



Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences
Department of Foreign Language Teaching
English Language Teaching

**THE EFFECT OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT CORRECTIVE
FEEDBACK ON INTAKE OF PAST TENSE MARKER**

Pınar DEMİRCİ

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2010

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KABUL VE ONAY

Pınar DEMİRCİ tarafından hazırlanan "The effect of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on intake of past tense marker" başlıklı bu çalışma, 11.10. 2010 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.


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BİLDİRİM

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11.11.2010

Pınar DEMİRCİ

Pınar

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ABSTRACT

DEMİRCİ, Pınar. *The Effect of Explicit and Implicit Corrective Feedback on Intake of Past Tense Marker*, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2010

The present study aims at providing data on the effects of written corrective feedback on learner intake of past tense marker in both regular and irregular verbs. In this respect, statistical data from the written outputs of 41 pre-intermediate learners at Boğaziçi University were collected over 14 weeks.

In the present research which has a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design, the learners engaged in several story writing tasks and took tests of past simple tense as the pretest at the beginning of the research and as the posttest at the end of the research. In the pretest students took a grammaticality judgment test and a new story ending writing test (written test). Between the pretest and posttest students engaged in a treatment period in which they are required to write totally new endings for four interesting, well-known detective stories. The students who were divided into explicit, implicit and control groups received their papers with one type of corrective feedback and rewrote their tasks again. They were required to write 200 words in 30 minutes. In the posttest the same grammaticality judgment test and another new story ending writing test were administered

The data were computed in percentages and were analyzed under the framework of long-term and short-term effects of written corrective feedback. The research analyses not only the long term effects but also

the short-term effects of corrective feedback on general linguistic accuracy and the accuracy of regular and irregular past forms.

The results illustrated that written corrective feedback does not have a positive effect in decreasing the total number of errors and the number of errors in English past forms in the long term. The short-term results showed that explicit corrective feedback and no corrective feedback is better than implicit corrective feedback in improving regular and irregular past forms.

Keywords: Foreign Language Writing, Written Corrective Feedback, Explicit and Implicit Corrective Feedback, Long- and Short-term Effects.

ÖZET

DEMİRCİ, Pınar. *Açık ve Örtük Düzeltici Dönütün Geçmiş Zaman Öğrenimi Üzerine Etkisi*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara 2010

Bu çalışma yazılı düzeltici dönütün, hem düzenli hem de düzensiz eylemlerde geçmiş zaman öğrenimi üzerine etkisi ile ilgili veri sunmayı amaçlar. Bu bağlamda, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde ortanın altı düzeyinde 41 öğrencinin yazılı üretimlerinden 14 hafta boyunca istatistiksel veri toplanmıştır.

Öntest-sontest yarı-deneysel araştırma deseni olan bu çalışmada öğrenciler birkaç öykü yazma görevi yapmışlar ve çalışmanın başında öntest olarak ve çalışmanın sonunda sontest olarak İngilizce geçmiş zaman sınavları olmuşlardır. Öntestte öğrenciler bir dilbilgisel değerlendirme testi ile öyküye yeni bir son yazma testi (yazılı test) aldılar. Öğrenciler öntest ve sontest arasında, ilginç ve iyi bilinen dört tane polisiye öyküye yeni bir son yazmak zorunda oldukları bir uygulama dönemi geçirdiler. Açık düzeltici dönüt, örtük düzeltici dönüt ve kontrol gruplarına ayrılmış olan öğrenciler yazılarını bir türde dönütle aldılar ve tekrar yazdılar. 30 dakikada 200 sözcük yazmaları beklendi. Sontestte ise aynı dilbilgisel değerlendirme testi ve başka bir öyküye yeni son yazma testi uygulandı.

Veriler yüzdeler şeklinde hesaplanarak yazılı düzeltici dönütün uzun dönem ve kısa dönem etkileri çerçevesinde incelendi. Bu araştırma sadece uzun dönemde değil kısa dönemde de genel dilbilgisel doğruluk düzeyi ve düzenli ve düzensiz eylemlerde dilbilgisel doğruluk düzeyini araştırdı.

Sonuçlar, yazılı düzeltici dönütün uzun dönemde genel yanlış sayısı ve İngilizce geçmiş zaman formlarında yanlış sayısını azaltmada olumlu bir etkisinin olmadığını ortaya koydu. Kısa dönemdeki sonuçlar ise, düzenli ve düzensiz geçmiş zaman formlarını düzeltmede, açık düzeltici dönütün ve dönüt vermemenin örtük düzeltici dönütten daha iyi olduğunu gösterdi.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Yabancı Dilde Yazma, Yazılı Düzeltici Dönüt, Açık ve Örtük Düzeltici Dönüt, Uzun ve Kısa Dönemli Etkiler.

TABLE OF CONTENT

KABUL VE ONAY	i
BİLDİRİM	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENT	viii
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF GRAPHS	xiii
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the Study	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem	7
1.3 Purpose of the Study	8
1.4 Significance of the Problem	8
1.5 Research Questions	9
1.6 Hypotheses	10
1.7 Method	11
1.8 Limitations and Assumptions	12
1.9 Conclusion	14
1.10 Definitions of Terms	14
CHAPTER II REVIEW OF LITERATURE	17
2.0 Introduction	17
2.1 Review of Approaches to Second Language Writing	17
2.1.1. Focus on Form and Current Traditional Rhetoric, 1966-	18
2.1.2. Focus on the Writer, Expressionism and Cognitivism, 1976-	20
2.1.2.1. Expressionism / Expressive Pedagogy	20
2.1.2.2. Cognitivism	22
2.1.3. Focus on Content and Disciplines, 1986-	23
2.1.4. Focus on the Reader: Social Constructionist, 1986-	25
2.2 Error Correction Debate	28
2.2.1 The Role of Error in SLA	29
2.2.2. The Efficacy of Written Corrective Feedback	29
2.2.3. Explicit or Implicit Types of Corrective Feedback-Direct or Indirect..	40

2.2.4. Focused or Unfocused Corrective Feedback	47
2.3 The Target Structure: Acquisition of Past Tense in English	48
2.4 Conclusion	52
CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY	53
3.0 Introduction	53
3.1 Design of the Study	53
3.2 Participants	54
3.3 Instruments.....	55
3.4 Data Collection Procedures	59
3.5 Data Analysis	60
3.6 Conclusion	63
CHAPTER IV DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	65
4.0 Introduction	65
4.1 Long-term Effects of Corrective Feedback	65
4.1.1. Long-term Effects on General Linguistic Accuracy	66
4.1.2. Long-term Effects on Regular Past Tense Forms	67
4.1.3. Long-term Effects on Irregular Past Tense Forms	69
4.2 Short-term Effects of Corrective Feedback and Revision	71
4.2.1.Short-term Effects on Regular Past Forms	72
4.2.2. Short-term Effects on Irregular Past Forms	75
4.3 Conclusion	79
CHAPTER V DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION	80
5.0 Introduction	80
5.1 Long-term Effects of Written Corrective Feedback	80
5.1.1 Long-term Effects on General Linguistic Accuracy	80
5.1.2. Long-term Effects on Regular and Irregular Past Tense Forms	84
5.2 Short-term Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on Regular and Irregular Past Tense Forms	88
5.3 Suggestions for Further Research	90
5.4 Conclusion	92
REFERENCES	95
APPENDICES	104
Appendix 1 Grammaticality Judgment Test	105
Appendix 2 Story Tasks	109
Appendix 3 Word Count and Error Count Guidelines	113

Appendix 4 Error Checklist	115
Appendix 5 Congruency in Types of Errors between Raters, Congruency in Number of Errors Corrected between Raters and Reliability Statistics on Number of Errors Corrected	118
Appendix 6 Sample essays for Current-Traditional Rhetoric, Expressivism, Cognitivism, Writing Across Curriculum	122
Appendix 7 Sample Student Writings from Pretest to Posttest	127
Appendix 8 Types of Explicit and Implicit Written Corrective Feedback	141

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.2.1	Years of English Study	54
Table 3.2.2	Age of the Participants	55
Table 3.2.3	Gender of Participants	55
Table 3.3.1	Summary of Research Procedures	56
Table 3.3.2	Reliability Statistics for GJT	58
Table 3.5.1	Categorization and Classification of Linguistic Errors	61
Table 3.5.2	Interrater Reliability for the Pilot Study	62
Table 4.1.1.1	One-way ANOVA results for the written pretest scores of three groups	66
Table 4.1.1.2	Paired samples t-test for the improvement in general accuracy between written pretest and posttests	66
Table 4.1.1.3	One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups.....	67
Table 4.1.2.1	Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in regular past forms between written pretest and posttests	67
Table 4.1.2.2	One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups in regular past forms	68
Table 4.1.2.3	Tukey's Post Hoc Analysis of Pretest-GJT results in regular verbs	68
Table 4.1.2.4	Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in regular past forms between GJT- pretest and GJT-posttests	69
Table 4.1.3.1	Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in irregular past forms between written pretest and posttests	70
Table 4.1.3.2	One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups in irregular past forms	70
Table 4.1.3.3	Tukey's Post hoc analysis of Pretest-GJT results in irregular verbs	71
Table 4.1.3.4	Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in irregular past forms between pretest-GJT and posttest-GJT.....	71
Table 4.2.1.1	One-way ANOVA results for written pretest regular past form error scores of three groups	72
Table 4.2.1.2	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 1 and Task 1-Revision	73

Table 4.2.1.3	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 2 and Task 2-Revision	74
Table 4.2.1.4	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in regular Past Forms between Task 3 and Task 3-Revision	74
Table 4.2.1.5	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 4 and Task 4-Revision	75
Table 4.2.1.6	Summary of Results in Revisions	75
Table 4.2.2.1	One-way ANOVA results for pretest irregular past form error scores of three groups	76
Table 4.2.2.2	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 1 and Task 1-Revision	77
Table 4.2.2.3	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 2 and Task 2-Revision	77
Table 4.2.2.4	Paired Samples t-test for error reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 3 and Task 3-Revision	78
Table 4.2.2.5	Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 4 and Task 4-Revision	78
Table 4.2.2.6	Summary of Results for Irregular Past Verbs in the Treatment...	79

LIST OF GRAPHS

Graph 4.2.1.1	Regular past form error rates of three groups.....	73
Graph 4.2.2.1	Irregular past form error rates of three groups	76

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

As teachers of English as a foreign language, we have the biggest worry of helping our students not only in grammar or vocabulary but also in language skills. Although we closely observe that our students make improvements in passive skills as reading and listening, we have to wait more for them to engage in active skills as speaking and writing more proficiently. In order to accelerate their process of improvement we give corrective feedback to their written outputs and expect them to write more accurately after receiving corrective feedback. Therefore, the corrective feedback has been one of the defined tasks of a language teacher. Teachers give a preferred type of corrective feedback presuming that corrective feedback will benefit our students. However, this presumption has long been questioned by the researchers who investigated the effects of written corrective feedback.

The present research set out with the intention of investigating the effects of written corrective feedback on not only the English simple past but also general linguistic accuracy of learners in both the long- and the short-run. The study analyzes the improvement of two intact pre-intermediate classes in Boğaziçi University School of Foreign Languages over fourteen weeks. The teacher-researcher followed the drafting process of each learner from pretest to posttest and during the treatment period which also incorporated writing tasks and required students to write the tasks again by taking the type of corrective feedback that is given to the student into account.

Although the present study adopts a multiple drafting strategy, it does not focus on process writing approach and does not deal with the process writing guidelines that were defined by supporters of process approach such as Ferris

(2003). Rather it tries to find the short term effects of corrective feedback and different types of it by requiring the students to write two drafts of the same task. Moreover, though the instruments that were used in both the pretest and posttest or the treatment period were tasks, this research does not aim at probing into an application of task based approach to writing (Skehan, 1998). What the present research aims can be summarized as unearthing the effects of written corrective feedback and finding out which type of it whether explicit or implicit is more beneficial than the other. However, the background for this study should be analyzed in detail in order to understand the research better.

1.1 Background to the Study

After the dismissal of Behaviorist Approach and Audio-lingual Method, teachers of second and foreign language got rid of their fear of errors' turning into habits and they overlooked the practices of corrective feedback in writing. The process pedagogies emerging as a result of resistance to current-traditional paradigm emphasized the learner, writer and social context rather than the accuracy of the written output. The current traditional rhetoric, before 1960s, adopted a different approach focusing on the product rather than the composing processes, the writer, the reader and the social context in which scaffolding and collaboration takes place. Hence, the process approaches such as *expressivism*, *writing across curriculum* and *social constructionism* criticized correcting student errors and almost imposed a ban on error correction in writing.

Although there were some attempts to investigate written error correction (e.g. Cohen and Robin, 1976) the prevalence of negative approaches to correction hindered many researchers who may have tended to probe the construct. It may be said that the prominence of the process-writing paradigm de-emphasized the sentence-level accuracy issues (Ferris, 2003). Only after 1986 could the researchers break the cycle and started to deal with the corrective feedback issues and the study by Robb, Ross & Shortreed (1986) gave a fresh

impetus to the field. However, there was also another problem with these researches which looked into written error correction: They were so preoccupied with the absolute efficiency of corrective feedback that they all set out on investigations that dealt with the effects of different types of written error feedback rather than finding out whether corrective feedback has an effect on linguistic accuracy or acquisition of particular structures. They ignored asking this simple question in such a way that most of the researchers even did not use a true control group in their studies (e.g. Lalande,1982; Frantzen and Rissell,1987; Ferris, 1995; Frantzen, 1995; Ferris and Helt, 2000; Chandler, 2003).

On the other hand, a prominent researcher Truscott (1996) challenged this presupposition by giving sensible reasons, analyzing the results of previous research and making a meta-analysis of the earlier studies (Truscott, 2007). Truscott deprecated the corrective feedback researches that found favorable results for three reasons. He argued that the complex nature of acquiring syntax, morphology and lexis necessitates understanding form-meaning relations and use of them in relevance with written error correction cannot be expected to help learners. The second argument of Truscott (1996) was the necessity of developmentally readiness to acquire a particular structure (Piennemann, 1998). The last one that received the most reactionary attitudes was his claim that corrective feedback only produces pseudolearning when it is measured with a rewrite or revision. Why Truscott rejected the positive effects of corrective feedback was that the results of the previous corrective feedback researches were inconclusive and greatly differed in terms of designs, samplings, settings and the methods used in data analysis; therefore he claimed that many of the researches did not show the efficacy of corrective feedback even if they reported positive results.

The researches which reported positive results varied greatly not only in details but also in the major complements of a research. Lalande (1982); Frantzen & Rissell (1987); Fathman & Whalley (1990); Sheppard (1992); Ferris (1995),

Ferris & Helt (2000); Ferris & Roberts (2001); Chandler (2003) and Bitchener, Young & Cameron (2005) found positive results for written corrective feedback of different types. However, most of these researches lacked a control group which received no corrective feedback to scientifically prove whether corrective feedback has a positive role in enhancing the linguistic accuracy. All the control groups they designed received message-related comments or content-based feedback which would also help a learner gain insight in the nature of the error s/he had made.

There were problems other than the lack of a true control group such as the way of measuring the level of accuracy. Truscott (2007) severely deprecated measuring accuracy over rewrites or revisions of the same task rather than totally new tasks (e.g. Frantzen & Rissell, 1987; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). He postulated that students just memorize or pseudo-learn the targeted structures and do not make the same errors. More importantly, he hypothesized that learners most probably avoid the incorrect structures or simplify their language not to make mistakes again and that written corrective feedback is harmful in that it hinders learners' hypothesis testing and impedes interlanguage development. Truscott (2007) was so straightforward in his claims and he tried to prove the harms of written corrective feedback on accuracy with a meta-analysis of the earlier studies.

The debates on the effects of corrective feedback nearly turned into a "Truscott debate" (Bruton, 2009a) and many researchers opposed Truscott's ideas. Ellis (1998) in his answer to Truscott said that the researches up to that time did not have conclusive negative results and Ferris (2003) cited many researches which reported positive results. However at last, most of the researchers accepted the fact that the literature did not provide conclusive results. Ferris (2010) stated that failure of written corrective feedback to support the theories stemmed from the problems of research designs and the discrepancy among their aims. While SLA researchers have tried to find out the effects of written corrective feedback on a limited number of structures in experimental settings

(e.g. Bitchener, et al., 2005; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2009a, 2009b,2009c; Bitchener, 2008,; Sheen, 2007; Ellis et al., 2008), L2 writing researchers aimed to investigate the positive effects of written corrective feedback on general improvement in quality of the texts (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 2006).

There were also many researches reporting negative results for corrective feedback. Semke (1984); Robb, Ross & Shortreed (1986); Kepner (1991); Makino (1993); Frantzen (1995); Polio, Fleck & Leder (1998) and Fazio (2001) found negative results for written corrective feedback. However, none of these studies except Polio et al (1998), again had a control group, but it must also be noted that all of these researches measured accuracy in the long-term.

The researches reporting positive results were not limited to those until 2005. Inspiring from the success of oral corrective feedback research Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) limited the number of structures to target and gave corrective feedback to only three structures, namely definite and indefinite articles, simple past tense, and prepositions. In the results they saw that corrective feedback was effective in enhancing accuracy in articles in the long and short terms, and past simple tense in the short term only. They could not find a significant improvement in prepositions. Realizing the value of focused corrective feedback rather than unfocused one which targets all of the incorrect structure in the student's written output, many researchers set out to find the effects of one single structure-focused corrective feedback (e.g. Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; and Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2009a; 2009b; 2009c; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Sheen, Wright & Moldawa, 2009). All of these studies proved the positive effect of written corrective feedback on English articles in the long and the short run; however it should be stated that none of these studies investigated simple past tense other than Bitchener et al., which also could not find positive effects in a long period of time.

The potential effects of corrective feedback were not the only problem the researchers investigated. Since most of the researchers presumed that corrective feedback should be beneficial and help learners improve their accuracy, they mostly focused on the effects of different types of corrective feedback and used such research designs accordingly. Most of the studies before Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) did not have a true control group as mentioned before. The results of the researches investigating types of corrective feedback were also inconclusive as were the results of the researches probing the superiority of written corrective feedback over no corrective feedback.

Three studies basically compared the relative effectiveness of explicit and implicit corrective feedback, finding completely different results (Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982; Sheen, 2010) while the other three studies comparing the two constructs could not find a superiority of one over the other (Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Frantzen, 1995). There are also researches which investigated the difference in the effects implicit-indirect types of corrective feedback. However, the two studies found completely different results; while one of them reported no superiority between two types of implicit-indirect corrective feedback (Robb et al, 1986), the other found positive results in favor of coded corrective feedback against underlining (Frantzen, 1995).

There weren't many researches investigating the types of explicit-direct corrective feedback until the recent researches. These recent researches failed to show the superiority of one type of explicit-direct corrective feedback over the other types except for one study, Sheen (2007). She reported the superiority of metalinguistic explanations over traditional direct correction.

What these studies indicate is that there are many researches in the literature whose results are not even comparable because of the great discrepancies in their designs. This big amount of the researches have inconclusive results to prove the efficacy of written corrective feedback in comparison with no

corrective feedback, let alone finding the superiority of different types of corrective feedback. Also it is clearly seen that the literature failed to compare the effects of written error correction in a short and long time period.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Writing has always been a thorny issue for both teachers and researchers in that how to improve this skill is not properly known. Although most of the teachers prefer to make the students practice the skill to improve in reading, listening or speaking, they feel the necessity to do more or something different for writing. Since errors are less tolerated in academic and commercial circles, teachers tried to find some fast-acting remedies to have errorless essays; thus they gave corrective feedback to learners' written errors in different ways.

The problem is much bigger for countries like Turkey in that English is not a medium of daily communication; rather it is a language used in international communication or science. Although it is easier to self-correct some errors through exposition in an "English as a Second Language" environment, it is much difficult to deal with them in an environment where the students only depend on the teacher or the material to improve. It is obviously seen that most of the students make errors which are not tolerable in academia and instructors working in the preparatory classes of universities make much effort to correct their errors. Students make too many errors in their academic essays and papers and they fail to self-correct their common errors without written corrective feedback. However, it is not only the general linguistic accuracy but also the accuracy level of simple past tense that is problematic. The social sciences and history students, who are the majority in Boğaziçi University, especially use a lot of simple past tense in their written productions. English simple past tense goes on being a source of error even through the end of freshman year since Turkish is an agglutinating language and the root of the verb does not change with past inflection. Unfortunately, it takes much more time to acquire the structure for lower level students who have fewer chances to

write in the target language. However, it is not known to what extent teachers' correction practices are useful for students. For this reason the present research aims to find out the efficacy of written corrective feedback on pre-intermediate students' written accuracy.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study aims to find out the potential effects of written corrective feedback on learners' accuracy in English past forms in a short and long period of time by drawing conclusions from the previous research. It tries to contribute to the field with detailed analysis of the target structure and its improvement in writing from the first draft to the second and over a long time. The research targeted to analyze the effects on both the regular and irregular past forms. It also aimed to find out the effects of explicit and implicit types of corrective feedback.

It is not only the past forms but also general linguistic accuracy that is targeted to measure. The researcher computed twenty six categories of errors in five classes as lexical, syntactical, morphological, mechanical, and tense/modality errors. The research took place in a setting where students learn English intensively and deal with a lot of writing tasks for which they receive intensive corrective feedback. The study, therefore, tries to find out to what extent the efforts of the teachers are effective in decreasing the number of errors and answer the question whether the bulk of time teachers spend on correcting errors is really worth.

1.4 Significance of the Problem

Teachers of foreign language spend hours to correct students' papers, sometimes they allot more than half an hour for one paper. If the program is an intensive one the workload of the teacher increases with the number of students. However, it is not always possible to observe the fast-acting results of written corrective feedback. The present research, thus, questions the practices

of teachers, which they perceive as defined tasks of their jobs, namely written corrective feedback.

Although there are various studies investigating different aspects of written error correction, the literature does not provide us conclusive results which may help teachers find their ways in their huge workload. This research tries to find sound results and implications to the classroom by investigating 41 preparatory class students at Boğaziçi University where teachers spend most of their time after school on correction activities. The problem is also significant in that teachers still do not have a clear idea as to the short and long-term effects of corrective feedback.

Another important point in the present research is that there is a limited number of researches on English past tense in oral corrective feedback and even less in written corrective feedback, namely only one. The only study that worked on effects of written corrective feedback on past tense is Bitchener et al.'s (2005) study, which did not analyze past forms of the verbs under the categories of regular and irregular forms. Therefore, the results of the present research are important to understand whether learners can correctly process past forms with the help of written error correction.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to fit the study into a framework, some research questions were determined, and all the data collection and data analysis procedures were analyzed accordingly. The research questions below will be answered throughout this research.

1. What are the long-term effects of written corrective feedback on linguistic accuracy and which type of corrective feedback is more effective in increasing the level of linguistic accuracy?

2. What are the long-term effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms and which type of corrective feedback is more effective in decreasing the number of past forms errors?
3. What are the short-term effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms and which type of corrective feedback is more effective in decreasing the number of past forms errors?

The first research question aims to find out whether there is some reduction in the number of errors in all error categories from pretests to posttests in 14 weeks while the second research question tries to find the level of reduction in regular and irregular past forms. The third research question; on the other hand, investigates the level of error reduction in regular and irregular past forms from the first draft to the second draft of the same task.

1.6. Hypotheses

The present research, in accordance with the research questions, assumes the following hypotheses to come true after the statistical analysis and tries to elucidate the problem in this framework.

1. The research will not find positive effects in favor of written corrective feedback in general linguistic accuracy at the end of fourteen weeks
2. Written corrective feedback will not decrease the level of errors in regular and irregular past tense forms at the end of fourteen weeks.
3. The present research will find positive effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms from the first draft of the task to its revision.

4. This research will demonstrate that different types of written corrective feedback will not have differential effects in the long-term, which means that there won't be a decrease in the number of past form errors.
5. The present research will show that explicit written corrective feedback will have better effects in the short-term and the number of past form errors will decrease in student revisions with written corrective feedback.

1.7 Method

In order to investigate written corrective feedback, the present research analyzed the written outputs of 41 pre-intermediate learners of English as a Foreign Language at Boğaziçi University. The range of the students' ages is from 18 to 28 and they come from different backgrounds of English study. The students started the year as beginner class students and quickly managed to be pre-intermediate after three months of intensive English study 33 hours a week.

The data collection for this research started three months after the school began; therefore their knowledge of simple past forms was tested with two instruments. The first pretest was a 40-item grammaticality judgment test (GJT) in which students answer the questions either with yes or no and give the correct forms if their answer is no. The second pretest was a story writing task in which students read a short story and produced a totally new ending to the story with at least 200 words. After the pretests were administered the teacher-researcher divided the sampling into three groups as "explicit-direct corrective feedback, implicit-indirect corrective feedback and control-no feedback groups", and started the treatment period in which the students read four different stories and wrote new endings to each story. The students completed the first drafts of each story task in 30 minutes and took their corrected papers with one type of feedback the next week. The explicit group received direct correction, the implicit group received coded corrective feedback and the control group received no corrective feedback other than the end-comments such as "very

good, good or not bad". After looking over their errors in 15 minutes, students wrote the second drafts-revisions of the first drafts again in 30 minutes. They received corrective feedback over twenty six error categories in the treatment period which ended with the posttests that incorporated the same GJT in the pretest and another story task. The whole period took 14 weeks and all the students participated in the study voluntarily.

In order to make error correction more reliable, a pilot story writing task was administered to the same students before the data collection began. The papers of the students were error checked by the researcher-teacher and a very experienced teacher who was trained to give error feedback according to the criteria determined by the present research. The interrater reliability was found to be high over the number of errors that are corrected. Also the reliability of the GJT was calculated in a pilot study in another class.

1.8 Limitations and Assumptions

There are some factors which make the results of this study less generalizable. The small size of the sampling is the first limitation of the present research. The number of participants is 41, which was the total number of students in two classes when the students who did not participate in all the procedures were excluded. The number of participants in each feedback group was 13 or 14, which makes it quite difficult to generalize the results.

The second limitation is that the corrective feedback was given to all of the errors in a student's written output although the study aimed to find out the effects of written corrective feedback on regular or irregular past verbs only. This may be a limiting point in that learners may have paid attention to the errors which they thought to be more serious like word order errors rather than the past tense.

The third limitation is the assignment of students to the classes. Since the students were placed in the classes at the beginning of the year and were not transferred to other classes according to their level of improvement, we may not be sure that all the students were at the same level at the beginning of the study. Although the difference in level of past tense knowledge of three different groups was tested with ANOVAs, that does not say much about whether they were at similar levels of general proficiency at the beginning. Therefore, the study could also not reveal whether different levels of proficiency benefit from the corrective feedback at different levels.

Another limitation is that only the researcher-teacher gave feedback to the students and another rater did not rate the student papers. If there had been another rater, the errors corrected would have changed or the missed errors of one rater could be caught by the other rater. Although another rater gave feedback in the pilot study and it was found that there wasn't much difference, the same procedure was not applied during the real data collection period.

It must also be noted that the pilot test for written story ending test was done on the same 41 students and this may pose a problem in that reliability statistics of a test should be calculated over a test that is administered to different students. However, the lack of teachers who volunteered for the pilot study hindered the researcher to analyze different students data.

Finally, though it is a must to take permission of students before collecting data, it may also ruin the originality of the setting. In this study the research data were collected in extra lessons after school under the name of writing workshops. The students knew that they wouldn't be graded over their tasks and that their data would be used in a research; therefore, they may have ignored the corrective feedback and saw the workshops as an opportunity to read some good short stories, write creatively and learn some new vocabulary.

1.9 Conclusion

The present research aims to find out the effects of written corrective feedback on past forms of regular and irregular verbs over fourteen weeks. The study is unique in that no study before analyzed past tense errors by categorizing the verbs into regular and irregular verbs. The effects of written corrective feedback on general linguistic accuracy were also analyzed, which make the research comparable to the previous ones.

However, the research is not without its limitations. The size of the sampling, the assignment of the students to their levels, the nature corrective feedback given to the errors, the lack of another rater and the fact that learners were not graded over their productions were the limitations of the present research.

1.10 Definitions of Terms

So as to explain the results of the research some terms, such as foreign language writing and written error correction are used throughout the study. For a better understanding of the terms the definitions of these terms should be given in detail. Below are the definitions of these terms.

Foreign Language: Foreign language is the language which is learned in a setting where the language is not used as a means of communication or the students are exposed to it in limited occasions other than the academic circles.

Foreign Language Writing: Foreign language writing is a general name for all of the activities that incorporate writing in the target structure or the activities to improve writing skill in a foreign language environment.

Error: Error is a kind of language use which defies the pre-determined standards of a language or prescriptive linguistics.

Written Corrective Feedback / Written Error Correction: Truscott (1996) defines error correction as “correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student’s ability to write accurately” (p.329). Namely, written corrective feedback incorporates all kinds of corrections given on student papers with the aim of helping the learner acquire a particular structure or various structures, or improving a particular manuscript.

Explicit Corrective Feedback: It is the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure by the teacher to the student above or near linguistic error. It may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme or the provision of the correct form or structure (Bitchener and Knoch, 2008)

Implicit Corrective Feedback: It is the type of corrective feedback which only indicates whether an error has been made somewhere in the text rather than giving the correct form.

Accuracy: It is the level of correctness of a student’s written output which is determined according to the prescribed rules of the target language by finding the defiant structures.

Behaviorist Approach: It is the prominent approach inspired by B. F. Skinner’ (1957) “*Verbal Behavior*” and it views foreign language learning as a process of habit formation. Good habits can only be formed by giving correct responses rather than making mistakes; therefore, the approach presumes that memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills will minimize the errors’ turning into habits (Rivers, 1964). It is the structure what is important and unique about the language, so the Behaviorism focuses on mastery of phonological and grammatical structures.

Communicative Approach / Communicative Language Teaching: It is a very complex approach which aims to make communicative competence the

goal of language teaching and wholly develop procedures for teaching of four language skills, listening, reading, speaking, and writing altogether. According to this approach language is acquired through communication and learners have to use it in order to learn it. The approach also views communicative competence in a complex way and analyzes it under the headings of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

Written corrective feedback has created heated debates for at least thirty years. A substantial number of researches were published so far with different designs, samples, settings and research questions. Hardly any one of these studies could be comparable to the other, so conclusive results could not be gained and the role of written corrective feedback went on being discussed. Not only written corrective feedback but also second language writing itself could not offer its own theories and drew a parallel between L1 writing theories. However, in order to understand the role of written corrective feedback in second language writing, an analysis of the historical background of writing theories and written corrective feedback researches must be done.

Therefore, in this chapter approaches to second language writing will be analyzed in detail by years, and accompanying models and trends. Afterwards the efficacy of corrective feedback will be analyzed by comparing the researches which investigated efficiency of error correction only, the explicit or implicit levels of corrective feedback types and lastly the focused and unfocused corrective feedback. In the last part, an analysis of the target structure past forms of regular and irregular verbs will be given and the studies investigating the structure will be examined.

2.1. Review of Approaches to Second Language Writing

While the development of other language skills were based on elaborate theories, the development and history of second language writing developed in line with L1 writing history. Second language writing researchers generally omitted to support their researches with a comprehensive theory of second language writing (Ellis, 2010). Only after 1960s could second language writing

reach to a status of a discipline in its own right. Raimes in 1991 analyzed the evolution of second language writing theory and practice in four foci each of which has a historical root in L1 writing theory.

1. Focus on Form and “current traditional rhetoric,” 1966-
2. Focus on the writer: expressionism and cognitivism, 1976-
3. Focus on content and the disciplines, 1986-
4. Focus on the reader: social constructionist, 1986-

Current traditional rhetoric was not based on a proper well-structured approach and grew out of the academic needs of universities in L1 in that it was presumed that all the students knew the language very well and their only need was to use a suitable discourse which would be appropriate for the purpose of the paper. However, the approaches coming afterwards developed as a reaction to current traditional paradigm and focused on the writer, content and the reader under the framework of writing as a process. All of these three approaches focused on a different aspect of process writing and aimed to help the learner write step by step and develop a single manuscript gradually. However, they are also quite unlike in that they have different foci. Therefore, in this section the four approaches are analyzed separately.

2.1.1. Focus on Form and Current Traditional Rhetoric, 1966-

Raimes (1991) found the bases of focus on form and current traditional rhetoric in Behaviorist Approach and the audio-lingual method. In order to make the learners avoid errors and prevent them to be habits, current traditional rhetoric especially focused on correct application of grammatical rules and production of well formed sentences (Ferris and Hedgecock, 1998). The typical tasks focus on form approach used are controlled composition and especially paragraph and essay-length assignments that typically create a context to practice particular syntactic patterns or lexical forms (Kroll, 1991; Silva, 1990)

Current traditional paradigm was an extension of this model and it led students to concentrate further on connected discourse by combining sentences according to the pre-taught formulas (Ferris and Hedgecock, 1998). The typical tasks involve replicating rhetorical patterns such as exposition, illustration, comparison, classification and argumentation by depending on authentic and student-generated models. Different rhetorical patterns incorporated different levels of formality of language, the common vocabulary used, the choice of tense and complex sentences. Current traditional paradigm identified itself with five canons –invention, arrangement, style, memory and delivery- leaving style and delivery untouched, therefore it enfranchised a pedagogy only focused on clarity and correctness which are assessed apart from intention, audience and purpose (Murphy, 1986).

The supporters of current traditional paradigm thought that language was transparent and capable of expressing truth, and insisted that the use of language should be governed by concrete rules of logic, trying to achieve mathematical plainness as much as they could (Covino, 2001). The identification of current traditional rhetoric with formal rather than contextual properties led it to maintain unity, coherence and correctness as primary virtues and generate textbooks emphasizing four modes of discourse –narration, description, exposition and argumentation- as standard venues for writers (Connors, 1981). Rather than emphasizing the contextual properties such as the writer, reader, content and genre, it accentuates the formal ones as structure, accuracy and discourse.

The critiques of current traditional rhetoric, however, expostulated that it emphasized academic writing in standard forms and correct grammar, by reinforcing middle class values such as social stability and cultural homogeneity. While preserving the gate keeping role of class and economics in L1 composition classes, it led L2 writers to believe that all knowledge can be found in concrete reality through close observation and the language is an uncomplicated medium for communicating already existing knowledge.

Therefore, the work of teaching writing is only limited to having students use grammar correctly to conform to formal conventions (Berlin, 1982). Briefly current traditional rhetoric undervalued the role of the writer and was quite reductionist in teaching how to write well

2.1.2. Focus on the Writer: Expressionism and Cognitivism, 1976-

Current traditional rhetoric received serious criticism about its product-oriented approach to teaching writing and scholars tried to attract attention to the processes that take place while composing a text. With the criticisms of current traditional paradigm scholars believed that only by understanding the writing processes can the writing teachers help their students develop effective invention, drafting and revising strategies, awareness and control, expressivity and fluency, which are all indicators of improvement (Casanave, 2004). Though the origins of process oriented approaches to writing can be traced back to the beginning of the century, teachers of ESL widened their horizons by mingling the process-oriented approaches with expressionism and cognitivism.

2.1.2.1. Expressionism/Expressive Pedagogy

The expressivist scholars desired writing to act as a liberator and a scene for students to reflect themselves. The best known teacher of expressivist pedagogy has been Peter Elbow, who was an L1 writing researcher. According to Elbow (1993) unevaluated, uncorrected writing should be promoted and students should use writing as liberator of the self and an area for reflection. The rule-based, restricted nature of writing courses that characterizes academic writing prevent learners to know themselves and make them only observers rather than activists. Writing should intensely communicate beliefs through voice, thus it acts as a form of political and social activism (Burnham, 2001).

The early expressivists rejected to base their practice on a theory and they preferred to recount anecdotal narrative. The different conceptions of

expressivism created an ambiguity, thus they were severely criticized for not differentiating between the expressive function of language and expressive discourse as a text, however they rejected this dualistic thinking with the opinion that ambiguity is a source of productive dialectic (Burnham, 2001). Murray (1980) thought that there was a relationship of instrumental type between composing the text and making the meaning. In his examination of rehearsing, drafting and revising, he claimed that there existed interacting contrary impulses; exploring and clarifying, collecting and combining, writing and reading through which interaction and meaning occurs. Writing was thought to be an act of discovering meaning which involves interactions between self and subject and an aid for self-development.

Expressivist pedagogy started to use personal types of writing in the academy incorporating tasks such as freewriting, brainstorming, personal journal writing and personal essay writing most of which were not revised at all. They transferred topics from students own lives rather than employing topics of academic fields or of general interest. It was thought that every student had individual features and was unique, thus reflected the self in meaningful and creative ways. There happens an exploration and a perception of the self through reflection, in-depth thinking and self-knowledge which is supposed to be acquired during the writing process (c.f. Appendix 6).

Critics of expressivism asserted that expressivists neglected the product by overemphasizing the process itself. Reid (1984) emphasized that expressive writing as a discovery process is suitable for creative writing rather than academic writing. Horowitz (1986) postulated that process approaches overlooked the academic writing requirements of students at tertiary level. Elbow was criticized for not focusing more on formal writing and not accepting the role of teachers as explicit guides.

Another criticism that expressivism received was about the presumptions about how writing takes place. Presumptively, expert writers or more proficient writers

are thought to be more concerned with the writing itself, discovering the meaning through the writing process and putting off thinking about mechanics. (Casanave, 1988) However, there is scarce evidence to prove a uniform view of writers. Some expert writers prefer to plan and make a strict outline before starting to write while some prefer not to postpone paying attention to grammar and mechanics (Reid, 1984)

There were also criticisms coming from the social rhetoricians. Berlin (1982) defines expressivism as untheorized and ideologically debased form of Neo-Platonism, and that it is a false and otherworldly epistemology of the self that privileges individualism and rejects material world. Moreover, the individual and authentic voice of expressivism estranges students from social and political problems of real world (cited in Casanave, 2004).

2.1.2.2. Cognitivism

Flower and Hayes (1981) were the L1 researchers by whose researches was the cognitive view of writing as a problem solving process inspired. In their research Flower and Hayes tried to understand what was happening inside the minds of both experienced and inexperienced writers while they were composing their texts and they are in decision making process. In order to understand the minds of the learners, researchers used “think-aloud composing” or think-aloud protocols. In think-aloud composing learners voices were recorded as they were writing, making decisions and taking strategic steps. As a reflection of interlanguage development the processing of proficient and non-proficient students are quite different, namely more proficient learners are more skillful in making plans before writing, attending to meaning rather than form firstly, rethink and revise their content and postpone attention to mechanics (Casanave, 2004).

The researches in the literature have concluding results and implications for the classrooms (Zamel, 1976, 1982). Zamel (1983) undertook a study of the

composing processes of advanced ESL students to investigate the extent to which these students experience writing as a process of discovering and creating meaning and the extent to which second language factors affect this process. In this case study the findings indicated that skilled ESL writers explore and clarify ideas and attend to language-related concerns primarily after their ideas have been delineated. Zamel (1983) holds the position that composition should be informed by and based upon what writing actually entails and she questions approaches that are prescriptive, formulaic, and overly concerned with correctness. Rather, she suggests the importance of instruction that gives students direct experiences with the composing process, and proposes a kind of teaching writing that establishes a dynamic teaching/learning relationship between writers and their readers, and that enhances further linguistic development in the context of making and communicating meaning.

Cognitivist process pedagogies developed from researches that were designed to help novice writers perceive the roles of invention, planning, discovery, revising and the inevitable nature of errors and imperfections of language and thinking while writing (Casanave, 2004). Supporters of cognitivist process writing severely criticized separating skills in writing as discrete skills in a linear way and transferred the findings of L1 process research to L2 writing (c.f. Appendix 6).

2.1.3. Focus on content and the disciplines, 1986-

Focus on content and the disciplines materialized with the Writing Across Curriculum (WAC) movement which has been far greater than any other reform movement and radically changed the teaching writing at the colleges. WAC aimed at moving away from a lecture mode of teaching to active student engagement with material and content (McLeod, 2001). The supporters of WAC wanted the students to engage with both materials and genres of the discipline through writing not only in English classes but also in all classes on the campus. WAC scholars employed pedagogical techniques that are used in general

composition classes, but rather than taking them unchanged and focus on teaching the general features of academic discourse, they focused on a particular content of the discipline and the particular discourse features used in writing about that content (McLeod, 2001).

Writing was thought to be a mode of learning which encouraged teachers to use ungraded writing to create an opportunity to think through writing, to question their knowledge and help them disclose how much they know and what their needs are. WAC may act as a tool not only for learning but also testing learning. Referring to Krashen's Comprehensible Input Approach and communicative language teaching Brinton, Snow and Weche (1989) proposed that only appropriate level of input can improve learners' acquisition. They thought that perceived informational content of assignments will increase learners' motivation with its relevance..

The pedagogical repertoire of WAC is also quite rich and it inspired from a kind of notebook which incorporated both the impressions and summaries of a scientist. An earlier form of such a notebook can be Leonardo da Vinci's and the examples can be extended to a scientist's labbook, an architect's sketchbook or an engineer's notebook. Thus, WAC extensively used journal writing as an ungraded way of writing. The analogical relationship between such a notebook and a journal comes from the lack of intention to address an audience and show off with polished work. WAC teachers especially prefer ungraded writing to which teacher does not respond and in which teacher acts as a facilitator or a coach rather than a judge.

The most popular assignment is the journal in which students write freely about a topic without thinking on mechanics. Journals may be used in two ways, dialectical notebook and dialogue journal. Dialectical notebook is a double-entry notebook, one page with students summaries of readings and passages and the facing page with student's response namely metacomments (McLeod, 2001). In a dialogue journal there is a private conversation on the course

content between the student and the teacher. Another type of assignment is quickwrite or focused freewrite which is preferably more suitable for crowded classes. The technique necessitates students to write for one minute about what and how they learned. The jottings written in one minute provide instant feedback to the teacher about the success of the lesson (McLeod, 2001). Briefly writing across curriculum pedagogy is quite student centered and reflective in that teacher is able to understand what is going on in the classroom and to what extent learners are improving, and adapt his/her teaching accordingly (c.f. Appendix 6).

2.1.4. Focus on the reader: social constructionist, 1986-

This last approach is reader-based rather than writer and taught the writer different discourses to communicate information. The focus is on the reader and the writer's aim is to address the audience outside the self. The origins of this approach can be traced back to workshops in Michigan Tech, which grew out of faculty's attempts to help students with writing. The idea of discourse communities became more conspicuous to writing teachers by the 1980s. The teacher is only a guide, but he is not the one who introduces the particular discourse to the learner, rather he is the one who helps students observe disciplinary patterns, the way discourse is structured, understand various rhetorical features that are used in that particular community and perceive conventions of reference and language (McLeod, 2001). By and large, composition teachers act as guides to discourse analysis and they enable the students to be aware of discourse differences. There are many resource books which may help teachers and students to discern the discourse differences. Knuth, Larrabee and Robert's (1989) *Mathematical Writing* consisted of lessons on writing in mathematics and computer science (cited in McLeod, 2001). Day's (1994) *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper* is a still used book that deals with forms and formats of a scientific paper.

Genre theory is also closely related to focus on the reader approach. Genre is a way scientist uses to communicate particular knowledge in a particular branch of science, therefore knowledge of a genre also brings with the knowledge, conventions, norms and formats of a specific discourse community. A composition teacher's main aim is to find out what kind of rhetorical situations his/her students will encounter and help them learn to use the proper genres and discourse conventions (McLeod, 2001). Genre Theory is based on Systemic Functional Linguistics Approach (SFL), which is known as "Sydney School" in the USA and English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

Genre in SFL stresses on the purposeful and sequential features of different genres and the systematic links between language and context (Martin, 1992). Because the genre of this type has come into being within a linguistic framework, genres are characterized as broad rhetorical patterns such as narratives, recounts, arguments, and expositions. These are sometimes referred to as elemental genres which combine to form more complex everyday macro genres (Hyland, 2007). Thus, an elemental genre such as a "procedure" can be found in macro genres such as lab reports, instruction manuals, and recipes, while a macro genre like a newspaper editorial might be composed of several elemental genres such as an exposition, a discussion, and a rebuttal. However, genre theory was strongly criticized in the opinion that it does not suit many language arts and writing teachers' perceived conventional roles.

Genre in EAP; on the other hand, is concerned with the communicative needs of particular academic and professional groups and so genres are seen as the purposeful actions which are routinely used by the members of a particular community to achieve a particular purpose. Genres are therefore specific to the communities that use them rather than the wider culture, and ESP teachers investigate the specific practices of those groups and the names group members have for those practices. So although genres are thought to be more specifically related to groups, they are also viewed in the wider context of the

activities that surround the use of texts. Therefore, there is a difference in the conceptualization genres and Hyland (2007) summarizes the differences as:

“While genres are conceptualized differently, both approaches seek to reveal the rhetorical patterning of a genre together with its key features. This involves studying a representative sample of texts to identify the series of moves, or communicative stages, which make up the genre. Linguistics thus becomes a practical tool that teachers can use in their classrooms, revealing how distinctive patterns of vocabulary, grammar, and cohesion structure texts into stages which, in turn, support the purpose of the genre. While SFL tends to emphasize language rather more in this process, drawing on functional grammar to do so, and ESP stresses the importance of the situatedness of genres in particular contexts through rhetorical consciousness raising, both recognize that the ability to see texts as similar or different, and to write or respond to them appropriately, is vital to achieving literacy in a second language “ (p.153)

Focus on the reader approach to writing is not limited to discriminating genres and discourse conventions. It has a broader inclusion of processes of writing and its social aspect and analyzes how text is shaped out of habits, activities, problems, subject matter and most importantly the collaboration among the learners. Collaborative learning techniques are highly preferred in social constructionist view of teaching writing. Team practice in the same task, jigsaw activities, projects in which students produce a written output by collaborating in making the research, outline and the actual writing stage.

The teachers view their classrooms as social communities and make effort to get off a constant one-way interaction (teacher-student) and supports interaction between students that will take place like a prototype of a professional interaction of colleagues. The relationship between teacher and students resembles that of a professional and an apprentice. As the learners go on following the processes the professional uses, they improve their discourse awareness. Learners' are also required to revise their papers according to reader's comments so that they also learn to use the discourse. In a social-constructionist writing course as well as peer group editing, peer tutoring, small group discussions and collaborative writing assignments are also used. Writing is produced out of socially justified belief that is constructed in community and acquired in interaction in that community. Since writing is thought to be a

complex social and political practice, the writer has a greater control of his/her own decisions on what and how to interact with peers and to what extent to participate (Casanave,, 2004). Therefore, in such a classroom every member is free to make a contribution and participate in the production of knowledge.

2.2. Error Correction Debate

As teachers of ESL we feel an obligation to correct the errors of our students in the opinion that students' accuracy will improve as a result of conscious attention to form creating an opportunity to revise for the students. Although there are different strategies used in error correction, error correction is basically correcting non-target-like features on a learner's paper. Briefly, Truscott (1996) defines error correction as "correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student's ability to write accurately" (p.329). However, in order to understand how error correction works or to what extent it is effective, the role of error in second language acquisition should be dealt with.

2.2.1. The Role of Error in SLA

In early times writing was used as a medium to practice pre-learned vocabulary and grammar (Brown, 2007; Ferris and Hedgcock, 1998). Written language was thought to be a simplistic graphic representation of spoken language (Brown, 2001) and teachers were quite intolerant to errors (Ferris, 2010). Later errors in SLA were thought to be necessary stages of developmental process which was similar to L1 developmental process of children. Krashen (1982, 1984) claimed that error correction was harmful to learners raising their affective filters. Supporters of process-oriented approach also dismissed error correction and emphasized on the procedures that take place while writing, drafting, taking feedback and writing a second draft.

In all these aforementioned stages a sound definition or refinement of error was missing. Ferris (2003) argued if error is not strictly defined, error correction should not be blamed for failing to improve linguistic accuracy in writing. She further states that L2 student's errors should not be marked if they are beyond his/her developmental level. The conceptions of error has been various so far and Ferris (2003) defined two categorizations of error as

- a) Global and local errors which are characterized by its potential to interfere with the meaning and comprehensibility. Global errors are errors which change the meaning into another one or obscure comprehensibility of a particular text. Local errors are the minor ones which do not interfere with the comprehensibility (Bates, Lane & Lange, 1993; Ferris & Hedgecock, 1998)
- b) Treatable and untreatable errors which are characterized by whether students can use a structure correctly by adhering to grammatical rules or whether they have to learn them being not bound to grammatical rules (Ferris, 1999). A distinction has been made in the literature, treatable errors being errors which are made on rule-governed structures and untreatable errors being errors which are on idiomatic and idiosyncratic structures like prepositions, collocations, and lexical and syntactic problems that do not fit in an explanation or classification.

2.2.2. The Efficiency of Written Corrective Feedback

The efficacy of corrective feedback has long been investigated by both SLA and L2 writing researches. Although oral corrective feedback, especially more explicit and focused kind, has proved itself to be effective, written corrective feedback or error correction is still a thorny issue for both sides of researchers. Oral corrective feedback imposing a heavier cognitive load on the learner's memory certainly proved itself to be effective both in experimental and classroom contexts. The results of the later studies corroborated with the results

of earlier studies in terms of efficacy in enhancing the level of accuracy especially when focused on a single structure (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Yang & Lyster, 2010). However, the case has been quite different for written corrective feedback. The previous research on error correction has failed to find conclusive and unambiguous answers for the questions of whether written corrective feedback is effective in improving linguistic accuracy or if it so to what extent it is effective (Sheen, 2007).

The alleged efficacy of written corrective feedback was not supported by researches. Ferris (2010) argues that failure of written corrective feedback to back up the theories stemmed from the fallacies of research designs and the discrepancy among their aims. While SLA researchers have tried to find out the effects of written corrective feedback on a limited number of structures in experimental settings (e.g. Bitchener, et al., 2005; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c; Bitchener, 2008,; Sheen, 2007; Ellis et al., 2008), L2 writing researchers aimed to investigate the positive effects of written corrective feedback on general improvement in quality of the texts (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 2006).

However, when assessed with a holistic approach, it may be said that the history of efficiency of written corrective feedback debate can be categorized as before and after Truscott (1996). Truscott (2007) raised many theoretical explanations for inefficiency of written corrective feedback with a meta-analysis of previous research. Truscott (1996) especially emphasized that

- existing written grammar correction gives us no evidence of its effectiveness
- written grammar correction ignored important insights from second language acquisition research
- written grammar correction researches have insurmountable problems with abilities and individual differences of both teachers and students.

In his answer to Truscott (1996), Ellis (1998) stated that results of the researches so far do not indicate conclusive negative results; rather the results incline to show positive effects of error correction on language accuracy. However, Truscott (1996) was so straightforward in his claims and he called for a complete abandonment of error correction. He claimed that written corrective feedback is a simple transfer of information and it cannot be confidently expected to work when considered the complex nature of acquisition process. He posits that since acquisition of syntax, morphology and lexis necessitates understanding form-meaning relations and use of them in relevance written error correction cannot be expected to help learners (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b). According to Truscott (1996) syntax is especially difficult to learn with written corrective feedback because syntax is not made up of discrete items that are learned one by one.

Truscott's second argument against written corrective feedback was learner's developmentally readiness to acquire a particular structure (Piennemann, 1998). Referring to Krashen's (1981, 1982) natural order hypothesis, he argued that written corrective feedback cannot be effective when it is not given at a time that is not consistent with natural order and readiness.

The third reason why Truscott (1996) dismisses written corrective feedback is that it may only be pseudolearning which is transient and ephemeral and which enhances accuracy in revisions. Thus, afterwards Truscott (2007) analyzed many researches in detail and argued that the alleged success of written corrective feedback resulted from the measurement of accuracy. Certainly Truscott's claims aroused numerous criticisms. The most prominent researcher who tried to refute Truscott's claims was Dana Ferris. Ferris (1999, 2004) argued that the results of written error correction studies clearly show that it is a good way to correct learners' errors in writing to increase the level of linguistic accuracy. Thus, the studies mentioned should be better analyzed in order to understand the debate and more importantly the effect of written corrective feedback.

One of the earliest studies on written corrective feedback is Cohen & Robin's (1976) case study. They found no relationship between error correction and students' correct production of verb forms. The researchers used essays that were written in or out of class and grammar exercises and they reported the results of interviews and texts analyses instead of statistics. The essays were corrected according to a correction checklist which was not strictly followed, which was one of the limitations of the study. The study was also problematic since the feedback was given by three different instructors.

A more sound research was conducted by Lalande (1982). Lalande measured the effect of written corrective feedback on 60 German foreign language university students for ten weeks. He had two groups as traditional error correction (control group) versus guided learning and problem solving (experimental group). The experimental group took coded feedback according to list of codes consisting of 20 codes, but 12 types of grammatical and orthographic errors. Both groups took immediate feedback and rewrote their essays. The results showed that experimental/coded feedback group did significantly better than the control group. However, Lalande didn't have a real control group who did not receive any feedback at all (c.f. Truscott, 1996; VanPatten, 1988). Also four different instructors gave the feedback, which is another limitation of the study. However, in his meta-analysis Truscott (2007) showed that 83 % of total gains of the experimental group occurred in orthographical, not the grammatical errors.

Semke (1984) investigated 141 German foreign language students in four groups as "comment-only, direct correction, direct correction with comments, indirect correction (coded) for ten weeks. Students took feedback on journal entries. In the pretest-posttest design research results showed that there was not a significant difference between the accuracy gains of four groups. The limitations were that the study had no control group, it reported no interrater reliability and there wasn't enough time for the posttest. Moreover, Semke

reported that writing practice alone is enough to enhance student progress and correction does not increase writing accuracy and fluency, and general language proficiency.

Robb, Ross & Shortreed (1986) conducted a research on 134 EFL students under four groups in one academic year. In their voluminous research they divided the sampling into “direct correction, indirect coded feedback, indirect highlighted feedback and indirect marginal feedback”. They used many instruments like editing sample student compositions, sentence combining exercises, and preparation for weekly essay assignments. Two teachers gave the feedback and all students revised their weekly essays. They used narrative tests as pretest and post tests. They found no superiority among groups. The limitations of the study are that there is no control group and that there are differences in levels in pretests although the differences were not statistically significant. Truscott (1996) stated that the last group “the marginal tally of errors in the line” could be treated as a control group, which would indicate the inefficacy of written corrective feedback. However, it should be noted that 40 % of the class time was spent on grammar editing which could act as an equalizing effect (Bruton, 2009b)

Frantzen and Rissell (1987) investigated 14 fourth semester Spanish students at a university in their semester-long study. Students wrote three compositions in the semester and received indirect, uncoded feedback on all errors. Students corrected their errors in 10 minutes in the lesson. The results showed that there was 100 % article and 20 % subjunctive use correctibility. However, they reported no reliability statistics and used a small sample size which will not produce generalizable results.

One of the most debated results was of Fathman & Whalley (1990) study which investigated 72 intermediate ESL students at US universities under four groups of “grammar feedback (uncoded underlining of all errors), content feedback, grammar + content feedback, no feedback (control group). They used 30

minutes in-class compositions and revisions. Two groups “grammar feedback and grammar + content feedback” outperformed control group and content feedback group. Accuracy gains were not measured on new texts, but on revisions. Truscott (1996) criticized the results in that rise in accuracy in revisions does not mean rise in accuracy over time. Also no interrater reliability was given.

Kepner (1991) investigated 60 intermediate Spanish students at a US college in two groups which are “error correction feedback and message related comments”. They did not revise the journal entries that were tested. Only one journal entry was measured. However, Kepner (1991) had some limitations such as having no pretest measurement, no defined error categories, no interrater reliability and no control group. Kepner found no superiority between the groups. Ferris (2003, 2004) rejected Kepner’s conclusion of the study stating that it is a weak evidence favoring correction presenting the fact that error correction group had fewer errors, but there was a standard deviation of 16,89 with a difference of only 6,56 in gains.

Sheppard’s (1992) 26 upper-intermediate ESL students were assigned to “comprehensive error correction and requests for clarification in margins (content-oriented comments)” groups in a ten week treatment period. Two narratives were used as pre- and post-tests. The researcher arranged conferences with both groups, but only the error correction group revised their essays. The results indicated a significant superiority of requests for clarification group. In the research which had no control groups, interrater reliability was not reported. Ferris (2004) and Truscott (2007) criticized the study for ambiguity in the source of effect, whether the effect is produced by conferences or feedback. Makino (1993) investigated self correction with or without corrective feedback. He returned the students’ sentences with “no cues”, “an indication of an error somewhere in the sentence” and “an indication of where the error was in the sentence”. He tested nine different morphemes and found that all the students increased in accuracy and there was no group superiority although means of

the feedback groups were higher than the control group. However, the texts consisted of isolated sentences, so the results are not generalizable to full texts.

In Ferris (1995) study 30 advanced ESL students were tested over five categories through one semester. Students wrote two in-class essays and three out-of-class essays. All students received one type of feedback, one group received content based end notes and the other received selective uncoded indirect feedback for their most prevalent errors being in five error categories. In treatment period students engaged in some mini-lessons on error categories, peer- and self-editing, and keeping an error log. Results indicated that 28 in 30 students showed improvement at least in one category. The study reported interrater reliabilities, but had no control group.

Frantzen (1995) investigated 42 Spanish students under two feedback groups through a semester. The students wrote 9 essays, four being in-class and five being out-of-class essays. The “grammar group” received direct correction and the “non-grammar group” received uncoded indirect feedback out of 18 error categories. While the grammar (experimental) group revised their essays and graded on accuracy, indirect feedback (control) group did not revise their essays. The results showed that both groups improved significantly between pre- and post-tests, however there was no group superiority. Though the grammar group started with a higher mean in essay scores, they ended up with approximately equal scores, which lead Ferris (2003) to assume that indirect feedback may be more effective than direct feedback.

Polio, Fleck and Leder (1998) conducted one of the best designed researches in the decade and they probed into the improvement of 65 ESL students in a US university under two groups for fifteen weeks / one semester. The two groups consisted of “error correction (direct correction) and control groups”. Error correction group engaged in 30-minute in-class editing, written direct corrective feedback and revised their essays in 60 minutes. The results showed that both groups increased in accuracy in time and there was no group superiority. There

was an increase in accuracy from 1st to 2nd drafts, but there was no accuracy increase between drafts from 1st to 4th tasks. Therefore, Polio et al. concluded that writing alone may help learners to improve second language development.

In Ferris & Helt (2000) study 92 ESL university students were investigated on sixteen error categories under two groups which are “direct correction” and “indirect correction”. However, the teachers involved changed their feedback preferences from one type to a mixture of direct and indirect feedback. As a result, they found that 81% of the changes done in response to feedback were correct, which proved that corrective feedback decreases number of errors in revisions especially. Indirect corrective feedback seemed to improve accuracy more than direct one.

Ferris & Roberts (2001) probed into linguistic improvement of 72 ESL students in three groups as “no feedback (control), underlining, and underlining with codes” in two weeks. The students tried to edit as many errors as they could in class sessions. They found no significant difference between underlining and underlining with codes groups, but there was a significant difference between the feedback groups and the control group. Measures of progress were not rewrites, but revisions of first drafts, thus this study has too little to show the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

Fazio (2001) investigated 112 minority and majority grade 5 students’ journal writings in four months. She looked into the effects of corrective feedback and content feedback on French noun-adjective agreement and subject-verb agreement. She divided the sampling into three groups as “form focused (underlining and giving the correct form), commentary (content based comments) and a combination of two”. Fazio also had the students write three drafts and interviewed all the participants. The results showed that none of the three feedback conditions created a significant difference in accuracy between the beginning and end of the study for both minority and majority groups. She

concluded that the results grew out of lack of attentiveness to corrective feedback.

Chandler (2003) carried out two studies with 31 ESL university students for fourteen weeks. In the first study students were divided into two groups of coded indirect correction (experimental) and uncoded indirect correction (control) who received feedback for 23 error categories. The coded correction group revised their five autobiographical writings right after receiving corrective feedback while uncoded group revised their essays through the end of the semester. The first and the fifth assignments were assigned as pre- and post-tests. She found out that the coded correction group outperformed the uncoded correction group. Truscott (2004) criticized the study for not having a true control group questioned the results as a proof of efficiency of corrective feedback; therefore, Chandler (2004) accepted the criticism in her counter-response. In the second study this time 36 students wrote eight autobiographical texts and received four kinds of feedback which are "direct correction, underlining with description, description of error type only and underlining". Chandler used both holistic ratings and counts of number of errors per a hundred words and found that direct correction and underlining groups were significantly better than the other groups. Therefore, Chandler advised teachers to use the least time consuming ones.

Bitchenor, Young & Cameron (2005) investigated 53 adult migrant university students for 12 weeks under the groups of "direct correction + 5 min student-teacher conference + 20 hours instruction, direct correction + 10 hours instruction, and no correction + 4 hours instruction". They gave feedback to definite articles, simple past tense and prepositions on four pieces of writing and discovered that direct correction + conference group was significantly better than control group and direct correction group in global gains. In prepositions conference group outperformed the other two groups which decreased in accuracy. In past simple there were no significant differences between the groups, but only in articles could conference group make a significant difference

in treatable errors. Thus, Bitchener et al. claimed that treatable errors like articles are more conducive to corrective feedback than untreatable errors like prepositions. However, it should be noted that conference group's advantage in global gains stems from the sharp increase in the accuracy of the last task, which leads us to think that there may be another variable that contaminated the results.

Ferris (2006) carried out a one-semester study at a US university in which students received a mixture of direct and indirect correction on fifteen error categories. Only five of the error categories were calculated (verb, noun, article, lexical, sentence errors) and only with the verb errors could a significant difference be found. She also reported that students could successfully use them in their revisions.

Truscott & Hsu (2008) published a research on 47 EFL graduate students in Taiwan under two groups as "underlining (experimental) and control groups" over a two-week period. The experimental group students received comprehensive corrective feedback except word choice and mechanical errors while the control group received nothing other than the pretest, revision of pretest and the posttest. The results showed that all students increased accuracy from pretest to its revision, but there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups in comparison of the pretest and posttest. However, it should be noted that the study was carried out in two weeks, which is far from the claim that it can show the long-term effects. The authors concluded that written corrective feedback is only effective in revisions and has nothing to do with improving linguistic accuracy.

As seen above, from the earlier researches to more recent ones, there have been many different results as to the efficacy of written corrective feedback. Although Lalande (1982); Frantzen & Rissell (1987); Fathman & Whalley (1990); Sheppard (1992); Ferris (1995), Ferris & Helt (2000); Ferris & Roberts (2001); Chandler (2003) and Bitchener, Young & Cameron (2005) found

positive results for written corrective feedback of different types, Semke (1984); Robb, Ross & Shortreed (1986); Kepner (1991); Makino (1993); Frantzen (1995); Polio, Fleck & Leder (1998) and Fazio (2001) found negative results for written corrective feedback. However, the results should be cautiously treated since most of them have no control groups, which would scientifically prove the effect of corrective feedback (e.g. Lalande, 1982; Sheppard, 1992; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Kepner, 1991; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Helt 2000; Fazio, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006). Also three of the studies measured accuracy on revisions rather than on rewrites or new texts, which can manipulate the results in terms of long-term effects of written corrective feedback (Frantzen & Rissell, 1987; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Therefore, we can conclude from the aforementioned studies that the short-term effects of corrective feedback are questionable, and long-term effects were not properly investigated.

From the previous studies we can understand that some types of errors are more amenable to written error correction. As Truscott (1996, 2007) states while lexical errors are quite difficult to self-correct especially with implicit-indirect types of errors, mechanical errors such as punctuation and spelling errors are easier to self-correct with written corrective feedback (e.g. Lalande, 1982; Fathman and Whalley, 1990). However, the case with grammatical or syntactical errors is much questionable. While error reduction in subjunctive use (Frantzen & Rissell, 1987), noun-adjective agreement and subject-verb agreement (Fazio, 2001) is too little or none, the level of error reduction in definite and indefinite articles is quite high (Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; and Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2009a; 2009b; 2009c). Therefore, it can be deduced that a better checklist for error correction should incorporate easier and more treatable structures, and mechanical problems rather than vocabulary or more complex structures.

2.2.3. Explicit or Implicit Types of Corrective Feedback- Direct or Indirect

In the researches carried out in 1990s researchers were mostly sure about the efficiency of corrective feedback and they generally did not question the long-term effects, hence they tried to probe into the effects of different types of corrective feedback. A distinction has been made in the literature between the more explicit types of feedback and more implicit types of feedback. Explicit types of feedback are given directly and they also provide the correct form of the structure whereas implicit types of feedback are given indirectly and they don't supply a correct form (see Appendix 8 for different types of direct and indirect corrective feedback). In the literature written corrective feedback is referred to as either explicit and implicit or direct and indirect. Bitchener & Knoch (2008) gave definition of direct corrective feedback in detail.

"Direct corrective feedback may be defined as the provision of the correct linguistic form or structure by the teacher to the student above or near linguistic error. It may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme or the provision of the correct form or structure" (p.411).

Direct feedback has different forms other than direct correction, such as written metalinguistic explanation in which the teacher gives grammatical explanations of the structure and oral metalinguistic explanation in which the teacher gives mini-lessons to explain the structure. One-to-one conference is also a way of giving explicit or direct feedback in which the grammatical errors of the learner is discussed and the correct forms are given.

A more implicit type of corrective feedback indirect feedback and in contrary to direct corrective feedback it is given to the learner with some clues rather than the openly. In indirect feedback corrector indicates that an error has been made somewhere in the text by either giving codes concerning the type of error and giving the number of errors in the margin or circling and underlining the error. Students are supposed to understand the corrections as a problem solving activity.

The supporters of direct feedback posit that it gives the learner the necessary information needed to understand complex errors such as syntactical errors, complex sentences or non-idiomatic expressions. It is also preferred to indirect feedback for its positive effect in reducing confusion experienced while trying to understand the place and type of the error (Chandler, 2003). On the other hand, scholars in favor of indirect corrective feedback assert that students engage in guided learning and problem solving, thereby promoting a kind of reflection, noticing and attention which will lead to long-term acquisition (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Ferris (2002) and Ferris & Hedgcock (1998) also think that indirect correction directs learners to hypothesis testing which will induce him/her deeper internal processing. A deeper internal processing is thought to be beneficial in internalizing correct forms. While researches weren't able to prove the superiority of indirect feedback over the direct one, one research provided data on the superiority of direct feedback (Chandler, 2003). Oral corrective feedback literature has also demonstrated the effectiveness of explicit corrective feedback especially on a restricted number of structures (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). In order to understand to what extent different types of corrective feedback are effective the studies investigating corrective feedback should be analyzed in detail.

In the aforementioned studies Fathman & Whalley (1990) demonstrated that indirect underlining and content comments + indirect underlining groups outperformed comment only and control groups, but the study showed short-term effects. Ferris & Roberts (2001) found that indirect underlining and indirect underlining + coding groups were better than control group. In Lalande (1982) results indicated that indirect correction was better than direct correction group. On the other hand previously mentioned Frantzen (1995) found no group superiority between direct and uncoded indirect feedback while Chandler (2003) found coded indirect correction group better than the uncoded indirect correction group in her first study. Kepner (1991) and Polio, Fleck & Leder (1998) studies found no group superiority between direct error correction and control group. Therefore not until now could there be an end to the direct versus

indirect feedback debate. The brief results on the relative effectiveness of direct versus indirect corrective feedback and the relative effectiveness of indirect corrective feedback types are as below

- Two studies basically compared the relative effectiveness of direct and indirect corrective feedback, finding completely different results (Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982) while the other three studies comparing the two constructs could not find a superiority of one over the other (Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Frantzen, 1995)
- Up to date researches generally investigated different types of indirect corrective feedback and studies comparing relative implicit levels of indirect corrective feedback found two different results. Robb, Ross, & Shortreed (1986) found no superiority among coded indirect, uncoded indirect and marginal tally feedback types while Chandler (2003) found that the coded corrective feedback was significantly better in increasing accuracy level.

However, the researchers in the last decade overlooked types of direct corrective feedback while favoring indirect corrective feedback. Only with Bitchener et al (2005), Sheen (2007), Bitchener (2008), and Bitchener & Knoch (2008, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c) were we able to see the effects of various direct feedback conditions. These studies should further be analyzed.

Bitchener et al (2005) investigated articles, simple past and prepositions under three feedback conditions which were direct correction + oral and written metalinguistic explanation, direct correction + written metalinguistic explanation and direct correction only and discovered that the first group was significantly better than the others in articles, but not past simple.

Sheen (2007) probed into improvement of 91 ESL intermediate learners in English articles for seven to eight weeks. She divided students into three groups as direct correction, direct metalinguistic correction and control group who didn't

receive corrective feedback and measured improvement with a speeded dictation, a narrative writing and a error correction test. The feedback groups received selected / focused error correction. The results showed that corrective feedback groups significantly outperformed the control group, but metalinguistic feedback was better in the long-run, as shown with the results of delayed post-test. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the study was not conducted in a classroom context, rather in an experimental condition.

Bitchener (2008) tried to find evidence in support of corrective feedback with 75 low intermediate students from four intact classes. He measured the accuracy gains in English articles from pretest to immediate and delayed posttests with picture narration activities. The sampling was divided into “direct correction + oral and written metalinguistic explanations, direct correction + written metalinguistic explanation, direct correction only, and control groups”. In oral metalinguistic explanation students received mini-lessons while they received a simple one-sentence explanation on how to use English article structure in written metalinguistic feedback. Bitchener found that the 1st and 3rd groups were significantly better than control group whereas the 2nd group could not display such a performance. He found that also accuracy gains continue for two months with these two feedback conditions and concluded that mini-lessons are preferable to one-to-one conferences for time concerns.

Bitchener & Knoch (2008) giving a broader data of the same study of Bitchener (2008) reported a research of 144 international and migrant ESL students for two months. They investigated definite and indefinite articles with four groups that are given in Bitchener (2008). Three feedback groups significantly outperformed the control group and accuracy gains were retained over seven weeks. They demonstrated that direct correction + written metalinguistic explanation group was also successful when the sampling was widened to international and migrant students.

Bitchener & Knoch (2009a) reported the results of a ten month study carried out with 52 ESL university students grouped under the same types of corrective feedback conditions as in the previous study. They tested accuracy of articles with a pretest, posttest (a week later), and three delayed posttests (8 weeks, 6 months and 10 months later). The authors found a significant superiority of corrective feedback conditions over control group. In the concluding remarks they advised teachers to use selective focused corrective feedback rather than a comprehensive one.

As an extension of the previously explained research, Bitchener & Knoch (2009b) contributed to the literature with their research on 52 low-intermediate ESL students who are divided into four groups as they were in Bitchener & Knoch (2008). The researchers investigated articles with a pretest, immediate posttest and a delayed posttest (4 weeks later). While picture narration texts were submitted with corrective feedback after the pretest, they were given without feedback after the posttests. In the results it can be clearly seen that all feedback groups were significantly better than the control group in both immediate and delayed posttests and there was no group superiority between feedback conditions. The authors came to a conclusion that it is better to use the least time consuming type for the teacher and that rule based structures are more amenable to corrective feedback.

In Bitchener & Knoch (2009c) articles again were investigated under three feedback conditions that were used in the previous study, but this study did not have a control group and had a sampling of 37 low intermediate ESL students. They tested accuracy over time with a pretest, immediate posttest, and two delayed posttests (2 weeks and 6 months later) the results were the same with Bitchener (2009b)

In a most recent study Sheen (2010) investigated differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in ESL classroom with 143 adult ESL students in US. She probed into the improvement in accuracy in English articles with a

speeded dictation, written narrative and error correction tests by dividing the sampling into five groups as “oral recasts, oral metalinguistic, written direct correction, written direct metalinguistic and control groups”. In the research which was pretest-posttest-delayed posttest design all the feedback groups except the oral recasts group significantly outperformed the control group, which indicates the fact that explicit corrective feedback whether oral or written is more conducive to increasing linguistic accuracy than implicit types of corrective feedback.

Referring to Schmidt’s (1995, 2001) account of awareness in L2 acquisition, Sheen (2007) explained the difference in the effect of direct correction and metalinguistic feedback. Schmidt (1995, 2001) divided awareness into two levels of noticing and understanding. “Noticing” requires to pay attention to instances of a specific structure seen in a text (e.g., English has ‘a, an, the’ in the sentences) while “understanding” necessitates knowing the rule that governs the particular structure (e.g., English uses *a* before first mention of a noun and *the* before the second mention). Therefore, she concluded that conscious rule awareness coming out of “understanding” in metalinguistic feedback facilitates later learning.

After 2005 the scholars saw the deficiency in the direct corrective feedback literature and contributed with various studies. To my knowledge no one could properly prove the superiority of one direct corrective feedback type to another. Only Sheen (2007) found that direct correction with metalinguistic feedback was better than direct correction in the delayed posttest, which was not observed in the immediate posttest. Truscott & Hsu (2008) severely criticized Sheen’s conclusion that metalinguistic feedback is effective in retaining the accuracy gains with the idea that such a big difference that did not come out in the immediate posttest cannot increase the accuracy gains seven weeks later.

Theses written in Turkey also have different results in terms of efficacy of explicit and implicit types of written corrective feedback. Eylenen (2008)

analyzed 68 students in 10 weeks under three conditions of written corrective feedback: direct correction and underlining, coded correction, and no corrective feedback. She employed comprehensive corrective feedback which targeted all the errors in the written output. She also found that written corrective feedback does not have positive effects on the improvement of accuracy in the long-run. However, she found that coded written corrective feedback (implicit type) is better than both direct correction and no corrective feedback in the revisions and in the new task written after the revision.

Another thesis, Ergünay (2008) analyzed stative verbs and their use in present simple tense and present progressive tense under three groups of direct correction, underlining, and no corrective feedback. He used comprehensive corrective feedback strategy in which he gave feedback to all errors and found that both the direct correction and underlining group outperformed the control group which did not receive corrective feedback in the long-run. Although he did not give data on the improvement of general linguistic accuracy, he found positive results for stative verbs.

Telçeker (2007) also analyzed the effects of written corrective feedback with content-related comments. Her participants wrote three drafts of an essay and received implicit/indirect written corrective feedback in the form of coding on the second draft of the task. The results of the analysis of 16 students' linguistic accuracy between revisions showed that students benefitted from the written corrective feedback more than content-related comments or one-to-one conferences. The results are important for the present study in that both researches were made at the same university and with students at similar levels as well as she gave corrective feedback to many different types of errors. However, it should be noted that Telçeker did not measure long-term effects of written corrective feedback.

Another thesis is Eş's (2003) with a different focus, but a study which has related results to the present study. Eş analyzed 65 students' improvement in

Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in three focus-on-form groups. In the study which took two weeks he found that the focus-on-form treatment groups which received focused instruction was better than the group which received an instruction focusing on many structures.

Subaşı (2002) conducted a research on written peer corrective feedback with 36 ELT students under the groups of experimental group which were trained to give peer feedback and did so for 15 weeks and the control group which went on normal classes. She found that the experimental peer feedback group did better than the control group in their revisions and in the long-run.

The last thesis on written corrective feedback was Çağlar (2006) which analyzed written commentaries and the saliency of written corrective feedback. Although it was a case study and analyzed only six students, it found that implicit-indirect corrective feedback types are difficult to understand for the student and teachers should not give corrective feedback to each and every error in a student's written output.

2.2.4. Focused or Unfocused Corrective Feedback

Although the term error correction seems to be widely accepted by many professionals, the content of the concept has been determined according to the needs and research objectives of the researches so far. The question of what to correct and how to correct has initiated many scholarly debates in well-known journals. However, after Bitchener et al.'s (2005) study a kind of realization on the nature of error correction and the selection of errors to be selected evoked. Also the failure to clearly show the effectiveness of written corrective feedback lead researchers to find out the reason why corrective feedback is not attended or its effects are not retained for a long time; therefore some researchers went on with analyzing the relative effectiveness of focused and unfocused feedback. Scholars preferred basically two strategies one of which addresses all the errors in student's paper and the other which is preferred by the advocates of selective

correction. They compared the comprehensive / unfocused error correction, in which all errors are corrected with selective / focused correction in which the researcher only focuses on one type of error and gives feedback on only that structure.

Focused Written Corrective Feedback

- is given to only errors of a single structure (ex: articles, stative verbs, subjunctives)
- uses selective corrective feedback strategy
- can be given either explicitly or implicitly

Unfocused Written Corrective Feedback

- is given to all or most of the errors in the written output.
- uses comprehensive corrective feedback strategy
- can be given either explicitly or implicitly

Up to Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima (2008) no studies, to my knowledge, compared focused and unfocused corrective feedback. The only study after Ellis et al (2008) study on focused corrective feedback was Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009). The only two studies that compared two corrective feedback conditions found different results, one being a research that is in favor of focused corrective feedback (Sheen et al., 2009) and the other being a research that failed to find superiority of focused type (Ellis et al., 2008). However, when the studies that could clearly show the efficiency of corrective feedback are analyzed, it can be seen that all of them were of focused type (e.g. Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; and Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2009a; 2009b; 2009c). The two studies should be further analyzed in detail.

Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima (2008) investigated 49 ESL students' improvement of accuracy in articles under the groups of "focused direct correction, unfocused indirect correction and control groups". Their measures were written narratives and error correction test in the pretest-posttest-delayed

posttest design. The results indicated that both the focused and unfocused feedback groups were significantly better than the control group. However, the results should be taken cautiously since the correction was given only up to four errors in each text, which may lead to an unexpected noticing to the investigated structure.

The research by Sheen, Wright & Moldawa (2009) also investigated English articles with 80 adult ESL learners under four groups of “focused correction (underlining + correct form given), unfocused correction (only correct form given), writing practice group (took the treatment session without feedback), control group (took neither the treatment session, nor corrective feedback). Between the pretest and posttest the first and the second groups wrote two narratives and received corrective feedback as a treatment, while the third group just completed two tasks as a treatment but didn’t receive any corrective feedback. The results showed that focused corrective feedback and writing practice group outperformed the unfocused and the control groups. While the study was successful in displaying the superiority of focused type over the unfocused one, it also pointed out that only writing practice alone without feedback is enough in improving the level of accuracy.

Taking the previous studies into consideration we can come to the conclusion that focused corrective feedback is more effective than the unfocused type. Sheen et al., (2009) points out the fact by questioning lack of intensive and focused approach to written corrective feedback. However, they also accept that such an approach may not be consistent with the aims of the course and contradict the classroom practices having been used so far.

2.3. The Target Structure: Acquisition of Past Tense in English

Although the acquisition of past tense has been a hot debate among connectivist theoreticians by analyzing child past forms acquisition, neither the L2 nor the SLA researchers investigated the improvement of past forms in detail

through written corrective feedback sessions. Almost all of the most recent researches focused on the improvement of definite and indefinite English articles rather than past tense as a both exemplar-based and rule-based structure.

To my knowledge the only written corrective feedback research on past forms was Bitchener et al (2005); however, this study did not have a detailed enough statistical design to understand the nature of past forms improvement through written corrective feedback. Bitchener et al (2005) neither mentioned how they counted the past tense errors nor analyzed the structure with a regular-irregular distinction. In Bitchener et al (2005) study the control group which received no corrective feedback did not have a significantly less improvement than “the explicit correction + conference and explicit correction only group” in past tense, which failed to show the efficacy of written error correction on past tense.

The English past tense creates basically two forms of verbs, regular and irregular. This distinction makes it too difficult for Turkish native speakers to learn the structure in a single instructional treatment or corrective feedback session. Just like the native speakers of English, Turkish native speakers make errors in past forms even in advanced levels of proficiency (Ellis et al., 2006). Owing to the agglutinating structure of Turkish, past tense in Turkish is marked with suffixes of witnessed events and events learned through hearsay rather than a rule-based and an exemplar-based morphology (Pinker, 1996). Regular past forms are rule-based and governed by the simple rule: Add –ed to the base form of regular verb. However, irregular past forms are item- or exemplar based and are unpredictable. Ellis (2005) claims that the acquisitional processes of the two kinds of verbs vary to a great extent.

The acquisition of regular versus irregular verbs is still a thorny issue in applied linguistics. There are basically two models of representation and processing of past forms which are analogy-based network model and distinct channels model. Rumelhart and McClelland (1986) proposed an integrated connectionist

network that is mapped from the stems of all verbs to their past tense forms (McClelland and Patterson, 2002a, 2002b) They claimed that the same connections and units that make regular past tenses from regular verbs also process the irregular verbs. Therefore, the networks in human brain use the inherent tendency to apply the same rules to the exceptional verbs by adding /d/, /t/ or /^hd/ sounds depending on the final consonant. The connections adjust the activations to make *kept* instead of *keeped* and also its neighbors such as *creep*, *leap*, *sleep*, *sweep* and *weep*. Their model is called parallel distributed processing model (PDP).

On the other hand Pinker and Ullman (2002) state that English past tense is governed by two competing mechanisms, called “words and rules”. These words and rules are taken as examples of declarative and procedural systems. These mechanisms work separately to acquire irregular and regular verbs. According to Pinker (2000) words and rules compete to modify the verb and if the verb is an irregular one it is generated by the lexical mechanism. Their model is called “words and rules theory”. The basic difference between the two theories is that while the PDP depends on the quasi-regularity of irregular verbs (such as tell-told, sell-sold), words and rules theory conceptualizes the irregular verbs as totally different verbs which have no similarity at all.

Skehan (1998) also states that there is a dual-mode system that forms related representational systems as analytic rule-based and memory driven exemplar-based systems. Drawing from Skehan’s conclusion, Yang and Lyster (2010) asserted that if there are two processing systems then different instructional interventions will have different effects on improvement of rule-based and exemplar-based representations. Hence, the present study expects different effects from different corrective feedback types

2.4. Conclusion

In this chapter the approaches that influenced the development of second language writing research and the effects of written corrective feedback were analyzed in literature. It was found that after current traditional rhetoric, trends in psychology influenced L2 writing research which appeared as process-based approaches such as expressionism, content and the disciplines and social constructivist approach. In the detailed review of the literature it was seen that there are various results as to the efficacy of written corrective feedback whether it is explicit or implicit. Although the earlier studies failed to show the efficiency of written corrective feedback, the later studies which were more explicit and focused in nature were successful in improving the correct use of English articles. However, it was also shown that there is almost no research investigating the past tense as a target structure in detail. Therefore, the present study will report the efficacy of written corrective feedback on both regular and irregular past forms.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter a general outline of the study will be made and the procedures that are employed in the research will be described in detail. The design of the study, participants, instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis will be examined one by one. At the end of the chapter a conclusion will make a summary of the chapter.

3.1. Design of the Study

In this research the researcher aimed to probe into the learners' improvement in decreasing past tense errors over time in totally new texts rather than in rewrites or revisions of the same task. As mentioned above in the literature review part, testing student performances on revisions has generated a heated discussion and the researchers modified their research in the light of the criticisms (Truscott, 2007). Therefore, the present study is a quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest study, between which there is a treatment period when the students receive corrective feedback or no feedback. Since the study aimed at investigating long-term effects of the corrective feedback as the first goal, it lasted 14 weeks and the participants read six stories and completed six major tasks and revisions of four of them. The written outputs of the participants were analyzed according to the error coding procedures determined before and fed into computer. Other than the written outputs, the beginning level of the participants in past tense forms were also measured, however the details on the instruments will be given later in this chapter.

3.2. Participants

The participants of this research are 41 students from two intact beginner classes in Boğaziçi University School of Foreign Languages (YADYOK). Boğaziçi University is an English-medium university in which students have to pass the proficiency examination (BUEPT) after a one-year preparatory English class. There are four levels of classes at the school: beginner, pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced, the students of which are determined by a placement examination at the beginning of the year. Mostly the beginner students are not zero beginners who have never been exposed to English beforehand; rather they are false beginners whose foreign language experiences didn't go well enough. However, students were at the pre-intermediate level during the data collection for this research. The school provides students with intensive classes of grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening and writing. At the end of the year students are expected to write academic essays not only in their fields, but also in other fields. Throughout the year the students work with two teachers, one of whom generally deals with grammar and vocabulary while the other introduces reading, listening and writing tasks.

All of the students in the present research had at least 7 years of English study and they had some experiences with English; however they were all assigned to beginner classes because of the incongruity in their knowledge of English. Here are the participants' years of study.

Table 3.2.1 Years of English Study

Years of English Study	N	%
7 years	2	4,87
9 years	36	87,80
12 years	3	7,31
Total	41	100

The participants were generally at similar ages since they get admission to university right after the school. The ages were between 18 and 28, but most of the students were at the age of 18. The table below shows the differences in ages.

Table 3.2.2 Age of the Participants

Age	N	%
18	38	92,68
22	2	4,87
28	1	2,43
Total	41	100

Another difference among the students is the gender. The sampling seems to have been distributed between the genders equally. Here is the table showing the numbers concerning the genders.

Table 3.2.3 Gender of Participants

Gender	N	%
Female	22	46,34
Male	19	53,65
Total	41	100

The participants participated in the research voluntarily and they signed a letter of consent before the research procedures started. In fact, the students who took part in the study amounted to 48 students, but the one who did not participate in all of the tasks were excluded from the sampling.

3.3. Instruments

As mentioned earlier the students in this study received different kinds of corrective feedback in order to understand the effects of written corrective feedback on decreasing the number of errors in the long-term. Throughout the

research period all of the participants received one type of corrective feedback, which were explicit direct correction, implicit coded feedback and no corrective feedback. According to the pre-test results of a grammaticality judgment test (GJT) and a story task the students were randomly assigned to a group, but the levels of the groups were controlled with one-way ANOVAs and Tukey's Post-Hoc analyses as to the fact that there are differences at the start. After it has been confirmed that there aren't statistically significant differences, the researcher could start the treatment period. During the treatment period all the students read four stories as they did in the pretest and they wrote new endings for them. A week after the task they rewrote the endings again by taking the corrective feedback the teacher had given into consideration. At the end of the treatment period which involved four writing tasks the teacher-researcher administered the posttests in order to see the difference in fourteen weeks. In the posttest the same GJT used in the pre-test and a different story were used. A summary of the procedures is shown in the below table. (See the Appendices to find the GJT and story tasks)

Table 3.3.1 Summary of Research Procedures

WEEK 1	Pretests	GJT
WEEK 2	Pretest	Story Task-Writing a new ending
WEEK 3		Task 1 Writing a new story ending
WEEK 4		Task 1-Revision (after receiving corrective feedback)
WEEK 5		Task 2-Writing a new story ending
WEEK 6		Task 2-Revision (after receiving corrective feedback)
Two weeks		Mid-term Holiday
WEEK 9		Task 3 Writing a new story ending
WEEK 10		Task 3-Revision (after receiving corrective feedback)
WEEK 11		Task 4 Writing a new story ending
WEEK 12		Task 4-Revision (after receiving corrective feedback)
WEEK 13	Posttest	Story Task-Writing a new ending
WEEK 14	Posttest	GJT

Grammaticality judgment test is a test involving numerous questions for which the students has to decide on the grammaticality. The GJT the present study used consisted of forty questions that test regular and irregular past tense forms. The reason why the researcher preferred a grammaticality judgment test and a writing task is that the two tests measure different kinds of knowledge. Ellis (2005) asserts that grammaticality judgment tests, if untimed, can be used to measure explicit knowledge. There is a “knowing that and knowing how” difference between the implicit and explicit knowledge. Ellis (2005) claims that there are seven major differences between the implicit and explicit knowledge:

1. Awareness (intuitive versus conscious)
 2. Type of knowledge (procedural versus declarative)
 3. Systematicity of knowledge (systematic versus inconsistent)
 4. Accessibility (accessed by automatic processing versus controlled processing)
 5. Use of L2 knowledge (accessed during fluent performance versus during planning)
 6. Self-report (Non-verbalizable versus verbalizable)
 7. Learnability (learned potentially in critical period versus learned at any age)
- (p.151)

An untimed grammaticality judgment test can offer the opportunity to disclose all the features of explicit knowledge. In the present case the participants were given ample time to complete the grammaticality judgment test; therefore the students submit their tests when they have finished and checked whether all their answers are correct. The GJT consisted of forty questions half of which were for regular past forms and the other half of which were irregular past forms. The verbs were chosen from the last three writing assignments taking the student errors into consideration. The researcher chose the most common twenty regular and irregular past form errors (c.f. Appendix 1).

The story tasks however, required the students to write a totally new ending to a short story in 30 minutes, which enabled the students to activate their procedural memory and automatic processing. This time period was determined

by experiences of the researcher/teacher who saw that students could finish such story ending tasks in approximately 30 minutes. 30 minutes is also a time period which would require the students to write fluently without much using their monitor. The number of words required was determined for practical reasons in that such number of words could give the opportunity to analyze different types of errors. Moreover, when the number of words they had to write, which was 200 words, is taken into consideration, it can be said that the participants have to write fluently by using their systematic and non-verbalizable knowledge with intuitive awareness in such a short time. Therefore, it can be said that the writing a story ending task in the pretest is supposed to measure the implicit knowledge.

The story tasks were chosen in purpose to create an intensive reading opportunity for the students, which was one of the objectives of the course. The stories were well-known short stories most of which are adventure stories or thrillers. The teacher-researcher prepared questions on the short story before and used them in in-class discussion (c.f. Appendix 2). The students were assigned to read each story at home and they participated into a guided discussion activity about the characters and the plot in the lesson. After they thought that they were ready to write a new ending they started to write the task individually in 30 minutes.

In order to test whether the grammaticality judgment test is reliable enough to use in the research it was administered to fifteen students in another beginner class as a pilot study and it was found that the test is highly reliable with an alpha coefficient of 0,807, which means that the test is usable in the present research.

Table 3.3.2 Reliability Statistics for GJT

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,807	40

In order to test knowledge of past forms the same GJT is used for both pre and posttests. Because there are thirteen weeks between the two applications of the test, the possibility of memorization of the questions is discarded. However, a different story was preferred as the posttest in order to test accuracy in writing in totally new texts, which has been a hot debate in the literature (Truscott, 1996, 2004, 2007; Truscott and Hsu, 2008).

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

Before the administration of the instruments, the learners were asked whether they wanted to participate in a research. The details of the research were explained to them and a letter of consent which was signed was taken from each of the participant. The students were assured that their IDs will be kept confidential and the possible benefits of participating in such a study were explained elaborately to motivate the learners to complete all the tasks. Just because the study was a voluntary one, the teacher-researcher named the writing sessions as “writing workshop” and the students participated in the lessons after class hours in the day.

After the pretests were administered, the students started the treatment period in which they took corrective feedback of one type. The explicit-direct correction group (n= 14) received traditional error correction in 26 error categories. The errors of the learner were indicated and the correct forms were given under the line. The implicit-coded correction group (n=13) received codes of 26 error categories, but the correct forms were not given. The last group, control-no feedback group (n=14), did not receive any in-text corrections, but only received one of the four comments as “excellent, very good, good, needs working on”. In the treatment sessions the students received their first drafts with corrective feedback or no corrective feedback and they were required to analyze their papers for ten minutes. The teacher-researcher did not help the students to understand their errors, but advised them to try to understand the errors by

thinking about the errors. After ten minutes, students wrote the second draft-revision of their writings. At the end of the treatment the posttests were administered.

The student papers were photocopied and computation of the errors was done on the photocopy of each paper. The number of errors in each error category were counted and fed in to computer every week. The original papers of the students were submitted to them with either corrective feedback or no feedback one week later after the administration of the task-first draft.

3.5 Data Analysis

The data on the computer were crude data and did not have a standardized form; therefore the data were turned into percentages for standardization. However, the researcher used two different computational methods to find the level of errors on a student paper. To find the level of general accuracy errors the researcher used one of the methods Polio (1997) offered. Polio reported four different measures of linguistic accuracy in second language writing research, which are holistic scales, error-free T-units, error counts without classification and error counts with classification. Only error-free T-units and error counts with classification methods would be appropriate for the researcher's objectives, but the researcher preferred the latter because of the fact that whether an utterance is a T-unit may not always be clearly distinguished. The researcher preferred to use error counts with classification to make the past tense errors more visible during the computation. It was also preferred more in the previous studies (e.g. Chandler,2003; Truscott and Hsu, 2008), therefore the researcher applied this method to make the present research comparable. In this method, both the number of errors and total words are counted and the number of errors is expressed percentages over the total number of errors. The formula used for this method is as follows:

$$\text{Total number of errors} \times (100 / \text{Total number of words})$$

However, how to count the number of errors and the total number of words was another problem. For this Polio's (1997) guidelines were used with a few changes (c.f. Appendix 3). Finally it should be noted that all the data was analyzed with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 16. As mentioned before the computation of errors was done with error classifications on photocopied papers. Five different classes of errors as "lexical, syntactical/grammatical, morphological, mechanical and tense/modality" errors were counted under twenty six categories of errors. Below there is a table illustrating the categories of errors and their classes (c.f. Appendix 4).

Table 3.5.1 Categorization and Classification of Linguistic Errors

LEXICAL	wc	wrong word choice
	wf	wrong word form
	pro-agree	unclear pronoun agreement
	prep	incorrect or missing preposition
	nonidiom	non-idiomatical expression
SYNTACTICAL	cond	incorrect use of conditional sentence
	ss	incorrect sentence structure
	wo	incorrect word order
	conn	incorrect or missing connector
	pass	incorrect use of passive voice or passive needed
	art	incorrect or missing article
	frag	fragment-incomplete sentence
	^	something is missing (verb, subject, object)
	ext	extra or repeated word.
MORPHOLOGICAL	sv	incorrect subject-verb agreement
	sing/pl	problem with a singular or plural form of a noun
	vf	incorrectly formed verb (verbs that are not predicate)
MECHANICAL	cap	capitalization needed
	cs	comma splice (independent clauses joined by a comma)
	lc	lower case (word incorrectly capitalized)
	punc	incorrect or missing punctuation
	ro	run-on (independent clauses joined by no punctuation)

	sp	spelling error
TENSE/MODALITY	vt	incorrect verb tense (except simple past tense)
	pt	past form error (past tense needed, past verb incorrectly formed or past participle used instead of past verb)
	modal	incorrect use of a modal

The explicit-direct correction and control groups have never seen these categories, but the implicit-coding group received these categories as corrective feedback; therefore a mini-lesson on the categorization of errors was given to those 13 students before the research processes began.

In order to prepare the learners for the sessions a pilot study involving all the participants was made before the data collection began. In this study students were again required to read a short story and discuss it in the light of the teacher's questions, and wrote a new ending to the story. The student papers were returned with corrective feedback of one type and the students wrote the second drafts of the task after analyzing their errors in ten minutes. The statistical data of this pilot study were computed by two raters one of whom is the teacher-researcher and the other is another beginner class teacher. The second rater was trained by the researcher for error categorization. A comparison of the two corrections was made in order to understand whether there is a systematicity and consistency between the two raters' ratings. In order to do this, interrater reliability of the pilot study was found with Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient and it was found that interrater reliability was quite high. The table below shows the interrater reliability coefficient over the number of corrected errors.

Table 3.5.2 Interrater Reliability for the Pilot Study

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,982	2

Although the number of errors was computed and a high reliability was found between the raters, it does not say anything about whether the categorizations are the same. In order to find this the congruence between the error categorizations were computed and it was found that there is an average of 81, 12 % congruence between the categorization of two raters, which is a high percentage (c.f. Appendix 5 for categorization consistency between raters).

As for the computation of past tense errors a different method was used. In order to correctly determine the past tense errors whether past tense is needed or whether the form of the past tense is incorrect in an occasion is determined. The number of the obligatory occasions for past simple tense is calculated and the number of errors on these occasions was found. The level of errors is expressed in percentages. If a sentence or clause needs simple past tense and it does not have it or if a sentence needs simple past tense, but although the sentence is formed with simple past tense, the form of the regular and irregular past verb is incorrect, it is counted as one “pt” (past tense) error (c.f. Appendix 4). The formula is as below:

- The sentence needs simple past tense, but it does not have.
- The sentence has simple past tense, but the past form of the verb is wrong.

This method is called “obligatory occasion analysis” (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005) and it was used in many of the recent researches (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2009a; 2009b, 2009c; Sheen, 2007). They used this method in defining the obligatory occasions of definite and indefinite articles, rather than past simple errors. As it can be seen in the categorization of errors obligatory occasions of past simple tense were found, but different codes were not assigned to regular and irregular verbs.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the procedures, the participants, the setting, the instruments, data collection, and data analysis of the present research. As it can

be seen while the design of the study is not a totally new one, the target structure, simple past verb forms, were not investigated in detail in the literature. The difference in the present research is the methods used in computing all categories of errors and past form errors particularly. The chapter gave an overall analysis of the research, but a detailed analysis of the statistical data will be given in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter the writing performances of pre-intermediate level preparatory class students in Boğaziçi University will be examined. The data analysis regarding the three research questions will be done on SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 16.0 . Many paired samples t-tests were used to understand the improvement over time in the long-run and improvement between first and the second (revision) drafts in the short-run. One-way ANOVAs were used to find whether there is group superiority of explicit, implicit and no corrective feedback groups within the same scores.

4.1. Long-term effects of Corrective Feedback

In order to understand the long term effects of written corrective feedback and give an answer to first research question, pretest scores of all three groups were compared with the scores of posttest by paired samples t-tests. The same procedure was repeated for regular and irregular past-tense forms to answer the second research question. However, a one-way ANOVA was used to understand whether the students were at the same level in the beginning of the research.

Long-term effects on general linguistic accuracy
 Written pretest —————> Written posttest
 the level of error reduction is analyzed

Long-term effects on regular and irregular past forms
 GJT-pretest and Written Pretest —————> GJT-posttest and Written Posttest
 the level of error reduction is analyzed

4.1.1. Long-term Effects on General Linguistic Accuracy

In order to understand whether students are at the same level of linguistic accuracy a one-way ANOVA was used and the levels were compared. The table below shows that there is no significant difference among the groups at the beginning of the study, which means that they started at the same level.

Table 4.1.1.1 One-way ANOVA results for the written pretest scores of three groups

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST	Between Groups	30,192	2	15,096	,440	,647
	Within Groups	1304,228	38	34,322		
	Total	1334,420	40			

The main effect of the group was not significant, $F_{2, 38} = 0,440$, $p = 0,647$. The table shows that there wasn't a significant difference among the linguistic accuracy levels of three groups over the written pretest at the beginning of the research. Also in order to understand to what extent total number of errors are reduced from pretest to posttest three paired samples t-tests were done and the results are reported below in the table. In the comparison between the written pretest and posttest levels of three groups it can be seen in the table that there is no significant difference, which means that there isn't a meaningful reduction in total number of errors in time at 95 % confidence level, which means that none of the groups significantly reduced their total number of errors from the written pretest to posttest.

Table 4.1.1.2 Paired samples t-test for the improvement in general accuracy between written pretest and posttests

	Paired Differences		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Explicit	-,28720	4,60583	1,23096	-2,94653	2,37213	-,233	13	,819*
Implicit	,59025	4,71206	1,30689	-2,25722	3,43772	,452	12	,660**
Control	,06508	6,19302	1,65516	-3,51067	3,64082	,039	13	,969**

Note: $p^* > 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} > 0,05$

Table 4.1.1.3 One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST	Between Groups	59,459	2	29,724	,784	,464
	Within Groups	1440,464	38	37,907		
	Total	1499,913	40			

The main effect of the group was not significant, $F_{2, 38} = 0,784$, $p = 0,464$. The table shows that there wasn't a significant difference among the linguistic accuracy levels of three groups over the posttest at the end of the research period.

Both the paired samples t-tests and ANOVA results showed no significant results. It was seen with the t-test results that none of the groups improved from written pretest to posttest. A one-way ANOVA also indicated that none of the groups have a superiority over the others in posttest scores.

4.1.2. Long-term Effects on Regular Past Tense Forms

With the aim of understanding the level of error reduction in regular past tense forms from written pretest to posttest three paired samples t-test were used and the results were reported below. According to the table below, there is no significant difference between the written pretest-posttest levels in all of the three groups with 95 % confidence.

Table 4.1.2.1 Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in regular past forms between written pretest and posttests

	Paired Differences		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
explicit	1,44202	17,28984	4,62090	-8,54083	11,42488	,312	13	,760*
implicit	5,19701	15,57211	4,31893	-4,21312	14,60714	1,203	12	,252**
control	,39940	11,49452	3,07204	-6,23734	7,03613	,130	13	,899***

Note: $p^* > 0, 05$ $p^{**} > 0, 05$ $p^{***} > 0, 05$

Table 4.1.2.2 One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups in regular past forms

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST	Between Groups	36,355	2	18,177	,226	,799
	Within Groups	6964,557	38	183,278		
	Total	7000,912	40			

The main effect of the group was not significant, $F_{2, 38} = 0,226$, $p = 0,799$. The table shows that there wasn't a significant difference among the regular past tense error levels of three groups over the written posttest at the end of the research period. On the other hand, the Table 4.1.2.1 shows that none of the groups improved in regular past forms accuracy over time from pretest to posttest. The one-way ANOVA result also indicates that there is no group superiority in regular past forms over written posttest scores, which means none of the groups is better than the other.

Table 4.1.2.3 Tukey's Post Hoc Analysis of Pretest-GJT results in regular verbs.

Multiple Comparisons							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable	(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GJT-pretest-regular verbs	control grup	explicit group	,64286	,93246	,771	-1,6312	2,9170
		implicit group	-1,00549	,95022	,545	-3,3229	1,3119
	explicit group	control group	-,64286	,93246	,771	-2,9170	1,6312
		implicit group	-1,64835	,95022	,206	-3,9658	,6691
	implicit group	control group	1,00549	,95022	,545	-1,3119	3,3229
		explicit group	1,64835	,95022	,206	-,6691	3,9658

Table 4.1.2.3 above shows that there wasn't a significant difference between the levels of students in regular verbs in the pretest-GJT, which means that they started at the same level of regular verb accuracy. This result validates the

Table 4.1.2.1 which shows that there isn't also a difference among groups in the written posttest.

Table 4.1.2.4 Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in regular past forms between GJT- pretest and GJT-posttests

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
explicit	-2,78571	3,26234	,87190	-4,66933	-,90210	-3,195	13	,007*
implicit	-3,00000	2,51661	,69798	-4,52077	-1,47923	-4,298	12	,001**
control	-3,35714	2,92488	,78171	-5,04592	-1,66837	-4,295	13	,001***

Note: $p^* < 0,05$ $p^{**} < 0,05$ $p^{***} < 0,05$

The table 4.1.2.4 shows that all the groups improved in accuracy in regular past forms from pretest-GJT to posttest-GJT, which means that there are significant differences between the pretest and posttest levels. This result, however, does not support the results for written pretest and posttests which found that the groups did not improve over 14 weeks.

4.1.3. Long-term Effects on Irregular Past Forms

The table 4.1.3.1 below reports the results of three paired samples t-tests showing to what extent there is improvement from written pretest to posttest in irregular past forms. As it can be seen there is no significant difference among groups in error reduction between two instruments. It can be stated that there isn't a meaningful reduction in irregular form errors with 95 % confidence.

Table 4.1.3.1 Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in irregular past forms between written pretest and posttests

	Paired Differences		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Lower	Upper			
explicit	-9,39168	24,34019	-23,44529	4,66193	-1,444	13	,172*
implicit	,83475	9,29866	-4,78438	6,45387	,324	12	,752**
control	-1,48809	18,11872	-11,94952	8,97335	-,307	13	,763***

Note: $p^* > 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} > 0,05$

Table 4.1.3.2 One-way ANOVA results for the written posttest scores of three groups in irregular past forms

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST	Between Groups	557,197	2	279,599	1,142	,330
	Within Groups	9274,344	38	244,062		
	Total	9831,541	40			

The main effect of the group was not significant, $F_{2, 38} = 1,142$, $p = 0,330$. The table shows that there wasn't a significant difference among the irregular past tense error levels of three groups over the posttest at the end of the research period. Again both the t-tests and ANOVA results showed that none of the groups decreased in the number of errors between pretest and posttest and that none of the groups were better than the other.

The post hoc analysis of the Pretest-GJT results in Table 4.1.3.3 below shows that there isn't a significant difference between the beginning levels of the three groups at the pretest in irregular past verbs. On the other hand, Table 4.1.3.4 indicates that all the groups improved in accuracy in irregular past verbs from pretest-GJT to posttest-GJT, which means that all three groups increased in number of correct irregular past verbs. However, this result does not corroborate with the paired samples t-test results for written pretest and written posttest which showed that none of the groups decreased their irregular past verb errors.

Table 4.1.3.3 Tukey's Post hoc analysis of Pretest-GJT results in irregular verbs

Multiple Comparisons							
Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable	(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
GJT-pretest-irregular verbs	control group	explicit group	-,21429	1,69612	,991	-4,3508	3,9223
		implicit group	-1,62637	1,72843	,618	-5,8417	2,5890
	explicit group	control group	,21429	1,69612	,991	-3,9223	4,3508
		implicit group	-1,41209	1,72843	,695	-5,6274	2,8033
	implicit group	control group	1,62637	1,72843	,618	-2,5890	5,8417
		explicit group	1,41209	1,72843	,695	-2,8033	5,6274

Table 4.1.3.4 Paired samples t-test for the error reduction in irregular past forms between pretest-GJT and posttest-GJT

	Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
explicit	-3,14286	2,95758	,79045	-4,85051	-1,43520	-3,976	13	,002*
implicit	-3,07692	3,70723	1,02820	-5,31718	-,83666	-2,993	12	,011**
control	-3,64286	2,13423	,57040	-4,85051	-,83666	-6,387	13	,000***

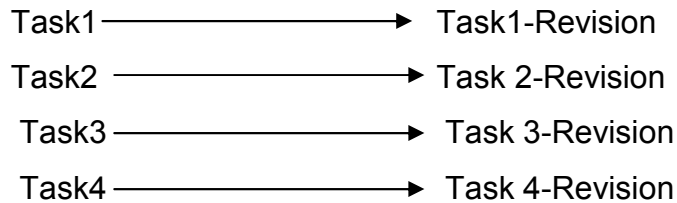
Note: $p^* < 0,05$ $p^{**} < 0,01$ $p^{***} < 0,001$

4.2. Short-term effects of Corrective Feedback and Revision

The long-term effects of written corrective feedback is analyzed above with comparing the pretest and posttest levels of three groups and it is understood that there has not been meaningful reduction in number of both regular past and irregular past forms errors. In order to understand to what extent written corrective feedback is effective in revisions the error rates of treatment tasks

and their revisions were analyzed with paired samples t-tests. The error rates of the learners have been calculated by obligatory occasion analysis, in which all the obligatory uses of past tense are counted and the percentage of regular past form errors is found within that number.

Short-term effects on regular and irregular past forms



the error reduction in past forms between drafts is analyzed

4.2.1. Short-term Effects on Regular Past Forms

The levels of three groups in regular past form errors are statistically analyzed with a one-way ANOVA to ensure that they are at the same level before grouping is done and treatment is administered. The table below shows that there is not a statistically significant difference among error rates of three groups, $F_{2, 38} = 0,226 = 0,799$, thus it can be said that all participants are at the same level in written pretest.

Table 4.2.1.1 One-way ANOVA results for written pretest regular past form error scores of three groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
REGULAR PRETEST	Between Groups	86,716	2	43,358	,226	,799
	Within Groups	7300,520	38	192,119		
	Total	7387,236	40			

Below there is the Graph 4.2.1.1 showing the development in regular forms throughout the pretest, treatment and posttest sessions. It can be clearly seen that learners reduce errors from the original task to its revision, however whether the differences are significant or not should be statistically tested.

Graph 4.2.1.1 Regular past form error rates of three groups

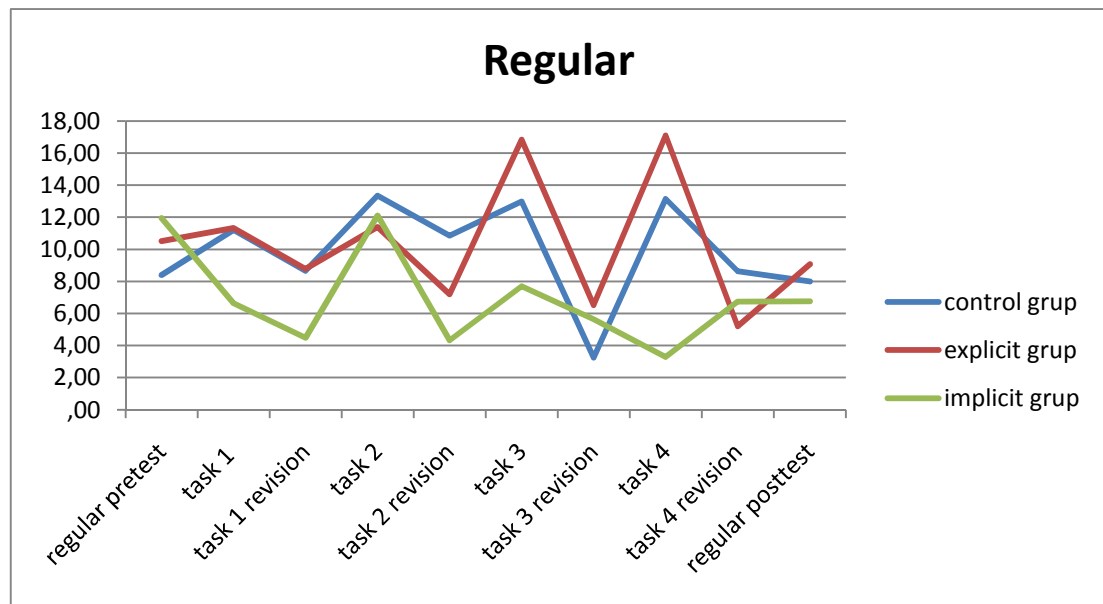


Table 4.2.1.2 shows the difference between Task 1 and Task 1-Revision. In order to understand the effect of written corrective feedback on regular past forms, the scores of the tasks and their revisions were statistically analyzed, and some significant differences were found. For the effect of corrective feedback in Task 1 and its revision, three paired samples t-tests were used, and it was found that there is not a statistically significant difference from task 1 to Task 1-Revision with 95% confidence, which means that none of the groups reduced their regular past form errors between drafts.

Table 4.2.1.2. Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 1 and Task 1-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct correction (explicit)	2,56891	12,01211	3,21037	-4,36668	9,50449	,800	13	,438*
Coding (implicit)	2,16173	15,23779	4,22620	-7,04638	11,36983	,512	12	,618**
No feedback (control)	2,55243	21,01128	5,61550	-9,57912	14,68398	,455	13	,657***

Note: $p^* > 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} > 0,05$

Also for Task 2 and Task 2-Revision paired samples t-tests are used to find to what extent is the difference between drafts that is shown in the graph. It is again seen that there is no significant difference between the two drafts; that is none of the groups reduced their error rates from Task 2 to its revision.

Table 4.2.1.3 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 2 and Task 2-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct correction (explicit)	4,18121	10,25267	2,74014	-1,73851	10,10092	1,526	13	,151*
Coding (implicit)	7,78685	16,56598	4,59458	-2,22387	17,79757	1,695	12	,116**
No feedback (control)	2,50267	9,33679	2,49536	-2,88823	7,89358	1,003	13	,334***

Note: $p^* > 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} > 0,05$

As it can be seen in Table 4.2.1.4, the calculated t is bigger than the t_{value} in 13 degrees of freedom and the significance is lower than 0,05, it can be said that there is a significant difference in error reduction between task 3 and its revision for explicit corrective feedback and control groups at 95 % confidence level. However, the implicit feedback group could not make a significant improvement.

Table 4.2.1.4 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in regular Past Forms between Task 3 and Task 3-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	10,32176	16,71910	4,46837	,66844	19,97508	2,310	13	,038*
Coding (implicit)	2,05128	23,10557	6,40833	-11,91128	16,01384	,320	12	,754**
No feedback (control)	9,72230	13,63971	3,64537	1,84696	17,59764	2,667	13	,019***

Note: $*p < 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} < 0,05$

For the improvement from Task 4 to Task 4-Revision three paired samples t-tests are made and the results are shown in Table 4.2.1.5 It was found that there is a significant difference between the task and its revision for the explicit group, which means that they meaningfully reduced their regular past form errors at 95 % confidence level.

Table 4.2.1.5 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Regular Past Forms between Task 4 and Task 4-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	11,88758	20,33878	5,43577	,14432	23,63084	2,187	13	,048*
Coding (implicit)	-3,44600	17,29457	4,79665	-13,89701	7,00501	-,718	12	,486**
No feedback (control)	4,51825	19,09447	5,10321	-6,50657	15,54307	,885	13	,392***

Note: p* < 0, 05 p**> 0, 05 p***> 0, 05

The paired samples t-tests above showed that most of the difference between the tasks and their revisions are not significant. While the explicit corrective feedback group significantly reduced their errors in two of the tasks, the control group significantly improved only in one task. On the other hand implicit corrective feedback group could not reduce their errors from tasks to their revisions. A summary of the significant or insignificant differences are given below in Table 4.2.1.6.

Table 4.2.1.6 Summary of Results in Revisions

REGULAR	TASK 1	TASK 2	TASK 3	TASK 4
Direct Correction	No significance	No significance	**Significance	**Significance
Coding	No significance	No significance	No significance	No significance
No Feedback	No significance	No significance	**Significance	No significance

4.2.2. Short-term Effects on Irregular Past Forms

In order to understand whether the participants are at the same level of irregular past form errors the pretest scores for irregular past forms were tested with a one-way ANOVA and it was found that there was no significant difference

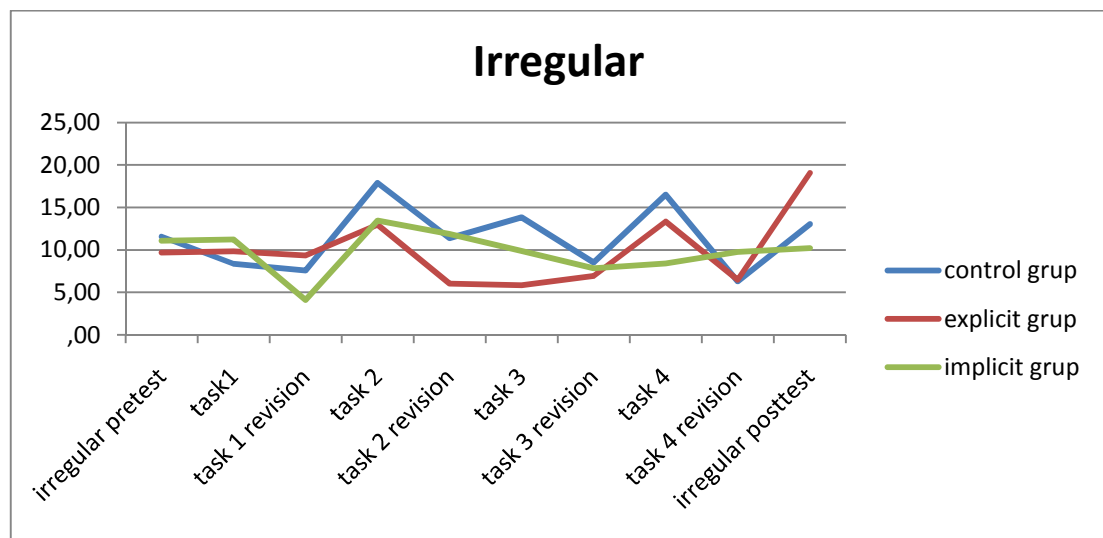
between the levels of the groups which means that they were at the same level at the beginning of the study. The table below indicates a result of $F_{2, 38} = 0,099 = 0,906$.

Table 4.2.2.1 One-way ANOVA results for pretest irregular past form error scores of three groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
IRREGULAR PRETEST	Between Groups	26,325	2	13,163	,099	,906
	Within Groups	5044,626	38	132,753		
	Total	5070,951	40			

In order to understand what kind of a development pattern the participants had during the pretest, treatment and posttest sessions, a graph showing the scores is given below. As it can be seen in the table there are error reductions from tasks to their revisions; however, statistical analysis should be done to understand to what extent these differences are significant.

Graph 4.2.2.1 Irregular past form error rates of three groups



The table 4.2.2.2 below shows the differences among groups in error reduction from Task 1 to Task1-Revision and it indicates that there are no significant differences at 95 % confidence level, which means that none of the groups decreased the number of errors between the drafts.

Table 4.2.2.2 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 1 and Task 1-Revision

	Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	,49178	10,75562	2,87456	-5,71833	6,70189	,171	13	,867*
Coding (implicit)	7,12273	11,96667	3,31896	-,10865	14,35412	2,146	12	,053**
No feedback (control)	,80610	6,59682	1,76307	-3,00279	4,61499	,457	13	,655**

Note: $p^* > 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} > 0,05$

In Table 4.2.2.3 the results of three paired samples t-tests are reported to compare the scores of Task 2 and its revision. According to the table explicit corrective feedback and control groups significantly decreased their errors between the drafts at 95% confidence level. On the other hand, the implicit feedback group could not decrease their errors significantly although the sig (2-tailed) value is too close to p value which should be lower than 0,05.

Table 4.2.2.3 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 2 and Task 2-Revision

	Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	6,94476	13,80820	3,69040	-1,02786	14,91738	1,882	13	,082*
Coding (implicit)	1,61498	8,99160	2,49382	-3,81859	7,04854	,648	12	,529**
No feedback (control)	6,53137	8,15918	2,18063	1,82040	11,24234	2,995	13	,010***

Note: $p^* < 0,05$ $p^{**} > 0,05$ $p^{***} < 0,05$

Table 4.2.2.4 indicates that none of the groups have a significant difference in their errors from Task 3 to its revision at 95 % confidence level, which means that they did not decrease their number of errors between drafts.

Table 4.2.2.4 Paired Samples t-test for error reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 3 and Task 3-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	-1,09850	7,65720	2,04647	-5,51963	3,32264	-,537	13	,600*
Coding (implicit)	2,04536	8,00585	2,22042	-2,79252	6,88325	,921	12	,375**
No feedback (control)	5,31103	14,31199	3,82504	-2,95247	13,57453	1,388	13	,188***

Note: p* > 0,05 p** > 0,05 p*** > 0,05

Table 4.2.2.5 shows that control group which received no corrective feedback has a clearly significant improvement between Task 4 and Task 4-Revision though the other groups could not decrease the number of errors in irregular past forms.

Table 4.2.2.5 Paired Samples t-test for Error Reduction in Irregular Past Forms between Task 4 and Task 4-Revision

	Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Direct Correction (explicit)	6,87199	13,87098	3,70718	-1,13687	14,88086	1,854	13	,087
Coding (implicit)	-1,38140	9,81260	2,72152	-7,31109	4,54830	-,508	12	,621
No feedback (control)	10,21475	9,29633	2,48455	4,84721	15,58228	4,111	13	,001

Note: p* > 0,05 p** > 0,05 p*** < 0,05

The paired samples t-tests above showed that coding group could not decrease the number of errors from original tasks to their revisions while direct correction and no feedback group could improve in some of the drafts. Although direct correction group could decrease the number of errors in one of the revisions, no feedback group was more successful in that it achieved to gain improvement between two drafts in two of the tasks. A summary of the results are given below.

Table 4.2.2.6 Summary of Results for Irregular Past Verbs in the Treatment

IRREGULAR	WEEK 1	WEEK 2	WEEK 3	WEEK 4
Direct Correction	No significance	**Significance	No significance	No significance
Coding	No significance	No significance	No significance	No significance
No Feedback	No significance	**Significance	No significance	**Significance

4.3. Conclusion

The ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc tests showed that all the groups started at the same levels in both regular and irregular past verbs and in both written pretest and pretest-GJT, which is a comforting result. As for the long term effects of written corrective feedback it was found that none of the groups could improve in neither general linguistic accuracy nor regular and irregular past forms accuracy. The short-term effects were different, but difficult to interpret. In regular past verbs, explicit group improved in two tasks (Task 3 and Task 4) and the control group improved only in Task 4 while the implicit group did not improve at all. In irregular past forms, explicit group improved in one task (Task 2) and the control group improved in two tasks (Task 2 and 4) while the implicit group did not improve at all. The statistical analyses produced negative results which were not in favor of written corrective feedback in the long-run and which were partially in favor of explicit written corrective feedback for only regular past forms in the short-run.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter a detailed analysis of the data will be done and some conclusions will be drawn out of the statistical analyses. The hypotheses will be tested comparing the results of t-tests and some interpretations will be put on the research results. The results will be compared with the results of the previous studies and at the end of the chapter some suggestions for further research will be given to guide the future research to produce better and more generalizable results.

5.1. Long-term Effects of Written Corrective Feedback

As for the first research question “What is the effect of written corrective feedback on general accuracy level and which type of written corrective feedback is better in decreasing the number of errors between pre- and post-tests?”, the pretest and posttest results calculated over the percentage of errors were compared and relevant interpretations were drawn out of statistical data. Therefore, as for the long-term effects of written corrective feedback, “the error reduction in general linguistic accuracy and past forms in the students’ written outputs from pretest to posttest” is meant.

5.1.1. Long-term Effects on General Linguistic Accuracy

In order to understand the long-term effects of written corrective feedback the pretest and the posttest scores of all groups were compared and it was found that there was not a significant improvement in general linguistic accuracy from pretest to posttest. Out of 26 error categories which incorporated lexical, syntactical, mechanical and tense/modality errors learners were tested over

time and it was seen that none of the groups significantly decreased their errors owing to the corrective feedback treatment. Neither the t-tests calculating the difference between pre and posttests in three groups one by one nor the ANOVA results showing whether there are any differences within the groups were successful in gaining a significantly meaningful result. Although the descriptive statistics found favorable means for the implicit group, paired samples t-tests showed this difference did not account for a significant difference.

This result validates the claims of Truscott (1996, 2004, 2007) and Truscott and Hsu (2008) in that corrective feedback has no value in enhancing the level of accuracy over time. The result also corroborated with the results of Cohen and Robin (1976), Semke (1984), Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986), Kepner (1991), Sheppard (1992), Makino (1993), Polio, Fleck and Leder (1998), and Fazio (2001) all of which are classroom based studies and investigated written corrective feedback with comprehensive/ unfocused correction approach. Nevertheless, it should be noted that none of these researches had a control group except for Polio et al (1998).

However, the results conflicts with the previous studies Lalande (1982), Frantzen and Rissell (1987), Fathman and Whalley (1990), Ferris (1995), Frantzen (1995), Ferris and Helt (2000), Ferris and Roberts (2001), Chandler (2003), Truscott and Hsu (2008). Again it should be born in mind that only the Fathman and Whalley (1990), Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Truscott and Hsu (2008) had a real control group which was comparable. It should also be noted that the results of Ferris (1995) and Ferris and Helt (2000) were not reported in statistics, rather in percentages. Moreover, all of the abovementioned studies that found positive results for corrective feedback took the measure of accuracy over rewrites or revisions rather than totally new writings; therefore they are not generalizable or comparable to my study. However, Truscott and Hsu (2008) also showed that while the students improved their accuracy gains from the original task to its revision, they could not retain the same accuracy level over

time, which amounts to only two weeks. Hence, their study confirmed the present research's results.

The only study comparable to the present study is Polio et al (1998) in that it both had a control group and took 15 weeks which can be classified as a long-term study. Also Polio et al. used comprehensive error correction without focusing on one particular structure and they gave the measures of accuracy on totally new writings rather than rewrites. The long-term results of Polio et al (1998) match with the results of the present study.

Although the literature supports this research's results there may be some other explanations for the failure of written corrective feedback. Truscott (2007) criticized the researches that found positive effects for written corrective feedback for the differences in the setting of testing. According to Truscott, students may remember the corrections if the time is too short between the task and its revision. He reported Leki's (1991) observation that students might make the same errors when there was a long time between the sessions and when the attention is switched from accuracy to content.. For the present research both of the explanations may be possible, and students may have forgotten the corrective feedback they have received just because there were long time lapses between the sessions. There was 13 weeks between the pretest and post test, and one week between the two drafts of the same task during the treatment period.

Another possible explanation may be the strategy used in giving corrective feedback. When the recent researches on written corrective feedback are examined it can be seen that all of the studies using selective /focused corrective feedback were successful in proving the efficiency of corrective feedback (e.g. Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; 2009a; 2009b; 2009c). Schmidt's (2001) account of noticing hypothesis is important here. As mentioned before, he described attention at

two levels, one level being noticing and the other level being understanding. Only with the level of understanding is the acquisition of the structure is possible, providing an understanding of the rule that governs the structure. The focused corrective feedback strategy seems to be more conducive to draw attention to the feedback. It is likely that, learners may not have paid attention to most of the corrections that were given over twenty six error categories.

However, the present study failed to find a superior effect for explicit corrective feedback over the implicit one, which was indicated by Sheen (2010). Although the current results corroborated with the results of Robb Ross & Shortreed (1986), Kepner (1991), Frantzen (1995), Polio, et al. (1998), which found no group superiority between explicit and implicit written corrective feedback, they conflict with the results of Lalande (1982), which found superiority of coded feedback over direct correction. In a very recent research Sheen (2010) compared implicit oral recasts and explicit oral metalinguistic, written direct, written metalinguistic feedback and found that explicit feedback is better, but it should be born in mind that she did not compare explicit written and implicit written corrective feedback. Lastly, the present result is not in line with Chandler (2003) who used twenty three error categories and found superiority of explicit corrective feedback over implicit ones. Nevertheless, it should be noted that she did not have a real control group which received no feedback as in mine; thus, the results are not totally comparable.

As for the first research question it can be briefly stated that comprehensive/ unfocused written corrective feedback does not have a role in enhancing general accuracy level in the long-run. Not only corrective feedback alone, but also different types of it are not successful in decreasing the number of errors. Possibly, the learners may have forgotten the corrective feedback they have received and more importantly the feedback strategy, whether focused or unfocused, influences the results.

5.1.2. Long-term Effects on Regular and Irregular Past Tense Forms

As for the second research question “What are the long term effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms?” statistical data are collected. In order to understand the level of improvement in regular and irregular past forms over fourteen weeks, regular past errors in each obligatory occasion were calculated and turned into percentages. Briefly, the paired samples t-tests for error reduction in regular past forms between written pretest and posttest showed that there is not a significant improvement in regular past forms over fourteen weeks. The same procedure was applied for irregular past forms and the paired samples t-tests failed to show a significant decrease in the number of errors again. The ANOVA results also showed that different types of corrective feedback have no superiority over each other. The pretest-GJT results; however, indicated totally different findings. The paired samples t-tests for pretest-GJT in both regular and irregular past verbs showed that all the groups improved from pretest to posttest over fourteen weeks. There are two questions to answer here:

1. Do the comparative results of written pre and posttests validate the previous researches?
2. Why are the results of GJT and written tests totally different?

As mentioned before there is only one study which reported the effects of written corrective feedback on English simple past tense. Although many studies incorporated simple past as an error category, none of them dealt with simple past tense alone except Bitchener et al. (2005). Bitchener et al. reported that although simple past tense is positively influenced by written corrective feedback in the short-run, it is not positively affected in the long-run, producing a non-significant superiority of corrective feedback groups over the control group. Therefore, the results of this study are partly in line with Bitchener et al.’s study, because implicit group did not improve in accuracy.

This may be possible for one reason. There should be fewer targeted error categories for a learner to pay attention to the structure. Ferris (2010) suggested that students may use written corrective feedback more effectively in the long-term acquisition and writing development only when there are fewer and clearer error types. Sheen (2007) also posited that L2 learners have limited processing capacity and asking them to attend to all corrections at the same time may exceed their ability to process feedback. Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) stated that focused corrective feedback may promote learning by helping learners to

“

1. notice their errors in their written work
2. engage in hypothesis testing in a systematic way
3. monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing explicit grammatical knowledge.

In contrast, unfocused corrective feedback runs the risk of 1. Providing corrective feedback in a confusing, inconsistent and unsystematic way and 2. Overburdening the learners”

Most probably, the participants of the present research were overburdened with the huge number of corrections they received and did not pay attention to corrective feedback at all, let alone understanding.

This brings us to the question of whether learners' attentional resources are limited. VanPatten (1990) conducted a research to find out whether learners can attend to both accuracy and content at the same time and found that attentional resources are limited to attend to only one of them. Drawing on VanPatten conclusion, Skehan and Foster (2001) developed Limited attentional Capacity Model which predicted that multiple components of a task reduce the attention that is allotted for one component. If the learner pays attention to content, accuracy or fluency at the same time one of the components may suffer. The tasks which are cognitively more demanding in content are likely draw attention away from accuracy and lead learners to prioritize attention in

their limited information processing capacity (Skehan, 1998). In the present study learners had to find totally new endings for the short stories, which is a highly cognitively demanding task. Probably students did not abstain from linguistic hypothesis testing to obtain a more creative content, rather than adopting a more conservative accuracy-based approach. As a personal observation the researcher saw that students were actively participating in discussions on the characters and plot of the short stories; therefore students may have prioritized a creative content over accuracy. Briefly, it may be said that the answer to the first question is “yes” and the results validate the results of the previous studies.

As for the second question, “why are the results of written test (story ending test) and GJT totally different”, some different assumptions must be made. As mentioned before, although both of the tests measured knowledge of regular and irregular past tense forms, they measured different types of knowledge. There is a “knowing that” and “knowing how” relationship between the explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. Although there is not such a rule stating that explicit feedback improves the explicit knowledge or implicit feedback improves the implicit knowledge, it can be certainly stated that there is a clear difference between the two types of knowledge and they can be measured with different instruments. While the written test required the learners to use the students’ procedural memory and automatic processing in a fluent performance (with 200 words in 30 minutes), the GJT required them to use declarative memory in controlled processing in a planned performance (with 40 isolated sentences). Here it can be deduced that these students had the explicit knowledge of regular and irregular past forms, but they did not have the implicit knowledge and thus, could not use it in fluent production.

Here another question comes to minds: Can the explicit knowledge be converted into implicit knowledge? In the present research, the answer is no, which means that it is not convertible, because it is seen that the explicit knowledge of past forms were not converted into implicit knowledge in writing.

Different scholars give different answers to the same question. In the non-interface position, implicit and explicit L2 knowledge involve different acquisitional mechanisms (Hulstijn, 2002; Krashen, 1981) and they are stored in different parts of the brain (Paradis, 1994). In the strong-interface position; on the other hand, claims that both kinds of knowledge are convertible to each other with practice (Sharwood Smith, 1981; DeKeyser, 1998). In the weak-interface position; however, it is claimed that explicit knowledge can turn into implicit knowledge only when the learner is developmentally ready (Ellis, 1993, 2005). In the weak-interface position explicit knowledge help the learner notice the gap between input and their linguistic performance.

In fact the written corrective feedback with its saliency may help the learners notice the gap between the input and their linguistic competence. However, in the present research it did not help them notice the gap and all of the groups improved a little (without significant results) and all of them were the same at the pretests. There can be only one explanation for this. There was an equalizing effect among the groups. The equalizing effect may be the writing practice itself. Polio et al. (1998) and Semke (1984) reported similar results and they stated that writing alone is enough for the learners to notice the gap and teachers should not allot too much time on correcting errors. Another recent research supporting these results is Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009). They reported that the writing practice only group improved the same level as the corrective feedback groups. The results show that writing practice alone is a good device for interlanguage development and Polio et al (1998) elucidated the effect of writing practice as follows:

“On one hand, the ultimate concern of much SLA research is development, that is, the long-term effects of tasks (e.g., types of interaction, pedagogical activities) on acquisition. Thus, whether or not students can correct their own language over the short term may not be of interest. On the other hand, the written language provides a way for language learners to stop and look at their own language and focus on form, something which can result in dysfluency in spoken language. In writing, the meaning, at some point in the writing process, has been formulated on paper, and learners have the opportunity to go back to the form and reevaluate it. If, in fact, learners can change their own interlanguage, it could have long-term implications for SLA. One could argue that the written language is a vehicle to help learners focus attention on the form of their language. Put

another way, learners' written language can help them to notice errors in their interlanguage because writing provides a way for them to examine their own language. Furthermore, if such correction involves applying explicit knowledge, that application (editing) may help learners restructure their interlanguage and improve their linguistic accuracy in not only writing, but speaking as well."(p 46-47)

Practicing writing can elicit attention to form and meaning relations which may lead learners to refine their linguistic expressions and their control over linguistic knowledge (Polio, Fleck and Leder, 1998). Writing; therefore, is a representative of their standard usage and help them notice the natural disjuncture between their written text/output and mental processes. Even if there was a time constraint for their writing, while students are composing in the foreign language they can monitor their language in such a way that they can't do in oral production

5.2. Short-term Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on Regular and Irregular Past Tense Forms

As to the third research question "What are the short-term effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms?" a series of paired samples t-tests were used to understand the short term effects of corrective feedback. The t-tests produced various results which are difficult to draw a conclusion from.

The paired samples t-tests showed that there are some significant differences between the first drafts of four tasks in regular past tense forms. It was found that there are significant differences between the two drafts of Task 3 in both explicit direct correction and control group, and of Task 4 in explicit direct correction again. It is seen that implicit coding group had no gains. On the other hand, for the irregular past forms paired samples t-tests showed that there are significant differences between the two drafts of Task 2 in both explicit direct correction and control group, and of Task 4 in only control group. Again the

implicit coding group did not have significant gains (c.f. Table 4.2.1.6 and Table 4.2.2.6)

Table 4.2.1.6 Summary of Results in Revisions

REGULAR	TASK 1	TASK 2	TASK 3	TASK 4
Direct Correction	No significance	No significance	**Significance	**Significance
Coding	No significance	No significance	No significance	No significance
No Feedback	No significance	No significance	**Significance	No significance

Table 4.2.2.6 Summary of Results in Revisions

IRREGULAR	WEEK 1	WEEK 2	WEEK 3	WEEK 4
Direct Correction	No significance	**Significance	No significance	No significance
Coding	No significance	No significance	No significance	No significance
No Feedback	No significance	**Significance	No significance	**Significance

The results validated the previous studies that found positive effects for written corrective feedback in the revisions of the same tasks only for regular past forms (e.g. Lalande, 1982; Frantzen and Rissell, 1987; Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1995; Frantzen, 1995; Ferris and Helt, 2000; Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Truscott and Hsu, 2008) All of these studies measured accuracy levels on revisions or rewrites and found positive effects of corrective feedback on different error categories. However, although these studies, except for Chandler (2003) also indicated positive effects for implicit indirect correction, the present research failed to do so. The reason may be that coded feedback may have been cognitively too complex for the students to notice and understand in 15 minutes that was allotted for them to look over the corrections.

There is another result which is quite surprising. In irregular past tense errors no feedback group was better than explicit direct correction group with two significant differences in decreasing the level of accuracy. It may be deduced that written corrective feedback is not effective in improving irregular past tense forms. One reason for this may be Ferris's (1999) distinction of treatable and untreatable errors. According to her, errors that occur in a patterned and rule-governed way are more amenable to corrective feedback and may benefit more. Vocabulary and word order errors are classified as untreatable and

therefore benefit less from corrective feedback. In our case, corrective feedback seems to be harmful to irregular past forms when the improvement of control group is taken into consideration. Pinker and Ullman (2002) elucidated the acquisition of irregular past forms with lexical declarative memory. Their “words and rules theory” substantiates the present results in that irregular past forms that are stored in lexical declarative memory did not benefit from corrective feedback as they were untreatable errors.

The second reason may be noticability or the extent irregular forms draw attention. The irregular past forms may have caught more attention since the irregular forms are more noticeable than the regular ones in no feedback condition because of their markedness. However, the regular verbs are unmarked and less amenable to be noticed in no feedback condition. Hence, it can be said that the saliency of irregular forms may have caught more attention on an uncorrected paper.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

This study uncovered the long-term and short-term effects of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past tense forms. However, some of the results were inconclusive because of not only inconclusiveness of the researches in the literature, but also internal limitations of this research. The results of the present study generally validated the previous researches; however it could not answer some questions.

The present study intended to measure the knowledge of regular and irregular past forms with an explicit knowledge and an implicit knowledge measuring instrument, but used only one type of instrument to measure one type of knowledge only. Therefore, although it may be seen that knowledge of past tense was measured with two highly reliable measures, there should have been two different types of pretest and posttests in order to validate the results of each instrument. Therefore a similar design of study may be administered with

imitation, oral narrative or timed GJT to measure implicit knowledge and an untimed GJT and metalinguistic knowledge tests to measure explicit knowledge (Ellis, 2005). Ellis found the reliability and validity statistics of all these type of tests and found that they measure the intended type of knowledge only.

Another limitation of the study was that it did not give general linguistic accuracy results in the treatment period. Although the error categories were classified into five under lexical, syntactical, morphological, mechanical and tense errors, the present study does not report in which error classes the students improved the most. Such a calculation would also help us to understand why corrective feedback is not effective in the long term. As Truscott (1996) stated vocabulary and syntactic errors are less conducive to correction while the mechanical errors may benefit the most from the corrective feedback with their salient features.

Although the present research assumed that students may have avoided using the erratic parts of their outputs and used different past verbs instead; thereby making different mistakes from the former ones and their improvement could not be observed in the results, it did not report the verbs that were used in each of the written outputs. In the following studies a computation of these verbs should be given and to what extent the verbs are the same or different should be found for at least some of the sampling.

Even though there are many studies measuring the level of linguistic improvement over time, only a few of them report the effects of corrective feedback on writing fluency. Writing fluency can be defined as the number of words written in per unit of time, but it is usually not measured in most of the studies. However, when the limited attentional capacity model of Skehan and Foster (2001) it may be expected that fluency may decrease in the corrective feedback groups in comparison with the control groups which do not receive any kinds of corrective feedback that may occupy their attention. Therefore, if a

similar research is made again, the researcher should also measure and report the time allotted for each task.

The last suggestion may be about individual differences. To my knowledge there are only two studies in the literature that investigated the effects of individual differences in the processing of written corrective feedback. Sheen (2007, 2010) analyzed the effect of language aptitude on the processing of corrective feedback. Despite not binding it to individual differences there was another research which investigated how corrective feedback is processed (Sachs and Polio, 2007). Because the field is still too ignorant in crosschecking the effects of written corrective feedback and individual differences, another study which will measure motivation and personality may be made.

5.4. Conclusion

The present research tried to find out the short-term and long-term effects of different types of written corrective feedback on regular and irregular past forms. The results are varying in that only a few significant differences in error reduction could be found. However, the results of the study can be summarized as below.

Written corrective feedback does not help learners improve their accuracy in both the total gains and simple past forms in the long-run. There may be several explanations for this. Students may have avoided using corrected structures and made other mistakes with different verbs that they used. Also students' attentional resources are limited and they could not pay attention to form and meaning at the same time. Another explanation may be that students were overburdened with the number of corrections they received and preferred to improve their writing and reading skills particularly rather than their accuracy.

A surprising finding of the study is that the explicit group benefitted the most from corrective feedback for regular past forms while the control group did so for

irregular past forms. This finding validated the “words and rules theory” of Pinker and Ullman (2002), which posits that regular past forms is stored in procedural memory while the irregular ones are stored in declarative memory like the lexis. The research deduced that the rule-governed regular forms benefit more from corrective feedback providing rules of the structures while irregular forms benefitted more from no correction condition in that they were more salient than the other serious errors of learners.

The most important conclusion derived from the study is the equalizing effect of writing practice alone. The fact that there is not a significant group difference among the posttest scores of three groups validated the claims of Semke (1984), Polio et al, (1998) and Sheen et al. (2009) who stated that writing practice alone is enough for linguistic improvement . Sheen (2010) proposed a different understanding of writing practice which is seen as one form of output that can facilitate interlanguage development rather than viewing it as a device to develop writing skills in general. The whole study; therefore, corroborates with the claims of Truscott (1996, 2004, and 2007) who also claimed that written corrective feedback is not a teaching device, but a way of improving a manuscript.

There can be a few implications for the classroom in this research. Firstly different types of explicit-direct written corrective feedback do not have superiority over the other, which is illustrated by the results of previous researches and the present research. Hence, teachers can prefer the least time-consuming type of explicit written corrective feedback and use direct correction instead of metalinguistic explanation which will overburden teachers when the sizes of the classes and teachers’ workload are taken into account. On the other hand, coding type of implicit-indirect written corrective feedback is difficult to decipher for the students and it may be overwhelming to remember the meaning of codes if the number of codes is high.

Another implication for the classroom is that unfocused / comprehensive written corrective feedback which is given to all types of errors without limiting the type or number of errors is not effective in the long-run; therefore teachers should not spend too much time on correcting without focusing on a single structure. Teachers of foreign language should find the right time when the learners are developmentally ready (Pienemann, 1998) to give corrections and correct only one type of error each time.

It is also important to which type of errors teachers should give corrective feedback. Treatable and rule-governed structures are more amenable to written corrective feedback; therefore, learners improve more with written corrective feedback given to such simple structures as definite or indefinite articles and punctuation. Exemplar-based and structures such as subjunctive use, word order and irregular forms errors are quite difficult to correct with written correction, so the teachers should prefer to have their students read extensively and write in bulk to improve in those complex structures.

Teachers should also bear in mind that there are other types of corrective feedback other than teacher written corrective feedback. Teachers may benefit from peer corrective feedback in a social constructionist classroom in which students find each other's errors by communicating and sharing knowledge. In this way, there will be opportunities of student to student interaction which will provide scaffolding to students.

The most important implication of the present research is the fact that writing practice alone is enough to improve both general linguistic accuracy and accuracy of past forms. Drawing a conclusion from the results, written corrective feedback is only a device to improve a manuscript rather than a teaching device or a device to improve the accuracy of grammatical structures learned before. Like extensive reading, writing practice itself is a good way to improve interlanguage

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TEST

CORRECTION TEST

- 1. The sentences given below have mistakes.**
- 2. There is only one mistake in each question.**
- 3. There aren't any mistakes in some of the sentences.**
- 4. Put a tick (✓) in the gap if the sentence is correct. Put a cross (X) under the sentence if it is incorrect and CORRECT THE MISTAKE.**

EXAMPLE

1. I maid a mistake in the exam.
X made
2. I made a mistake in the exam.
✓

TEST

1. It was a great load of work to settle down. Our neighbors helpd us move the furniture.
2. The little girl studyied for her maths exam the whole night, but the result was a total failure.
3. The horses gallopet down the street at a great speed, so we had a chance to see the scenery while watching the race.
4. I hopped to see him at the ball, however he was accompanying a magnificent woman dressed in red.
5. A giant dog chased after us while we were playing in the backyard of our old school. It couldn't reach us, but bited a little girl.
6. We didn't have many oppportunities to do the job on time, so we choosed to do it properly.
7. The little children in Gaza, in Palestine thrown stones to the Israeli troops during the civil war.
8. I foreseen many difficulties so long as we didn't keep within the budget.
9. They said that it sometimes rained in Ankara; in contrast it generally snowed.
10. She worked hard to pass the final exam in her course before the new year's classes began.
11. Whenever they had bureaucratic hassle, they stayyed in our old house which was so close to the ministry buildings.
12. Although he displayd various models to the customers, they liked none of them, which he found quite difficult to handle.
13. We conductd a research on our intermediate classes to investigate learner autonomy.

14. Paul married a beauty queen two years ago; he didn't know that he was storing up trouble for the future
15. She brought us colorful creamy cupcakes whenever she visited us in our old house, but I can't see her very often nowadays. So, we are deprived of her little courtesies.
16. The wind blowed harder every minute as the sky got darker.
17. He cutted his finger while cutting the bread.
18. Our car broken down on the way to the festival, however we were lucky enough to find another car.
19. He understood it after they explained the whole idea again.
20. They wove a colorful Persian rug as a gift for their wedding.
21. A: I saw a bakery shop near here yesterday and I came by to buy some raspberry tart. Do you know where it is?
B: I think you shoped at the local bakery that is a few blocks away.
22. I hurried towards the bus stop, but I was not able to catch it
23. They wonderred if their relatives would visit them after their daughter's birth.
24. I tended to shop at our local grocer's in the past, but our habits changd a lot and I shop at Macro now.
25. It was very difficult to use the resources in the National Library in the past. The officers only lended books, that is, it was impossible to borrow other resources, such as maps and microfilms.
26. These figures meanted that 7 % of the working population was unemployed.
27. Oh, are you looking for your pen? Here is your pen, I taken it by mistake.
28. He hide the treasure which he had stolen from the pirates by burying it under a giant tree.
29. They misaddressed the packages while they were sending them to İstanbul. It was very difficult for us to find them in the depot of the post office.
30. They regretted not having called all of their friends, since there was room for everyone in their huge house.
31. He pasteed a sheet of kitchen foil on a piece of thin cardboard to make his own distorting mirror.
32. She cryed bitter tears when she received the letter, because the letter was written by her dead fiancée before his death.

33. When she was a student she never planned her studies, but she always got high marks, which surprised many of her teachers.

34. The word "those" in the third paragraph referred to "technology and other developments" in the text.

35. Our teacher taught us how to calculate the perimeter of a circle.

36. I paid out a lot of money to get the washing machine fixed and it still doesn't work.

37. He wore a brown suit before going to the job interview, but the interviewers didn't find him assertive enough for the position.

38. We chopped the onions and tomatoes before we froze the green beans and stored them in the fridge.

39. We won the match by just one point, but it was a really exciting moment.

40. When he was 13 years old, he spoke three foreign languages, which I found quite amazing at such an age.

APPENDIX 2

STORY TASKS

PRETEST STORY TASK (WRITTEN TEST)**The Hasty Act (by Marc Brandel)**

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. Is the man who tells this story a brave man?
2. Did he usually eat lunch in expensive restaurants?
3. How did he feel after two drinks?
4. Why did he feel uncomfortable with the couple who seemed do friendly at lunch.
5. What sort of people were they?
6. What happened when the storyteller wanted to get his coat from the coatroom?
7. What did he find in the coats pocket?
8. Whose money was it?
9. Why was the real owner of the raincoat able to find him?
10. What would you have done in this situation.

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words.

TASK 1**The Man Who Hated Time (by Victor Canning)**

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. Who did the storyteller see at the restaurant?
2. What did the old man want to sell the storyteller?
3. What kind of a man was Chris Selby?
4. Where did Chris Selby go every year and what did he bring?
5. How did Chris Selby pass through the customs?
6. Did Chris Selby set out in time?
7. What was the day Chris Selby set out to England?
8. What happened while he was passing through the customs?
9. What did the customs officer do when he realized the smuggling?
10. Who was the customs officer?

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words.

TASK 2

The Venturers (by O. Henry)

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. Can you describe John Reginald Forster?
2. Why was Forster bored?
3. Contrast Forster's credit standing with the cash he had in his pocket?
4. Why was the man standing nearby so amused and interested by Forster's situation?
5. Why was it going to be an adventure to eat dinner in the expensive hotel?
6. What was so nice about the hotel?
7. Why was the meeting with veiled lady in Constantinople a disappointment?
8. What did each man think would happen to do other, if the other got the bill?
9. What did each of them know would happen to himself, if he got the bill?
10. Under these circumstances, was the dinner really a gamble?

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words

TASK 3

Never Trust a Lady (by Victor Canning)

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. What sort of person was Horrace Denby?
2. Why did Horrace Denby steal?
3. What was Horrace Denby's business?
4. How did he spend his holiday each year?
5. Did Denby's neighbors know about this part of his life?
6. What was it that made Horrace sneeze so much?
7. Why did he open the safe for the young lady?
8. Who was the young lady?
9. What happened to Horrace in the end?
10. What did the court think of his explanation about why he opened the safe?

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words

TASK 4

The Purloined Letter (by Edgar Allen Poe)

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. Who stole the letter?
2. Whom did he steal it from?
3. Why was the letter so important?
4. What had the head of the police done to try to get the letter back?
5. What kind of a man was D_?
6. How did knowledge of D_'s character help Monsieur Dupin find the letter?
7. How was the letter hidden ?
8. How did Monsieur Dupin get the letter?
9. Why did Monsieur Dupin complain to D_ about his weak eyes?
10. Who won the award that the woman promised to give?

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words

POSTTEST STORY TASK (WRITTEN TEST)

Larcency and Old Lace (by Robert Arthur)

Students read the story at home and the teacher asks whether they liked the story or not. Then, she asks the following questions and the students answer verbally.

1. Why had the Usher sisters decided to come to live in Milvoulkee?
2. Why was Mr. Bingham unhappy about the Usher sisters' decision?
3. What did Mr. Bingham do to try to discourage the ladies from staying in their nephew's house?
4. When the ladies arrived at the house, whom did they find there, and what was he up to?
5. What had Walter been doing with the papers that Tiny was trying to find?
6. What sort of man was Herry Gordon?
7. What did Herry Gordon want to do with the Usher sisters, to get them out of the way?
8. What did Mr. Bingham think of that idea?
9. What arrangement was finally made?
10. How had Walter hidden the papers?

The students think of a different ending for the story and write it down in 30 minutes with at least 200 words

APPENDIX 3

WORD COUNT AND ERROR COUNT GUIDELINES

Word Count (Polio, 1997)

- a) Count contractions as one word whether correct or not.
- b) Count numbers as one word
- c) Count proper nouns in English and in other languages as they are written.
- d) Do not count hyphenated words as single words.
- e) Don't include essay titles in word count
- f) Count words as they are written, even if they are incorrect.

Error Count (adapted from Polio, 1997)

- a) Base tense/reference errors on preceding discourse; do not look at the sentence in isolation.
- b) Don't count British usages as errors (e.g. "in hospital", "at university" collective nouns as plural.
- c) Be lenient about article errors from translations of proper nouns.
- d) Count errors that could be made by native speakers (e.g. between you and I).

APPENDIX 4
ERROR CHECKLIST

ERROR CHECKLIST

EXAMPLES	CODE	EXPLANATION
She did not like to <u>borrow</u> her stuff to people	Wc	wrong word choice
He was accused of <u>thief</u>	Wf	wrong word form
They robbed the bank, so I reported <u>their</u> to the police	pro-agree	unclear pronoun agreement
He leaves <u>from</u> the office early	Prep	incorrect or missing or extra preposition
I <u>felt myself relaxed</u> when I saw the police in front of the door.	nonidiom	non-idiomatical expression
If she <u>married</u> that rich man, she would not be living in a pigsty now.	Cond	incorrect use of conditional sentence
<u>We want that you come.</u>	Ss	incorrect sentence structure
I have not seen <u>yet</u> London.	Wo	incorrect word order
I did not listen to my <u>doctor.</u> I got worse.	Conn	incorrect or missing connector
The internet <u>use</u> worldwide.	Pass	incorrect use of passive voice or passive needed
A honest individual is someone you can rely on.	Art	incorrect or missing article
He believed that the police would come and save her. <u>For example, Monsieur Audit.</u>	Frag	fragment-incomplete sentence
After that, [^] decided to make a plan.	^	something is missing (verb, subject, object)
What he did <u>yesterday</u> was not important <u>yesterday</u> . /The old <u>old</u> man got furious with him.	Ext	extra or repeated word.
He <u>like</u> walking the dog every day.	Sv	incorrect subject-verb agreement
Her garden usually has <u>flower</u> in it.	sing/pl	problem with a singular or plural form of a noun
They regretted <u>to call</u> for help because they did not want the others to learn what was happening in their house.	Vf	incorrectly formed verb (verbs that are not predicate)
In the past, he could speak <u>french</u> , but he realized that he could not utter even a word.	Cap	capitalization needed
The media had a major influence on their <u>society, they</u> provided a model for how people should live.	Cs	comma splice (independent clauses joined by a comma)
I like <u>Spring</u> the most.	Lc	lower case (word incorrectly capitalized)

She also needed her <u>necklace ring and earrings</u> for the party.	Punc	incorrect or missing punctuation
<u>He has four children two of them two of them go to high school.</u>	Ro	run-on (independent clauses joined by no punctuation)
She said the word with a different <u>pronunciation</u>	Sp	spelling error
The woman <u>already went</u> before he came back home to interrogate her.	Vt	incorrect verb tense (except simple past tense)
1. She died last year, but her daughter <u>doesn't visit</u> her grave when she died.	Pt	past form error (past tense needed, past verb incorrectly formed or past participle used instead of past verb)
2. The owner of the house <u>catched</u> the woman stealing the valuable necklace.		
3. They <u>worn</u> many clothes to disguise.		
She <u>can</u> exercise three times a week when she was younger.	modal	incorrect use of a modal

APPENDIX 5

**CONGRUENCY IN TYPES OF ERRORS BETWEEN RATERS
AND
CONGRUENCY IN NUMBER OF ERRORS CORRECTED BETWEEN
RATERS
AND
RELIABILITY STATISTICS ON NUMBER OF ERRORS CORRECTED**

CONGRUENCY OF TYPES OF ERRORS BETWEEN RATERS

PARTICIPANT		Congruency in types of errors between raters	Total number of errors	Percentage of congruency
P1		10	13	76,92308
P2		16	17	94,11765
P3		23	28	82,14286
P4		17	19	89,47368
P5		16	20	80
P6		11	15	73,33333
P7		14	16	87,5
P8		18	22	81,81818
P9		10	13	76,92308
P10		12	15	80
P11		10	11	90,90909
P12		20	21	95,2381
P13		17	18	94,44444
P14		7	8	87,5
P15		17	21	80,95238
P16		16	20	80
P17		7	30	23,33333
P18		22	23	95,65217
P19		29	34	85,29412
P20		15	17	88,23529
P21		22	26	84,61538
P22		11	14	78,57143
P23		24	30	80
P24		23	28	82,14286
P25		23	25	92
P26		29	37	78,37838
P27		19	22	86,36364
P28		20	23	86,95652
P29		13	20	65
P30		15	17	88,23529
P31		30	33	90,90909
P32		5	7	71,42857
P33		20	21	95,2381
P34		23	28	82,14286
P35		6	9	66,66667
P36		14	15	93,33333
P37		25	35	71,42857
P38		8	15	53,33333

P39	18	24	75
P40	21	27	77,77778
P41	24	29	82,75862
TOTAL			AVERAGE: 81,12369

CONGRUENCY IN NUMBER OF ERRORS CORRECTED BETWEEN RATERS

PARTICIPANT	Rater 1 number of errors	Rater 2 number of errors	Total number of words	Percentage of R1's errors over total number of words	Percentage of R2's errors over total number of words
P1	11	12	116	9,482759	10,34483
P2	15	17	165	9,090909	10,30303
P3	27	25	226	11,9469	11,06195
P4	18	18	242	7,438017	7,438017
P5	17	19	199	8,542714	9,547739
P6	13	13	186	6,989247	6,989247
P7	15	17	173	8,67052	9,82659
P8	21	20	146	14,38356	13,69863
P9	13	13	162	8,024691	8,024691
P10	14	13	98	14,28571	13,26531
P11	10	11	151	6,622517	7,284768
P12	20	21	155	12,90323	13,54839
P13	17	18	109	15,59633	16,51376
P14	8	7	155	5,16129	4,516129
P15	19	19	279	6,810036	6,810036
P16	17	19	179	9,497207	10,61453
P17	27	26	271	9,9631	9,594096
P18	22	23	193	11,39896	11,9171
P19	32	33	209	15,311	15,78947
P20	16	16	114	14,03509	14,03509
P21	23	25	292	7,876712	8,561644
P22	11	14	156	7,051282	8,974359
P23	28	26	154	18,18182	16,88312
P24	23	28	160	14,375	17,5
P25	25	24	129	19,37984	18,60465
P26	35	31	291	12,02749	10,65292
P27	20	22	166	12,04819	13,25301
P28	23	20	101	22,77228	19,80198
P29	16	17	192	8,333333	8,854167

P30	16	16	228	7,017544	7,017544
P31	32	31	307	10,42345	10,09772
P32	5	7	154	3,246753	4,545455
P33	20	21	162	12,34568	12,96296
P34	25	26	206	12,13592	12,62136
P35	8	7	155	5,16129	4,516129
P36	14	15	161	8,695652	9,31677
P37	28	32	285	9,824561	11,22807
P38	12	11	154	7,792208	7,142857
P39	22	22	156	14,10256	14,10256
P40	25	24	291	8,591065	8,247423
P41	26	29	212	12,26415	13,67925

**INTERRATER RELIABILITY STATISTICS ON NUMBER OF ERRORS
CORRECTED**

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,982	2

APPENDIX 6

**EXAMPLE ESSAYS FOR
CURRENT TRADITIONAL RHETORIC
EXPRESSIVISM
COGNITIVISM
WRITING ACROSS CURRICULUM**

SAMPLE ESSAY FOR CURRENT TRADITIONAL RHETORIC

The Education of Women (by Daniel Defoe 1660 - 1731)

I have often thought of it as one of the most barbarous customs in the world, considering us as a civilized and a Christian country, that we deny the advantages of learning to women. We reproach the sex every day with folly and impertinence; while I am confident, had they the advantages of education equal to us, they would be guilty of less than ourselves.

One would wonder, indeed, how it should happen that women are conversible at all; since they are only beholden to natural parts, for all their knowledge. Their youth is spent to teach them to stitch and sew or make baubles. They are taught to read, indeed, and perhaps to write their names, or so; and that is the height of a woman's education. And I would but ask any who slight the sex for their understanding, what is a man (a gentleman, I mean) good for, that is taught no more? I need not give instances, or examine the character of a gentleman, with a good estate, or a good family, and with tolerable parts; and examine what figure he makes for want of education.

The soul is placed in the body like a rough diamond; and must be polished, or the luster of it will never appear. And 'tis manifest, that as the rational soul distinguishes us from brutes; so education carries on the distinction, and makes some less brutish than others. This is too evident to need any demonstration. But why then should women be denied the benefit of instruction? If knowledge and understanding had been useless additions to the sex, GOD Almighty would never have given them capacities; for he made nothing needless. Besides, I would ask such, What they can see in ignorance, that they should think it a necessary ornament to a woman? or how much worse is a wise woman than a fool? or what has the woman done to forfeit the privilege of being taught? Does she plague us with her pride and impertinence? Why did we not let her learn, that she might have had more wit? Shall we upbraid women with folly, when 'tis only the error of this inhuman custom, that hindered them from being made wiser?

The capacities of women are supposed to be greater, and their senses quicker than those of the men; and what they might be capable of being bred to, is plain from some instances of female wit, which this age is not without. Which upbraids us with Injustice, and looks as if we denied women the advantages of education, for fear they should vie with the men in their improvements.

[They] should be taught all sorts of breeding suitable both to their genius and quality. And in particular, Music and Dancing; which it would be cruelty to bar the sex of, because they are their darlings. But besides this, they should be taught languages, as particularly French and Italian: and I would venture the injury of giving a woman more tongues than one. They should, as a particular study, be taught all the graces of speech, and all the necessary air of conversation; which our common education is so defective in, that I need not expose it. They should be brought to read books, and especially history; and so to read as to make them understand the world, and be able to know and judge of things when they hear of them.

To such whose genius would lead them to it, I would deny no sort of learning; but the chief thing, in general, is to cultivate the understandings of the sex, that they may be capable of all sorts of conversation; that their parts and judgments being improved, they may be as profitable in their conversation as they are pleasant.

Women, in my observation, have little or no difference in them, but as they are or are not distinguished by education. Tempers, indeed, may in some degree influence them, but the main distinguishing part is their Breeding.

The whole sex are generally quick and sharp. I believe, I may be allowed to say, generally so: for you rarely see them lumpish and heavy, when they are children; as boys will often be. If a woman be well bred, and taught the proper management of her natural wit, she proves generally very sensible and retentive.

And, without partiality, a woman of sense and manners is the finest and most delicate part of God's Creation, the glory of Her Maker, and the great instance of His singular regard to man, His darling creature: to whom He gave the best gift either God could bestow or man receive. And 'tis the sordidest piece of folly and ingratitude in the world, to withhold from the sex the due luster which the advantages of education gives to the natural beauty of their minds.

A woman well bred and well taught, furnished with the additional accomplishments of knowledge and behavior, is a creature without comparison. Her society is the emblem of sublimer enjoyments, her person is angelic, and her conversation heavenly. She is all softness and sweetness, peace, love, wit, and delight. She is every way suitable to the sublimest wish, and the man that has such a one to his portion, has nothing to do but to rejoice in her, and be thankful.

...

education; and this is manifested by comparing it with the difference between one man or woman, and another.

And herein it is that I take upon me to make such a bold assertion, That all the world are mistaken in their practice about women. For I cannot think that God Almighty ever made them so delicate, so glorious creatures; and furnished them with such charms, so agreeable and so delightful to mankind; with souls capable of the same accomplishments with men: and all, to be only Stewards of our Houses, Cooks, and Slaves.

Not that I am for exalting the female government in the least: but, in short, I would have men take women for companions, and educate them to be fit for it. A woman of sense and breeding will scorn as much to encroach upon the prerogative of man, as a man of sense will scorn to oppress the weakness of the woman. But if the women's souls were refined and improved by teaching, that word would be lost. To say, the weakness of the sex, as to judgment, would be nonsense; for ignorance and folly would be no more to be found among women than men.

I remember a passage, which I heard from a very fine woman. She had wit and capacity enough, an extraordinary shape and face, and a great fortune: but had been cloistered up all her time; and for fear of being stolen, had not had the liberty of being taught the common necessary knowledge of women's affairs. And when she came to converse in the world, her natural wit made her so sensible of the want of education, that she gave this short reflection on herself: "I am ashamed to talk with my very maids," says she, "for I don't know when they do right or wrong. I had more need go to school, than be married."

I need not enlarge on the loss the defect of education is to the sex; nor argue the benefit of the contrary practice. 'Tis a thing will be more easily granted than remedied. This chapter is but an Essay at the thing; and I refer the Practice to those Happy Days (if ever they shall be) when men shall be wise enough to mend it.

SAMPLE ESSAY FOR EXPRESSIVISM

It feels strange to reveal these things, since the world regards me as an adult. By the time I was seven, Tucky was nothing more than a soft, worn rag, and I loved it. Even though I've outgrown my security blanket, I haven't forgotten it. I still know its exact location, at the back of my clothes drawer on the left side. But I missed my blanket on those nights when the thunder seemed overwhelming or when I needed a friend. I had to find new sources of security and protection, some of them in myself. (I tried recently to stuff my fingers in my mouth, but they just won't nestle as nicely as they used to) But most of the time, just the thought of Tucky can ease the stress of an exam or calm my nerves before I sing. But if I could, I would give everyone a scrap of Tucky just for a shred of hope or a slice of confidence. A security blanket, or even a security shred, can turn a bad day around or make a good one better. My mother was already forcing my fingers from my mouth and Tucky's softness from my hands. Sometimes I want to take it out and brush it up against my cheek. Around that time, I knew I couldn't keep my blanket much longer. It will always be there in its ragged greatness, ready to give me comfort when I'm troubled or have lost my confidence.

SAMPLE THINK-ALoud PROTOCOL FOR COGNITIVISM

(*extract taken from* Brown, W. (2009) Self-evaluation of my writing process portrayed in freshman composition. *Stylus* 1:1-23.)

Okaaay... So I am opening Microsoft word. [Pause] oops... Now I'm opening Microsoft Word... It is taking a little while... Okay so the first question was what are problems with the existing methods for studying writing processes that Berkenkotter identifies? So I need to identify existing problems. *Existing problems* I am just kind of making an outline now so on what kind of things I need to include. Umm... Assuming you read the Perl... Perl, did you notice them when you did? Did I notice the existing problems. *Did you notice the exist...* [Backspace] *Did you notice them?* I am just going to type that for now. What do they mean for Perl's findings? Hmm... What do the existing problems mean? *What do they mean?* Question 2... How did this study change Berkenkotter's understanding of writing processes, particularly planning and revision? ... How did this study change Berkenkotter's understanding of writing processes, particularly planning and revision? *Pause+ Soo... How. I think it's... *How did this study change Berkenkotter's understanding of the writing process?* It says I spelt Berkenkotter wrong... Nope. I got it riight. Okay! Particularly so... Sub and put *a. Planning and Revision*. Question 3. Murray's relationship with his audience seems complicated. Try to describe it, and then Compare it to your own sense (or lack thereof) of audience [pause], how much are you thinking about your audience when you write... while you write. Okay so *Murray's...* Typed that wrong... *sense of audience seems complicated* [Pause] Sub *a. Describe it. b. compare it to your own* [pause] *sense of audience*. And *c. how much do you think about audience when you write* and I'm going to make that a sub under b. because that is my sense of audience. And the forth question. What was your impression of Murray's writing... writing process as they are described here? So *what was your impression of murray's writing process?* Let me capitalize the M in Murray because it is underlining it. [Pause] Sub *a. Hoe not hoe how* [laughing] *how do*

they compare to yours? Sub i. What do you do the same? Differently? Does your comparison seem to support Murray's hope for a "gloriously diverse" set of practices among writers? Okay so I'm thinking that's kind of meaning like comparing ... in comparing mine to Murray's writing process is it showing that there is diversity between every person. I think that's what the questions is kind of asking. So Does your...

*Laugh+ My friend's online so hopefully she doesn't try to talk to me cuz that would kind of mess up my video. *Laughing+ support Murray's hope for a "gloriously diverse" set of practices among writers? Okay so I will probably kind of compose my essay in that way because that actually makes sense to do it because it is going from existing problems to talking about studies so talking about how study changed Berkenkotter's idea of the writing process and mainly planning and revision and then it goes to talk in how Murray which is the writing is about... How his sense of audience seems complicated and comparing it to my sense of audience and then you're going on to describe Murray's writing process and how I compare my writing process to his... Which I will understand more after this but what I think of my writing process now... Which will actually be kind of interesting to see what I say before I actually analyze what I am doing now. So I am kind of glad I am doing this so it is kind of cool that it's on here because then I will remember everything I thought. [Laughing] alright so how they compare and then talking about how they compare to mine and how it connects that they are all different. So I think that is a good outline. Is there anything else I need to talk about? [Unintelligible reading] I probably need to explain what the existing problems were described as so *a. are they?* I am not going to type all that out. That is probably good for existing problems. [Unintelligible reading] I wonder if this thing is actually recording like if it can hear everything. Hopefully my microphone is working good because if not that would be bad. I'm gonna see if I can pause it. *Stopped to check recording] Okay so I checked it out and the sound seems to be working fine. So that is good...

SAMPLE WRITING ACROSS CURRICULUM ESSAY

(extracts taken from Russek, B. Writing to learn mathematics pp 36-45)

Dear Classmate,

Today was not a good day to miss because we went over Scientific Notation. Scientific notation is a system used that makes very big #'s and very small #'s easier (sic) to see and write. For example, $72,000,000 = 7.2 \times 10^7$, because if you did (this) out you would get 72,000,000. It's just nicer. Make sure you get to class next time.

Now I understand the problems that involve charts. At first I had trouble with the coin, stamp, and Integer problems. After reading the corresponding text, which I read slowly and thoroughly to make sure I absorbed every bit of info., I began the homework. I breezed right through it. I find it much easier to do all the reading before I start the work.

APPENDIX 7

SAMPLE STUDENT WRITINGS FROM PRETEST AND POSTTEST

When two sisters went to their hometown, they decided ~~that~~ to give the evidence to police. However, they changed their decision on the road. ^{art} Because, they sold the house less than its worth. So, ^{punc} they decided to threaten ^{fc} to mafia. They wanted \$ 100000 for the evidence. ^{prep art} They called to Harry Gordon. But, he didn't agree ^{prep} this idea. ^{prep} For ~~that reason~~. The women ^{prep} threaten ^{prep} to Harry Gordon by reporting ^{pt} to police. The women ^{prep} and Harry Gordon decided to come to ^{art} an agreement. Then, they met in a desolate place. However, Harry Gordon made a plan to obtain the evidence. He located his gangs member ^{single/pl} anywhere in this place. The women wanted ^{prep} to money from Harry Gordon. But, he said, "I will give you the money after you have given me the evidence. At that time, ~~Harry Gordon's~~ ^{sp} mafioso ^{pt} called the women. Then, they tortured them. Next, they roped the women and they cased them in ^{pt} a ^{art} uninhabited place. Thus, Harry Gordon ^{pt} got free from all of his troubles.

Peter said "I thought you are in need of this money." Charles' face was turning red. Peter laughed. Charles couldn't resist any more and he hit Peter. Peter's nose began to bleed. Peter realized the blood. At this time, Peter made an attack. The ~~fight~~ ^{that} violence of the fight was increasing. At ^{launched} this time, Charles took out a gun ^{that} in his pocket. Charles made straight the gun to Peter. Peter was ^{from} afraid. Peter began to tremble. Charles ^{pointed the gun at} behaved unconsciously. Charles got excited. He was afraid. He couldn't decide to fire ^{moved} on gun. Suddenly, he threw the gun and he began to run. He ^{the gun} behaved ^{he} anxiously. He left the Ward of hotel. Everybody ^{was} appeared strange to him. He was feeling as if he committed ^{looked/appeared} a crime. He was very angry. He went his home. After that the bell was ringing. Charles opened the door. He ^{was} surprised. He saw three ^{policemen} police on the door. Peter called the police. He reported ^{to the police to him} to the police. Charles was ^{cast} cast into prison by the police. But Peter ^{stipped} stepped out of this ^{event} event.

When two sisters went to their hometown, they decided ~~that~~ to give the evidence to police. However, they changed their decision on the road. ~~Because~~, ^{the} they sold the house less than its worth. So, they ^b decided to threaten ^{x the} to mafia. They wanted \$100000 for the evidence. They called to Harry Gordon. But, he didn't agree ^x this idea. ~~From that reason~~, ^{with} The women threaten to Harry Gordon by reporting to police. The women ^{threatened} and Harry Gordon decided to come to ^{the} an agreement. Then, they met in a desolate place. However, Harry Gordon made a plan to obtain the evidence. He located his gang members anywhere in the place. The women wanted ^x to money from Harry Gordon. But, he said, "I will give you the money after you have given me the evidence. At that time, ~~Harry Gordon's~~ ^{mafioso} mafia caught the women. Then, they tortured them. Next, they raped the women and they ^{cast} casted them in a ^{an} inhabitted place. Thus, Harry Gordon got free from all of his troubles.

**SAMPLE STUDENT WRITINGS FROM PRETEST AND POSTTEST
(IMPLICIT GROUP)**

Peter was stronger, bigger and larger than me. I was frightened I didn't know what to do. Then I shouted, "I love you Alice. Why do you do that to me?" I shouted "I ~~do~~ don't need your money", I said. I was starting to get more frightened. I approached them. I was smiling. After that, I punched Peter's face suddenly. I didn't know why I didn't it, but I did. Alice was shocked. I ~~was~~ started to run like a drunk man. After five minutes, I stopped. I was tired and I held my legs then had a rest. I looked back. Next I was punched by someone. Because of that I fainted. When I opened my eyes, I saw Alice. She held my face and said "Jim, Jim, wake up!" I felt dizzy. I stood up hard and looked around. "What happened?" I said to Alice. She said "I don't know," but when Peter saw money, he took all of the money and he ran away. "What? I can't understand. ~~You don't~~ Wasn't the money yours?" I said. She looked said. Then I understood everything. "Forgive me Jim, forgive me she said. I didn't say anything. I went my home.

They went to London. After that, they started to walk around and visit museums, galleries. Their money was getting exhausted when they are just in the middle of ~~the~~ ^{single} the travel. Something came to Grace's mind. She said "We can blackmail Harry Gordon to get money." Although ^{punc} Florence was frightened, they decided to blackmail him. Florence and Grace made a deal with Harry. According to the deal, Florence and Grace would get 10000 pound per month. Harry was very angry. Harry assigned Tiny to murder them, so Tiny went to London and started to trace to look for them. At that time, they went on their activities. One day, Tiny saw the siblings and started to trace them ~~the~~ down. They went to a movie theatre, so did Tiny. Coincidentally, there were only three people Tiny, Florence and Grace. ^{lc} Tiny entered the cinema hall silently when they were watching the movie. Then, Tiny shot them with a silent gun.

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 frightened I didn't know what to do. Then I shouted,
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 I shouted "I ~~do~~ don't need your money", I said. I was
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 minutes, I stopped. I was tired and I held my
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**SAMPLE STUDENT WRITINGS FROM PRETEST AND POSTTEST
(CONTROL GROUP)**

Peter was surprised. He didn't understand anything. Suddenly, Charles attacked him. They fought. There was a big noise in room, so hotel attendant called police. Police came to hotel and they was arrested by the police. Both of them looked very bad. Peter's nose was bleeding and Charles's clothes was ragged. They went to the prisons and they stayed a night. Next day they was free. Charles went to home and he wanted to walk around the city, so he wore his coat. He put his hand his hand his pocket. He found a watch, but this watch didn't belong to him. This coat didn't belong him. He thought that "I am very stupid". And Peter... He went to the hotel, but Alice wasn't there and money wasn't there. He realized that. Alice took the whole money and she ran away. She was ~~intonest~~ women, but ~~art~~ untrustworthy.

Peter was too late to understand this. He felt a stupid man. He will never believe nobody.

nobody. non-idiom

we

LARCENY AND OLD LACE

They were in the station and they were waiting the train to move. After a brief time, train ~~————~~ began to move. Old ladies opened ^{art} the book and they began to read. At that time, the woman who ^{table} is entered the compartment Grace and Florence ^{pt} didn't know this lady. ^{punc} A few minutes later, they started to talk. "Hi, my name is Alice," she said; and "I'm Grace and she is my sister Florence." ^{punc} said Grace. Actually the old lady was working ^{punc} for Walter, but they did not know them. According to Walter, Alice would trick them and she would take the microfilm which is very important for him. Walter ^{pt} remembered that he hid the microfilm in the photograph, after [^] Grace and Florence left. Now he should take it. Alice started ^{pt} to talk about mystery stories because she wanted to talk ^{them}, and she know that they love ^{prep} mystery stories. But ^{pt} that ^{pt} caught Florence's eye. She suspected him, and ^{pt} thought that she was working for Walter. She treated orange juice to them.

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Peter was too late to ~~be~~ understand this. He felt a stupid man. He will never believe nobody.

Hmm, I liked it. "Good"

LARCENY AND OLD LACE

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Creative. "Good"

APPENDIX 8

TYPES OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Explicit Corrective Feedback Forms

Direct In-text Correction

Horace Denby a good, honest person. He was fifty. He was happy except for attacks of
 hay fever. ^{^ was} ^{^ the}

Written Metalinguistic Explanation

But the window is too narrow to jump.
^{^ (you need past simple tense)}
 I wanted to teach him a lesson due to he didn't stick to the deal
^{^ (change the conjunction- because+ sentence)}

Implicit Corrective Feedback Forms

Coding

The man who was sitting think that this man was beggar because his clothes was poor.
^{^ pt} ^{^ art} ^{^ sv}
 He gave him money
^{^ (quantifier)}

Indication of Number of Errors in the Margin (for the last two tasks in the implicit feedback group)

2 The waiter brought the bill. They looked each other, and Forster stand up and he said to
 4 waiter "you trace me please, and then they went to another corner of hotels.

End Notes for the Control Group

Student Excerpt

... They decide to plan in order to escape, and something come to mind in a few moment. One of them press the fire bell, and everyone avacuate the hotel. Just at that time waiter exclaimed, bill, bill, bill... But the man ignore to said and he escaped from the without looking at. ...

End Note (given at the end of the page)

Dear X,
 I liked your creativity in writing a surprising