of your answers is very important for the soundness of this study.

The survey does not contain any identifying questions. Your answers will only be used for scientific purposes in accordance with the aim of the research and will be kept confidential. You can accept or refuse to participate in this study, and you also have the right to withdraw from the study anytime you want. However, for the validity of this research, it is important that you completely fill out the forms.

If you want to obtain any information about the study, you can contact me from the electronic communication address given below.

e-mail address:

Thank you for your participation.

I ..... to participate in the study.

□ agree

APPENDIX-C. Demographic Information Form

1. Gender

☐ Female

☐ Male

2. Please write your age.

……..

3. Nationality

☐ T.R.

☐ Other

4. Department

☐ American Culture and Literature

☐ English Language and Literature

☐ English Language Teaching

☐ Translation and Interpreting

5. Grade

☐ Preparatory Class

☐ Freshman

6. Perceived Level of English Proficiency

☐ A1

☐ A2

☐ B1

☐ B2

☐ C1

☐ C2

APPENDIX-D. The Big Five Inventory

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please choose a number for each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

Disagree strongly Disagree a little Neither agree nor disagree Agree a little Agree strongly

1 2 3 4 5

I see myself as someone who ...

1. is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
2. tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
3. does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
4. is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5
5. is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
6. is reserved	1	2	3	4	5
7. is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
8. can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
9. is relaxed, handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5
10. is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
11. is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5
12. starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
13. is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5
14. can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
15. is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
16. generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
17. has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
18. tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
19. worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
20. has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
21. tends to be quiet	1	2	3	4	5
22. is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
23. tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
24. is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5

25. is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
26. has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
27. can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
28. perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
29. can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
30. values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5
31. is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
32. is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
33. does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
34. remains calm in tense situations	1	2	3	4	5
35. prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
36. is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
37. is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
38. makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
39. gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
40. likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
41. has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
42. likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
43. is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
44. is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-E. Students' Written Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to find out your preferences regarding how your English essays should be corrected. Please read the statements below and mark the option that you most prefer.

1. I prefer my teacher to correct my essays in …

☐ Red pen

☐ Green pen

☐ Pencil

2. Who do you prefer to correct your essays?

☐ The teacher

☐ My classmates

☐ Self-correction

3. In my essays, I prefer the teacher to highlight …

☐ all the errors

☐ some errors

4. I prefer the teacher …

☐ tells me the right answer.

☐ marks the errors and I correct them.

5. What do you prefer the teacher does to correct your essays?

☐ Cross out the errors and give the appropriate words

☐ Underline the errors and write comments at the end of the essay

☐ Use a correction code

☐ Write questions

6. What kind of comments would you like your teacher to make when giving an essay back?

☐ General comments

☐ Specific and detailed comments

☐ Positive comments

☐ Negative comments

7. The most important thing in an essay is …

☐ grammar.

☐ content.

☐ organization.

☐ vocabulary.

8. In your essays, the teacher should point out …

☐ grammar errors

☐ spelling errors

☐ punctuation errors (period, hyphen, semicolon, etc.)

☐ vocabulary errors

☐ errors on organization of ideas

9. If an error does not affect the understanding of the message, should it be corrected?

☐ Yes

☐ No

10. If there were many errors in your essay, what would you like your teacher to do?

☐ Correct all errors

☐ Correct only serious errors

☐ Correct errors affecting understanding

☐ Correct all repeated errors

11. Once your errors are corrected, do you think you will repeat them?

☐ Yes

☐ No

12. Which statement do you agree on?

☐ The main task of the teacher is to locate and correct students' errors.

☐ The main task of students is to locate and correct their errors.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Name Surname : Zeynep DAŞER

Education

Master of Art's Degree : Ufuk University, English Language Teaching Department - 2022

Bachelor's Degree : Hacettepe University – English Language Teaching Department - 2006

Qualifications

Languages : English

Work Experience

2007 - present : Ataturk University - School of Foreign Languages, Lecturer

2006 : British School Ankara, Instructor

Date **:** 29.06.2022