REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

COMPARISON OF CONVENTIONAL AND ONLINE CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN EFL WRITING

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MASTER OF ARTS

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE YAZMA SÜRECİNDE VERİLEN GELENEKSEL VE ÇEVRİMİÇİ GERİ BİLDİRİMLERİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

Mehmet ÖZLÜ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
Danışman: Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA
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Bilgisayar ve internet kullanımının hızlı yayılışı çok sayıda alanda hatta hayatın kendisinde bariz değişiklikleri de beraberinde getirmişir. Bu değişimin olumlu yönlerini kullanabileceğimiz yerlerden biri de dil eğitimidir. Sadece bilgisayarlarla sınırlı kalmayan Internet kullanımı, akıllı telefon ve tabletler gibi bir çok cihazla hayatın her alanında görülmektedir. Hatta bu kullanım konuşma ve yazı dilinde de yeni formların ve jargonların hayatımıza girmesine vesile olmaktadır. Bu çalışma, günlük hayatımızı bu denli etkileyen teknoloji ve Internet kullanımın yazma yeteneği üzerine etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Bu çalışmada, hepsi üniversite öğrencisi olan katılımcılar bilgisayar destekli ve geleneksel olmak üzere iki farklı platformda metinler yazdılar. Benzer sekilde, eğitmen de öğrencilerin yazdıkları metinlerin özelliklerini göz bulundurarak gelenksel ve bilgisayar destekli geri bildirim vermiştir. Verilen geri bildirimin ardından, her iki platformda ortaya çıkan hatalar doğaları ve sayıları bakımından karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu süreç 2016 akademik yılı bahar yarı yılının başında, ortasında ve sonunda üç kere tekrarlanmıştır. Bilgisayar ortamında metinleri oluşturan katılımcılar elektronik ortamda metinlerini öğretmene iletmişlerdir ve dolayısıyla aynı yöntemle geri bildirim almışlardır; geleneksel yöntemle yazdıkları metinlere ise yine aynı yöntemle geri bildirim verilmiştir. Bu süreç başlatılmadan evvel öğrencilere hedef dildeki hata düzeltme sembolleri öğretilmiştir ve geri bildirimler bu semboller aracılığıyla olmuştur.

Bu süreç her iki platfromda da (online ve geleneksel) üç defa tekrar edildikten sonra elde edilen sonuçlar; her iki platformdaki hata sayısı, hata türleri, verilen geri bildirimlere göre gerekli düzeltmelerin yapılması bakımından karşılaştırılmıştır. Süreçle ilgili, öğrencilerin görüş ve değerlendirmeleri incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları çevrimiçi geribildirimin geleneksel geribildirime göre hata düzeltme oranı açısından daha etkin olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca çalışmaya katılan öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmelerde öğrencilerin çevrimiçi yazmaya ve çevrimiçi bildirime karşı olumlu görüşlere sahip olduğu saptanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: geribildirim, geleneksel geribildirim, çevrimiçi geribildirim, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce, İngilizce yazma.

ABSTRACT

COMPARISON OF CONVENTIONAL AND ONLINE CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN EFL WRITING

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Master Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching
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The rapid dissemination of computer and Internet use has brought about noticable changes in many fields and even in life itself. Language education is a place where we can apply the upsides of this change. Internet usage, which is not limited to computers, is seen in every area of life with many devices such as smartphones and tablets. In fact, the use of new forms and jargon in speech and writing language is instrumental in our lives. This study aims to examine the effects of technology and Internet usage on writing ability that affects our daily life.

In this study, participants, all tertiary level students, performed writing tasks on two different platforms: conventional and computer-based. Similarly, the instructor provided conventional and computer-based feedback to participants regarding idiosyncrasies in the writing tasks. Following the feedback, errors produced in texts rendered via the two platforms were compared in terms of nature and frequency. This process was repeated three times: at the beginning, mid and end of the spring term of the 2016 academic year. The participants who created the texts in a computer environment were asked to submit their texts electronically and thus received feedback through the same method; and when they submitted their tasks conventionally, the feedback reached them in the same manner. Before the initiation of the process, the participants were introduced to error correction symbols employed by the instructor to facilitate understanding of modified language material.

The results which were obtained after this process was repeated three times in both platforms (conventional and online) were compared in terms of the number of errors on both platforms, the types of errors and the correction of errors according to the

feedback given. Students' opinions and evaluations about the process were examined.

The findings of the study showed that online feedback was more effective in terms of error correction rate than conventional feedback regarding nature and frequency of errors. Besides, the informal interviews conducted with participants illustrated that participants held positive views towards online writing and online corrective feedback.

Keywords: feedback, conventional corrective feedback, online corrective feedback, English as foreign language, English writing.

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ABBREVIATIONS

OCF: Online Corrective Feedback

CCF: Conventional Corrective Feedback

CF : Corrective Feedback

OWP: Online Writing Platform

CWP: Conventional Writing Platform

GE : Grammatical Error

LE : Lexical Error

ESL: English as a Second Language

EFL : English as a Foreign Langugae

ELT : English Language Teaching

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The following chapter includes background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, limitations of the study, and operational definitions.

1.2. Background to the Study

Giving feedback is one of the most critical roles of teachers. With the change of methods from Grammar-Translation to Communicative, the role of teachers has also changed in terms of providing feedback. Formerly, the teachers were seen as the primary source of knowledge. However, new trends and methods have more emphasis on learner autonomy. With these changes, student-friendly techniques for error-correction have appeared.

Writing is one of the primary ways that people use to convey their ideas and thoughts to communicate with each other. For this reason, writing gains great importance. In order to help students have the ability to write well-developed paragraphs, compositions, or essays, giving feedback is one of the most significant ways to encourage them to improve their writing skills. According to Wanchid (2010), feedback can be categorized into many aspects considering the source (teacher or peer), the focus of feedback (content or grammar), and the way it is provided (face to face or the Internet). When it comes to the way the feedback is provided to students, we can count peer response groups, teacher-student conferences, reformulation, and computer-based commentary via e-mail. Yet, for many instructors who deal with students' writings, handwritten commentary on student drafts is the most preferred method of response (Ferris, 1997). However, while many researchers studying on how to provide feedback, Walz (1982) stated that providing students correct answers does not constitute a pattern for long term memory, as cited in Wichadee & Nopakun, 2012. According to another view opined by Young and Green (2001), feedback can be useful for better learning and a second opinion can be helpful for the student, as the writer learns where he or she has confused the reader by not supplying enough information, illogical

organization, lack of ideas or inappropriate word choice or tense.

Giving feedback is probably one of the first components that an ESL teacher thinks about when the subject is writing. There are many ways of giving feedback, some of which being considered to be more effective than others. There are numerous studies in L2 writing literature dealing with different types of feedback, the way feedback should be given, what learners' perceptions are towards different types of feedback, and teachers' perceptions are of different kinds of feedback. (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Ferris et al., 1997; Goldstein, 2004; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Hyland, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Lee, 2004; Zamel, 1985). Yet, we need to know in which conditions or with which ways writing is composed. Error types that students make may show a variety depending on the tools used in composing writing. Even the error correction rate may vary depending on the way students get feedback or the tools used in correcting errors. As the source and way of writing feedback may vary, students may come up with different error correction and writing skill development rates. Thus, this study aims to display if there are differences between online and conventional corrective feedback.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Technology and the Internet are ever-growing fields and have an infinite potential that keeps surprising their users. Usage of the Internet and computers is continuously growing and becoming widespread all over the world. Besides computers, mobile devices such as tablets and smartphones provide us with great ease to access the Internet. Since this technology is widely utilized in Turkish educational institutions, language educationists may greatly benefit from it in developing their students' language skills. Thus, this technology may well be used in improving students' language writing skills. Unfortunately, this is not yet the case in Turkey. Although students are hot on the Internet, usage of this incredibly fruitful opportunity is very limited when it comes to writing skills especially. Many language teaching programs ignore this opportunity as well. It doesn't necessarily mean that ESL instructors put no effort into using technology in their writing classes. Thanks to the aforementioned technological facilities, ESL instructors have started integrating computer-based programs in their writing classroom. Yet, providing feedback to students' writing via

the Internet or e-mail is a relatively less studied area.

Many ESL instructors expend their energy on identifying and locating their students' errors, yet students may not bother to read the comments to correct their errors. Integrating technology into writing classes may help ESL instructors to find a better way of providing feedback. Based on this premise, this study, utilizing the means of our present-day computer technology, is expected to illustrate that language skills, in our case writing, can significantly be improved.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

In this study, the effects of different kinds of feedback will be investigated in terms of error correction rate. For this, we will look into different writing platforms (online and conventional) whether they lead to the emergence of different idiosyncratic grammatical structures (tense usage, employment of function words and choice of lexical items). In order to observe whether there is a difference between online and conventional corrective feedback, we will try to find responses to the research questions below.

1.5. Research Questions

The study seeks responses to the following questions:

1. Do errors made by participants display variation in terms of nature in texts composed on conventional and online platforms?

2. Do errors made by participants display variation in terms of rate in texts composed on conventional and online platforms?

3. To what extent do conventional corrective feedback and online corrective feedback have an impact on participants' performance of writing in terms of tense usage, employment of function words, and choice of lexical items?

1.6. Limitations

The Participants were asked to compose some of their writings by using a computer and send their texts via e-mail. As a result of this situation, some of the

participants may have attempted to make use of the Internet regarding spelling and grammar check. This seems to be a situation we could hardly control.

Also, disregarding the platform on which the text is written, assignments with different writing topics may affect the performance of the participants depending on the knowledge or interest of them.

1.7. Operational Definitions

1.7.1. Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback in second language acquisition (SLA) refers to the responses to a learner's nontargetlike L2 production (Li,2010).

1.7.2. Error Correction

Error correction can be defined as the creation of error-free data by rectifying pre-detected mistakes. In education, correction can be considered as the feedback provided by teachers. Error correction can be useful to achieve conscious knowledge of a second or foreign language, and in learning the language's rules (Khansir & Pakdel, 2018)

1.7.3. Error Correction Codes

Error correction codes are special writing symbols to put into a student's writing to help them identify their mistakes and make the changes themselves.

1.7.4. E-Feedback

E-Feedback is the computer-based or online version of feedback that is provided to students on their assessments.

1.7.5. CALL

The abbreviation CALL stands for Computer-Assisted Language Learning. It is a commonly used term as the definition of computer usage in a language course.

1.7.6. Online Writing

Online writing can be defined as the creation of the desired texts through a

computer, tablet or even a smartphone and submission of that text to a teacher to receive feedback on the Internet. It is also called digital writing.

1.8. Summary

In this chapter, we attempted to present the foundation of the research by providing a background to the study, statement of the problem, aim of the study, research questions, and significance of the study. Finally, we finished the chapter with certain limitations of the study. This chapter aimed to indicate the scientific niche that urged us to investigate the particular research topic and the aims we tried to attain.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter includes computer-assisted language learning (CALL), online education, error correction and error correction codes, feedback in writing, online feedback (e-feedback), types of feedback and sources of feedback in writing.

2.2. CALL

The effort to provide students with a more efficient learning environment is an endless process that has been studied by many researchers for many years. Many theories have been put forward in order to improve the learning process, and many approaches have emerged. Nowadays, technology is gaining a more solid place among these improvement efforts. With the introduction of information technologies in the field of education, changes in education, which were previously relatively slower, gained momentum. Computers and Internet technologies provide educators with a wide range of opportunities to interact with their students. In particular, the use of the Internet provides benefits such as informing students or providing feedback in the learning process (Bates, 2003). This power provided by technology allows researchers and educators to create a unique research and teaching environment. For example, a call course with interesting activities may allow the collection of data on how students perform in this learning environment. This data may be useful for the research that may contribute to Second Language Acquisition Theory (Garrett, 1991, p. 94).

Nowadays, the obvious increase in the number of teachers who carry Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to their classes is an inevitable return of the age of technology. As a result of this increase in the number of researchers and teachers who benefit from CALL technology, researches in this field has increased drastically.

Some features of the technology are closely linked to aspects of interaction, such as getting support and feedback (Chapelle, 2003). According to some research on the educational part of technology, learning through technology depends to a large extent

on the access and use of technology by learners. In some cases, these factors may not be under the control of students (Thorne 2002, 2003).

One of the greatest advantages of technology is that it provides rich input, one of the most important elements of language learning, and allows students to interact with other students or their teachers. The only use of technology in education is not, of course, the creation of a learning environment. Computer-based measurement and evaluation have also gained popularity today. In addition to multiple-choice tests employing computer-based measurement, some programs have been developed by which individual questions are answered, and personalized feedback is provided (Peterson, Gordon, Elliott & Kreiter, 2004).

The appearance of computers in the language education field goes back to the 1960s. Since then, the use of computers in language education has been increasing with the spread of computers thanks to the ever-growing technology. According to Warschauer & Healey (1998), CALL should be addressed in three main stages: behaviorist CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL.

When computers were introduced in the field of language education, they were used to create a learning environment in which repetitive exercises were presented under the influence of the behavioral learning model. (Ahmad, et al., 1985).

Communicative CALL emerged as a reaction to the behaviorist approach to language learning. As with many other areas of language education, Communicative CALL supporters have rejected the behaviorist approach, claiming that it is useless and outdated. They stressed that CALL should focus more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves. Grammar should be taught implicitly, and students should be encouraged to generate original utterances instead of manipulating prefabricated forms (Jones & Fortescue, 1987; Philips, 1987).

The last stage of computer-assisted Language Learning is integrative CALL. The integrative call, as the name implies, has emerged with the claim of bringing together various language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Today, technological devices, especially computers and smartphones, are so popular among students that they are directly related to entertainment, games, and interaction with other people. Therefore, it is quite normal for students to have high motivation when technology-supported activities are offered in classroom environments. By sending E-mail and joining newsgroups, EFL students can communicate with people they have never met. They can also interact with their own

classmates. Furthermore, some Internet activities give students positive and negative feedback by automatically correcting their online exercises. Shy or inhibited students can be greatly benefited by individualized, student-centered collaborative learning.

2.3. Online Education

The effect of technology on writing assignments goes to the beginning of the 90s. In that period, word processors started to take place in universities and schools. With the expansion of the internet, teachers gained new perspectives. Today, thanks to the opportunities that the Internet provides to teachers and students in the fields of language learning and teaching, the popularity of the Internet has increased steadily.

One of the opportunities offered by the Internet is that students have the chance to learn and practice the target language in online platforms by interacting with other students or native speakers (Stacey, 2000). In online studies or interactions, students have the opportunity to think, control, and correct before displaying any oral or written performance. Communication and relationships initially generated in the virtual environment can be brought into the classroom (McCarthy, 2010). The findings of recent studies show that online learning and instruction have positive impacts on language learning. Studies have shown that online learning environments have positive effects on language learning. Conroy (2010) conducted one of these studies and concluded that: Internet and computer-based language learning is the opportunity for university-level students to use more effectively. The reason for this was that students at that level could be more interested in language learning and could use online tools efficiently.

2.4. Error Correction

Numerous studies have been conducted to address the issue of error correction in many respects. While some studies have investigated the effectiveness of error correction, some studies have addressed how error correction should be done. Truscott and Ferris can be considered as the most prominent researchers in terms of studies examining whether error correction has an effect on students' writing performance. Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) the biggest objector of using error correction in L2 learners' writing claimed error correction to be ineffective, and even harmful to ESL

students. While there are some studies agreeing with this claim, there are also other strong rejections by Ferris (2004), who did not disclaim Truscott's statement entirely as she also thought that there were some problems with the design of error correction studies. However, Ferris objected to the idea that error correction may do some harm.

In addition to whether the error correction is effective or not, there are many studies investigating how the error correction can be more effective. Khansir (2018) claims that allowing students to correct their own errors with a teacher's assistance is the best way to correct students' errors.

In a study conducted by Lee (1997) to investigate major assumptions on error correction, it was found that the main problem that students had in error correction was due to the inability to detect the error rather than lack of knowledge. Another finding of the study is that the error correction codes are understood to a limited level by the students. In particular, grammatical terms are not fully understood by students. In addition, students were found to be more successful in correcting surface errors than correcting meaning errors. We can explain this situation with the development of students' writing skills. The more a student is a good writer, the more he/she is inclined to make corrections on organization or meaning.

Despite Truscott's (1996, 1999, 2007) claim that error correction is useless; the real question for many teachers is how to handle the error. Two points need to be clarified: which errors should be corrected? And how to correct these errors? A number of studies have been conducted to indicate that error correction is useful (Hendrickson, 1978; Young, 1990; Leki, 1991). According to the findings of these studies, students want their errors to be corrected and think that error correction is helpful for them.

We can examine error correction in two main themes. The first is the direct correction; in other words, the correction of errors overtly. In this type of correction, the teacher shows the students the correct structure or sentence directly rather than showing them where they have done wrong and what they have done wrong. In another type of correction, indirect correction, the location or type of errors is shown to the student by underlining or using error correction codes, and the student is asked to find the correct structure or to construct the correct sentence. At this point, we cannot say that indirect error correction is actually an error correction (Lee, 1997).

Some differences have emerged as to which of these two types of correction should be chosen. Leki (1991) showed that ESL students had a preference for overt correcting their errors. Many teachers make a great effort to correct students' mistakes

and spend a lot of time. However, according to some researches, direct correction does harm to ESL students instead of helping them (Hendrickson, 1980). Many of the pro-direct correction teachers claim that students do not have enough knowledge to correct their own errors. However, some studies have shown that the main reason why students are not successful in correcting errors is not the lack of knowledge, but the difficulty in locating the error (Plumb, 1994). In a study conducted by Lee (1997) also showed that students' reason for failure in error correction stems from the difficulty they have in detecting errors. In her study, Lee found that when the location of error was indicated, students' scores were significantly higher. Lee also found that in the study, direct error correction was helpful in error correction, yet indirect correction did not show the same effect. According to Lee, this difference is due to the participants' low language level.

Another issue to be considered in error correction is that: which errors should be corrected. Determining whether all errors have the same severity will be decisive in the decision to be made on this issue. Considering that all errors are of equal importance and trying to correct all of them will please many students, but this process is both time-consuming, and there is no guarantee that the students will benefit from it (George, 1972).

In this case, what needs to be done is to decide which errors should be addressed first. According to Hendrickson (1978), priority can be given to mistakes that prevent communication or that the student often makes. Another factor that can be considered as to which errors should be corrected first is the student's needs and level. Some research reveals that error correction should focus more on meaning errors (Zamel, 1985; Reid, 1993).

According to Leki (1991), affect plays an important role in students' error correction performance. Some researches have been conducted on the attitudes of L1 and L2 students. In a study conducted by Semke (1984), it was observed that foreign language students did not exhibit a positive attitude towards comments made directly on their mistakes. Lynch and Klemans (1978), who conducted a similar study with native speakers, found that native students showed negative reactions in a similar scenario. To illustrate these negative approaches, it has been observed in some reported cases that the first thing, perhaps the only thing, that students looked at on their papers was the score they received when the texts that were provided feedback were delivered to the students who exhibited those negative behaviors. Students who did not like their score ignored the feedback. It was even observed that there were students who ripped the paper

angrily. Among many studies on students' preference for feedback, Catchart and Olsen's (1976) study showed that ESL students wanted their teachers to make as many corrections as possible. They even asked the teacher to correct any mistakes made if possible. One of the teachers participating in the study responded positively to this request and attempted to correct each mistake made by the students. This attitude to demonstrate the effectiveness of such a correction has made it possible for the students to realize that it is highly distracting when they are constantly exposed to correction. Besides, a questionnaire was applied to the students and asked what level of correction they preferred. While 70 students stated that all errors should be corrected, 19 students wanted their teacher to correct the mistakes that he or she considered important. Only one student preferred that the teacher correct errors only that might cause communication problems. In another question of the questionnaire, the students were asked how they prefer corrections. Sixty-seven of the students who answered the question said that the teachers should show the location of the error and give a clue about the correction to be made. Twenty-five students asked their teachers to give the right answer directly. Only two students were of the opinion that only the location of the mistake should be pointed out without any clue. Two students said that their teachers should ignore the errors and make comments about the message they want to convey. None of the students who participated in the survey preferred the method through which the teacher only informs students about the existence of the error in the text and that the students find the location of the error and correct it themselves.

In one study, Ferris (2006) categorized the corrections that the students made or could not make based on the feedback provided to the students. Table 1 shows these categories.

Table 1
Student Revision Analysis Categories (from Ferris 2006)

Label	Description
Error corrected	Error corrected per teacher's marking.
Incorrect change	Change was made but incorrect.
No change	No response to the correction was apparent.
Deleted text	Student deleted marked text rather than attempting correction.
Substitution, correct	Student invented a correction that was not suggested by the teacher's marking.
Substitution, incorrect	Student incorrectly made a change that was not suggested by teacher's marking.
Teacher-induced error	Incomplete or misleading teacher marking caused by student error.
Averted erroneous teacher marking	Student corrected error despite incomplete or erroneous teacher marking.

2.4.1. Error Correction Codes

Error correction codes are symbols that are used to identify error type and location. Using error correction codes ensures meaningful feedback to the learner at a cognitive level. On the other hand, using error codes is not the only factor that makes the feedback effective; they also need to be constant and timely.

Error correction codes commonly used in ESL writing classes generally consist of grammatical elements. Today, it is thought to be important and useful by many foreign language teachers in our country as they help students to correct their errors themselves and gain autonomy. In a study on the efficiency of error correction codes, it was found that the students who got feedback through error correction codes performed better than the students whose errors were corrected directly by their teachers (Lalande, 1982).

Although the basis of the use of error correction codes is based on the assumption that students are familiar with the grammatical concepts provided by the codes, many studies have shown that this assumption does not fully reflect the truth. Berry (1995) concluded that there was a huge difference between the metalinguistic knowledge of teachers and students. According to the findings of the study, the grammatical concepts covered by the error correction codes used by the teachers may be far beyond students' knowledge. It has been noticed that teachers may be mistaken in assuming that their students can correct all errors based on the feedback they provide to them through error correction codes. According to Berry's (1995) findings, teachers

using error correction codes needed to be sure that the students given feedback knew what these codes meant. Students and teachers must have a common understanding of error correction codes. To meet this requirement, it is essential that students be trained in these grammatical terms and structures. However, some studies question the usefulness of grammatical education and knowledge in error correction (Truscott, 1996). Although there are studies questioning the functionality of correcting grammatical errors, there are also studies showing that using error correction codes to improve students' writing skills benefits students (Raimes, 1991).

2.5. Feedback in Writing

Giving feedback to ESL students on their writings is a prominent component of teaching writing. While what feedback means for teaching writing is arguable for some, Richards and Lockhart (1994) state that feedback's only function is not letting know learners about their performance; it also may increase their motivation and build a supportive classroom atmosphere. Both learners and teachers need to espouse a cooperative approach to the feedback to generate such a classroom climate (Dheram, 1995). Feedback is a crucial factor of the scaffolding provided by the teacher to enhance student confidence and the literacy resources to participate in target communities (Hyland and Hyland, 2006: 83). It may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). To be able to serve as a powerful tool to motivate students in the writing process, teacher written corrective feedback needs to be applied well. According to Brookhart (2010), the feedback includes two factors: cognitive and motivational factors. It gives students the information they need so they can understand where they are in their learning and what to do next—the cognitive factor. Once students feel they understand what to do and why most students develop a feeling that they have control over their own learning—the motivational factor.

Feedback efficiency has been the subject of many studies, and as with many issues related to writing skills, there are contradictory views. In a study conducted by Truscott and Hsu (2008) their findings showed that there was no difference when a group of students' errors were indicated, and the other group got no feedback at all. In another study conducted by Ferris and Roberts (2001) on the effectiveness of feedback, it was seen that the students who were provided feedback by underlining the errors in

their texts performed better than those who did not get feedback. The performances of the learners who received feedback and those who did not receive feedback have been the subject of many other studies. Ashwel (2000) measured the effectiveness of three types of feedback along with no feedback. The study showed that while the three types of feedback were helpful for the students in terms of improving their writing significantly, in the scenario where no feedback was provided, the desired progress was not observed.

One of the issues about giving feedback is the extent to which feedback should be given. According to Knoblauch and Brannon (1984: 118) as a result of the feedback given by the teacher, students' writing may not be original anymore. They alleged that when students follow feedback strictly, it is not possible to show either cognitive or writing skill development. Students who revise their texts by following given feedback firmly do nothing but imitating their teacher’s opinion (Hyland 2000).

The information provided to students to help them identify the difference between where they are and what they want to achieve can be defined as feedback (Narciss & Huth, 2006; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). In other words, feedback can be referred to as comments made to evaluate the student's performance. However, the most useful function of feedback is that it can guide students through the learning process and, as a result, give them a perspective that is consistent with their predetermined learning objectives. (Narciss, 2008; Shute, 2008). According to Strijbos, Narciss, and Dünnebier (2010, p. 292), feedback may vary, and this diversity is determined by the current learning situation and the needs of the students. In order for feedback to be considered effective, it needs to show the student where they are doing the right things, where they make mistakes, and what to do after the feedback. Of course, giving feedback as quickly as possible is one of the most important factors that increase the efficiency of feedback (Gibbs & Habeshaw, 1993). In today's world, where technology has started to integrate with education, the timing criterion is still important. In a study on students involved in an online education program, Kanuka (2001) found that receiving feedback that is not timely or non-informative posed a problem for students.

2.6. Online Feedback

Online feedback is a relatively new concept when compared to more traditional

feedback types such as teacher or peer feedback. Yet, Online or Computer Assisted Feedback has been shown a good deal of interest by researchers. Li (2000) conducted a study and found that giving feedback via e-mail caught learners' attention, and when it was compared to Conventional Corrective Feedback, Online Corrective Feedback provided more fun learning. According to Li (2000), in some situations deciphering instructors' handwriting is a struggle for learners, and online feedback can help to overcome this problem as well.

Lee (2008) warns teachers that their students' attitudes and expectations about feedback are shaped by the feedback process students experience. Combining web technologies with concepts such as peer feedback in the field of education may provide a certain solution to the problem of lack of social interaction in the target language, which is a problem experienced by foreign language students in our country. As technology began to adapt more to education, it provided new options for teachers to provide feedback and students to receive feedback (Elola, 2017). Using Internet technologies, students can ask each other questions, comment on each other's work, or exchange ideas. Many studies have been carried out on the innovations and conveniences provided by new technologies in the field of education. Goldberg (2003) conducted one of these studies and found that computer-based writing had more interaction opportunities with other students than conventional writing. According to Elola and Oskoz (2010), there are several reasons why computer-aided writing is important and valuable. Computer-aided writing offers students the flexibility and ability to produce collaborative knowledge. One of the conveniences that computer-based technologies and web technologies provide is that it enables teachers to improve their students' writing skills through effective feedback. Technology-based feedback can increase students' motivation and enable them to gain a sense of autonomy (Kessler et al. 2012). The timing of feedback is also important in terms of student motivation. Research on students participating in the online education program has shown that student attendance has been much higher in the education programs where students receive timely feedback (Ypsilandis, 2002).

Developing writing skills is considered a challenging process for many students and teachers. Perhaps the most important reason as to why this process is considered compelling by teachers is that it provides effective feedback on students' texts. Individual feedback is also essential for the success of the learning process, but sometimes it is not possible to provide feedback to each student on the same day (Cho

and Cho 2007).

It is thought that giving students the chance to receive and give feedback in a rich way is the reason for the improvement in their writing performance (Ge 2011). When students were given the opportunity to work in a technology-based collaborative environment, some students were reluctant to give feedback (Dalke 2007). Yet, Chen (2016) suggested that students are genereally more comfortable in giving electronic feedback than giving face-to-face feedback. In the studies on the feedback given by the students who did not have any hesitation about giving feedback, it was seen that the feedback given was mostly at word and sentence level (Chamberlain 2010; Lund and Smørdal 2006). In some studies where students were asked to give feedback to the texts written by other students, it was observed that the feedback given was mostly directed to lexical and grammatical errors. Few students gave feedback on organization and content (Wang 2009, Ge 2011). This may be due to differences in the level of language knowledge and writing skills of the feedback provider. According to Flower (1986), experienced writers tend to correct meaning and structure errors, while less experienced writers can give feedback on correcting more superficial errors. In another study supporting this situation, the differences between the feedback given by students and teachers to written texts were investigated. It was seen that the feedback given by the students was more superficial, and the feedback given by the teachers was more sophisticated (Chaulk 1994). In a study asking teachers and students to provide feedback in an online environment, the type and focus of the feedback were examined. According to this study, the total number of the feedback given by teachers and students is 344. When the feedbacks were categorically separated according to their types, 74% constituted direct feedback, 12% commentary feedback, 9% evaluative feedback, 3% affective feedback, and 1% highlighted feedback. When both the teachers and the students' feedback were examined, directive feedback had the largest percentage in both groups (Zheng, Lawrence, Warschauer, Lin 2014). According to the findings of another study on online feedback, direct corrections in students' text were not as effective as providing suggestions or asking questions in order to improve students' writing skills. (Alvarez, Guasch&Espasa,2012). According to a study by Wolsey (2008), indirect feedback enriches the learning process while supporting self-correction.

The type of feedback is not the only important factor for feedback to be effective. Researches on when feedback should be given have shown that it should be provided immediately after the student has written the text, regardless of the

environment, online or classroom. Also, it should be provided consistently (Gibbs & Simpson, 2004). While the teacher needs to provide feedback immediately, this is a flexibility for the student when he/she receives feedback online. The reason for this is that the student has the chance to review and reflect on the information before sharing his / her answer online. In another study conducted by Van der Kleij (2012), it was seen that the students obviously prefer immediate feedback. To summarize, online feedback needs to be timely and continuous in order to be effective and valuable. (Gaytan & McEwen, 2007; Wang, Wang & Huang, 2008; Wolsey, 2008).

The debate as to whether the timing of feedback should be process-oriented or outcome-oriented continues. Although most researchers think it should be process-oriented, there are also some advocates of outcome-oriented feedback. A study examining the preferences and performances of students in this area showed that feedback towards the process was preferred by the students and was more effective for the realization of learning (Corbalan, Pass & Cuypers, 2010).

Research on online feedback has provided evidence on the applicability and impact of this type of feedback. The most prominent of these researchers is Tuzi. Tuzi was one of the first researchers to use the term e-feedback. In one of his researches, Tuzi (2004) found that students receiving foreign language education had more successful writing performance when they received e-feedback rather than verbal feedback.

Another feature of online feedback is that it is a very important tool for fast communication. Seeing this advantage of online or electronic feedback, some organizations and researchers have developed various software and applications. For example, at the University of Twente, the traditional format of lectures followed by a final exam has been replaced in some courses by a series of web-based assignments with online feedback (Collis, De Boer & Slotman, 2001). Another example is the online learning tool that Heo and Chow (2005) have developed to comment on the work of computing students. Heinrich and Lawn (2004) created an electronic repository for students to benefit from. Students who access this repository of works produced by other students and the feedback given to them could find and read the data related to their work. One of the ways to provide online feedback is via e-mail to students. One of the advantages of using e-mail for feedback is the fact that feedback is provided to the student very quickly as it is possible to access the Internet anywhere at any time thanks to technological devices, especially smartphones. As students are available via e-mail at

any time as soon as the assessment process is completed, the student does not have to wait for the next lesson either to receive feedback or to return the revised work to the teacher. The timing criterion that was previously emphasized complies with the use of online feedback. Gibbs and Habeshaw (1993) indicated that students were not interested in feedback when feedback was not given on time and that they did not have time for late feedback because other topics were being covered in the intervening time. In another study on online feedback, Denton (2007) found that a significant portion of the participants felt that online feedback was more valuable than traditional handwriting feedback. One of the reasons why students approach online feedback more positively is that computer-based feedback does not cause difficulties in reading as it does in the handwriting. It cannot be overlooked that students' difficulty in reading the handwriting of the teachers giving feedback is also a factor that decreases the quality of the feedback. The fact that computer-aided feedback provides teachers with faster feedback and faster completion of the evaluation process makes electronic feedback valuable to evaluators.

In one study, Tuzi (2001) touched upon the differences between traditional and online feedback. Below, in Table 2, those differences are highlighted.

Table 2

Frank Tuzi (2001) Differences between Conventional and Online feedback

Conventional Feedback	Online Feedback
Face-face	Distant
Written	Written
Time dependent	Time independent
Pressure to quickly respond	No pressure to quickly respond
Place dependent	Place independent

Razagifard and Razaghifard (2011) also found that during their study, learners who got online corrective feedback did better than those who did not get any feedback. On the other hand, according to Ali (2011), the type of feedback does not make any motivational differences as students have a fear of any type of correction. Tuzi and Tannacito (2002) conducted a study that enabled learners to get peer feedback via e-mail. Tuzi and Tanaccito stated that one of the reasons students gave a favorable opinion to the e-mail responses is the freedom they provided. According to the students, another positive aspect of online feedback was that they could use the e-mail

suggestions in their future draft. Online feedback also provided more freedom in terms of the source of feedback as students could not only get e-mailed responses from peers in their class but also from visitors to the related website. According to Tannacito (2002), learners in his study believe that using computers for responding would improve their writing. In addition to being practical for learners, Online Corrective Feedback may help learners to reduce their level of stress. Tuzi (2002) claims that some students may feel pressured when they have to respond in a single session of writing, or they are in the presence of the teacher.

2.7. Written Corrective Feedback

Providing corrective feedback on ESL student's writings has been among the major concerns of ELT researchers since Truscott's claim, which refers to corrective feedback as both ineffective and harmful (Truscott, 1996). According to Truscott (1996), WCF (Written Corrective Feedback) has no place in writing classes, since he considers grammar correction as useless. However, Ferris (1999) opposed Truscott's claim through her own findings from her own research in which she indicated the advantages of WCF. Truscott (2007) kept on being an objector to the use of written grammar correction in second language writing by claiming that WCF is not only ineffective but also can be harmful in some situations. Ferris (2004) also stood behind her assertion and did not agree that WCF is harmful to learners. Yet, she acknowledged that WCF researches have some imperfections. This debate between Truscott and Ferris can be considered as the first them all but surely not the only one. As there are such debates between the exponents of both sides, it may be challenging to decide whether to provide corrective feedback or not. Sheen (2010) also states that previous studies about WCF do not hold out firm proofs to verify if it has any positive effect on learning. However, Sheen's (2007) findings together with some other studies (e.g., Bitchener and Knoch, 2008; Ellis, 2008) offer solid evidence giving support to Ferris's (1999, 2004) argument which claims WCF can help interlanguage development. Many other studies also were conducted to display learners' and teachers' perceptions of feedback (e.g., Amrhein and Nassaji, 2010; Evans, Hartshorn, and Tuioti, 2010; Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2003, 2004, 2005). These studies showed that most of the learners and teachers find WCF effective and think it helps L2 learners to develop their writing skills.

2.7.1. Types of Written Corrective Feedback

Apart from the discussions that argue the effectiveness of WCF, there are some other studies arguing different types of WCF. Bitchener (2005) is one of those researchers who have studied the effect of different types of corrective feedback on learners' writing. Bitchener (2005) conducted a study to find some answers about design concerns uttered by both Truscott (1999) and Ferris (2004), and he decided to include a control group in his study. Bitchener's (2005) study did not come up with findings to end the debate between Truscott and Ferris, but he found that when there was a correlation between error type and feedback type, learners' performance showed remarkable differences over the 12-week period.

Ellis (2009) conducted another study on written corrective feedback types. In his study, he examined various alternatives for correcting learner's written work. Ellis (2009) argues that defining alternative options in a systematic way is crucial for both determining whether WCF is effective and, if so, what kind of WCF is most effective. According to Ellis (2009), students' interest and intentness is a key element for WCF to be effective. There is a lot of research done on different types of feedback. One of these studies was conducted by Sheppard (1992). In Sheppard's study, feedback is divided into two categories as discrete-item and holistic. In another study by Robb (1986), the number of feedback categories is four: direct, coded, uncoded, and marginal. As the name implies, direct feedback is that the teacher provides correct answers while providing feedback to the student's text. Coded feedback is the type of feedback we used in our study. In this type of feedback, the teacher shows the student by coding his / her errors in abbreviations. Coded feedback is considered more effective because it encourages student to take a more active role in correcting the error (Hamel, Slavkov, Inkpen, & Xiao, 2016). In uncoded feedback, the teacher points to the student only where his / her error is. The most indirect one of the aforementioned types is marginal feedback. With this type of feedback, the teacher only shows how many errors are in each line. Finding the exact location and type of these errors is what the student should do. Another work on categorizing feedback was made by Ellis. Ellis mentioned corrective feedback in his study.

Table 3 below prepared by Ellis (2009) shows what the corrective feedback types are and some studies made on these types of corrective feedback. He also defined different kinds of corrective feedback.

Table 3
Typology of Written Corrective Feedback Rod Ellis (2009)

Type of CF	Description	Studies
A Strategies for providing CF		
1 Direct CF	The teacher provides the student with the correct form.	e.g. Lalande (1982) and Robb et al. (1986).
2 Indirect CF	The teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction.	Various studies have employed indirect correction of this kind (e.g. Ferris and Roberts 2001; Chandler 2003).
a Indicating + locating the error	This takes the form of underlining and use of cursors to show omissions in the student's text.	
b Indication only	This takes the form of an indication in the margin that an error or errors have taken place in a line of text.	Fewer studies have employed this method (e.g. Robb et al. 1986).
3 Metalinguistic CF	The teacher provides some kind of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error.	Various studies have examined the effects of using error codes (e.g. Lalande 1982; Ferris and Roberts 2001; Chandler 2003).
a Use of error code	Teacher writes codes in the margin (e.g. ww = wrong word, art = article).	
b Brief grammatical descriptions	Teacher numbers errors in text and writes a grammatical description for each numbered error at the bottom of the text.	Sheen (2007) compared the effects of direct CF and direct CF + metalinguistic CF.
4 The focus of the feedback	This concerns whether the teacher attempts to correct all (or most) of the students' errors or selects one or two specific types of errors to correct.	Most studies have investigated unfocused CF (e.g. Chandler 2003; Ferris 2006). Sheen (2007), drawing on traditions in SLA studies of CF, investigated focused CF.
a Unfocused CF	Unfocused CF is extensive.	
b Focused CF	Focused CF is intensive.	
5 Electronic feedback	The teacher indicates an error and provides a hyperlink to a concordance file that provides examples of correct usage.	Milton (2006).
6 Reformulation	This consists of a native speaker's reworking of the students' entire text to make the language seem as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact.	Sachs and Polio (2007) compared the effects of direct correction and reformulation on students' revisions of their text.

Another type of feedback that foreign language teachers can use when giving feedback to their students is non-corrective feedback. Unlike corrective feedback, in this type of feedback, the teacher neither shows the place of the error nor gives the correct answer to the student. In this type of feedback, general comments are made to the text of the student. To make a more understandable definition of this type of feedback, we can talk about affective feedback, which is a subtype of non-corrective feedback. According to Vigil and Oller (1976), affective feedback is defined as the provision of encouragement or emotional responses. It has been seen that applying the affective feedback as encouraging comments on students' texts can have positive results, especially in terms of motivation (Jago, 2001).

2.7.1.1. Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback

Among the other types of WCF, Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback (MCF) is one of the main concerns for this study as participants were provided with error correction symbols to rectify their mistakes. Ellis (2009) describes the purpose of the MCF as providing learners with some form of explicit comment about the nature of the error they have made. The most common way of being able to give MCF is to use error codes. Error codes include an abbreviation of different types of errors. While using error codes, there may be two possible ways to use them. The teacher may choose to show the exact location of the error and mark it or not to show the exact location of the error. In the second case, the learner needs to locate the error first and correct it.

2.8. Sources of Feedback

According to Wanchid (2010) to examine the feedback we need to divide it into several categories depending on who gives the feedback, what the feedback focuses on and the way it is provided. We may categorize givers of feedback as teacher, peer or self, and the way it is provided as face to face or online (Internet). Makino (1993) also states that during the language learning process, learners sometimes may notice some of their errors by themselves, and they also may correct their errors with the help of some hints given by their teachers or peers.

Today in numerous second language classes, teachers play a role as the only source of feedback; however, according to some studies, peer students are also a

common source of feedback, in addition to teachers. Despite the fact that some L2 writing classrooms adapted peer feedback, it is not clear whether it is effectual (Fiona Hyland & Hyland, 2006). In a study conducted by Yang et al. (2006), two groups of students were involved, one which was provided feedback from peers and the other which was provided with feedback by their teachers. It was found that students' preference was in favor of teacher feedback rather than peer feedback. Hyland (2000) also made a study to investigate teacher and peer feedback. In her study, different kinds of feedback, teacher and peer, was provided to individual students. Her findings showed that peer feedback provided without the teacher's guidance led students to trust in their own abilities. She also found that because of the steering nature of teacher feedback students struggled to show autonomy in deciding on the use and the source of feedback. As a consequence, Hyland suggests that students should be guided in a way that they can decide to use their own abilities while revising their papers.

According to another study conducted in order to find out which type of feedback is more effective, students' foreign language levels should be taken into consideration when determining the type of feedback to be used. It was stated that when students have a low level of knowledge in the target language, peer feedback can be useless (Tsui & Ng, 2000).

2.8.1. Teacher Feedback

When it comes to traditional teacher-student relationship, it is beyond any doubt that distribution of power is unequally favouring the teacher. In such a situation, learners tend to accept the exact authority of the teacher, says Hyland (2000). In a writing classroom where the teacher is the sole feedback provider, students tend to follow those feedback closely, and that may end up with unauthentic student tasks (Knoblauch and Brannon, 1984). Considering this, while giving feedback to students, using a strategy for providing feedback that leads learners to assess their own writing is crucial (Tsui & Ng, 2000). However, most of the survey conducted to realize feedback preferences of learners showed that many of the students prefer teacher feedback when compared to other types of feedback, peer, etc. (Saito, 1994; Zhang, 1995). In some cultures teacher is still the exact and the best source of knowledge to learners. On the other hand, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) suggest that feedback from the teacher is regarded as classical and traditional.

2.8.2. Peer Feedback

Peer feedback is seen as a good way to give more control and autonomy to learners, and there are numerous studies in favour of using peer feedback in writing classes (Ur 1996; Keh 1990; Richards and Lockhart 1994; Berkow 2002). Among those studies, there are some others referring to peer feedback as a useful feedback type to help learners develop their writing skills (Zeng 2006). According to Zeng (2006) by working in collaborative groups, learners enhance their writing skills since peer feedback provide them with the chance of utilising from the knowledge of their peers.

2.9. Summary

This chapter presented a theoretical framework of the study: computer-assisted language learning (CALL), online education, error correction and error correction codes, feedback in writing, online feedback (e-feedback), types of feedback and sources of feedback in writing.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides information about the research design, the participants of the study, the instruments and procedure used to collect data, and data analysis. Firstly, the research design of the study was presented, and underlying reasons for adopting such a design were explained. Secondly, information about participants such as their gender, school settings, etc. was provided.

3.2. Research Design

Since our aim with this study was to observe any differences regarding the effect of feedback types on nature and type of errors on two feedback platforms (conventional and online), we embraced a mixed type data analysis method. The study, a descriptive by nature, draws its data from both (mainly) quantitative and (to some extent) qualitative sources.

3.3. The Participants

Fifty participants from different departments of Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University took place in the study. A great number of students were informed about the study and asked if they had been a volunteer for such an event. At first, more than fifty participants were willing to take part in the study, but after a while, the number decreased to fifty because of some attendance problems. However, this situation did not affect the study since the planned participant number for this study was already fifty. All the participants had knowledge of English at the elementary level. While twenty-nine of the participants were female, twenty-one of them were male, and their ages varied between eighteen and twenty-three.

Table 4

Gender Distribution of the Participants

Gender	**F**	**%**
Female	29	58
Male	21	42
Total	**50**	**100**

3.4. Instruments

For this study, two types of data collection instruments were utilized: the feedback given for assigned tasks and an informal interview. Number and frequency of errors were gathered through the assigned tasks, and views of the participants regarding the experience were collected through interviews, each having lasted up to five minutes for each participant.

Li (2000) emphasizes that in order to develop writing skills in the target language, effective writing tasks should be designed that are not only interesting but also relevant to the objectives of the course. Taking this warning into consideration, special attention has been paid to the fact that the writing assignments given to the students should meet the criteria of being interesting. The topics of writing assignments given to students to compose written texts are as follows:

Online Writing Tasks

Task 1 *Is compulsory school attendance necessary?*

Task 2 *Is animal testing necessary?*

Task 3 *Is the death penalty effective?*

Conventional Writing Tasks

Task 1 *A Memory*

Task 2 *Why do you want to learn English?*

Task 3 *White Lies*

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

The main data used in this study derived from the participants' six writing tasks, assigned to the group on two different platforms at the beginning, mid, and end of the academic term of 2016. Initially, error correction codes were introduced to all participants and were practised by all of them before performing the tasks. The second stage was to practice how to write a well-developed paragraph. The researcher, in addition to the main course, raised awareness about writing paragraphs, vocabulary utilization, and other mechanical devices of writing. Participants were asked to compose both conventional and online writings. The first pair of tasks consisted of both conventional and online writing. The same procedure was applied to the second and third pairs as well. For the conventional writing task, participants were asked to compose a paragraph about a given topic by using a pen and paper. The participants completed the conventional task in the classroom and received feedback immediately. Those who got their feedback were asked to correct their errors and hand in the second draft of the writing. However, for the online writing task, the setting was different. The participants here were assigned the task via e-mail, and they completed their task within some specified time. Those who completed the task sent their products via e-mail and received feedback in the same manner. The researcher did his best to provide immediate feedback to online products. The participants who got the feedback through e-mail were asked to correct their errors and send their tasks' final drafts. At the end of the data collection procedure, all participants were kindly requested to participate in an informal interview, where they expressed their views about this experience.

3.6. Data Analysis

The data which was collected from the participants was analyzed in three stages. Initially, total errors in the writing tasks of the participants were divided into two groups in terms of their types as Grammatical Errors (GE) and Lexical Errors (LE). Secondly, the overall errors by participants were divided into two categories in terms of the writing platforms as Conventional Writing Platform (CWP) (used pen and paper) and Online Writing Platform (OWP) (used computer). Here, it was also investigated whether Conventional Corrective Feedback (CCF) and Online Corrective Feedback (OCF) showed any significant difference in terms of error correction rate in two drafts of three different tasks. In the third stage, it was investigated whether error frequency

showed any significant difference between CWP and OWP. In order to reveal this, all the errors were grouped as GE and LE. For the classification of errors, error codes that are used to give Corrective Feedback (CF) were utilized. All the error tags were taken from these codes. Finally, the effect of different types of CF on GE and LE correction rates across the three writing tasks was revealed. For all these statistical analyses, the SPSS 16.0 software was utilized. In order to examine potential differences between the repeated measures of scale and subdimension scores, a One-way ANOVA technique was used. This technique tests whether the mean scores of two or more related measurement sets differ significantly from each other. Assumed that the dependent variable should be at least interval scale and continuous, the scores of the dependent variable should show normal distribution for each repeated measurement, and the difference scores calculated for any two levels of the intra-group factor should be equal to the assumption that the variance in the universe is equal (sphericity assumption). Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison tests were performed to determine the difference between the measurements when there was a difference between the measurements in one-way ANOVA test for repeated measurements. Paired samples T-tests were used to compare the errors elicited from the first and second draft of the tasks. An independent samples T-test was used to compare the scores (errors) of the conventional and online platforms. A value of $p \leq 0,05$ was considered statistically significant. Analyzed numerical data is presented in tabular form.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. All the data is presented in tabular forms followed by the commentary. Firstly, types and rates of errors are given; and then, error correction rate of each writing task in terms of CCF and OCF is presented. Finally, an overall summary of the error and error correction rate is provided.

Table 5 presents the descriptive values obtained from the first and second drafts of the texts written by the participants on conventional platform. In the table, the error numbers are divided into two categories: lexical and grammatical.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics of Conventional Errors

Task	Draft	Error Type	n	Min.	Max.	$\underline{X}$	Std. D.	Skewness
1	First	Grammatical	50	0,00	14,00	6,44	3,15	0,16
		Lexical	50	0,00	6,00	2,58	0,99	0,16
		Total	50	1,00	17,00	9,02	3,43	-0,01
	Second	Grammatical	50	0,00	11,00	4,38	2,81	0,12
		Lexical	50	0,00	5,00	1,88	0,98	0,52
		Total	50	0,00	13,00	6,26	3,14	0,02
	Total	Grammatical	50	0,00	25,00	10,82	5,91	0,17
		Lexical	50	0,00	11,00	4,46	1,89	0,42
		Total	50	1,00	30,00	15,28	6,49	0,02
2	First	Grammatical	50	0,00	12,00	6,14	2,82	-0,08
		Lexical	50	0,00	5,00	2,36	0,92	-0,14
		Total	50	1,00	15,00	8,50	3,04	-0,24
	Second	Grammatical	50	0,00	9,00	4,08	2,46	-0,01
		Lexical	50	0,00	4,00	1,76	0,92	-0,16
		Total	50	0,00	11,00	5,84	2,72	-0,17
	Total	Grammatical	50	0,00	20,00	10,22	5,12	-0,09
		Lexical	50	0,00	9,00	4,12	1,75	-0,07
		Total	50	2,00	26,00	14,34	5,59	-0,21
3	First	Grammatical	50	2,00	9,00	5,66	1,75	0,04
		Lexical	50	1,00	4,00	2,18	0,90	0,16
		Total	50	4,00	12,00	7,84	2,02	0,23
	Second	Grammatical	50	0,00	7,00	3,46	1,58	0,16
		Lexical	50	0,00	3,00	1,24	0,87	-0,11
		Total	50	1,00	9,00	4,70	1,78	0,43
	Total	Grammatical	50	2,00	16,00	9,12	3,15	0,06
		Lexical	50	1,00	7,00	3,42	1,69	-0,01
		Total	50	6,00	21,00	12,54	3,64	0,35

According to the results in Table 5, it was found that the scores of all tests on conventional platform showed normal distribution.

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 5 shows that error numbers for each task in both category (grammatical and lexical) decrease steadily as it is on online platform (Task 1=, 15,28 <Task 2= 14,34 <Task 3=15,54). This result lets us declare that the implementation has positive effects starting from the first task.

When descriptive statistics are analyzed, it can be said that the number of errors decreases on both platforms or both types of feedback are effective. One-way repeated measures Anova and T-test results should be interpreted to see which type of feedback or which platform is more effective.

In Table 6 the descriptive values obtained from the first and second drafts of the texts written by the participants on online platform are presented. Again, in the table, the error numbers are divided into two categories: lexical and grammatical.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Online Errors

Task	Draft	Error Type	n	Min.	Max.	X	Std. D.	Skewness
		Grammatical	50	2,00	10,00	6,04	2,29	-0,10
	First	Lexical	50	0,00	5,00	2,06	1,10	0,27
		Total	50	2,00	14,00	8,10	2,71	-0,03
		Grammatical	50	0,00	8,00	3,68	2,08	-0,10
1	Second	Lexical	50	0,00	4,00	1,26	1,01	0,45
		Total	50	0,00	10,00	4,94	2,40	0,11
		Grammatical	50	2,00	17,00	9,72	4,23	-0,12
	Total	Lexical	50	0,00	9,00	3,32	1,97	0,41
		Total	50	2,00	24,00	13,04	4,93	0,01
		Grammatical	50	2,00	9,00	5,66	1,76	0,24
	First	Lexical	50	0,00	5,00	1,94	1,36	0,16
		Total	50	3,00	13,00	7,60	2,49	0,17
		Grammatical	50	0,00	7,00	3,22	1,62	0,05
2	Second	Lexical	50	0,00	3,00	0,80	0,88	0,78
		Total	50	0,00	8,00	4,02	2,00	-0,04
		Grammatical	50	3,00	15,00	8,88	3,17	0,17
	Total	Lexical	50	0,00	7,00	2,74	2,09	0,32
		Total	50	3,00	20,00	11,62	4,26	-0,05
		Grammatical	50	1,00	7,00	4,46	1,36	-0,09
	First	Lexical	50	0,00	5,00	1,86	1,16	0,61
		Total	50	3,00	11,00	6,32	1,67	0,40
		Grammatical	50	0,00	4,00	2,02	1,22	0,03
3	Second	Lexical	50	0,00	2,00	0,60	0,73	0,79
		Total	50	0,00	6,00	2,62	1,34	0,32
		Grammatical	50	1,00	11,00	6,48	2,23	-0,21
	Total	Lexical	50	0,00	7,00	2,46	1,67	0,65
		Total	50	3,00	15,00	8,94	2,55	0,17

According to the results in Table 6, the scores of all tests on online platform showed normal distribution.

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 6 shows that error numbers for each task in both categories (grammatical and lexical) decrease steadily (Task 1= 13,04 <Task 2= 11,62 <Task 3=8.94). This result lets us declare that the implementation has positive effects starting from the first task as expected in our study.

4.2. Pre-Feedback Errors Across Tasks

First of all, all the errors for each task's first drafts were given in tables. In these tables, the raw frequency of errors without any further analysis is provided in order to show their rate.

Table 7 below illustrates the overall raw frequency of the errors for the first drafts of the first assigned tasks.

Table 7

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the First Drafts of the First Tasks

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	302	103	405
Conventional	322	129	451
Total	624	232	856

Looking at the data obtained from the first writing task, 451 of the total 856 errors made by the participants are on conventional platform. The remaining 405 errors were made on online platform. In addition, 624 of the total errors made are grammatical, while 232 are lexical errors. We can take this into account and make the following comment; It is not difficult to see that both the grammatical and the lexical error types are fewer on online platform. However, when the ratio of grammatical errors to the total number of errors is taken into account, it seems to be much more than lexical errors. It is thought that the level of the students is effective in the emergence of this situation. While the grammatical error rate has a clear advantage over the lexical error rate, it is unlikely to say the same for the difference between online and conventional platforms.

Table 8 below displays the overall raw frequency of the errors for the first drafts of the second tasks.

Table 8

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the First Drafts of the Second Tasks

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	283	97	380
Conventional	307	118	425
Total	590	215	805

Looking at the data obtained from the second writing tasks, it is observed that 380 of the total 805 mistakes were made online, and 425 appeared on conventional platform. However, there is a small decrease in the total number of errors made. It can easily be seen that the number of grammatical errors is superior to the number of lexical errors in the second writing task too, when compared with the first writing task. Of the total 805 errors, 590 consisted of grammatical errors, while the remaining 215 errors are lexical. In the second writing assignment, of the 590 grammatical errors, 307 were on conventional and 283 on online platform.

Table 9 below illustrates the overall raw frequency of the errors for the firsts draft of the third tasks.

Table 9

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the First Draft of the Third Task

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	223	93	316
Conventional	283	109	392
Total	506	202	708

Finally, in Table 9, it is observed that the total number of errors dropped slightly, but there was not a significant change in the previous rates. While 506 of 708 total errors constitute grammatical errors, 202 errors are lexical. Of the 506 grammatical errors, 283 observed on conventional platform, which is similar to the previous tables.

4.2.1. Pre-feedback Errors across Conventional Tasks

One-way ANOVA test was used for repeated measures to find out whether there was a significant difference in the number of errors of pre-feedback drafts of the texts written conventionally. Table 10 presents the results of the ANOVA test.

Table 10

Comparison of the Total Number of Pre-feedback Errors on Conventional Platform

Source of Variance	**Sum of squares**	**df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**p**	**Sig***
Between Subjects	1078,507	49	22,010			**1>2,3**
Measure	34,973	2	17,487	11,45	**0,000**	
Error	149,693	98	1,527			
Total	1263,173	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 10, significant differences were found between the total error numbers of Task1, Task2, and Task3 before feedback on conventional platform ($F = 11.45$; $p < 0.05$). According to Bonferroni multiple comparison correction test results, Task2 (8,50 ± 3,04) and Task3 (7,84 ± 2,02) total error numbers are significantly lower than Task1 (9,02 ± 3,43) total number of errors.

4.2.2. Pre-feedback Errors Across Online Tasks

One-way ANOVA test was used for repeated measures to find out whether there was a significant difference in the number of errors of pre-feedback drafts of the texts written online**.** Findings are illustrated in Table 11.

Table 11

Comparison of the Total Number of Pre-feedback Errors on Online Platform

Source of Variance	**Sum of squares**	**df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**p**	**Sig.***
Between subjects	480,993	49	9,816			**1,2>3**
Measure	84,280	2	42,140	12,89	**0,000**	
Error	320,387	98	3,269			
Total	885,660	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 11, there was a significant difference between the total number of errors before feedback on online platform ($F = 12.89$; $p < 0.05$). According to Bonferroni multiple comparison results, the total number of Task3 errors before feedback on online platform (6.32 ± 1.67) is significantly lower than the total number of errors in Task1 (8.10 ± 2.71) and Task2 ($7.60 \pm 2, 49$).

4.3. Post-Feedback Errors Across Tasks

All the errors for each task's second drafts will be given in tables. In these tables, the raw frequency of errors without any further analysis is provided in order to show their rate.

Table 12 below displays the overall raw frequency of the errors for the second drafts of the first tasks.

Table 12

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the Second Drafts of the First Tasks

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	184	63	247
Conventional	219	94	313
Total	403	157	560

When we have a look at the error numbers of Second drafts of the participants' written texts, we see that 313 of the total 560 errors made by the participants are on conventional platform. The remaining 247 errors were made on online platform. In addition, 403 of the total errors made are grammatical, while 157 are lexical errors. We can take this into account and make the following comment; It is not difficult to see that both the grammatical and the lexical error types are fewer on online platform. However, when the ratio of grammatical errors to the total number of errors is taken into account, it seems to be much more than lexical errors. While the grammatical error rate has a clear advantage over the lexical error rate, it is unlikely to say the same for the difference between online and conventional platforms.

Table 13 below displays the overall raw frequency of the errors for the second

draft of the second tasks.

Table 13

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the Second Drafts of the Second Tasks

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	161	40	201
Conventional	204	88	292
Total	365	128	493

Looking at the data obtained from the second draft of the second writing task, 292 of the total 493 errors made by the participants are on conventional platform. The remaining 201 errors were made on online platform. In addition, 365 of the total errors made are grammatical, while 128 are lexical errors. While the grammatical error rate has a clear advantage over the lexical error rate, it is unlikely to say the same for the difference between online and conventional platforms.

Table 14 below displays the overall raw frequency of the errors for the first draft of the second tasks.

Table 14

Overall Raw Frequency of the Errors for the Second Drafts of the Third Tasks

	Error Type		
Platform	**Grammatical**	**Lexical**	**Total**
Online	101	30	131
Conventional	173	62	235
Total	274	92	366

As it can be seen from Table 14, 235 of the total 366 errors made by the participants are on conventional platform. The remaining 131 errors were made on online platform. In addition, 274 of the total errors made are grammatical, while 92 are lexical errors. We can take this into account and make the following comment; similar

results were seen for the third tasks. Online platform has produced fewer errors than conventional platform.

4.3.1. Post-feedback Errors across Conventional Tasks

Table 15 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between the three online composed texts in the total number of errors after feedback?'.

Table 15

Comparison of the Total Number of Post-feedback Errors on Conventional Platform

Source of Variance	**Sum of squares**	**df**	**Mean square**	**F**	**p**	**Sig***
Between Subjects	754,667	49	15,401			**1,2>3**
Measure	65,160	2	32,580	13,08	**0,000**	
Error	244,173	98	2,492			
Total	1064,000	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 15, a significant difference was found between the total error numbers of Task1, Task2, and Task3 after feedback on conventional platform ($F = 13.08$; $p < 0.05$). According to the Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison results, the total number of errors of Task3 (7.84 ± 2.02) is significantly lower than the total number of errors of Task1 (6.26 ± 3.43) and Task2 (8.50 ± 3.04) after feedback on conventional platform.

4.3.2. Post-feedback Errors across Online Tasks

Table 16 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between the three online composed texts in the total number of errors after feedback?'

Table 16

Comparison of the Total Number of Post-feedback Errors on Online Platform

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p	Sig*
Between subjects	333,393	49	6,804			**1,2>3**
Measure	136,480	2	68,240	28,56	0,000	**2>3**
Error	234,187	98	2,390			
Total	704,060	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 16, there was a significant difference between the total error numbers of Task1, Task2. and Task3 after feedback on online platform ($F = 28.56$; $p < 0.05$). According to the Bonferroni multiple comparison correction test results which were made in order to determine which measurements show the difference, the total error number of Task3 (2.62 ± 1.34) is significantly lower than the total number of errors found in Task1 (4.94 ± 2.40) and Task2 ($4.02 \pm 2,00$). It was also found that the total number of Task3 errors (2.62 ± 1.34) was significantly lower than the total number of Task2 errors (4.02 ± 2.00).

4.4. Conventional Errors across Tasks

Table 17 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between three texts in the number of grammatical errors occurring in the texts written on online platform?'.

Table 17

Comparison of the Total Number of Grammatical Errors on Conventional Platform

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Sig*
Between Subjects	3022,240	49	61,678			**1>3**
Measure	74,333	2	37,167	7,87	**0,001**	
Error	463,000	98	4,724			
Total	3559,573	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 17, significant differences were found between the grammatical error numbers of Task1, Task2 and Task3 on conventional platform ($F = 7.87$; $p < 0.05$). According to the Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison results, the

number of Task3 grammatical errors (9,12 ± 3,15) was significantly lower than the number of Task1 grammatical errors (10,82 ± 5,91) on conventional platform.

Table 18 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between three texts in the number of lexical errors occurring in the texts written on conventional platform?'

Table 18

Comparison of the Total Number of Lexical Errors on Conventional Platform

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Sig*
Between Subjects	322,667	49	6,585			**1,2>3**
Measure	28,120	2	14,060	9,76	**0,000**	
Error	141,213	98	1,441			
Total	492,000	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 18, a significant difference was found between the lexical error numbers of Task1, Task2 and Task3 on conventional platform ($F = 9.76$; $p < 0.05$). According to the Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison results, the number of Task3 lexical errors (3, 42 ± 1, 69) is significantly lower than the number of lexical errors of Task1 (4, 46 ± 1, 89) and Task2 (4, 12 ± 1, 74) on conventional platform.

4.5. Online Errors across Tasks

Table 19 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between three texts in the number of grammatical errors occurring in the texts written on online platform?'.

Table 19

Comparison of the Total Number of Grammatical Errors on Online Platform

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	p	Sig*
Between Subjects	1084,560	49	22,134			**1,2>3**
Measure	282,720	2	141,360	26,17	**0,000**	
Error	529,280	98	5,401			
Total	1896,560	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 19, a significant difference was found between Task1, Task2 and, Task3 grammatical error numbers on online platform ($F = 26.17$; $p < 0.05$). According to the Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison results which were used to determine the difference between the measurements, Task3 grammatical error number (6.48 ± 0.32) is significantly lower than Task1 (9.72 ± 0.60) and Task2 (8.88 ± 0.45) grammatical errors on online platform. Below we present grammatically idiosyncratic sample sentences (where 'S' stands for sentence) as they occurred in the participants' written tasks:

S1: *It was difficult* **in** *the first times but I understood this situation's value. (prep.)*

S2: *I had a very important event* **for** *my high school life. (prep.)*

S3: *Finally, we are studying ^ different cities, but we can meet in our hometown. (missing word)*

S4: *When I was* **a** *eleven, I was going to my dad's store. (article)*

S5: *When I came to home my mom cried and* **hug** *me. (tense)*

S6: *It really changed my* **live** *because I decided to took an exam. (wf)*

S7: *Mother is very important for every people so I know my mother's* **extremely value.** *(WO)*

S8: ***I've won two you learned before college.*** *(incomprehensible sentence)*

S9: *My father* **is**, *but my mother did not like school because the school was far from cities. (tense)*

Table 20 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test for repeated measures to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference between three texts in the number of lexical errors occurring in the texts written on online platform?'.

Table 20

Comparison of the Total Number of Lexical Errors on Online Platform

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Sig*
Between Subjects	311,493	49	6,357			**1>3**
Measure	19,240	2	9,620	4,11	**0,019**	
Error	229,427	98	2,341			
Total	560,160	149				

*Bonferroni correction multiple comparison

According to the results in Table 20, there was a significant difference between the lexical error numbers of Task1, Task2 and Task3 on online platform ($F = 4.11$; $p < 0.05$). According to Bonferroni corrected multiple comparison results, the number of Task3 lexical errors (2.46 ± 0.24) on online platform was significantly lower than the number of Task1 lexical errors (3.32 ± 0.28). Below we present lexically idiosyncratic sample sentences (where 'S' stands for sentence) as they occurred in the participants' written tasks:

S10: *When my nephew was* **burn***, ı'm very happy because this is first nephew.* (ww)

S11: *My mother prayed for me after I* **entered** *the exam. (ww)*

S12: *I passed the exam and I* **won** *University. (ww)*

S13: *He* **enjured** *your* **leck**. (spelling)

4.6. Comparison of the First and the Final Drafts of the Tasks

In this part, all the errors for each task's first drafts and second drafts were given in tables. In these tables, the raw frequency of errors without any further analysis was provided in order to show their rate.

Table 21 shows the comparison of the error correction rate for online corrective feedback and conventional corrective feedback for the first tasks.

Table 21

*Comparison of the Error Correction Rate for Conventional Corrective Feedback and Online Corrective Feedback for the First Task*s

	Grammatical				**Lexical**			
	CCF		**OCF**		**CCF**		**OCF**	
	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)
Draft 1	59.5	322	62.1	302	57.9	129	62	103
Draft 2	40.5	219	37.9	184	42.1	94	38	63

CCF = Conventional Corrective Feedback; OCF = Online Corrective Feedback

Table 21 shows the comparison of errors committed by the students on online and conventional platforms. All of the students were asked to perform three writing tasks on both platforms online and conventional. Students were given conventional corrective feedback for the tasks that they performed on conventional platform while they were given online corrective feedback for the tasks that they performed on online platform. The results show that participants showed improvement on both platforms after corrective feedbacks were given. Participants performed better when they were given online corrective feedback. However, they showed better performance with a decreased number of errors between Draft 1 and Draft 2 compared to the performance results of conventional writing.

Table 22 below presents the comparison of the error correction rate for conventional corrective feedback and online corrective feedback for the second tasks.

Table 22

*Comparison of the Error Correction Rate for Conventional Corrective Feedback and Online Corrective Feedback for the Second Task*s

	Grammatical				**Lexical**			
	CCF		**OCF**		**CCF**		**OCF**	
	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)
Draft 1	60	307	64.3	290	57.3	118	70.8	97
Draft 2	40	204	35.7	161	42.7	88	29.2	40

CCF = Conventional Corrective Feedback; OCF = Online Corrective Feedback

Table 22 shows the comparison of errors committed by the participants on conventional and online platforms. The results indicate that participants displayed improvement on both platforms after corrective feedbacks were given. Participants

performed better when they were given online corrective feedback. However, they displayed better performance on online writing with a decreased number of errors between Draft 1 and Draft 2 compared to the performance results of the conventional writing. In addition to that, students showed better performance for both tasks on both platforms compared to first writing tasks.

Table 23 below presents the comparison of the error correction rate for conventional corrective feedback and online corrective feedback for the third tasks.

Table 23

*Comparison of the Error Correction Rate for Conventional Corrective Feedback and Online Corrective Feedback for the Third Task*s

	Grammatical				**Lexical**			
	CCF		**OCF**		**CCF**		**OCF**	
	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)
Draft 1	62	283	72.7	269	63.7	109	75.6	93
Draft 2	38	173	27.3	101	36.3	62	24.4	30

CCF = Conventional Corrective Feedback; OCF = Online Corrective Feedback

Table 23 shows the comparison of errors committed by the students on conventional platform and online platform. The results show that both platforms showed improvement after corrective feedbacks were given. The task written on online platform with corrective feedback showed better performance with a decreased number of errors between Draft 1 and Draft 2 compared to the performance of the conventional writings. Participants showed the greatest improvement in writing tasks, especially on online platform grammatically.

4.6.1. Comparison of the First and the Final Drafts of the Conventional Tasks

This section will examine how the numbers of errors from the writing performances exhibited by the participants have changed from the first through the second drafts.

Table 24 presents the paired t-test results to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference (decrease) in the total number of errors pre and post-feedback of the texts written on conventional platform?'

Table 24

Comparison of Conventional Tasks' Pre-Feedback and Post-Feedback Error Numbers

Task	Test	n	$\underline{X}_1 - \underline{X}_2$	$SS_1 - SS_1$	$SH_1 - SH_1$	t	p
1	First draft	50	2,76	1,00	0,14	19,49	**0,000**
	Second draft	50					
2	First draft	50	2,66	1,41	0,20	13,35	**0,000**
	Second draft	50					
3	First draft	50	3,14	1,12	0,16	19,73	**0,000**
	Second draft	50					

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task1 on conventional platform (t = 19.49; p <0.05). On conventional platform, the total number of errors of Task1 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 2.76 ± 1.00).

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task2 on conventional platform (t = 13.35; p <0.05). On conventional platform, the total number of errors of Task2 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 2.66 ± 1.41).

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task3 on conventional platform (t = 19.75; p <0.05). On conventional platform, the total number of errors of Task3 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 3.14 ± 1.12).

4.6.2. Comparison of the First and the Final Drafts of the Online Tasks

This section will examine how the numbers of errors from the writing performances exhibited by the participants have changed from the first through the second drafts.

Table 25 presents the paired t-test results to find the answer to the question 'Is there a significant difference (decrease) in the total number of errors pre and post-feedback of the texts written on online platform?

Table 25

Comparison of Online Tasks' Pre-Feedback and Post-Feedback Error Numbers

Task	Test	n	$\underline{X}_1 - \underline{X}_2$	$SS_1 - SS_1$	$SH_1 - SH_1$	t	p
1	First draft Second draft	50 50	3,16	1,40	0,20	15,90	**0,000**
2	First draft Second draft	50 50	3,58	1,51	0,21	16,73	**0,000**
3	First draft Second draft	50 50	3,70	1,63	0,23	16,03	**0,000**

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task1 on online platform (t = 15.90; p <0.05). On online platform, the total number of errors of Task1 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 3.16 ± 1.40).

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task2 on online platform (t = 16.73; p <0.05). On conventional platform, the total number of errors of Task2 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 3.58 ± 1.51).

Significant differences were found between the total number of pre-feedback and post-feedback errors of Task3 on online platform (t = 16.03; p <0.05). On conventional platform, the total number of errors of Task3 decreased significantly after feedback. (Difference = 3.70 ± 1.63).

4.7. Comparison of the Online and Conventional Writing Platforms

Table 26 presents the results of independent samples t-tests to find the answer to the question “Does the total number of errors occurring in the texts written on both platforms show a significant difference between the platforms?”

Table 26

Error Numbers across Platforms

Task	Platform	n	$\underline{X}_1 - \underline{X}_2$	$SH_1 - SH_1$	t	p
1	Conventional Online	50 50	2,24	1,15	1,94	0,055
2	Conventional Online	50 50	2,72	0,99	2,73	**0,007**
3	Conventional Online	50 50	3,60	0,63	5,73	**0,000**

According to the results in Table 26, no statistically significant difference was found between the total number of Task1 of conventional and online platforms (p> 0.05). According to the results in Table 26, it was found that there was a statistically significant difference between the total number of Task2 of conventional and online platforms (t = 2.73; p <0.05). The total number of Task2 on conventional platform was significantly higher than the total number of Task2 on online platform (Difference = 2.72 ± 0.99). According to the results in Table 26, a statistically significant difference was found between the total number of Task3 of conventional and online platforms (t = 5.73; p <0.05). The total number of Tasks3 on conventional platform was significantly higher than the total number of Tasks3 on online platform (Difference = 3.60 ± 0.63).

4.8. Participants' Preferences on Feedback Types

The informal interviews supported the views that the participants were more interested in receiving online corrective feedback via e-mail. It has been found that 80% of the participants preferred receiving online corrective feedback. The results of the interview can be seen in Table 27 below, followed by related statements of participants.

Table 27

Reasons for Preference of Online Writing

Reasons	Percentage (%)
Do not have to rewrite the whole essay for corrections	68
Easier to submit and get feedback	64
Time saving	46
Easier to use	44
Assignments will not get lost but be saved in the email	22
Cheaper	14

Some excerpts from participants' views regarding their preferences of online feedback are illustrated below:

1. Student 1: *We can make the necessary edits on the file that our teacher sends us via e-mail. I think it is an advantage not to have to rewrite everything.*

As also can be seen in the table, for students, the most important advantage of writing online is that they do not have to rewrite the text from start to finish.

2. Student 2: *I can do what my teacher wants from me on my phone. Since my phone is always with me, I can get feedback everywhere and send my writing to my teacher.*

3. Student 3*: I use my phone not only for fun but also for education. It makes me happy. I also don't have to wait or go to school to hand in my writing.*

Considering that many university students have smartphones and use their smartphones effectively, it is usual for students to have a positive opinion about receiving feedback or sending texts through the Internet.

4. Student 4: *I lost my homework a few times in high school, and I could not submit them. Deleting a mail by mistake is unlikely.*

Although this is not the point that participants think is the most important, some of them emphasize that their homework is kept more safely and easily.

To facilitate the research, the participants were asked the reasons why they preferred receiving online corrective feedback. Sixty-four percent of the participants stated that they found it easier to submit and get feedback using this method. Forty-six percentage stated that the online corrective feedback was easier to use, and it was time-saving. Another Sixty-eight percent stated that the reason why they preferred online corrective feedback was that they did not have to rewrite the whole essay for corrections. Twenty-two percent of the participants agreed that the assignments will not get lost and will be saved in their emails. Only a small percentage (14%) agreed that this approach was cheaper than using the conventional corrective feedback method.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter represents our discussion and conclusions regarding the findings of the study and provides answers to the research questions posed in the Introduction Chapter. Firstly, we will approach each research question integrating the findings in the previous chapter and will discuss these findings with related literature. Secondly, certain suggestions for further research will be made.

5.2. Evaluation of the Research Questions

The current dissertation aimed to investigate the effectiveness of different feedback types such as conventional corrective feedback (CCF) and online corrective feedback (OCF). Besides that, participants' writing performance and progress were observed on both conventional and online platforms. In order to reveal a potential impact, error correction rates of participants were also investigated. Therefore, this study sought responses to three research questions, each to be dealt with below.

Research Question 1:

Do errors made by participants display variation in terms of nature in texts composed on conventional and online platform?

The technology that directs our lives inevitably shows the same effect in the field of education when used efficiently. The number of studies on how technology can be used and how effective it can be used in ESL writing classes is increasing. Gilmore (2008) conducted one of these studies with the participation of Japanese University Students. In his study, he concluded that the texts written by students using online facilities became more natural in a short time, and students found the practice of online writing useful. In our study, since it was seen that the total number of errors was lower when assigned tasks were written online, we can state that the results of our study can correlate with what was discovered by Gilmore (2008). The difference we observed

between writing tasks written on conventional and online platform has not only changed numerically but also in terms of nature. Considering the number and frequency of errors, lexical errors on online platform were observed to be noticeably less than the errors on conventional platform.

The majority of universities in Turkey offer an intensive English education through preparatory programs. In an English Preparatory Program, there is a considerable amount of hours spent to improve students' writing skills. However, among these opportunities, there is a serious problem in providing students with the opportunity to interact with English outside the classroom environment. According to Jepsen (2005), providing students with opportunities outside of school not only allows them to learn the target language but also socialize. There are many studies showing the importance of social interaction in foreign language learning (Hall and Verplaetse 2000), (Lantolf 2000), (Long 1983), and (Pica 1994). It is therefore important that students engage in such online interaction with a partner or a teacher. One of the biggest fears of students learning foreign languages is that they make mistakes and think that they will be humiliated while speaking or writing in the target language. Online interaction tools eliminate these fears and make speaking and especially writing in the target language more enjoyable for students (Dekhinet, 2008). According to Tuzi (1995), e-feedback gives students more freedom than any other type of feedback can. In our findings, as in the studies mentioned above, online writing and online feedback facilities were positively welcomed by students and had favorable effects on writing performance. In our study, based on the analysis of the number of errors, and based on the participants' opinions, we can make the following comments: online writing and online corrective feedback were more successful and preferred by the students.

Research Question 2:

Do errors made by participants display variation in terms of rate in texts composed online and conventional platform?

There may be many reasons for the errors observed in the products that students emerge at the end of the writing process (Erkaya, 2012). According to Corder (1967), L1 interference is not the only reason for students' mistakes, but it is the most common cause. Corder (1967) states that many researchers from different countries (Kırkgöz, 2010; Lee, 2004; Masangya & Lozada, 2009; Mousavi & Kashefian-Naeeini, 2011) have conducted researches to investigate what types of errors students make when they

compose texts in the target language. Al-Khasawneh (2010) conducted a study to reveal the problems that students face while composing a text or practising their writing skills. According to Al-Khasawneh (2010), some students stated that it is a problem that they did not practice writing sufficiently. Some students claimed that their teachers were inexperienced. In addition to such criticism, students also mentioned the lack of an environment to motivate them. As can be understood from the mentioned studies, the types and causes of errors seen in the texts written by students have been investigated by some researchers. In our study, it was investigated whether the errors made differed in number in different writing platforms. As Li (2000) pointed out in one study, there was no study comparing students' performance in the computer or internet-based writing environments with traditional writing environments. Unfortunately, this lack of research remains mostly valid. In our study, there are some findings that can remedy this lack of research to a certain extent. By checking the error numbers, emerged on two different platforms (conventional and online), the effect of the platform on which they show their writing skills has been discussed.

By looking at the data obtained from the research, there is no significant difference in the number of errors seen in writing tasks written by the participants on two different platforms. However, it is observed that the total number of errors in writing tasks written on online platform is less in number for all three tasks.

When the error types are not categorized as grammatical and lexical, no significant difference was found in the total number of errors for Task1 written on both platforms ($p>0,05$). It cannot be said that there is a difference in the total number of errors between online writing, which is a new medium for the participant students and the conventional writing for the first tasks. However, when the same process and method were repeated with a new task for both platforms, a statistically significant difference was found between the texts written in conventional and online platforms in terms of the total number of errors ($t = 2.73$; $p <0.05$). The number of errors in the texts written on conventional platform is significantly higher than the number of errors in the texts written on online platform (Difference = 2.72 ± 0.99). Finally, for the third and last task for each platform the same process and method were repeated with a new task and a statistically significant difference was found between the texts written on conventional and online platforms in terms of the total number of errors ($t = 5.73$; $p <0.05$). The number of errors in the texts written on conventional platform is significantly higher than the number of errors in the texts written on online platform

(Difference = 3.60 ± 0.63).

Research Question 3:

To what extent do corrective online feedback and conventional feedback have an impact on participants' performance of writing in terms of tense usage, employment of function words, and choice of lexical items?

While the need to spend hours to give feedback to students' texts continues to be discussed, this section discusses which type of feedback is more effective. In our study, these types of feedback include conventional corrective feedback and online corrective feedback

According to Dekhinet (2008), online corrective feedback is worth researching. The basis of her claim is the freedom and flexibility that online feedback gives students. Also, in our study, a significant number of students who expressed their opinions in an informal interview emphasized the flexibility that online feedback provides. Flexibility and freedom are not the only pluses of online feedback. According to some researches on computer-assisted education, it provides students with the opportunity to participate equally (Kern, 1995). Besides, since it does not create a competitive environment, it enables students who are adversely affected by the competitive environment to perform more comfortably and effectively (Kitade, 2000).

Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) argues that error correction in ESL write classes is useless or even harmful. In a study comparing different types of feedback, Koolivand and Iravani (2013) found that students who received electronic corrective feedback composed more successful texts than those who received traditional feedback. In another study comparing different types of feedback, electronic feedback was found to be more effective than traditional feedback (Farshi and Safa, 2015). However, in our study, it was observed that both feedback provided by two different methods significantly reduced the number of errors in the texts written by the participants. This means that there is a considerable difference between platforms of feedback provision when it comes to the treatment of participants' idiosyncratic language elements. Writing tasks, which were treated with online corrective feedback, were found to be loaded with less erroneous language compared to those which were carried out on conventional platform. In another study conducted by Tuzi (2004) on e-feedback, similar to our study, e-feedback was found to be more successful in improving students' writing performance. When we look at the data obtained from the study, although there

are fewer errors in Task 1 online platform, there was no statistically significant difference between Task 1 written on conventional platform and Task 1 written on online platform ($p > 0.05$). This has changed in favor of the online platform for Task 2 and Task 3. The number of errors seen in Task 2 ($t = 2.73$; $p < 0.05$) and Task 3 ($t = 5.73$; $p < 0.05$) is less in the texts written on online platform and this difference is statistically significant.

5.3. Conclusion

This study was conducted to compare the effects of different types of feedback provided to students and the performance of texts written on different platforms. In the first drafts of the texts written on different platforms, no difference was observed in the number of errors. The reason for this may stem from the fact that the participants may not have been familiar with online platform. However, it was seen that the participants made fewer mistakes in the texts they wrote on online platform later on, and they were more successful in correcting the texts they wrote in line with the feedback they received on an online platform. When the students were asked which type of feedback they preferred, it was seen that online feedback was preferred over conventional feedback. The fact that the participants had access to the text they wrote or the feedback they received at any time with no limitation may have been decisive in determining their preference. Writing is considered a time-consuming process by many students and teachers. At this point, online feedback, which is thought to be more practical, as participant students stated, can be used to make the writing process more effective.

In the informal interview with the students, the students also mentioned some of the challenges of traditional feedback and traditional writing in the classroom. Some students who have received traditional feedback before have stated that they had difficulty in reading their teachers' handwriting and that it was a stressful process for them to write a text within a limited time in the classroom.

5.4. Implications of the Study

According to the findings of this study, online feedback, which is found to be more student-centered, should be used more widely in writing courses in line with the developing and expanding technology. Nowadays, students attach great importance to technological devices and the Internet. It is possible and important to use this situation

in foreign language teaching. Institutions must provide technological support for the use of technology and the Internet in the development of writing skills. For this support to be meaningful, teachers should take responsibility and introduce technology to their classrooms.

5.5. Suggestion for Further Studies

In the context of this study, the experiences of students with the same level of foreign language knowledge from a particular school were included. The participants were university students of similar ages. As for further research, we recommend that students, with a greater number, at different ages with different foreign language knowledge, should be included.

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APENDICES

APPENDIX I. Error Correction Codes

CORRECTION SYMBOLS & ABBREVIATIONS for WRITING

Symbol	Explanation	Example	Correction	Notes
A	Article needed	I bought ∇ car last week, but I couldn't start ∇ engine today. I think I should sell a car back. A A	I bought a car last week, but I couldn't start the engine today. I think I should sell the car back.	.....
Prep.	Preposition needed	You should take the children ∇ school tomorrow because I will be ∇ a business trip. Prep. Prep.	You should take the children to school tomorrow because I will be on a business trip.	.....
S	Subject needed	Alex cleaned his room. Then, ∇ went shopping. S	Alex cleaned his room. Then, he went shopping.	.....
V	Verb needed	The chickens ∇ in the garden.	The chickens are in the garden.	.....
Aux. V.	Auxiliary Verb needed	Switch off the radio, please. You sister ∇ working for an exam. Aux. V.	Switch off the radio, please. You sister is working for an exam.	.....
Mod.	Modal Verb needed	I studied for weeks but I didn't pass the exam. Mod.	I studied for weeks but I couldn't pass the exam.	.....
O	Object needed	My father doesn't like pop music, but I listen to ∇ everyday. O	My father doesn't like pop music, but I listen to it everyday.	.....
Poss.	Possession needed	He uncle name is Obama and he is the president ∇ the USA. Poss Poss Poss	His uncle's name is Obama and he is the president of the USA.	.....
Trans.	Transition needed	College students can work part-time. ∇ They can be waiters or shop assistants. Trans.	College students can work part-time. For example they can be waiters or shop assistants.	.....
Conj.	Conjunction needed	Jessica and I prepared the table ∇ Clara ∇ Mary were cooking the dishes. Conj Conj	Jessica and I prepared the table while Clara and Mary were cooking the dishes.	.....
Cl	Capitalization mistake	I went to LONDON last friday and Visited a lot of museums. Cl Cl Cl	I went to London last Friday and visited a lot of museums.	.....
SP	Spelling mistake	You shoudn't eat fast food much. SP	You shouldn't eat fast food much.	.....
Voc.	Wrong Vocabulary Item	My mother got angry with me yesterday. I need to promise from her. Voc.	My mother got angry with me yesterday. I need to apologize from her.	.....

CORRECTION SYMBOLS & ABBREVIATIONS for WRITING

Symbol	Explanation	Example	Correction	Notes
WF	Wrong Word Form	Pink is my singer favourite. So, I got very **exciting** when I saw her at the concert. (WF)	Pink is my favourite singer. So, I got very **excited** when I saw her at the concert.	.....
WO	Wrong Word Order	Pink is **my singer favourite**. So, I got very excited when I saw **at the concert her.** (WO) (WO)	Pink is **my favourite singer**. So, I got very excited when I saw **her at the concert.**	.....
Agr.	No Agreement between two words (subject-verb or quantifier-noun)	She **want** to buy **a chocolate** and **two sandwich.** (Agr.) (Agr.) (Agr.)	She **wants** to buy **a bar of** chocolate and two **sandwiches.**	.....
Tns	Wrong Tense use	They **work** in that factory two years ago. (Tns)	They **worked** in that factory two years ago.	.....
Punc.	Punctuation needed / punctuation mistake	She asked me: Why don't you help me wash the dishes? (Punc.) (Punc.)	She asked me, "Why don't you help me wash the dishes?"	.....
PL	Plural-Singular misuse	I bought five loaves of **breads**, an **oranges** and two **banana**. (PL) (PL) (PL)	I bought five loaves of **bread**, an **orange** and two **bananas.**	.....
(...)	Not needed word(s)	Gina told **(to)** me, "I like **(to)** pop music."	Gina **told me**, "I **like pop** music."	.....
Rep.	Repetition	I didn't take my mobile with me because **my mobile** was broken. (Rep.)	I didn't take my mobile with me because **it** was broken.	.....
→←	Connect the words / sentences	**Every one** needs good friends. Because friends can help you when you need. (→←) (→←)	**Everyone** needs good **friends because** friends can help you when you need.	.....
???	Unintelligable word / Sentence	**She colled he to next yesterday. Why you help het asked?** (???)	**Yesterday she called and asked him, "Why don't you help me?"** (maybe ☺)	.....
Coll	Colloquial (Spoken) English use	**I dun wanna come with u.** (Coll.)	**I don't want to come with you.**	.....
Turk.	Turkish way of saying sth	It **comes to ear** fun. (Turk.)	It **sounds** fun.	.....

APPENDIX II. Assigned Writing Task One

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Topic: Is compulsory school attendance necessary?

Prompting Questions

- Would you attend courses if they were not compulsory? Why?
- How much time do you spend at school?
- Is it good to be at school all day long?
- (min 75 words)

APPENDIX III. Assigned Writing Task Two

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Topic: Is animal testing necessary?

Sometimes people use animals to test their product. Especially in the field of medicine, they use animals. What do you think about it?

(Min. 75 words)

APPENDIX IV. Assigned Writing Task Three

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Topic: Is the death penalty effective?

In some countries, people are executed because of their bad actions. Some people say you cannot take other people's right to live. What do you think about it?

(Min. 75 words)

APPENDIX V. Writing Task One – Sample Student Paragraph

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Task 1

Topic: Is compulsory school attandence necessary?

Prompting Questions

- Would you attend courses if they were not compulsory? Why?
- How much time do you spend at school?
- Is it good to be at school all day long?
- (min 75 words)

In my opinion don't compulsory school attendence necessary. Students come for compulsory school attendence. But they are reside body class. Students don't to listen teacher. Is not the purpose transfer information? Students found in class but teachers can not reach its goal. Obligation isn't to arouse desine some students. Students should be free to attend school. Students who want to listen will come already. Both teachers and students are ease to attend school.

APPENDIX VI. Writing Task Two – Sample Student Paragraph

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Task 2

Topic: Is animal testing necessary?

Sometimes people use animals to test their product. Especially in the field of medicine, they use animals. What do you think about it?

(Min 75 words)

If you need to think rationally, the aim of the animal creation facilitate life people.Of course experiments because of the animals kill or mutilated are not good but try to do is to advencer the scientific field on the necessary.This experiment is under construction on animals because experiments can not be made on people.Experiment should made whatever happens.

APPENDIX VII. Writing Task Three – Sample Student Paragraph

Name:

Surname:

Department:

Topic: Is the death penalty effective?

In some countries, people are executed because of their bad actions. Some people say you cannot take other people's right to live. What do you think about it?

(Min. 75 words)

The death penalty should be I think it is efficient . This criminal is a very old execution. I want continue yet because some crimes is deserves the death penalty. The death penalty if people refrain from committing crimes. People become aware of crimes. There fore people show care to crime. They are afraid of committing a crimes. So decreases the crime rate. Public order provided. People live in comfortable.

APPENDIX VIII. Sample Student Paragraph (Feedback Provided)

Task 3

Topic : Is the death penalty effective?

In some countries people are executed because of their bad actions. Some people say you can not take other people's right to live. What do you think about it?

İt is the effect of the death penalty ^ and it is **apractive** that should be

CL. Punc. ???

appield. **İt** is implemented in many countries^and **tukey sould** also apply

SP CL. Punc. SP/CL SP

the **deah** penalty, when we look at where we are now is because **the**

SP

sample is more these examples etc, events.^Should only be used in my

??? S

applicastions need apply the death penalty is a short sample next to

???

them kısas. **Kısas ottoman empire is a method used to at the time.**

WO

^ Ottoman empire time any events ^ not with impunity. **Terorıst, thief**

Prep. V

attacks despite apply. Penalties that nowadays it is not **enought** for this

?? SP

events.

APPENDIX IX. Sample Student Paragraph (Revised)

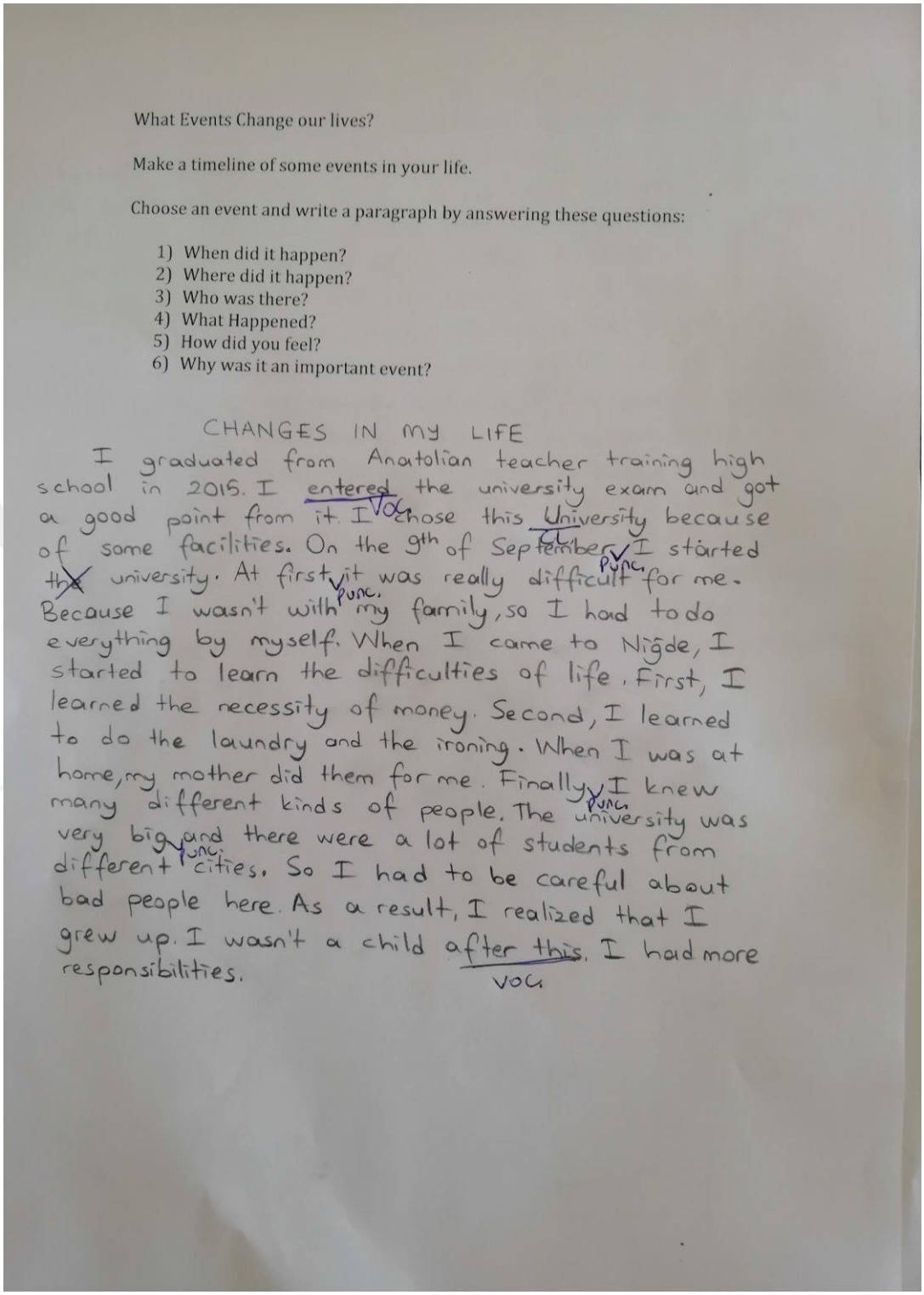
Task 3

Topic : Is the death penalty effective?

In some countries people are executed because of their bad actions. Some people say you can not take other people's right to live. What do you think about it?

It is the effect of the death penalty, and it is apractive that should be applied.It is implemented in many countries and Turkey should also apply the dead penalty, when we look at where we are now is because the these sample is examples etc, events. You Should only be used in my applicastions need apply the death penalty is a short sample next to them kısas. Kısas is a method used to at the time ottoman empire. Ottoman empire time any events was not with impunity. Terorıst, thief attacks despite apply. Penalties that nowadays it is not enough for this events.

APPENDIX X. Sample Student Paragraph (Feedback Provided)



What Events Change our lives?

Make a timeline of some events in your life.

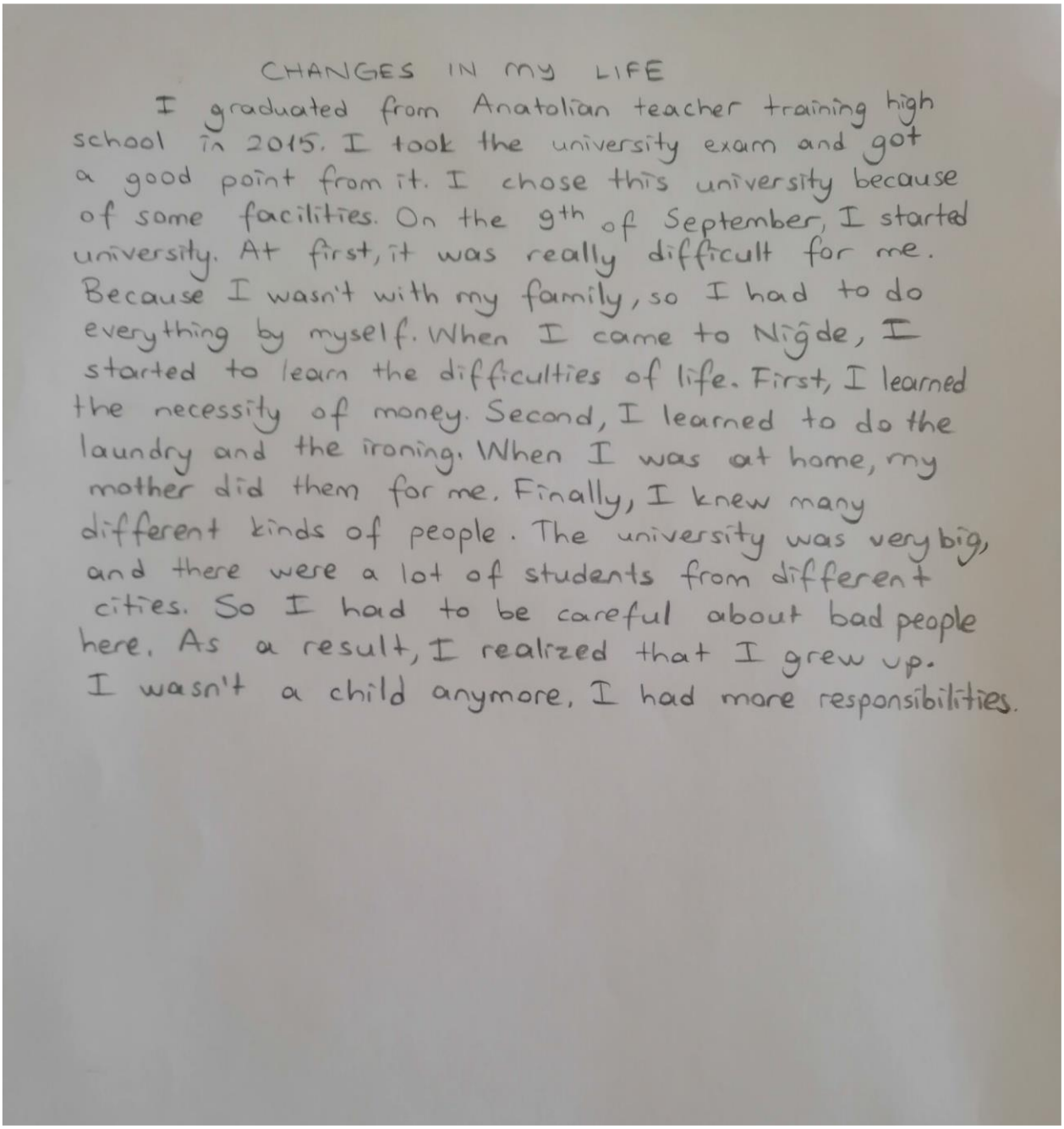
Choose an event and write a paragraph by answering these questions:

1) When did it happen?
2) Where did it happen?
3) Who was there?
4) What Happened?
5) How did you feel?
6) Why was it an important event?

CHANGES IN MY LIFE

I graduated from Anatolian teacher training high school in 2015. I entered the university exam and got a good point from it. I chose this University because of some facilities. On the 9th of September, I started the university. At first it was really difficult for me. Because I wasn't with my family, so I had to do everything by myself. When I came to Niğde, I started to learn the difficulties of life. First, I learned the necessity of money. Second, I learned to do the laundry and the ironing. When I was at home, my mother did them for me. Finally, I knew many different kinds of people. The university was very big and there were a lot of students from different cities. So I had to be careful about bad people here. As a result, I realized that I grew up. I wasn't a child after this. I had more responsibilities.

APPENDIX XI. Sample Student Paragraph (Revised)



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CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DETAILS

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EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

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2003 - 2007: Anatolian Teacher High School, Niğde, Turkey

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

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