THE ATTITUDES OF SOME TURKISH STUDENTS
TOWARD RESPONSES TO THEIR EFL WRITING

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND LETTERS
AND THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF BILKENT UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER ARTS

BY
GÜLBEPER ÇAĞLAN
AUGUST 1993

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FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Gülderen Sağlam

Tarafından bağışlanmıştır.

BY

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ABSTRACT

Title: The attitudes of some Turkish students toward responses to
       their EFL writing
Author: Gülderen Sağlam
Thesis Chairperson: Dr. Ruth Yontz, Bilkent University, MA
                    TEFL Program
Thesis Committee Members: Dr. Dan J. Tannacito, Dr. Linda
                          Laube, Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

        This study attempted to investigate what Turkish students' attitudes
are toward response to their EFL writing. Answers of three main questions
were inquired and unstructured interviews were made with some of the
students following after the circulation of questionnaire. A total of a
hundred-fifty EFL learners participated in the study. Students responded
the questionnaire prepared by National Writing Project, Freedman (1982),
and a few more questions were added to the questionnaire by the researcher.

        The first major question was how often students write for school.
Students write more for English 102 or 104 when compared to other classes
they have. The second question was for understanding what concept of
response students have. Students responded that they have mostly written
comments on their completed works. The last question was to learn what
responses are accomplished in and out of class. Teachers almost always
respond to the completed drafts, but they less frequently respond to papers
in process. Students are not very much in favor of peer correction
technique. As teachers select the topics for students to write about, they
also want their students to be self-selective.

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The examining comittee appointed by the
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Gülderen Sağlam

has read the thesis of the student.
The committee has decided that the thesis
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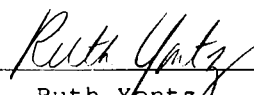
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Thesis Advisor   : Dr. Ruth Yontz
                      Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

Committee Members : Dr. Dan J. Tannacito
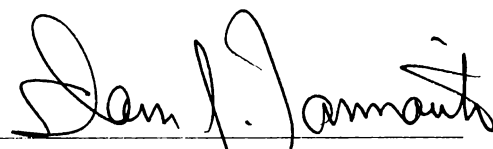   Bilkent University, MA TEFL
                      Program

                      Dr. Linda Laube
                      Bilkent University, MA TEFL
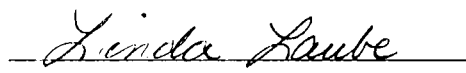   Program

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our comined opinion
it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree
of Master of Arts.

Ruth Yontz
(Advisor)

Dan J. Tannacito
(Committee Member)

Linda Laube
(Committee Member)

Approved for the
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences

Ali Karaosmanoglu
Director
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences

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Biricik kocacım MA TEFL' ı tamamlayabildiysem, bu senin hiçbirşeyle karşılaştırılamayacak destek, çaba ve tüm bunları sende var kılan sevginle oldu. Teşekkür ederim.

Yeni bir ortam ve farklı bir yaşantı içine düştüğüm bu bir yıl süresince gün ve gecelerimi güzel, katlanılabilir, destek ve paylaşımıyla yükünü taşınabilir kılan dostum Aysun Dizdar'ın yeri her zaman farklıydı. Bilgisayarın o komplex yapısıyla başa çıkabilmemi, yardım etmekten usanmayan MA TEFL' ın ayrılmaz bir parçası olan Gürhan Arslan'a borçluyum. Sevgili anneciğim en moralimin bozuk olduğu anlarda telefonun diğer ucundan gelen güzel sesin benim gücüm oldu. Yalnızlığımda ev sıcaklığını bulduğum Sağlam ailesine ve yine umutsuz, bitap anlarımda desteklerini benden eksik etmeyen tüm 76. yurt görevlilerine teşekkür etmeyi bir borç biliyorum.

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CHAPTER 1   INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

This researcher was one of the students who suffered while writing compositions during her educational life. Writing was always an unsolved problem and a nightmare. As a result she enrolled in the department of Foreign Languages at the university partly hoping to write better and better by learning lots about language. When she became a teacher of English, she decided to explore the attitudes of her students toward writing, and to learn how to comment on their papers to improving their attitudes.

Students have been writing compositions for years, and teachers of writing keep responding to these papers as much as students write. Most of the time responding to students' papers is accepted as the teacher's most important job. Teachers are viewed only as evaluators. They know the best and have got the right to correct papers.

Since teachers are accepted as a judge in evaluating papers, some learners feel their teachers do not admire them if they cannot write as well as other classmates. They try hard to write better but they cannot achieve what they really want to express in their compositions. Disappointed at having no progress, they might stop writing or lose interest in the subject when they continuously get a paper full of corrections and little or no praise. Learners who get responses with no support might show a lack of interest in writing and develop low self-confidence as a writer. Learners might feel uncomfortable to communicate with their classmates since they are not accepted as popular among others who attract the attention of population with their high grades. They might feel alienated from the teacher if they understand response only as criticism. While negative response can reduce students' motivation, continuous praise can hold a writer back by bringing about a complacent attitude: "All I have to do is to keep on doing what I am doing." Students always need some responses since there is no perfect work at the first trial.

Yet, students can benefit from negative criticism in a supportive atmosphere like receiving immediate oral comment from a teacher while

students write in class or having conferences with teachers out of class hours. No doubt, all writers like to hear their work get praised so students tend to react positively when they get supportive criticism. It is not easy for the learner to swallow a teacher's comments if a learner gets a response like "You are confused and don't tell what is going on well here" "I am confused about what is going on here," seems more supportive criticism for a learner since it conveys more sensitive, humanized statement for a developing writer.

Responding methods developed recently. In previous years and still in lots of places where language is taught, most language learners were accustomed to seeing red marks on their written compositions. Grammar mistakes were mostly corrected. Correction of grammatical mistakes were judged as the only way of helping students to write better. Together with flying time the idea of responding changed its direction from production-based response to learner-based response. Writing teachers expected their students to realize their own needs and wants for their compositions. With learner-based response, students' role changed. Students became respondents to their own papers and their classmates' papers. They also gained the figure of collaborator in the class by working with teachers on commenting papers.

Students with their changing roles have negative or positive attitudes toward writing. The researcher wants to inquire what attitudes students develop for responses they get in their compositions. Up to the present many researchers examined the responding techniques and methods, but few searched the attitudes of students.

Purpose of the Study

This study will examine how much response students get, and how they judge the response and how they develop personal attitudes toward writing. Studies of teachers' response in L2 settings are not so many to help us understand how our responses affect students. Many psychologists think that attitudes-"dispositions to respond to an object, person, institution, or event" are extremely difficult to change when they are gained. The characteristic attribute of attitude is its evaluative nature. Writers who are evaluated always develop attitudes against respondents in parallel to

the subject they are judged. In this study the researcher inquired who responds to students' papers (a teacher, a peer, student himself or an adult); how useful students find those responses; what comments they prefer having; how much they prefer choosing their own topic; how much they want to write for themselves; how much they write in different styles; and how much they are aware of their reader and write for the reader.

Evaluation also means reading and assigning a mark or a grade. Having a returned paper with an average mark might either relieve the writer or cause questioning why the student could not afford to get a higher grade. The student might think what missing features his/her writing has or when and how she/he can succeed in writing better.

Like personality traits, attitudes must be inferred from measurable responses. These responses must reflect positive and/or negative evaluations of the attitude subject. Beyond this requirement there is virtually no limitation on the kinds of responses that can be considered. Unfortunately, human behaviors are not measurable. Students' reaction to our responses cannot be recognized directly, but monitoring students' attitudes in our writing classes by paying attention to the record of assignments, participation percentage, amount of speaking in the class and so on, we may measure how interested they are, and develop achievement in writing.

To simplify matters, it is useful to categorize attitude-relevant responses into various sections. In this study a questionnaire used by the National Teachers Committee was administered. In the questionnaire there are five different sections. Each section's aim is to learn how much students are interested in writing through different perspectives. In the first section questions test how much they write for writing class compared with others. In the second one we learn about participants background to realize for how long they have been practicing writing. In the third one we learn what kind of writing students produce. The fourth one show us how much collaboration the teachers and students have in writing. The last one inquires the model of commenting. There is also an essay type of question added to the conclusion of the questionnaire. In this question students

are asked what might help them most to write better. The answers helped the researcher to understand how much students are aware of what they need.

The answers to these questions provides insights about how all these mentioned reactions can create a barrier among teacher, learners, and the subject. Thus, we as teachers can better understand how responses affect students' attitudes toward writing, and help them to understand responses better and use comments for better writing.

Method

This study is a descriptive study. Participants were given a questionnaire, and asked to answer questions related to their writing classes. The researcher also interviewed the students whenever she had the possibility of a discussion with students about the problems they have in revising. Those interviews were not structured and were conducted in an informal conversational style. The results of the questionnaire were measured by calculating the frequency of the answers given. Later, answers were tabulated to show the frequency when necessary.

Definition of Terms

In this study the researcher investigated the responses students get to their writing and attitudes they develop. Response is accepted as any kind of reaction to a stimulus; in this study the writing teachers' comments to papers and any comment done on composition are accepted as response. Responses are divided into two main groups as oral and written responses. Oral response techniques are conferencing, peer-correction, recording. In conferencing teacher and student come together and talk about the paper. In peer-correction students in class or from another class give response to the writer as an alternative reader. Recording technique is used instead of pen. Students listen to respondents' comments. Written response techniques are teachers' correction, peer-correction and self-correction. Teachers, peer or student themselves write their comments on students' papers. An opinion that includes an evaluative and an emotional component is called an attitude. Students who get response might react to the comment on the paper, and develop a range of attitudes. Attitudes are extremely difficult to change.

Limitations

This study was conducted at Bilkent University. The participants are 150 first year male and female Turkish students who get 102 or 104 writing classes. They were accepted in non-random selection. Some of them live at the dormitory and the others in the city. The different locations caused it last for a long time. The questionnaire was circulated to two hundred ten participants to reduce the number of semi-interested participants.

The questionnaire did not include personal questions very much. Just one section searched background information about the participants. There were so many things to be asked so the researcher could not reduce the amount of questions. The time of data collection was set for the end of the term because it was thought that students would have a complete idea about the procedure of responding in their writing classes when the writing syllabus was completed.

Many factors contribute to students' attitudes toward writing. This study is limited to examining the relation between response and students attitude toward writing. Since it is almost impossible to measure human behaviors we have to limit our analysis through students' answers. The researcher cannot rely a hundred percent on participants' answers, but she reduced this possibility by distributing the questionnaire just to the participants who were really interested in participation. Still, the researcher lost much more questionnaire hand-outs than she guessed she would. At the very beginning students were generally not aware of what they would do. Although the study was explained to them, and they accepted to participate, when they realized what it is when they begin to answer the question and they quit. No doubt there was resistance to completing an impersonal form. Some volunteers who did not complete the task might have preferred oral interviews. Finally, for some participants the language of the questionnaire which is in English was difficult.

The other limitation is the length of questionnaire and the time needed to complete it. It is seven pages long including thirty-five questions. The end of term was scheduled to get students' true evaluation of their writing lessons. The time to hand in the questionnaire to

participants was immediately after their exams. The researcher assumed that the participants would have been relaxed by that time of the year, but most of the students took that time to have fun so it was difficult to collect the forms. Students' tiredness or end of term laziness might also have caused them to skip some of the questions or to pay less attention. There was no official enforcement to answer questions so some of the students neither answered the questionnaire nor gave them back.

Delimitations

During the first a few distribution of questionnaires the researcher noticed that students do not feel comfortable doing something for a teacher so she stopped distributing and let assistants do all the work in different dormitories.

Pilot study was held among 15 students to test the questionnaire. In result the format of the questionnaire was modified. Some specific terms were explained to the assistants to inform students before questionnaires were handed in. The language of the questionnaire seemed a little bit difficult for some students so Turkish version of the questionnaire was provided for assistants to give or explain to the students who had difficulty to understand the meaning of the question(s). Interviews with 15 students in pilot study were made to gain insights about their responses. Assistants were trained about each possible questions to be asked by any students. Possible questions were defined according to the pilot study. Assistants were always keep in touch with the researcher, too.

The researcher assumed that some students might not respond to the questionnaire so she duplicated 210 questionnaires to avoid inconvenient positions.

Mentioned time problem (see limitations) was solved by learning the most appropriate time for each of the students who had limited time to respond, and questionnaires were given them at the time they were scheduled.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

L1 Setting in Responding

Given the fact that all students need correction of their work, many teachers of composition respond to students' papers without being aware of whether they help their students' writing or not. It is believed that responses reflect underlying features about the nature and function of writing. Because writing teachers spend so much time responding to students' essays, L1 writing researchers have investigated how composition teachers respond to student work.

L1 Settings

In L1 settings writing teachers correct their students' writing since they believe that marking changes will help students to write better. Corrections are made in various ways, parallel to teaching methods, but some teachers ignore the research results and use their own attitudes to writing in their teaching practices (Beach & Bridwell 1984). Responses of composition teachers examined in several L1 studies (Young 1978; Rose 1981; Hairston 1982; Burhans 1983; Friedmann 1983) which found that teachers teach in the way they were taught and according to the idea of writing they view. Although research shows that process-oriented teaching of writing helps students to have progress, in writing practice in the black boxes teachers operate differently and from their own perspectives. While teachers intend to motivate students to revise, they often change the intention of students by the comments they make. Students follow what teachers say in their comments and revise the composition in the way teachers' comment (Sommer, 1982). Murray suggests that teachers are conditioned in the way they are taught, and they hope to see their students at the standards of other students. Students generally complain about the writing that their teachers expect them to produce. Butturff and Sommer (1980) report that teachers respond to students' papers as if they are final drafts, and they respond to the paper's mechanics, style, and usage. Ziv (1984) studied what students understand from teachers' responses. The findings showed that teacher responses are often misunderstood and misinterpreted by students, and that students do not know how to solve the problems they have.

A Study of Teacher Response in Native English Setting

For many years, responding to students' writing has been accepted as an unavoidable part of teaching writing for composition teachers. Difficulties associated with responding lead researchers to ask the question: How can a teacher's response support the teaching and learning of writing? To answer this question it is necessary to understand how teachers can overcome the difficulties traditionally associated with responding to writing. In a major study of student attitudes toward response, Sarah Warshauer Freedman (1987) has studied this key question. Her research questions were the following:

1. Under positive instructional conditions, what is the range of responses students receive in school? What characterizes response that students and teachers feel is most helpful? Least helpful?

2. In successful classrooms, what values about writing are being transmitted during response?

3. In these classrooms, how are different types of response related to one another during the teaching-learning process?

Her descriptive study involved two research techniques: survey and ethnographic observations. In the communities selected, the responses of 560 very successful teachers were surveyed. The survey was also responded to by 715 students in the classes of half of the secondary teachers who completed surveys about their teachers' teaching practices and their own learning.

The characteristics of the participants are highly qualified. They were defined as successful teachers in the community. The teachers average experience in the classroom was fourteen years. The teachers who were observed had twenty-three to twenty-four years of teaching experience at the time of the observations.

The Characteristic of Participants

Students in defined classes had more time than traditionally assigned time in any other classes for completing their work. Teachers in observation focused students toward a single genre. Almost all of the teachers were English teachers with degrees. Actual working hours of those surveyed teachers were fewer than the usual teachers had at their schools.

The total amount of students in classes of those teachers varied from twenty-four to thirty. Teachers in the survey perceived their students as above-average achievers, and most of the students reported they got A's and B's, and they planned to have college education. Just a few students had poverty problems. There existed about five percent non-native students.

The findings of this study were as follows. The first research question is about the range and helpfulness of response.

1. Respondents gave their comments mostly during the writing process. Teachers in the ethnographic study reported that in-process response is most helpful. Response is not only given to the drafts but also to ideas and plans.

2. Teachers think accomplishing in-process response was very difficult. Students prefer having response to their completed work. The teachers' ideas about the effectiveness of different kinds of in-process response varies.

3. Ethnographical observations showed that teachers guide and coach their students in the process. Teachers prefer individual conferences, but they report that conferences are time-consuming. They have difficulty in organizing classes to use this type of response model, and try to schedule conference out of class.

4. When students get older, they often get final version response since they learn how to self-correct and get feedback from classmates. While teachers think comments and grades are helpful students persist in valuing them. Students reported that they are interested in the written product since they are judged by it.

5. Teachers regard response groups highly.

6. Students regard parents' responses highly.

7. Ethnographical observations suggest that a lot of teacher response occurs during whole-class discussions.

Question two of Freedman's research asks what values are transmitted during response. For surveyed teachers in the teaching goal of writing is to help their students learn to think for themselves and to connect their personal experiences to their writing. Teachers in the ethnographic study aim teaching students to think deeply about their experiences and

communicate those experiences to others. Students in those classes define writing as operating social and cognitive activities underlying writing well. In these classes students' role is to be independent researchers and evaluators.

The third question in Freedman's study reports the relationship among types of response. One of the teachers in the ethnographic study focused her instruction on peer-response groups. Discussions originated from responses. She used conferences occasionally when students were working in peer groups. Another teacher used peer group response to give time to students to practice solving problems while she met with students in individual conferences.

<div align="center">L2 Settings</div>

As has been well known for years, writing teachers read student-writers' work and give feedback as much as students write. Teachers of English learn how to respond students' papers during their education of teaching. Additionally they can learn more about responding from current books when they became teacher, and they can permanently fill the gap from the time of being a teacher up to the present. Wingfield (1975) writes about error correction techniques. In the book five different techniques are presented for teachers to deal with errors, and choice of correction technique is left to the teacher since the needs of each class would present different requirements. Shih (1983 March) introduced techniques to structure feedback for teachers of writing, too.

Treatment Methods

Teachers apply various error-feedback treatments while responding in written comments. Those treatments are mostly operated at the structure level. Some teachers correct errors fully and write the prescriptive true equivalance of the error while others prefer using abbreviated codes of structural patterns or elements like sp. for spelling error. By using abbreviated code teachers expect students to correct themselves by the help of coded clues. Some other group of teachers underline errors, but never write them in corrected form of errors, and ask students to read carefully what they have written and correct them. Those teachers believe students learn better when they work on each error. The last group of teachers

define the correction by giving another similar example, and ask students to continue by correcting their mistakes in a demonstrative way. Robb, Ross, & Shortreed (1986) made a search to inquire what error-correction treatment was better to help students write more developed revisions. These researchers found that there was no significant effects of those treatments on revisions.

Teachers' Role

The teacher's role in responding changes according to whom she responds to and how she responds. Hall (1992, March) claimed that the teachers' role changed from being a judge to a mentor, and they became proactive by encouraging student-writers with positive support. Hooper (1983) suggested to reduce teachers' commentary burden by indicating only what students need to correct on their papers. By this method teachers' role becomes that of a collaborator to identify errors by students.

It is still true that teachers are the sole evaluator of writing. Partridge (1981) found that teachers evaluation was more effective than peer evaluation for helping college level ESL students. Radecki & Swales (1988) claimed that the more college students progress toward their discipline, the more they think language teachers are less important, and the more attention they pay to their major. Hamp-Lyon (1987) worked with professors from different nationalities and tested their ratings of ESL student or papers. The result showed that teacher raters graded papers differently due to their native rhetorics. While teachers are generally accepted as the corrector, Richmond (1984, March) found that teachers could actually make errors and mislead students. By overemphasizing one aspect of writing, teachers can enduce students to make errors. Teachers are not just negative figures in their responses, they are sometimes superior figure to students. Dessner (1991) calculated that two-third of college teachers provided advice and suggestion on how to write compositions. While teachers form their role in class, students also see teachers as an evaluator, too. Leki (1990) studied what students expected teachers to do, and found that the majority of ESL college students in composition classes want all of the errors corrected. She interpreted this to mean students think that good writing is error-free writing.

Use of Response

Students get various help out from teachers' responses. Some learners think response helps them improve their writing, if it is constructive. Cardelle & Cordo (1981) found that second language writing improves when there was written feedback about errors in a constructive rather than a negative way. Students also differentiate the help they gain from their teachers' responses. Belcher (1989) found that most ESL students, despite being unskilled writers, make more meaning changes than surface correction when they rewrite. However, students from different language backgrounds revise differently. It is told that the proficiency level of writers effects their revision. Ropp (1988 March) found that more proficient ESL writers were better at detecting errors than treating them accurately.

Most of the students do not understand fully what teachers mean in their response so it is thought that students can learn more to understand teachers' responses. McCurdy (1992) suggested a training program in learning strategies in order to more effectively use feedback. Decker (1975) represented a new perspective in responding. He offers the idea that teachers treat students errors individually. He thinks it helps, but those correction will be done by teachers again not by the students.

A teacher's response on papers effects student revisions. Hendrickson (1977) studied the effects of direct and indirect written constructive error treatment, but he found no difference between two models of error treatment. He also added that both of the models were helpful for students. Zamel (1985) found that second language teachers were concerned with surface errors no matter what draft it is, and that responding to surface errors gives students a limited view of writing. Some teachers think quantity of revision help students learn structures better, but Dicker & Sheppard (1985) find that multiple drafts do not lead to better structural accuracy. Errors might also be reported directly or indirectly. Cohen (1987) worked with NNS students and native speaking teachers. The result showed that most students read the comments and made a mental note while poor students read them and made no notes. Teachers could respond on grammar and content level. Fathman & Whalley (1990) studied teachers'

feedback on both level. If the focus was on grammar alone, it does not effect the revision.

Reformulating

 There are also some other responding techniques. One of them is reformulating. Cohen (1983a) worked with non-native students by reformulating their written statements. What student write is restated by a teacher. While a teacher reformulate it, student learn how to change and write better. Rorsehach, Rakijas & Benesch (1984) discuss whether reformulating changed the writer's meaning. Allwright (1988) claimed that reformulation fostered autonomy in learning to edit.

Oral Feedback

 Another responding technique is oral feedback. It could be given immediately or during a teacher's office-hours. Keh (1990) discussed feedback, conferencing, and written comments within the process approach. McAlpine (1989) studied oral feedback to understand what audience thinks about the work. The teacher as an audience reads aloud a student's paper, and the student learns the procedure how a reader makes sense of a text. Sometimes oral feedback is not done face-to-face, and it is practiced auditorily. Farnsworth (1974); Hallett (1983); Patrie (1989), use the cassette-recorder in responding.

Error Gravity

 Researchers wanted to define what errors teachers think are more important compared with other errors. They also try to discover if thechers pay equal interest in each error. Studies have been done with native speaking and non-native speaking teachers. It is question if those teachers comment differently. Vann, Meyer & Lorenz (1984) studied professors reaction to ESL student errors. They identified twelve sentence level errors, and asked faculty which error was the most important. As a result, faculty members' preferences were varied according to their ages and disciplines. Vann, Lorenz, & Meyer (1991) followed up on their earlier study. They tried to confirm their previous research. Their results were the same, discipline influences error correction.

 Teachers or readers oriented from different language background reacted differently to students' papers than natives did. Aly (1992)

found that Arab EFL teachers treated errors in isolation from global aspects, and they act in an authoritative role. Kobayashi (1992) made clearer that native English speaking readers were stricter about grammaticality, but gave more positive evaluations than Japanese readers. Teng (1990) worked with NES and Tunisian speakers. As a result, both groups felt structure problems were more serious than surface problems. NESs were also more concerned about intelligibility. Takashima (1987) found that Japanese teachers or students could not determine what was wrong with Japanese students writing at the rhetorical level. James (1926) found that native teachers were more tolerant than non-native teachers. Khalil (1985) said native speakers mostly judge papers semantically. Janopoulos (1991 March) found faculty members were more tolerant of ESL students than native English speaking writers.

Teachers show differences in responding according to their experience in teaching. Davies (1983) worked with forty-three Moroccan students and forty-three EFL teachers. Error treatment was viewed as a function of a teachers' experience. Santos (1988) pointed out that experienced professors were more tolerant than non-experienced. Tolerance on paper is also up to the origin of teachers. NETs are more tolerant than NNTs. The third finding of this study was that lexical errors were treated more than content error. The fourth result was that non-science professors were more tolerant than science professors. Yet, opposed to these results, Cumming (1985) claims that experienced teachers still marked ESL students' surface errors.

Conferencing

Conferencing is another oral response technique. Frodesen (1989) talked about potential problems of conferencing. Cummings (1989) specified the problem of treating students differently in conferences, especially weaker writers, concerning what they had talked about. Goldstern & Conrad (1990) studied the degrees of participation in conferencing. They pointed out that students participated to different degrees. If students discuss well in conference, they improved their drafts. But changes are just on mechanical and sentence level if a conference proceeds in the opposite attitude.

Self Correction

In any kind of responding teachers might ask student-writers to comment on their own work. El-Daly (1991) said students could correct errors when they were pointed out to them. Ultsch, Orkini, & Tragant (1989) found that students had different preferences in correcting their EFL writing.

By correcting their own papers, students gain a new role in class from passive and receiver to active and reactor. Deyor (1980) said that students should self-correct themselves as writers, and collaborate with the teacher reducing teachers a hundred percent judgement. Schwarte, & Matsumura-Lothrop (1987) searched for what errors students corrected. 25% verb errors and 15% article errors were corrected immediately and after delay. Self-correcting was found effective for production errors.

Cohen (1991) worked in EFL context. In his emprical study, EFL teachers showed that students have only a limited number of strategies for handling feedback so Cohen claims that students should be taught how to give feedback. Frankee (1987) wrote technique of self-questioning to guide students searching for ideas and organizing content.

Peer Correction

In any class there is more than one writer. Everyone writes compositions, and each can share their written work with their peers. A student's role becomes that of an audience and a reactor in evaluating papers. How peers can comment on papers has been studied by researchers. Cohen (1983a) worked with non-natives. Non-native readers rewrote a student's essay, and the learner compared the two. Hafernik (1983, March) claimed that teachers should set up conditions in peer-editing. Another study resulted that peers tend to use their native language in discussing their papers, Jacobs (1987). To set up the conditions we need to draw the procedure and define a rationale for peer correction said Witbeck (1976). Two activities which peer reviews can engage in meaningful communication were demonstrated by Pica (1984). This communication through writing becomes a way of giving feedback to each other. Moore (1986) also presented a model of peer review. In his study, students first used each others' work to learn how to respond, and then they peer-corrected their

own work. Proctor & Arnolt (1992, March) also created a model. In their study students wrote together and reviewed together.

What are the results of studies of use of peer correction? Zhu (1992) reported the result of peer correction studies at the ESL college level. Jacobs (1989) worked on group-feedback. It was concluded that peers miscorrect papers, but Zhang & Jocab (1989) worked with peers in pairs, and found that they made little miscorrection. They also found that peer feedback was as effective as teacher feedback, leading to successful peer revision. Students might react negatively to lots of correction on paper. Hyland (1990) states that the quantity of correction on paper will encourage students' active feedback. A change of the teacher's role, according to Devenney (1989) is also an unavoidable result of peer evaluation. In that level peers correct better. In result peer correction was found more effective on content and organization than mechanical correction, Hvitfedt (1986). Peer correction was also useful for students' communicative power, according to Mittan (1989). His study showed that students also implemented their communicative power in their writing. Additionally, peer correction reduced careless mistakes (Edge, 1986). There are also advantages of peer group response at the responding stage of writing (Davies & Omberg, 1987).

Summary

Oral and written response models have been used by teachers to help students to write better, and will continue to be used as researchers keep on studying better ways and finding new techniques for learners to discover the power of writing.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study aims to discover Turkish EFL students' attitudes toward response to their writing. A questionnaire was used to identify the kinds of writing students do and survey their attitudes toward response. This chapter will describe the questionnaire, how it was administered, the subjects, and how the data was collected and categorized.

Data Collection

Questionnaire

A questionnaire which was developed and administered by the National Writing Project (Freedman, 1987) in different schools in the United States was slightly modified by adding three questions related to subjects' personal background. (See the questionnaire in Appendix A). These additional questions pertain to the type of high school they graduated from, their year in the university, and the level of English class they are enrolled in.

The questionnaire includes four categories of information about writing and response: the amount of writing students do, the types of writing students do for their English classes, the types and frequency of response they receive, and the helpfulness of different kinds of response.

Subjects

All of the subjects are Turkish students at Bilkent University who were currently enrolled in English 102 or 104. These courses are compulsory and students take them in their first year while taking courses in their major. English 102 and 104 focus on synthesizing information and using it in written and oral presentations.

Additional information about the subjects was collected from the questionnaire distributed to students. The results of those questions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of Subjects

Characteristics	n	%
Male	75	50
Female	75	50
102 Writing Class	69	46
104 Writing Class	81	54
State School	71	47.3
College	72	48
First Year	55	36.6
Second Year	95	63.3
Dormitories	118	78.6
Full Time Job	65	43.3
Job Training	49	32.6

As shown in the table, half of the subjects are males and the other half females. Approximately half of the students graduated from Turkish-medium high schools and the other half from English-medium high schools. A majority of the subjects (63.3%) are second year students, indicating that they are repeating English 102 or 104. Approximately one-third (36.6%) are first year students taking English 102 or 104 for the first time.

A majority of the students live at the dormitories on the campus. After graduation most of the subjects intend to participate in a job training program or work full time.

Procedure

Many students were asked to volunteer by posting an invitation letter to participate to the study. This letter, which included a brief explanation of the study, was placed at the reception desk of all dormitories. Students who wanted to participate signed it. All of the participants were told their identity would be confidential. The questionnaire was distributed to 210 students since the researcher knew that many of the students might not return them. One hundred sixty

questionnaires were completed and returned. However, the last ten questionnaires were not included in the study because students were so late in returning them, and the researher was not sure about the reliability of those students' responses.

A pilot study was conducted with 15 students in order to discover any problems with the language of the questionnaire, which is English. The 15 students were informally interviewed after they completed the questionnaire in order to find out how long it took to complete the questionnaire and whether there were any problems with the format. The pilot study showed that students had difficulty understanding the terms 'completed version,' 'response,' 'peer-correction,' and 'conference,' so assistants were trained to explain these concepts to participants before they were given the questionnaire. The researcher also used the interviews to discuss their responses on the questionnaire in order to gain insight into their responses.

Two assistants selected from students who had experience in survey techniques were trained to distribute and administer the questionnaire during the pilot study. The assistants were provided a Turkish version of the questionnaire in order to answer students' questions about the meaning of specific items.

The questionnaires were collected from participants three hours after they were distributed. Questionnaires were distributed to groups of ten students at the dormitories from the same floor and corridor for the purpose of helping participants when it was necessary. Assistants informed students about where they would be present if they needed any help on questionnaire. Participants were told that assistants would come back and collect the questionnaires in three hours. If participants completed the questionnaire earlier, they were kindly told to call reception at the dorm, where assistants would pick up the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The frequency of the responses for each question was tabulated, and the percentage of each response was calculated. In chapter four the results of the questionnaire will be described.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Introduction

This study investigates EFL students' attitudes toward response to their writing. A questionnaire was administered to 150 university students taking English 102 or 104 at Bilkent University. This questionnaire is the same one used in the student survey by The National Writing Project (Freedman, 1984). The questionnaire (Appendix A) asks about the amount of writing, types of writing taught, helpfulness of response, frequency of response-related teaching techniques, and response from different respondents.

Findings

Amount of Writing

In the questionnaire there are three questions related to the amount of writing students do in English 102 or 104. The results from questions one and three are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Amount of Writing(%)

How often do you	n.	Never	Hardly ever	Some	A lot
Q1 Write for this class	150	11.3	22.6	57.3	8.6
Q3 Write for yourself	149	17.4	21.3	51.3	9.3

More than the half of the subjects respond that they write some or a lot for English 102 or 104. However, 11.3% respond that they never write for these classes. Responses to Question 3 about how often students write for their own pleasure indicate that more than half write for themselves.

Question 2 asks students to compare the amount of writing they do in English 102 or 104 to the amount of writing they do in other classes. As shown in Table 3, more than half indicate they write less for English 102 and 104 than for other classes; 26.5% indicate "a lot less" and 32% indicate "a little less."

Table 3

Writing for English 102 or 104 Compared to Other Classes(%)

Writing	A lot less	A little less	About the same	A little more	A lot more
Q2 For 102 or 104 compared to others	26.5	32	20	12.6	7.3

Question 4 asks students what grade they usually get for their writing in English 102 or 104. A large majority (75.2%) get grades of C or lower for the writing they do for these classes.

Types of Writing for English Class

Questions 12 through 17 ask students about the time they spend doing different types of writing for their English 102 or 104 class. These results are presented in Table 4. The sum of the percentages of the positive responses ("about half" and "more than half") indicate that students write mostly to report facts (30.6%) and write journals for themselves (29.3%).

Table 4

Types of Writing Done for English 102 or 104 (%)

Types of Writing	None	Very little	Less than half	About half	More than half
Q12 Journal for self	12.0	32.0	26.6	21.3	8.0
Q13 Letters between student and teacher	1.3	38.0	30.0	15.3	2.0
Q14 Personal experiences	10.0	45.3	27.3	15.3	2.0
Q15 Poems, plays, stories	44.6	32.0	18.0	8.0	4.0
Q16 To find new ideas	14.6	46.6	24.6	10.6	3.3
Q17 To report facts	12.6	26.6	30.0	21.3	9.3

Interviews done with 15 students show that students understood "writing journals for themselves" to mean journals done just for

themselves, not for the writing done for this class. The next most
frequent types of writing are letters between students and teacher 17.3%
and personal experience writing 17.3%. Writing to find new ideas, and
writing poems, plays, and stories are the least frequent types of writing.

Response-Related Teaching Techniques

    Eleven questions on the questionnaire ask students to indicate how
frequently they receive certain kinds of response to their writing and how
often their teachers use certain teaching techniques. (See Table 5)

Table 5

Response and Teaching Techniques in English 102 and 104 (%)

Techniques	Almost Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
Q19 Teacher writes comments before paper completed	12.6	58.0	16.0	3.3
Q20 Teacher writes comments on completed paper	14.6	50.0	27.3	8.0
Q21 Teacher talks about writing before paper completed	20.6	46.6	29.3	3.3
Q22 Teacher talks about completed writing	20.0	44.0	29.3	6.6
Q23 Students talk about writing before paper completed	31.3	35.3	29.3	3.3
Q24 Students talk about completed writing	30.0	48.6	19.3	2.0
Q25 Receives grades on completed writing	9.3	40.6	36.6	13.3
Q26 Teacher informs about writers audience	31.3	36.0	30.6	1.3
Q27 Make up own topic to write about	18.6	48.6	26.0	6.6
Q28 Teacher gives topic to write about	13.3	43.3	37.3	6.0
Q29 Class discussion about topic	22.6	49.3	25.3	2.6
Q30 Teacher comments on strong-weak writing	18.0	42.6	30.0	8.6

The percentages of the "never" responses show that peer response is the
least common response during writing (31.3%) and after writing is completed
(30.0%). The most common response technique is receiving grades on the
completed version.

    Responses in the category "often" show that several teaching
techniques are somewhat common. The results show that students have the

opportunity to create their own topics (26%), although teachers more often give topics to students (37.3%). Approximately one-third of the time (30.6%) teachers inform students about the audience of their writing (30.6%). Class discussions about topics are also a fairly common technique (25.3%).

Helpfulness of Response at Different Stages of Writing

The next set of questions (Q31 and Q32) concern how students perceive the helpfulness of different types of response to their writing at different stages. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Helpfulness of Response Before the Completed Version and After the Completed Version in English 102 and 104 (%)

Helpfulness	Don't know: never occurs	Not at all helpful	Not too helpful	Somewhat helpful	Very helpful
Q31 Commenting(BC)	08.6	14.0	26.6	33.3	15.6
a.Talking to T.	10.0	08.6	28.0	30.0	20.4
b.Talking to Ss.	00.6	23.3	29.3	26.6	03.3
c.Written comments	10.0	14.0	30.6	30.6	14.6
d.Grade	13.3	19.3	26.0	23.3	17.4
e.Self comment	11.3	20.0	24.6	36.0	09.3
Q32 Commenting(AC)	06.0	08.0	24.0	36.6	25.3
a.Talking to T.	08.0	12.0	24.0	32.6	23.3
b.Talking to Ss	12.6	28.0	20.6	30.0	08.6
c.Written comments	14.0	14.0	21.3	34.0	15.5
d.Grade	10.6	09.3	16.0	32.6	31.3
e.Your comment	08.6	13.3	20.6	40.6	06.1

Note: (BC) before composition completed
      (AC) after composition completed
      (T) teacher
      (Ss) students

For analyzing the results of questions 31 and 32, the sums of the percentages from the positive categories 'somewhat helpful' and 'very helpful' were calculated. The questions about the helpfulness of response on compositions before completed (BC) and after completed (AC) indicate that response on completed compositions (61.9%, or 36.6 plus 25.3) is more highly valued by students than response on in-process compositions (48.9%, 33.3 plus 15.6).

For completed versions of compositions, students ideas about helpfulness in order of frequency are as follows: grades for a completed version (63.9%, 32.6 plus 31.3), talking to teacher (55.9%, or 32.6 plus 23.3), teacher's written comments (49.5%, or 34.0 plus 15.5), student's self-commenting (46.7, or 40.6 plus 6.1), talking to friends about a completed version (38.6%, or 30.0 plus 8.6).

For in-process compositions, results show the same order of helpfulness for different kinds of response except that grades on incomplete versions are viewed as less helpful than on completed versions.

Helpfulness of Response from Different Responders

The next set of questions (Q32 from a to e) examines the helpfulness of different responders. Based on the sums of the percentage for the responses "somewhat helpful" and "very helpful," the responses show that for students the most helpful responders are other teachers --that is, teachers other than their English 102 or 104 teachers. The next most helpful responders, in order of frequency, are parents, their English 102 or 104 teacher, and friends. The least helpful responders are adults and siblings.

Table 7

Helpfulness of Response from Different Responders (%)

Response from	Don't know; never	Not at all helpful	Not too helpful	Somewhat helpful	Very helpful
Q32 Friends	13.3	33.3	24.6	19.3	8.72
Parents	26.0	20.0	18.0	26.6	9.03
Teacher	8.0	8.0	16.0	32.6	0.33
Other Ts.	20.0	8.6	16.0	34.0	8.05
Adults	48.0	22.6	15.3	10.0	4.00
Siblings	51.3	21.3	15.3	7.3	4.06

Students' Ideas about Writing Better

An open-ended question (Q35) asked students, " What helps you most to learn to write better?" Most of the students write that reading helps them

write better. Others think a large amount of writing practice is very helpful; some write that teachers' comments are helpful. The following comments are typical of these views (English translations are provided for those comments written in Turkish):

* "To read books and using reports and teacher's comments."
* "To read write a lot."
* "Educational background, reading because it helps me to accumulate writing."
* "If we regularly write compositions our writing will improve."
* "Teacher's comments help me very much."

A couple of students mention the importance of intuition in helping them write better:

* "I behave intuitively to write better."
* "My imagination and mood at that time helps me a lot. If I am feeling that it is the right time to write, I can write. And I don't believe that writing should have a systematic procedure. It makes you feel uncomfortable while writing and loose your spirit of writing. I think all you need is to desire writing at that time."
* "I think we should leave writing about a lot simple, ordinary topics and should not be depended on some limited forms. Students should not be asked not to make any mistake. This make them thinking and writing about same things."

There are also some students who think nothing can help them. The following is what one student writes:

* "I hate writing. There should not be a lesson named Writing 'cause it is useless. Nothing can help me to write better."

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Study

This study has asked what attitudes Turkish students have toward response in their EFL writing. The study involves a survey of the response practices of different teachers from the view point of students. A hundred-fifty students who were seventy-five male and seventy-five females take English 102 or 104 writing classes at Bilkent University completed the survey about their teachers, teaching practices and their own learning. Some of the students take English 102 or 104 for the first time or are repeating either of them. They all follow the same writing packet prepared by a group of writing teachers at Bilkent University. Their average age is eighteen and they have graduated either from Turkish state high school or a specialized high school. Most of the students live at dormitories in campus and they have the chance of getting help at the mentor center. Their teachers are either non-native Turkish teachers or native teachers originally from America or England.

Summary of Results

The 150 students gave their opinions about response in their classrooms. The results from the student survey are:

1. More than the half of the subjects respond that they write some or a lot for English 102 or 104 but very few of subjects never write for these classes. A little more than half indicate that they write more for other classes in their major.

2. Subjects also respond that many of them write for themselves.

3. Most of the students get grade of C or lower for their writing.

4. Subject report that they write mostly to report facts.

5. Peer-response is not applied frequently. Peer-responding is not a very valued technique by teachers. It is the least common response subjects get. The most common one is receiving grades on the completed version.

6. Students like having response on completed version better than in-process writing.

7. Students rate the other teacher as the most helpful responder to their writing; however, they value their sisters and brothers as the least helpful responders.

Pedagogical Implications

It is a very positive result to see that more than half of the subjects write for English 102 or 104, yet we notice that the other half write less for these classes while writing more for other classes they have in their major. Through the notes from interviews, most of them view writing classes just as a lesson they have to complete and pass. Subjects avoid to view the importance of writing as a lesson which will help them improve their knowledge and give them the advantage of expressing better what they learn, practice and think in their field. The grades they get from writing in English 102 or 104 also prove to us how unimportant these English classes are: most of them get the grade of C or lower.

Students also think that reporting facts is doing writing because it is the most common teaching technique. We do not just write reports in life but we, teachers of writing, do not help our students to introduce and apply other types of writing in our classes. Reporting facts are just a small part of the whole.

Moore (1986) presented a model of peer review to train students in how they can respond to their friends' papers. What Moore presented is what students in the study implied as a problem in peer response technique. During informal unstructured interviews it was learned that proficient and well-skilled students gain control over other students and waste time during peer-grouping technique because less proficient students stop responding. We can easily understand that students are in need of training in responding strategy for peer-reviewing.

Teachers generally fall behind the research. This is very clear in the fact that students indicate that response on completed compositions help them more than response on in-progress compositions. It is really interesting what students learn, change and develop from completed versions. When students were asked how they understood what they learned, they say that they see their mistakes on papers, and try not to do them again on other compositions. The sad truth is that they still do. In

short we understand that students are used to getting more response on last drafts than they get on in-process compositions to write more developed ones.

Teachers generally decide about topics to be assigned. Teachers mostly choose topics from a writing packet prepared by a group of teachers, but they also want their students to be more creative, and ask them to decide about a topic to write about. I believe that topic selection has a role in creating independent, self-directed writers. It also leads students to change the role of a teacher in a way which is very promising.

During the interviews, students claimed that they were in fear of having lack of communication with their own class teachers. They prefer talking less to their teachers to reduce making mistakes while communicating. They think other teachers from other classes pay less attention to their mistakes and are easier to collaborate with. Why students value other teachers' as the most helpful responders show us that we want our students to be better than students in other classes, and this idea puts pressure on them and leads us to miscommunicate with our students.

It is strange to see parents as a second helpful responders. Students explain why they think parents are more helpful than their class teachers. The first step problem for students to write is what they can write about a given topic so they get help from parents on content base. This result tells us as a teacher that students need to discuss the topic before they begin to write.

Implications for Further Research

Survey technique helps us to learn what happens in classes through the help of students, but it can never be claimed that people tell a hundred percent truth. Students might observe our task without interest and what they state might direct us to the wrong route so it is better to support results by additional research technique. Natural study of teachers can be done to learn what teachers think about how they teach compared to what they teach. Additionally, teachers' concerns and operation in class can be observed longitudinally and the work done by students can be kept to compare what teachers think they teach and what

students learn. In cooperation with a psychiatrist emotional tests or a questionnaire could be prepared to find out students' attitudes.

When I first began to teach I realized that I knew nearly nothing about talking to students to support them in their work or to tell them what was wrong with their papers. I was in fear of affecting their attitude negatively about writing while I thought I was helping them. To know a subject to teach is not enough to help students. I believe we need to learn to communicate better for responding students' compositions.

In my future teaching I will not be a leader or a director in class. Observing students will guide me to reduce the gap or misunderstanding between students and I. I will teach them how they can do what I want them to. For various teaching techniques I will prepare the conditions, and teach them strategies to respond. I will inquire what students need individually and encourage them in their work.

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APPENDIX A

Student Survey

    <u>With this questionnaire, I want to learn about your writing</u>

<u>experiences in the classes English 101; 102;103; or 104.</u>

    You can answer most of the questions by **circling a number.** For some

questions, you will be asked to give a short written answer. Read all

directions carefully - **especially those in bold type.**

    When you finish answering all questions, the person who has given the

questionnaire to you will pick it up. Please do not give the questionnaire

to anybody else. When you hand in the questionnaire, no one who knows you

will see your answers. All your answers will be strictly confidential.

    Answer the questions with respect to English 102 & 104.

_____

A- Please circle the number beside the answer that best applies to you.

Circle only one number.

----

1. How often do you write for this class (either at home or in school)?

        0 Never

        1 Hardly ever

        2 Some of the time

        3 A lot of the time

2. How often do you write for <u>for this class</u>, compared to your other

classes?

        1 A lot less for this class

        2 A little less for this class

        3 About the same

        4 A little more for this class

        5 A lot more for this class

3. How often do you write just because you want to and not for school?

        0 Never

        1 Hardly ever

        2 Some of the time

        3 A lot of the time

4. On the writing you do for <u>this class</u>, what grade do you usually get?

   1 A   4 D

   2 B   5 F

   3 C   6 Other

                         (please specify)-------

B- Please answer these questions about yourself. **Fill in the blanks or circle a number.**

----

5. Birth date:....... ..... ,19....

                Month   Day   Year

6. Year:......

7. Writing class you are registered in English: 10...

8. Sex: 1 Male   2 Female

9. When you graduate from the university, what do you plan to do first?

   1 Go to a job training program

   2 Get married and not work

   3 Go to work full-time

   4 Go into military service

   5 Other(pleasedescribe):.................................

10. Please write the name of the high school you graduated from (full name please)...

11. The place where you live at present:

   a. Dormitory   b. House   c. With my parents

C- For each of the questions below, circle the number that best describes
the writing you do for this class. **Circle only the number**.

OF THE TIME YOU SPEND ON YOUR WRITING FOR THIS CLASS.......|

--|

	None	Very Little of the time	Less than 1/2 the	About 1/2 the time	More than 1/2 the time
12. How much do you spend on journals or diaries just for yourself?	0	1	2	3	4
13. How much do you spend writing journals between you and your teacher or letters that you expect to get answers to?	0	1	2	3	4
14. How much do you spend writing essays about your personal experiences?	0	1	2	3	4
15. How much do you spend writing poems or plays or stories that you make up from your imagination?	0	1	2	3	4
16. How much do you spend writing just to find new ideas?	0	1	2	3	4
17. How much do you spend presenting facts or events in the form of book reports, or short research reports?	0	1	2	3	4
18. How much do you spend writing essays based on your ideas or on your opinions?	0	1	2	3	4

D- For each of the questions below circle the number that fits best with
what happens in your class. **Circle only one number.**

	Almost never	Some times	Often	Almost always
19. How often does your teacher write comments on your writing **before** you have put it in its completed form?	1	2	3	4
20. How often does your teacher writes comments on the **completed** version of your writing?	1	2	3	4
21. How often does your teacher talk with you about your writing **before** you have put it in its completed form?	1	2	3	4
22. How often does your teacher talk with you about the **completed** version of your writing?	1	2	3	4
23. When you are writing for this class, how often do you and your classmates talk with each other about your writing **before** it is in its completed form?	1	2	3	4
24. When you are writing for this class, how often do you and your classmates talk with each other about the **completed** version of your writing?	1	2	3	4
25. How often do you receive grades on the **completed** version of your writing?	1	2	3	4
26. How often does your teacher let you know what kinds of people might read each piece of your writing?	1	2	3	4
27. When you are writing for this class, how often do you make up your own topic to write about?	1	2	3	4
28. When you are writing for this class, how often does your teacher give you a topic to write about?	1	2	3	4

29. How often are there
    discussions in class
    about a topic before
    you begin to write
    about it?   1   2   3   4

30. How often does your
    teacher make comments
    about what is strong as
    well as what is weak in
    your writing?   1   2   3   4

E- As a student you may be getting different kinds of feedback or response
to your writing. **In this class,** how helpful to your learning are the
following kinds of feedback or response? **Circle only one number.**

	Don't know; never	Not at all helpful	Not too helpful	Somewhat helpful	Very helpful for learning to write
31. Comments on your writing **before** the completed version	0	1	2	3	4
a. Talking personally with your teacher **before** your paper is in completed form.	0	1	2	3	4
b. Talking with other students in your class **before** your paper is in its completed form.	0	1	2	3	4
c. Written comments from your teacher about your paper **before** it is in its completed form.	0	1	2	3	4
d. Grades given by your teacher to your paper **before** it is its completed form.	0	1	2	3	4
e. Your teacher asking you for your comments on your paper **before** it is in its completed form.	0	1	2	3	4
32. Comments on **completed** pieces of writing	0	1	2	3	4
a. Talking personally with your teacher about **completed** pieces of writing	0	1	2	3	4
b. Talking with other students in your class about your **completed** pieces of writing	0	1	2	3	4
c. Written comments from your teacher about your **completed** pieces of writing	0	1	2	3	4

d. Grades given by your teacher to your **completed** pieces of writing	0	1	2	3	4
e. Your teacher asking you for your comments on your **completed** paper	0	1	2	3	4
33. Comments on your writing from others	0	1	2	3	4
a. Comments from friends (inside or outside of class)	0	1	2	3	4
b. Comments from parents	0	1	2	3	4
c. Comments from your teacher	0	1	2	3	4
d. Comments from other teachers	0	1	2	3	4
e. Comments from other adults	0	1	2	3	4
f. Comments from brothers and sisters	0	1	2	3	4

F- You can answer these questions either in Turkish or in English.

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34. When you are trying to learn to write better, what helps you most and why?

35. Please use the space below for any other comments you would like to make.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.