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PROGRESSIVE REMEDIAL WRITING ACTION IN RESPONSE TO COMPOSITION: MEDIATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE PERSPECTIVE

Murat Şükür

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DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

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Soyadı : Şükür

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To the memory of Gökhan KOÇAK

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PROGRESSIVE REMEDIAL WRITING ACTION IN RESPONSE TO COMPOSITION: MEDIATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE PERSPECTIVE

(M.A. Thesis)

Murat Şükür

GAZİ UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Since the shift from product to process-oriented approaches in writing instruction, teachers have been the main source of feedback given to students' drafts. Although it is a time-consuming and laborious procedure, teachers have insisted on giving feedback to their students. However, there are some controversies on the effectiveness of teacher feedback. Therefore, this research aims at investigating the effects of PRWAP which is a feedback model developed according to the universal parameters of mediated learning experience (MLE)–*intentionality and reciprocity*, *transcendence*, and *mediation of meaning*. As participants, 51 first grade teacher trainees studying at the Gazi University ELT department were determined through nonrandom assignment and separated into three groups as two experimental and one control. Then, as a pretest, all subjects wrote an in-class cause and effect essay. As for the implementation phase lasting for eight weeks, the experimental group A was given mediated teacher feedback within the scope of PRWAP. On the other hand, the experimental group B received written teacher feedback plus one-on-one writing conferences while the control group was subjected to only written teacher feedback. At the end of these implementations, an in-class cause and effect essay as a post-test was written

by the students and they were scored by two raters according to the rubric prepared by the researcher. Moreover, the opinions of students in the experimental group A about the mediated teacher feedback were elicited through open-ended questions. The results of the study revealed that a) the group receiving PRWAP did not significantly improve their overall writing skills over time while the other two groups showed significant improvement within themselves, b) there were not any significant differences among the three groups in terms of the development of their overall writing skills, c) there were significant differences among the groups' development in terms of only content sub-component of composition, d) the students in the experimental group A found the mediated teacher feedback beneficial.

Key Words : PRWAP, MLE, teacher written feedback, one-on-one writing conference

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KOMPOZİSYONA YÖNELİK GELİŞİMSEL İYİLEŞTİRİCİ YAZMA EYLEMİ: ARACILI ÖĞRENME DENEYİMİ PERSPEKTİFİ

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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ÖZ

Yazma öğretiminde ürün odaklı yaklaşımlardan süreç odaklı yaklaşımlara geçildiğinden beri, öğretmenler öğrencilerin taslaklarına verilen geri bildirimlerin temel kaynağı olmuşlardır. Bu, zaman alıcı ve zahmetli bir işlem olmasına rağmen, öğretmenler öğrencilerine dönüt vermekte ısrar etmişlerdir. Ancak, öğretmen geri bildiriminin etkililiği konusunda bazı tartışmalar mevcuttur. Bu nedenle, bu araştırma, aracılıklı öğrenme deneyiminin (MLE)–*amaçlılık ve karşılıklılık*, *aşkınlık* ve *anlam aracılığı*–evrensel parametrelerine göre geliştirilen bir geri bildirim modeli olan PRWAP'ın etkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Katılımcı olarak, Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünde birinci sınıfta okuyan 51 öğretmen adayı, rastgele olmayan atamayla belirlendi ve iki deney, bir kontrol grubu olmak üzere üç gruba ayrıldı. Daha sonra, ön test olarak tüm denekler sınıf içerisinde bir sebep-sonuç denemesi yazdılar. Sekiz hafta süren uygulama aşamasında ise, deney grubu A'ya PRWAP kapsamında aracılıklı öğretmen dönütü verildi. Öte yandan, deney grubu B, yazılı öğretmen geribildirimi ve bire bir konferanslar alırken, kontrol grubu ise, sadece yazılı öğretmen geribildirimine tabi tutuldu. Bu uygulamaların sonunda, öğrenciler son test olarak yine bir sebep-sonuç denemesi yazdılar ve bu denemeler araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan rubriğe göre iki puanlayıcı tarafından puanlandı. Ayrıca, deney grubu A'da bulunan öğrencilerin aracılıklı öğretmen geribildirimi ile ilgili görüşleri

açık uçlu sorular vasıtasıyla edinildi. Çalışmanın bulgularına gelince ise, PRWAP alan grup zaman içerisinde genel yazma becerilerini manidar bir şekilde geliştiremezken, diğer iki grup kendi içerisinde manidar gelişme göstermiştir, b) üç grup arasında genel yazma becerilerinin gelişimi açısından herhangi bir fark yoktur, c) gruplar arasında yalnızca içerik alt bileşeninin geliştirilmesi bakımından fark vardır, d) deney grubu A'daki öğrenciler aracılıklı öğretmen geribildirimini faydalı bulmuşlardır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: PRWAP, MLE, yazılı öğretmen dönütü, bire bir yazma konferansı

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PRWAP	Progresssive Remedial Writing Action Program
MLE	Mediated Learning Experience
ARWC II	Advanced Reading and Writing Course II
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
WCF	Written Corrective Feedback
S1	Student 1

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Composition writing is a process that is usually seen as challenging, especially by novice writers. One and perhaps the most significant reason for that is the demand for a text which is meaningful, cohesive, fluent, and conventionally correct enough to send the writer's message to the reader at the target. However, producing such a text just by writing a single draft is usually not much possible. Therefore, it is required to make some revisions to the text and this leads the writers to need others' providing feedback on their drafts. This feedback can be provided in different modes such as written and oral and their sources in the context of classroom may be teachers and peers. However, no matter what the source of a feedback is and in which mode it is provided, it is an accepted fact that a feedback is beneficial as long as it is comprehended and used appropriately by the students. That's why, providing comprehensible, beneficial, and effective feedback becomes an indispensable requirement of the writing classrooms. In that case, such a question comes to mind: "how can the feedback having these mentioned qualities be obtained?"

Aiming at answering this question, many studies were conducted and they will be referred in the following related parts. Like these studies, the present research also tries to find an answer which is actually a proposal, not a recipe for everybody. In this context, the study investigates the effectiveness of Progressive Remedial Writing Action Program (hereafter PRWAP) on the development of the first grade preservice English teachers' writing skills. This program, PRWAP, is a model prepared for this research by drawing on the universal parameters of the mediated learning experience (hereafter MLE).

As for the MLE, it is the name of a theory and a type of interaction developed by Reuven Feuerstein. Defined as "a quality of interaction between the organism and its environment" (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 7), MLE is based on the notion that human beings are the only modifiable living creatures in the world and this modification is realized through the individual's exposure to mediated learning experiences. During these experiences, a mediator who is a knowledgeable adult or peer intervenes between the stimulus and mediatee and the mediatee and response. Yet, every interaction involving this intervention cannot be characterized as a mediated learning experience because there are three universal parameters– *intentionality and reciprocity*, *transcendence*, and *mediation of meaning*– each of which is the *sine qua non* of MLE (Feuerstein, Rand, & Rynders, 1988, p. 62). In consideration of these universal parameters, conventional feedback given in written and oral modes are provided to the students through direct or unmediated interactions between the teachers and learners and as a result, they do not modify the students to learn from the feedback given to them. However, as hypothesized in this study, the PRWAP based on the mediated provision of teacher feedback which is inspired by Lee (2014) may contribute to the students' learning and reflecting this learning to new situations. That's why, it will be investigated what effects the PRWAP has on the writing skills of the first grade undergraduates studying in the ELT department of Gazi University.

1.2. Problem Statement

The dominance of the process pedagogy in second language writing during the 1980s (Matsuda, 2003a) has brought with it a shift in responding to students' compositions (Reid, 1994). This shift from marking the students' completed products to responding to their multiple drafts (Muncie, 2000) has led the researchers to investigate "the best approaches to response" (Ferris, 2011, p. 208). In this context, "instructional interventions (such as teacher response to students' paper, teacher-student conferencing, and grammar correction)" have been the focus of many studies (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2006, p. 142). As the results of these investigations, some problematic issues related with the provision of teacher feedback were identified, as well as the findings about their effects on the development of second language (L2) learners' writing skills.

For example, instructors' focusing more on the local issues such as grammar and mechanics than the global concerns such as content and organization (Ferris, 2006; Ferris, Brown, Liu,

& Arnaudo Stine, 2011; Lee, 2009, 2011; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Zamel, 1985) is perhaps the most prevalent one of these problems. This focus, especially on grammar correction, has been criticized by the writing scholars in terms of different aspects. For example, Zamel (1985) states such a focus may create the impression that the local features are at least as important as the meaning related parts. Similarly, Lee (2011) also claims that "a lopsided focus on written errors can easily convey the message that grammatical accuracy is what 'good' writing is all about and cause students to lose sight of other significant dimensions of writing" (p. 386). Despite this overemphasis on the grammatical errors by the teacher feedback, the studies also disclosed that the teachers are not aware of how much feedback they actually give on the local or the global concerns (Lee, 2009; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Moreover, the effectiveness of grammar correction has been at the center of significant arguments. For example, Truscott (1996), as a strict opponent of grammar correction, proposed even the thesis of abandonment of it. Despite strong counter arguments to this thesis, there is still not an exact agreement on whether the correction of grammatical errors positively affects the students' producing grammatically correct sentences in their texts.

Additionally, the vagueness of teacher responses is another problematic issue (Ferris, 1995; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985). In relation to this, it is known that this vagueness sometimes leads the students to revise their drafts without fully understanding the reasons for their teachers' feedback (Chapin & Terdal, 1990; Hyland, 1998, 2000; Zhao, 2010) or they may misunderstand these comments (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Goldstein, 2004). However, just understanding the teacher's comments is also not enough because, even if the students understand them, they may not know how to incorporate these comments into their texts (Ferris, 1997).

In addition to these problems, it is a known fact that the communication between the teachers and the students in the process of written feedback provision is generally one-way (Hyland, 2003, p. 192). To be more precise, the teacher provides his or her written comments about the students' essays, but does not get any reflection on them from the students. Therefore, the teacher generally does not know whether the students have difficulty understanding the comments or there are any points on which they do not agree with himself.

With regard to these aforementioned issues, the main problem of the study is that the learners are directly exposed to the teacher feedback without experiencing any mediation, and thus

they are not modified enough to learn and use their learning in new contexts. To provide a remedy for this problem, a feedback model called PRWAP was developed according to the universal parameters of MLE. In the scope of this model, it was expected that the students took part in mediated interactions rather than fully direct exposure to teacher feedback. To this end, in consideration of *intentionality*, the instructor intentionally provided feedback on only a specific component of composition such as content, organization, or language use (vocabulary, spelling, punctuation) for each essay type. In the light of *mediation of meaning*, the instructor considering the imagined intentions and audience written by the students in their drafts explained why the feedback was significant and how the revisions could be made. To develop *reciprocity*, the students, receiving the teacher's written feedback and participating in the one-on-one in-class conferences, reflected about the points they could not understand and on which they had difficulty in making changes. With this aim, the students were involved in face-to-face interactions with the teacher and wrote answers to the questions in the student reflection form. Finally, the *transcendence* or transfer of the knowledge from one draft to another or from one essay type to another type will be accomplished through the students' rewriting their first drafts by drawing on the teacher feedback they received.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The response process is a laborious and time consuming work for second or foreign language teachers (Goldstein, 2004). However, the majority of them feel that they should give feedback to their students as a requirement of their job (Fathman & Walley, 1990; Ferris, 1995). Like this, many learners also prefer to get teacher response to their compositions (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Saito, 1994; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; Zhang, 1995). Therefore, finding an effective way to give teacher feedback emerges as a necessity, yet the previous studies in the context of English as a second or foreign language have focused on the issue in terms of a direct or unmediated interaction between the teachers and students. On the contrary, this study drawing on the universal parameters of MLE will be among the rare one investigating the effects of mediated interaction on the development of the students' writing skills. Hence, this research attempts to provide a new insight into the provision of teacher feedback and the results of it may shed light on the solution of some questions related to the effectiveness of teacher feedback.

Another important point may be the design of it which involves three different situations: written teacher feedback, written teacher feedback plus teacher-student conference, and mediated teacher feedback. Considering this research design, the results will enable us to make two main comparisons between the groups: the group with written teacher feedback versus the group with written teacher feedback plus teacher-student conference, and the groups with unmediated teacher feedback versus the group with mediated teacher feedback. In other words, the study not only attempts to reveal the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the PRWAP but also to present data that confirm or contradict with the previous research results regarding the effects of the feedback types.

1.4. Aim of the Study

This study primarily aims at investigating the effects of PRWAP on the development of the writing skills of teacher trainees studying at the Gazi University ELT department. In accordance with this purpose, the following research questions will be answered:

1. Did the groups significantly improve their overall writing skills over time?
2. Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the amount of overall development in their writing proficiency?
3. Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the amount of development in content, organization, and language use subcomponents of composition?
4. What are the reflections of the students in the experimental group A on the mediated teacher feedback that they received within the scope of PRWAP?

1.5. Hypothesis

It is hypothesized by this study that the PRWAP has significantly better effects on the development of the preservice ELT students' writing proficiency in comparison to two other conventional feedback conditions: teacher written feedback plus one-on-one writing conferences and only teacher written feedback.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The sampling procedure is one of the main limitations of this study. Because the Advanced Reading and Writing Course II (hereafter ARWC II) would overlap with other courses, the participants could not randomly be assigned to the groups. However, the selection of which group would take any one of the feedback types was determined randomly. Nevertheless, the generalizability of the results may be problematic.

As for the other significant limitation of the study, it is the treatment duration which lasted 8 weeks. Considering that the development of writing skills is a long-lasting process, this period of time may not be enough to effectively observe the effects of the mediated teacher feedback. Therefore, the conduction of longitudinal studies can present more concrete results. Also, this study just focuses on the teacher-initiated feedback. Therefore, the findings do not provide information about the effects of mediated feedback provided by other sources like peers.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The following literature review focuses on three main topics: a historical overview of approaches to second language writing instruction, the types of teacher-oriented feedback, and mediated learning experience. Regarding the first topic, four prominent approaches will be discussed in the context of their focal points. As to the second one, two types of teacher-oriented feedback, written teacher feedback and teacher-student conferences, will be reviewed in the scope of this study. Finally, a comprehensive overview of MLE will be provided.

2.1. Historical Narrative of Approaches to ESL/EFL Writing Instruction

ESL/EFL writing instruction has been influenced by different approaches for decades "in which particular approaches achieve dominance and then fade, but never really disappear" (Silva, 1990, p. 11). These approaches emerging with the aim of bringing "an additional perspective to illuminate what learners need to learn and what teachers need to provide for effective writing instruction" are conventionally identified with some periods (Hyland, 2003, p.2). However, this is not to say that any dominant approach emerged suddenly and was acknowledged by everyone (Matsuda, 2003a) or totally displaced the previous one (Hyland, 2003, p. 2). Therefore, the dates given in the following historical narrative of the writing instruction should not be considered as the beginning of a new era that can be associated with the dominant approach. Moreover, it should be noted that although it is possible to find similar historical narratives in the literature (e.g. Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, pp. 11-12;

Hyland, 2003; Matsuda, 2003b), the following subtitles are based on the historical account presented by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005, pp. 11-12).

2.1.1. Product-based Approaches

2.1.1.1. Controlled Composition

Before the mid-sixties, teaching second language writing was affected by two notions: structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology (Silva, 1990). To structural linguistics, speaking was the heart of language learning while other skills such as reading and writing are the means contributing to the reinforcement of it (Leki, 2000). On the other hand, to behaviorist psychology, learning was achieved through habit formation (Silva, 1990). In this context, as a result of the coupling of these two notions, an approach called controlled composition emerged. This approach, focusing on forming grammatical sentences (Matsuda, 2003b), views writing "as a product constructed from the writer's command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher" (Hyland, 2003, p. 3).

Owens (as cited in Paulston, 1972) states the advantages of controlled composition as follows:

> 1. The new materials can be used at various levels.
>
> 2. They provide plenty of practice in writing correct forms, rather than practicing the incorrect forms of too hastily required free composition.
>
> 3. They allow the teacher to gauge and control the advance of the student towards such types of free composition as may be possible within the course.
>
> 4. They cover teaching points systematically and gradually, and hence link composition work to classroom instruction, and copy-writing to free- writing.
>
> 5. They are planned to fulfill a specific purpose, and are based on discernible principles.
>
> 6. They permit the learner to pace his own progress within limits.
>
> 7. They are not too difficult to produce, provided one has an itemized graded syllabus to work from, and a clear idea of the register restriction involved.
>
> 8. They lighten the teacher's load, since they are quick and easy to correct (p. 39).

Despite these benefits of controlled composition, it was criticized by the second language writing scholars for assuming that building grammatical sentences is writing a coherent composition (Arapoff, 1969; Carr, 1967; Dehghanpisheh, 1979).

2.1.1.2. Free Composition

Emphasizing the quantity and frequency of writing rather than the quality of it (Erazmus, 1960, Raimes, 1983; Zamel, 1976), free composition is "an original discourse created by the student about some given subject matter" (Erazmus, 1960, p. 25). As clear in this definition, free composition enables the students to write their own compositions. As opposed to controlled composition focusing on grammar and vocabulary, content and fluency are the focal points of free writing (Raimes, 1983). Therefore, it is required that the students have enough knowledge on grammar, vocabulary, and organization to write a composition on a specific topic in a definite period of time (Bracy, 1971). However, this led the teachers not to use free composition for students at lower levels of English proficiency (Dehghanpisheh, 1979). Also, free composition came under such criticisms as "time-consuming and subjective grading procedures, learning interference due to the frequency of student errors, and student and teacher frustration due to a lack of tangible signs of progress" (Dehghanpisheh, 1979, p. 512).

2.1.1.3. Current-Traditional Rhetoric

The aforementioned two methods constitute two extreme ends of a continuum. While one of them focuses on students' building grammatical sentences in a controlled way, the other sets them free to write whatever comes to their minds (Paulston, 1972). Therefore, there was a gap between these two ends and it was filled by the emergence of current-traditional rhetoric (Silva, 1987) which is an approach "based on the principle that in different cultures people construct and organize their communication with each other in different ways" (Raimes, 1983, p. 8). In this regard, the texts written in different languages have different organizational patterns and these should be taught to the second or foreign language learners who do not have knowledge about these patterns.

Aiming at the development of paragraph level patterns (Hyland, 2003, p. 6), this orientation required the students "to generate connected discourse by combining and arranging sentences into paragraphs based on prescribed formulas" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 11). In line with this aim, finding or writing appropriate topic sentences and supporting statements (Dehghanpisheh, 1979), arranging scrambled sentences in paragraphs, completing paragraphs by writing or selecting suitable sentences (Hyland, 2003, p. 6), or focusing on language functions to accomplish unity and coherence on a composition

(Carpenter & Hunter, 1981) were the foci of exercises drawing on current-traditional rhetoric. However, this approach was also criticized for its "linearity and prescriptivism" (Silva, 1990, p. 15) and ignoring the meaning and purpose of writing (Hyland, 2003, p. 7).

2.1.2. Process-based Approaches

Consideration of writing as a linear, controlled, or prescribed product and the emphasis on form, accuracy, and patterns led the ignorance of the writing as a thinking exploration process. Moreover, the practices such as "exploring oneself, conveying one's thoughts, and claiming one's individual voice, or authorial persona, as a writer" were not allowed (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 5). Consequently, these deficiencies of product-based writing approaches contributed to teachers' and scholars' dissatisfaction. In this atmosphere of discontent, the signals of a pedagogical shift from product to process oriented writing were sent in the Conference of College Composition and Communication held in 1963 (Clark, 2012, p. 5). Although it has been discussed by some writing scholars (e.g. Hairston, 1982, Raimes, 1983) whether this was a Kuhnian paradigm shift, "there is no doubt that the process movement helped to call attention to aspects of writing" and "it also contributed to the professionalization of composition studies" (Matsuda, 2003a, p. 67). For example, in relation to composition in higher education, Crowley (1998) mentions three major changes occurred through process writing:

> Most important, it professionalized the teaching of first-year composition. ... Second, if it ushered in a reconceptualization of composition teachers as disciplined professionals, process pedagogy also stimulated a reconceptualization of students as people who write rather than as people whose grammar and usage needs to be policed. Last, but certainly not least, the advent of process pedagogy made composition a lot more fun to teach (p. 191).

Despite the previous studies conducted in this transition period from product- to process-oriented writing, the first groundbreaking work was Emig's (1971) case study on the composing processes of twelfth graders (Casanave, 2004, pp. 75–76).

While these developments were occurring in L1 composition, L2 writing literature was being deprived of studies that could shed light on the teaching of writing to second language writers (Zamel, 1976). Therefore, the L1 composition studies were used by second language writing researchers to get new insights (Krapels, 1990; Silva, 1987) by claiming that the instructional needs of the L1 writers are similar to the ones of competent L2 writers (Zamel, 1976). With regard to this, Matsuda (2003a) argues that although Zamel (1976) is cited as the first second language writing researcher giving place to the L1 composition studies in her article, there

were also other researchers (e.g. Arapoff, 1967; 1969; Lawrence, 1972) employing the "process-like thinking" in their studies before that date (p. 76).

As to the views being pedagogically efficient on L1 and L2 writing instruction (Casanave, 2004, p. 76), expressivist view is mentioned as one of them. According to this view, writing is "an art, a creative act in which the process–the discovery of the true self–is as important as the product–the self discovered and expressed" (Berlin, 1988, p. 484). From this perspective, writer is the focal point and a writer's finding his or her own voice is important to produce a 'fresh and spontaneous' writing (Hyland, 2003, p. 8). Therefore, teacher's extreme interference and providing frameworks to the writers were criticized by the proponents of expressive writing. For example, Murray (1968) expresses his criticism as

> Our students need to discover, before graduation, that freedom is the greatest tyrant of all. Too often the composition teacher not only denies his students freedom, he even goes further and performs the key writing tasks for his students. He gives an assignment; he lists sources; he dictates the form; and, by irresponsibly conscientious correcting, he actually revises his students' papers. Is it not surprising that the student does not learn to write when the teacher, with destructive virtue, has done most of his student's writing? (p. 118).

In expressive writing classrooms, "freewriting, brainstorming, personal journal writing, and personal essay writing" (Casanave, 2004, p. 78) are used "to promote self-discovery, the emergence of personal voice, and empowerment of the individual's inner writer" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 5). However, the expressive writing drew the criticisms of writing scholars. As an example, Horowitz (1986) claims that students' choosing their own writing topics is a rare and culturally insensitive activity. More recently, Hyland (2003), without directly targeting the expressive writing, says writer is seen as an isolated person who is expected to express his or her own ideas and use the universal principles for every context. Moreover, he argues that this situation does not explain the reasons for their linguistic and rhetorical choices (Hyland, 2003, p. 19).

The other view having significant effect on both first and second language writing (Casanave, 2004, p. 76; Zimmermann, 2000) is cognitive view proposed for L1 composition by Flower and Hayes (1981). This view more emphasizes the importance of higher-order thinking and problem solving skills than the expressivist view does (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 6). Drawing on thinking aloud protocols to get information about the writer's cognitive processes during the act of writing, this view has four major points (Flower & Hayes, 1981):

1. The process of writing is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing.

2. These processes have a hierarchical, highly embedded organization in which any given process can be embedded within any other.
3. The act of composing itself is a goal-directed thinking process, guided by the writer's own growing network of goals.
4. Writers create their own goals in two key ways: by generating both high-level goals and supporting sub-goals which embody the writer's developing sense of purpose, and then, at times, by changing major goals or even establishing entirely new ones based on what has been learned in the act of writing (p. 366).

According to the data obtained through such thinking aloud protocols, Flower and Hayes (1981) developed a model to account for the cognitive processes while composing. In this model, planning-translating-reviewing were determined as the sub-processes.

As can be understood from these points, "cognitivists placed considerably greater value than did expressivists on high-order thinking and problem-solving operations" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 6). Like the expressive writing, however, the cognitive views were criticized as they "tend to overlook differences in language use among students of different social classes, genders, and ethnic backgrounds" (Faigley, 1986, p. 534).

2.1.2.1. Related Studies with Views of Process-Based Writing

This part will present the studies conducted on the use of process writing in ESL/EFL contexts or on the comparison of the writing processes of native and non-native speakers of English. Because of the difficulty of grouping, the studies were not categorized in terms of the aforementioned two views of process writing. However, with the aim of showing the change in ESL/EFL process writing research over time, it was cared to present the studies chronologically.

Zamel (1982) conducted a case-study with eight participants who were proficient enough in ESL writing to successfully complete the writing courses and the assignments given in the context of "university-level content area courses" (p. 199). These subjects were from different nationalities such as Japanese, Hispanic, Arabic, Italian, and Greek. In scope of this study, interviews were conducted with the participants one-on-one and the written products of the students were used. Through the interviews, it was found that the students had the idea that writing is a process which "provides a means for discovering, creating, and giving form to ones thoughts and ideas" (p. 201). In compatible with this idea, by analyzing the drafts, Zamel (1982) revealed that the students made changes on their assignments by removing themselves from writing for a while and then rereading the draft. However, it was found the students made more syntactic and lexical changes than the meaning related ones.

Another case-study of Zamel (1983) had six participants whose native languages are among Chinese, Spanish, Portuguese, Hebrew, and Persian. With the assumption that to "evaluate the appropriateness of our teaching methods and approaches" is possible only by analyzing the writing processes of ESL writers, she conducted interviews with the participants, made observations and noted their behaviors while composing and collected their products (Zamel, 1983, p. 168). As a finding of the study, Zamel (1983) reported that ESL advanced writers are aware of that composing is not a linear process although they do not equally demonstrate this awareness. Also, it was found that the skilled writers focus more on the meaning related issues during revision while the less skilled ones deal with the more formal features like grammar or vocabulary.

Raimes (1985), aiming at comparing the composing processes of unskilled L1 and L2 writers, recorded the think-aloud protocols of a group of ESL students who are from different native language backgrounds: 4 Chinese, 2 Greek, 1 Spanish, and 1 Burmese (p. 235). Through analyzing the transcription of protocol records, Raimes (1985) compared the results of her study with the others conducted on unskilled L1 writers and found that the unskilled ESL writers were more interested in expressing their ideas than editing the surface forms. Accordingly, this was a contradictory finding with Zamel (1983) study about the focal points of unskilled L2 writers.

Another case study was conducted by Gaskill (1986) for his doctoral dissertation with four participants who were native speakers of Spanish. The students wrote argumentative essays both in English and in Spanish and during this time they thought aloud and were video-taped. Drawing on the taxonomy of Faigley and Witte (1981), Gaskill (1986) analyzed the revisions of the students and found that the writers made more revisions during the process of actual writing. As for the features of these revisions, Gaskill (1986) reports that the revisions in L1 and L2 are predominantly similar and concerned with the surface features.

Hall (1987) also investigated the relationship between the revising processes of L1 and L2 writing. Therefore, for his dissertation he used four subjects who are advanced ESL writers speaking different native languages. The procedure part of the study involves preliminary interviews with the participants about their attitudes toward writing and their writing experiences, four argumentative essays (two written in L1 and two in L2), video-tape records of the students' composing and revising processes, and questionnaires after the final drafts

of each essay. As findings of the study, students' focusing on lexical features and drawing on the same system while revising in both L1 and L2 were disclosed.

2.2. Teacher Feedback to Student Compositions

The shift from product- to process-oriented writing caused a significant change in the writing teachers' perceptions about the feedback. Previously, the teachers had the idea that providing a single-shot feedback to the written text as a product would be enough to help the students write a good essay. However, the dominance of the process writing approaches has changed this and the view of giving feedback to several drafts as intermediate interventions has become prominent. Consequently, some reasons such as the teachers' feeling the provision of feedback as a responsibility of them (Ferris, 1995; Sommers, 1982) and the students' valuing teacher responses to their drafts (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Elwood & Bode, 2014; Lee, 2008; Saito, 1994; Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; Zhang) caused the feedback to become an indispensable phenomenon of the writing classrooms and the teachers have been the main feedback providers.

While the teachers respond to the drafts of their students, they have generally benefitted from written and oral modes of feedback. Of these, the responses given in a written way are provided by the teacher's writing them on the students' drafts or on a separate paper. According to the literature, this written teacher feedback can be classified into two categories as the ones focusing on the local and on the global concerns. As to the oral mode of teacher feedback, it generally occurs as the conferences between teacher and students. While a teacher and a small group of students can hold these feedback conferences, it can also be held between a teacher and a student.

As a result of the common usage of these two feedback types, the studies in second language writing have generally been conducted "on written commentary and teacher–student conferences, with the lion’s share emphasizing the former mode" (Ferris, 2003, p. 21). In this literature review, more detailed information about these two modes of teacher feedback and the related studies will be given under the following subheadings.

2.2.1. Teacher Written Feedback

Despite so much time and effort invested by the writing instructors, the studies conducted on the effectiveness of teacher written comment revealed "mixed and inconclusive" results (Lee, 2011, p. 378). For example, in L1 English composition, Sommers (1982) found teachers' comments are vague and difficult for students to understand and teachers distract the students from their original purposes through comments. Also, Hillocks (1986) claimed that teacher feedback does not have any significant effect on the development of students' writing skills. As for the L2 writing, investigating the comments given to 105 essays by 15 ESL teachers Zamel (1985) found that the ESL teachers focus more on the surface features and "the marks and comments are often confusing, arbitrary, and inaccessible" (p. 79). Despite these negative findings, however, Hyland and Hyland (2006) note that feedback research was just at the beginning of its development process at those years. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) also state these results were obtained from the contexts where the product-oriented paradigms were generally dominant (p. 186).

On the other hand, with the beginning of 90s, studies revealed more positive results (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 187) and it was found that the teachers started to focus on other aspects of composition as well as surface features (Ferris, 2003, p. 22). For instance, Fathman and Whalley (1990) conducted an experimental study with 72 ESL students who were randomly assigned to four groups: Group 1–no feedback, Group 2–grammar feedback, Group 3–content feedback, Group 4– grammar plus content feedback. As a result, they found that teacher written feedback has positive effects on revision. In another study, examining the marginal and end comments of a teacher to the drafts of 47 advanced ESL students Ferris (1997) found that "a significant proportion of the comments appeared to lead to substantive student revision" (p. 315).

As distinct from the previous studies, the late ones disclosed the importance of context and the individual differences in the revisions of ESL students. Of these, Hyland (1998) study was conducted with six students and revealed that each student had specific ideas about writing and teacher feedback which can affect negatively or positively the utilization of feedback and the motivation of students to write. Similarly, working with three ESL students, Conrad and Goldstein (1999) put forward that "factors such as content knowledge, strongly-held beliefs, the course context, and the pressure of other commitments provide

explanations for students' revision decisions and account for unexpected success or lack of success in their revising" (p. 147).

2.2.1.1. Written Feedback on Local Concerns

Written corrective feedback (hereafter WCF) is a feedback type "which involves attempts to rectify errors–primarily grammatical errors–in L2 learners' writing" (Kang & Han, 2015, pp. 1–2). In ESL writing literature, WCF is called with various terms such as error correction, grammar correction, or error feedback and it has some types which are characterized according to how they are given to the students. For example, focused feedback, a type of WCF, is the correction given to some predetermined errors while unfocused feedback means the correction provided to the student without the teacher's predetermining any specific type of error (Ferris, 2011, p. 30).

In addition to focused and unfocused feedback, direct and indirect feedback are the other two types of WCF. While the direct feedback is the situation where the teacher writes the correct form of an error on the student's draft, the indirect feedback is the situation where the teacher shows the student that there is an error in the text but leaves the diagnosis and correction of it to the writer (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005). Similar to the focused and unfocused feedback studies, the research on the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback also obtained contrasting results. In other words, while some studies (Chandler, 2003; Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986) proposed the effectiveness of direct feedback, there were also other studies (Ferris, 2011) found the indirect feedback effective.

However, with his 1996 article, Truscott opposed to the view that grammar correction is effective on the learning of language functions and stimulated the discussion by advancing the thesis below:

> My thesis is that grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned. The reasons are: (a) Research evidence shows that grammar correction is ineffective; (b) this lack of effectiveness is exactly what should be expected, given the nature of the correction process and the nature of language learning; (c) grammar correction has significant harmful effects; and (d) the various arguments offered for continuing it all lack merit (p. 328).

Unsurprisingly, this thesis of Truscott took many criticisms from the proponents of error correction. For example, in her rebuttal, Ferris (1999) claimed that the findings of the studies cited by him are not comparable in terms of subjects, contexts, and instructional paradigms;

therefore, these results cannot be used to make a generalization about the ineffectiveness of error correction. Moreover, she opposed to the idea of abandoning error correction due to the students' giving value to the teachers' feedback provision, the university subject-matter instructors' not ignoring the ESL errors, and the criticality of the students' being proficient enough to edit their own writing. Because of these reasons, Ferris (1999) asserted that the thesis of Truscott is "premature and overly strong", and supported the maintenance of error correction by calling for more research evidence about the issue (p. 2).

However, in the same year Truscott (1999) replied to these claims of Ferris. For example, he opposed to the argument against the generalizability of the findings of the studies cited by him and argued for the view that generalizations can actually be made from the results obtained under different conditions. Also, Truscott (1999) criticized Ferris's reasons for the maintenance of error correction and he asserted that the belief of students in correction is caused by the cycle between teachers' giving correction and students' believing in it. As to the argument about the content course instructors, he stated the claim is overtly weak and biased for the effectiveness of error correction in the reduction of errors. Furthermore, Truscott pointed out that his claims about the harmful effects of error correction were almost not challenged by Ferris.

After several years of this argument between Ferris and Truscott, Ferris (2004) noted that she agreed with Truscott on only two points: "(a) that the research base on error correction in L2 writing is indeed insufficient and (b) that the "burden of proof" is on those who would argue *in favor* of error correction" (p. 50). Then, she explained her decision for stopping the argument and conducting more research to prove whether the error correction is effective or not.

Indeed, as Truscott (1996, 1999) and Ferris (1999, 2004) noted, the number of the studies giving credible results about the effectiveness of error correction is not enough because a great deal of the research conducted on this issue either did not have a control group not receiving any correction (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1997, 2006; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986) or viewed the progress in a later draft after revision as a measure of learning (e.g. Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Sachs & Polio, 2007). Therefore, they are far from providing evidence for or against error correction.

However, there are a few more carefully designed investigations. For example, the Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005) study was on the effectiveness of two different types

of corrective feedback (direct, explicit WCF plus individual conferences; direct, explicit WCF) on the accuracy of prepositions, simple past tense, and definite article. As a result, the study found that the group I receiving both WCF and individual conferences had significantly better results in the accuracy of the past simple tense than the group II receiving just direct, explicit WCF. On the other hand, it was reported that the group I performed significantly in the definite article better than the group III receiving no corrective feedback and that there was not any significant difference between the three groups in the accuracy of prepositions. However, Truscott (2007) criticized these findings because of variability in the hours of instruction per week separated for the correction groups (group I, 20 hours; group II, 10 hours) and the control group (group III, 4 hours). Also, he asserted that the authors' report on simple past tense is not compatible with the shown in the table.

As to another study, Bitchener (2008) investigated the effects of different types of error correction on the accurate use of indefinite article "a" and definite article "the" for first mention and subsequent mentions, respectively. In accordance with this purpose, four groups were used and error corrections were given on the pieces of writing written for pretest, immediate, and delayed post-tests. The comparisons between pretest and immediate post-test scores and between pretest and delayed post-test scores revealed that there was a significant improvement in the experimental groups. Also, it was found that the group receiving WCF plus written and oral meta-linguistic explanation and the group receiving only direct corrective feedback outperformed the control group. On the other hand, it was found that there was not any statistically significant difference between the group receiving direct corrective feedback plus written meta-linguistic explanation and the control group not receiving any correction.

Aiming at finding whether the success in a draft after revision is appropriate to make interpretations about the effectiveness of error correction, Truscott and Hsu (2008) conducted a study involving the comparison of drafts and new pieces of writing. With this aim, experimental group received error correction in which grammatical, spelling, and some mechanical errors were marked while control group did not receive any feedback to their errors. In such a context, both groups wrote a narrative essay in the first week, revised this essay in the second week, and wrote a new narrative essay in the third week. After this phase, the comparison between the first and the second drafts of the groups revealed the experimental group significantly reduced their errors while the control group did not.

However, such a result was not found in the comparison of the change in both groups' error rates from the first to the second narrative essay. In other words, these findings say that the success in revision with the help of error correction is not the same with learning of language functions.

The Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, and Takashima (2008) study was on the effectiveness of focused and unfocused WCF in the use of indefinite article "a" and definite article "the" for the first and the second reference, respectively. Conducted in an EFL context, this study involved three groups two of which as experimental groups received either focused or unfocused corrective feedback while the other one as a control group did not receive any correction. According to the pretest, immediate post-test and delayed post-test results of narrative writing, any significant difference did not occur between the three groups in the pretest and the immediate post-test. However, the delayed post-test taken after three weeks from the immediate post-test showed the difference between the experimental groups and the control group was statistically significant.

In another study focused on articles: "the" and "a", Sheen (2007) compared the effects of direct only and direct metalinguistic correction. In the treatment sessions of this research, the students in experimental groups rewrote the short stories given and received error correction on them with or without metalinguistic explanation. However, it should be noted that the students in the experimental groups just looked over their errors and the teacher's corrections but did not make any revisions on their writings in the treatment sessions. Furthermore, the control group did not make any rewriting task or revision. In such a context, all students were administered three writing tests and their results showed that there was a significant difference between the direct metalinguistic feedback group and the control group on the delayed post-test.

Bitchener and Knoch (2009) also investigated the effects of three different types of direct WCF on ESL students' accurate use of the articles: 'a' and 'the'. For this purpose, they formed three groups each of which consists of 13 students at low intermediate English level and administered a pretest to all these students. Then, throughout the implementation process, the students in all groups wrote four pieces of picture descriptions and each group received one of these three feedback types: direct corrective feedback plus written and oral meta-linguistic explanation, direct corrective feedback plus written meta-linguistic explanation, and only direct corrective feedback. At the end of this process, the students took

an immediate post-test on the same day with the implementation and two delayed post-tests after one week and six months than the implementation. According to the analysis of post-tests' results, no significant differences were found among the three feedback types. Thereupon, Bitchener and Knoch (2009) commented that "the simple provision of error correction was just as effective as the additional provision of written and oral meta-linguistic explanation" (p. 327).

The Sheen, Wright, and Moldawa (2009) study focused on the effects of focused and unfocused error correction on the ESL adult learners' use of grammatical structures. Therefore, the research involved totally 80 participants separated into four groups: focused WCF group, unfocused WCF group, writing practice group, and control group. Of these experimental groups, the focused WCF group took error correction to only English articles while the unfocused WCF group took error correction to such structures as: articles, copula 'be', regular and irregular past tense, and preposition. On the other hand, the writing practice group just did the writing tasks and did not receive any correction whilst the control group did not do the tasks and take any correction. As different from the results of Ellis et al. (2008), this study found the participants receiving focused WCF had statistically better results than the unfocused WCF and the control group, on the other hand, the unfocused WCF group did not outperform the control group. Finally, it was revealed that there was not statistically significant difference between the case of providing WCF, especially unfocused WCF, and the case of writing practice alone.

According to the findings revealed by these studies, WCF may have significant effects on the accuracy of some specific language forms, which are defined by specific rules. However, on the effectiveness of WCF given on other language forms which do not have more prescribed rules there is still not any valid finding. Also, it was found WCF was more effective if it was provided with written or oral metalinguistic explanation. Therefore, it can be said that it is early to render a final judgment on the effectiveness of WCF.

2.2.1.2. Written Feedback on Global Concerns

Global feedback is defined as the comments provided on meaning-related concerns of composition such as idea development, organization, relatedness, creativity, and logic. As different from the local feedback, the aim of it is to help the development of writing in terms

of the conveyance of message. Therefore, teachers, through their comments, try to lead the writers to think critically and to make deep-level changes.

Related to the provision of written global feedback, Zamel (1985) suggested that the meaning-level issues should be focused on the initial drafts while the attendance to surface features should be delayed to the later drafts. However, some researchers (e.g. Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p. 191; Hyland, 2003, p. 184) opposed this view and Ashwell (2000), conducting an experimental study on this feedback model, found that content then form feedback was no better than the form then content feedback pattern or the simultaneous provision of content and form feedback.

Moreover, some studies investigated in which forms the global feedback would be more efficient. As an instance, Ferris (1997) examined the first and second drafts of 47 ESL students and found related to the marginal and end comments that "marginal requests for information, requests (regardless of syntactic form)… appeared to lead to the most substantive revisions" (p. 330). More recently, Sugita (2006) investigated which of the comment types (imperatives, statements, and questions) is more effective on Japanese EFL students' revisions and he found that the imperatives led to more influential changes than the other forms.

However, in addition to the influence of the provision forms of comments, several other factors such as the revising problems which the students should deal with (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999) and the individual differences specific to the writers (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Hyland, 1998; F. Hyland & Hyland, 2001) have also significant role on the success of revision. Related to this issue, Conrad and Goldstein (1999) point out that "revision that follows teacher comments cannot be captured by a stimulus-response model that assumes that there is a direct and uncomplicated relationship between teacher comments and student revision" (pp. 172–173). Moreover, Hyland and Hyland (2001; 2006b, p. 209) say that interpersonal aspects of response are also important for the development of writing with the help of teacher feedback. For example, they report that the teachers in their study who are aware of these interpersonal aspects care to soften the language in criticisms and to highlight the successful points through praises (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; 2006b, p. 222). However, the attitudes of students towards criticism, praise or suggestion may be divergent and, therefore, these forms of comments may be beneficial for the students who have positive

attitudes while they may be harmful for the ones having negative attitudes (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; 2006b, pp. 221, 222).

2.2.2. Teacher-Student Writing Conferences

Writing conference is a face-to-face meeting held between the writing teacher and a student or a group of students in or out of the classroom. Because of its allowing for the participants' involving in two-way interactions, this feedback type can compensate some limitations of the written feedback (Hyland, 2003, p. 192). For example, thanks to writing conferences, some discoveries can be made on some aspects of the composition such as the underlying meaning and logic in it (Zamel, 1985). Moreover, the writing and revision processes may become more comfortable through conferences than the written feedback (Marshall, 1986). However, writing conferences also have some specific limitations. As an instance, the effectiveness of one-on-one conferences can show variations among the students (Golstein & Conrad, 1990).

In L2 writing literature, the number of the studies conducted on the writing conferences is limited and they are generally focused on their effects or the conversations occurring during the conferences. As one of these studies, for example, Goldstein and Conrad (1990) conducted a study with three ESL students from different cultures. In their investigation, they analyzed the transcripts of 10 conferences and determined the students' revisions led by the discussions in the conferences. As one of the results of this study, it was found that each of the students differed in terms of the degree of setting the agenda, their interactional efforts for building the discourse, and clarification of the meaning. Moreover, the study revealed that the success of the revisions was generally affected by the occurrence of negotiation between the teacher and student. However, they also state that "despite the claims made, conferences do not ensure that negotiation will take place any more than they necessarily result in a great deal of student input and control" (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990, p. 457).

In a study with 8 students (4 weak and 4 strong writers) and 4 teachers, Patthey-Chavez and Ferris (1997) found the conferences with weak writers were shorter and the teachers' suggestions were directly incorporated in revisions by the weaker students while the strong writers incorporated the suggestions by transforming. Despite divergent substance of

revision in accordance with writing proficiency, teacher-student writing conferences led novice writers to make goal-oriented changes on their drafts.

For her dissertation, Chen (2005) examined the interactions between teachers and students in writing conferences held at a Hong Kong university context (p. i). For this purpose, she video-taped these conferences and also collected interview data related to the pre- and post-conference phases. Drawing on findings from the analysis of conference transcripts and the interviews, Chen (2005) asserted that referring to the healthiness of the writing conferences is more appropriate than referring to their efficiency and this healthiness is affected by the following six factors (p. ii):

1. the effects of pre-conference preparation by the learners on their engagement level in the conference;
2. the importance of encouraging the students to take up the I- and R-phases of the I (Initiation) - R (Response) - F (Feedback) conversation sequence;
3. the impact of the teacher's communication style on the dynamics of the conference and its level of interactiveness;
4. the overcoming of language-induced communication difficulties by students' determination to capitalise on the writing conference;
5. the social connectedness of the interlocutors through verbal and nonverbal behaviour; and
6. the focusing of attention on the student writer while discussing the writing

On the other hand, Ewert (2009) found that there was more negotiation in the conferences between a teacher and the students who are at low speaking levels while another teacher negotiated almost equally with the students who are at different speaking proficiency levels. Therefore, she says

> It is possible that the behaviors of the teacher are not as adaptive to learner proficiency as has been suggested and are more a feature of the teacher's interactive style generally or the stance they establish in the conference as either collaborative facilitator or prescriptive authority (Ewert, 2009, p. 267).

Moreover, Ewert (2009) pointed out that the teachers' divergent goals and focuses might differently affect the interactions between the teachers and students.

In the Erlam, Ellis, and Batstone (2013) study, graduated and explicit feedback given on the adult ESL students' errors in writing conferences was investigated with the aim of comparing cognitive-interactionist approach with sociocultural approach to corrective feedback (CF). In this regard, fifteen adult L2 students in New Zealand wrote reconstruction of two narrative texts and their two separate groups received corrective feedback on their errors in past tense verb forms and definite and indefinite articles through the conferences held between each of the students and one of the researchers. As the result of analysis of the conference transcriptions, it was found that the graduated feedback enabled the students to make self-

corrections whereas the explicit feedback failed to enable the students to uptake the teacher's corrections.

Han and Hyland (2016) analyzed two writing conferences in terms of corrective feedback (CF) from the sociocultural point of view. Of these conferences, one was held between a native speaker ESL writing teacher and a Chinese student at level three class and lasted 33 minutes while the other conference was held between a native speaker ESL writing teacher and a Chinese student at level four class and lasted 17 minutes. Analyzing the transcripts of these conferences, Han and Hyland (2016) found both of the teachers moved from implicit CF strategies to more explicit ones and sometimes turned back from the explicit to implicit strategies during the conferences. However, it was also found that one of the teachers adjusted her CF according to the responses of the student while the other teacher usually preferred to give direct corrections without regarding the student's responses. As one of the reasons for this difference, the researchers address the interaction among some factors such as the beliefs and goals of teachers and the constraints specific to context.

Telçeker and Akcan (2010) examined the revisions of sixteen pre-intermediate level students who receive written teacher feedback to their first drafts and receive written teacher feedback and teacher-student conference to their second drafts. In the scope of this study, the examined drafts were belonged to only one essay written in a two week period and the researcher of the study gave local and global feedback to these drafts in the context of both feedback conditions. As to the results of this research, it was revealed that the written and conference feedback provided the students to significantly improve their texts in terms of grammar while they did not have the same effect on the development of the meaning-related issues in the text.

2.3. Mediated Learning Experience

Mediated learning experience (MLE) is a theory developed by Reuven Feuerstein between the years 1950 and 1963 (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 4). During this period, Feuerstein "worked with large numbers of children who manifested massive intellectual and academic dysfunctioning" and at the same time he was exposed to "the Piagetian school of thought" (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 4). Although Feuerstein studied at Piaget's institute, he had the idea that Piaget's theory had some restrictions (Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995). For example, it did not explain why people are different from each other in terms of

cognitive functions (Feuerstein & Lewin-Benham, 2012, p. 27). Therefore, Feuerstein developed a new theory "as a response to educational needs to understand specific environmental factors and especially socio-cultural factors that influence cognitive development, learning processes, and learning potential" (Tzuriel, 2000, p. 217).

According to this theory of Feuerstein, learning experience has two types: direct learning and mediated learning (Falik, 2000, p. 314). The direct learning can be broadly defined as an experience in which a person is directly exposed to any stimuli and as a result of this exposure learning is expected to occur in that person. To this process of learning, behavioral and cognitive psychologists approached from different aspects. For example, while the behaviorists approached the process in the context of stimulus and response (S-R) model, the cognitivists utilized stimulus, organism, and response (S-O-R) schemata by Piaget's adding organism (O) to S-R (R. Feuerstein, Feuerstein, & Falik, 2010, p. 26). However, although they use different models, both of these approaches "assume that it is enough for a person to be in a kind of dialogue with the world, nature, and the surrounding stimuli in order to experience cognitive and intellective development" (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 27). In other words, according to these approaches, any person can grow his or her cognition and intelligence just by directly interacting with it and to do this he or she does not need the mediation of more experienced or knowledgeable people (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 9). For such an interaction, the following example can be illustrative:

> Adam wanders around in the large hall of a science museum. He runs from one exhibit to another, touches, pulls, looks, and runs again. His mother has long since stopped running after him. She hears his loud exclamations and is pleased to see her son busy with the rich and beautiful world displayed in front of him. Once or twice she attempts to explain to Adam how the ring turns above the magnet, but he is much more interested in making something happen than in understanding how it happens (Feuerstein, Rand, & Rynders, 1988, p. 46).

When this example is examined, it can be realized that there is a direct interaction between the boy and the stimuli and the mother fails to intervene between them despite her one or two attempts. In this case, such a question comes to mind: "Is this interaction effective enough the boy to learn something from this encounter?". According to Feuerstein, the answer of this question is a big "No!" (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 46) and the main reason for it is the nonexistence of a human mediator who intentionally intervenes between the organism and the stimuli with the aim of facilitating the organism's cognitive development (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 31). To better understand this reason and compare the two types of learning experiences, it will be useful to look at MLE.

MLE can be "broadly defined as an interaction of the organism with its environment via a human mediator" (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 3) while it also refers to a theory which is based on "the belief that the brain is capable of change" (Feuerstein & Lewin-Benham, 2012, p. 27). In the development process of MLE as an interaction and a theory, Feuerstein's encounters with the children having intellectual and academic dysfunctions were effective. For example, when he compared the children in the camps in France with the ones in Geneva, Feuerstein found that there were great differences between culturally different and cultural deprived individuals (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p.4). Of these individuals, the culturally different ones were successful in learning and reflecting their learning to new situations when being directly exposed to stimuli (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p.4). On the other hand, the culturally deprived individuals could not show the same successful performance in direct learning experiences although there had not been difference between the two types of individuals in terms of cognitive performance (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p.4).

In that case, what can be the cause of such a difference between the culturally different and culturally deprived individuals? According to Feuerstein, the answer of this question lies on whether the individuals previously experienced mediated learning or not because "the lack of mediated learning experiences is liable … to cause a person to derive very little from a direct encounter with learning tasks" (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 34). In relation to this, Figure 1 illustrates the difference between effects of the two types of learning experiences on the cognitive development. According to this figure, there may be differences among the individuals caused by the presented seven distal factors and these factors can be negatively effective on the cognitive modifiability of the individuals when they are not exposed to mediated learning (Feuerstein, Falik, & Feuerstein, 2015, p. 3). However, if people are exposed to appropriate mediation, these distal factors cannot be the primary factors affecting their cognitive modifiability (Feuerstein, 2000, p. 158). Thus, they can transfer their knowledge to different situations and contexts. In consideration of this, it should be noted that the actual things "determining the potential of the learner are the *proximal factors*, addressed by the provision of MLE" (Feuerstein, et al., 2015, p. 3). That's why, a person should firstly be exposed to mediated interaction before his or her direct encounter with the stimuli and so that that person will have enough capacity to be modified by direct learning experiences.

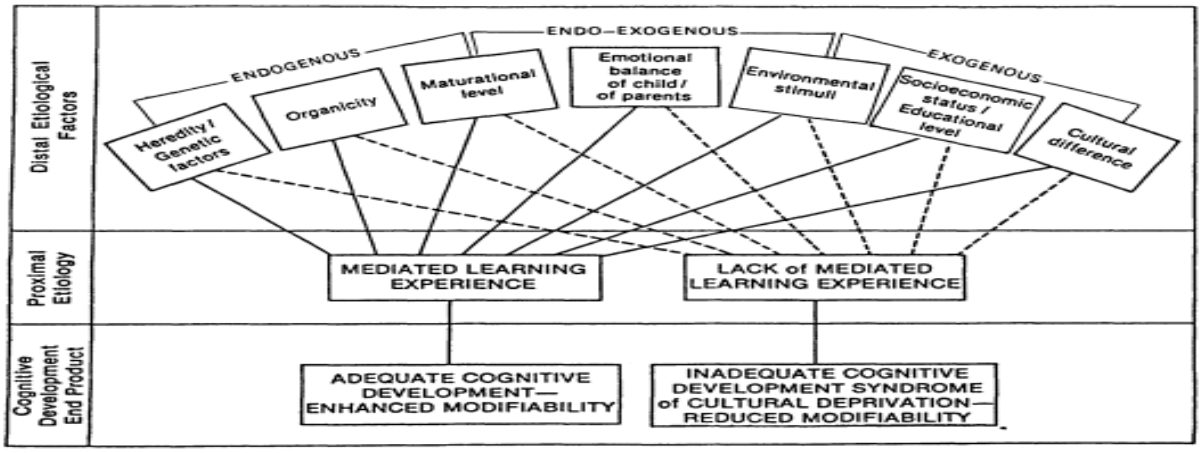


Figure 1. Distal and proximal etiologies. Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., & Rynders, E. J. (1988). *Don't accept me as I am: Helping "retarded" people to excel.* US: Springer.

Furthermore, if the mediated interactions are analyzed in terms of model, it can be seen that they are formed according to a different model than the S-R and S-O-R used in the direct interactions. Written as S-h-O-h-R, this MLE model is like in the figure below. As it also can be seen in this figure, the human mediator intervenes "between the stimulus and the organism and between the organism and response" (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 27). In this intervention, the mediator, "guided by his intentions, culture, and emotional investment, selects and organizes the world of stimuli" according to needs of the organism (Feuerstein, 1980 as cited in Falik, 2000, p. 315). Nevertheless, the mediator does not modify the all stimuli throughout the whole interaction (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 27). As it is indicated with the straight lines in the figure, the organism is also directly exposed to the stimuli because "*both* direct exposure and MLE are necessary in order to create the prerequisites of thinking, the flexibility necessary for adaptation, and the content base for operational functioning" (Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p. 50, italics in original).

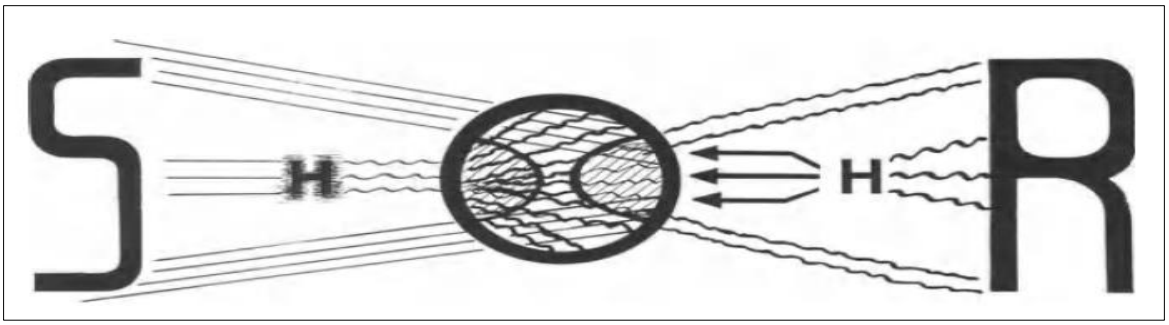


Figure 2. Mediated learning experience (MLE) model. Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., & Rynders, E. J. (1988). *Don't accept me as I am: Helping "retarded" people to excel*. US: Springer.

To better understand how a mediated interaction is formed according to this model and compare it with the direct learning experience, looking at an example can be useful.

Therefore, an example similar to the one given for the direct interaction is presented in the following paragraph.

> … Youval and his family moved along in a highly organized manner. The purposeful, directed nature of their route was clearly recognizable by Youval's pointing fingers and by his sister's signaling where to proceed, and which exhibit they would choose for in-depth scrutiny. Once they decided where to spend their time, a whole process of cooperation and sharing activity dominated their interaction with the exhibit. The family stopped before one exhibit that previously had caught their attention. The sign above the exhibit invited them to make a very large air bubble in a big bowl of liquid soap. Youval and Ada were obviously excited. They worked cooperatively, one raising a sheet of soap while the other blew the bubble in the sheet. Their mother stood by, guiding each one as to where to blow and how to regulate the flow of air. She put the children in front of her and, by protruding her mouth, demonstrated how to control the flow of air. She did her best to make both succeed, discreetly helping Ada (younger than her brother) more than Youval (Feuerstein et al. 1988, p. 52).

If a comparison is made between this example and the previous one, it can be realized that there are some obvious differences between them. For instance, in this example the children (Youval and Ada) were actively involved in the exhibit by producing their own bubble while in the other the child's (Adam) involvement was superficial. Furthermore, the mother of Youval and Ada mediated the stimuli by showing her children how they should blow the bubble while the mother of Adam could not succeed in taking her son's attention and showing him how something occurs. In this context, it can be said that the main difference between the sample events derives from what kind of an interaction (mediated or direct) occurs between the children and their mothers. In that case, this question "what are required for an interaction to be a mediated one?" can be asked.

According to MLE, every interaction between a novice and an adult cannot be a mediated interaction (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 59) but it has "the potential to be" (Falik, 2000, p. 316). Although "mediated learning experience is not dependent on the language in which the interaction takes place or on the content around which the interaction between the mediator and the child is based" (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 60), there are some criteria to call an interaction as a mediated learning experience and they are as follows (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 15):

1) Intentionality and reciprocity;
2) Transcendence;
3) Mediation of meaning;
4) Mediation of feeling of competence;
5) Mediation of regulation and control of behavior;
6) Mediation of sharing behavior;
7) Mediation of individuation and psychological differentiation;
8) Mediation of goal seeking, goal setting, and goal achieving behavior;
9) Mediation of challenge: the search for novelty and complexity;
10) Mediation of an awareness of the human being as a changing entity;
11) Mediation of the search for an optimistic alternative;

12) Mediation of the feeling of belonging.

Of these criteria, which are called as parameters in MLE theory, the first three are universal while the rest of them are 'situational' (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 40). These universal parameters–*intentionality and reciprocity, transcendence*, and *mediation of meaning*–are necessary and enough to label an interaction as mediational according to MLE (Mentis, Dunn-Bernstein, & Mentis, 2008, p. 11; Feuerstein, 2000, p. 154). The reason for referring these criteria as universal is that they "can be found in all races, ethnic groups, and socioeconomic strata" (Tzuriel, 2001, p. 25). On the other hand, the situational parameters are "largely culturally and situationally determined" (Feuerstein, 1988, p. 62) and they "reflect variations in cognitive styles, motivation, type or content of skills mastered, and the structure of knowledge" (Tzuriel, 2001, p. 26).

2.3.1. Intentionality and Reciprocity

Intentionality is an attribute of MLE which is referred by Feuerstein et al. (1988) as the source of the most significant difference between mediated and unmediated interactions (p. 62). Defined as the situation where "the mediator (e.g., parent, teacher, counselor) deliberately guides the interaction in a chosen direction by selecting, framing, and interpreting specific stimuli" (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 13), intentionality involves the mediator's making changes on himself/herself, the stimuli, and the mediatee (Feuerstein, 2000, pp. 154-155). While making these mentioned changes on the stimuli, the mediator interprets them and their meaning by drawing on his or her observations, prior experiences, and cultural heritage (R. Feuerstein, Falik, & Feuerstein, 2015, p. 22). In addition to this, the mediatee's some characteristics specific to his or her "physical, sensorial, and mental condition" affect the choices of stimuli and the interactions which are intentionally formed to meet the needs of the mediatee (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 64).

On the other hand, reciprocity is the other component of this parameter and it is critically important for the quality and maintenance of the mediational interaction (Tzuriel, 2000, p. 219). This attribute of MLE can be defined as the situation in which "there is responsivity from the mediatee (learner) and an indication of being receptive to, and involved in, the learning process" (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 13). According to this criterion, the main target of the mediational interaction is the mediatee's cognitive processes rather than a task or an object (Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995; Presseisen & Kozulin, 1992). In order to better

understand these two components of the first parameter, the following figure and the description of it may be useful.

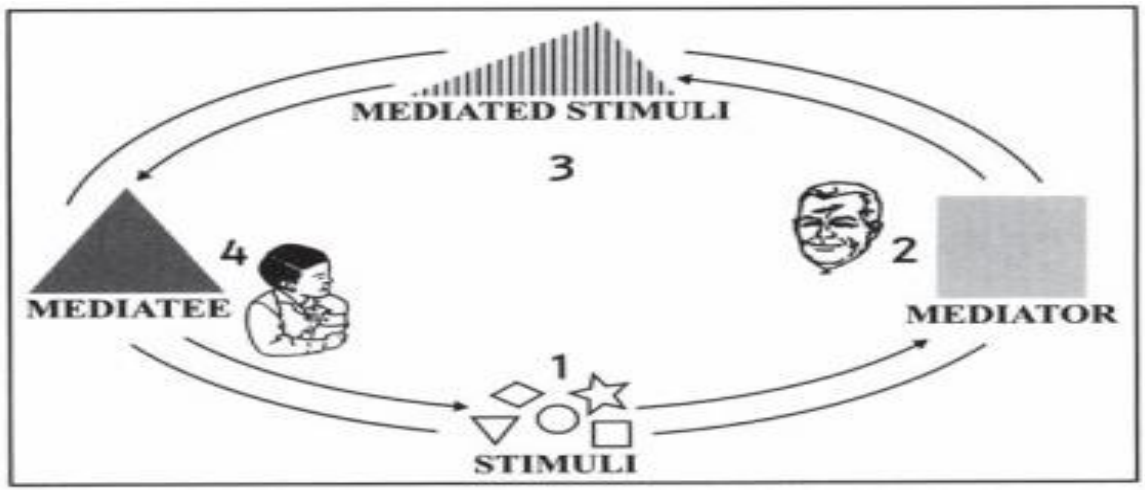


Figure 3. The mediational loop. Feuerstein, R., Feuerstein, R. S., & Falik, L. S. (2010). *Beyond smarter: Mediated learning and the brain's capacity for change*. New York, NY: Teachers College.

Feuerstein et al. (2010) describes this mediational interaction in the figure above, in which the mediator intentionally intervenes between the mediatee and stimuli and modifies the stimuli for enabling the child to have the potential for cognitive modification, as follows (p. 42):

> For the learner, there exists a collection of stimuli, represented in the diagram by a group of geometric forms. The mediator sorts the stimuli and chooses from them one stimulus to be focused on—separating/isolating one triangle from the group—enlarging it, changing its shape and color to make it more salient, elaborating or exaggerating its characteristics to make it meaningful, and presenting it to the mediatee in order to facilitate its reception. The mediatee or student absorbs the mediated triangle according to the aspects that have been the focus of the mediation, and, when it is returned to the stimulus array, it will be known, understood, remembered, structurally assimilated, and thus responded to meaningfully in subsequent encounters, despite any changes in its direct and particular characteristics— dimensions, color, geometric properties, and so on.

As can be seen in this figure and understood from its description, a mediational loop should be complete to achieve its goal and this can only be done through the conveyance of the modified stimulus to the mediatee who will absorb it and the transfer of that learning to new situations (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 42).

2.3.2. Transcendence

Transcendence, the second parameter of MLE, is called as "the humanizing factor of the interaction between a human being and the world" (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 44) because it

provides the human beings to transfer their needs and experiences to different, new, and future conditions (Feuerstein et al., 2015 p. 26). Considered as one of the most important attributes of MLE, the transcendence (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 21) aims "to promote the acquisition of principles, concepts, or strategies that can be generalized to issues beyond the present problem" (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 29). In line with this aim, "the mediator usually tries to reach out for general principles and/or goals that are not bound to the "here and now" or the specific and concrete aspects of the situation" (Tzuriel, 2000, p. 2019).

However, Feuerstein et al. (1999) warn about the issue that the transcendence should not be considered as a parameter that can be applied only to situations "where generalizations, conceptualizations, and abstract functions are mediated" (p. 22). As an example for this, Feuerstein et al. (2015) state that a mother, who feeds her child and wants his or her to understand that eating has some cultural norms about its place, time, and atmosphere, provides the child to transcend the need for eating and its socially accepted norms (p. 27). Furthermore, it is noted that the transcendence can occur even if the mediator and the mediatee of an interaction are not explicitly aware of it (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 45).

2.3.3. Mediation of Meaning

Mediation of meaning "refers to interactions in which the mediator attaches to the presented stimuli significance, affect, worth, and value" (Tzuriel, 2001, p. 26). In other words, the mediator is interested and emotionally involved in the activity, and reaches a consensus on the importance of it with the learner by discussing it together (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 21). This parameter answers the questions such as "*why, what for,* and other questions related to the causal and teleological relationship reasons for something to happen or to be done" (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 24).

The mediation of the meaning can be done in various ways (Feuerstein et al. 1988, p. 66). For example, while non-verbally mediating the meaning of the stimuli, the mediator can utilize "facial expression, tone of voice, rituals, and repetitious actions" (Isman & Tzuriel, 2008, p. 547). On the other hand, in the verbal mediation of the meaning of the stimuli, the mediator can benefit from "enlightening the present event, activity, or learned context, relating it to the past or present events, and emphasizing its importance and value" (Isman & Tzuriel, 2008, pp. 547-48). However, no matter in what way they are exposed to the mediation of meaning, the mediatees will utilize this interaction in new contexts and reflect

their search for meaning to their future interactions (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 67; Tzuriel, 2000; 2001).

2.3.4. Mediation of Feeling of Competence

An individual's being aware of his or her ability is seen as an important feature in MLE. However, many people do not feel this sense although they are competent enough to achieve the challenging tasks (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 50). In other words, competence and feeling of competence are two separate phenomenon and the later should be developed in people for them to meet and overcome unfamiliar challenges. To this end, a human mediator should provide mediation to the individual about his or her achievement and competence (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 29).

During this mediation process, the mediator should help in the tasks that he or she failed to complete (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 71). Moreover, the mediator should not always interpose between the organism and stimuli and should allow the mediatee to be the direct target of them for the emergence of competence and its feeling (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 71). As a counter example of this parameter of MLE, an interaction between a mother and her daughter is given (Feuerstein et al., 2010):

> The mother, a faster swimmer than her daughter, says to her: "You see, I have finished first!" She repeats this a few times. The girl tries to fight against the injustice of the contest and says: "But I was tired… but you are much longer than me." Her complaints are rejected by the mother, who again repeats: "But I finished before you." (p. 50).

The mother in this example causes her daughter to feel as incompetent by compelling her to perform above her capacity. Yet, she should have encouraged her by giving positive feedback about her performance to create the feeling of competence.

2.3.5. Mediation of Regulation and Control of Behavior

Mediation of behavior can occur "by either inhibiting impulsivity or by accelerating the behaviour, depending on the child's reactive style and the task demands" (Isman & Tzuriel, 2008, p. 548). In the inhibition of impulsivity, the mediator aims at the mediatee to think, analyze, or make plan on the task before responding. On the other hand, in the initiation of behavior, the mediator's aim is to enable the mediatee to give responses by overcoming the

difficulties emerged by the factors such as the lack of feeling of competence (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 75).

However, the mediation of behavior in terms of the inhibition of impulsivity and the initiation of behavior varies from culture to culture (Feuerstein et al., 1999, pp. 39-40). For example, in some cultures the inhibition of impulsivity is not necessary and the individuals' responding to certain stimuli in an impulsive or uncontrolled way is even encouraged (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 52).

2.3.6. Mediation of Sharing Behavior

This parameter involves "another individual in activities of co-operation and empathy, using listening, interpersonal sensitivity, openness and acceptance, and the acceptance of commonality of experience" (Falik, 2000, p. 317). From the educational point of view, mediation of sharing has also a mental-cognitive aspect as well as the emotional side of it (Feuerstein et al., 2010, pp. 53-54). Although it is dependent on the culture in which it occurs (Feuerstein et al., 2009, p. 41), the sharing behavior can result in the following outcomes:

- Environment of trust is developed with mutual self-disclosure
- Self-concept is strengthened when successes are shared and failures are worked through with an empathic listener
- Sharing ideas both verbally and in written form helps develop cognitive processes and clarify confused thinking (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 54).

2.3.7. Mediation of Individualization and Psychological Differentiation

Mediation of individualization is complementary with the mediation of sharing despite the first look contradiction between them (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 54). According to this parameter, "individuation occurs when the mediator fosters a sense of uniqueness and difference within the learner" (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 61). For the educational context, this mediation is extremely important for students to perceive themselves as independent individuals and independently express their ideas (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 78). However, many students are not mediated for individuation and they become the producers of the ideas that are acceptable for their teachers (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 54). Furthermore, like the mediation of sharing, the mediation of individualization and psychological differentiation is also culture-bound and it may differ even among families (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 43). "For example, big differences can be found among cultures in relation to terms of

dependence and independence among males and females arising from the different roles that each society assigns to gender" (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 54).

2.3.8. Mediation of Goal Seeking, Goal Setting, and Goal Achieving Behavior

This parameter of MLE is efficient in "the development of human modifiability, flexibility, and learning propensity" (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 44). Among the abilities at its target, there are the mediation of making choices among the goals, acquiring the means of achieving these goals and observing the extent to which the goals were reached (Falik, 2000, p. 318; Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 56). As an example for this type of situational parameter, the following parable can be given (Feuerstein et al., 2010):

> A passerby asks him, "Why are you planting that tree? You surely know that you will not manage to eat its fruits because that tree will only produce fruit in another seventy years." The old man answers, "Yes, I know, but if my parents had not done what I am doing today I would not have been able to eat carobs." (p. 56).

2.3.9. Mediation of Challenge: The Search for Novelty and Complexity

Mediation of challenge refers to the mediation for individuals to be modified to have the tendency to meet new and complex challenges. To put it differently, "it involves overcoming both a fear of the unknown and a resistance toward anything difficult or unusual" (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 78). In this context, the mediation of challenge exists with distancing which refers to the encounters and struggles with the situations in the future and the avoidance of overprotection is recommended as the most effective way of mediating it (Feuerstein et al., 2010, pp. 56-57). However, unfortunately some cultures do not give enough importance to this type of mediation and inhibit their members to seek out and respond to novel and new challenges (Feuerstein et al. 1988, p. 79). As an example for this, an event experienced by Reuven Feuerstein can be given (Feuerstein et al., 1988):

> Sue, 28 years old, possesses strong motivation and a very rich vocabulary but is impaired by severe stuttering. One day, her mother brought her to the author to be examined. Standing near her daughter in the author's office, the mother implored, almost in tears, "Please don't teach her things she is not able to do," revealing that she was afraid that anything her daughter did not know already would become a source of frustration. The author responded, "I won't teach her anything she already knows. I will teach her only things she doesn't know, I will also teach her how to master them!" During the 14 hours of assessment and instruction he did indeed teach Sue several new and highly comlex things (pp. 81-82).

2.3.10. Mediation of an Awareness of the Human Being as a Changing Entity

Mediation of awareness of self-change refers to "the way by which new cognitive structures become active in the individual, making him able to produce changes in himself on an intentional basis" (Feuerstein et al., 1988, p. 82). In other words, it is the provision of the emergence of the idea that the human being has the capacity to change even if he or she has some physical or mental problems. However, this notion is not generally accepted and therefore, it should be created in the individuals through mediation (Feuerstein et al., 2010, pp. 57-58). Otherwise, the individual may be accepted by the educational system as he or she is or may be detracted from the educational environment because of his or her stability (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 47).

2.3.11. Mediation of the Search for an Optimistic Alternative

Considering the events with a positive view is generally accepted as a good characteristics by the society. Additionally, it can provide people to make plans for the future events. Therefore, according to MLE an individual's searching for positive choices should be supported and the acquisition of it can be achieved through mediation. In this context, "encouraging the scanning of immediate experience and the reframing of past experiences into growth and change potentials" can be suggested (Falik, 2000, p. 318).

2.3.12. Mediation of the Feeling of Belonging

This last parameter of MLE is given different amount of importance by different cultures (Feuerstein et al., 1999, p. 49). For example, while the modern societies more highlight the individualization, the more traditional ones give more value to the sense of belonging (Feuerstein et al., 2010, p. 59). Accordingly, the individuals living in the modern societies or the nuclear families are not exposed to the mediation of the feeling of belonging and thus they are not modified to be develop this sense as made in the culturally deprived individuals (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 102). On the other hand, the ones living in the traditional societies or the extended families are mediated and modified enough for the development of the sense of belonging as made in the culturally different individuals (Mentis et al., 2008, p. 102).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter presents information about the research design, sampling strategy and participants, data collection, implementation procedures in the experimental and control groups, and data analysis parts of the study.

3.1. Research Design

This is a mixed methods research study which is defined as an investigation combining qualitative and quantitative research methods (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012, p. 557). Taking more attention of the researchers in the last decade, this research type is conducted in some different ways. For example, an experimental research may be conducted to investigate the effects of a treatment and also qualitative data may be collected and analyzed to elaborate the findings of this experiment (Creswell, 2012, p. 535). Creswell (2012) calls such a design as "the embedded design" where primary attention is given to one type of the dataset in comparison to the other type (p. 544).

In this research, being an example of the embedded design, a quasi-experiment was conducted with the aim of investigating the effects of PRWAP on the freshman preservice English teachers' writing skills in comparison to the two conditions of unmediated teacher feedback. If this experiment is classified into the models of quasi-experiment, it can be said that it fits into the model with unequal experimental and control groups which are administered pre- and post-tests (Creswell, 2012, p. 310; Karasar, 2013, p. 102). In this context, three groups, two of which are experimental groups and one is the control group, were included in the experiment as was made in the study of Bitchener and Knoch (2009).

The aim here was to compare both the group receiving PRWAP with the groups receiving unmediated teacher feedback and the two groups which are given unmediated teacher feedback. In line with this aim, each of the groups was exposed to a different feedback treatment of the same teacher for eight weeks. As for the qualitative side of the study, it consisted of eliciting opinions of the students about mediated teacher feedback through open-ended questions and analyzing the students' answers with the qualitative content analysis method.

However, this design, like the other designs, also has some strengths and weaknesses. For example, its enabling the researcher to collect both types of data in a simultaneous way, using the data from the both research methods (Creswell, 2009, p. 215), and enhancing internal validity of the research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 173) are among the strong sides of it. On the other hand, the difficulty in comparing the data from two different methods (Creswell, 2009, p. 215) and the time and effort required for data collection process (Creswell, 2012, p. 545) are among the weaknesses of it.

3.2. Sampling Method and Participants

As sampling method, convenience sampling was used for the selection of the participants. When compared it with random sampling, which is accepted as the ideal sampling approach in experimental researches (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 146), convenience sampling is found disadvantageous in terms of representing the population (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 97). However, there were some reasons for using the convenience sampling. For example, the preservice ELT students' being at a level to write compositions that would enable the comparison of three feedback conditions was one of these reasons. Moreover, the importance of these students' developing their writing skills to achieve academic success in future was another reason having caused to choose the ELT students as the subjects of the study. Therefore, three first grade classes at English Language Teaching department in Gazi University were selected for the study and permission of totally 51 students, 17 in each class, were taken through a consent form (See Appendix). As for the demographic information about these participants, each group's mean age, gender distribution, and how many of the students attended the preparatory school or not are given in the following table.

Table 1

Mean Age, Gender Distribution, and Number of Participants Attending to Preparatory School

Group	Mean age	Gender		Attending to preparatory school	
		Female	Male	Yes	No
Experimental A	19.3	15	2	14	3
Experimental B	19.5	13	4	15	2
Control	19.9	15	2	10	7

3.3. Data Collection

3.3.1. Quantitative Data Collection

In this research, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. For the collection of the quantitative data, a pre- and post-test was administered. Each of these tests took approximately one and half hour and required the students to write an in-class cause and effect essay on a topic determined by consensus between the researcher and the course instructor. Of the topics, the one given to the students in the pretest was the question: "What are the causes or effects of choosing language teaching as your major?" and the one given in the posttest was the question: "What can be the causes or effects of dropping out of school?" As for the reasons for selecting these topics, it can be said that their relatedness with the students' lives and appropriateness to produce divergent ideas were effective on the decision made by the researcher and the instructor.

3.3.2. Qualitative Data Collection

In order to collect qualitative data, four open-ended questions were asked to only the students in experimental group A. Of these questions, which are asked for eliciting the participants' opinions about the mediated teacher feedback, the first one, in line with the *intentionality* parameter of MLE, addressed whether the students found their teacher's giving feedback on only one subcomponent of the composition per the genre was beneficial. Related to the implementation in the context of *transcendence* and *reciprocity*, the second question asked what the students think about their writing responses to the teacher's written feedback. On

the other hand, the third one, targeting the *transcendence* and *mediation of meaning*, asked for the students' opinions about how they found the teacher's giving verbal feedback about their essays. Finally, in order to get an overall evaluation, the fourth question required the students to define the teacher's written and verbal feedback by considering them together.

3.4. Data Analysis

3.4.1. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

For the quantification of pre-and post-tests, a rubric was prepared by the researcher (See Appendix). During the preparation of it, the researcher asked for the opinions of three experts about drafts of the rubric and then according to these opinions prepared a final version of it by revising with the help of two research assistants. Finally, one of the experts reexamined its last form and gave approval to it.

This rubric, consisting of three main categories (content, organization, and language use) and four levels, is an analytic one. That is to say, it is a rubric that "requires you to evaluate specific dimensions, traits, or elements of a student's response" (Nitko & Brookhart, 2007, p. 269). Thus, 'more detailed', sensitive, and objective results can be obtained in comparison to the ones from the holistic rubrics (East, 2009; Weigle, 2002, p. 114). That's why, in the scoring of the tests the use of an analytic rubric was preferred.

After it was prepared, a randomly selected sample of the essays (n=15) was scored in accordance with the rubric by two raters, one of whom was the researcher of the study and the other was one of the research assistants helping in the revision of the rubric. Then, in order to determine inter-rater reliability Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated from the scores assigned by the raters and found .85. As this value is higher than the limit proposed by Bademci (2011, 2013), who says that the reliability coefficient of the scores should be at least .80, the raters continued to read and score the remaining papers. Finally, inter-rater reliabilities were found like in Table 2. As can be seen from these findings, only two out of six inter-rater reliability values are higher than .80 although they are not too low when compared it. Therefore, this situation can pose a threat to obtain reliable scores from the tests and it can be taken as one of the limitations of the study.

Table 2

Inter-rater Reliability Coefficients for the Pretest and Post-test Scores

Group	Pearson's correlation coefficient	
	Pretest	Post-test
Experimental A	.837	.777
Experimental B	.729	.771
Control	.865	.775

3.4.2. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

Responses of the students in the experimental group A to reflection questions constituted qualitative data of the study and they were analyzed with qualitative content analysis method. This method can be defined as an analysis aiming at revealing the latent meaning in the data by using the categories derived from the data specific to the conducted study (Dörnyei, 2007, pp. 245–46). By drawing on this method, the researcher analyzed all of the reflection forms and categorized the answers given to the questions. Furthermore, the rater scoring the pre- and post-tests also independently categorized the answers in a randomly selected sample of the papers (n=5). Afterwards, the categories determined by the two coders were examined and the incompatible ones were finalized through the arguments. At the end of this process, the categories in Table 3 were formed.

Table 3

Categories for the Experimental Group A Students' Answers to the Open-ended Questions

Question number	CATEGORIES	
QUESTION 1	A. Agreement (*n*=13)	B. Disagreement (*n*=3)
	a. Reasons for agreement	b. Reasons for disagreement
	1. Elaborated feedback (*n*=1) 2. Easy to see mistakes (*n*=5) 3. Easy to focus on (*n*=2) 4. Helpful to develop writing (*n*=2) 5. Unclear reasons (*n*=3)	1. Better to know other aspects (*n*=2) 2. Unitary characteristic of the essay (*n*=1)
QUESTION 2	A. Related answers (*n*=2)	B. Unrelated answers (*n*=15)
	1. Necessary (*n*=2)	1. Revising according to the teacher feedback (*n*=7) 2. Positive opinions about the teacher feedback (*n*=7) 3. The need of clearer teacher feedback (*n*=1)
QUESTION 3	A. Positive opinions (*n*=14)	B. Negative opinions (*n*=3)
	1. Better than the written feedback (*n*=6) 2. Helpful to understand and solve the deficiencies (*n*=8)	1. Inadequate (*n*=2) 2. Difficult to understand (*n*=1)
QUESTION 4	1. Helpful (*n*=9) 2. Verbal feedback better (*n*=3) 3. Written feedback better (*n*=1) 4. The need of more detailed explanations (*n*=1)	

3.5. Implementation Procedures in the Experimental and Control Groups

Before the implementation process started, treatment conditions were randomly assigned to the groups. Moreover, three conferences, each of which lasted approximately 1 hour, were held with the instructor of the course. The content of these conferences was about the nature of MLE, its universal and situational parameters, and how teacher feedback would be provided in the groups.

As for the implementation process, the time span of it was 8 weeks as given in the following table and throughout this period the groups did not receive any different instruction except for the teacher feedback. Moreover, throughout the implementation process all students in the three groups wrote the first drafts of the essays in class in one and half hour. The reason for it is that when the instructor assigned a homework for the students to write a cause and effect essay on global warming, it was realized that a significant number of the papers involved very similar sentences. Accordingly, this created an impression on the researcher and the instructor that the sentences had been directly taken from the internet. That's why, in order to solve this problem, it was decided that the first drafts of the essays were written in the classroom. However, it should be noted that during the in-class essay writing process the students were allowed to use their mobile phones or dictionaries to look up the words they did not know.

Table 4

Timeline for Implementations

March 18	• Pretest • Teacher's assigning students to write a cause and effect essay on global warming
March 21-25	• Students' submitting their cause and effect essay on global warming • Deciding the students to write their first drafts in classroom • Teacher's reading the cause and effect essay written within the scope of pretest for giving feedback
March 28-April 1	• Teacher's providing feedback on the cause and effect essay written for the pretest • Students' revising their first drafts according to the received feedback
April 4-8	• Students' submitting their second draft • Teacher's assigning students to write an argumentative essay
April 11-15	• Students' submitting the first draft of the argumentative essay • Teacher's reading the first draft for giving feedback
April 18-22	• Students' receiving the teacher feedback • Students' revising their first draft according to feedback
April 25-29	• Students' submitting the second draft of the argument essay • Teacher's assigning students to write a reaction and response essay
May 2-6	• Students' submitting the first draft of the reaction and response essay • Teacher's reading the first draft for giving feedback
May 9-13	• Students' receiving the teacher feedback • Students' revising their first drafts according to the received feedback
May 16-20	• Students' submitting the second draft of the reaction and response essay
May 27	• Post-test

3.5.1. Implementation in the Experimental Group A

Throughout the implementation process, the experimental group A received teacher feedback provided according to the universal parameters of MLE. Of these parameters, the first one is *intentionality and reciprocity* and to meet *intentionality*, which requires the modification of the stimuli, the instructor focused on only one subcomponent of the composition for each genre while giving feedback. To be more precise, content, organization, and language use were the focal points of the feedback given to the first drafts of cause and effect, argumentative, and reaction and response essays, respectively. On the other hand, to meet *reciprocity*, the students receiving the teacher's written feedback reported their ideas about the teacher's feedback and their revising process through a reflection form (See Appendix 7). As another parameter, *mediation of meaning* was addressed through the written feedback and one-on-one conferences by the teacher's explaining why the revisions will be important for the essay in question. Lastly, it was proposed that *transcendence* is met with the students' rewriting their first drafts and writing new essays in different genres by taking the teacher's feedback into consideration. In the light of these three criteria of MLE, the following table gives a detailed description of what the teacher and students did during the implementation process.

Table 5

Teacher's and Student's Acts in the Experimental Group A

Student's act I	Teacher's act	Student's act II
Writing the first draft of the *cause and effect essay* in class by writer's stating his/her imagined purpose and audience	Providing *feedback on content* through written feedback and one-on-one conferences (*Intentionality* and *mediation of meaning*)	Making revision and responding to teacher feedback through reflection form (*Transcendence* and *Reciprocity*)
Writing the first draft of the *argumentative essay* in class by writer's stating his/her imagined purpose and audience	Providing *feedback on organization* through written feedback and one-on-one conferences (*Intentionality* and *mediation of meaning*)	Making revision and responding to teacher feedback through reflection form (*Transcendence* and *Reciprocity*)
Writing the first draft of the *reaction essay* in class by writer's stating his/her imagined purpose and audience	Providing *feedback on language use* through written feedback and one-on-one conferences (*Intentionality* and *mediation of meaning*)	Making revision and responding to teacher feedback through reflection form (*Transcendence* and *Reciprocity*)

3.5.2. Implementation in the Experimental Group B

As in the experimental group A, implementation in the experimental group B also consisted of written feedback and one-on-one conferences held between the teacher and students. However, there were differences between the implementations taken by these two groups. Actually, the main difference was the teacher's providing feedback to the students in this group in an unmediated way. In this regard, her feedback focused on all aspects of composition at a time without any specified criterion for how they should be provided. That is to say, teacher gave global and local feedback together. Moreover, the students did not write any reflection about the teacher's feedback or their experiences during revision.

3.5.3. Implementation in the Control Group

The participants in this group took only written teacher feedback to their first drafts. Similar to the ones in the experimental group B, these written responses also were given to the different aspects of composition without any restriction on the form of their provision. However, the students in this group just revised their drafts according to the feedback they received. In other words, they were not involved in any face-to-face conversation with their teacher as different from both experimental groups and did not write reflections to her about what they experienced during the revision process as different from the experimental group A. Finally, as a common thing among the groups, it should be noted that the teacher did not give any score to the essays written by the students throughout the implementation process.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents findings and discussion according to the research questions that the study aims to answer.

4.1. Findings for RQ 1: "Did the groups significantly improve their overall writing skills over time?"

This research question aims at finding whether the groups made significant progress in their overall writing skills over time. For this purpose, firstly the difference scores between each groups' pre- and post-test scores were calculated and their distributions were tested for normality (Field, 2009, p. 329). According to the results of Shapiro-Wilk normality tests as shown in Table 6, it was found that the difference scores computed for the three groups distributed normally. After this control of the normality assumption, each group's pre- and post-test means were compared using paired samples *t*-tests. Of these tests, the one conducted for the experimental group A revealed no significant differences ($t_{(16)} = -2.064$, $p > .05$).

Table 6

Shapiro-Wilk Test Results for the Difference Scores Between Each Group's Pre- and Post-test Scores

Group	Statistic	df	*p*
Experimental A	.971	17	.829
Experimental B	.946	17	.395
Control	.907	17	.087

Table 7

Paired-samples t-test Results for the Experimental Group A's Pre- and Post-test Means

Tests	Mean	SD	*t*	df	*p*
Pretest	24.2059	2.73	-2.064	16	.056
Post-test	25.7941	2.31			

In contrast to these results of paired *t*-test for the experimental group A, the paired *t*-test conducted for the experimental group B revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-test means of the group ($t_{(16)}$ = -4.447, p < .001). Furthermore, for this analysis Hedge's g statistic was calculated as an index of effect size (Tan, 2016, pp. 297-298) and it was found g = 1.09. This refers to a large effect of the given feedback on the students' post-test writing scores. Similarly, the last paired *t*-test showed the existence of a statistically significant difference between the pretest and post-test mean scores of the control group ($t_{(16)}$= -3.058, p < .01). For this result, Hedge's g was found g = 0.76 and it means the feedback has a medium effect on the students' post-test writing scores.

Table 8

Paired-samples t-test Results for the Experimental Group B's Pretest and Post-test Means

Tests	Mean	SD	*t*	df	*p*
Pretest	23.3824	3.11	-4.447	16	.000
Post-test	26.4118	1.97			

Table 9

Paired-samples t-test Results for the Control Group's Pretest and Post-test Means

Tests	Mean	SD	*t*	df	*p*
Pretest	23.7353	3.40	-3.058	16	.008
Post-test	26.3529	1.59			

4.2. Discussion for the Results of RQ 1: "Did the groups significantly improve their overall writing skills over time?"

According to the *t*-test results presented in Table 7, such an interpretation was made that the students in the experimental group A did not significantly improve their overall writing skills. Of this nonsignificant improvement, there may be many different reasons because various teacher- and student-oriented factors can affect the development of writing skills.

However, perhaps the main reason of it is the feedback given in the coxtext of PRWAP because feedback plays a significant role on the development of writing skills (Yang et al., 2006). As for the reason of this result, an unloop occurring in the mediation of feedback might have caused it (R. Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999, p.50). As stated in the second chapter, there are three parameters for an ordinary interaction to be turned into a MLE and they should be met with some appropriate implementations within the mediational loop. However, according to this result the interpretation can be made that the applications proposed for constituting the PRWAP model might have been unappropriate for meeting the three parameters of MLE and thus an unloop might have occurred in the completion of the mediational loop. Additionally, the group's being crowded for the occurrence of mediational interactions might have caused this unloop and consequently the ineffectiveness of PRWAP.

In addition to these issues related to the effectiveness of MLE, the inter-rater reliability values calculated by using Pearson's correlation coefficient should also be considered. Being not too high, these values range approximately from .72 to .87. This means that almost at least 52% and at most 76% of the variance in the scores assigned by one of the raters is explained by or shared with the variance in the scores assigned by the other rater (Crocker & Algina, 2008, p. 35). Therefore, all these results should be carefully interpreted in the light of these values.

On the other hand, in contrast to this nonsignificant development in the experimental group A, the *t*-tests results show that both the experimental group B and the control group have significantly improved their overall writing skills over time. As a reason for this development, the two groups' receiving both global and local feedback together to their drafts can be referred as a common aspect among the groups. As a finding supporting this proposed reason, Biber, Nekrasova, and Horn (2011) found in their meta-analysis that the provision of content- and form-oriented feedback together is efficient on the improvement of writing skills of the English as an L2 learners (p. 41).

4.3. Findings for the RQ 2: "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the development of their overall writing skills?"

In order to answer this research question, firstly the pretest means of the groups were compared to determine whether there were any significant differences among the groups in terms of their writing proficiency before the treatment process. However, before doing this,

the assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were tested and it was found that the data met these assumptions as shown in Table 10. Then, ANOVA was conducted and it revealed the pre-test means of the groups were not significantly different from each other ($F_{(2, 48)} = 0.304$, $p > .05$) (see Table 11). This means that the three groups were equal with regards to their pre-treatment writing proficiency.

Table 10

Shapiro-Wilk and Homogeneity of Variance Values for the Groups' Pretest Means

Shapiro-Wilk *P*			Homogeneity of variance			
Experimental group A	Experimental group B	Control group	Levene's statistic	df 1	df 2	*p*
.462	.211	.224	.622	2	48	.541

Table 11

ANOVA Results for the Groups' Pretest Means

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	*p*
Between Groups	5.804	2	2.902	.304	.739
Within Groups	458.353	48	9.549		
Total	464.157	50			

After it was detected that the pretest group means were statistically equal, the test that would be used for comparing the groups' post-test means was determined. In this determination process, the distributions of each group's post-test scores were tested through Shapiro-Wilk normality test. According to the results of this analysis, it was found that the post-test scores of the experimental group A do not distribute normally while the scores of the other two groups show normal distribution (see Table 12).

Table 12

Shapiro-Wilk Test Results for the Groups' Overall Post-test Scores

Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	*p*
Experimental A	.857	17	.014
Experimental B	.941	17	.325
Control	.953	17	.500

In consideration of these results in the table above, it can be seen that the data do not meet the normality assumption of ANOVA. That's why, the Kruskal-Wallis test, which is the non-parametric alternative of one-way independent samples ANOVA, was used for making a comparison among the three groups' post-test scores (Field, 2009, p. 559). The results from this test, given in the table below, show that there are not significant differences among the groups in terms of their post-test ranks ($\chi^2_{(2)} = .976$, $p > .05$). This means that the three groups, each of which was exposed to different feedback treatments, showed similar progress in terms of the overall writing skills throughout the implementation process.

Table 13

Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for the Groups' Post-test Means

Group	N	Mean rank	df	χ^2	*p*
Exp. A	17	23.50			
Exp. B	17	28.50	2	.976	.614
Control	17	26.00			

4.4. Discussion for the Results of RQ 2: "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the development of their overall writing skills?"

The results of Kruskal-Wallis conducted for the post-test scores indicate that the proposed feedback model was not effective in developing the ELT students' writing skills over the other two groups. In other words, whether the teacher feedback was provided according to the universal parameters of MLE or in an unmediated way had not been different for the development of the preservice English teachers' writing skills. When this result is examined only in terms of MLE, the two reasons mentioned in the section 4.2. might be referred again for the explanation of the result. On the other hand, if the result is examined in terms of both

MLE and direct learning, it can be explained by the ineffectiveness of the use of only one modality in the provision of feedback because "*both* direct exposure and MLE are necessary in order to create the prerequisites of thinking, the flexibility necessary for adaptation, and the content base for operational functioning" (R. Feuerstein and Feuerstein, 1999, p. 50) (italics in original). That is, the use of only one of these two modalities does not have the desired impact on the targeted domain.

However, it should also be noted that making a generalization based upon this finding will not be much appropriate in terms of the random impact because the convenience sampling does not allow such a generalization. Furthermore, the provision of feedback by the teacher and its use in revision by the student are complex processes affected by various factors such as beliefs, motivation, and content knowledge (Goldstein, 2001, p. 77; 2006, pp. 195, 202). Therefore, other studies investigating the interaction between the mediated teacher feedback and these factors may provide the reasons for its ineffectiveness in this study.

As another inference that can be made from these results, it can be said that the effect of the feedback condition received by the experimental group B did not differentiate from the one received by the control group. To put it differently, the provision of written teacher feedback plus one-on-one conferences made similar effects on the students' writing proficiency with the provision of only written feedback. However, this is a finding contrasting with the view in the literature that the writing conferences can compensate some limitations of the written feedback (Hyland, 2003, p. 192) and thus the provision of them together is more effective on the development of the students' writing skills.

4.5. Findings for the RQ 3: "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the amount of development in content, organization, and language use subcomponents of composition?"

As made to the overall pretest means with the aim of detecting whether there are significant differences among the groups while answering the second research question, the groups' pretest means from the subcomponents of composition were compared for answering this question. In these comparisons, one-way ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used according to whether the assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance are satisfied by the groups' content, organization, and language use subcomponent scores.

In relation to these values and the tests that will be used in the comparisons of the groups' pretest subcomponent scores, the following table presents detailed information.

Table 14

Distributions of the Groups' Pretest Sub-component Scores and the Homogeneity of Their Variances

Subcomponent	Group	Shapiro-Wilk *p*	Homogeneity of variance *p*	Test for comparison
Content	Experimental A	.591	.854	ANOVA
	Experimental B	.659		
	Control	.326		
Organization	Experimental A	.001		Kruskal-Wallis
	Experimental B	.039		
	Control	.060		
Language use	Experimental A	.242	.774	ANOVA
	Experimental B	.384		
	Control	.981		

As seen in this table, one-way ANOVA was used in the comparisons of the groups' pretest content and language use means while the Kruskal-Wallis test was used in the comparison of the groups' pretest organization ranks because of the data not satisfying the assumption of normal distribution (Corder & Foreman, 2009, p. 102). As for the results of these tests, it was found that there are not any significant differences among the three groups in terms of each of the three subcomponents: content, organization, and language use. In other words, the groups are at the same level with regards to the three subcomponents of composition before the implementation process. Related to these results, the detailed information is presented in the following tables.

Table 15

ANOVA Results for the Groups' Pretest Content Means

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	*p*
Between groups	.664	2	.332	.743	.481
Within groups	21.456	48	.447		
Total	22.120	50			

Table 16

Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for the Groups' Pretest Organization Ranks

Group	N	Mean rank	df	χ^2	*p*
Exp. A	17	31.47			
Exp. B	17	20.76	2	4.544	.103
Control	17	25.76			

Table 17

ANOVA Results for the Groups' Pretest Language Use Means

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	*p*
Between groups	.363	2	.181	1.061	.354
Within groups	8.209	48	.171		
Total	8.572	50			

After this control for the equality of the groups' writing skills in terms of the three subcomponents, each group's post-test subcomponent scores were firstly analyzed for normality. According to this analysis, it was found that only the post-test content scores of each group distributed normally. Therefore, the homogeneity of variance of only these scores was tested by using Levene's test and the result of it revealed that the variance of the scores was heterogeneous ($F_{(2, 48)} = 4.290$, $p < .05$). By drawing on these findings, the Kruskal-Wallis test was determined for comparing the groups' post-test performances with regards to the three subcomponents of composition. In Table 18, the values of these mentioned tests are given.

Table 18

Distribution of the Groups' Post-test Subcomponent Scores and the Homogeneity of Their Variances

Subcomponent	Group	Shapiro-Wilk *p*	Levene's test *p*	Test for comparison
Content	Experimental A	.052	.019	Kruskal-Wallis
	Experimental B	.100		
	Control	.071		
Organization	Experimental A	.000		Kruskal-Wallis
	Experimental B	.002		
	Control	.094		
Language use	Experimental A	.007		Kruskal-Wallis
	Experimental B	.457		
	Control	.312		

The Kruskal-Wallis test was firstly used to compare the groups' post-test performances in terms of content subcomponent. Making this comparison by turning the scores into ordinal scale, this test revealed there was a significant difference among the groups as shown in Table 19 ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 7.254$, $p < 0.05$). In other words, at least two groups are significantly different from each other (Corder & Foreman, 2009, p. 101). However, the Kruskal-Wallis test does not directly show which group's performance is significantly better than the other. Therefore, as post-hoc contrasts Mann-Whitney *U* tests were conducted and the results in Table 20 were found.

Table 19

Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for the Groups' Post-test Content Mean Ranks

Group	N	Mean rank	df	χ^2	*p*
Exp. A	17	18.59	2	7.254	.027
Exp. B	17	28.00			
Control	17	31.41			

Table 20

Mann-Whitney U Tests as Pairwise Comparisons between the Groups

Group	N	Mean Rank	*U*	*p*
Experimental A	17	14.24	89.000	.057
Experimental B	17	20.76		
Experimental A	17	13.35	74.000	.014
Control	17	21.65		
Experimental B	17	16.24	123.000	.474
Control	17	18.76		

As to the interpretation of these post-hoc tests' results, it should be noted that a Bonferroni correction was used in order to control the increase of type I error rate that would emerge as a result of three comparisons (Field, 2009, p. 565). That is to say, for each comparison the type I error rate was determined as 0.0167 by dividing 0.05 into the number of tests. In this case, if the adjusted error rate is taken into consideration, it can be said that the only significant difference is between the experimental group A and the control group. This means that the students receiving PRWAP made less progress in terms of the content subcomponent of composition than the students receiving the teacher's only written feedback.

Secondly, the groups were compared with the Kruskal-Wallis test by their ranks in terms of the organization subcomponent of composition, and the test showed no significant differences among them ($\chi^2_{(2)}$ = .206, p>.05) (see Table 21). Accordingly, it can be interpreted that all three groups made equal progress, if any, throughout the implementation process no matter which of the feedback conditions they were exposed to.

Table 21

Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for the Groups' Post-test Organization Mean Ranks

Group	N	Mean rank	df	χ^2	*p*
Exp. A	17	25.94	2	.206	.902
Exp. B	17	27.15			
Control	17	24.91			

Finally, the Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted for comparing the groups' post-test performances in language use subcomponent and it revealed that there are not any significant

differences among the groups ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 1.907$, $p > .05$). And this means that the effects of mediated teacher feedback, written teacher feedback plus one-on-one conferences, and only written teacher feedback do not differentiate in developing the preservice English teachers' skills in using the language accurately.

Table 22

Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for the Groups' Post-test Language Use Mean Ranks

Group	N	Mean rank	df	χ^2	*p*
Exp. A	17	27.32			
Exp. B	17	28.62	2	1.907	.385
Control	17	22.06			

4.6. Discussion for the Results of RQ 3: "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the amount of development in content, organization, and language use subcomponents of composition?"

When the findings presented in the previous section are analyzed, it will be realized that the only significant difference is between the experimental group A and the control group in terms of the post-test content mean ranks. Consequently, out of these findings the interpretation can be made that all of the three feedback conditions have similar effects on the preservice English teachers' developing their writing skills with regards to the organization and language use subcomponents of composition. Furthermore, the two feedback treatments received by the experimental group B and the control group do not also have any different effects on the development of the students' writing skills in terms of content subcomponent.

To elaborate these conclusions further, firstly it can be said that the PRWAP, that is the mediated teacher feedback, could not be an alternative to the direct provision of teacher feedback through written feedback in terms of content. However, this situation is not valid for the comparison made between the two conventional ways of feedback provision. In relation to this, although it is expected that the students in the experimental group B received more feedback on content by means of one-on-one conferences than the control group (Zamel, 1985), the computed statistics did not show a significant difference between the two groups. That's why, such an interpretation can be made that holding one-on-one conferences

as an addition to written feedback is not effective on the development of the students' writing skills in terms of content and Goldstein and Conrad's (1990) finding that the effectiveness of one-on-one conferences changes from student to student can explain this result.

Furthermore, this finding should also be noted that none of the three feedback treatments differed from another in the improvement of writing skills with regards to the organization and language use subcomponents as was found by Bitchener and Knoch (2009). Drawing on this finding, it will not be wrong to say that each of these treatments can be used interchangeably while giving feedback on organization and language use to the students with advanced English proficiency. However, while attempting to do this, some other issues like the ownership of text, autonomy, or workload of the teacher should also be considered.

4.7. Findings for RQ 4: "What are the reflections of the students in the experimental group A on the mediated teacher feedback that they received within the scope of PRWAP?"

The first open-ended question was "Do you think teacher's focusing on one writing aspect was beneficial for your writing? Why?" All students (*n*=17) answered this question and only one answer was irrelevant. Of the relevant responses, 81% was positive while the remaining 19% was not. As to the reasons of these students, a majority of the supporters stated they found it beneficial because of its help to realize their deficiencies in their drafts while two students (S4 and S11) pointed out as their reason that it is easier than focusing on all aspects. Some statements of these students are like in the following sentences:

> "Yes, of course. It is beneficial because I can see my mistakes very easily with this way." (S3)
>
> "Of course, it is. We can see our mistakes easier. We can focus on one writing aspect for each writing." (S7)
>
> "Yes, I think it is very useful for me to understand each type of writing clearly and see my mistakes." (S10)
>
> "Yes. I can see my mistake in each aspect." (S15)
>
> "Yes, it was. In writings, I focused on only one aspect and it helped me understand my mistakes." (116)
>
> "Yes, I do. It is easier to focus on one aspect." (S4)
>
> "Yes, it was beneficial for writing because focusing on one writing aspect is more simple and understandable." (S11)

In contrast to these supporting statements, three students expressed disagreement with this treatment. Of their reasons, one (S1) states that receiving feedback on all aspects of essay is

better while two (S9 and S14) involve the view that essay is a unitary product. These answers are like:

> "Maybe focusing on one writing aspect can fastly improve that one but I think that it would be better to know most of them to not be surprised when we see a different one from what we learn. Also, maybe the other writing aspects may be easier to learn." (S1)
>
> "No, I think the teacher should evaluate every aspect of an essay. I think the essay cannot be separated." (S9)
>
> "I think it isn't beneficial. To improve writing skills, not just one aspect, all aspects should be focused." (S14)

The second reflection question was "What do you think about your writing responses to teacher feedback?" Although this question was answered by all students, only two answers were related:

> "I think that they are beneficial and necessary. Because they show that if we make out and use the feedbacks or not." (S1)
>
> "They were necessary to explain what we understood." (S17)

This situation shows that the students did not understand the question although the researcher explained it in the classroom and it poses a problem to elicit the participants' opinions about the issue. Therefore, it can be said that this is a limitation for the study. However, according to the categories in Table 3, there is a point taking attention of the researcher. This point is that 41 % of the students stated they tried to revise their drafts according to the teacher's feedback by supposing that the question was asking them how they revised their drafts. Some examples of these students' answers are like in the following sentences and their meaning for the proposed model will be discussed in the next section:

> "I try to do my best to write according to teacher feedback." (S4)
>
> "I just rewrite the parts which teacher point out. I think I shouldn't do it like that" (S6)
>
> "I did my best in my writing responses by taking teacher's feedback into consideration." (S9)
>
> "I think I tried to do what teacher feedback said to me but it is usually difficult to change the essay you wrote formerly." (S13)
>
> "As far as I do, I try to do it as my teacher wishes. It wasn't enough to do the my best." (S14)

As for the answers given to the third question "How did you find the teacher's giving verbal feedback about your essays?", they were separated into two main categories as positive and negative. According to these categories, 82 % of the students had positive ideas about the teacher's giving verbal feedback and six of them stated the verbal feedback provided by their teacher were better than the written feedback. Some of their responses are like in the following sentences:

> "I can understand better with this way my mistakes when we compare it with written feedback." (S3)

"It was more effective to hear my mistakes." (S7)

"I think it is better than the written feedback." (S9)

"It was really effective for me because sometimes I cannot understand some points when it is written." (S11)

In addition to these six students, eight people also expressed positive opinions. But instead of comparing the verbal feedback with the written one, they referred to their usefulness in understanding and solving the deficiencies in their drafts as shown in the statements below:

"I think that they are very useful and help me improve myself and fix my mistakes." (S1)

"Verbal feedback can help me to see some my mistakes." (S5)

"I could easily understand my mistakes." (S8)

"When I don't understand what is the problem with my writing, I ask my teacher and she explains it to me. It is beneficial." (S10)

However, there are also students who find the teacher's verbal feedback as inadequate and difficult to understand. These students, constituting 17 % of the respondents, expressed their opinions with the following sentences:

"In some parts of it, we have difficulty in understanding the feedback." (S2)

"I think teacher's verbal feedback isn't enough. I prefer to learn more comprehensive and different things while I'm speaking with teacher." (S6)

"Actually it is not enough to reach a well-organized essay. I couldn't see my weak points in writing exactly." (S14)

Finally, the last question was "When you consider the teacher's written and verbal feedback to your essays in this semester, how can you define them?" and fourteen students gave related answers to this question. According to these answers, the common idea is that both types of feedback are helpful while there are also participants (S3, S13, and S16) who say the teacher's verbal feedback is better than the written one. Furthermore, there is a student (S1) stating that written feedback provided by the teacher was better than the verbal one while another student (S2) expressed the need of more detailed explanations. Regarding to these categories, some sentences of the students are given below:

"They are encouraging and helpful for me." (S4)

"They were beneficial, effective, good." (S7)

"They were very useful for me. I found that teacher read our essays in a very detailed way and give us feedback to fix our mistakes. These feedback are all perfect!" (S10)

"They are good for my writing skill. I can see my mistakes with those feedbacks" (S15)

"Written feedbacks are generally hard to understand. Verbal feedbacks are more understandable. So, I prefer verbal feedbacks." (S3)

"They were both beneficial but verbal feedbacks were more clear for me." (S13)

"Verbal feedbacks was more beneficial for me." (S16)

"In my opinion, although they both help, the written ones are more helpful; because, I sometimes forget the verbal ones." (S1)

"It should have more detailed explanations." (S2)

4.8. Discussion for the Results of RQ 4: "What are the reflections of the students in the experimental group A on the mediated teacher feedback that they received within the scope of PRWAP?"

Before discussing the findings reported above, it can be better to provide a general summary of them. In accordance with this purpose, firstly it can be said that the teacher's giving feedback on only one aspect per genre was generally found beneficial by the students while there was a small group being in disagreement with this opinion. Secondly, as a result of the question misunderstood by the students, enough number of related answers could not be gathered for the second question. But, it was realized that a group of the students gave the answer that they mainly revised the points referred in the feedback of the teacher by thinking as if the question asks how they revised their drafts. As to the findings regarding the third question, a significant number of the students, involving the ones finding it more useful than the written feedback, stated positive opinions about the teacher's giving verbal feedback. Finally, teacher's written and verbal feedback was generally found beneficial by the students according to the responses to the fourth question.

Now, in the light of this short summary, the qualitative findings can be discussed. In relation to this, firstly it can be said that PRWAP was found beneficial by a great number of the experimental group students. On the occurrence of this view, some factors might be effective. For example, the mediated teacher feedback's convenience in terms of revising and focusing was stated as reason by some students' finding the teacher's providing feedback on only one aspect per genre as beneficial. In addition to this, the model's involving both written and conference feedback is another factor causing the students to think positively although some students find the verbal feedback better than the written ones. As a compatible finding with this one, Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) revealed that the most preferred feedback situation of the EFL and ESL students is the combination of written teacher feedback and writing conferences.

However, as mentioned in the previous section, the response that the students revised only the parts on which the teacher gave feedback is a point taking attention of the researcher. Because this response means that the students did not usually make revisions as independent

writers from the teacher who is seen as the authority in the feedback process, this may be dangerous for the student autonomy and ownership of the student's essays in contrast to the ultimate aim of the proposed model. Similar to this interpretation, drawing on the control group students' suggestions for improving the teacher feedback, Tokdemir Demirel (2009) stated "when students receive feedback from only the teacher, they get more and more dependent" (p. 138). Therefore, some alternative ways such as the more knowledgeable peers' acting as mediators can be considered for the authority of the teacher to be shared.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This last chapter involves sections on summary of the study, implications for teaching, and suggestions for further studies.

5.1. Summary of the Study

The aim of conducting this study was to investigate whether the provision of teacher feedback according to the universal parameters of MLE has any significant effects on the development of the freshman ELT students' writing skills compared to the unmediated provision of teacher feedback. For this purpose, as the sample of the research, three groups, each of which consists of 17 students, were selected through convenience sampling. Then, previously had been instructed by their teacher about how a cause and effect essay can be written, these students wrote an in-class cause and effect essay as a pretest in one and half hour.

Afterwards, although they received the same instruction in the context of Advanced Reading and Writing Course II, each of the groups took different feedback from the same instructor to their drafts. Among them, the experimental group A was exposed to mediated teacher feedback which was provided according to the three universal parameters of MLE: *intentionality and reciprocity*, *transcendence*, and *mediation of meaning*. On the other hand, the experimental group B took written teacher feedback plus one-on-one conferences to its first drafts while the control group received only written teacher feedback. Throughout this implementation process, all students wrote two drafts in three genres: cause and effect,

reaction and response, and argumentation. Finally, as a post-test the participants wrote again a cause and effect essay on a different topic.

In order to quantify these tests, two raters scored the essays according to the Composition Scoring Rubric prepared by the researcher. Then, inter-rater reliabilities between the scores assigned by the raters were computed and it was found that they ranged between .72 and .87. Thereupon, by relying on these reliability values, the scores assigned to each paper by the raters according to each criterion in the rubric were averaged and the pretest and post-test means of each group were obtained. Afterwards, the statistical analyses were conducted with the aim of answering the research questions.

The first research question was "Did the groups significantly improve their overall writing skills over time?". Conducted for finding answers to this question, paired *t*-tests revealed there was not significant difference between the pretest and post-test means of the experimental group A while significant differences were found for the experimental group B and the control group. From these findings, the interpretation was made that the mediated teacher feedback was not effective enough for the preservice ELT students to develop their writing skills over time. In contrast to this, the provision of teacher written feedback plus one-on-one conference or only teacher written feedback to the participants' first drafts increased their proficiency in writing over time.

As to the second research question, it was "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the development of their overall writing skills?". In the analysis conducted for answering this question, firstly the pretest means of each group were compared by using ANOVA in order to determine whether there were any significant differences among the groups' overall writing skills before the treatment process. According to the results of ANOVA, it was determined that the groups were not significantly different from each other in terms of their pre-treatment writing skills. Thereupon, the groups were compared according to their post-test means through the Kruskal-Wallis test and no significant differences were found among them. In other words, the mediated provision of teacher feedback did not have any different impact on the students' overall writing proficiency than the other two conditions of feedback provision.

The third question of the study was "Are there any significant differences among the groups in terms of the amount of development in content, organization, and language use subcomponents of composition?". For answering this question, initially the pretest

subcomponent scores of the groups were compared through ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis tests and it was found that there were not any significant differences among the groups in terms of the three subcomponents of composition. Then, the groups' post-test performances in terms of each subcomponent were compared through the Kruskal-Wallis tests and as the result of these tests, the only significant difference was found between the post-test content scores of the experimental group A and the control group.

In addition to these findings related to the quantitative data, the study also revealed some qualitative findings for answering the fourth research question, "What are the reflections of the students in the experimental group A on the mediated teacher feedback that they received within the scope of PRWAP?". For example, a great deal of the students have the idea that teacher's giving feedback on only one aspect per genre and giving oral feedback through one-on-one conferences are beneficial. Also, the students have positive opinions towards the teacher's providing written and oral feedback to their drafts.

To conclude this section, it can be said that the alternative hypothesis, "the PRWAP has significantly better effects on the development of preservice ELT students' writing skills in comparison to two other conventional feedback conditions: teacher written feedback plus one-on-one writing conferences, only teacher written feedback", was rejected. However, it is also worth to note that despite this negative finding, the students have the opinion that the proposed model is beneficial.

5.2. Implications for Teaching

In this study, for the ELT students' writing development no significant difference was observed between the PRWAP and the other two common feedback conditions: written teacher feedback plus teacher-student conference and only written teacher feedback. As the reason for this ineffectiveness, that the participants' being at an advanced proficiency level showing that they had experienced enough mediation and thus they can effectively benefit from the direct interactions can be stated.

Moreover, according to the classroom context, different feedback models can be devised by drawing on the universal parameters of MLE. For example, more proficient peers can be involved in the model as mediators and they can mediate their classmates about the subjects

they mastered. Thus, the students can be more active agents and the teacher's authority in the classroom can relatively be shared.

Related to the unmediated feedback conditions, writing teachers' establishing more two-way communications with their students can be suggested. For example, students' reflections about the teacher feedback can be taken and they can share their experiences with the teacher about how they revised their drafts. Furthermore, instead of just writing feedback on drafts and waiting for the students' making revisions, to give more effective feedback teachers can use some technological facilities which enable the integration of visual and aural elements.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

As different from this study, some other researches can also be conducted as presented in the following sentences:

- The effects of mediated teacher feedback can be investigated with the students who are less proficient in English or younger than the participants of the study.
- Researchers can investigate the longitudinal effects of mediated feedback provision by conducting experimental studies involving delayed post-tests.
- Peers who are better writers than their friends can give mediated feedback and its effects can be compared with the situation in which teacher is the source of feedback.
- Students with handicaps can constitute the subject groups of a study and how mediated teacher feedback affects these people's writing skills can be investigated.
- In order to obtain qualitative findings, students' opinions can be taken about the mediated feedback through interviews.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Onay Formu

ONAY FORMU

Bu form, İleri Okuma ve Yazma II dersini alan Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümü 1. sınıf öğrencilerine yönelik olarak Araştırma Görevlisi Murat ŞÜKÜR tarafından hazırlanmıştır.

İleri Okuma ve Yazma II dersinde yazılan öğrenci kompozisyonlarına yönelik Aracılı Öğrenme Deneyimi (Mediated Learning Experience) esaslarına göre sunulan yazılan ve sözlü öğretmen dönütünün öğrencilerin yazma becerileri üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlayan bir çalışma yürütmekteyim. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, ilgili ders kapsamında yazılan öğrenci kompozisyonlarından faydalanılacak ve öğrencilerin bu dönüte yönelik görüşleri alınacaktır.

Yukarıda amacı belirtilen çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır ve çalışmanın katılımcıları istedikleri zaman çalışmadan ayrılma hakkına sahiptir. Elde edilen veriler yalnızca bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacak olup katılımcılara dair bilgiler araştırmacı tarafından gizli tutulacaktır. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek için araştırmacıyla görüşebilirsiniz.

Çalışmanın içeriğine ilişkin yeterince bilgi edindiğinizi, çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı tercih ettiğinizi ve çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman ayrılma hakkına sahip olduğunuzu beyan ediyorsanız, aşağıda size ayrılan kısımları doldurunuz. Bu çalışmanın yürütülmesini sağlayacak değerli katılımlarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Murat ŞÜKÜR

muratsukur@gazi.edu.tr

Katılımcının

Adı ve Soyadı:

Cinsiyeti:

Yaşı:

Hazırlık okuma durumu:

- **Evet ( )**
- **Hayır ( )**

İmza:

Appendix 2. Composition Scoring Rubric

COMPOSITION SCORING RUBRIC

Prerequisite: The relatedness of the content is a prerequisite for any composition to be evaluated. Therefore, any text consisting of a totally unrelated content with the topic should not be evaluated.						
Text components and Adequacy Levels		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**SCORE**
CONTENT	**Relatedness of the Content to the Topic**	Only a small part of the text is related to the assigned topic.	Half of the text consists of related part to the topic.	A great deal of the text consists of related content to the topic.	All of the text content is related to the topic.	
	Development of Ideas	Ideas are quite superficially mentioned in the text.	There is evidence of idea development. But the information shared in the text is not enough.	Most of the ideas are adequately elaborated, but some supporting ideas could be added.	All major ideas are detailed with supporting sentences, so the text presents enough information.	

ORGANIZATION	**Expression of Thesis Statement**	There is no thesis statement in the text or it is irrelevant to the topic.	The thesis statement is not given in the introductory paragraph.	There is a related thesis statement to the topic in the introductory paragraph. But it does not narrow down the major opinion.	A thesis statement narrowing down the major opinion is expressed in the introductory paragraph.	
	Organization of Paragraphs as Introduction, Body, and Conclusion	The text does not include any logical order as introduction, body, and conclusion.	Some of the text is ordered logically, and/or it has missing parts.	Most of the text consists of a logical order as introduction, body, and conclusion.	All the text consists of a logical order as introduction, body, and conclusion.	
	Cohesion	Few sentences are connected, so there is not a smooth transition.	Half of the text consists of cohesive sentences and/or there are a few significant problems in terms of cohesion.	A great deal of the sentences are linked, but there are some tiny problems regarding cohesion.	All of the sentences are coherently connected.	

LANGUAGE USE	**Accuracy and the Range of Diversity in Vocabulary Use**	The range of vocabulary is too limited or there are many significant mistakes with vocabulary use (eg., wrong word, collocation mistake, etc.).	The text is formed with a mid-range of vocabulary and there are a few significant lexical problems.	A broad range of vocabulary is used in the text, but there are a few significant mistakes in vocabulary use.	The range of vocabulary is broad enough and there are not any problems with the use of vocabulary.	
	Syntactic Complexity and Accuracy	There are many different grammatical mistakes.	There are some different grammatical mistakes but the text involves grammatically simple sentences.	There are some different grammatical mistakes and the text involves grammatically complex sentences.	There are few, if any, grammatical mistakes and the text involves many grammatically complex sentences.	
	Accuracy in Mechanics	There are many different mistakes in terms of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.	There are some different mistakes in terms of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization is between 3 and 5.	There are only few different mistakes in terms of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.	There is only one, if any, mistake in terms of spelling, punctuation, and capitalization.	

Appendix 3. Pretest

GAZİ UNIVERSITY ELT DEPARTMENT ADVANCED READING AND WRITING ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING SECTION

Name and Surname: **Group:**

Please write a well developed and well organized cause and effect analysis essay about the following topic.

Topic: *What are the causes or effects of choosing language teaching as your major?*

Purpose:

Audience:

Tone:

Appendix 4. Post-test

GAZİ UNIVERSITY ELT DEPARTMENT ADVANCED READING AND WRITING ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING SECTION

Name and Surname: **Group:**

Please write a well developed and well organized cause and effect analysis essay about the following topic.

Topic: *What can be the causes or effects of dropping out of school?*

Purpose:

Audience:

Tone:

Appendix 5. Argumentative Essay

GAZİ UNIVERSITY ELT DEPARTMENT ADVANCED READING AND WRITING ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING SECTION

Name and Surname: **Group:**

Write a well developed and well organized argumentative essay about the following topic.

Topic: *Should class attendance be voluntary in the college courses?*

Purpose:

Audience:

Tone:

Appendix 6. Reaction and Response Essay

GAZİ UNIVERSITY ELT DEPARTMENT ADVANCED READING AND WRITING REACTION ESSAY WRITING SECTION

Name and Surname: **Group:**

- **Read the excerpt below and write a well-organized and well-developed reaction essay in response to the ideas in it.**

Without TV, we might have fewer terrorists, because there would be no worldwide pulpit for their propaganda. We might have had a less violent society, because the typical child would not have been exposed to tens of thousands of actual and simulated violent crimes on news and entertainment by the time he or she reached adulthood. We might have had a society, in which people still felt respect for established institutions and their leaders. We might have had a healthier society, one in which children played outside instead of watching the box hour after hour; one in which meals cooked from scratch at home had not been outdistanced by snacks and fast food loaded with sugar, salt and fat; all enticingly advertised.

Woolfolk Cross, D. (2004). Shadows on the wall. In S. McDonald, & W. Salomone. *The writer's response: A reading-based approach to college writing* (3rd ed.). (pp. 413-416). Boston MA: Thompson / Wadsworth.

(Note that this excerpt is taken from page 415.)

Purpose:

Audience:

Tone:

Appendix 7. Student Reflection Form

STUDENT REFLECTION FORM

1. Did you find the teacher's explanations useful? If you found or not, what was your reason?

2. Did you have any difficulty in comprehending the teacher's feedback? If you had, which feedback was it?

3. Was there any part in which you had difficulty in making change or did not change? If there was, which part was it?

4. Was there any feedback on which you did not agree with the teacher? If there was, which feedback was it?

Appendix 8. Open-ended Questions for Student Reflections about the Mediated Teacher Feedback

Open-ended Questions for Student Reflections about the Mediated Teacher Feedback

- Please sincerely answer the following questions.

1. Do you think teacher's focusing on one writing aspect was beneficial for your writing? Why?

2. What do you think about your writing responses to teacher feedback?

3. How did you find the teacher's giving verbal feedback about your essays?

4. When you consider the teacher's written and verbal feedback to your essays in this semester, how can you define them?