

**YAZILI DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜTLERİN İNGİLİZCE'Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK  
ÖĞRENMEKTE OLAN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN DURUM FİİL KULLANIMLARINA  
ETKİLERİ: DENEYSSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA**

**THE EFFECTS OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK  
ON TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' USE OF STATE VERBS:  
AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY**

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(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)  
Eskişehir, 2008

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M.A. THESIS

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Anadolu University Institution of Educational Sciences

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## YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

### YAZILI DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜTLERİN İNGİLİZCE'Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENMEKTE OLAN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN DURUM FİİL KULLANIMLARINA ETKİLERİ: DENEYSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA

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İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenme süreci çaba gerektiren zorlu bir süreç olduğundan dolayı, öğrenciler tarafından bu süreçte yapılan hatalar yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenme ortamlarının doğal parçalarıdır. Bu konuda hem düzeltici dönütlerin etkililiği üzerine devam eden bir tartışma, hem de yeni çalışmaların gerekliliği üzerine bir uzlaşma vardır. Bu tartışma ve uzlaşmadan esinlenen bu çalışma, doğrudan ve dolaylı olarak adlandırılan iki farklı yazılı düzeltici dönüt çeşidinin İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenmekte olan Türk öğrencilerin kısa ve uzun dönemdeki performanslarına etkilerini incelemektedir.

Bu amaçla, 29 gün süren bir ön test – son test – gecikmeli son test çalışması tasarlanmış ve bir anadolu lisesinin 11. sınıflarında öğrenim görmekte olan orta düzey dil seviyesine sahip toplam 71 öğrenci rastgele iki deney ve bir kontrol grubuna ayrılmıştır. İngilizce ve Türkçe'deki farklı kullanımlarından dolayı durum filler hedef yapılar olarak seçilmiştir.

Düzeltilici dönütler çalışmasında hemen önce İngilizce'deki bazı durum fillerle ilgili bir ön test geliştirilmiş ve 3 denek grup öğrencilerine uygulanmıştır. Ön test uygulandıktan sonra, bütün denekler durum fillerle ilgili Hata Düzeltme ve Kontrollü Üretim etkinliklerine katılmışlardır. Etkinlikler tamamlandıktan sonra, bir deney grubundaki öğrencilere durum fillerle ilgili hataları üzerine yazılı doğrudan düzeltici dönüt, diğer deney grubundaki öğrencilere yazılı dolaylı düzeltici dönüt verilmiştir. Kontrol grubundaki öğrencilere ise hatalarıyla ilgili herhangi bir dönüt verilmemiştir. Dönüt verme uygulamalarının ardından

bütün deneklere durum fillerle ilgili bir son test verilmiştir. Ayrıca yazılı düzeltici dönütlerin uzun süreli etkilerini görebilmek için aynı test 25 gün sonra tekrar uygulanmıştır.

Testlerden elde edilen veriler, yazılı düzeltici dönütlerin etkililiğini görmek amacıyla tek-yönlü ve iki-yönlü varyans analizi ile analiz edilmiştir. Bunun yanında, kısa ve uzun dönemde hangi yazılı düzeltici dönüt çeşidinin diğerine göre daha etkili olduğunu bulmak için LSD ve Dunnett t-testlerinden faydalanılmıştır.

Verilerin istatistiksel çözümlenmesi, yazılı düzeltici dönüt alan deney grubu deneklerinin dönüt almayan kontrol grubuna göre hem kısa hem de uzun dönemde anlamlı derecede daha başarılı olduğu sonucunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. İki deney grubu deneklerinin performansları karşılaştırıldığında ise doğrudan dönüt alan denek grubunun, dolaylı dönüt alan diğer denek grubundan hem kısa hem de uzun dönemde anlamlı derecede daha başarılı olduğu görülmüştür. Sonuç olarak bu çalışma, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıflarında öğrencilerin yapısal hatalarını düzeltmeyi ihmal etmemelerini ve Türk öğrencilerin kısa ve uzun dönemde daha iyi performans gösterebilmeleri için yazılı doğrudan düzeltici dönüt kullanmalarını önermektedir.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** *düzeltilici dönüt, durum filler, doğrudan dönüt, dolaylı dönüt*

## ABSTRACT

### THE EFFECTS OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' USE OF STATE VERBS: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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Anadolu University Institution of Educational Sciences, November 2008

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The errors made by EFL learners are natural parts of EFL contexts since it is a demanding and difficult process. There is both a continuing debate on the effectiveness of corrective feedback on EFL learners' performance and an agreement on the need of further research on this issue. Inspired from this debate and agreement, this study investigates the effectiveness of two different types of written corrective feedback – namely direct and indirect feedback – on Turkish EFL learners' short and long term performance.

For this purpose, a 29-day period pretest-posttest-delayed posttest study was designed and 71 Intermediate level students at 11<sup>th</sup> grade at an Anatolian High School were randomly assigned to two experimental and a control group. State verbs in English were chosen as the target form due to their different use in English and Turkish.

Before the corrective feedback sessions, a pretest on some state verbs in English was developed and conducted to the three subject groups. Then, all of the subjects were given the same Error Recognition and Controlled Production Tasks on state verbs. After subjects completed these tasks, one of the experimental groups was given written direct corrective feedback and the other experimental group received written indirect corrective feedback. The control group subjects did not receive any written corrective feedback on their errors. Subsequently, all the subjects attended both an immediate posttest and a delayed posttest on the target form.

The data collected from the tests were analyzed through two-way and one-way ANOVAs to see whether the written corrective feedback is effective or not. Additionally, LSD and Dunnett t-tests were used in order to see which type of written corrective feedback is more effective than the other in short and long term.

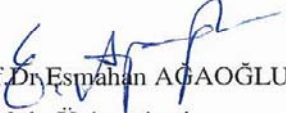
The statistical analysis of the data revealed that the experimental groups who received written corrective feedback significantly outperformed the control group who did not receive any written corrective feedback in both short and long term. The study also showed that the written direct corrective feedback group significantly outperformed written indirect corrective feedback group in both short and long term. As a result, the results of the current study suggested that Turkish EFL teachers should not neglect correcting their learners' structural errors in EFL contexts and should use written direct corrective feedback in their classrooms in order that the EFL learners can have better performance in both short and long term.

**Key words:** *corrective feedback, state verbs, direct feedback, indirect feedback*

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## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

It is a well-known fact that acquiring or learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is just like driving on a very rough path that is full of curves. Some researchers have even set forth the impossibility of acquiring a foreign language in teaching environments (Krashen, 1981; 1982). The difficulty of this process is basically due to a large number of variables such as motivation, age, learner preferences, aptitude, kind of instruction, the language itself, etc.

On such a rough path, expecting perfect accurate performance from EFL learners overnight seems unreal. It is very probable that some “accidents” will appear along the path. Ferris (2002) suggests three implications for EFL teachers that:

- They should not expect error free written production from the students,
- They should not expect accuracy improvement overnight,
- The EFL students differ from the native ones, need appropriate feedback or corrective feedback and need appropriate instruction.

Errors made by EFL learners have been considered as the very natural feature of the second language acquisition process among most of the scholars studying on second language acquisition.

Three reasons for focusing on errors were suggested by Ellis (1997):

“... First, they are conspicuous feature of learner language, raising the important question of ‘Why do learners make errors?’. Second, it is useful for teachers to know what errors learners make. Third, paradoxically, it is possible that making errors may actually help learners to learn when they self-correct the errors they made...”

(Ellis 1997; p.15)

Since the errors are the inevitable feature of EFL classrooms, some other questions have appeared to be answered. Hendrickson (1978) set the frame for the questions in his earlier study:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?

Although these fundamental questions on error treatment have been set thirty years ago and a large number of studies have been conducted, a satisfactory consensus has not been reached for any of the questions.

However, the first question of Hendrickson is a bit closer to be answered recently. In many theoretical and pedagogical books on EFL, the importance of giving feedback and corrective feedback in EFL learning environment is emphasized ( Ur, 1992 ; Todd, 1990 ; Nunan, 1995 ; Davies & Pearse, 2000 ; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). One of the aim of this study is to investigate whether written corrective feedback improves EFL learners’ accuracy on a specific linguistic item.

Additionally, the research in the area has gradually begun to focus on the second question of Hendrickson. So, another aim of the study is to compare the effects two different types of written corrective feedback on EFL students’ knowledge of a particular structure.



Moreover, the study aims to see whether the time factor makes any changes in the effects of written corrective feedback on a specific linguistic item.

To sum up, the study basically focuses on investigating the possible effects of written corrective feedback on the learners' accuracy, comparing the effects – if any – of different types of written corrective feedback and investigating the possible effects of time factor.

### **1.1. Background of the Study**

It would not be an overstatement to state that the debate on corrective feedback has been continuing since the beginning of the history of second language acquisition and learning. The current research fundamentally focuses on two particular issues: “Should EFL contexts include corrective feedback?” and “If so, what kind of corrective feedback should be used?”

#### **1.1.1. Views Against Corrective Feedback**

Some scholars such as Krashen (1982, 1991), Terrel (1982) and Truscott (1996) contended that corrective feedback in EFL contexts is not essential for improving learners' accuracy. They claimed that corrective feedback can sometimes be useless for learners and even can create negative effects on learners.

Krashen and Terrel, the theorists of “Natural Approach”, have pointed out that EFL learners can learn the target language better if their errors in their speech are not corrected. This is inspired from the success of native speakers acquiring their native languages without any corrective feedback.

Similarly, Truscott has put forward that correction of grammar errors do not improve EFL learners' written accuracy. He has also contended that the grammar corrective feedback on learners' writings can even be harmful for the affective aspects of the learning process.

### **1.1.2. Views Which Support Corrective Feedback**

Although the remarkable early article of Corder (1967; cited in Ellis, 1994) pointed out the significance of errors in three ways as informing teachers about the accuracy of the learners, informing researcher about the language learning process of the learners and as an important device that helps learners discover the systematic structure of the target language, the importance of errors made by EFL learners and feedback given has been focused on more intensively after the term "interlanguage" was coined by Selinker in 1972. (reviewed in Selinker, 1999) He defined the language used by EFL learners as a new language system, which is between the target language and the native language and while using this new system, learners are naturally expected to make errors in both written and oral productions.

One of the earlier advocates of the usefulness of both oral and written corrective feedback, Walz (1982) suggested that corrective feedback is an essential part of any EFL learning context regardless of the learners' age or level.

Recently, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) suggested that possible benefits of corrective feedback for EFL students and the choice of the most appropriate and effective feedback type should be studied on.

Also Ferris (1999) argued in his response to Truscott that grammar corrections can create benefits for the EFL learners on the condition that the corrections are made considering learners' preferences and the characteristics of the

grammatical items. More recently, she has put forward that error treatment is an important component of learners' written production and has suggested that different types of error treatments should be used for different types of errors although she favors indirect feedback (Ferris, 2004).

Similarly, Todd (1990) stated the goals of the corrective feedback in classrooms primarily as helping learners have a better accuracy of language use and creating a positive atmosphere by meeting their needs for being corrected.

Tatawy (2002) also proposed some conditions for the effectiveness of corrective feedback in second language acquisition as below:

1. Teachers should be systematic and consistent,
2. Feedback should be clear for learners,
3. Enough time to repair should be given,
4. Close match between the purpose of the teacher, the incorrect structure and the perception of the feedback by the learners,
5. Correction should be focused on one error at a time
6. The importance of the learners' developmental readiness.

To sum up, despite the increasing support for the value of corrective feedback, there have still been contradictory views against written or oral corrective feedback in EFL contexts. Even if the opposite views on corrective feedback are absolutely refuted now or may potentially be refused in the near future, another problem exists: What types of corrective feedback are more effective.

### **1.1.3. Basic Types of Corrective Feedback**

Yates and Kenkel (2002) reported that reaching a consensus on the significance of corrective feedback in both learners' written and oral production is not an end but a start to a new discussion:

“Despite general willingness on the part of L2 teachers to provide written comments and corrective feedback and a general belief that this work could be very effective if the right method were used, there remains little agreement on what kind of marking is effective.”

(Yates and Kenkel, 2002; p.30)

Oriented from the teacher centered – learner centered conflict; various corrective feedback types for both written and spoken accuracy of foreign language learners have been proposed.

### **1.1.3.1. Types of Corrective Feedback on Spoken Language**

The studies on corrective feedback in EFL context have mainly focused on oral feedback. With the effect of the interactionist theory, the role of corrective feedback has begun to gain much more importance in EFL and ESL contexts.

Accordingly, the effects of various feedback types on the success of foreign or second language learning have been researched by many scholars in recent years. The central questions of these studies can be stated as what kinds of feedback should be given to learners for an effective learning.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) suggested some techniques which can be used by teachers while giving feedback on form:

- Asking students to repeat what he or she said.
- Pointing out the error and asking the students to self-correct.
- Commenting on errors and explaining why it is wrong, without having students repeat the correct form.
- Asking another student to correct the error.
- Using a gesture to indicate that an error has been made.

(Richards and Lockhart, 1994: p. 190)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified oral feedback types more specifically as *explicit correction*, *recasts*, *clarification requests*, *repetition*, *metalinguistic feedback* and *elicitation*. These types of feedback essentially reflect two basic techniques, namely explicit and implicit feedback. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) simply defined explicit feedback as a type of feedback which includes “an indicator that an error has been committed” and implicit feedback as type of feedback in which there is “no overt indicator that an error has been committed”

### **1.1.3.2. Types of Corrective Feedback on Written Language**

In order to facilitate learners’ written accuracy on particular language structures, different written corrective feedback types were suggested by several scholars.

In his recent article, Chandler (2003) stated that teachers can either correct learners’ errors themselves or by indicating the errors for learners’ self correction.

After figuring out the stages in error treatment process, Todd (1990) classified the strategies for corrective feedback as “*showing incorrectness*”, “*guiding students towards correction*”, “*referring the treatment to peers*” and “*giving the correction*”. (p.95)

Although there seem to be four strategies in Todd’s classification, these strategies essentially reflect two types of corrective feedback, namely “direct feedback” and “indirect feedback”. Ferris (2002) explains “direct feedback” as teachers’ stating the incorrect form and giving the correct form to the learners and “indirect feedback” as only stating the existence of an error in learners’ work and leading learners to correct the error, in other words to self-correct.

## 1.2. Statement of the Problem

From the theoretical background explained throughout the previous part, it is clear that there are still problems which should be solved on the issue of error treatment in EFL classrooms.

Although the research on corrective feedback is chiefly concerned with oral corrective feedback and thus it has now become evident that corrective feedback on learners' oral production improves learners' interlanguage development, the possible evidence for the effects of written corrective feedback on learners' written accuracy still seem uncertain.

One of the problems in the issue of effect of written corrective feedback on learners' written accuracy can be stated as whether correction improves learners' written accuracy. Truscott (1996) concluded his review article by claiming the ineffectiveness of corrective feedback:

“Because correction does not help students' accuracy, and may well damage it, simply abandoning correction will not have harmful effects on accuracy (or anything else) and might improve it. In other words, teachers can help students' accuracy at least much by doing nothing as by correcting their grammar; and by doing nothing teachers can avoid the harmful effects discussed above. So the alternative to correcting grammar is straightforward: **Do not correct grammar.**”

(Truscott, 1996; p. 360)

Contrary to Truscott, Ferris (1999) argued that most learners need and prefer correction of their errors and thus corrective feedback improves learners' written accuracy on the condition that it is given selectively, carefully and clearly.

Related to the first problem stated, there is another problem to be solved, that is, from what kinds of corrective feedback the learners' benefit much. In other words, which types of written corrective feedback facilitate the interlanguage development of learners?

Furthermore, the durable effects of written corrective feedback on learners' written accuracy are other problematic issues. Discovering the short and long term effects of written corrective feedback is a considerable problem for the researchers studying in this area.

### **1.3. Purpose of the Study**

The study primarily focuses on three problematic issues in written corrective feedback by EFL teachers and tries to figure out some implications for EFL teachers while correcting their learners' errors and also for future research.

The first aim of the study is to investigate whether written corrective feedback creates any improvement on learners' written accuracy or not. Secondly, the study aims to examine the differential effects of two different types of correction, namely direct and indirect written feedback on learners' written accuracy.

Thirdly, the study also aims to investigate the durable effects of different written corrective feedback.

### **1.4. Research Questions**

In their book, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) put forward some important questions to be answered for further research. One of them is whether corrective feedback helps learners at all and another one is related to the types of feedback: should feedback be direct or indirect?

Inspired from Ferris's questions, this study primarily aims to find some answers to the following questions:

1. Do EFL learners who receive written corrective feedback improve in written accuracy of the state verbs in English more than comparable learners who received no corrective feedback?
2. Should written corrective feedback be direct or indirect?
3. Which of these two corrective feedback types (i.e. direct and indirect corrective feedback) has more durable effects on improving the use of state verbs in English?

To answer these questions, the data will be collected through two tests in three sessions and the results will be discussed in terms of these central questions to the study.

### **1.5. Significance of the Study**

The significance of this study can be stated as consisting of two parts. First, the study will present some insights to the theoretical discussion about the positive or negative effects of written corrective feedback on EFL learners' written accuracy of state verbs in English.

Additionally, this study can be seen as further research of several previous studies. In her article, Ferris (2004) stated that the previous research is incomplete and insufficient for discussing the effectiveness of corrective feedback or differential effects of different corrective feedback types on learners' accuracy and thus further research is needed. Also Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) stated the need for further research of their study with learners at other proficiency levels and for other linguistic forms. Recently, Kılınç (2007) suggested some experimental research to be done on this issue at the end of his descriptive M.A. thesis. More recently, Ellis (2008) explicitly stated the need for well-designed research on this issue after suggesting a typology of written corrective feedback techniques.



Beside this theoretical significance, pedagogically, the study will have some implications for EFL teachers in terms of use of written corrective feedback. In addition, Hendrickson (1980) stated that such research could reveal some important implications for the teacher training programs.

### **1.6. Limitations of the Study**

The limitations are the inevitable part of studies carried out in social sciences basically due to human factor. So this study has the following limitations:

- Although the subjects of the study have been exposed to the same kind of teaching programme for approximately 3 years, the type of instruction they were given in the preceding years of high school may have some positive or negative effects on their acquisition levels. The pretest scores of the subjects on the target feature showed that there is no significant difference among three groups in terms of the acquisition of the target feature; however, this issue can be stated as one of the limitations of the study.
- The same teaching programme has been conducted for the subjects for 3 years in their current schools; however, they have been instructed by various teachers in this period. This factor is not taken into consideration in the study.
- It is a truism that second language acquisition is affected by many individual factors such as learners' motivation, styles, preferences, beliefs. In the study this issue is not taken into consideration.

### 1.7. Definitions of the Terms

In this study, there are simply three terms to clarify well in order to prevent the misunderstandings of the readers.

**Written corrective feedback:** In this research this term is used as instructors' written corrective feedback on subjects' incorrect written expressions. As Ur (1992) stated in her book, compositions are not the only written production of the learners but the other tasks in which the learners write are written work as well. Written corrective feedback can focus on form or structure, but in this study, this term is limited to focusing on the correction of the learners' linguistic errors on the target linguistic form.

**Direct corrective feedback:** In his earlier article, Hendrickson (1980) defined this term as "location of the error" and usually giving the correct form. Actually, this term was defined by several scholars similarly, that is providing learners with the correct form of the incorrect structure (Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005 ; Lee, 2004; Ferris, 2002). In this study, the term is used as locating the erroneous part of the structure, giving the correct form and making a short comment on the error.

**Indirect corrective feedback:** The other written feedback type stated by different scholars is indirect corrective feedback. Although the definitions change in terms of the words used, this term is used for teachers' showing that an error was made and leading the learners to the correct form themselves (Ferris, 2002). Lee (2004) explained the term similarly and suggested underlining or circling the errors in order to indicate the problematic structure. In this study, indirect corrective feedback is used as circling or underlining the erroneous structures and putting a question mark just under the incorrect form.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Hendrickson's fundamental questions stated previously framed the particular foci of the research on the errors made by EFL learners. These questions have not still been answered clearly. That is why much research has been carried out on the issue of corrective feedback.

EFL teachers can correct the errors of EFL learners either by using oral or written corrective feedback techniques. Sheen (2007) stated three obvious differences between oral and written corrective feedback. First of these differences is related to the correction time, that is, written corrective feedback are often delayed corrections whereas oral corrections are made just after the learners' errors occur. As a second difference between them, she contended that oral corrections 'demand immediate cognitive comparisons' which overload learners cognitively. Third, she stated the difference between these two types of corrections in terms of pedagogical issues. According to her, written corrections on linguistic items are generally made for the sake of improving content and organization of written works.

In this section, mainly some studies on oral and written corrective feedback on learners' errors will be introduced, but beforehand some recent related views on language learning and corrective feedback process will be reviewed briefly.

## 2.1. Current Views on Language Learning and Corrective Feedback

Although contrary views have still existed on the effectiveness of corrective feedback in language learning process (Krashen, 1991 ; Truscott, 1998), many scholars and linguists have argued that correcting learners' errors would facilitate their performance.

After reviewing Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, which claims that learners should notice the gap between their language productions and the correct forms in the target language in order to learn the target language, Izumi and Bigelow (2000) stated that "...drawing learners' attention to form facilitates their second language learning" (p. 243). This statement referred to a popular view on language teaching: focus-on-form.

Nunan (1991) defined focus-on-form instruction as including any activities that lead learners to concentrate on the targeted forms. After making a very similar definition of focus-on-form instruction, Ellis (2001) talked about some categories of focus-on-form instruction such as focus-on-forms, planned focus-on-form and incidental focus-on-form. One type of incidental focus-on-form category appeared as reactive focus-on-form which was defined as the corrections by instructors when learners produced incorrect language forms.

From the short review of some views on language learning and corrective feedback process, it seemed that corrective feedback was one of the important issues in language learning process. That is why many studies on this issue have conducted so far. In the following two parts of the section, some research on this issue will be reviewed.

## 2.2. Oral Corrective Feedback Studies

In recent years, research has revealed growing evidence for the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback on learners' interlanguage development. However, there has not been a general consensus on the best way of corrections. Thus the recent studies focus on the effects of different types of oral corrective feedback on learners' interlanguage.

For the purpose of investigating the effects of oral corrective feedback on learners' noticing of particular linguistic items in an L2 classroom, Mackey (2006) conducted an experimental study and found that the experimental group who received oral corrective feedback outperformed the control group who received no correction in noticing the particular linguistic forms.

Contrary to the results of Mackey's study, the results of Eş's (2003) M.A. thesis which aimed to investigate the effects of different focus-on-form treatments on the learning target linguistic forms put out that there was no significant difference between the Input-Output group and Input-Output-Feedback group. The findings of this thesis contradict with of most corrective feedback studies which revealed that corrective feedback is useful and improve learning the target linguistic forms.

In their observational and descriptive study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) observed and analyzed a second language classroom and classified the oral corrective feedback types as *explicit correction*, *recasts*, *clarification requests*, *repetition*, *metalinguistic feedback* and *elicitation*. They also found that although recasts were the most widely used corrective feedback technique (55%), the uptake of the learners of the targeted feature was the lowest of all types. The results of their study favored other implicit feedback types such as elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetitions, which do not include giving learners the correct form and provide opportunities for self correction.

By using the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta, Kılınç (2007) observed the oral corrective feedback techniques in speaking classes of his institution in his recent M.A. thesis and found that recasts were the most widely used type of corrective feedback ( 56%) in speaking EFL classrooms.

In addition, Lyster (1998) investigated use of two different corrective feedback types on different linguistic items in four French immersion classes at elementary levels and found that majority of the grammatical errors were corrected with recasts and negotiation of form - the term which is used for elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetitions- by the teacher. The results of the study pointed out the common use of implicit corrective feedback techniques on learners' grammatical errors in ESL classrooms.

Nassaji (2007) also investigated the usefulness of recasts and elicitations in dyadic interactions of 42 adult intermediate ESL learners in Canada and the results of his study showed that explicit corrective feedback leads to better learner repairs in comparison to implicit corrective feedback.

In their pretest-posttest-delayed posttest designed study, Ammar and Spada (2006) investigated the effects of different oral corrective feedback, namely recasts and prompts, in communicative classrooms. They focused on three hypotheses first of which was a possible benefit of learners from corrective feedback in communicative classrooms. Second hypothesis was related to the differential effects of two types of corrective feedback on learners' second language development. The possible relationships between learners' proficiency levels and the benefits of corrective feedback were also focused on in the study. During the four-week treatment on a particular linguistic item, two experimental groups and a control group were compared in terms of the use of the particular linguistic item and they found that the experimental groups who received corrective feedback during the treatments significantly outperform the control group. For the second purpose of the study, the comparisons between

two experimental groups revealed supports for the superiority of the prompt group who did not receive the correct form of their erroneous use by the teachers over the recast group who received “teachers’ reformulation of the erroneous part of their utterance minus the error” (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). They also found that the benefits of any corrective feedback type are directly dependent on the proficiency level of learners. To sum up, the research concluded that correction of learners’ errors within communicative classrooms facilitates learners’ interlanguage developments but the benefits can differ in relation with the types of corrections and the proficiency of the learners.

With a similar pretest- posttest- delayed posttest design, Ellis et. al. (2006) investigated the effects of two different corrective feedback techniques, namely recasts and metalinguistic explanations, on learners’ interlanguage developments of past tense –ed. The results showed that both two experimental groups outperformed the control group which received no correction in learning of the target structure. Within the experimental groups, the learners who had received metalinguistic explanations became more successful than the learners who had received recasts in immediate posttests. The superiority of metalinguistic explanation group over recast group became significant in the delayed posttest results, which supports the evidence for the gradual benefits of metalinguistic explanation as time passed.

### **2.3. Written Corrective Feedback Studies**

Although the research on corrective feedback primarily focuses on oral production of learners, the studies on feedback are not limited to spoken language. There are a large number of studies investigating the effects of corrective feedback on the written accuracy of learners on particular linguistic forms.

Similar to oral corrective feedback studies, the written corrective feedback studies have primarily focused on the possible benefits of these corrections for learning particular linguistic forms; however, the results of written corrective feedback studies do not seem as conclusive as of oral corrective feedback studies.

The research investigating possible effects of written corrective feedback has also been inspired from Hendrickson's (1978) implications :

1. It appears that correcting oral and written errors produced by second language learners improves their proficiency in a foreign language more so than if their errors would remain uncorrected.

.....

4. The literature reveals a wide variety of techniques that teachers currently use to correct their students' oral and written errors ..... It appears that continued research in this new area will contribute to the development of additional practical methods for correcting errors effectively and efficiently.

(Hendrickson, 1978; 396)

The research inspired from Hendrickson's frame was criticized by Truscott (1996, 2004, 2007) and he concluded his review article with the evidence against written corrective feedback and stated that learners should not receive written grammar corrections. According to him, teachers should focus on other aspects of learners' written production instead of grammar corrective feedback since this type of corrective feedback is ineffective and even harmful.

The early research conducted by Robb et.al. (1986) can be stated as evidence for Truscott's claim against the corrective feedback. In the study, the effects of four different error treatments on learners' overall written production - *namely direct correction, coded corrective feedback, uncoded corrective feedback and marginal corrective feedback about the number of errors in each line* – were investigated and no significant differences were found among four groups. They concluded that detailed corrective feedback was time-consuming and needless and they suggested that teachers should focus on the process of writing instead of correcting grammatical errors. In her review, however, Chandler (2003)



argued that the results of the study of Robb et.al. (1986) had revealed some benefits of corrective feedback because all groups increase their performance in fluency and syntactic complexity in the study.

Contrary to Truscott's view, Ferris (1999) and Chandler (2004) emphasized the effectiveness of all kinds of corrective feedback on the condition that they are systematic and well-organized. They both pointed out that learners feel more confident when they receive corrective feedback and their confidence facilitates learning the target feature.

Arguing a position against Truscott's view, Chandler (2003) conducted a twofold study to investigate both the possible effects of having learners correct their errors on their written accuracy and the possible effects of various written corrective feedback techniques on learners' written accuracy. The findings of her first study implied that teachers should correct learners' errors, thus learners' written accuracy and fluency improve. The results of the second part of the study showed that written accuracy of learners who received direct corrective feedback from the teacher increased to a large extent and also learners preferred this type of correction. As an alternative, only underlining learners' errors as corrective feedback also improved learners' written accuracy. Additionally, only underlining the error demands less time and effort for teachers.

Contributing to Chandler's results, Ferris and Roberts (2001) carried out a study on forty-four ESL students at California State University and investigated the possible effects of written corrective feedback and the effects of different types of corrective feedback on learners' written accuracy. Their results indicated that both groups that received corrective feedback significantly outperformed the group who did not receive any corrective feedback. On the other hand, they could not find any significant difference between two groups who received different types of corrective feedback. The results of the group who received coded feedback and the group whose errors were only underlined showed that there were no significant differences in learners' written accuracy. In their

implications, they suggested that teachers should correct learners' errors and instead of coded feedback which demands much time and effort, teachers can use marking the error techniques such as underlining. This is because there are not significant differences in terms of the effects of these two techniques on learners' written accuracy.

One of the most recent studies on the effects of written corrective feedback was conducted by Bitchener (2008). In his 2-month study, he examined the effects of four different written corrective feedback types on 75 international ESL learners at low intermediate level in New Zealand. The analysis of the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest results showed that all types of corrective feedback improved ESL learners' written accuracy of the targeted linguistic items in the study. Another result of the study was the permanence of the effects of written corrective feedback at the end of two months.

Another study that showed the effectiveness of corrective feedback on ESL learners' written accuracy was carried out by Sachs and Polio (2007) recently. Their study examined the effects of three different responses to learners' errors on their written accuracy: *written corrective feedback*, *reformulation of learners' utterances* and *reformulation + think aloud process*. The results of their study pointed out that written corrective feedback had significantly better effects on learners' written accuracy than reformulation of the errors.

Supporting the previous research that had shown the benefits of written corrective feedback, Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005) found a significant positive effect of combination of written corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback in the form of one-to-one conference on learners' written accuracy. They conducted their research to upper-intermediate L2 learners and the target linguistic features studied on were past simple and definite article. At the end of the study, they stated a need for further research at other proficiency levels and on other linguistic features, which constructs one of the theoretical significances of this thesis as stated in related part. **(see 1.5)**

In addition to these studies that showed significant effects of written corrective feedback on ESL and EFL learners' written accuracy, a recent study carried out by Sheen (2007) also focused on differential effects of two types of written corrective feedback. However, her study differed from the previous ones in two ways. First, the study focused on only one linguistic feature; second, during the treatment there was no explicit teaching of the target linguistic feature in order to minimize the effects of instruction and observe only the effects of corrective feedback. Like the previous research, the results of her study showed that the groups that received written corrective feedback outperformed the control group that had not received any correction. Additionally, between two experimental groups that received different types of corrective feedback, the learners whose errors on targeted linguistic feature were corrected in forms of direct corrections and metalinguistic explanations outperformed the learners who received only direct corrections on the target feature. Moreover, the significant difference between those groups did not lose over time. Thus the researcher suggested that EFL/ ESL teachers should prefer direct and metalinguistic written corrective feedback in order to improve the written accuracy of learners on particular linguistic features.

#### **2.4. Conclusion**

After reviewing many studies that were carried out on the effects of oral or written corrective feedback on learners' oral or written accuracy of different linguistic features, it could be far easier to mention about the benefits of corrective feedback on learners' accuracy. Nevertheless, there have still been some contradictory views and studies on the issue of the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

From the review, the effectiveness of corrective feedback does not conclude the discussion. Finding any benefits of corrective feedback, research has begun to focus on the effects of different types of corrective feedback on learners'

accuracy. That is why some further research on the issue of corrective feedback and the effects of different types of it seems to be significant for introducing new insights into the on-going discussion.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The general design of the study which primarily focused on the effects of written corrective feedback and two different types of written corrective feedback in Turkish EFL learners' written accuracy will be explained in this section.

#### 3.1. Introduction

The present experimental study was carried out in order to find some answers to three questions related correcting Turkish EFL learners' errors on state verbs in English (**see 1.4.**)

First, the study sought for the possible effects of written corrective feedback on Turkish EFL learners' use of state verbs in English. In order to achieve this aim, the study compared the statistical differences between control group and two experimental groups.

Since the second aim of the study was comparing the effects of two different types of written corrective feedback – namely direct correction and indirect correction, the study also compared the statistical differences between the two experimental groups.

In addition to these aims, the study investigated the durable effects of direct and indirect corrective feedback on learners' use of state verbs in English. Seeking for the effects of time factor, a delayed post-test was conducted and the statistical differences of all groups were compared.

### **3.2. Settings and Subjects**

The study was conducted in three 11<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms in Eskişehir Salih Zeki Anatolian High School. All the subjects were informed that the study was not an obligatory one, thus voluntary participation was achieved for the study. Students are provided with intensive English lessons throughout their first year in Anatolian High Schools in Turkey. They have ten English lessons in a week. Throughout their second year at these schools, English lessons decreases to four hours a week. In the 11<sup>th</sup> grade, the students go on receiving EFL instruction for four hours a week. These students are assumed as having an Intermediate level proficiency of English considering the period they have been instructed (approximately seven years – one of which were intensive), their coursebook which was prepared for intermediate and upper-intermediate learners by the Ministry of Turkish National Education and the thoughts and expressions of their teachers although there is no placement test results. The pretest results of these subjects, which will be explained in details in the following related parts, showed that there were no significant differences among the subjects in terms of their written accuracy of the target form.

The students in 11<sup>th</sup> grades were chosen as the subjects of the study due to several reasons:

First, the students in 11<sup>th</sup> grades were familiar with the words and grammatical structures within the tests. So, the possible negative effects of unfamiliarity with the structures and words were avoided.

Second, the students in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> classes had not been taught the use of state verbs explicitly in classroom environment until the study was carried out. Nevertheless, these students had been exposed to the linguistic structure since the beginning of their EFL learning process. On the other hand, the students in 11<sup>th</sup> classes had already been instructed on the target feature that year because the educational program of Ministry of Turkish National Education for 11<sup>th</sup> classes of Anatolian High Schools includes the linguistic structure.

Third, all 11<sup>th</sup> class students have been instructed by the same EFL teacher this year and this can be stated as an important characteristic which reduces the effects of different kinds of instructions to a large extent.

Considering these reasons, the students in three 11<sup>th</sup> grades at Salih Zeki Anatolian High School were chosen as the subjects of the study and these three 11<sup>th</sup> classes were randomly assigned to each one of the three treatment groups in this study: direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback and no corrective feedback (control group) (see Figure 3.1). The reason for the existence of a control group in such a study had its source in the ongoing debate between the scholars against written corrective feedback (Truscott, 1996, 2004) and advocates of written corrective feedback (Chandler, 2004; Ferris, 1999, 2002). Although the continuing dispute among these scholars, they all have agreed on the necessity for a control group that does not receive any corrective feedback in such kinds of studies. Besides, Chandler (2004) expressed her hope for studies that include control group and defined these further studies as well-designed ones.

Group	Level	Population	Types of Written Corrective Feedback
1	Intermediate	28	Direct Corrective Feedback
2	Intermediate	28	Indirect Corrective Feedback
3	Intermediate	27	No Corrective Feedback

**Figure 3.1.** Students chosen for the study and types of corrective feedback they received

While analyzing the results of the tests carried out in the study, the students who did not participate in any of the tests or treatments were excluded from the research. Thus, the following table shows the remaining population and the profile of the subjects:

Group	Population	Gender		Age	Mean Age
		Male	Female		
Direct Corrective Feedback Group	25	9	16	16-18	17
Indirect Corrective Feedback Group	24	10	14	17-18	17.30
Control Group	22	11	11	16-18	16.81
Total	71	30	41	16-18	17.03

**Figure 3.2.** Students remained for the data analysis and their characteristics

To sum up, the subjects of the study comprised totally 71 Turkish EFL students in 11<sup>th</sup> classes at Salih Zeki Anatolian High School and as it can be seen in Figure 3.2. , 30 of the subjects were males and 41 of them were females. Additionally their ages ranged from 16 to 18 and the mean age of the subjects were 17.03 . By using the scores of these subjects on the pretests, posttests



and delayed posttests, the research questions stated previously (see part 1.4) were tried to be answered in the study.

### 3.3. Target Form

In the study, only one linguistic structure was focused on and the errors of the subjects on this target form were corrected and evaluated. This is because the effects of corrective feedback can be best analyzed when instructors treat only particular items at a time, rather than more comprehensive focus on learners' errors. (Ferris, 2002; Lee, 2004)

The use of state verbs in target language was chosen as the target feature of the study. These verbs differ from action verbs in that they refer to mental states, senses, feelings rather than actions. They are also defined as non-progressive verbs since they mostly cannot be used in progressive forms at all. Swan (1995) classified some common non-progressive verbs as follows: (Figure 3.3)

<b>Mental and emotional states</b>	<b>Use of the senses</b>	<b>Communicating and causing reaction</b>	<b>Other</b>
<i>believe, hate, imagine, love, think, feel, know, prefer, want, etc.</i>	<i>hear, see look(seem), smell, taste, appear, sound, etc</i>	<i>agree, promise, disagree, mean, etc.</i>	<i>be, include, need, own, etc</i>

**Figure 3.3.** Swan's classification of state (non-progressive) verbs in English.

Leech and Svartvik (1994) also suggested a similar but more cogent taxonomy for state verbs in English as shown in Figure 3.4.

<b>Verbs of Perceiving</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being</b>
<i>feel, taste, hear, see, smell, etc.</i>	<i>believe, dislike, forget, hope, know, like, remember, understand, etc.</i>	<i>be, belong to, cost, have, involve, own, possess, etc.</i>

**Figure 3.4.** Leech and Svartvik’s categorization of state verbs in English.

Both theoretically and pedagogically, there were several reasons for choosing state verbs as the targeted linguistic item of the study. One of the theoretical reasons was that, errors on these linguistic forms can be classified as “treatable errors”, the term coined by Ferris (2002) and defined as:

“A **treatable error** is related to a linguistic structure that occurs in a rule-governed way. It is treatable because the student writer can be pointed to a grammar book or sets of rules to resolve the problem. ... Examples of treatable errors include verb tense and form; subject-verb agreement; article usage...”

(Ferris, 2002; p. 23)

Being treatable errors, these linguistic forms provided the indirect group learners with the opportunity to self-correct their errors. If untreatable errors such as word choice errors or word order errors were determined as the target forms of the study, this may have probably created a disadvantage for the indirect group throughout the study and the results could be unreliable.

Furthermore, state verbs can be problematic structures for the learners participating in this study due to differences between native and target language. Such problematic issues were defined as suitable structures to focus

on in such corrective feedback studies according to Harley (1993) and Sheen (2007).

In addition to these theoretical reasons for determining state verbs as the targeted form of the study, there was a pedagogical reason for the decision. The pedagogical reason of the decision derived from a series of negotiations with the EFL teacher of three groups. The teacher explicitly stated that although the state verbs previously had been instructed during that term, the students had still had problems in recognizing and producing utterances including state verbs and she often came across learner errors based on state verbs. As Harley (1993) proposed, the structures that had been misunderstood or misanalyzed were also among the characteristics of the best structures to focus on in these studies.

### **3.4. The Design of the Study**

For the purpose of finding answers to the research questions of the study, each of the subject groups were given different kinds of corrective feedback treatments in the study. The treatments and tests were finished within 29 days and the learners were not informed about the aims of the study. They believed that these treatments were parts of their learning program. By this way, the learners' attention to the target structure was provided, which is an important issue in corrective feedback studies according to Chandler (2003). She suggested that corrective feedback process became invalid if learners did not focus on or revise their corrected items.

As has been stated previously, there were three treatment groups in the study: Direct corrective feedback, Indirect corrective feedback and No corrective feedback (as Control group). They were all given the same tasks, pretests, posttests and delayed posttests; however, the corrective feedback process differed for each group. Figure 3.5. shows the general design of the study:

	<b>DIRECT GROUP</b>	<b>INDIRECT GROUP</b>	<b>CONTROL GROUP</b>
<b>1<sup>st</sup> day</b>	<u>PRETESTS</u> (Multiple Choice Recognition Test & Fill in the Blanks Test)		
<b>2<sup>nd</sup> day</b>	<u>Task Application</u> (Error Recognition Task & Controlled Production Task)		
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> day</b>	Explicit correction and Explanation	<u>Underlining</u> or <u>Circling</u> the erroneous part and Putting a question mark (?)	No corrective feedback
<b>4<sup>th</sup> day</b>	<u>POSTTESTS</u> (Multiple Choice Recognition Test & Fill in the Blanks Test)		
<b>25 days after posttests</b>	<u>DELAYED POSTTESTS</u> (Multiple Choice Recognition Test & Fill in the Blanks Test)		

**Figure 3.5.** The general design of the study

The figure of the general design of the study (Figure 3.5.) shows that the study took place in 29 days in total. On the first day, all the groups attended the same two pretests which had been prepared for examining the written accuracy of the groups on the target forms. Then they were given the same two tasks which included some exercises on the target structure on the following day. On the third day, corrective feedback treatments were carried out for both direct and indirect group. As can be seen in Figure 3.5. , the control group did not

participate in error treatment sessions. In other words, they only completed the tasks but did not receive any corrective feedback on their errors. Just the day after the error treatment sessions, all the groups were conducted two immediate posttests which had the same questions with the pretests but the order of the questions was changed. 25 days after these immediate posttests, the same tests were administered to each group again in order to examine the durable effects of the treatments. The order of items in the tests was also changed for the delayed posttests.

It is clear that the only difference among the three subject groups was the corrective feedback treatment sessions. So, explaining the corrective feedback treatments for each group will be needed, but before explaining the treatments for each group, clarifying the characteristics of two tasks administered to groups during the task application session will be essential.

### **3.5. Tasks Administered to Subjects**

In the study, students participated in two tasks: Error Recognition Task (see Appendix A) and Controlled Production Task (see Appendix B). They were prepared by the researcher for the study; however, while constructing these tasks, a large number of activity and reference books were reviewed and used.

While constructing the tasks, great attention was paid to choose the state verbs from different categories (See Figure 3.3. and 3.4.) in order to diversify the items. (see Appendix C and D)

### 3.5.1. Error Recognition Task

Error Recognition Task (Appendix A) consisted of 15 items, 10 of which were related to the use of state verbs (item 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15). The other 5 items (item 2, 5, 8, 11, 14) were distractors.

In each sentence four words or phrases were underlined and the subjects were asked to recognize the erroneous underlined word or phrase for each sentence and put a cross on the inappropriate part:

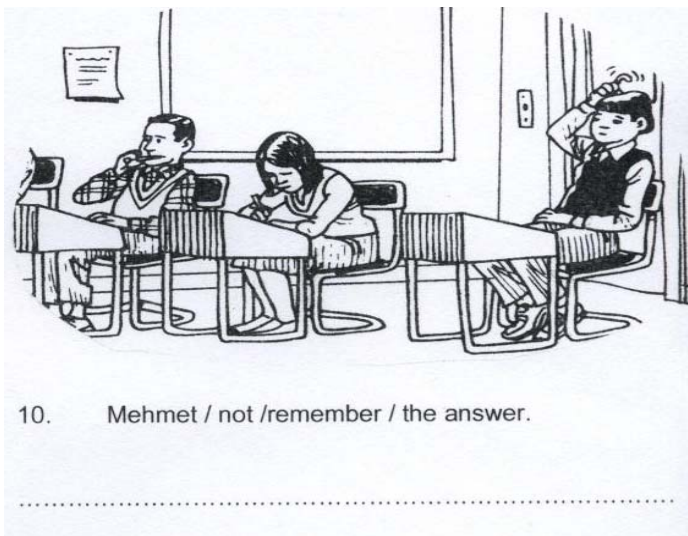
**Item 10.** The hotel is by the lake and ~~this is meaning~~ you can go fishing there.

The subjects were also informed that there was only one erroneous part within each sentence and they should not leave any of the sentences unmarked.

### 3.5.2. Controlled Production Task

Controlled Production Task (Appendix B) also consists of 15 items, 10 of which were related to the target structure of the study (item 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 15). The other items were distractors.

The task includes 15 pictures and under each picture, some words related to the pictures were given in the correct order and the subjects were asked to produce accurate and meaningful sentences for each picture without leaving out any words given or adding any new words:

**Item 10.**

The subjects were asked to write sentences for each picture and not to leave any of the items unanswered.

### **3.6. Error Treatments**

After describing the characteristics of the tasks that were administered to all subjects participating in the study, clarifying the error treatments for each group will be explained in this part. This is because the groups solely differ from each other in terms of the corrective feedback they received.

#### **3.6.1. Treatment for Direct Correction Group**

Although Direct corrective feedback group (DG) was administered the same pretests, tasks, posttests and delayed posttests as the other two groups, the corrective feedback process throughout the treatment was different for DG.

The corrective feedback for DG was inspired from Ferris' (2002) and Lee's (2004) description for written direct feedback. They defined written direct

feedback as teachers' explanation of the errors and providing the correct forms of the erroneous parts of the students' production.

In the study, DG received direct corrective feedback for both Error Recognition Task and Controlled Production Task. Treatment for Error Recognition Task includes researcher's crossing over the erroneous part of the sentences, provision of the correct form and adding a brief explanation about learner's error:

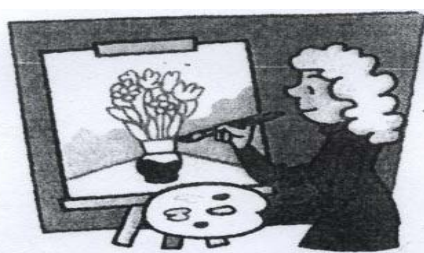
**Item 4.** I ~~am promising~~ I will study harder and pass the final exams.

X

*"promise" (it is a state verb; can't be progressive !)*

The error treatment for Controlled Production Task includes crossing over the erroneous part of the learners' sentences, correcting it and adding a brief explanation about the learners' error:

**Item 1.**



1. The picture / look / very nice / now.

*The picture ~~is looking~~ very nice now. ....*

*"looks" (state verb; can't be progressive)*



It is clear that the subjects in DG could identify their errors, receive the correct forms. The short explanations by the researcher made the correction more explicit for the subjects.

### 3.6.2. Treatment for Indirect Corrective Feedback Group

Indirect corrective feedback group (IG) also participated in the same pretests, tasks, posttests and delayed posttests as the other subject groups in the study. However, the correction style for their errors on the task differed from the other groups.

IG subjects received indirect corrective feedback on their errors by the researcher. Lee (2004) explained indirect corrective feedback as “providing feedback on student errors without giving the correct forms or structures, e.g., by simply underlining [or circling] the errors”. In the study this type of corrective feedback was used for IG subjects.

More specifically, the corrective feedback treatment for learners’ errors on Error Recognition Task included circling the incorrect form within the sentences and putting a question mark under it. By this way, the learners received indirect corrective feedback which could lead to self-correction:

**Item 3.** I am promising I will study harder and pass the final exams.

?

X

Likewise, the errors of IG subjects on Controlled Production Task were corrected indirectly by the researcher by underlining the erroneous parts and placing a question mark under them:

**Item 1.**

In short, the aim of the researcher was to show the IG subjects their erroneous production and lead them to correct their errors themselves, in other words to make self-correction.

### 3.6.3. Treatment for Control Group

In order to see the effects of corrective feedback and compare the groups that received corrective feedback and no corrective feedback, a control group (CG) had also been used in the study.

CG subjects did not receive any corrective feedback throughout the study; however, they completed both Error Recognition and Controlled Production Tasks. By this way, the only deficiency for CG subjects occurred as receiving no corrective feedback in the study. They completed the tasks but they did not receive written corrective feedback on their results and they were announced that they would learn their results after they completed all the tasks.

In such studies which include a control group lacking of the treatments that the researchers conducted, there always exists an ethical problem for the subjects chosen as the control group. The researcher believed that if any disadvantages for this group was observed after the treatments, some extra time had to be spent on extra studies in order to eliminate the deficiencies created on CG subjects. Therefore, some corrective feedback sessions had been planned for the CG subjects by the researcher just before conducting the tasks and tests for the possibility of the negative consequences of receiving no corrective feedback.

Briefly, the CG subjects participated in completing both tasks as experimental group subjects – DG and IG; however, the difference between experimental group subjects and CG subjects appeared in receiving corrective feedback or not. This design is believed to show the benefits or drawbacks of the process of corrective feedback on learners' written accuracy of the target form.

### **3.7. Testing Instruments**

In order to examine and see the effects of the corrective feedback on subjects' use of the state verbs in English, some tests were administered to the subjects and in this section the characteristics of these testing instruments will be explained.

#### **3.7.1. Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Design**

For the purpose of examining and measuring both short and long term effects of two main corrective feedback techniques and comparing the written accuracy of the experimental group subjects who received direct or indirect corrective feedback and the control group subjects who did not receive any corrective

feedback on the targeted form of the study, a pretest – posttest design was conducted.

Before completing the tasks, all the subjects were administered the pretests which focused on the target form of the study in order to identify the written accuracy of the subject group on the target form.

Just after the process of corrective feedback, all the subjects were applied the immediate posttests and 25 days after the posttests, the delayed posttests were administered in order to see the long term effects of the corrective feedback process.

In order to prevent the positive or negative effects of different tests, same tests were used as the pretests, posttests and delayed posttests of the study (Appendix E). However, in each session, the order of the items within the tests had been changed. While preparing the tests, a great attention was paid to select the state verbs from different subcategories (see Figure 3.3 and Figure 3.4) for the sake of ensuring variability (Appendix F and Appendix G). All the tests were developed by the researcher for this study and some reference books had been reviewed and used while developing the tests.

While employing the tests, the subjects were asked to answer all the items within the tests and not to leave any unanswered question. Additionally, they were informed that the results of the tests would not have any effect on their regular evaluation in the school. Furthermore, although a great attention had been paid for avoiding the problem of unknown words and familiar words had been chosen for the tests, explanations in subjects' native language were made for the subjects when needed.

After employing some pilot tests, a 45-minute-period for the tests were allocated to the subjects. In all test sessions, two kinds of subtests were employed: Multiple Choice Test, which examined the written accuracy of the subjects on

the target form at the recognition level and Fill In The Blanks Tests, which had been prepared in order to see subjects' written accuracy on the target form at the production level (see Appendix E). The reason for using more than one kind of test took its theoretical basis from the previous literature on corrective feedback studies conducted as pretest-posttest design. Ellis (2001) contended that the accuracy of subjects on particular targeted forms should be tested with different measures so that more valid results could be found. Similarly, Hulstijn (1997) stated the importance of using more than one type of tests and tasks in order to measure the performance of the subjects more realistically. Taking these suggestions into consideration, the tests were prepared as consisting of two subtests focusing on both recognition and production level, which would give the opportunity to measure the accuracy of subjects more completely.

#### **3.7.1.1. Multiple Choice Test**

The Multiple Choice Test (MCT) had been prepared by the researcher in order to measure the written accuracy of the subjects on state verbs at the recognition level. Many reference books were reviewed and recycled for developing this test.

The MCT consisted of 20 sentences each of which included a blank within it and four possible options for each blank. 15 of the items were related to state verbs and the other 5 items were distractors.

#### **3.7.1.2. Fill in the Blanks Test**

The Fill in the Blanks Test (FBT) had also been developed by the researcher for examining the written accuracy of the subjects on the targeted form; however, unlike MCT, this test measured subjects' written accuracy level of the target form at the production level.

Similar to MCT, FBT also includes 20 items and each of the items had a blank part. After each blank, there existed a verb which the subjects had to use in correct tense in order to complete the sentences. By this way, the production of the subjects could be taken under control.

Although the FBT consisted of 20 items, only 15 of them were related to use of state verbs. Other 5 items were distractors.

### **3.7.2 Pilot Test**

Until setting up the final versions of both the MCT and the FBT, a series of pilot studies were administered to learners who had different levels of target language proficiency in order to choose a more appropriate group for the study. In this respect, some students from 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> classes were employed both tests and as stated previously 11<sup>th</sup> classes were selected as the subject groups of the study due to several reasons (see 3.2).

Considering the results from these initial pilot studies, some necessary omissions and changes were made on the tests and then the final versions of both tests were applied to two different groups of 11<sup>th</sup> class at the same school in order to confirm their validity and reliability.

The pilot test was conducted to two different groups of students who were at the same school and level and who had conducted the same EFL program as the subject groups of the study. The group which was administered the MCT constituted 22 students (10 males and 12 females) who were at the age of 16-18 (mean age 17.40) and the other group which was employed the FBT comprised from 24 students (10 males and 14 females) whose age similarly ranged from 16-17 (mean age 16.95). In short, the pilot tests were applied to two groups of students who were just like the students chosen as the subjects of the study.

### **3.7.3 Test Reliability**

Both Multiple Choice Test and Fill in the Blanks Test which were used in the study had high reliability according to the reliability analysis results of Statistical Package for Social Sciences 12.0 (SPSS 12.0) statistical program. In order to verify the reliability of both tests, the data of both tests were separately inserted into the SPSS 12.0 for Windows statistical program and they were processed into reliability analysis by using split-half method.

The obtained coefficient (Guttman Split-half) for the MCT was 0.90 and for the FBT was 0.78. These results showed that both tests were reliable enough to use in the study because they were both higher than 0.70 which is a widely acceptable value for the reliability of a test.

### **3.7.4 Test Validity**

The tests which were planned to be administered in scientific studies had to be valid enough as well as reliable enough. Therefore, thoughts and advices of seven professionals had taken during the test preparation process. As suggested in various assessment and statistical sources, consulting experienced teachers and their analysis of the tests item-by-item in a detailed way was an effective way of constructing a qualified test having a content validity which means that the test measures what it is expected to measure. (Büyüköztürk, 2006; Tekin, 2003 and Erkuş, 2006)

All the professionals who conveyed views on the tests were English teachers and had teaching experiences of at least five years. Three of them had been teaching EFL in the school which the subjects of the study had been instructed. One of the professionals had worked at a Faculty of Education as Associate Professor. Another one had worked at a University as a Lecturer and the other two teachers had worked at different schools as EFL teachers.

The professionals were asked to judge both tests item-by-item and for objective evaluations of the tests concerning whether these tests could actually measure the target form completely. Added to these, they analyzed the test items in terms of the surface features such as spelling, grammar mistakes, organization and gave opinions for developing the final version of the tests. At the end of this consultation, all of the professionals came to an agreement that both the MCT and FBT could measure the target form as it was supposed to measure. Consequently, both tests could be described as having content validity to test the target form of the study.

### **3.7.5. Scoring the Testing Instruments**

The data obtained from the results of both testing instruments were analyzed in two ways. Firstly, the scores of each group were calculated separately for both the MCT and the FBT in order to compare the results of the groups at different levels – respectively at the recognition and the production level.

While scoring the MCT, only the items related to state verbs were considered since they constituted the target structures of the study. Of 20 items, 15 items were related to state verbs and the subjects got 1 point for each correct option they chose. So the maximum score they could get was 15 from the MCT. (Figure 3.6.)

Similar to MCT scoring, only 15 of total 20 items which were related to state verbs were calculated in the FBT and for each correct production of the target form, the subjects received 1 point. Again, the maximum score for the FBT was 15. (Figure 3.6.)

Beside these separate scoring of each test, Composite Test (CT) scores were also calculated by combining the separate scores of subjects from the MCT and FBT tests as the second way of analysis. In this scoring, each pretest, posttest



and delayed posttest was accepted as a complete test and maximum score for composite test became 30 points. (Figure 3.6.)

	<b>Pretest Session</b>	<b>Posttest Session</b>	<b>Delayed Posttest Session</b>
<b>MCT</b>	15	15	15
<b>FBT</b>	15	15	15
<b>COMPOSITE (MCT + FBT)</b>	30	30	30

**Figure 3.6.** Maximum scores for each test and test session.

To sum up, the tests were scored both separately and as composite tests in order to create a more appropriate context for comparing the subjects' written accuracy on the target form at the recognition and the production levels and in terms of general written accuracy on the target form.

### **3.7.6 Statistical Analysis**

So as to bring out answers to the research of the current study, the data obtained from the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest scores of the subject groups were analyzed statistically by the help of SPSS 12.0 Windows statistical program.

Before comparing the effects of the corrective feedback treatments on three different subject groups, the mean scores of each subject group for the composite pretest, posttest and delayed posttest scores were calculated. Likewise, mean scores of the subject groups for each part of the tests (both MCT and FBT) were worked out separately for pretest, posttest and delayed posttest sessions.

Focusing on comparing the subject groups and introducing some answers to the research questions of the study; pretest, posttest and delayed posttest mean scores of three subject groups were submitted to a two-way ANOVA. This statistical method was used for the initial analysis because the means of different groups were compared in different test sessions. By this way, the interaction between time of the tests and mean scores of the groups was surveyed at the outset.

Finding a significant interaction between the time of tests and the means of the groups, between-group comparisons were employed for each period of testing time ( pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) on account of the aims of the study. According to Looney and Stanley (1989) and Yıldız (1995), if a significant interaction between subject effects was found, one-way ANOVA was used for each testing time in order to examine possible significant differences among the means of subject groups. Afterwards, Dunnett tests and LSD tests were conducted to the means of the groups for each testing time in order to make statistical comparisons between the means of the control group and each experimental group and between the means of each experimental group – namely direct correction and indirect correction – respectively. (Montgomery, 1984 ; Çömlekçi, 2003)

The results of between group comparisons of the delayed posttest were also used to address the last aim of the study as to which type of corrective feedback leads to more durable effects on EFL learners' written accuracy of the target structure.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In order to introduce some insights for EFL teachers and scholars, the statistical results of the study and subsequently the data discussion in light of the research questions will be presented in this section.

#### **4.1. Introduction**

The present experimental study was fundamentally designed for investigating the possible positive or negative effects of two main types of corrective feedback treatments on Turkish EFL learners' written accuracy of the target form. Thus, the scope of the study was drawn as statistically comparing the mean scores of three subject groups for the pretests, posttests and delayed posttests which had specifically been constructed for this study.

The mean scores of the subjects for each test were statistically compared in order to find some answers to three previously stated research questions (see 1.4.). With the aim of answering these three research questions which were inspired from the previous studies and discussion, the mean scores of three subject groups from three test sessions were analyzed by using appropriate

types of statistical methods and the results were introduced with the help of following tables and figures.

#### 4.2. Results of the Study

The results of this study will initially be introduced correspondingly to the test sessions, i.e. the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest scores of the subject groups; subsequently, the data obtained from the study will be discussed in the second part of this chapter.

After administering the tasks and the tests to the subjects, the mean scores of each subject group from each test session (i.e. pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) and for each part of the tests ( i.e. MCT, FBT and CT) were primarily calculated. The descriptive statistics for the Composite Test from each test session can be seen in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1. Statistics of the Composite Test for each test session**

Groups	N		<i>Pretest</i>	<i>Posttest</i>	<i>Delayed Posttest</i>
Direct Gr.	25	<i>Mean</i>	17,3	22,1	21,7
		<i>Std. deviation</i>	3,5	4,7	3,4
Indirect Gr.	24	<i>Mean</i>	17,5	19,5	18,1
		<i>Std. deviation</i>	4,0	4,0	5,7
Control Gr.	22	<i>Mean</i>	16,2	16,0	16,0
		<i>Std. deviation</i>	3,3	3,1	3,4
			<i>(p: 0.423)</i>	<i>(p: 0.001)</i>	<i>(p:0.001)</i>

**Note:** Maximum possible score was 30.

The descriptive statistics for the CT from each test session simply showed that both direct and indirect corrective feedback improved learners' written accuracy of the target linguistic form; however, the control group did not show any improvement in either posttest or delayed posttest results. On the other hand,

the means of direct corrective feedback group were better than the ones of indirect corrective feedback group in both posttest and delayed posttest sessions. So, it can be said that direct corrective feedback seemed more effective than indirect corrective feedback.

Beside the means of three subject groups from the CT, the mean scores of three subject groups from each part of the test were separately calculated for the purpose of comparing the groups in terms of the production and the recognition levels.

**Table 4.2. Statistics of the Fill in the Blanks Test for each test session**

<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>		<b>Pretest</b>	<b>Posttest</b>	<b>Delayed Posttest</b>
<b>Direct Gr.</b>	25	<b>Mean</b>	<b>9,3</b>	<b>11,9</b>	<b>12,5</b>
		<i>Std. deviation</i>	2,4	2,6	2,5
<b>Indirect Gr.</b>	24	<b>Mean</b>	<b>8,7</b>	<b>11,2</b>	<b>9,8</b>
		<i>Std. deviation</i>	2,5	2,3	2,7
<b>Control Gr.</b>	22	<b>Mean</b>	<b>7,7</b>	<b>8,3</b>	<b>9,0</b>
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	1,9	1,6	2,1
			<b>(p: 0.063)</b>	<b>(p: 0.001)</b>	<b>(p:0.001)</b>

**Note:** Maximum possible score was 15.

Table 4.2 showed the mean scores of three subject groups from the FBT which had been prepared in order to see the effects of treatments at the production level. The results showed that means of both experimental groups improved more than of the control group in the posttest session. In delayed posttest session, the mean of direct corrective feedback group continued to improve; however, the means of indirect corrective feedback group decreases in time.

To see the results at recognition level, the means of three subject groups from the MCT were calculated and Table 4.3 showed these means in each test session.

**Table 4.3. Statistics of the Multiple Choice Test for each test session**

<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>		<b>Pretest</b>	<b>Posttest</b>	<b>Delayed Posttest</b>
<b>Direct Gr.</b>	25	<b>Mean</b>	<b>8,0</b>	<b>10,2</b>	<b>9,2</b>
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	1,6	3,1	1,8
<b>Indirect Gr.</b>	24	<b>Mean</b>	<b>8,7</b>	<b>8,2</b>	<b>8,3</b>
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	1,7	3,1	3,7
<b>Control Gr.</b>	22	<b>Mean</b>	<b>8,5</b>	<b>7,7</b>	<b>7,0</b>
		<i>Std. Deviation</i>	1,8	1,9	2,0
			<b>(p: 0.292)</b>	<b>(p: 0.008)</b>	<b>(p:0.024)</b>

**Note:** Maximum possible score was 15.

The means of three subject groups from the MCT showed that direct corrective feedback group benefited from the corrective feedback treatment. However, the results of indirect group did not show noteworthy changes either in posttest or in delayed posttest. On the other hand, statistics for the control group revealed that the mean scores of the control group decreases gradually in each test session.

To sum up, the means of three subject groups from the MCT showed that direct corrective feedback group outperformed the indirect and control group in both posttest and delayed posttest session and the mean scores of the control group lacking any corrective feedback treatment decreases gradually in both test sessions.

Although the descriptive statistics of the study presented some data for the study, some more statistics were needed in order to reach more reliable results.

For the purpose of answering the research questions of this experimental study, two-way ANOVA was carried out with the results of three subjects groups (direct, indirect and control groups) from each testing time (pretest, posttest and delayed posttest). By this way, the interaction between the mean scores of the groups and the testing time was examined.

The results of two-way ANOVAs (Appendix H) showed that there were significant interactions between time and mean scores of the group for each test ( $F: 3.223$  ;  $p : 0.014$  for MCT and  $F: 2.675$  ;  $p: 0,033$ ) and the CT ( $F : 3.033$  ;  $p : 0.019$ ). In accordance with Looney and Stanley's (1989) and Yıldız's (1995) statistical suggestions and the concerning aims of the study, the statistical differences between the mean scores of the subject groups were separately examined for each testing time.

#### **4.2.1. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Pretest**

The pretest scores of three groups were statistically compared with one-way ANOVA in order to see whether the initial knowledge of the three groups was significantly equivalent or not (see Appendix I.).

The one-way ANOVA results for the MCT showed that there was no significant difference among the subjects' prior knowledge on state verbs in English at the recognition level ( $F: 1.253$  ;  $p: 0.292$ ).

Additionally, the mean scores of three subject groups from FBT were also applied to one-way ANOVA. Similar to one-way ANOVA results from the MCT, the results of one-way ANOVA for pretest scores of the FBT also showed that there were no significant differences among the subject groups' written accuracy of the state verbs ( $F: 2.881$  ;  $p: 0.063$ ). This showed that the prior knowledge of the subject groups on English state verbs was statistically equivalent in terms of production of the form.

Furthermore, the CT scores (comprised MCT and FBT scores) of the subject groups were also conducted the same type of analysis of variance. The results of the one-way ANOVA of CT scores of all the subject groups confirmed that there were no significant differences among the subject groups' written accuracy of the state verbs ( $F: 0.872$  ;  $p: 0.423$ ).

In conclusion, the results of three analyses of variance applied to the mean scores of all the subject groups from the MCT, the FBT and the CT showed that there were no significant differences among the three subject groups in terms of their knowledge of the target form at both the recognition and the production level. Thus, the possible developments in posttest and delayed posttest scores can be associated with the effects of corrective feedback process.

#### **4.2.2. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Posttest**

After all the subjects completed the tasks and the experimental groups received written corrective feedback on state verbs, all the subject groups participated in immediate posttests first. As stated in methodology section, the posttest comprised the same items as of the pretest except the order of the items.

The results of one-way ANOVA (Appendix J.) for the complete posttest revealed that there were significant differences among the subjects groups after error treatment process ( $F: 13.064$  ;  $p: 0.001$ ). One-way analysis of variance only showed that there appeared significant differences among the groups. In order to specify which group or groups caused these significant differences, binary statistical comparisons were employed. As stated in methodology section, LSD test was conducted in order to search for any possible significant difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback groups and Dunnett t-test was applied in order to search for any possible significant difference between the control group and each experimental group (see Appendix L).



According to LSD test results, the direct corrective feedback group significantly outperformed the indirect corrective feedback group after the corrective feedback treatments ( $p: 0.025$ ). On the other hand, the results of Dunnett t-test revealed that both direct and indirect group significantly outperformed the control group ( $p:0.000$  for DG-CG comparison and  $p: 0.011$  for IG-CG comparison), which supported the evidence for the benefits of corrective feedback regardless of its type.

One-way ANOVA was also conducted for two parts of the posttest separately in order to compare the effects of corrective feedback treatments on the subject groups' knowledge at sub skills level – namely the recognition and the production.

One-way ANOVA results of the MCT (see Appendix J) revealed that there were significant differences among the groups ( $p: 0.008$ ) and according to LSD test results, the direct group significantly outperformed the indirect group (*mean difference: 1.9483 ;  $p: 0.019$* ). On the other hand, the results of Dunnett t-test showed that both direct and indirect group outscored the control group; however only the difference between direct and control group could be stated as significant (*mean difference: 2.5127 ;  $p: 0.007$* ). Although the indirect group performed better than the control group (*mean difference: 0.5644*), the difference was not a significant one ( $p: 0.721$ )(see Appendix L).

To sum up, the LSD and Dunnett t-test results of the posttests showed that direct corrective feedback treatment caused significant difference on state verb knowledge of the subjects at the recognition level in comparison with both indirect group and control group. Indirect corrective feedback treatment also created difference on the knowledge of target form at the recognition level, yet it was not a significant difference.

Besides analyzing the posttest scores of the subjects at recognition level, the FBT posttest results were also analyzed with the same method in order to find the effects of corrective feedback treatments on subjects' knowledge of the target form at production level. One-way ANOVA was conducted in order to see any possible differences among the groups and the results (see Appendix J) showed that there were significant differences among the three subject groups ( $p: 0.001$ ). In order to identify which group or groups created this difference, the analyses of LSD and Dunnett t-tests were applied to the posttest scores of the subject groups.

The results of LSD test revealed that there was no significant difference between direct and indirect group (*Mean difference: 0.7117 ; p: 0.271*) although direct group subjects improved their knowledge at the production level. On the other hand, both direct and indirect group significantly outperformed the control group according to Dunnett t-test results (*mean difference for DG-CG : 3.5564 ; p: 0.001 and mean difference for IG-CG: 2.8447; p:0.001*). This revealed that both corrective feedback treatments developed the written accuracy of subjects on state verb at the production level (Appendix L).

#### **4.2.3. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Delayed Posttest**

After conducting the immediate posttest, the mean scores of the subject groups from the delayed posttest which had been employed with the aim of examining the durable effects of corrective feedback treatment on learners' written accuracy of the state verbs were analyzed with the same procedure as the one employed while comparing the posttest mean scores.

First, one-way ANOVA was conducted in order to see any possible significant differences among the scores of the three subject groups. The one-way ANOVA of the delayed posttest scores (Appendix K.) showed that there was a

significant difference among the mean scores of the subject groups from the delayed posttest ( $p: 0.001$ ).

Same as in the analysis of the posttest scores, LSD and Dunnett t-test were administered to the delayed posttest scores in order to see between which groups there were significant differences (see Appendix M). The results of these analyses revealed that the direct corrective feedback group significantly outperformed both indirect corrective feedback ( $p: 0.006$ ) and control group ( $p: 0.000$ ). The Dunnett t-test also revealed a difference between the indirect corrective feedback and control group (*mean difference: 2.1667*), but a significant difference was not observable between them ( $p: 0.172$ ).

In addition to the comparison of the three subject groups in terms of the complete test, the results from each part of the delayed posttest were also compared with the same procedure.

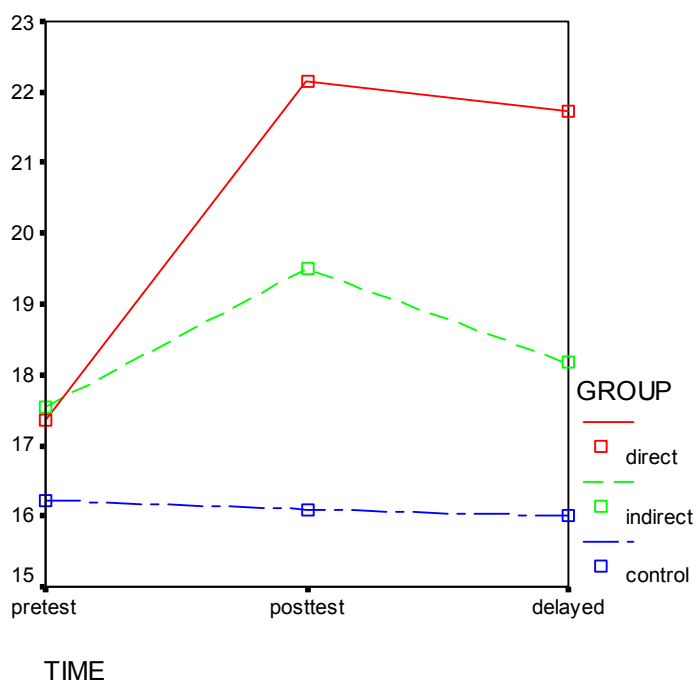
After noticing the significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups from the MCT - which was designed to see subjects' accuracy at recognition level - with one-way ANOVA (see Appendix K.), LSD and Dunnett t-test were administered to see which group or groups caused the difference (see Appendix M).

As can be seen in Appendix M, the only observable significant difference was between the direct correction and control group (*mean difference: 12.200 and  $p: 0.013$* ). In other words, the direct corrective feedback group significantly outperformed the control group. The binary comparisons also revealed that direct corrective feedback group outperformed the indirect corrective feedback group which was superior to the control group (*mean difference: 0.8667*); however, these differences were not at significance level ( $p: 0.263$ ). In short, direct corrective feedback showed more durable effects on the subjects' knowledge at the recognition level with respect to LSD and Dunnett t-test results of the delayed posttest.

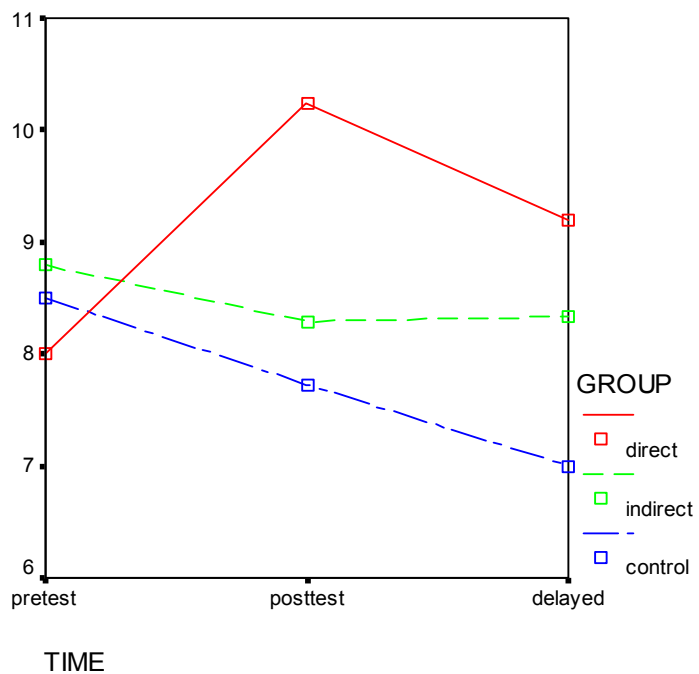
The one-way ANOVA was also employed to the means scores of the groups from the FBT part of the delayed posttest (see Appendix K.) and the obtained results showed that there was significance among the delayed FBT scores of the subject groups ( $p: 0.001$ ). LSD and Dunnett t-tests were administered thereafter (see Appendix M.) and the results showed that the direct corrective feedback group significantly outperformed both the indirect corrective feedback (*mean difference: 2.6867 ;  $p: 0.000$* ) and control group (*mean difference: 3.5200 ;  $p: 0.000$* ) in FBT part of the delayed posttest. A difference was also observable between the indirect corrective feedback and control group in favor of indirect corrective feedback group (*mean difference: 0.8333*), but it was not at significance level ( $p: 0.428 >$ ).

### **4.3. Discussion**

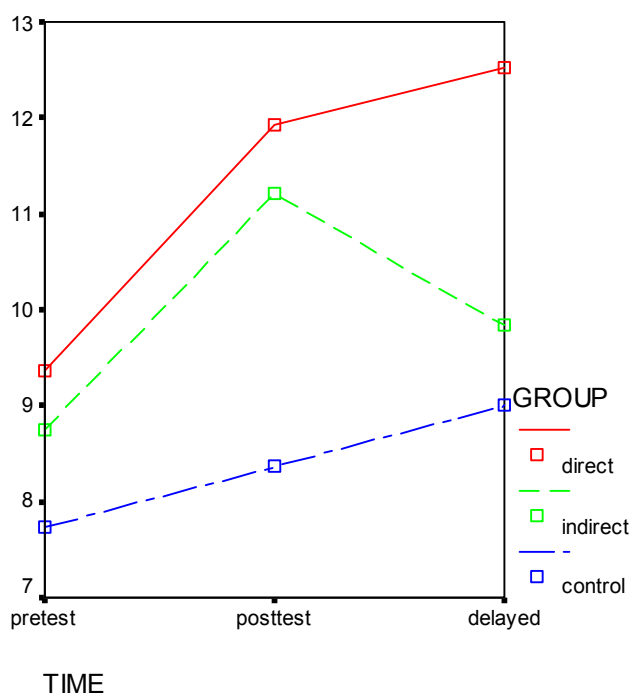
After the initial presentation and brief analysis of the data obtained from the study under the headings of the test sessions (pretest, posttest and delayed posttest), focusing on the three subject groups' performance on the CT and two parts of it separately was believed to summarize and clarify the detailed discussion of the results of the study and to provide a more satisfying frame for answering the three research questions of the study. Hence the following figures which showed the comparison of the three subject groups mean scores from the CT, the MCT and the FBT in each test sessions were presented (Figure 4.1, Figure 4.2 and Figure 4.3) before discussing the results of this study under three research questions.



**Figure 4.1. Subject Group Means on Composite Test**



**Figure 4.2 Subject Group Means on Multiple Choice Test**



**Figure 4.3. Subject Group Means on Fill in the Blanks Test**

At the beginning of the study, all the subject groups were labeled as having equivalent written accuracy of the target form in general and at the recognition and the production level and the results of the pretest confirmed this case.

The mean scores of the subject groups from the immediate posttest administered just after the written corrective feedback treatments indicated that both of the experimental groups significantly outperformed the control group in the CT and the FBT. According to the MCT results, the direct corrective feedback group also had a significantly higher mean score. On the other hand, the indirect corrective feedback group did not significantly outperform the control group although it had a better mean score. Nevertheless, the overall performance of the experimental groups from the posttest favored written corrective feedback on learners' use of state verbs in English. The results obtained from the delayed posttest also supported the effectiveness of corrective feedback processes since both experimental groups outperformed the control group in each part of the test.

On the other hand, the data obtained from both the posttest and the delayed posttest revealed that the EFL learners benefited more from direct corrective feedback than indirect one. The results of the CT in the posttest and the delayed posttest session provided significant evidence for the effectiveness of direct corrective feedback. Actually, the direct corrective feedback group outperformed the indirect in each part of the posttest and delayed posttest although two of the results did not reveal significant differences (FBT posttest and MCT delayed posttest).

Investigating the durable effects of each corrective feedback treatment, the delayed posttest was conducted 25 days after the posttest administration and the mean scores of experimental groups were compared statistically. The data obtained from the delayed CT and FBT again showed significant differences between the groups in favor of direct correction group. There also appeared difference between the groups from the delayed MCT, but the difference was not at significance level.

It is clear that the current experimental study was outspokenly and unquestionably motivated by both the continuing debate on the effectiveness of written corrective feedback on learners' performance and by the agreement on the need for further well-designed research on this important issue. Inspired from the debate and agreement on this issue, three research questions were posed by the researcher and a pretest-posttest method were used in order to find some answers to these questions.

The first research question was related to one of the most problematic issues in EFL contexts: corrective feedback. The results of the study brought out a positive answer to the first question of the study. In other words, the results suggested that the learners who received written corrective feedback – regardless of being direct or indirect - on a specific linguistic item that they recognized or produced incorrectly improved their written accuracy of that specific linguistic item. However, the learners who did not receive any corrective

feedback on the same linguistic form did not improve their performance at both the recognition and the production level.

These findings of the study supported the evidence for the effectiveness of written corrective feedback, which contradicts the claims of Truscott (2007). Truscott evidently claimed that written corrective feedback did not improve learners' performance and even caused failure in learners' performances.

Contrary to Truscott's view, written corrective feedback was considered as improving elements of EFL settings by many scholars. For example, Sheen (2007) answered her research question "Does written corrective feedback help L2 learners' written accuracy?" with a "definite yes". Similarly, Chandler (2003, 2004) stood for providing written corrective feedback for EFL and ESL learners. Agreeing these scholars, Ferris (1996) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) were also advocates of correcting learners' errors. They claimed that corrective feedback should be inserted into the learning setting for several reasons. To illustrate, learners considered correction as indispensable elements of learning setting and expected to be corrected. In other words, they believed in corrections and felt secure when corrected. Additionally, Fathman and Whalley (1990) asserted that learners need grammar correction in learning environment.

To sum up, the answer of the first research question contributed to the ongoing debate on corrective feedback in favor of advocates of corrective feedback on learners' performance. In other words, the results suggested that EFL teachers should supply learners with written corrective feedback on treatable forms such as state verbs.

In order to identify the most considerable method of written corrective feedback, both the experimental groups were compared considering their mean scores from the posttest. The results of the statistical comparisons suggested that direct corrective feedback improve learners' performance a lot more than indirect corrective feedback in each part of the immediate posttest and the



complete posttest. Thus, the second research question of the study was answered in favor of direct corrective feedback at both the recognition and the production level.

The findings of the study for answering the second research question were compatible with Chandler's (2003). Chandler compared the effects of teacher direct corrective feedback and underlining – which led to self correction – on learners' performance and put forward that direct corrective feedback by the teacher seemed the best corrective feedback method. She also stated that direct corrective feedback by the teacher was also the most preferable method among the students, which might be due to the considerable reasons stated while discussing the findings for the first research question. Chandler explained the reason for the failure of underlining group in such a way that leading learners to self correction might delay internalizing the correct form, which could also be considered as one of the reasons for ineffectiveness of the indirect corrective feedback group in comparison with the direct corrective feedback group.

The findings were also in parallel with Sheen's (2007) suggestion that corrective feedback became more useful when it consisted of giving the correct form and explanation i.e. direct corrective feedback.

Although the answer to the first research question of the study gave countenance to Ferris' view, the data obtained for comparing direct and indirect group seemed to contradict Ferris' generalizations about error treatments. Ferris (2002, 2004) claimed that indirect corrective feedback led learners to be reflective and analytical because they took more responsibility. That is why teachers should use indirect corrective feedback instead of direct corrective feedback. However, she also warned that teachers could provide direct corrective feedback under some circumstances. For example, the proficiency level of learners could be taken into account when deciding the corrective feedback type. At the end of her descriptive study, Lee (2004) proposed that

types of corrective feedback which lead to self correction should be preferred for learners at higher proficiencies and direct corrective feedback should be used in less proficient groups. The reason for the indirect group' failure compared to direct group might take its source from the proficiency level of the subjects.

Furthermore, the findings of Rob et.al.'s (1986) longitudinal study contrasting direct and indirect corrective feedback were not compatible with the findings obtained from the current study. No significant difference was found between direct and indirect group at the end of the study and they suggested that teachers should prefer indirect corrective feedback since it was less time consuming.

As can be seen there were different research findings in the literature on this issue and they suggested various implications on the superiority of two main corrective feedback techniques. Considering the reasons for the superiority of the direct group over indirect group in the present study, one of the main reasons could probably be stated as that the instruction subjects have been receiving contributed to better performance of the direct group. Similar to most of the high schools in Turkey, the subjects have been taught EFL in a teacher-centered environment. That is to say, the subjects of the study were more familiar with direct corrective feedback by the teacher than indirect corrective feedback which assigned the responsibility for correction to learners themselves. This familiarity could cause to advantages for the direct corrective feedback group.

The third research question was motivated from the suggested further research question by Ferris (1999) and focused on investigating the type of corrective feedback which led to more durable effects on learners' performance.

The findings of the study from the delayed posttest confirmed that direct corrective feedback had far more durable positive effects on subject's performance at both the recognition and the production level. As Figure 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 showed, the superior performance of the direct corrective feedback group was maintained in each part of the delayed posttest and the composite delayed posttest. In this respect, the findings of this study seemed a bit different from the literature.

Nearly all of the studies focusing on durable effects compared corrective feedback subjects groups with control groups who did not receive any corrective feedback and hence the findings only revealed the durable benefits or drawbacks of corrective feedback treatments. Rare studies on comparing the durable effects of different types of corrective feedback revealed the superiority of indirect corrective feedback over time (For example Ferris et al., 2000; cited in Ferris, 2002, p.20 and Chandler, 2003), which contradicted the findings of the current study. Few studies comparing any corrective feedback groups with no corrective feedback groups and also any corrective feedback group with a different corrective feedback group over time were reviewed by Ferris (2002).

The reason for the superiority of direct corrective feedback group over time could be explained due to the teacher-centered environment of the state schools in Turkey. The unfamiliarity with the indirect corrective feedback might affect the subjects' self correction process negatively and that could hamper the durable positive effects of the treatment on subject's performance. On the other hand, the subjects in the direct group could revise the correct form and have the opportunity to internalize the target form until the delayed posttest sessions since they had exposed to the correct form in immediate posttest session by the teacher.

Another reason for contradicting findings of the current study could be due to the period between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest. The 25-day period between the posttest session and the delayed posttest session might

affect the performance of the subjects in the delayed posttest. The effects of cognitive and emotional experiences in that period could be stated as one of the limitations of the current study.

All in all, the findings of the present study clearly confirmed the necessity and effectiveness of written corrective feedback in parallel with many previous studies. Additionally, the findings suggested that treatable errors such as state verbs should be treated with direct corrective feedback for improving learners' performance in both short and long term.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **CONCLUSION**

In order to present a comprehensive and beneficial conclusion for the current study, first the study was summarized briefly. Subsequently, some useful pedagogical implications on corrective feedback treatments were suggested for EFL and ESL teachers and then some suggestions for further research were presented.

#### **5.1. Summary of the Study**

This research initially attempted to investigate whether written corrective feedback treatments could improve EFL learners' written accuracy or not. Additionally, it set out to reveal which written corrective feedback treatment would be more useful and effective: direct or indirect? Moreover, the research focused on examining the durable effects of two corrective feedback treatments used during the application of the tasks. In order to give answers to three research questions concerning the aims of the study, a pretest-treatments-posttest-delayed posttest design was conducted to three subject groups in 29 days. The data obtained from the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest were firstly analyzed through two-way ANOVA, one-way ANOVA in order to identify possible significance among the mean scores of the subject groups and then

LSD and Dunnett t-tests were used for comparing the subject groups through a binary comparison in each test session. The findings of the research and statistical analysis suggested three apparent answers to the research questions:

1. Turkish EFL learners who receive written corrective feedback showed better performance than comparable learners who did not receive any corrective feedback.
2. Written direct corrective feedback currently seems more effective on learners' use of state verbs in English than written indirect corrective feedback.
3. Written direct corrective feedback treatment maintains its superiority to written indirect corrective feedback treatment in long-term.

In short, the study favored written corrective feedback in general and direct corrective feedback more specifically for Turkish EFL context.

## **5.2. Pedagogical Implications**

Any reader of this thesis is surely expected to ask the essential question to the researcher: "So what?". Some answers to this finishing question suggested some pedagogical implications for EFL teachers in Turkey.

First of all, the study revealed that EFL learners benefit from any types of written corrective feedback on the use of state verbs in English. So, Turkish EFL teachers should not neglect corrective feedback on specific target forms. By this way, their learners will have the opportunity to improve their performance of interlanguage both at the recognition and the production level.

Secondly, the findings of the study favored the written direct corrective feedback rather than the indirect one, which contradicted many of the studies on this topic

in the literature. The results of the study apparently suggested that EFL teachers should mainly use direct corrective feedback in the context of similar learning environments. However, this implication seemed arguable somewhat because the factor that created significant differences in favor of the direct corrective feedback group might be the familiarity of the subjects to the type of corrective feedback. Although the authorities of the Ministry of National Education have recently claimed that the traditional teacher-centered educational programs had already converted into more constructivist ones which favor self-correction, there are still existing problems in practice. The success of the direct corrective feedback group in the study might be more related to the teacher centered instruction at state schools. EFL teachers should consider that the corrective feedback treatments are natural parts of learning contexts and have to be in accordance with the instructional method. By this way, performance of their EFL learners on target structures will reduce both at the recognition and the production level.

Thirdly, the study also suggested that EFL teachers should take the proficiency levels of their learners into consideration while deciding the type of corrective feedback in learning contexts as Lee (2004) stated. While correcting erroneous utterances of EFL learners at high proficiency levels, EFL teachers can prefer indirect corrective feedback since these learners may be in a better position to revise their incorrectness. On the other hand, as the findings of the present study revealed, EFL learners at lower proficiency levels may not notice and take the advantage of indirect corrective feedback.

Moreover, although the study was designed as testing learners' written accuracy both at the recognition and the production levels separately, the findings of the study did not show any difference between recognition and production levels. In other words, it can be implied from the results that the effects of written corrective feedback treatment do not differentiate at the recognition and the production levels. So, Turkish EFL teachers can choose

their corrective feedback types without consideration of the effects of these types at the recognition and the production levels separately.

A final pedagogical implication of the current study is that direct corrective feedback appears to have more durable effects on EFL learners' performance, so EFL teachers can conduct direct corrective feedback in their classrooms in order to provide more durable effects on their learners' interlanguage.

### **5.3. Suggestions for Further Research**

Although the present thesis achieved some contributions into the related research area, surely it did not put an end to the debates and discussions in written corrective feedback issue. Further research on this issue is still needed.

As an experimental one, this study was limited to EFL learners at Salih Zeki Anatolian High School and it can be replicated in other similar contexts in order to validate the current findings.

As stated in the methodology section of this thesis, subjects at intermediate proficiency level were selected for the study and the previous studies revealed that the proficiency levels of subjects could affect the findings of such studies. So, further research can be conducted with subjects at different proficiency levels in order to examine the possible differential effects of written corrective feedback on performance of EFL learners.

Moreover, the target linguistic form was chosen as state verbs in the present study and the errors of learners on the use of state verbs were focused on. Such errors on verb forms were defined as treatable by Ferris (2002) and further research may examine the effects of the same corrective feedback treatments on other treatable errors. On the other hand, further research can



also be employed on non-treatable errors such as word choice or word order errors.

Furthermore, direct and indirect types of corrective feedback were compared in the current study. With the aim of introducing some deeper insights into debate in the literature, other types of written corrective feedback can be investigated.

Finally, longitudinal studies can be carried out on the effects of written corrective feedback on EFL learners' performance.

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**Appendix A****ERROR RECOGNITION TASK**

Name:

Age:

**TRY TO FIND THE MISTAKES IN EACH SENTENCE!**

1. I like this restaurant because the meals are tasting delicious.
  
2. My cousin wants being an actor in the future.
  
3. I am promising I will study harder and pass the final exams.
  
4. My son was the same as me when he was a baby, but now he is resembling his father.
  
5. Tom's leg have been bandaged by the doctors in the hospital.
  
6. The hotel is by the lake and this is meaning you can go fishing there.

7. John is feeling he can't pass the maths exam tomorrow, because he hasn't done his homework regularly up to now.
8. Scientists have discovered new treatments for cancer in 1980.
9. Are you realizing how much work I've done this week?
10. There are lots of new buildings in the town and our old house isn't existing any more.
11. What you are doing with the knife in your hand?
12. Bob thinks we should go on holiday in August and I am agreeing with now.
13. Reading a lot is sounding boring now, but it will make you more successful.
14. Students was running away from the school when their teacher saw them in the garden.
15. I am careful about these boxes at the moment because they are including toxic chemicals.

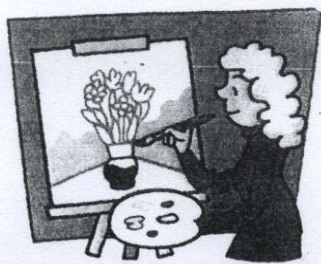
# Appendix B

## CONTROLLED PRODUCTION TASK

Name:

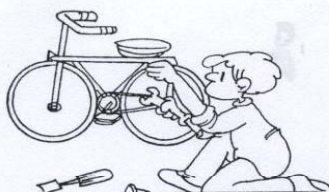
Age:

WRITE SENTENCES FOR EACH PICTURE BY USING THE WORDS!



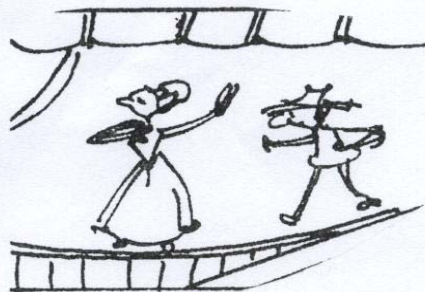
1. The picture / look / very nice / now.

.....



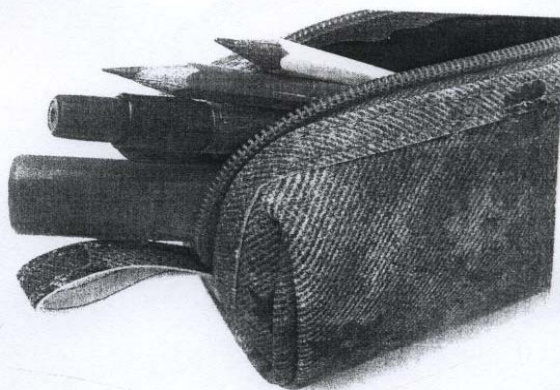
2. Michael / repair / his bike / at the moment.

.....



3. Sally / not / believe / Tommy.

.....



4. The pencil case / contain / some pencils and pens.

.....



5. Ed / appear / nervous / at the moment.

.....



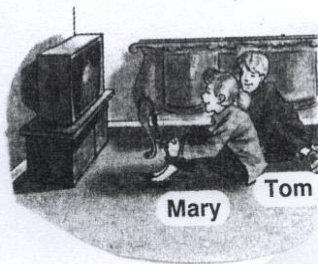
6. She / not / open / her parachute / yet.

.....



7. The house / belong to / James.

.....



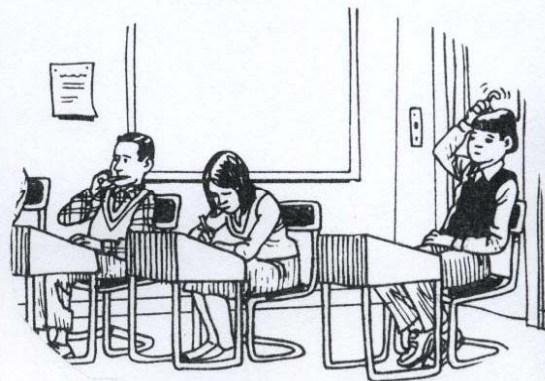
8. Mary and Tom / prefer / an interesting film / now.

.....



9. The dog / wash / by / Jane / yesterday.

.....



10. Mehmet / not / remember / the answer.

.....



11. It / rain / in the afternoon.

.....



12. The trousers / not / fit / the man.

.....



13. They / not / hear / each other.

.....



14. Mr. Davis / win / his / first gold medal / 1992.

.....



15. It / weigh / fifty kilos.

.....



## Appendix C

### THE STATE VERBS USED IN ERROR RECOGNITION TASK

<b>Verbs of Perceiving</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being</b>
<i>taste (1)</i> <i>feel (7)</i> <i>sound (13)</i>	<i>promise (3)</i> <i>mean (6)</i> <i>realize (9)</i> <i>agree (12)</i>	<i>resemble (4)</i> <i>exist (10)</i> <i>include (15)</i>

## Appendix D

### THE STATE VERBS USED IN CONTROLLED PRODUCTION TASK

<b>Verbs of Perceiving</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being</b>
<i>look (1)</i> <i>appear (5)</i> <i>hear (13)</i>	<i>believe (3)</i> <i>prefer (8)</i> <i>remember (10)</i>	<i>contain (4)</i> <i>belong (7)</i> <i>fit (12)</i> <i>weigh (15)</i>

## Appendix E

## THE PRETEST, POSTTEST AND DELAYED POSTTEST

MULTIPLE CHOICE RECOGNITION TEST

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Age: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Gender: M F

Choose the correct option!

1) They ..... to go on a holiday next summer.

- a. will hope                      b. are going to hope  
 c. are hoping                      d. hope

2) This is a very difficult question for me. .... the answer?

- a. Did you know                      b. Are you knowing  
 c. Do you know                      d. Have you known

3) My father ..... smoking five years ago.

- a. will give up                      b. is giving up  
 c. gave up                      d. has given up

4) I'm very pleased to give you this award. You ..... it.

- a. are deserving                      b. will deserve  
 c. deserve                      d. deserved

5) Please turn off the radio. I ..... you.

- a. am not hearing                      b. won't hear  
 b. didn't hear                      d. can't hear

6) Joseph is going to have an English exam tomorrow, so he ..... English at the library for hours.

- a. studied                      b. has been studying  
 c. is studying                      d. will study

7) A: Tim, what are you doing here?  
 B: I'm tidying my room, mum.  
 A: Great! I ..... that.

- a. appreciate                      b. appreciated  
 c. am appreciating                      d. have appreciated

8) I can't buy this bike now. It ..... \$500!

- a. has cost                      b. is costing  
 c. costs                      d. cost

9) These flowers ..... wonderful today.

- a. seem                      b. are seeming  
 c. is seeming                      d. seems

10) Tim can't play tomorrow because he ..... his leg badly.

- a. will injury                      b. has injured  
 c. injuries                      d. has been injuring

11) The Golden Gate Bridge ..... 8,981 feet long and it is one of the longest bridges all over the world.

- a. will measure                      b. measures  
 c. measure                      d. is measuring

12) I've noticed that he is very sad nowadays. I ..... he has some serious problems about his job.

- a. will think                      b. am thinking  
 c. thought                      d. think

13) We will visit Jim and Mary tomorrow. They ..... a great house in the countryside.

- a. own                      b. are owning  
 c. is owning                      d. will own

14) The students in the class are so lazy that ..... can answer that easy question.

- a. someone
- b. everybody
- c. everything
- d. nobody

15) You are going to have an exam next week. .... ?

- a. Are you understanding
- b. Will you understand
- c. Were you understanding
- d. Do you understand

16) I wasn't rich five years ago, but today I ..... a big car and a luxury house.

- a. have
- b. am having
- c. will have
- d. had

17) I can't give the exact period because the cooking time ..... on the size of the potatoes and meat.

- a. depended
- b. is depending
- c. depends
- d. has depended

18) A : Susan, you ..... so tired!  
B : That's right! I worked hard today

- a. look
- b. are looking
- c. have looked
- d. looked

19) Martin decided ..... in Sydney after his journey to Australia.

- a. to live
- b. living
- c. to have lived
- d. to living

20) Stop! I ..... so much noise!

- a. am not liking
- b. have not liked
- c. do not like
- d. did not like

FILL IN THE BLANKS TEST

Name :

Age :                      Gender: M      F

Fill in the blanks by using the words in brackets!

1. Jill probably won't come to my birthday party tomorrow but I ..... (wish) she would come.

2. Mr. Crabb can speak Spanish fluently because he .....(work) in Spain for the last four years.

3. **A :** He is very quiet today, isn't he?  
**B:** Yes, I .....(guess) he has some problems.

4. Oh my God! I'm so hungry and the soup ..... (smell) so good.

5. Mr. And Mrs. Williams are having dinner now and their diet ..... (consist) of two apples and five glasses of water for each.

6. **A :** What are you doing?  
**B :** I am cooking and I ..... (need) some salt.

7. When I saw Carol yesterday, she .....(wait) for Tim at the bus stop.

8. I can't believe my eyes! I ..... (see) my uncle coming towards my house.

9. **A:** Why don't you buy that house?  
**B:** I can't because I ..... (owe) a great amount of money to the bank at the moment.

10. Barron's job .....( involve) checking these machines nowadays.

11. **A:** What would you like to drink, madam?  
**B:** Today I ..... (prefer) tea rather than Coke because it's cold.

12. Dr. King and Dr. Amid ..... (possess) so much money that they can have their own hospital now.

13. The dinner is ready now and the meals of my grandmother ..... (taste) delicious but we should wait until my mother comes.

14. Look at those dark clouds! It .....(rain) in the afternoon.
15. Tonight I ..... (want) some coffee after the dinner.
16. We ..... (join) the swimming club next week. Would you like to come with us?
17. **A:** Would you like some cherries?  
**B:** Yes, please. I .....(love) cherries. They are my favourite fruit.
18. John and Liz ..... (hate) jazz music and so now they are listening to rock music.
19. I ..... ( go ) swimming every weekend last summer.
20. **A:** This dress .....  
(not/fit) me anymore.  
**B:** Why don't you buy a new one?

## Appendix F

## THE STATE VERBS USED IN MCT

<b>Verbs of Perceiving</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being</b>
<i>hear (5)</i> <i>seem (9)</i> <i>look (18)</i>	<i>hope (1)</i> <i>know (2)</i> <i>appreciate (7)</i> <i>think (12)</i> <i>understand (15)</i> <i>like (20)</i>	<i>deserve (4)</i> <i>cost (8)</i> <i>measure (11)</i> <i>own (13)</i> <i>have (16)</i> <i>depend (17)</i>

## Appendix G

## THE STATE VERBS USED IN FBT

<b>Verbs of Perceiving</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a state of mind or feeling</b>	<b>Verbs referring to a relationship or a state of being</b>
<i>smell (4)</i> <i>see (8)</i> <i>taste (13)</i>	<i>wish (1)</i> <i>guess (3)</i> <i>prefer (11)</i> <i>want (15)</i> <i>love (17)</i> <i>hate (18)</i>	<i>consist (5)</i> <i>need (6)</i> <i>owe (9)</i> <i>involve (10)</i> <i>possess (12)</i> <i>fit (20)</i>

## Appendix H.

## THE RESULTS OF TWO-WAY ANOVAs

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects across the Mean Scores of the Three Groups and the Three Testing Sessions (Time) for the Composite Test.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
GROUP	651,316	2	325,658	19,920	<,001
TIME	183,452	2	91,726	5,611	,004
GROUP * TIME	198,367	4	49,592	3,033	<u>,019</u>
Error	3335,133	204	16,349		
Total	4387,080	212			

$p < 0.05$

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects across the Mean Scores of the Three Groups and the Three Testing Sessions (Time) for the MCT.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
GROUP	69,240	2	34,620	5,647	,004
TIME	11,769	2	5,885	,960	,385
GROUP * TIME	79,044	4	19,761	3,223	<u>,014</u>
Error	1250,674	204	6,131		
Total	1411,192	212			

$p < 0.05$

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects across the Mean Scores of the Three Groups and the Three Testing Sessions (Time) for the FBT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
GROUP	295,887	2	147,943	26,265	<,001
TIME	163,680	2	81,840	14,529	,000
GROUP * TIME	60,267	4	15,067	2,675	<u>,033</u>
Error	1149,086	204	5,633		
Total	1676,479	212			

$p < 0.05$

## Appendix I.

### BETWEEN-GROUP COMPARISONS IN TERMS OF THE PRETEST

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from the MCT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>MCT PRETEST</b>	Between Groups	7,866	2	3,933	1,253	<u><b>.292</b></u>
	Within Groups	213,458	68	3,139		
	Total	221,324	70			

p > 0.05

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from the FBT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>FBT PRETEST</b>	Between Groups	31,574	2	15,787	2,881	<u><b>.063</b></u>
	Within Groups	372,624	68	5,480		
	Total	404,197	70			

p > 0.05

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from the CT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>CT PRETEST</b>	Between Groups	23,066	2	11,533	,872	<u><b>.423</b></u>
	Within Groups	899,582	68	13,229		
	Total	922,648	70			

p > 0.05



## Appendix J.

### BETWEEN-GROUP COMPARISONS IN TERMS OF THE POSTTEST

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from the CT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>CT POSTTEST</b>	Between Groups	431,554	2	215,777	13,064	<u><b>&lt;0.001</b></u>
	Within Groups	1123,178	68	16,517		
	Total	1554,732	70			

$p < 0.05$

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from the MCT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>MCT POSTTEST</b>	Between Groups	83,357	2	41,679	5,192	<u><b>.008</b></u>
	Within Groups	545,882	68	8,028		
	Total	629,239	70			

$p < 0.05$

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from the FBT

		<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>FBT POSTTEST</b>	Between Groups	162,435	2	81,217	16,107	<u><b>&lt;.001</b></u>
	Within Groups	342,889	68	5,042		
	Total	505,324	70			

$p < 0.05$

## Appendix K.

### BETWEEN-GROUP COMPARISONS IN TERMS OF THE DELAYED POSTTEST

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the CT

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
<b>CT DELAYED</b>	Between Groups	395,063	2	197,532	10,235	<u>&lt;.001</u>
	Within Groups	1312,373	68	19,300		
	Total	1707,437	70			

p <0.05

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the MCT

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
<b>MCT DELAYED</b>	Between Groups	57,061	2	28,531	3,949	<u>.024</u>
	Within Groups	491,333	68	7,225		
	Total	548,394	70			

p <0.05

The results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the FBT

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
<b>FBT DELAYED</b>	Between Groups	162,145	2	81,072	12,715	<u>&lt;.001</u>
	Within Groups	433,573	68	6,376		
	Total	595,718	70			

p <0.05

## Appendix L.

### THE RESULTS OF LSD AND DUNNETT T-TESTS COMPARING THE GROUPS' POSTTEST SCORES

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Posttest scores from the CT.

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P
<b>CT POSTTEST</b>	LSD	Direct	indirect	<b>2,6600(*)</b>	1,16143	<b><u>.025</u></b>
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	Direct	control	<b>6,0691(*)</b>	1,18806	<b><u>.000</u></b>
		Indirect	control	<b>3,4091(*)</b>	1,19959	<b><u>.011</u></b>

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Posttest scores from the MCT.

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P
<b>MCT POSTTEST</b>	LSD	Direct	indirect	<b>1,9483(*)</b>	,80969	<b><u>.019</u></b>
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	Direct	control	<b>2,5127(*)</b>	,82825	<b><u>.007</u></b>
		Indirect	control	,5644	,83629	,721

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Posttest scores from the FBT.

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
<b>FBT POSTTEST</b>	LSD	direct	indirect	,7117	,64172	,271
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	direct	control	<b>3,5564(*)</b>	,65643	<b><u>&lt;.001</u></b>
		indirect	control	<b>2,8447(*)</b>	,66280	<b><u>&lt;.001</u></b>

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

## Appendix M.

### THE RESULTS OF LSD AND DUNNETT T-TESTS COMPARING THE GROUPS' DELAYED POSTTEST SCORES

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the CT

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P
<b>CT DELAYED</b>	LSD	direct	indirect	<b>3,5533(*)</b>	1,25544	<b>.006</b>
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	direct	Control	<b>5,7200(*)</b>	1,28423	<b>.000</b>
		indirect	Control	2,1667	1,29669	,172

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the MCT

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P
<b>MCT DELAYED</b>	LSD	direct	indirect	,8667	,76817	,263
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	direct	control	<b>2,2000(*)</b>	,78578	<b>.013</b>
		indirect	control	1,3333	,79341	,169

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

The results of LSD and Dunnett t-tests comparing the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the FBT

		(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P
<b>FBT DELAYED</b>	LSD	direct	indirect	<b>2,6867(*)</b>	,72160	<b>.000</b>
	Dunnett <sup>a</sup>	direct	control	<b>3,5200(*)</b>	,73815	<b>.000</b>
		indirect	control	,8333	,74531	,428

\* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a Dunnett t-tests treat one group as a control, and compare all other groups against it.

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