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İkinci dilde akademik yazmada etkili dönüt sağlama / R. Ruegg (161-178. s.)

Providing effective feedback on L2 academic writing[1]

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Abstract

Different articles give different suggestions about how to provide effective feedback on L2 student writing. However, context is an important factor influencing research results. The suggestions in research articles may not be effective when taken out of the context of the article. The purpose of this article is to provide an overview of a wide range of feedback practices that can be effectively used with L2 learners to promote learning, based on a review of literature. As context is such an important factor, in this article suggestions will be organized based on the purpose of the class for which the writing is undertaken and the purpose of the feedback. In particular, suggestions will be made in terms of the focus of feedback, medium of feedback delivery, level of explicitness, amount of feedback and source of feedback. Finally, specific suggestions will be summarized for each stage of L2 writing learning, limitations of the article and suggestions for further empirical research will be made.

Key words: Feedback, L2 writing, academic writing, literature review.

İkinci dilde akademik yazmada etkili dönüt sağlama

Öz

Öğrencilerin ikinci dilde yazmalarına nasıl etkili dönüt sağlanabileceğine dair farklı makalelerde farklı öneriler bulunmaktadır. Ancak bağlam, araştırma sonuçlarını etkileyen önemli bir unsurdur. Makalelerdeki öneriler, makalenin bağlamından soyutlandığında etkili olmayabilir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, alan yazın taramasına bağlı olarak, ikinci dil öğrenenlerin öğrenmelerini geliştirmek amacıyla etkili bir şekilde kullanılabilecek geniş çaplı dönüt uygulamalarının bir taramasını yapmaktır. Bağlam önemli bir unsur olduğu için, bu çalışmadaki öneriler yazmanın öğrenildiği dersin ve dönütün amacına bağlı olarak düzenlenecektir. Öneriler özellikle dönütün odak noktasına, dönüt verme yoluna, direk dönüt seviyesine, dönüt miktarına ve dönütün kaynağına göre verilecektir. Son olarak, yabancı dilde yazmayı öğrenmenin her bir safhası için öneriler özetlenecektir ve makalenin sınırlılıklarının yanı sıra daha ileri deneysel araştırmalar için öneriler yapılacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Dönüt, ikinci dilde yazma, akademik yazma, alan yazın taraması.

1.0. Introduction

Research shows that receiving feedback on writing has a significant effect on students' academic growth. Chickering and Gamson (1987) identified seven important principles of good practice in undergraduate education, and one of those seven principles was giving prompt feedback to students. Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges and Hayek (2005) conducted a review of literature in order to identify 15 conditions

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that matter to student success. One of those 15 conditions was students receiving timely feedback on their work. Astin (1993) surveyed nearly 500,000 university students in the United States and found that receiving feedback on writing had a positive effect on general knowledge, knowledge in their field or discipline, critical thinking ability, analytical and problem-solving skills, writing ability and level of preparation for graduate school. Astin (1993) concludes that finding ways to encourage the provision of feedback on writing will substantially increase learning All of these studies consider tertiary educational broadly and all identify feedback as one of the most important factors contributing to educational quality.

As academic writing is a skill, it is best learnt through opportunities to practice and receive feedback on that practice. This approach was used in the traditional 'product approach' to writing, where students would practice writing and then receive feedback on that writing. It was hoped that the feedback would contribute to better performance in subsequent writing tasks. The same idea is also applied to the 'process approach' to writing, except that students receive feedback on drafts in order to achieve better performance on the subsequent draft of the same writing task rather than receiving feedback on a final draft with no opportunity to resubmit the writing.
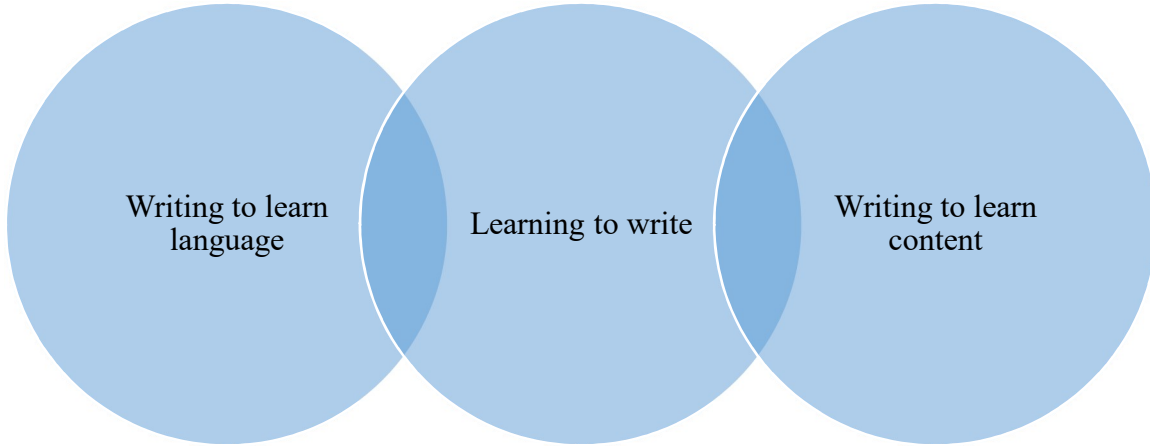
Different articles give different suggestions about how to provide effective feedback on L2 student writing. However, context is an important factor influencing research results. The suggestions in research articles may not be effective when taken out of the context of the article. The purpose of this article is to provide an overview of a wide range of feedback practices that can be effectively used with L2 learners to promote learning, based on a review of literature. As context is such an important factor, in this article suggestions will be organized based on the purpose of the class for which the writing is undertaken and the purpose of the feedback.

2.0. Key considerations when providing feedback

There are two key considerations, that will be important in determining what kind of feedback will be the most appropriate in a given context. The first consideration is the purpose of the class for which the assignment is written. The second one is the purpose of the feedback. These two considerations will be discussed in more detail in this section.

2.1. Purpose of the class

As stated by Leki, Cumming and Silva (2008, pg. 9), "it is counterproductive to analyse English learners' writing or language development without embedding the enquiry in the …contexts where they occur". Every student's learning journey is made up of a large number of stages. This paper will focus on the three main stages at which students write in a second language and receive feedback on that writing. Manchon (2011) discusses three stages in which students learn through writing in an additional language: Learning to Write, Writing to Learn Content and Writing to Learn Language. For the purpose of this article, I have rearranged these stages into the order in which most students go them. The three stages are shown diagrammatically in figure 1.

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Figure 1: Stages of L2 writing

In the first stage, students do not have any imminent need to communicate in the second language in the written form (Weigle, 2013). Only their teacher and their peers read the L2 writing that they do. The purpose of writing tasks in this stage is to practice and improve their language proficiency. Writing can be an effective means of demonstrating their competence in language skills such as grammar and vocabulary, as well as developing such skills through practice and feedback. It is also the easiest type of language task for a teacher to assess, as the written product is very concrete. The fact that the real purpose of the writing is to learn the language does not imply that tasks in this stage should be mechanical and devoid of meaning. Indeed, Communicative Language Teaching was developed to equip students with the ability to communicate in the language, rather than just being able to answer grammar questions or translate L2 vocabulary into the L1. Some writing tasks in the writing to learn language stage provide the opportunity for controlled practice of communicating in the written form of the language and receiving feedback on that practice. Other writing tasks provide opportunities for free practice or fluency development. A large number of students around the world never move beyond this stage of L2 writing, taking compulsory foreign language classes as a part of their tertiary education but not having any real need to communicate in the L2.

Students do not arrive at the second stage until they have reached a sufficient level of language competence. Most would agree that students should have reached at least an upper-intermediate level of language proficiency (at least B2 on the Common European Framework of Reference) before they will be ready to move on to learning to write in the L2. In the learning to write stage, students have an imminent need to be able to write effectively in the L2. The most common example is English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses in which students need to learn to produce effective academic writing before they move on to academic study in the L2. This is a stage at which learners also need to learn to write for specific purposes in their first language. Fully literate L1 adults who enter university are often required or recommended to take an academic writing course in their first year of study in order to gain the necessary skills to write for a new purpose. As stated by Hyland (2016), academic writing does not come naturally to anyone, there are no native speakers of academic discourse. Indeed, in the past ESL students who entered university in English speaking countries would take the same first year writing courses as L1 students. However, in time it has come to be realized that L2 writers have different needs and in most contexts separate classes for L1 and L2 writers now exist. Such courses offered specifically

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for L2 writers aim to teach them the features of academic genres in a range of rhetorical modes while simultaneously enhancing their communicative language competence through focus on language form.

In the final stage, rather than language learners, the learners are considered as language users. Since they usually need to reach at least the C1 level on the Common European Framework of Reference they would be considered to have enough competence in the language to use the language autonomously. For example, after having successfully completed EAP study, the learner moves on to learning content matter through the medium of language. Manchon (2011) conceptualizes the writing to learn content stage for L2 learners as mainly occurring in Content-Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) or Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) contexts. However, over the last ten years English-medium instruction (EMI) in countries where English is not the dominant language has grown rapidly. With this rapid growth in both full degree EMI programmes and ad-hoc EMI classes, EMI is perhaps the main context in which writing to learn content now occurs. Unlike Manchon (2011), I believe writing during TBLT would constitute Writing to Learn Language, and I believe that the writing that occurs in CLIL occurs at the point between the Learning to Write stage and the Writing to Learn Content stage, where the two stages overlap. On the other hand, when students enter an EMI course or programme, they move into the final stage: Writing to Learn Content. Although such learners may be competent users of the language, I will argue that they still require language-related feedback on their writing in order to prevent fossilization of persistent language errors. Which stage of L2 writing a student is at is crucial to the determination of the most effective feedback to provide, as well as the student's language proficiency level.

2.2. Purpose of the feedback

In addition to the purpose of the class the student is taking, instructors need to consider the purpose of giving feedback. This needs to be reconsidered for every task an instructor sets as different types of feedback will effectively serve different purposes. There are three main purposes which feedback can be serve: Reinforcement of classroom learning, supporting revision of writing, and supporting the development of writing skills in subsequent writing assignments.

Students cannot acquire items such as grammatical forms or vocabulary items without repetition. After coming across a grammatical form or a word or phrase in one class, it is highly unlikely that the item will be acquired by a student. Research shows that learners need to come across items anywhere from 6 to 20 times before they acquire them (Nation, 2001, pg. 81) and that there is a great deal of variability between learners in terms of the number of repetitions necessary (Tinkham, 1993). Furthermore, repeating the item again and again at the time of learning (for example, drilling the item 10 times in the classroom) is less effective than spreading out the repetitions over a longer period of time (Baddeley, 1990). Therefore, after learning a particular form, word or phrase in the classroom, learners need to come across it again and again in order to acquire it. This repetition can be gained through input or output, but ideally students should be exposed to input *and* have opportunities to practice the item through output outside of the classroom. Asking students to carry out controlled writing tasks and providing feedback on those tasks can provide reinforcement of classroom learning, creating the conditions necessary for acquisition to occur.

In the process era of writing instruction, in which students write multiple drafts of each writing task, feedback is provided on the preliminary drafts and students are expected to use the feedback to revise their writing, leading to an improved written product. The intention of such feedback is to lead to

'noticing', on the part of students, of issues in their writing (Sachs & Polio, 2007). This noticing is intended to lead to learning in the long term if it is repeated throughout a course. Ruegg (2015a) found that students who received teacher feedback on their writing 16 times over the course of a year, improved significantly in grammatical performance in a subsequent timed writing task. This provides evidence that feedback on preliminary drafts with the immediate purpose of supporting revision does also help students with their acquisition of language forms. In addition, providing feedback on preliminary drafts has a more fundamental purpose. If the students did not receive feedback they would be unlikely to revise their writing. Thus, the process approach and the provision of feedback on drafts is intended to encourage students to develop the habit of rereading, rethinking and revising what they have written. This is an important aspect of the practice of writing; there are few professionals who would write and submit a text without rereading it.

Even in the process era, students will be required to do some writing tasks which only involve submitting a single draft. An instructor in a language class or an EAP class may combine some single-draft writing assignments and some multiple draft writing assignments, each with a different purpose. Additionally, in the writing to learn content phase most instructors will only require a writing assignment to be submitted once. The assumption is not that the students will not apply a writing process, but that they will be able to do so completely autonomously. Instructors assume that students will have written, reread, rethought, revised and proof-read an assignment before they submit it for grading. In the case of single draft writing, not all students will read the feedback they receive. However, many students will read such feedback and providing feedback on such assignments is important to help students understand why they received the grade that they did as well as what they could do in future writing tasks in order to receive a better grade. This different role of feedback calls for different kinds of feedback to be provided in this situation.

3.0. Effective feedback practices

3.1. Focus of feedback

Historically, in the 'product approach' to writing, feedback usually focussed on 'error correction'. The purpose of feedback at that time was considered to be to eradicate errors from students' writing. Unsurprisingly, error correction came to be questioned as instructors felt that even though they provided large amounts of feedback on learners' errors, the learners continued to exhibit the same problems in their subsequent writing. With the move to process pedagogy, in the L1 learning to write classroom, instructors were encouraged to provide feedback on global issues such as content and organization on the first draft and then feedback on surface-level issues such as grammar and vocabulary on the second to last draft (Ferris, 2003, pg. 7). In the L2 writing context, researchers started considering whether feedback on content or language use was more effective (Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Fazio, 2001; Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992). More recently, it has been suggested that learners can effectively attend to both content and language at the same time (Raimes, 1983; Ruegg, 2015b). Moreover, a meta-analysis of research (Biber, Nekrasova & Horn, 2011) found that a combined focus on both content and language leads to greater gains than either feedback on content or feedback on language alone. It may be that providing feedback on a student's ideas demonstrates to them that we are interested in what they have to write and that our interest is enough to encourage them to make effort in the writing and revision process.

3.2. Form of feedback

There are two different aspects to take into consideration concerning the form of feedback. The first is the medium through which the feedback is conveyed. The second is the level of explicitness of the feedback (i.e. what exactly is written). These two different aspects will be discussed in this section.

3.2.1. Feedback medium

There are three different mediums through which feedback is commonly conveyed: written by hand, written in a digital form and oral feedback. These three mediums will be discussed briefly in this section before moving on to the level of explicitness.

3.2.1.1. Oral feedback

Feedback written by hand on a hard copy of an essay, which has been submitted by a student in the classroom is the conventional and by far the most popular method still today. However, oral feedback has been encouraged in the literature since the advent of the process approach. There are many different modes of oral feedback, including student-teacher conferences, and audio-recordings of oral feedback by the teacher.

Student-teacher conferences have been encouraged in the process era because they allow for two-way communication, thus encouraging the student to lead the conference and the teacher to respond. Walker and Elias (1987) found that teachers and students both find writing conferences to be more effective when they are student-led. However, holding writing conferences with students does not necessarily lead to a student-centred approach to feedback. Goldstein and Conrad (1990) found that there was a large variation in the extent to which students take control of writing conferences. Furthermore, writing conferences have been reported to be considerably time consuming for instructors. This makes them difficult to implement, especially in a context with large class sizes.

Audio-recordings of oral feedback have been recommended as early as 1989 (Moxley, 1989). Through the ninety's, teachers were encouraged to record their comments on a cassette tape or mini-disk and hand it to the student during class, and in the early 21st century instructors were seen to record their voice digitally and send the audio file by e-mail. However, currently there are a lot more options available for instructors who would like to try audio-recorded feedback (Seror, 2013). Although research on audio-recorded feedback is still in its infancy, most research has found it to be more effective than written feedback (Bauer, 2011; Nemec & Dintzner, 2016; Sipple, 2007). This is certainly a worthwhile area to consider for future feedback research as well as for effective classroom practice. However, one important consideration with any digital form of feedback is whether it will create inequality between students. For the method to be effective for all, students all need to have a great deal of access to the internet outside of class time. Unfortunately, in many contexts this is still not the case.

3.2.1.2. Digital written feedback

Another, more environmentally friendly alternative to handwritten feedback is similar feedback, typed on a computer and conveyed to students digitally. This can be done either synchronously or asynchronously. The most basic form of digital feedback delivery is using the comment function in word processing software and adding marginal comments before sending the document back to the student, another function which can be added to this approach is highlighting portions of the text. I have

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previously worked with instructors who use the track changes to offer direct correction of students' errors. This may not be a very effective method of providing feedback as students can simply click the "Accept all changes" button in the toolbar. This means that they do not need to read the feedback or know what feedback was given by the teacher in order to successfully revise their text. In research comparing digital feedback with handwritten feedback, Liu and Hansen (2002) reported that providing feedback digitally was more likely to lead to surface-level feedback, whereas handwritten feedback was more likely to focus on global issues.

3.2.1.3. Handwritten feedback

As mentioned above, handwritten feedback is still the most popular method of providing feedback to students. It can have environmental consequences, as it often requires students to print their written assignments several times in order to submit each draft for feedback. However, it also appears to be more effective in terms of leading to a greater proportion of feedback on global issues. The reason for this difference may be that when providing digital feedback, the reader can only see one portion of the text at a time, thus encouraging the reader to provide comments as they go, whereas in pen and paper feedback the reader can see the whole text at the same time, encouraging them to comment on the whole. In order to enhance this feature of handwritten feedback, instructors should read through the assignment once and think about which issues in the writing are the most significant before writing any feedback. Following this process will allow for principled feedback provision.

3.3. Level of explicitness

The different levels of explicitness of feedback should be seen more as a continuum rather than as a set of categories. Nevertheless, they can be roughly grouped into categories. These categories are demonstrated in figure 2.
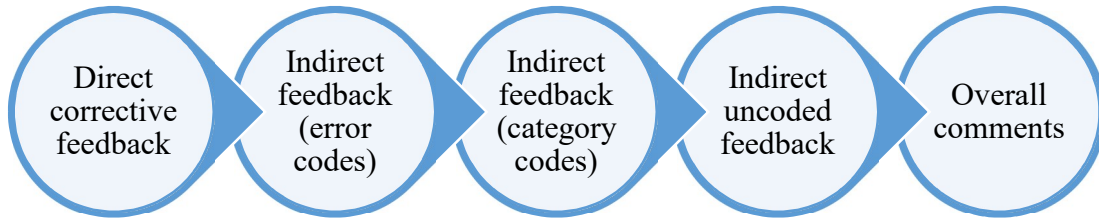
Figure 2: Levels of explicitness

3.3.1 Direct corrective feedback

Direct corrective feedback involves the instructor actively making the required corrections on the text. This could involve, for example, crossing out unnecessary words or phrases, crossing out incorrect forms and writing the correct form above or below and adding necessary words or phrases that have been omitted. This type of feedback is often referred to as Written Corrective Feedback (WCF for short). Direct corrective feedback is most often employed in a focussed way, focussing on (most commonly) one, or two different types of errors. Likewise, WCF has been found to increase accuracy in the particular

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form/s focussed on. As mentioned by Xu (2008), receiving direct corrective feedback on one particular type of error likely encourages the learner to focus on that specific language form, rather than others. Thus, the increased accuracy likely comes from increased learner attention and does not necessarily indicate increased learning of the form. Indeed, Bitchener (2009) states quite clearly that this is the intention of WCF. It is not intended to lead to learning new forms, but rather is conceived as additional controlled practice of forms that have been previously taught in the classroom. This demonstrates that direct corrective feedback is not appropriate to be used beyond the writing to learn language phase, as it is only in the language learning classroom that explicit grammar instruction usually takes place. Moreover, the direct corrective feedback should be given only on the particular form/s that have been recently covered in the classroom, in order to offer students additional repetitions of the items they have learnt. Thus, direct corrective feedback has the very limited purpose of reinforcing classroom learning of particular grammatical and/or lexical forms after explicit classroom instruction.

3.3.2. Indirect feedback with error codes

This is also a level of explicitness with a very specific purpose. The instructor prepares a coding system and provides it to students so that they can interpret the feedback. They then provide feedback only by indicating the location of the error and the type of error, without providing the correct form. Since the student knows what type of error it is, they can consult a dictionary, grammar or course book and determine the best way to correct the error. Since the kinds of issues covered by indirect feedback with error codes are classified by the teacher, such as common errors made by students in the context, they tend to be exclusively surface level issues such as grammatical forms and punctuation. Example error codes can be seen in Ferris (2006), Ferris, Liu, Sinha and Senna (2013), and Ferris and Roberts (2001). The main disadvantage of error codes is that providing feedback using them is a very time-consuming process for an instructor. Furthermore, research has compared both the revisions and the long-term writing development of students who have received indirect uncoded feedback with those of students who have received indirect feedback with error codes and it has been found that students do equally well in both conditions (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986). It seems therefore that the additional time and effort required by a teacher to provide error codes with indirect feedback is not worthwhile.

3.3.3. Indirect feedback with category codes

Another kind of coded indirect feedback is indirect feedback with category codes. Unlike indirect feedback with error codes, this type of feedback codes the feedback only in relation to the general category of the issue. An instructor in a learning to write class is likely to give feedback relating to the categories that appear in the assessment rubric. For example, there may be feedback relating to: content, organization, grammar and vocabulary. In the learning to write classes in my current context, assignments are graded for: ideas, use of sources, organization and language. Each of these (usually only four or five) categories would be assigned a colour and the issues in the text relating to each category would be highlighted or underlined in that colour. This allows students to know broadly what type of issue is present, without telling them the exact problem. Also unlike indirect feedback with error codes, this system allows instructors to provide feedback on a wide range of issues that appear in student's writing, thus making it a more appropriate method in the learning to write phase.

3.3.4. Indirect uncoded feedback

This type of feedback consists of simply underlining, highlighting or circling all issues in the writing, without any indication of the type of issues present. This type of feedback may be appropriate for learners at advanced levels, who are capable of determining and resolving their own problems, and who have few problems in their writing. This type of feedback is very efficient in terms of the time and effort involved to provide it, so it is often used in large classes. Additionally, it could be useful in a context in which student-teacher conferences are used as well as written feedback. The instructor could simply underline the issues in the writing and then discuss (some of) the issues with each student during their student-teacher conferences.

3.3.5. Overall comments

This is the least explicit type of feedback and involves the instructor in making marginal and/or end comments about the overall strengths and weaknesses of a piece of writing. This is by far the most common form of feedback (if indeed feedback is provided at all) at the writing to learn content phase and for L1 tertiary students in most educational contexts. Long and detailed end comments may be useful for supporting the development of writing skills in subsequent writing assignments.

3.4. Amount of feedback

Another aspect of feedback which instructors need to consider is the amount of feedback provided to each draft. Some feedback focusses on just one or two specific errors (focussed feedback), while some provides feedback on every error present in the text (comprehensive feedback). In the vast majority of cases, feedback is provided somewhere between these two extremes. For example, feedback may be provided on both global and surface-level issues, but only on the most important global issues and the most persistent surface-level issues in the text. In the context of Communicative Language Teaching, the first priority when providing feedback on surface-level issues such as grammar and vocabulary would be the issues that affect comprehension. Many experts in the field of writing have warned that providing too much constructive feedback can be overwhelming and damaging to a student's confidence (e.g. Andrade & Evans, 2013; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2002). On the other hand, studies of feedback on writing have involved the provision of as little as four instances of feedback on a single draft of a student text. We should be careful not to overwhelm students with too much feedback. On the other hand, we need to provide enough feedback to enable students to make progress in their L2 writing skills. While the phrase 'too much feedback' often appears in research of feedback on writing, to my knowledge no one has attempted to find out how much feedback is too much. Similarly, how much feedback students need in order to enable progress has also not been investigated.

Another point often made in relation to the amount of feedback that should be provided is that instructors should include praise as well as constructive feedback (e.g. Ferris, 2003; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 1996). In fact, it has been suggested that as much as half of the feedback students receive should be praise (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). However, it has also been found that too much praise can have the effect of demotivating learners (Cleary, 1990; Cohen, 1987). Case study research has found that some learners find praise insincere and condescending (Hyland, 1998). Finally, there is a tendency for praise to be less specific than constructive feedback and to be somewhat formulaic in the way it is worded (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Like constructive feedback, we need to be careful not to give too much praise

so as not to demotivate learners. Again, there is no empirical evidence as to how much is enough and how much is too much praise.

Based on the literature available on the topic, the following recommendations can be given relating to the provision of praise. Only praise that is sincere should be given (Hyland, 1998). Praise should be as specific as possible, so that it helps students to understand their strengths in writing rather than merely offering a platitude (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). For example, instead of a generic phrase such as "Nice work!" at the end of a writing assignment, such a comment should be given in relation to a specific portion of the text, such as a particular paragraph. However, just writing "Nice paragraph!" in the margin of a text still does not provide specific enough information to be immediately helpful. It would be much more useful to a student's further development if the comment read "This paragraph is well organized", or "This point is well supported". Finally, it has been found that mitigating praise which is included with a constructive comment leads to students not revising their writing on the basis of the constructive comment (Patchan, Schunn & Correnti, 2016). For example, a comment such as "This is a strong paragraph but you need to revise your topic sentence", is significantly less likely to lead to a revised topic sentence than a comment such as "You need to revise this topic sentence". Based on this finding, the final suggestion that can be made is to write constructive comments and praise comments separately, rather than combining them.

3.5. Optimizing feedback practices

Feedback can be seen as a balancing act. The amount of work required remains constant. The larger portion of the work is done by the teacher, the less is done by the student. Likewise, the reverse is also true. This means that the more effort a teacher puts in to doing the academic work, the more passive students can be. However, a learner-centred classroom, where students are required to actively participate in the construction of knowledge, does not mean that the teacher does less work, it means that the teacher does a different kind of work. This different kind of work involves more thinking and planning and less active participation in classroom activities, enabling the students to be the active participants in the classroom, while the teacher facilitates. The less direct the feedback form, the smaller portion of the work the teacher is doing and consequently, the more work the student is doing in revising their writing.

In the field of vocabulary learning, it has been found consistently that the greater the level of cognitive involvement is required to complete a vocabulary task, the more acquisition takes place (Eckerth & Tavakoli, 2012; Folse, 2006; Keating, 2008; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). The same could also be said of revision of writing; the more cognitive involvement is involved in the revision process, the more learning is likely to take place. Indeed, a similar argument has been made in favour of indirect feedback (Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986). It has been stated that indirect feedback involves students in a problem-solving or troubleshooting task which necessarily requires cognitive involvement, thus increasing the chance of learning.

I previously conducted longitudinal research on feedback which involved collecting all drafts of all assignments over a period of a year. The students wrote three drafts each of 8 assignments over the one-year period. The 39 students in the teacher feedback group were required to submit their 16 preliminary drafts for feedback. Upon analysing the data at the end of the year, I found that three of the students had never made any changes between their first drafts and their third drafts, despite having received teacher feedback 16 times over the one-year period. Although 3 students only constitute 8% of the

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research participants, I spent 15 to 20 minutes providing feedback on each draft. Three students submitted 48 preliminary drafts for feedback, meaning that I had spent around 14 hours providing feedback that the students had no intention of using to revise their writing. This experience taught me that we should not force students to receive feedback on their writing if they have no intention of using it. Since this experience, I have made receiving teacher feedback optional in my writing classes. However, it is important that students receive some feedback on their multi draft writing. In the next section I will discuss alternative sources of feedback.

3.6. Source of feedback

3.6.1. Peer feedback

Peer feedback has existed in North American universities since the nineteenth century (Gere, 1987). With the introduction of the process approach to writing, peer feedback became popular all around the world at the end of the twentieth century. The main purposes of peer feedback are to provide a larger audience for student writing (beyond the instructor) and to promote discussion of the ideas about which students write. In addition, in the context of L2 writing, students reading and responding to each other's texts provides an opportunity for languaging, negotiation of meaning and authentic communication of ideas. Languaging is a process in which students think about and discuss language in order to complete a task (Swain, 2006). This results in not only the successful completion of the task but greater language awareness in addition, since learners co-construct language using their collective knowledge pool. Negotiation of meaning refers in particular to discussion of parts of a text which impede comprehension, in order to clarify the intended meaning (Foster, 1998). This usually results in a correct, or improved language form being reached through negotiation between the participants. Communicative Language Teaching methods encourage instructors to foster the authentic communication of ideas in the language classroom exactly to encourage these kinds of opportunities. Perhaps even more importantly than the above considerations, peer feedback increases opportunities for interaction in the writing classroom, creating a more comfortable and enjoyable classroom environment.

What exactly students do during peer feedback is crucial to the success of the activity. Berg (1987) differentiates between non-autonomous, semi-autonomous and autonomous peer feedback tasks. Non-autonomous tasks are ones which are teacher-led. For example, the teacher may form the pairs or groups and give them a very specific and closed feedback task, such as an editing checklist. Semi-autonomous feedback involves scaffolding from the teacher to help students with the peer feedback process. An examples of such scaffolding is providing peer feedback sheets with a combination of closed and open-ended questions. Berger (1990) suggests that students should begin with less autonomous forms of peer feedback and move towards more autonomy in peer feedback as they become more experienced. For example, students may start by answering closed questions about their peers' writing (such as yes/no questions) and writing an overall evaluation of the biggest strength and weakness of the writing. This might gradually involve less and less closed questions and greater and greater levels of evaluation of their peers' writing.

A fair amount of research has been conducted on different aspects of peer feedback. Min (2006), Stanley (1992) and Zhu (1995) have all found that students perform significantly better in the provision of peer feedback when they receive peer feedback training. Yu and Hu (2017) found that even when a student with higher proficiency is paired with a student with lower proficiency, peer feedback is still a useful process in terms of using the feedback they receive to improve their writing. Researchers do not suggest

that peer feedback should be used instead of teacher feedback. However, training students to provide peer feedback and including peer feedback in addition to teacher feedback can enhance a writing class.

3.6.2. Self-feedback

Instructors often assume that students will read through their own text after writing it and before submitting it. Others may specifically discuss this with their students and ask them to read through their writing and make improvements before submitting it. Ten years ago, I began designating time during writing classes and asking students to provide feedback on their own writing. When I had the opportunity to observe students reviewing their own work I realized the need for self-feedback training, in order to become more effective at reviewing their own work. As has been suggested with peer feedback (Berger, 1990), I would encourage starting with less autonomous forms of self-feedback. For example, students can be trained to look for and correct common grammatical errors. As they get more experience in reviewing their own work, more evaluation will be possible, which can go beyond editing of language concerns and involve reviewing their organization and ideas.

Ferris (2003, pg. 82) states that "the mere act of rereading and rewriting, even without feedback from peers or teacher, may lead not only to substantive changes but improved writing quality". On the basis of this idea, Wakabayashi (2013) compared improvements in writing quality between one group who provided peer feedback before revising their own draft and one group who provided self-feedback before revising their own draft. She found that the self-feedback group significantly outperformed the peer feedback group in a timed writing task. Mawlawi Diab (2016) conducted a study comparing all three feedback sources (teacher, peer and self). In the immediate post-test, the students who had engaged in self-feedback performed significantly better than those who had engaged in peer feedback. In the delayed post-test, the self-feedback group significantly outperformed the teacher feedback group. There were no significant differences between the other groups. This research seems to show self-feedback to be more effective than either teacher or peer feedback for language learning. Few studies have been conducted in this area and this is certainly an area in which further research should be focussed. As with peer feedback, self-feedback should not be employed as a substitute for teacher feedback but in addition to teacher feedback in order to improve the effectiveness of writing classes. If self-feedback training begins at the early stages of learning to write in an L2, learners are likely to become proficient at reviewing their own work, which will certainly be a useful skill to take with them when they leave behind the support of the educational institution.

4.0. Suggestions for effective feedback provision

4.1. Writing to learn a language stage

In the writing to learn language stage of the L2 writing journey, a number of pedagogical recommendations can be made based on the literature presented above. Regardless of the language proficiency level and the purpose of the feedback, instructors should provide feedback on content. In some activities which focus on developing fluency in writing, feedback on content alone may be appropriate in order to encourage students to write more quickly without being concerned about language forms. However, for most writing assignments it is most appropriate to provide feedback on both language and content, as this has been found to be more effective in terms of improvement in language performance (Biber, Nekrasova & Horn, 2011). It may be appropriate to ask learners to do some controlled writing tasks in order to practice the language forms they have learnt in the classroom

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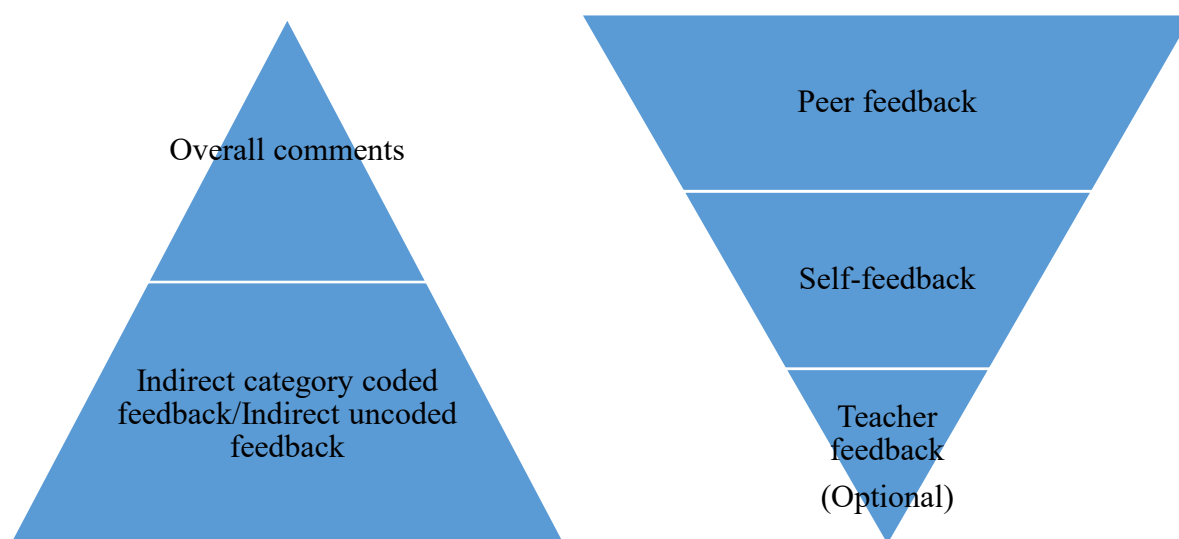İkinci dilde akademik yazmada etkili dönüt sağlama / R. Ruegg (161-178. s.)

and receive direct corrective feedback on these tasks (Bitchener, 2009). However, taking this approach and teaching all language forms before providing feedback will allow only slow progress. Therefore, they should also be provided with some multiple draft writing assignments on which they receive indirect feedback and are asked to revise and resubmit their writing, allowing cognitive involvement in the language production process (Lalande, 1982; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986). How indirect the feedback is should be determined by the student's length of study and proficiency level. They should begin with more direct forms and gradually move to less direct forms of feedback with time. Short overall comments may be the most effective way of providing content feedback. Even at the beginning of a learner's journey, learners should be trained in peer feedback and self-feedback. This too should be determined by the student's length of study and proficiency level. They should begin with non-autonomous peer feedback and structured self-editing activities and move on to greater and greater levels of evaluation as they progress. These suggestions are presented diagrammatically in figure 3.
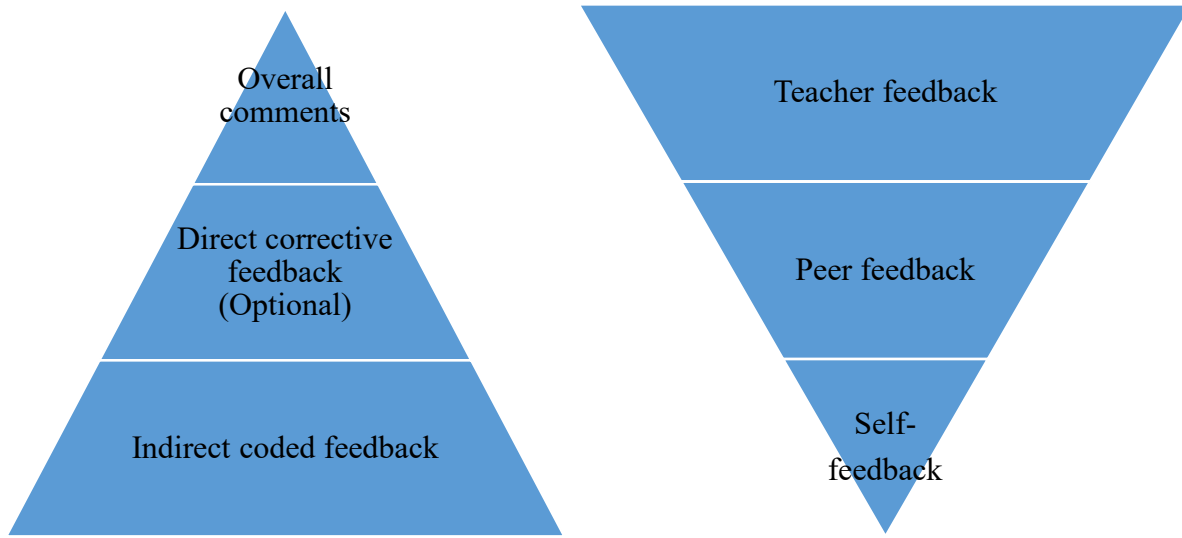
Figure 3: Effective feedback provision for writing to learn a language

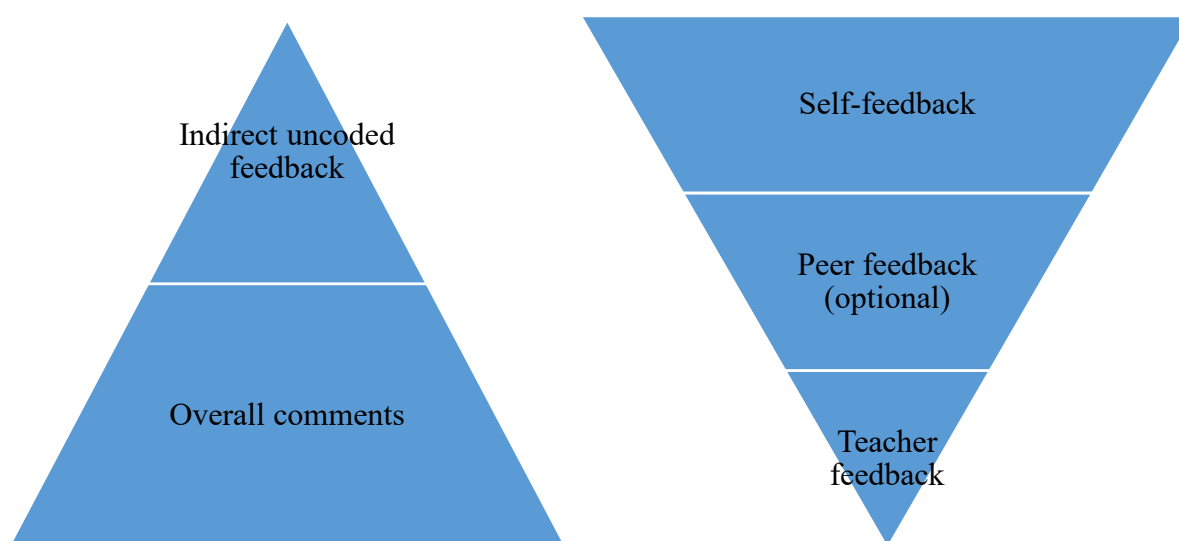## 4.2. Learning to write stage

In the learning to write stage, very little explicit grammar instruction takes place, if any. Therefore, direct corrective feedback is inappropriate at this level. At this level, both global and surface-level concerns are important for L2 writers. The majority of feedback at this level should be indirect feedback with category codes or indirect uncoded feedback. This allows feedback on a wide range of concerns and involves the students in maximal cognitive involvement while revising, thus increasing chances of learning. In addition, longer overall comments may be useful in order to deepen learners' understanding of their strengths and weaknesses in writing. Knowing where their strengths and weaknesses lie will aid the further development of their writing skills in subsequent writing assignments. At this stage, learners should continue to receive less and less teacher feedback and more and more peer and self-feedback, in an effort to become more autonomous learners. This will help them in the next stage when they will likely receive very little, or no, teacher feedback and will need to rely on peer and self-feedback. As learning to write instructors, part of our role is to prepare students for this situation. These suggestions are presented diagrammatically in figure 4.

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Figure 4. Effective feedback provision for learning to write

4.3. Writing to learn content stage

As mentioned above, at this stage, students often receive very little, or no, teacher feedback. This does not suggest that this is pedagogically appropriate, merely that this is often the case in reality. Ideally, every writing assignment a student completes at any stage of their learning journal should receive some teacher feedback (see Astin, 1993). It is expected at this stage that students are active participants in peer feedback and self-feedback practices. This may be taken for granted by instructors. However, it is good practice to discuss such expectations openly with students and let them know what is expected of them. In terms of teacher feedback, it is recommended that teachers provide overall comments about the strengths and weaknesses of a writing assignment, to serve as formative assessment. This kind of feedback, received incrementally over the course of their studies, allows students to work on their writing skills and to gradually improve them with time. In addition, for any L2 writers who enter the writing to learn content phase with persistent language errors, indirect uncoded feedback is quick and easy for an instructor to provide and supports an L2 writer's continued writing development. These suggestions are presented diagrammatically in figure 5.

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Figure 5: Effective feedback provision for writing to learn content

5.0 Conclusions

Naturally, this model of feedback provision is idealised. In reality, students will enter our classrooms with a wide range of educational backgrounds and previous educational experiences, which will influence the decisions we make about facilitating effective feedback on their written work. Ultimately, getting to know each individual student as much as possible and catering to their individual needs is important. Clearly, we can provide a larger amount of feedback to highly motivated students without overwhelming them, whereas students who lack confidence may need a higher proportion of praise. Such individual differences take time to understand, but should be a key consideration when providing feedback. In the meantime, we should consider the stage of the learning process at which the students are, the purpose of the class and the purpose of the feedback for each individual assignment. Such considerations should be made purposefully and should also be communicated to students, so that they are aware of what we are trying to achieve.

The main limitation of this article is that there is so much that has still not been determined empirically. Therefore, I would like to end this article with suggestions for further research. The two key areas about which little is known are related to the amount of feedback. There must exist a point of diminishing returns in relation to feedback; more feedback adds educational effect up to a certain point, but there is a point at which more feedback becomes negative, overwhelming students and damaging their confidence. Such a point will be at a slightly different place for each student depending on their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, the point is likely to be change as students progress in terms of language proficiency level and as they move through the stages of L2 writing. A number of studies are required to determine where this point of diminishing returns is: How much constructive feedback is optimum and how much is too much? Such studies are needed at a range of different language proficiency levels and a range of different learning stages, as well as in a range of different cultural and educational contexts. Another point for which little empirical evidence is available is how much praise is optimal. It is difficult to conduct such an experimental or quasi-experimental study ethically, as it is clearly not pedagogically appropriate to withhold praise from students. However, this aspect could be included as one factor within a larger study. Alternatively, if all the necessary information is available (questionnaire data and completed student assignments with feedback), it may be possible to reanalyse previously collected data with this aim. Finally, a fair amount of research has been conducted on direct corrective feedback, as well as some on indirect feedback with error codes and indirect uncoded feedback, but little or no research has been conducted on indirect feedback with category codes. I believe this is the type of feedback with the most promise for L2 writers in the learning to write stage and would recommend this as a focus of future research.

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