

**Examining Impact and Perceptions: A Literature Review on Instructor Feedback
Strategies and English Language Learners Writing Performance**

by

Wejdan Sultan

A project submitted to the
School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Education

Faculty of Education

University of Ontario Institute of Technology (Ontario Tech University)

Oshawa, Ontario, Canada

March, 2024

© Wejdan Sultan, 2024

PROJECT REVIEW INFORMATION

Submitted by: **Wejdan Sultan**

Master of Education in Education

Project: Examining Impact and Perceptions: A Literature Review on Instructor Feedback Strategies and English Language Learners Writing Performance

The project was approved on March 21, 2024 by the following review committee:

Review Committee:

Research Supervisor

Dr. Allyson Eamer

Second Reader

Dr. Anna Rodrigues

The above review committee determined that the project is acceptable in form and content and that a satisfactory knowledge of the field was covered by the work submitted. A copy of the Certificate of Approval is available from the School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies.

ABSTRACT

Over the years, researchers have conducted empirical studies to investigate the impact of various instructor feedback strategies to enhance English Language Learners (ELLs) writing performance. The present study synthesizes the findings of 46 articles, including both past and current publications. While greater focus was put on corrective feedback strategies, alternative feedback approaches were also considered; overall, the findings confirm that all instructor feedback positively impacts students' writing performance, albeit to different degrees. Moreover, my research indicates that ELLs believe instructor feedback contributes to their writing development. When attempting to gauge students' specific feedback preferences as well as examine the differential effects of feedback strategies, I found that the benefits of feedback interventions were contingent on and influenced by different variables. Pedagogical implications and areas for further research are discussed.

Keywords: English Language Learners; adult learners; instructor feedback strategies; writing performance; perceptions and preferences

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this project consists of original work of which I have authored. This is a true copy of the work, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my committee.

I authorize the University of Ontario Institute of Technology (Ontario Tech University) to lend this work to other institutions or individuals for the purpose of scholarly research. I further authorize the University of Ontario Institute of Technology (Ontario Tech University) to reproduce this work by photocopying or by other means, in total or in part, at the request of other institutions or individuals for the purpose of scholarly research. I understand that my work may be made electronically available to the public.

Wejdan Sultan

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Allyson Eamer for taking on the responsibility of supervising me. Her valuable input and feedback throughout this research journey contributed significantly to the overall quality of my paper. Her willingness to share personal experiences, and insights and ask questions encouraged me to reflect on my own teaching and learning experiences. I would also like to convey my appreciation to Dr. Anna Rodrigues for participating in the feedback process and assuming the role of second reader.

I am immensely grateful for the strong support system I had during this process. My parents, husband, siblings, and friends took on an active role and provided me with ongoing support. Their support was integral to the successful completion of my literature review. Their efforts and kindness will always be remembered. My beautiful son, Yousef, served as a constant reminder of my goals and was a source of inspiration and motivation for me. Alhamdulillah. All of this was possible due to Allah's (SWT) blessings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PROJECT REVIEW INFORMATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
AUTHOR'S DECLARATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS	x
GLOSSARY	xi
Chapter 1. Introduction	1
1.1 Research Questions	3
Chapter 2. Method	4
2.1 Literature Search Process: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	4
2.2 Background Information: Studies	7
2.3 Types of Corrective Feedback	10
Chapter 3. Writing Performance	13
3.1 Overview of Findings	13
3.2 Major Findings	14
3.3 Oral Feedback and Teacher-Student Conferences	14
3.4 Focused and Unfocused Feedback	15
3.5 Indirect Feedback	17
3.6 Direct Feedback	19
3.7 Comparing Feedback Strategies	20
Chapter 4. Student Perceptions and Preferences	23
4.1 Overview of Findings	23
4.2 Major Findings	23

4.3 One-on-One Engagement: Conferences and Oral Feedback	23
4.4 Focused and Unfocused Feedback	25
4.5 Metalinguistic Information and Detailed Comments	26
4.6 Affective Factors (Support, Tone, and Positive Comments)	27
4.7 Students Concerns and Priorities	29
4.8 Direct, Indirect and Metalinguistic Comments	30
Chapter 5. Analysis	34
5.1 Limitations	34
5.2 Discussion	35
Chapter 6. Conclusions	40
6.1 Pedagogical Implications	40
6.2 Future Research	41
REFERENCES	43
APPENDIX A	52

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 2

Table 2.1: Feedback Strategies: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.....15-17

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 2

Figure 2.1: Total Number of Studies by Publication Year (N=46).....	17
Figure 2.2: Number of Studies by Country (N=46).....	18
Figure 2.3: Context: ESL VS ELL.....	19
Figure 2.4: Number of Studies Per Education Context (N=46).....	19
Figure 2.5 Number of Studies by Proficiency Level (N=46).....	20

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ELL	English Language Learners
ESL	English As a Second Language
WCF	Written Corrective Feedback

GLOSSARY

Metalinguistic Feedback: The use of examples and explanations to guide students toward the correct answer (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

Direct/Explicit Feedback: Overtly pointing out and correcting errors (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

Indirect/Implicit Feedback: The use of symbols/clues to illustrate the presence of errors (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009)

Coded Feedback: The use of codes on top of or next to errors to illustrate the categories of errors made (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010).

Uncoded Feedback: Underlining, circling, highlighting or inserting Xs on errors (Mujtaba et al., 2020)

Focused Feedback/Comprehensive: Feedback that targets one type of error or a specified number of pre-decided linguistic features (Ellis et al. 2008).

Unfocused Feedback: Feedback that targets all or a variety of errors in the student's written work (Kim, 2019)

Chapter 1. Introduction

Instructors and students seem least inclined to focus on the skill of writing (Harmer, 2015); it is a skill often overlooked due to its need for greater time and effort to develop (Harmer, 2015). In the context of English language learning, it is regarded by many to be the most difficult skill to master (Hung & Diem, 2020; Sobhani & Tayebipour, 2015). Mastering the art of writing in a second language (L2) is a lengthy endeavour, requiring ongoing training and self-regulation techniques (Myles, 2002 in Linh 2018). English Language Learners (ELLs) at the postsecondary level participate in a variety of academic writing (Subon & Amir 2022). To support learners in becoming effective writers, instructors typically provide feedback, both constructive and corrective. While constructive feedback focuses on overall quality of writing (clarity, coherence, content and organization), corrective feedback focuses on linguistic accuracy (specific errors in grammar, sentence structure and vocabulary). Corrective feedback is thought to play a significant role in writing development and second language acquisition as a whole (Ferris, 2014; Mekala & Ponmani, 2017 and Phothongsunan, 2023).

An important debate surrounding the topic of corrective feedback concerns its usefulness in the language classroom. Truscott (1996) a leading voice against excessive grammar correction, argues that over-focusing feedback on writing accuracy may not result in improved writing performance and lead to language acquisition. Ferris (1999), in his rebuttal to Truscott (1996), presents evidence to support the relationship between writing accuracy improvements and corrective feedback. Much like Hattie and Yates (2014), authors of *Visible Learning and the Science of How We Learn*, I believe incorporating the 'right' type of feedback will directly impact students' progress and outcomes in their academic journey.

My motivation for examining the impact of instructor feedback on ELLs' writing performance stems from a desire to ensure every student receives the tools and support they need to succeed both inside and outside of the classroom. Drawing on my own experiences as an educator and student, I recognize that not all learners perceive and respond to the same type of feedback in the same way. Appreciating these differences among students, I intend to determine patterns to help me select effective feedback strategies that will facilitate learning and promote growth. With this in mind, it's critical to recognize that the feedback and support we provide our students may influence their desire to seek new learning opportunities or avoid them. In my teaching practice, despite my efforts in providing timely, constructive, and supportive feedback to ELLs, I still have many questions and concerns surrounding the decisions I make. Given the demanding nature of providing student feedback, it is important to identify and acknowledge the types of feedback students value and engage with the most. Wingate (2010) contends that if we want students to embrace feedback, it needs to be purposeful and hold value to them; furthermore, students must be equipped to translate the feedback into action (Wingate, 2010). In order to establish the appropriateness of different feedback strategies, we must recognize learner variables that may impact engagement with the feedback. Along with a plethora of other variables, it is likely that the learners' linguistic competence influences the way in which students understand and act on the feedback (Hartshorn & Evans, 2015). It is also important to consider the potential relationship between preferred feedback approaches and specific cultural groups. Some cultures place a high value in avoiding situations that may result in embarrassment; hence teacher sensitivity in that regard might impact their choice of corrective strategies; it is up to educational leaders to ensure all students receive quality education irrespective of their background (Bonner et al., 2018). Culturally responsive teaching aims to guarantee students receive the help they need by

applying effective communication and teaching strategies, valuing cultural differences, and making relevant connections to the curriculum (Irvine & Armento, 2001 in Bonner et al., 2018). Taking these variables into account may help instructors like myself recognize actions that are undermining the efficacy of specific feedback strategies. Apart from this, I am compelled to investigate the impact of instructor feedback on writing performance because sometimes pedagogical approaches are incentivized and encouraged in the absence of research validating its effectiveness. For instance, there is minimal evidence to suggest Portfolio Based Language Assessment (PBLA) enhances student language skills, yet it continues to be the most endorsed method by TESL Certified Organizations (Vanderveen, 2018). From Vanderveen's research, it can be concluded that there is a clear disconnect between research and practice and that research does not always translate to changes in practice. While there are studies underscoring the benefits of peer feedback on ELLs' writing achievement (Yang et al., 2006; Hentasmaka & Cahyono, 2021; Jiang & Yu, 2014; Zhang & McEneaney, 2020), I deliberately refrained from incorporating this approach in my literature review. The process of teaching students how to successfully provide feedback takes time and dedication (Lauricella et al., 2022). As such, my first priority was to understand the nuances of providing student feedback. With this knowledge, I can then design and develop structured and valuable peer feedback opportunities that will empower my ELLs. Through this research, I make evidence-based recommendations that will support teachers in selecting the appropriate feedback strategies to employ with their students.

1.1 Research Questions

- 1) How effectively does instructor feedback impact ELLs writing development and performance?
- 2) What types of feedback do students prefer for written tasks and assessments?

Chapter 2. Method

2.1 Literature Search Process: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Electronic databases, such as Education Resource Information Center (ERIC) via Proquest, Academic Search Premier via EBSCOhost, Education Source via EBSCOhost, Connecting Repositories (CORE) and Google Scholar were used to locate articles. Varying combinations of keyword strings were used to identify articles that address research question 1 (Q1); examples of keyword searches include (writing skills) OR (writing ability) OR (writing development) OR (writing proficiency) OR (writing performance) OR (writing achievement) AND (English language learners) OR (ELL) OR (ESL) OR (EFL) OR (English as a second language) OR (second language learning) AND (instructor feedback) OR (corrective feedback) OR (implicit feedback) OR (explicit feedback) OR (direct feedback) OR (indirect feedback) OR (Metalinguistic feedback) OR (focused feedback) OR (unfocused feedback) OR (comprehensive feedback) OR (oral feedback) or (spoken feedback) or (verbal feedback) or oral (comments) OR (teacher conferences). Articles were selected on the basis of relevant titles and abstracts; duplicated studies were eliminated. Studies were then filtered to exclusively include peer reviewed primary research studies published in English. This includes quantitative studies, qualitative studies, mixed method studies and case studies. The screening process was further narrowed down to studies with an adult population, specifically adult learners attending either a postsecondary institution or a language centre. Although the objective in the preliminary stages of the literature search process was to limit studies to the past 9 years (2015- 2023), there are several key empirical studies published within the early 2000s that employed robust and systematic methodologies, demonstrating their high validity (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009;

Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Sheen et al., 2009; Sheen, 2010). These studies contribute immensely to the current body of knowledge on feedback practices for writing achievement and as a result were included in this literature review. As for the research question on feedback preferences of ELLs, the same inclusion and exclusion criteria and combination of keywords were used with the addition of a few other specific keywords:(student preferences) OR (student perceptions) OR (student attitudes) OR (student wants). Once the collection of scholarly articles were analyzed to ensure the inclusion criteria were met, references were scanned to find additional articles; in the final stage, research articles were carefully reviewed and analyzed for a second time to guarantee studies were relevant to the research questions. This brought my total number of articles down to 46 (see Table 1 for Inclusion-Exclusion criteria).

Table 2.1

Feedback Strategies: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Publication Source	Inclusion: Peer-reviewed academic journals
	Exclusion: Conference proceedings and book chapters
Literature Type	Inclusion: Primary sources (qualitative, quantitative, mixed methods studies or case studies)

	<p>Exclusion: literature reviews, dissertations, magazine articles, conference papers, theses and unpublished articles</p>
<p>Participants</p>	<p>Inclusion: (a) English Language Learners or English Native Speakers; (b) Adult Learners eighteen years of age or older (c) learners attending a language institute or postsecondary institution (college or University)</p> <p>Exclusion: (a) Learners below the age of 18 attending either primary, secondary, or high school</p>
<p>Focus</p>	<p>Inclusion: Articles focusing on writing skills. Articles focusing on writing along with another language skill (productive or receptive)</p> <p>Exclusion: Articles not focusing on writing skills</p>
<p>Language</p>	<p>Inclusion: English</p>

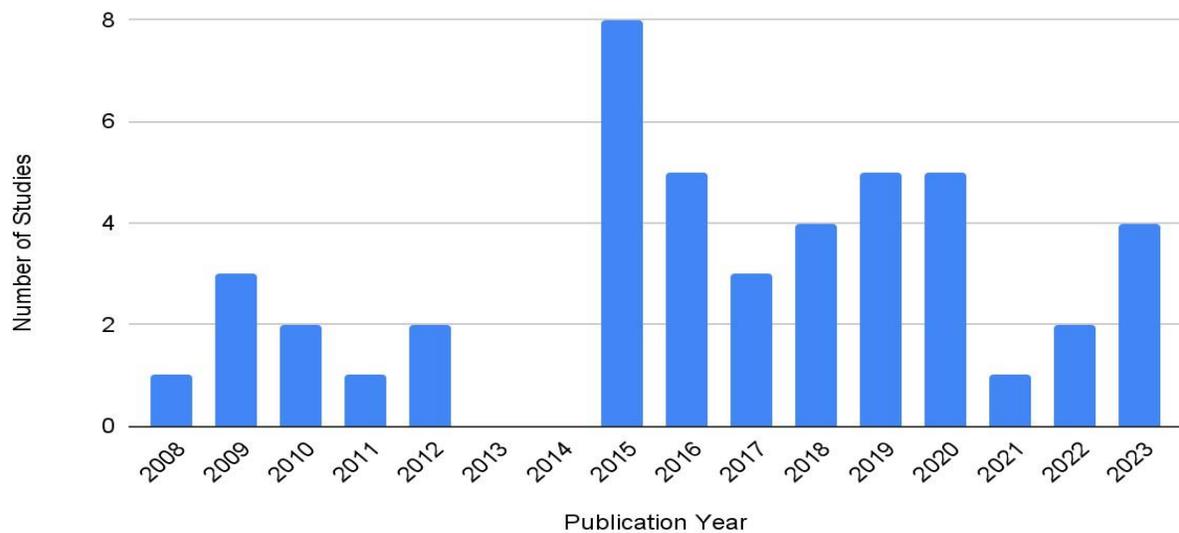
	Exclusion: Other Languages
Feedback Sources	Inclusion: Instructor feedback
	Exclusion: Peer feedback and automated feedback

2.2 Background Information: Studies

This literature review encompasses a selection of 46 articles, 37 of which were published between 2015 and 2023, and 9 of which are published between 2008-2012 (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1

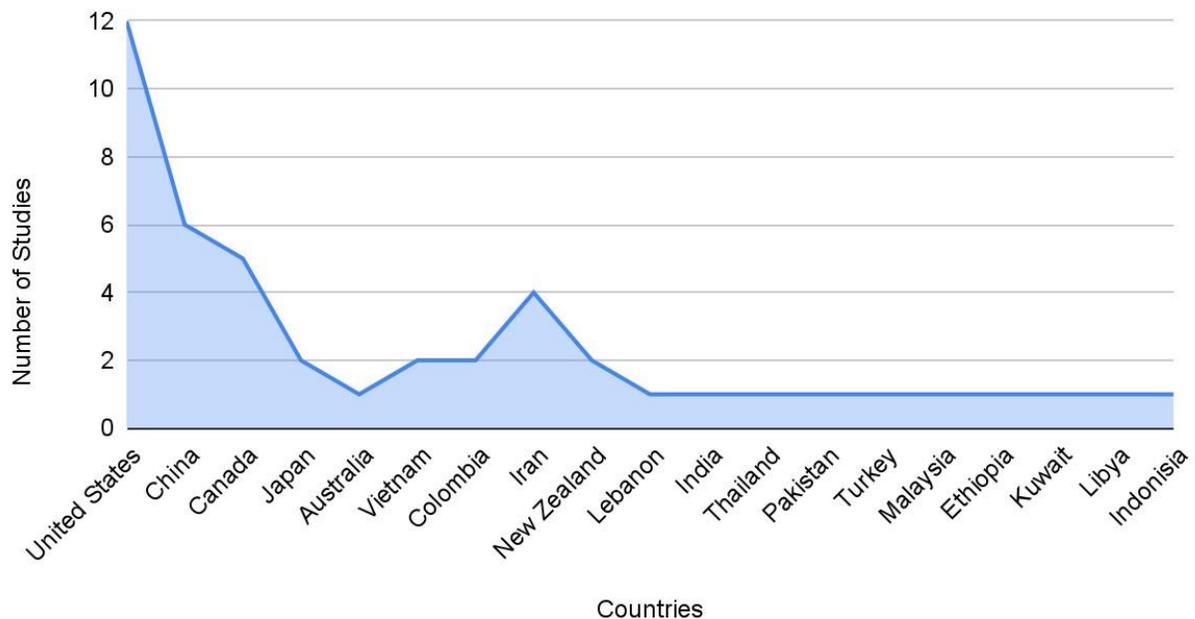
Total Number of Studies by Publication Year (N=46)



From the collection of articles selected, 29 primarily pertain to the topic of instructor feedback strategies (Q1), and the remaining 17 articles address student perceptions and preferences 2 (Q2). The qualitative, experimental and case studies were conducted in various countries: 12 studies were performed in the United States, 6 in China, 5 in Canada, 4 in Iran and 2 in each of Japan, New Zealand, Colombia, and Vietnam. In all other countries, one study was undertaken (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2

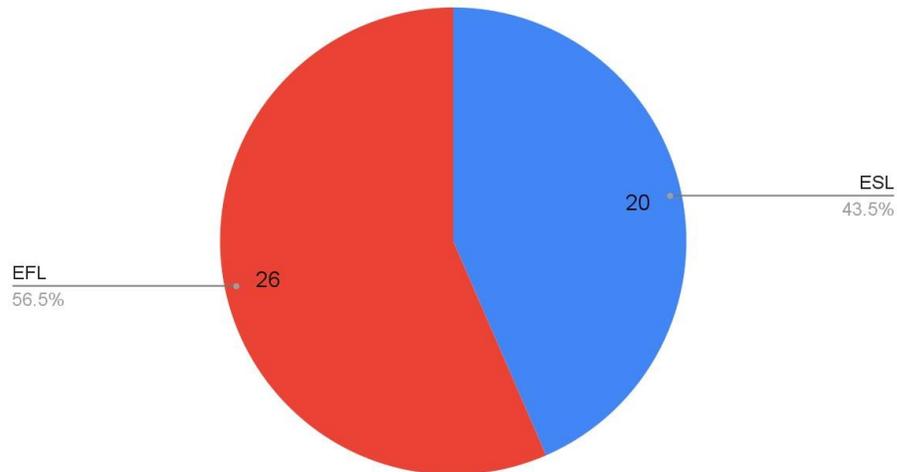
Number of Studies by Country (N=46)



43.5% of studies were conducted in an ESL context and 56.5% in an EFL context (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3

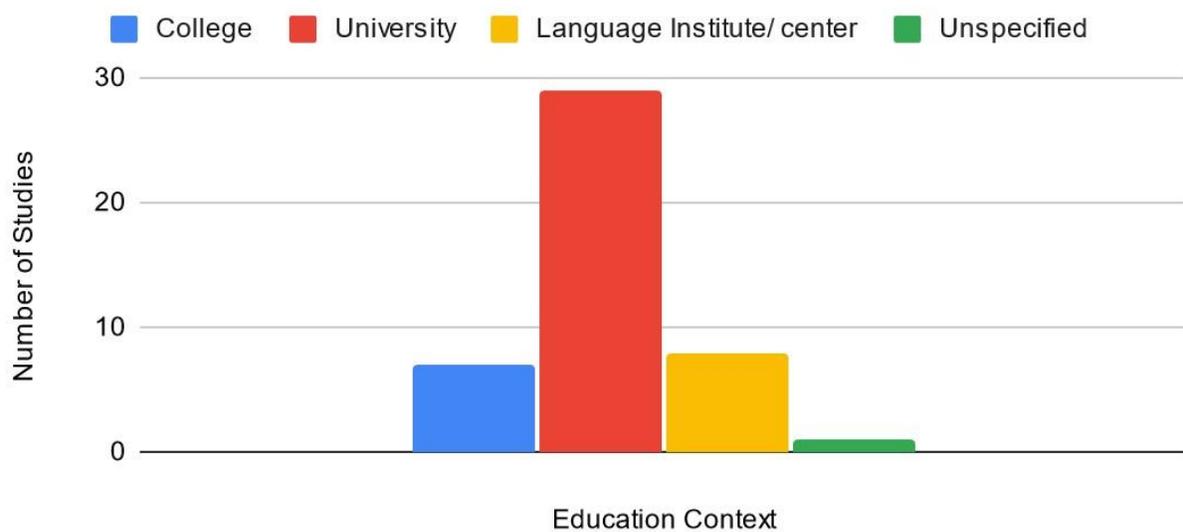
Context: ESL vs EFL



The bulk of reviewed studies occurred in university settings, followed by language institutes and colleges (Figure 4).

Figure 2.4

Number of Studies Per Education Context (N=46)

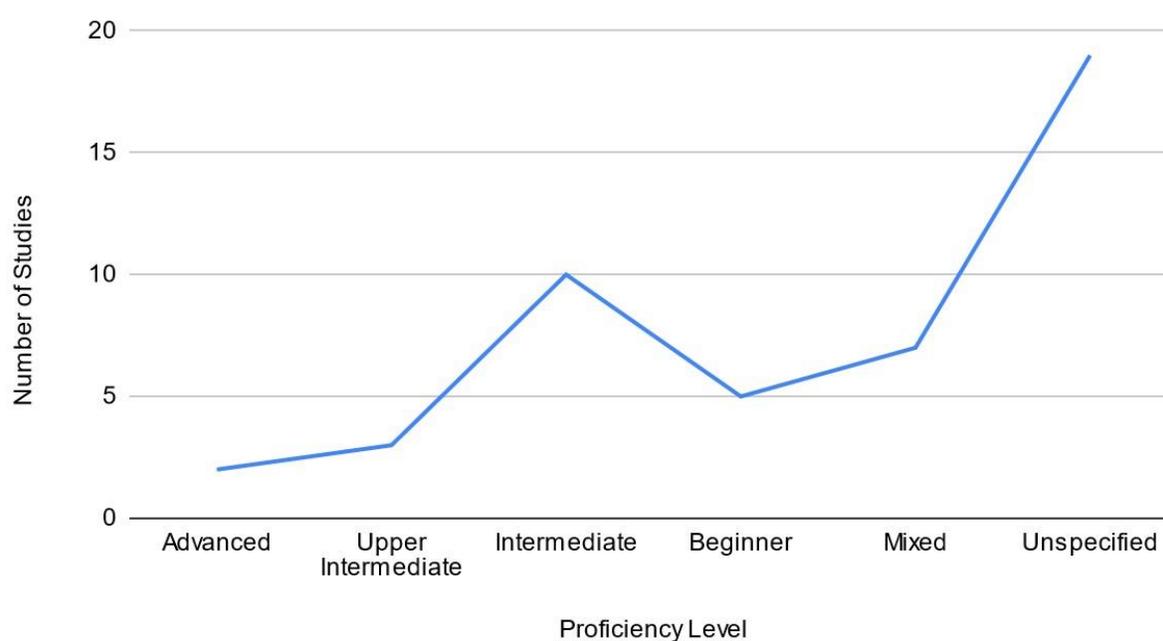


Proficiency levels were broadly grouped into 6 categories: (1) *Mixed*: varying proficiency levels (2) *Advanced* (3) *Upper Intermediate*: upper and higher intermediate (4). *Intermediate* (5) *Beginner*: beginner, low-intermediate, low proficiency, pre-intermediate, and (6) *Unspecified*.

Figure 2.5 illustrates the number of studies by proficiency level.

Figure 2.5

Number of Studies by Proficiency Level (N=46)



2.3 Types of Corrective Feedback

Instructors must decide between providing (a) oral or written corrective feedback; (b) implicit, explicit and/or metalinguistic feedback; and (c) focused or unfocused feedback. In deciding between focused and unfocused feedback, they must also decide whether certain language features should be prioritized over others.

Several feedback strategies can be used to draw students' attention to linguistic errors. According to Kim (2019), written corrective feedback can be thought of as a continuum of highlighting errors; the extent of explicitness varies (Kim, 2019). Direct/explicit written corrective feedback (WCF) involves the teacher overtly pointing out and correcting errors (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). These corrections can be placed next to or above the error. For example, the teacher may add words or phrases as well as cross out redundant or unneeded phrases to make the statement correct (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). Although providing direct feedback is a time-consuming process (Niu & You, 2019), it may help address the unique needs of lower-level students.

In contrast, implicit/indirect written corrective feedback uses an assortment of signs/marks to illustrate errors and encourage students to reflect (Ito, 2015; Lyster, 2002). These clues indicate errors have been made without actually correcting them (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). According to Elashris (2013), there are two types of indirect feedback: Uncoded and Coded. Uncoded feedback entails underlining, circling, highlighting or inserting Xs on errors without providing an explanation (Mujtaba et al., 2020). Students are left to discover errors and correct them (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). With coded feedback, codes are placed on top of or next to errors to illustrate the categories of errors made (Bitchener & Knock, 2010). For example, typically 'Prep' indicates a prepositional error has been made; WF indicates a word form error; and, SVA demonstrates the students have made a subject-verb agreement error. Corrections and final revisions on writing tasks rely completely on students' current knowledge of the target language (Mujtaba et al., 2020). Although some researchers argue that coded feedback is a form of metalinguistic feedback because it communicates information about the nature of the error, in this literature review, coded feedback is classified as a form of indirect feedback.

Teachers may choose to provide metalinguistic explanations in written and/or oral form. Metalinguistic feedback is an approach to guiding students towards the correct answer without explicitly providing it (Lauricella et al., 2022). This can be through explaining rules and presenting examples orally or in written form (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). With metalinguistic explanations (written or oral), teachers may supply examples and explanations to illustrate correct usage (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). Other means of providing oral feedback include one-on-one meetings/conferences, which can be used to provide personalized feedback; and small group or class discussions where the feedback can be used to address areas of concern of multiple students.

Another dimension that needs to be considered is the extensiveness of CF: focused or unfocused. Unfocused feedback is comprehensive in that all or a variety of errors in the student's written work are corrected or emphasized (Ellis et al. 2008; Kim 2019). For example, with this approach, the instructor might treat a wide range of errors including, articles, prepositions, tenses, word form, punctuation, singular plural, and spelling. Focused feedback can be extremely focused or moderately focused. Extremely focused corrective feedback targets one type of error (e.g. incorrect usage of articles) (Ellis et al. 2008). Moderately focused corrective feedback focuses on a specified number of pre-decided linguistic features (Ellis et al. 2008)

Chapter 3. Writing Performance

3.1 Overview of Findings

When considering the evidence from 29 studies, I have found an overall positive relationship between instructor feedback and students' writing performance (Alvira, 2016; Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009b; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Diab, 2015; Ellis et al., 2008; Frear & Chui., 2015; Guo & Barrot, 2019; Hartshorn & Evans, 2015; Hung & Diem, 2020; Karim & Nassaji, 2018; Kim, 2009; Li et al., 2022; Mekala & Ponmani, 2017; Mujtaba et al., 2020; Nematzadeh & Siahpoosh, 2017; Niu & You, 2019; Pan et al., 2023; Parreno, 2015; Rahimi, 2021; Sampson, 2012; Shalizar & Rezaei, 2023; Sheen et al., 2009; Sheen, 2010; Sobhani & Tayebipour., 2015; Solhi, & Eginli, 2020; Soltanpour & Valizadeh, 2018; Subon & Amir 2022; Wondim et al., 2023). Within studies, comparisons were made between either (1) a single feedback approach and control group (2) various feedback approaches, or (3) students' scores before and after feedback intervention. The results below highlight instances where significant distinctions were observed due to a feedback intervention. Refer to Appendix B for information on results including variations between studies, such as the genre of writing, the number of treatment sessions, revision requirements, forms of written compositions (paragraph vs. essays), modes of feedback (oral vs. written), and methods of feedback (focused vs. unfocused, direct vs. indirect vs. metalinguistic or combined approach).

3.2 Major Findings

3.3 Oral Feedback and Teacher-Student Conferences

Findings from Sobhani & Tayebipou's (2015) study suggest that oral feedback is effective in improving students' writing skills. In their investigation, 75 low-intermediate Iranian students were required to produce an essay within 45 minutes based on a composition of pictures. Two weeks after receiving indirect oral feedback, students completed another narrative writing task and were evaluated using an analytical rubric. After scoring essays, it was determined that learners who received oral feedback outperformed those in the control group (no feedback) and those who received written corrective feedback (focused and unfocused). Supporting the conclusions of Sobhani & Tayebipou (2015), Baleghizadeh & Gordani, (2012) found that TEFL graduate students' grammatical accuracy improved more when written direct feedback was combined with oral conferences compared to students exclusively receiving written direct feedback or no feedback at all. Hung and Diem (2020) study also demonstrates the positive impact conferencing feedback has on students' writing performance. As part of the intervention, 48 lower-level first-year students attending college in Vietnam had the opportunity to partake in conferences, a form of feedback that is more conversational in nature. Conferences occurred following 5 writing tests and the topic of discussion were strengths and weaknesses. Pretest-posttest analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in mean scores before and after the treatment, suggesting that even low-stakes conversational feedback results in student uptake. The findings reported in Solhi & Eğinli (2020) and Alvira (2016) seem to suggest that providing oral feedback via technology (recordings and screencasts) are also effective in improving students' writing abilities. Results from Solhi & Eğinli (2020) investigation on the efficacy of audio

feedback on paragraph writing (organization, mechanics, style and content) revealed that oral feedback via Telegram yielded improvement in organization and content. Similarly, Alvira (2016) found that using a blended approach, that is, incorporating multiple forms of feedback (writing and oral) via screencast improves students' paragraph writing in terms of structure and grammar.

3.4 Focused and Unfocused Feedback

Among the 7 studies aimed at comparing the effects of focused and unfocused feedback, findings from 3 studies demonstrate a significant improvement in writing outcomes due to focused feedback (Shalizar and Rezaei, 2023; Sobhani & Tayebipour; 2015; Sheen et al., 2009), results from 2 studies show no statistically significant difference between focused and unfocused feedback (Ellis et al., 2008; Frear and Chiu, 2015), and 2 studies show mixed results (Kim, 2019; Rahimi, 2021). Shalizar and Rezaei (2023) examined the differential effects of focused Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), unfocused ZPD, focused explicit feedback and unfocused explicit feedback on writing accuracy. Over the course of the semester, students produced 5 essays and received one of the 4 aforementioned feedback strategies regularly. ZPD feedback is a strategy that involves students self-editing and the provision of implicit feedback in the initial phase and explicit feedback in the later stages if students are unable to resolve answers on their own. In comparing ZPD groups, they found that over time the focused ZPD group outperformed the unfocused ZPD group on various linguistic features and required less support and less explicit feedback. Similarly, data analysis of pretest-posttest gains from Sobhani & Tayebipour (2015) research investigation revealed that students who received focused written corrective feedback showed significant overall improvement in targeted features (past tense, capitalization and punctuation), whereas the unfocused group did not. Likewise, the research led by Sheen et

al. (2009) which involved intermediate level college students, indicates that focused feedback is effective in improving accuracy of both specific language features and various grammatical structures. In their study, the focus feedback participants received corrections on definite/indefinite articles, while the unfocused feedback group received corrections on 5 different grammatical features: *copular be*; *regular & irregular past tense*; *preposition (time and location)*; *articles*. In examining delayed posttest results, Sheen found a significant difference between the focused group's article accuracy scores and the control groups scores; in terms of linguistic accuracy of the 5 target features, both the focused feedback group and the writing practice group performed significantly better than the control group, whereas the unfocused group did not. The conclusions drawn from Sheen et al. (2009) are inconsistent with the findings of Ellis et al., (2008). In their study, students were assessed using 3 narrative writing tasks and 2 error correction tests. Students received either focused feedback, targeting errors in the use of articles, unfocused feedback, targeting a range of linguistic errors, or no feedback at all (control group). Posttest 2 analysis reveals treatment groups scores were significantly better than control groups in both the narrative and error correction test; however, the difference between types of treatments is non-existent. As such, Ellis et al. (2008) contend that focused and unfocused feedback are equally effective and better than no feedback at all. Fear and Chiu (2015) also compared the effects of indirect focused and indirect unfocused feedback on learners' accuracy in new pieces of writing. Students were instructed to read and study a fictional newspaper essay before having to rewrite it from memory and using picture prompts. Results indicate that both the focused and unfocused group improved significantly in accurate usage of weak verbs from pretest to posttest 1 and pretest to posttest 2, and significantly outperformed the control group in both posttests. Despite this, no significant difference between treatments was found. In regards to overall accuracy, both treatment groups scored better than the control group, and showed no

significant difference in immediate and delayed posttests. The findings from both Kim (2019) and Rahimi (2021) showed mixed results. In Kim's (2019) investigation on the relative effects of focused and unfocused direct corrective feedback on students' accurate usage of indefinite articles and past hypotheticals, he found that in terms of pretest-posttest gains, treatment groups outperformed the control group and were equally effective in improving accuracy of hypothetical conditionals; however, concerning indefinite articles, focused feedback was more effective. Rahimi (2019) compared the effect of focused and unfocused feedback with and without a revision requirement on students' word and sentence errors, overall accuracy, and writing quality. Teachers provided coded feedback (indirect) on seven argumentative essays, though only 3 of them were selected for analysis (week 1, week 8 and week 14). A significant difference was found in week 8 essays where overall, the focus groups made significantly less word errors on their essay than those who received unfocused feedback. Concerning sentence errors, the focus group that revised their original essay performed better than the unfocused groups in the second and final evaluated essays. When analyzing overall accuracy, it was found that the unfocused revision group was most effective in improving accuracy in sentence, word, verb and noun ending, that is 4 out of the 5 categories.

3.5 Indirect Feedback

Results from Mujtaba et al. (2020) study suggests that indirect feedback with or in the absence of praise comments is effective in improving students' narrative writing. Ninety undergraduate students enrolled in a business program were required to produce a 70–100-word narratives using three pictures. In incorporating the indirect feedback, the students' writing performance significantly improved from draft one to draft two and draft two to draft three in terms of grammar, structure, content and wording (Mujtaba et al., 2020). Similarly, Niu & You

(2019) also found that indirect feedback strengthens high intermediate students' writing abilities. As part of a writing course and intervention, students were required to produce 4 argumentative essays, 500 words in length on various topics. For each essay, students were provided with indirect feedback on linguistic errors relating to mechanics (punctuation, capitalization, spelling), grammar and vocabulary. Over the course of 16 weeks, there was a clear progressive improvement in writing accuracy when comparing the number of errors made in the immediate revisions stage and delayed revision stage of each essay. Moreover, comparing the pretest writing administered at the start of the semester with the independent revision made in week 16 of the pretest, illustrates the long-term effect of indirect feedback on linguistic accuracy (Niu & You, 2019). In the study by Subon and Amir (2022), it was also revealed that implicit feedback via underlining and circling enhances upper intermediate students' writing skills. Across a two-week period, learners engaged in four treatment sessions in which they produced 4 short essays using guiding questions presented by the instructor; following submission of their drafts, learners received indirect feedback, and self-corrected errors before submitting their final essay. Upon completing this training process, students wrote 200-word short essays (post-test) within thirty minutes. Using Jacob et al. (1981) rubric for writing, the researchers found a significant difference in learners' essay writing scores before and after intervention (Subon & Amir, 2022). Similarly, results from Wondim et al. (2023) study suggest that indirect feedback positively impacts students' writing achievement. In examining the effects of coded and direct feedback Sampson (2012) found that those who received indirect feedback displayed a modest advantage in self-correcting errors. In Parreno (2015) investigation with intermediate level students, he compared the impact of three feedback strategies, namely indirect uncoded, indirect coded and direct feedback, on students' accurate usage of verb tense, verb form and subject verb agreement in descriptive revision tasks. The evidence highlighted the substantial delayed effects indirect

coded corrective feedback has on revision tasks; results demonstrate that the number of subjectverb agreement errors decreased for all groups in posttest 1 and 2 compared to the pretest; however, the difference between pretest and posttest 2 results were insignificant (limited delayed effect). In terms of verb tense errors, all treatment groups outperformed the control group in posttest 1; however, only the coded feedback group showed significant delayed effects (posttest 2). All treatment groups showed a significant decline in verb form errors from pretest to posttest 1. In terms of delayed effects (posttest 2), only participants in the coded corrective feedback showed significant improvement in accuracy (Parreno, 2015). Findings from Hartshorn et al. (2015) longitudinal investigation examining the impact of a traditional writing course combined dynamic written corrective feedback suggests that consistently incorporating indirect coded feedback significantly improves linguistic accuracy compared to traditional grammar class. Contrary to these studies, findings from Bitchener & Knoch (2010) suggests that the improvement in writing performance from receiving indirect feedback alone is not retainable. Despite showing gains in the immediate posttest and outperforming the control group, the accuracy scores of students who received indirect feedback slightly decreased in the delayed posttest and were comparable to that of the control group (insignificant difference).

3.6 Direct Feedback

Soltanpour & Valizadeh (2018) investigated the impact of direct corrective feedback on upper intermediate learners' syntactic accuracy. They compared the posttest results of students who read and processed the direct feedback (without making any revisions) with learners who made revisions based on the feedback. They found that learners who received direct feedback regardless of how they engaged with it performed better than the control in posttest 1 and delayed posttest. They did, however, highlight the greater gains made in delayed posttest scores

of students who studied the feedback over those that revised their work based on feedback (Soltanpour & Valizadeh 2018). The research carried out by Bitchener & Knoch(2009) with lowintermediate students likewise suggests that providing explicit feedback on specific errors (article usage: a/the) has a long-term impact on learners' writing accuracy. After receiving feedback on one descriptive writing piece (pretest), researchers found that students who received direct feedback significantly outperformed the control group in the immediate posttests and delayed posttests. In another study conducted by Bitchener and Knoch (2009b), it was also revealed that offering direct feedback alone is effective in improving low-intermediate students' usage of indefinite articles. Findings from Mekala & Ponmani (2017) research study also illustrates the advantage of incorporating direct feedback to improve lower-level learners' writing proficiency. Students received explicit feedback on (a) fill-in-the-blank worksheets they completed on various grammatical features (prepositions, verb tense, concord, articles, pronoun, relative pronoun); and (b)6 writing tasks. Results from their study demonstrate that direct corrective feedback along with grammar instruction helps learners reduce overall number of grammar errors (post-test) and that some gains are retainable (Mekala & Ponmani, 2017). Findings from Sheen (2010) suggest that explicit written corrective feedback is more effective in improving students' accurate usage of English articles both short and long term compared to oral recast and no feedback at all. Acquisition of correct articles was assessed using three tests: error correction test, speed dictation test and written narrative test (Sheen,2010).

3.7 Comparing Feedback Strategies

A number of studies have sought to measure and compare the relative effectiveness of multiple feedback strategies. Guo & Barrett's (2019) study comparing the effect of direct feedback and metalinguistic explanation illustrates that direct feedback may be more effective

than the latter in improving accurate use of irregular past tense; although the researchers didn't observe a significant difference between the treatment groups' accurate usage of regular past tense and preposition of space compared to the control, they concluded that both strategies may be helpful in addressing the target language. Karim & Nassaji's (2018) study with intermediate level students demonstrates that receiving direct feedback, indirect feedback and indirect feedback with metalinguistic information is better than receiving no feedback at all. In terms of reduction in error rates, the direct feedback group continuously exhibited the most improvement in the 3 revision tasks (Karim & Nassaji, 2018). According to the findings of Nematzadeh and Siahpoosh (2017) and Sheen (2010), some feedback interventions yield comparable results in terms of effectiveness. The evidence, as found by Nematzadeh and Siahpoosh (2017) demonstrate that both direct and indirect feedback improve intermediate students' writing performance and that the difference between these two approaches are insignificant. Similarly, results from Sheen's (2010) study suggest that oral metalinguistic feedback as well as written metalinguistic feedback are equally effective in improving students' acquisition of articles when compared to the control group. Furthermore, the provision of metalinguistic feedback whether in oral or written form significantly increases student's awareness of the target language when compared to feedback in the absence of metalinguistic information (Sheen, 2010).

Bitchener and Knoch's (2009) found that there is no merit to combining metalinguistic feedback (orally or written form) with written direct corrective feedback to improve low-intermediate students' use of definite and indefinite articles; this supports the notion that direct feedback alone is effective in increasing linguistic accuracy of target features. Similarly in another study by Bitchener & Knoch (2009b) with low-intermediate students, they found no significant difference in accurate usage of definite and indefinite articles between the experimental groups, which further supports the claim that direct feedback alone is useful. In

contrast, results from Wondim et al. (2023) study shows that students who received direct feedback accompanied by a metalinguistic explanation performed better in their paragraph writing than those that received indirect feedback alone. Findings from Shalizar and Rezaei (2023) reveal that ZPD feedback, that is, a process of gradually moving from implicit to explicit feedback, when necessary, is more effective in improving accuracy of target features (article usage) overtime than explicit feedback alone. Li et al. (2022) also found that though direct feedback is useful, cultivating self-regulation strategies, such as goal setting, progress tracking, and reflecting had an even greater effect on students' writing achievement.

In certain studies, feedback effectiveness showed variation across different stages of testing (immediate and delayed posttests) and occasionally demonstrated the superiority of a specific intervention in targeting particular error types. In Diab's (2015) study comparing the efficacy of three feedback strategies (direct feedback + indirect coded feedback; indirect coded feedback; self-correction), all groups decrease the number of pronoun errors in their immediate posttest (essay), with the greatest improvement produced by students who received direct feedback along with codes (posttest 1). A significant difference in pronoun errors between immediate and delayed posttest for students who received coded feedback. The number of word choice errors also decreased for all groups in posttest 1, and there was no significant difference between groups. As for word choice error in delayed posttest, only the direct feedback codes group was able to maintain their gains, while the control group and indirect coded group increased in word choice errors from immediate posttest to delayed posttest. Similarly, results from Sampson (2012) study illustrates that students' progress from first to final draft did not follow a straight path. He commented "almost all showed an alternating pattern of increasing and

decreasing success from one test to the next, suggesting that receptive acquisition, if any, is nonlinear, occasionally regressive, with some observable bursts of progress” (p. 499).

Chapter 4. Student Perceptions and Preferences

4.1 Overview of Findings

From the studies examined, it is evident that both teachers and students understand and recognize the value of receiving feedback. Overall, students hold a positive view of instructor feedback and believe it plays a vital role in their writing development and achievement (Akbar & Al-Gharabally, 2020; Amara, 2015; Best et al. 2015; Bhowmik & Chaudhuri, 2021; Chen et al., 2016; Corbin, 2019; Eckstein et al., 2023; Ene & Kosobucki, 2016; Gredler, 2018; Irwin (2017) Jahbel et al. 2020’ Karim & Nassaji, 2015; Linh, 2018; Maliborska & You, 2016; Mohammad & Rahman (2016); Pan et al., 2023; Wang & Li, 2011)

4.2 Major Findings

4.3 One-on-One Engagement: Conferences and Oral Feedback

Participants in Bhowmik & Chaudhuri (2021) research study contend that in order to address difficulties in writing that are rooted in cultural differences, there is a need for more ‘talk sessions’ with the instructor. Not only do students believe instructors should “sit with them” to deconstruct the feedback, but the majority of learners believe follow-up or dialogue regarding feedback on activities can help address issues related to writing various genres. In general, students in this study view ongoing writing support through physical check-ins as imperative to

their development (Bhowmik & Chaudhuri 2021). Similarly, findings from Best et al. (2015) suggest that ELLs view student-teacher conferences favourably and see it as important to their growth as learners. They consider it a chance to improve as writers and receive clarity on comments made that they believe were vague, unclear, or displeasing. According to students, the one-on-one session allows them to receive more detailed recommendations and encourages them to actively engage with the feedback and teachers' comments during the live discussion. Simultaneously, through these conferences, students feel that they can convey their ideas that may have been misunderstood by the teacher. Best et al., (2015) describe this as a "give-and-take process, a cooperative exchange between student and instructor. "Participants in Amara's (2015) study also believe it is vital to incorporate some form of discussion along with indirect written feedback to invite conversation and facilitate understanding rather than judgment. Advanced language learners in Pan et al. (2023) study conveyed a strong interest in having opportunities to discuss feedback with teachers; one student commented that in discussing with the teacher, she received clarification on lexical errors and received expanded explanation on grammatical errors that needed to be revised (Pan et al., 2023). Results from Maliborski & You (2016) study also indicate students and teachers alike prefer balanced discussions where neither party leads. In general, students are satisfied with feedback writing conferences as they find it encouraging, and conducive to the revision process. Other benefits cited by students include personalized feedback focusing on their unique needs and follow-ups to ensure the appropriate revisions are being made (Maliborski & You, 2016). Despite these benefits, several students in Maliborski & You, (2016) study reported difficulties communicating with their instructors. For instance, one student noted experiencing frustration for their inability to explain ideas during feedback conferences; another student reported that the teacher assumed they understood the student's concerns when in reality they didn't. Similar to Maliborski & You (2016) findings, Alvira's (2016) study on the use of oral

and written feedback via screencast shows that the majority of students believe written and oral commentary is easier to understand. The study by Chen et al. (2016) brought forth a noteworthy revelation: Although 35% of respondents consider oral communication to be more straightforward and understandable, over half the participants believe it is not useful because unlike WCF it cannot be accessed or revisited in the future. Many students in Chen et al., (2016) study believes oral feedback, particularly for written errors, is ineffective.

4.4 Focused and Unfocused Feedback

Among the studies reviewed, two yielded mixed results, 3 suggested students desire feedback on all errors (unfocused feedback), and two studies indicate a preference for targeted feedback (focused). Half of the participants in Corbin's (2019) research study believe teachers should correct all errors, whereas the other half disagreed with this approach. Chen et al. (2016) findings also produced inconclusive results in that the disparity in the number of students favouring one method over the other was relatively small. When presented with choices, students prioritize "correcting errors that interfere with communicating ideas", "correcting all errors" and "major errors", respectively. The proficiency level of students did not seem to affect their choices (Chen et al., 2016). On the other hand, nearly all students in Makela et al. (2017) study reported that correcting all errors is the duty of teachers. Approximately 75% of respondents in Irwin's (2017) study indicated a preference for extensive feedback on every error made in the written work. When probed on the topic of future feedback on written work, learners were strongly in favor of greater error correction. Irwin (2017) posits that perhaps ELLs felt that too many errors were overlooked, highlighting that 33% of errors were not corrected. Similarly, Jahbel et al. (2020) study demonstrates a clear preference of unfocused feedback amongst

students. In contrast to these findings, all learners in Sampson's (2012) study agreed that extensive feedback is demotivating, with one student stating "when you try so hard to do your best, a page covered in corrections is disheartening"; Parreno (2015) reported that students' emotions are influenced by the quantity of corrective feedback. Even though students didn't express negative views on written corrective feedback, the researchers recognized negative emotions from students who received comprehensive grammar feedback.

4.5 Metalinguistic Information and Detailed Comments

In Karim & Nassaj's (2015) study assessing students' attitudes and views towards corrective feedback, the majority of participants in all treatment groups agreed that underlining errors (indirect feedback) and providing a metalinguistic explanation is more valuable to their learning than indirect feedback alone (underline only) and direct feedback. Respondents pointed out that this combined approach gives them a hint as to what the error is and leaves them room to discover on their own (Karim & Nassaj, 2015). Similarly, findings from Mohammed and Rahman's (2016) study demonstrate that the majority of students consider "clues or direction on how to fix an error" (p.16) as important. Similarly, Intermediate-level students attending a language program at a university in the United States also emphasized the importance of incorporating explanation along with indirect feedback (Amara, 2015). Some respondents were unhappy with the fact that teachers did not leave written feedback about the errors made and their overall writing. For example, one student asked, "Why did she not mention what's wrong in both circles?", thus illustrating the limited assistance indirect feedback provides (Amara, 2015). In a longitudinal case study investigation conducted by Ene & Kosobucki (2016), the case study subject reported greater appreciation for written comments and explanations as opposed to indirect feedback (codes and symbols). More comments, according to the student, are insightful,

motivating and clarifying. Likewise, several ELLs in Maliborska & You (2016) study explained that to aid in the revision process, they need thorough and precise feedback. In Corbin's, (2019) research investigation it was demonstrated that detailed explanations and thorough comments were preferred by students. 97% of learners in Gredler's (2018) study agreed that explanations/comments should accompany error correction to provide further insight. A number of students conveyed the need for understandable and in-depth feedback from instructors. One respondent emphasized the significance of feedback that elaborates on particular errors and commentary explaining content that should be included and excluded from written work. Moreover, students expressed a desire to receive thorough feedback even when grades received were pleasing (Gredler's, 2018). Best et al., (2015) found that comments help students comprehend and rationalize grades, while encouraging them to actively engage in revising their work. Moreover, students want the points made by the instructor to be comprehensible, achievable and action-oriented.

4.6 Affective Factors (Support, Tone, and Positive Comments)

Receiving feedback can elicit a spectrum of emotions. The results discussed outlines factors that trigger strong reactions from students, whether that be positive or negative. In examining international doctoral students' emotional reactions to supervisor feedback, Wang & Li (2007) identified two categories of affective response to the feedback: (a) *Frustrated/uncertain tendency (group 1)* (b) *Inspired/confident tendency (group 2)*. Students who reported negative affective emotions felt that they did not receive the support needed, and they did not appreciate the teacher embracing a subordinate role. These participants anticipated receiving explicit guidance and often reported feeling stressed, unsure and scared to reach out for help. On the contrary, students who experienced positive emotions valued the opportunity to

assume a leading role, explore on their own, and engage in thoughtful discussion with the supervisor (Wang & Li, 2007). Gredler's (2018) study on postsecondary students' preferences for feedback in an online environment illustrates students' desire for empowering and constructive feedback. Participants noted that judgmental comments, disrespectful words, and harsh criticism are neither constructive nor encouraging (Gredler, 2018). Amara (2015) reported that learners can misinterpret teacher comments and sometimes react strongly to them. Students' responses to words or simple phrases, such as 'Really!' and 'Wait!' were perceived by some as provocative, confusing and even rude. In terms of praise comments, results from Akbar & Al-Gharabally (2020) research indicate that students appreciate the incorporation of praise comments that focus on their writing efforts and they see the value in grading effort. In this study, grades were based on students' ability to follow feedback instructions on their first draft of a paper. While the practice of praising efforts over writing abilities was new to participants, many seemed to believe that it was an effective strategy (after receiving positive results). Although praise may not result in increased uptake, it appears, nevertheless, to be appreciated by students. Furthermore, many students reported an interest in applying the 'praise effort' scheme in subsequent courses (Akbar & Al-Gharabally 2020). Consistent with these findings, results from Amara's study (2015) demonstrate that positive feedback is valued by all students and is thought to positively influence the effort put forth as well as their perspectives toward their writing and instructor comments. Not a single participant revealed that praise comments were ineffective or pointless, irrespective of the length of the comment. Additionally, some students appreciate remarks of praise even if it is vague (Amara, 2015; Best et al.,). ELLs in Best et al. (2015) study were receptive and grateful for all types of positive comments. The theme of positive remarks was brought up multiple times by students in Corbin's (2015) study, with several students stressing the importance of receiving compliments. Ene & Kosobucki (2016) also found that positive comments can be motivating and

reinforcing: "When I see good comments, I feel good. I feel like my writing has improved."; "I was happy with this comment because it shows how I improved. I felt encouraged." Although students yearn for positive feedback, they likely want to know if their writing is of high quality. In their investigation, Eckstein et al., (2023) found that not only does praising performance lead to better writing outcomes than praising the person (comments focused on intelligence), but it is also viewed by students as more straightforward, useful, and motivating. Furthermore, they perceived that they gained more new ideas when their performance was praised. Nonetheless, many students also considered personal praise to be beneficial (Eckstein et al., 2023). Findings from Mujtaba et al.(2020) indicate that participants believe indirect feedback(coded) with simple positive comments boosts their motivation. Based on the findings of these studies, it is clear the students desire constructive, positive, and uplifting feedback.

4.7 Students Concerns and Priorities

Findings from Chen et al (2016) survey with intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced students indicate that learners want teachers to prioritize organization errors first, followed by grammar errors and then vocabulary errors. Respondents also believe comments focusing on their overall quality of writing and organization are more important than remarks on grammar. In general, organization is viewed by students as integral to their writing development (Chen et al., 2016). Similarly, participants in Amara's (2015) research study also desired deeper insights into features such as organization and arguments. For instance, one participant noted the importance of receiving feedback on connecting and organizing ideas (Amara, 2015).

Participants in Parreno's (2015) study highlighted that written comments focusing on ideas helps them improve their overall quality of writing. The case study subject in Enes & Kosobucki's (2016) research study, also expressed her personal focus on content of writing, emphasizing that

with restricted time, it's more important to concentrate on ideas as opposed to grammar. A recurring theme that emerged in Bhowmick's (2017) study was that of cultural divergences and influences of L1 in academic writing in L2; As noted by several participants, feedback should bring students' attention to the cultural differences in writing expectations. These include elements of academic writing, such as structure and order, "English text structures" "style", "voice" "originality", "clarity" and other "culturally loaded concepts such as thesis statements and essays." Furthermore, students agree that feedback should be broadened to encompass not only technical aspects of writing but also components such as coherence, transition, formality, etc. (Bhowmik & Chaudhuri, 2021) (Bhowmick, 2017). Some participants in Maliboroska & You's (2016) study also reported feeling irritated when attempting to logically and skillfully convey their ideas in writing. Participants highlighted the importance of teachers understanding and accepting different ideas. One learner in Wang & Li's (2011) study also expressed similar concerns in that they felt the feedback received was a clear indication that their unique experiences and background were disregarded and unappreciated. Other students struggled with understanding formal vs informal standardized writing principles and were discontent with their supervisor focusing heavily on revising grammar errors (Wang & Li, 2011). On the contrary, only 2.6% of learners in Irwin's (2017) study believe that feedback should concentrate on content and ideas, whereas nearly half the students indicate that they prefer teachers to focus their feedback on lexical errors. Many also believe written corrective feedback on grammatical errors should be prioritized (Irwin, 2017).

4.8 Direct, Indirect and Metalinguistic Comments

Results from Suboon's et al. (2022) follow-up interview with upper intermediate-level students indicate that learners have an overall positive perception of indirect

feedback(underlining or circling errors); they believed it supported them in decreasing errors and enhancing their quality of writing. In general, students viewed indirect feedback favorably. Similarly, Corbin's (2019) study with college students revealed that students see highlighting errors as an advantage, for it encourages them to discover how to correct errors independently. In Parreno's (2015) study comparing the impact of three feedback strategies, intermediate level students that received indirect uncoded corrective feedback noted that it was easier to recall and avoid errors in subsequent activities and those that received indirect coded feedback explained that examining and comprehending mistakes is made easier by the provision of codes. It is worth mentioning that a 'correction guide' is an important part in the revision process. Findings from Jahbel et al. (2020) suggest that learners prefer indirect feedback to direct feedback. The evidence presented by Linh (2018) indicates that both teachers and learners agree on the advantages of providing indirect feedback on grammar. The majority of participants found it easy to correct errors when presented with indirect feedback. However, in terms of content and organization, many students felt confused about how to correct these sorts of errors (organization: connecting ideas; content: lack of supporting evidence). They believed indirect feedback is ineffective in improving the content of writing. Over half of the learners revealed that they spend a lot of time and effort engaging with indirect WCF (Linh, 2018). In a study that compared indirect coded feedback and direct feedback, the majority of students favored coded feedback (Sampson, 2012). Moreover, students who received coded feedback experienced positive emotions when engaging in revision tasks and also described the process as beneficial and enjoyable. On the contrary, Pan et al. (2023) found that indirect feedback posed a challenge to both high and low proficiency students. Students were unclear as to what certain symbols aimed to convey. Feedback on grammar errors were understood by all high proficiency learners, whereas low proficiency learners had trouble understanding the feedback. Similarly, diary entries

from participants in Parreno (2015) unveiled that students often have misconceptions about the target of written corrective feedback. For instance, a circle around a word, they explained, could either be grammar error, spelling mistake, or incorrect word.

Results from Irwin's (2017) research study were inconclusive in that nearly half the students preferred direct feedback (47.4%) while the other half (52.6%) preferred indirect feedback. Students preferred indirect coded feedback over the usage of other symbols and underlining errors (indirect uncoded feedback); however, they explained that coding explanations are imperative. Similarly, students in Mekala & Ponmani (2017) study prefer errors to be indicated either by supplying the correct answer (explicitly) or noting the error made (codes-indirect feedback). Participants in Wang & Li's (2007) study who felt less competent expected ongoing 'explicit and directive feedback', whereas students who were confident appreciated the facilitative role teachers assumed. Respondents in Karim & Nassaj's (2015) direct feedback group reported having difficulty recalling errors and corrections provided, while those in the underline-only feedback group noted their basic understanding of vocabulary and grammar made it difficult to correct answers on their own (Karim & Nassaj, 2015).

Contrary to these findings, evidence as found by Bhowmik & Chaudhuri (2021) suggests that despite the effectiveness of implicit feedback in error correction, the provision of explicit feedback is a technique needed to deal with cultural issues in formal writing. For instance, one interviewee from China stated, "We are students and we need to learn, and sometimes the teacher [would] want to teach us some grammar mistakes [in texts] because he thinks we can find it by ourselves but actually some students can't... there is no way to fix this..." This demonstrates the need for more direct guidance. Consistent with these findings, university students at the same

proficiency level (intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced students) studying in Mainland China also reported a preference for direct feedback in the form of explicit grammar correction (Chen et al. 2016). When presented with error correction approaches, on average students prefer "locating the error and also indicating the type of error", followed by "correcting the error and then providing an explanation for the correction" and "simply indicating that you have an error in the sentence by putting a cross next to it without locating or correcting the error". It is, however, important to note that advanced students rated explicit feedback on a lower level than the other two proficiency groups (Chen et al. 2016). Considering the perceived value of different types of feedback, many students in Mohammed & Rahman's (2016) study feel that clues alone are not helpful, but must be accompanied by explicit correction. They also believe that receiving explicit feedback encourages them to self-correct. In attempts to understand how students cognitively process the feedback, Pan et al. (2023) found that low proficiency students tended to copy the direct feedback without putting effort into understanding where they went wrong, whereas high proficiency learners were able to discern the reason for these corrections. Overall, the revision rates were better for advanced students, indicating they were more attentive to the feedback provided. Nonetheless, lower-level students expressed a preference for direct feedback, citing that it facilitates learning. The majority of the high proficiency learners preferred both approaches, referencing the usefulness of indirect feedback for the revisions of basic grammar errors and direct feedback for revision of complex grammar points (Pan et al., 2023).

Intermediate level students who received direct feedback in Parreno's, (2015) study, appreciated this form of feedback as it didn't leave them wondering what error they made and how to correct it. Others also emphasized that it made them more attentive to their errors (Parreno, 2015).

Chapter 5. Analysis

5.1 Limitations

While the objective of this review is to examine the impact of instructor feedback on written language development and to gain insight into student perceptions and preferences related to feedback, it's important to recognize the various limitations of this study. This is true first and foremost, in the area of measuring successful uptake of teacher feedback. For example, as part of treatment, some experiments required students to revise their work after receiving instructor feedback whereas in other studies, students only reviewed the feedback before moving on to the next treatment session or completing a posttest. Another critical difference between studies is the number of treatment sessions students received; this ranged from as few as one session all the way through to weekly sessions for two semesters. Moreover, the number of corrections students receive per linguistic category, irrespective of the approach used (focused vs unfocused), potentially affects the reliability of the data collected. Furthermore, in order to identify patterns, and interpret results, I categorized students into 6 proficiency levels; the problem is the studies I reviewed may involve different conceptions and/or scales for placement level. As such, there is no way of determining the equivalency between students within the same proficiency level. Another point to consider is that some of the experimental studies did not contain a control group, but instead measured improvement within the group over time; it is possible that in some cases, progress may be attributed to writing practice rather than feedback itself. As I draw conclusions and discuss the implications of my findings, it's important to keep these limitations in mind.

5.2 Discussion

Based on analysis of research, the findings confirm providing feedback generally leads to improved writing performance of English Language Learners. With regard to research question 1, the evidence demonstrates some variations in outcomes among participants between studies. These variations can be attributed to an interplay of moderating factors mentioned in *Limitations*. Although there is clear evidence supporting the value of each of these approaches, it is important to consider learner differences and preferences when deciding which strategy to employ. The studies consistently show that incorporating some form of oral feedback enhances students' writing performance. One possible explanation for this outcome is that it affords negotiation, dialogue and allows students to actively respond to feedback in real time. Providing oral feedback may help some students accept critique more easily; as highlighted in several studies focusing on student feedback preferences, corrections all throughout a student's paper may evoke negative emotions and discourage students; however, meaningful conversations and listening to the needs of students while providing feedback may help minimize the intensity of emotions. Furthermore, conversations may help ensure students understand comments made on their written work. If teachers decide to provide oral feedback exclusively, it is important to have students participate in the discussion and take notes rather than passively listen. Without tangible notes, students may forget key points and errors discussed in conversations. Concerning the accuracy of specific linguistic features, the research seems to indicate that focused feedback is more effective than unfocused feedback. Even in studies where the observed differences between the unfocused and focused group did not reach statistical significance (Ellis et al., 2008; Frear & Chiu, 2015), there was a general trend in which focused feedback yielded consistent and long term benefits for targeted language features. One plausible reason for these outcomes can be

explained by the Noticing Theory proposed by Schmidt (1990). According to his theory, there are three key levels of awareness, namely, perception, noticing and understanding (Schmidt, 1990). Focused feedback contributes to 'noticing' errors as it draws students' attention to specific elements of their writing that need to be improved. Schmidt (1990) argues "that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake." (p.1). With multiple treatment sessions, students may begin to develop a sense of awareness and notice errors, which in turn may influence their writing output. However, when targeting multiple linguistic features, as done in unfocused feedback, it may overload students, making it difficult for them to attend to all errors relating to form. Other researchers, including Ferris (2006) and Ellis et al. (2006) have discussed the issue of unfocused feedback and student awareness, emphasizing that focusing on a single linguistic category makes it easier to recognize and process the feedback. Nonetheless, research by Hartshorn & Evans (2015) demonstrates that the provision of consistent comprehensive (unfocused) coded feedback over an extensive period of time in a traditional writing class can significantly impact ELLs' linguistic accuracy. It may be that unfocused indirect feedback requires multiple treatment sessions and revisions for students to fully benefit from it. In terms of the relative effectiveness of direct, indirect and metalinguistic feedback, it seems that certain interventions or strategies might work better for specific individuals and not for others due to various moderating factors. Generally, students who receive some form of feedback improve their writing performance more than those who do not receive feedback (control group). Multiple studies demonstrate the effectiveness of explicit feedback for learners, highlighting the advantages students at various levels experience. Lower-level students may benefit from the simple provision of error corrections alone (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener and Notch, 2009b). Direct feedback allows students not only to recognize that an error has been made, but provides them with the linguistic solution to their error. Repeated exposure to

correct linguistic forms along with metalinguistic explanation may allow students to acquire declarative knowledge and aid with the third stage of awareness, 'Understanding' as described by Schmidt (1990). Some researchers hypothesize that declarative knowledge is the first step in the learning continuum (Anderson 1982 in Schmidt, 1990). Assuming this premise holds true, then the lack of grammatical knowledge lower-level students possess explains why sometimes indirect feedback alone does not lead to enhanced writing performance in the long term. Another significant issue that should not be ignored is the difference between coded and uncoded indirect feedback. Although coded feedback can be classified as either metalinguistic information or indirect feedback, in this study it is classified as indirect feedback. As implied by the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990)), highlighting and circling of errors as well as inserting symbols such as question marks, while perhaps suggesting something is wrong, may not help students fully register what kind of error is present in their writing, thereby making it difficult for them to truly notice and correct errors. It is also important to acknowledge that noticing can be facilitated or disrupted by elements such as "learners' aptitude, developmental readiness, and various affective factors" (Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012, p. 333 in Soltanpour & Valizadeh, 2018). In terms of corrections codes, there are studies indicating the delayed benefits of indirect coded feedback for self-corrections and improvement in accuracy. It seems that the advantages may be more apparent for advanced students since self-correcting depends on a student's linguistic knowledge. Harmer (2015) rightly points out that to capitalize on this form of indirect feedback, students need to first understand the grammatical principles conveyed by these codes and practice using these codes to self-edit errors. Ferris (1999) in his article, *The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott* questions the reliability of indirect feedback in addressing all types of errors. She posits that treatable errors, that is errors guided by a clear set of rules,

unlike untreatable errors, can be resolved by use of indirect feedback. Comparing the conclusions drawn by Hartshorn and Evans (2015), Bitchener and Knoch (2009, 2009b, 2010) as well as Shalizar & Rezaei (2023) clearly illustrate the effectiveness of different feedback approaches and the importance of taking into account the interrelated factors that may be mitigating the effectiveness of each of these methods.

In regards to research question two, the reviewed studies present mixed findings in terms of student's perceptions of feedback and preferences of feedback. While some studies suggest ELLs prefer unfocused feedback, others indicate the opposite or mixed response. Similar results were found when investigating students' views towards direct, indirect and metalinguistic explanation. Across studies, however, detailed feedback and commentary is viewed favorably by students. Overall, some variations in attitudes, perceptions and preferences can be attributed to cultural differences, personality differences and proficiency level. With the proficiency level of ELLs considered, it seems that beginner and lower-level students tend to favor comprehensive feedback, whereas advanced students hold differing opinions. Moreover, in general, there seems to be an overall positive perception of direct feedback, and the perspective that there are clear situations where direct feedback is preferred amongst students. In students' views, direct feedback is necessary to address 'untreatable' errors, organization and content issues as well as cultural differences in writing. Across studies, we also observed that students prefer and value detailed constructive feedback. The overall positive perception towards direct feedback, unfocused feedback and detailed commentary can be explained by the same underlying factors. Students who prioritize grading and evaluation may hold the belief that in order to revise their work and achieve the best grades, the provision of explicit written corrective feedback on every single error is necessary. Furthermore, indirect feedback may be of little use to students who do not possess the grammatical knowledge needed to revise errors independently. Identifying and

explaining mistakes through written corrective feedback and commentary may help students understand what aspects of their writing are effective and what needs improvement, which may help them avoid these mistakes in the future. Through my systematic review of the literature, I found students in general are in favor of detailed commentary and in many cases believe it is necessary for making progress. The conclusion drawn by Mahfood (2011) is that in the absence of explanatory comments outlining the reason for errors, Arab students often did not accept teachers' written feedback. Cultural differences, as illustrated through Mahfood's (2011) study as well as personality differences may further shed light on my findings. Decapua and Wintergrest (2016) in their book discuss differences in cultural expectation in education, highlighting that in some cultures the teacher's role is not to guide but to impart knowledge in a systematic and direct way. Similarly, Hofsted et al., (2010) points out that teachers are the 'sage on the stage' in cultures where power distances are large and that they pave the educational road for students to adhere to (Hofsted et al., 2010). This paints a clear picture as to why many students across studies prefer and expect teachers to correct all errors and provide explicit feedback. It also helps explain why some participants in Wang & Li (2007) study experienced negative affective emotions due to the facilitative role supervisors were undertaking. These students clearly expressed their desire and need for direct guidance in their doctoral journey. Wang & Li (2007) noted students' emotional responses to the feedback are rooted in culture and that culture influences students' response to critical feedback. Their study unveiled a significant pattern, namely the type and quantity of feedback students require change as time progresses. The "Apprentice master model" is desired in the early phases where specific and organized feedback is necessary and then over time and as they build confidence students begin to appreciate the 'mentor model'. This finding suggests that personality traits, culture, as well as students' level of readiness, influences students' perceptions about and engagement with the feedback.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

6.1 Pedagogical Implications

The current review showcases the overall positive impact instructor feedback has on writing development and performance. This literature review also presents a unique perspective on the variables mitigating the impact of various feedback strategies. Educators must consider these factors in order to maximize advantages and facilitate academic growth. Based on the results, there are a number of pedagogical implications. First, language teachers must consider cultural differences, not only in academic writing but also in expectations and responsibilities. Bonner et al. (2018) asserts that when teaching practices and strategies are in line with students' learning preferences and when instructors embrace the unique perspectives and experiences students bring forth, academic success will increase. (Trans-multi) culturally responsive teaching, as Raisinghani (2019) highlights, invites students to participate in decision-making processes. This may include considering students' input on feedback strategies. Gay (2010) emphasizes that culturally competent teachers work towards establishing learning environments where all students can thrive through incorporating culturally relevant pedagogy. Second, educators must consider students' proficiency level, grammatical competence and confidence in order to select a suitable feedback approach. Students with a stronger command of the English language are more equipped to recognize and self-correct errors, benefiting from indirect feedback, whereas novice English language learners may need to rely on teacher direct support more. Third, students tend to respond positively to oral feedback; however, for it to be truly beneficial, it must be a balanced conversation where both voices are heard and negotiation takes place. Fourth, there is not a one-size-fits all approach; The ZPD feedback study by Shalizar & Rezaei (2023) and Hartshorn et al.

(2016) study on dynamic feedback shows us that it may be a good idea to experiment with different feedback approaches for writing and compare the results to see what works best for your students. In terms of preferences, students value constructive detailed feedback and generally respond positively to explicit feedback. The delivery of feedback, i.e. tone can affect students' motivation and influence their response to the feedback.

6.2 Future Research

To devise more specific recommendations regarding feedback approaches to improve ELLs writing performance, future researchers will need to compare studies that are homogenous in content, design and learner competency. This means examining studies with the same number of treatment sessions, with the same target structures, and studies where students are ranked at the same proficiency levels and are given the same amount of time to either study the feedback or revise work based on feedback. It would also be interesting to investigate the impact of indirect, direct and metalinguistic feedback on a range of linguistic features and aspects of writing. Future research can also examine how context, EFL vs ESL and feedback strategies influence writing outcomes and engagement with feedback. To draw reliable conclusions about the long-term impact of a particular feedback strategy, researchers need to ensure the difference in time between pretest and delayed posttest are comparable across studies. It may also be worthwhile to consider whether the genre of the writing task influences ELLs' writing performance. Lastly, given the current demand for online learning, it may be beneficial to see whether the advantages of various feedback strategies extend equally to an online environment. Future studies should address these unanswered questions. Despite the existing gaps, this review has contributed immeasurably to my understanding of the complexities involved in providing feedback on students' writing performance. In light of these findings, I am determined to help

students build the confidence and skills needed to effectively engage and respond to the feedback they receive; I will incorporate praise comments and consider the needs and preferences of my students. Educators, like myself, must continue to experiment with different feedback approaches and keep up to date with the latest research to make the best decisions for our students.

REFERENCES

- Akbar, R. S., & Al-Gharabally, N. (2020). Does praising intelligence improve achievements? An ESL case. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 9(3), 279.
<https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v9n3p279>
- Alvira, R. (2016). The impact of oral and written feedback on EFL writers with the use of screencasts. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 18(2), 79.
<https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v18n2.53397>
- Amara, T. M. (2015). Learners' perceptions of teacher written feedback commentary in an ESL writing classroom. *International Journal of English language teaching*, 3(2), 38-53.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Gordani, Y. (2012). Academic Writing and Grammatical Accuracy: The role of Corrective feedback. *Gist: Education and Learning Research Journal*, 6, 159–176.
<https://doi.org/10.26817/16925777.19>
- Best, K., Jones-Katz, L., Smolarek, B., Stolzenburg, M., & Williamson, D. (2015). Listening to our students: An exploratory practice study of ESL writing students' views of feedback. *Tesol Journal*, 6(2), 332-357.
- Bhowmik, S., & Chaudhuri, A. (2021). "I Need My Instructor to Like Sit with Me": Addressing Culture in L2 Writing Instruction. *BC TEAL Journal*, 6(1), 11-28.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The contribution of written corrective feedback to language Development: a ten-month investigation. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(2), 193–214.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp016>
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009b). The relative effectiveness of different types of direct written corrective feedback. *System*, 37(2), 322–329.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.12.006>

- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). Raising the linguistic accuracy level of advanced L2 writers with written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 19*(4), 207–217.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.10.002>
- Bonner, P., Warren, S., & Jiang, Y. (2017). Voices from Urban Classrooms: Teachers' perceptions on instructing diverse students and using culturally responsive teaching. *Education and Urban Society, 50*(8), 697–726.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124517713820>
- Chen, S., Nassaji, H., & Liu, Q. (2016). EFL learners' perceptions and preferences of written corrective feedback: a case study of university students from Mainland China. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education, 1*(1).
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-016-0010-y>
- Corbin, B. (2019). Students' Wants and Preferences for Essay Feedback in College Level English Courses. *English in Texas, 49*(2), 24-30.
- DeCapua, A., & Wintergerst, A. C. (2016). *Crossing cultures in the language classroom*.
<http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA66657393>
- Diab, N. M. (2015). Effectiveness of written corrective feedback: Does type of error and type of correction matter? *Assessing Writing, 24*, 16–34.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2015.02.001>
- Eckstein, G., Coca, K., Lung, Y. S. M., & McMurry, B. L. (2023). Praise in Written Feedback: How L2 Writers Perceive and Value Praise. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 1-17*.
- Elashri, I. I. E. A. F. (2013). The impact of the direct teacher feedback strategy on the EFL secondary stage students' writing performance. Online Submission.

- Ellis, R., S. Loewen, and R Erlam. 2006. Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28, no. 2: 339–368. doi:10.1017/S0272263106060141
- Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System*, 36(3), 353–371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.02.001>
- Ene, E., & Kosobucki (2016). Rubrics and corrective feedback in ESL writing: A longitudinal case study of an L2 writer. *Assessing writing*, 30, 3-20.
- Ferris, D. 2006. Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short- and longterm effects of written error correction. In *Feedback in Second Language Writing*, eds. K. Hyland, and F. Hyland, 81–104. Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9781139524742.007
- Ferris, D. R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing*, 19, 6–23. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2013.09.004>
- Frear, D., & Chiu, Y. H. (2015). The effect of focused and unfocused indirect written corrective feedback on EFL learners' accuracy in new pieces of writing. *System*, 53, 24-34.
- Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teacher: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press
- Gredler, J. J. (2018). Postsecondary Online Students' Preferences for Text-Based Instructor Feedback. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 30(2), 195-206.

- Guo, Q., & Barrot, J. S. (2019). Effects of metalinguistic explanation and direct correction on EFL learners' linguistic accuracy. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 35(3), 261–276.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2018.1540320>
- Harmer, J. (2015). *Practice of English Language Teaching with DVD* (5th ed.). Pearson Longman.
- Hartshorn, K. James and Evans, Norman W. (2015) "The Effects of Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback: A 30-Week Study," *Journal of Response to Writing*: Vol. 1 : Iss. 2 , Article 2.
Available at: <https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/journalrw/vol1/iss2/2>
- Hattie, J., & Yates, G. C. R. (2013). Visible learning and the science of how we learn. In *Routledge eBooks*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315885025>
- Hentasmaka, D., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2021). Peer Feedback Uptakes and Outcomes across EFL Students' Proficiency Levels: A Study at Tertiary Education in Indonesia. *International Journal of Instruction*, 14(3), 271–286. <https://doi-org.uproxy.library.dcuoit.ca/10.29333/iji.2021.14316a>
- Hung, D. M., & Diem, T. T. T. (2020). Does conferencing feedback Improve Non-English Majors' Paragraph-Writing? A case study in Vietnam. *Arab World English Journal*, 11(4), 78–95. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no4.6>
- Irwin, B. (2017). Written Corrective Feedback: Student Preferences and Teacher Feedback Practnices. *IAFOR Journal of Language Learning*, 3(2), 35-58.
- Ito, K. (2015). Recast and Elicitation: The Effectiveness of corrective feedback on Japanese language learners [Masters theses]. University of Massachusetts Amherst.
<https://doi.org/10.7275/6946038>

- Jahbel, K., Latief, M. A., Cahyono, M. Y., & Abdalla, S. N. (2020). Exploring university students' preferences towards written corrective feedback in EFL context in Libya. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 8(12A), 7775 - 7782. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.082565>
- Jiang, J., & Yu, Y. (2014). The effectiveness of internet-based peer feedback training on Chinese EFL college students' writing proficiency. *International Journal of Information and Communication Technology Education (IJICTE)*, 10(3), 34-46.
- Karim, K & Nassaji, H. (2018)The revision and transfer effects of direct and indirect comprehensive corrective feedback on ESL students' writing. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(4), 519–539. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818802469>
- Karim, K., & Nassaji, H. (2015). 1 ESL Students' Perceptions of Written Corrective Feedback: What Type of Feedback do they prefer and why?. *The Euro*
- Kim, J. H. (2019). Relative Effects of Direct Focused and Unfocused WCF on the Accuracy Development of Two Language Forms. *English Teaching*, 74(4), 29-50.
- Lauricella, S., Kay, R., Eamer, A., Mann, A. &Dwyer-Kuntz, T. (2022). Equitable, Diverse, and Inclusive Assessment. OER Library. <https://bit.ly/3MP4Tcc>
- Li, Y., Liu, Y., & Xu, Z. (2022). Examining the effects of self-regulated learning-based teacher feedback on English-as-a-foreign-language learners' self-regulated writing strategies and writing performance. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1027266>
- Linh, D. M. (2018). The Effectiveness of indirect written corrective feedback as perceived by teachers and students of a public university in Vietnam. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 6(4), 152-162. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac>

Ijels.v.6n.4p.152

- Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher-student interaction. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 237– 253. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355\(03\)00003-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(03)00003-X)
- Maliborska, V., & You, Y. (2016). Writing conferences in a second language writing classroom: Instructor and student perspectives. *TESOL Journal*, 7(4), 874-897.
- Mekala, S., & Ponmani, M. (2017). The impact of direct Written Corrective feedback on low proficiency ESL learners' writing ability. *The IUP Journal of Soft Skills*, 11(4), 23. <https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1P4-1989499872/the-impact-of-direct-writtencorrective-feedback-on>
- Mohammad, T. F. & Rahman, T. A. (2016). English learners' perception on lecturers' corrective feedback. *Journal of Arts & Humanities English*, 5(4). <https://doi.org/10.18533/journal.v5i4.700>
- Mujtaba, S. M., Parkash, R., & Nawaz, M. W. (2020). Do indirect coded corrective feedback and teachers short affective comments improve the writing performance and learners uptake?. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 36(1), 34-47, DOI: 10.1080/10573569.2019.1616638
- Nematzadeh, F., & Siahpoosh, H. (2017). The effect of teacher direct and indirect feedback on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' written performance. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Learning*, 3(5), 110-116. <https://doi.org/10.5923/j.jalll.20170305.02>
- Niu, R., & You, X. (2019). Effects of indirect corrective feedback with and without written languaging on L2 written accuracy: Multitask intervention study. *Asia-pacific Education Researcher*, 29(4), 343–351. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-019-00488-8>

- Pan, J., Chen, H., & Yuan, S. (2023). A comparative study of the engagement with written corrective feedback of Chinese private college students. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 8(1), 18.
- Parreno, A. (2015). Written Corrective Feedback Impact on grammatical accuracy in L2 writing: A Quantitative and Qualitative look. *Writing & Pedagogy*, 7(2–3), 279–303.
<https://doi.org/10.1558/wap.v7i2-3.25991>
- Phothongsunan, S. (2023). EFL Student-Directed Feedback for Improving Academic Writing Skills in Thailand. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume*, 14.
- Rahimi, M. (2019). A comparative study of the impact of focused vs. comprehensive corrective feedback and revision on ESL learners' writing accuracy and quality. *Language Teaching Research*, 25(5), 687–710. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819879182>
- Raisinghani, L. (2019, September 18). *(Trans-multi)culturally Responsive Education | EdCan Network*. EdCan Network. <https://www.edcan.ca/articles/trans-multiculturallyresponsive-education/>
- Sampson, A. (2012). “Coded and uncoded error feedback: Effects on error frequencies in adult Colombian EFL learners' writing.” *System*, 40(4), 494–504.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.10.001>
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning¹. *Applied linguistics*, 11(2), 129-158.
- Shalizar, R & Rezaei & A. (2023). Examining the differential effects of focused vs. unfocused ZPD and explicit feedback on second language writing. *Language Learning Journal : Journal of the Association for Language Learning.*, 51(3), 359–375.
- Sheen, Y. (2010). DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF ORAL AND WRITTEN CORRECTIVE

- FEEDBACK IN THE ESL CLASSROOM. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 203–234. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263109990507>
- Sheen, Y., Wright, D., & Moldawa, A. (2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners. *System*, 37(4), 556–569. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.09.002>
- Sobhani, M., & Tayebipour, F. (2015). The Effects of Oral vs. Written Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Essay Writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(8), 1601. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0508.09>
- Solhi, M., & Eğinli, I. (2020). The effect of recorded oral feedback on EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 16(1), 01-13. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.712628>
- Soltanpour, F., & Valizadeh, M. (2018). Revision-mediated and attention-mediated feedback: Effects on EFL learners' written syntactic accuracy. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.9n.4p.83>
- Subon, F & Amir, Nurul. (2022). Effect of Implicit Written Corrective Feedback on the Writing Skills of ESL Learners. *JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE & EDUCATION*, , 8(4), 153-168. <https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2022.12304>
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327–369. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x>
- Vanderveen, T. (2018). The Nature and Impact of Portfolio-Based Language Assessment (PBLA). *TESL Ontario*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED591438.pdf>
- Wang, T., & Li, L. Y. (2011). 'Tell me what to do' vs. 'guide me through it': Feedback experiences of international doctoral students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*,

12(2), 101–112. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787411402438>

Wingate, U. (2010). The impact of formative feedback on the development of academic writing.

Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 35(5), 519-533. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930903512909>

Wondim, B. M., Bishaw, K. S., & Zeleke, Y. T. (2023). Effects of teachers' written corrective feedback on the writing achievement of First-Year Ethiopian University students.

Education Research International, 2023, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2023/7129978>

Yang, M., Badger, R., & Yu, Z. (2006). A comparative study of peer and teacher feedback in a

Chinese EFL writing class. *Journal of second language writing*, 15(3), 179-200.

Zhang, X., & McEneaney, J. E. (2020). What Is the Influence of Peer Feedback and Author

Response on Chinese University Students' English Writing Performance? *Reading*

Research Quarterly, 55(1), 123–146. [https://doi-](https://doi-org.uproxy.library.dcuoit.ca/10.1002/rrq.259)

[org.uproxy.library.dcuoit.ca/10.1002/rrq.259](https://doi-org.uproxy.library.dcuoit.ca/10.1002/rrq.259)

APPENDIX A

Intervention Variables and Overview of Writing Performance Results

	Improvement in writing performance	Target Structure /Focus	Number of Treatment Sessions	Narrative Writing	Descriptive Writing	Persuasive/ Argumentat ive Writing`	Worksh eets	Focused / Unfocused	Direct, indirect or metalingui stic	Oral or written	Essay	Paragraph	Revision Requirement	Final Results
Sheen et al. (2009) Intermediate	Yes	Articles Vs be; regular & irregular past tense; prepositio n (time and location)	2	Yes (with pictures)				Focused vs Unfocused	Direct				Yes	Focused > unfocused in articles
Ellis et al. (2008) Intermediate	Yes	Articles VS various linguistic features	3	Yes (with pictures)				Focused vs Unfocused	Direct					Focused feedback group=unfocused in articles
Frear & Chui. (2015)unspecified	Yes	regular and	1					Focused vs Unfocused	Indirect: underline		Yes			Focused=unfocused

		irregular past tense (weak verbs) vs various linguistic features												
Sobhani & Tayebipour.(2015) Lowintermediate	Yes	Capitalization, punctuation & past tense vs various linguistic features	1	Yes (with picture)				Focused vs Unfocused	Indirect: highlighted	oral vs written			Yes	Oral focused & unfocused>written (focused and unfocused) in past tense
Hartshorn & Evans (2015) Intermediate	Yes	rhetorical appropriateness, fluency, complexity, and vocabulary development	Longitudinal study: 2 semesters					Unfocused	Indirect: coded		Yes	Yes	Yes	Dynamic Feedback>traditional feedback- linguistic accuracy

Kim (2019) Intermediate	Yes	indefinite articles and past hypothesis vs various linguistic features	2				Text reconstruction from memory	Focused vs Unfocused	direct				Yes	Unfocused= focused--> hypothetical conditional; focused corrective > unfocused feedback -->indefinite articles
Mujtaba et al. (2020)unspecified	Yes	Overall writing quality: grammar; (2) structure; (3) content; and, (4) wording and spelling.	1	Yes					Indirect coded/- Affective comments				Yes	Indirect +/- Affective comments--> writing performance
Soltanpour & Valizadeh (2018) Upper intermediate	Yes	Syntactic accuracy	3			Yes		Unfocused	Direct		Yes		Yes	Study> Revision

Niu & You (2019) Higher Intermediate	Yes	Grammatical errors, lexical misuses,	16 weeks/ 4 treatment sessions			Yes		Unfocused	Indirect:underline		Yes		Yes+/- languaging	written languaging+ indirect= indirect
		and errors in mechanics including spelling, capitalization, and punctuation												
Diab (2015)-unspecified	Yes	pronoun and word choice	1			Yes		Focused	Direct vs Indirect: Coded				Yes	indirect>direct; direct+codes in pronoun errors direct+codes>code; direct in lexical errors
Pan et al.(2023)*** Mixed (High and low)	Yes	various linguistic and sentence structure errors							Direct vs Indirect				Yes	

Mekala & Ponmani (2017) Mixed	Yes	prepositions, verb tense, concord, articles, pronoun and	longitudinal study (14 weeks)					Yes & Writing Tasks	Direct			Yes	Yes	Direct retained gains > control in preposition, verb tense and pronoun
--	-----	--	-------------------------------	--	--	--	--	---------------------	--------	--	--	-----	-----	--

		relative pronouns												
Bitchener & Knoch (2009) low-intermediate	Yes	Articles (a/the)	1		Yes (with pictures)			Focused	Direct, Indirect & Metalinguistic	both				(direct + written and oral metalinguistic explanation; direct + written meta-linguistic explanation; direct > control)
Bitchener & Knoch (2009b) low-intermediate	Yes	Articles (a/the)	1		Yes (with pictures)			Focused	Direct, Indirect & Metalinguistic	both				Direct + written and oral metalinguistic explanation = direct + written meta-linguistic explanation = direct >

Bitchener & Knoch (2010)- Advanced	Yes	Articles (a/the)	1		Yes (with pictures)				Indirect (circle) vs written metalingui stic	Oral form focused instructi on +written metalin guistic				written metalinguistic explanation; written metalinguistic information+ oral form focused instruction retained gains; Gains not retained--> control and indirect
Baleghizadeh & Gordani (2012)-unspecified	Yes	grammatic al accuracy	longitudinal study: multiple treatment sessions						Direct	Direct vs direct+ confere nce				oral conferences +direct feedback>direct feedback alone & control
Sampson (2012)unspecified	Yes	variety of grammatic al and sentence errors	4	Yes (with pictures)				Unfocused	Direct vs Indirect Coded				Yes	Indirect coded >direct in self correcting

Hung & Diem (2020)-low proficiency	Yes	Overall quality of writing: organization, content, style and mechanics	5		Yes				metalinguistic explanation	Conferences and some written comments		Yes		posttest>pretest
Alvira (2016)-unspecified	Yes	Overall quality of writing	3	Yes	Yes			Unfocused		Screen cast oral and written		Yes	Yes	Final writing scores> Diagnostic writing scores
Sheen (2010)-Intermediate proficiency	Yes	acquisition of correct usage of definite and indefinite article in written and	2	Yes			Yes	Focused	Direct; metalinguistic	oral:recasts; written				direct written >oral recast; oral metalinguistic; written metalinguistic> control

		spoken language												
Rahimi (2021)- Intermediate	Yes	global and complex linguistic errors (word and sentence); writing quality (text comprehe nsibility and clarity of expression) vs all learner errors				Yes		Focused vs unfocused	Indirect coded &	written			Yes VS No	Focus>unfocused in word errors; Focus+ revision > other groups in sentence errors & writing quality (week 8) unfocused> other groups in overall writing accuracy

Shalzar & Rezaei (2023)-unspecified	Yes	Target depended on need of student Focused (definite				Yes		Focused vs unfocused; focused ZPD vs unfocused ZPD	Direct; metalinguistic	written				ZPD (focused & unfocused) > explicit (focused & unfocused) ZPD focused > ZPD unfocused on various linguistic features
		and indefinite articles) vs various linguistic features												
Subin & Amir (2022)-upper intermediate	Yes	Essay writing skills	4			Yes			Indirect (underlining/ circle)	written	Yes		Yes	posttest>pretest
Namatzadeh & Siahpoosh, (2017)-intermediate	Yes	Overall quality writing						unfocused	Indirect vs direct	written	Yes	Yes	Yes	Indirect=direct

*Yes indicates improvement/gains in students' writing performance compared to the control group or alternative methods. In studies where multiple approaches were compared, the results will state which approach resulted in significant gains compared to the control group.