

INVESTIGATING TEACHERS' VIEWS AND PRACTICES OF FEEDBACK
IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS FROM A
TEACHER FEEDBACK LITERACY FRAMEWORK PERSPECTIVE

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FEEDBACK IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN MIDDLE
SCHOOLS FROM A TEACHER FEEDBACK LITERACY FRAMEWORK
PERSPECTIVE**

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ABSTRACT

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Teacher feedback literacy refers to having the knowledge, expertise, and dispositions to design and employ feedback practices to enhance students' feedback uptake and literacy (Carless & Winstone, 2020). This current qualitative research study aimed to uncover teachers' views about feedback, employed and suggested feedback practices, and teacher competencies under the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework (Boud & Dawson, 2021). A basic qualitative research design was adopted to answer the research questions. The data were collected with the participation of 15 English language teachers working in a private middle school in Ankara, Turkey. Semi-structured interviews were carried out to collect the data, and all the data were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analysed via MAXQDA 2022. An inductive content analysis was employed to generate codes and themes to answer the first two research questions. For the third research question, both deductive and inductive content analysis was conducted by a sequential approach considering the framework as a lens during deductive analysis. The results demonstrated that teachers hold various views about feedback regarding the characteristics of the

feedback mechanism, effective feedback, the role of feedback, the role of teachers, and expectations from the students. Moreover, inhibiting and enhancing factors to feedback were revealed. A diversity of employed feedback types delivered in different ways were unveiled. It was also found that teachers suggest school, assessment/feedback, and pre-service education-related practices to improve feedback practices. Lastly, the indicators of teacher feedback literacy comprised macro, meso, and micro competencies.

Keywords: feedback, feedback literacy, EFL, basic qualitative research

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMEN GERİ BİLDİRİM OKURYAZARLIĞI ÇERÇEVESİNDEN ORTAÖĞRETİM KURUMLARINDA İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİNDE ÖĞRETMENLERİN GERİ BİLDİRİM GÖRÜŞLERİNİN VE UYGULAMALARININ İNCELENMESİ

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Öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı, öğrencilerin geri bildirim alma ve okuryazarlığını geliştirmek için öğretmenlerin geri bildirim uygulamalarını tasarlama ve kullanma bilgisine, uzmanlığına ve eğilimlerine sahip olmasını ifade eder (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Bu mevcut nitel araştırma çalışması, öğretmenlerin geri bildirim görüşlerini, uyguladıkları ve önerdikleri geri bildirim uygulamalarını ve Öğretmenlerin Geri bildirim Okuryazarlığı Yetkinlik Çerçevesi (Boud & Dawson, 2021) kapsamında öğretmenlerin yetkinliklerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Araştırma sorularını yanıtlamak için temel bir nitel araştırma tasarımı benimsenmiştir. Veriler, Ankara'da özel bir ortaokulda görev yapan 15 İngilizce öğretmenin katılımıyla toplanmıştır. Verileri toplamak için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapıp, tüm veriler ses kaydına alınmıştır, yazıya dökülmüştür ve MAXQDA 2022 aracılığıyla analiz edilmiştir. İlk iki araştırma sorusunu cevaplamak için kodlar ve temalar oluştururken tümevarımsal bir içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Üçüncü araştırma sorusu için, tündengelem analizi sırasında Boud ve Dawson'ın (2021) teorik çerçevesi bir

mercek olarak ele alınarak sıralı bir yaklaşımla hem tmdengelim hem de tmevarım ierik analizi yapılmıřtır. Sonular, ğretmenlerin geri bildirim mekanizmasının zellikleri, etkili geri bildirim, geri bildirim rol, ğretmenlerin rol ve ğrencilerden beklentiler konusunda eřitli grřlere sahip olduklarını gstermiřtir. Ayrıca geri bildirim engelleyen ve glendirici faktrler ortaya ıkarılmıřtır. Farklı řekillerde sunulan eřitli geri bildirim trleri aıklanmıřtır. Ayrıca ğretmenlerin geri bildirim uygulamalarını iyileřtirmek iin okul, deęerlendirme/geri bildirim ve hizmet ncesi eęitimle ilgili bazı uygulamalar nerdięi tespit edilmiřtir. Son olarak, ğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlıęının gstergeleri makro, mezo ve mikro yeterliliklerden oluřmuřtur.

Anahtar kelimeler: geri bildirim, geri bildirim okuryazarlıęı, EFL (Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce), temel nitel arařtırma

To My Beloved Family

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AL	Assessment Literacy
LAL	Language Assessment Literacy
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
CDC	Curriculum Development Council
OCF	Oral Corrective Feedback
WCF	Written Corrective Feedback
IWCF	Indirect Written Corrective Feedback
DEFT	Developing Engagement with Feedback Toolkit
CELTA	Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
DELTA	Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the background to the study. Then, it elaborates on the purpose and the significance of the research study. Lastly, it defines the key terms of it.

1.1 Background of the Study

Feedback has been regarded as an indispensable component of assessment by many scholars for quite a long time (e.g., Beaumont et al., 2011; Boud & Dawson, 2021; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kamiya, 2016; Nicol, 2010; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Shute, 2008), and considered to be one of the most potent factors having a profound impact on learning in diverse instructional contexts (Hattie & Gan, 2011; Narciss, 2013). According to Narciss (2013), feedback facilitates acquiring the cognitive operations and knowledge essential for accomplishing some learning tasks. Similar to this viewpoint, ample studies in the literature have unfolded that if feedback is provided in compliance with the mental and psychological development of the students and depending on how and when it is delivered to the student, feedback plays a crucial role in learning and motivation. As student learning and success depend on it (Gaines, 2014), it is undeniably a vital component of effective instruction, too. Thus, it is not to be neglected in educational contexts (Brookhart, 2008; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Van der Kleij et al., 2015).

It is undeniably true that feedback has kept its paramount magnitude in various educational settings for quite some time; nevertheless, there has been a shift in how feedback is perceived and conceptualized. Initially, feedback was defined as

the correction of instructional errors indicating right or wrong (Bruner, 1974; Kulhavy, 1977) and the information gap between the actual level and the utmost level to be achieved (Ramaprasad, 1983). Thereafter, whereas Hattie and Timperly (2007) identified feedback as information provided by an agent, such as teachers, peers, and books, Shute (2008) recognized it as information communicated to the learner based on their way of thinking and behaviour to foster learning. Essentially, the aforementioned scholars interpreted feedback as information given or directed to the students. However, as of the 2010s, feedback began to be referred to as information on student work that students make sense of and utilize to enhance the quality of the subsequent works. Nicol (2010), Green (2019), and Lee et al. (2017) underpinned that feedback is to be dialogical and contingent as a two-way process encompassing teacher-to-student and student-to-student interaction as well as active learner engagement. More recently, the feedback concept has evolved into an understanding whereby students receive information to augment the quality of their work through a mutual understanding of feedback by both teachers and students (Boud & Molloy, 2018; Sadler, 2013). More precisely, the contemporary definition of the feedback notion points to a sustainable process in which the learners play active roles rather than being solely information recipients and a process involving not telling but appreciating (Boud & Molloy, 2018).

Nonetheless, feedback is not something students find useful all the time (Henderson, 2019). Across a plethora of contexts and disciplines, feedback has been envisaged as a demanding issue from both students' and teachers' perspectives. Students often argue that feedback information is inadequate; its timing is inappropriate, and it is challenging to make sense of and utilize, leading them to build barriers (Evans, 2013; Winstone et al., 2017). However, it is also burdensome and a cause of frustration from teachers' perspectives on account of large classes, the workload caused by assessment and feedback practices (Winstone & Carless, 2019), and insufficient student engagement with feedback (Price et al., 2011). Similarly, Boud and Molloy (2018) articulated that feedback processes are mostly misunderstood and troublesome to employ effectively to

fulfil the purpose of positively affecting student learning. The primary reason for the reconceptualization of feedback is to address the arisen problems of feedback. Within this new paradigm, Carless (2015) contended that attention must be directed to how feedback operates and how each party, namely teachers and students, must be involved in a good appreciation of what is necessary for feedback to be implemented effectively. Feedback-related dialogues (Wood, 2021) and constructing a shared responsibility between both parties (Carless, 2020; Nash & Winstone, 2017) are indistinguishably connected with the effective employment of feedback. Due to the growing recognition of shared responsibilities needed between teachers and students and to overcome barriers to feedback (Henderson et al., 2019; Winstone et al., 2017), feedback must be considered and built as a discipline-specific literacy (Van Heerde, 2010). Besides, the shared responsibility notion seeks student and teacher feedback literacy (Winstone & Carless, 2019).

Carless and Boud (2018) articulated that feedback literacy requires understandings, capabilities, and dispositions to make sense of the feedback information and utilize it for the subsequent works. Therefore, feedback-literate students are considered as ones seeking, producing, and using feedback information besides building capacities to make academic judgements (Carless & Boud, 2018; Molloy et al., 2020). However, the development of student feedback literacy rests heavily on teacher feedback literacy (Malecka et al., 2020). Teachers are recognized as crucial facilitators in promoting student feedback literacy through curriculum design, guidance, and coaching (Carless & Boud, 2018). Likewise, feedback-literate teachers have the knowledge, expertise, and dispositions to design and implement feedback practices and processes to foster students' feedback uptake and literacy (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Teachers carry the potential to either enable or constrain the development of student feedback literacy (Sutton, 2012). If students are to benefit from feedback, teachers need to ensure that students are aware of what feedback is and recognize its linguistic identifiers as well as how it aims to help them as they enhance their understandings and skills (Heron et al., 2021). The growing the international

literature has hitherto focused primarily on students' engagement with feedback and their development of literacy (e.g., Davis, 2020; Fernandez-Toro & Duensing, 2021; Han & Xu, 2019; Hoo et al., 2021; Kara, 2021; Ma et al., 2021; Molloy et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2020; Winstone et al., 2019). However, the teacher feedback literacy studies are still in their infancy. Since the teachers' experiences and feedback literacy complement student feedback literacy, it is worthy of scrutiny.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

This research study aims to uncover the teacher competencies of the middle school English language teachers within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework. In addition, it aims to develop a thorough understanding of English language teachers' views about feedback in assessment practices, their employed feedback practices, and their suggestions regarding feedback practices.

In line with the purposes mentioned, this research study seeks answers to the following research questions:

- 1-** What are the middle school English language teachers' views regarding feedback in assessment practices?
- 2-** What feedback practices are employed by the middle school English teachers working in a private school? What feedback practices are suggested by the middle school English teachers working in a private school?
- 3-** What are the teacher competencies of the middle school English teachers within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework?

1.3 Significance of the Study

It has been well-established that feedback is central to student learning (Hattie and Timperley, 2007; Heron et al., 2021; Nicol, 2010). Yet, persistent student and teacher dissatisfaction exists with feedback processes (Sutton, 2012). Also, there seems to be a gap between student capabilities and teacher expectations. To bridge this gap, enhanced teacher competencies in feedback are required, which is teacher feedback literacy (Xu & Carless, 2017). Therefore, looking into teacher views, practices, and suggestions about feedback and teacher feedback literacy competencies holds a significant position in educational research settings to have a thorough understanding of the matter as feedback constitutes an undeniable part of learning.

Much attention has been paid to feedback in the literature, and it has been a well-investigated issue in English language teaching worldwide from various perspectives and aspects. In ample studies, several researchers have investigated teachers' beliefs about effective feedback in the EFL context (Beaumont et al., 2011; Seden & Svaricek, 2018; Vogt et al., 2020). Regarding direct and indirect feedback in the EFL context, several researchers conducted studies (e.g., Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008a). Besides, oral feedback usage in EFL has been investigated by some researchers (e.g., Gomez Argüelles et al., 2019; Junquera & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2016; Roothoof, 2014). When it comes to written feedback, a handful of researchers dealt with it in the EFL context (e.g., Green, 2019; Heerdan, 2020; Lee, 2008; Lee et al., 2017; Vogt et al., 2020; Yu, 2021). Feedback types and practices have been explored by Shute (2008) and Chan & Luo (2021). From another aspect, peer feedback has been investigated by a few researchers (e.g., Hu & Lam, 2010; Killingback et al., 2020; Kurihara, 2017; Xu & Carless, 2017; Yu & Hu, 2017). Furthermore, Cranny (2016) and Henderson et al. (2019) looked into modes of feedback delivery.

Nonetheless, when the attention is turned to teacher feedback literacy worldwide, there is a limited body of research. In China, Xu and Carless (2017) conducted a case study with an English language teacher at a university and exemplified teacher feedback literacy through quality feedback and building trust. Yu (2021) investigated the learning experiences of 27 EFL writing teachers at a university. The results revealed that the teachers considered providing written feedback to students as a feedback literacy enhancement opportunity and shifted to focused feedback rather than comprehensive feedback. Jiang and Yu (2021) examined 16 EFL teachers' shift of feedback due to the COVID-19 outbreak. The results demonstrated that feedback literate teachers were more enthusiastic to respond to student needs and more inclined to technology use and manage workload stemming from feedback. In the UK context, Gravett et al. (2020) examined how academics develop their feedback literacy, and it has been found that they do just as students through kindness, empathy, and transparency. Besides, Heron et al. (2021) delved into the nature of spoken feedback, feedback talk, with six teachers from a range of disciplines. The results demonstrated that the dialogic nature of feedback facilitates relational aspects with the student. Moreover, feedback and teaching are intertwined since feedback fosters encouragement and student participation to create teaching opportunities.

Regarding the Turkish context, feedback has been investigated in terms of the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback in EFL higher education setting by Babanoğlu (2018). Also, Kır (2020) and Demir and Özmen (2017) looked into oral corrective feedback in the EFL settings. Concerning written feedback, a bunch of studies was carried out (e.g., Bostancı & Şengül, 2018; Ekinci & Ekinci, 2020; Geçkin, 2020). Self and peer feedback usage was discovered to be less preferred by Babanoğlu (2018), Geçkin (2020), and Öz (2014). Moreover, Demir and Özmen (2017) focused on the factors determining the timing of oral error correction as immediate and delayed. The aforementioned studies exemplified feedback practices in the relevant context.

Considering all these, owing to the scarce number of research studies on teacher feedback literacy internationally and none in Turkey, this research study may contribute to the feedback studies from another perspective with new insight, including teacher feedback literacy components. Besides, although there has been a bunch of feedback studies in Turkey from diverse aspects, there is still a room for further scrutiny with comprehensive research to reveal teachers' views, practices, and suggested practices regarding feedback, especially in the middle school context, to better understand the feedback conceptualization in the Turkish context. Also, as Ketonen et al. (2020) asserted, feedback literacy studies have focused on higher education so far; middle schools have not been paid sufficient attention. Therefore, this study might fill these gaps by exemplifying an enabling construct of teacher feedback literacy along with the teachers' views, practices, and suggested practices about feedback in a middle school, K12, context.

The study at hand may contribute to the teachers to reflect on their understanding of feedback, feedback practices, and feedback literacy to gain insights about how to enhance their feedback literacy so that they can develop their students' feedback literacy. Teacher feedback literacy complements student feedback literacy, and the students can become more inclined to be motivated and adoptive towards feedback, and learning may occur more effectively.

Furthermore, this study might provide insights for future decisions through a deep understanding of teachers' views, practices, and suggestions about feedback. The information uncovered may guide decision-makers and teacher-trainers both in pre-service and in-service to revisit their feedback training and conduct to enhance teacher feedback literacy to increase the likelihood of learning with the help of feedback. This study would be of tremendous value for the teachers and decision-makers as an initial phase of change for advancement.

1.4 Definitions of Terms

Even though there are various definitions in the literature, the key terms in the present study are defined as follows:

Feedback: Shute (2008) defines feedback as “any information communicated to the learners” based on their way of thinking and behaviour to enhance learning. It can happen in various types, such as verifying the accuracy of student responses and providing hints; it might occur at different times as immediate and delayed, and several variables interact with the success of the feedback, such as the idiosyncratic characteristics of the students.

Effective feedback: What makes feedback effective depends on to what extent students are engaged in feedback processes. Dawson et al.’s (2021) approach has been adopted in this study. Namely, effective feedback is grounded on the conditions learners obtain, make sense of, and utilize feedback information for better learning.

Feedback literacy: This term refers to the needed understandings, capacities, and dispositions to make sense of feedback information and make use of it to improve work or learning strategies (Carless & Boud, 2018).

Student feedback literacy: The term refers to students seeking, producing, and using feedback information and the development of capacities to be able to make academic judgements (Carless & Boud, 2018; Molloy et al., 2020). Carless and Boud’s (2018) proposal of four interrelated characteristics of feedback literate students involve appreciating feedback processes, making judgements, managing affect, and taking action.

Teacher feedback literacy: It refers to the teachers’ knowledge, expertise, and dispositions to design feedback practices and processes, which facilitate

students' feedback uptake and enhance the development of student feedback literacy (Carless & Winstone, 2020).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to show a review of the literature for the present study by discussing the key terms and previous research studies in the literature as to feedback and feedback literacy. Initially, assessment, summative and formative assessment have been defined. After assessment literacy, feedback reconceptualization and how effective feedback is put in terms are displayed. Then, it continues with feedback types, modes of delivery, the timing of feedback as well as student barriers to feedback grounded on previous research studies. Lastly, feedback literacy, student and teacher feedback literacy have been defined respectively, and relevant research studies on these constructs are addressed.

2.1 Assessment

Assessment is a phenomenon that dates back to old times rather than being a recent term. From a historical view, Rowntree (1987) points out the importance of assessment by stating that if somebody would like to reveal the truth about an educational system, they must look into its assessment procedures. Another scholar, Graue (1993) defines assessment as separated from instruction regarding time and purpose. According to them, it is a measurement approach to classroom assessment that is brought about by standardized tests and examinations. However, Shepard (2000) points out that there has been a paradigm shift in terms of how assessment is defined. In the 20th century Dominant Paradigm, there was an overlapping relationship among hereditarian theory of IQ, behavioural learning theories, social efficiency curriculum, and scientific measurement, yet through the 21st century, this paradigm was resolved, and a more constructivist perspective emerged. With the emergence of this, the assessment was said to be

in close relation with teachers' assessment of students' understanding, getting feedback from peers, self-assessment as a central process to enhance students' intellectual abilities, knowledge construction, and as a way to form student identities. In other words, instruction and assessment have been defined as indispensable phenomena from each other. According to Phil et al. (1997), rather than as a tool for gauging performance, assessment is a more dynamic phenomenon to determine what learners know and can do. This is mainly because of the assumption that assessment processes can modify instructional processes and are open to change based on the learning results.

Gibbs and Simpson (2005) emphasize the significance of assessment by stating that it has a tremendous effect on what, how, and how much students study. It has been likened to an action research process in which teaching has been improved through assessment. Since teachers gather evidence about potential problems with their courses, make required changes in their assessment procedures to solve these problems, and evaluate whether these modifications have positively resulted in students' learning, assessment is crucial for learning to occur. Similar to that, Thomas et al. (2004) mentioned the importance of good assessment practices by saying that assessment practices provide teachers with information to decide on the appropriateness of the course content and pacing; they help teachers monitor students' learning throughout the course; they give information about the effectiveness of the current teaching methods; they help students keep track of their own progress, and they help students build self-esteem in preparation for nationalized tests. In addition to that, Ehringhaus and Garrison (2011) consider assessment as such a broad topic that it involves a myriad of components, from state-wide tests to classroom tests teachers make use of every day. Although there are variations in the tools, it boils down to one point, which is gathering information about student learning. The more information is got about students' learning, the clearer picture is obtained regarding their achievement. At this point, Hakim (2015) says that the results of assessment practices play an essential role in both teachers' and learners'

development because the assessment results provide self-reflection and critical analysis of the performance.

2.1.1 Summative Assessment

Sadler (1989) defines summative assessment as a phenomenon that is concerned with summing up the achievement of a student, and it includes some kind of reporting at the end of a study or course withholding a purpose of certification. Congruent with this definition, Harlen and James (1997) state that summative assessment is the recording of the overall achievement of a student in a systematic way (DES/WO, 1988, para. 23). Summative assessment might be in two different forms as criterion-referenced and norm-referenced, and it takes place at certain times when achievement of the pupils must be reported because its utmost purpose is to describe the learning outcomes at a certain time for a variety of purposes such as reporting to other stakeholders. These stakeholders might be the students themselves, parents, other teachers, and school administrators. Another purpose of it is to check if lesson objectives are fulfilled or not in the long run (Brown, 2004).

Harlen and James (1997) continue that through summative assessment, the progression of student learning is evaluated based on predetermined criteria. Its main concern is to consider the progress towards big ideas instead of learning in specific activities. Teachers' aim is to see the bigger picture to judge whether there is any evidence regarding the development of understanding. Besides, some reliable methods are necessary while applying summative assessment without endangering validity. It has a key role in the students' overall performance at a certain time rather than daily performance. At this point, Brown (2004), Black et al. (2003), and Popham (2009) mention that summative assessment is the summary of the students' learning of a subject, and though grading and administering some tests and examinations in the middle or at the end of the term, the degree of mastery of skills of the students are revealed. Popham also adds that it is intended to help stakeholders make go/no-go

decisions considering the success of a final version of an instructional program. To illustrate what counts as a summative assessment, classroom assessments, such as midterm examinations, finals, and large-scale achievement tests, are in the league because their utmost purpose is grading and accountability (Saito & Inoi, 2017).

Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) assert that through high-stakes summative assessment, information gathered about the student is solely about success or failure and how students' success stands against the criteria or among their peers. Alderson (2005) criticizes summative assessment by saying it is not seeking an answer to whether the learning has been effective; it is simply referred to as *assessment of learning*. Therefore, scoring in front of students' eyes cannot facilitate learning.

2.1.2 Formative Assessment

It is highly possible to encounter a diverse range of interpretations of formative assessment, in other words, *assessment for learning*. Sadler (1989) defines formative assessment as a phenomenon that is concerned with how judgments regarding student performances or works might be used to change and enhance students' competence and performance. In other words, it deals with how learning can be improved and geared towards enhancement. Similarly, prior to that definition, Ramaprasad (1983) states that formative assessment is basically feedback to not only teachers but also students about the current understanding of the students, and it gives clues about what to do to go forward or promote learning.

According to Harlen and James (1997), the main distinction between summative and formative assessment is purpose and timing. By recognizing the positive achievements of the students, suitable next steps might be decided through formative assessment. Harlen and James point out the characteristics of formative assessment by listing that (a) it is a part of teaching; (b) it is not only

criterion-referenced because each individual's progress is considered, but also it is pupil-referenced assessment; (c) it provides diagnostic information rather than using "error" as a term; (d) validity holds great importance, and (e) it puts students in the centre to be an active part of their own learning, which suggests that if students do not come to an awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses, progress cannot be guaranteed in their learning. Besides, Popham (2009) indicates that formative assessment holds the purpose of *improvement*, which intends to encourage remedial adjustments in teachers' current instructional programs or students' ongoing learning. Its primary function is to detect evidence to improve student learning.

In the early work on formative assessment, Black et al. (2003) and William (2007) focused on five types of activities which were believed to be effective as formative assessment procedures. They were (a) "sharing the criteria with the students," (b) "classroom questioning," (c) "comment-only marking," (d) "self and peer-assessment," and (e) "formative use of summative tests." Yet, the precise connection among these components was not clearly told (Black & William, 2009). As the responsibility of learning is both of teachers and students, William and Thompson (2007) suggested a framework for formative assessment comprising five key strategies: (a) "making the criteria clear and letting students know about learning intentions," (b) "effective classroom discussions and other learning tasks demonstrating student understanding," (c) "giving feedback that improves learners," (d) "turning students into instructional resources for one another," and finally (e) "making the students agents of their own learning."

When it comes to Black and William (2009), formative assessment has been defined as a practice in a classroom through which evidence about students' achievement is gathered, interpreted, and used by the teachers, their peers, and students themselves to determine the next steps in the instruction to be better or better founded. From their point of view, formative assessment is mainly concerned with the creation and emphasis on "moments of contingency" to regulate learning processes. The reason why formative assessment is a crucial

part of learning is that it requires an emphasis on cognitive conflict rather than providing direct answers to the students; it gives importance to dialogue for the social construction of knowledge, and lastly, it requires metacognition, including students' reflection on their own learning.

Boud (2000) asserts that if the formative assessment is merely teachers' responsibility, it is challenging to observe students' empowerment and their self-regulation skills to be able to be prepared for outside learning and throughout their lives. Similar to that, Garrison and Ehringhaus (2007) and Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) point out that to help students achieve academic gains, it is essential to help them gain ownership of their own learning. This can be attained with the help of formative assessment. Helping students become self-regulated learners results in more effective, persistent, resourceful, self-confident, and high-achiever learners. Formative assessment occurs more frequently compared to summative assessment during instruction, such as in a lesson or a unit; it enables students to practice their own knowledge, adjust, and change based on constructive feedback. It is mainly about providing guidance in the instruction and helping students make necessary modifications for better learning (Garrison & Ehringhaus, 2007; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Saito & Inoi, 2017; Widiastuti et al., 2020). Gulikers and Baartman (2016) proposed a conceptual and analytical Formative Assessment Cycle that summarizes the main features of formative assessment. They included the teachers' roles as (a) clarifying expectations regarding goals and criteria; (b) eliciting student responses to gather information in relation to the learning process; (c) analysing and making interpretations of the gathered responses; (d) communicating with students upon these responses, and (e) making adjustments in teaching and learning processes by taking follow-up actions. Even though the cycle does not explicitly focus on students' roles, it does not mean that they do not have a role in formative assessment. In contrast, they have a huge role when the teachers design a stimulating learning environment. In this way, students' agency is activated, and they actively participate and engage in these assessment procedures (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Hattie and Timperly (2006) indicate that

formative assessment, especially in the forms of feedback, is an indispensable part of the teaching and learning processes.

2.1.3 Assessment Literacy

Assessment literacy was brought about by Stiggins (1991) with the argument that stakeholders need to understand at least the basic principles of sound assessment practices, and it has been taking a lot of scholarly attention for the last 20 years (Vogt et al., 2020). According to Stiggins (1991), assessment' utmost purposes must be boosting student learning and verifying or certifying achievement of the students, and this can be conducted with a variety of tools, such as more frequent assessment, assessing more specific learning targets, assessment tracking progress on a continuous basis over time, setting objectives for greater student achievement, less frequent testing, targeting broader samples, and setting objectives for increasing accountability. Under the scope of assessment literacy, Stiggins asserts that assessment must be used both as an instructional tool to promote each student's learning and verify or certify student learning where necessary rather than sorting students out based on their achievement level. Another important point is that a huge amount of evidence is gathered to interpret instructional decisions through assessment. To be able to collect dependable evidence to make sound instructional decisions, teachers and school leaders must have the capability of developing and administering quality assessments to serve this purpose, and this occurs through being trained and being assessment literate. Stiggins continues that assessment literacy provides teachers with an understanding of how to use assessment processes and their outcomes to help their students proceed without giving up. Finally, Stiggins emphasises that annual standardized tests, in other words, summative assessment practices, are not mere indicators of student success or school quality. In classroom assessment applications, namely formative assessment practices, are of great importance, as well. Teachers must balance them both, and also, they need to help students understand the purpose of all the assessment practices. Assessment literacy is not peculiar to teachers or school leaders, though. Stiggins

shares the characteristics of assessment literate students by listing that students have a right to (a) know the purpose of each assessment component and how and by whom it will be used; (b) know and understand learning targets or objectives in exercises and scoring guides in all assessments; (c) know and understand the differences between the poor and good performance in the upcoming assessments and learn to self-assess their progress; (d) reliable assessment of their achievements collected through quality assessments, and lastly (e) a communication of their assessment results to guide and help them to do better the next time.

More recently, Xu (2018) has argued that teachers play a key role in making use of assessment, which is an essential means of student learning; therefore, they need to know more about assessment and become assessment literate. Besides, assessment literacy is increasingly being viewed as one of the most fundamental cores of teacher competency (Sonnleitner & Kovacs, 2020). Upon this significance, Xu and Brown (2016) put forward a framework of what assessment literate teachers possess, which consists of seven areas of knowledge: disciplinary, pedagogical content, assessment purposes, content and methods, grading, feedback, assessment interpretation and communication, student involvement in assessment, and assessment ethics.

Regarding language assessment literacy (henceforth LAL) specifically, Vogt et al. (2020) claim that there is a myriad of definitions, and there is no consensus about how to define it precisely, but to articulate the term in words, they state that language teachers are to be called assessment literate when they have the capacity to ask and also answer critical questions related to purposes of the assessment, the appropriacy of the tool used, conditions under which testing is conducted, and what is going to happen when the results are obtained. Davies (2008) puts the term in words by saying that language assessment literacy is merely an area within language testing, which is the broader area. It specifically refers to various levels of knowledge, skills, and principles that different stakeholders (teachers, students, leaders, language testers, and teacher educators)

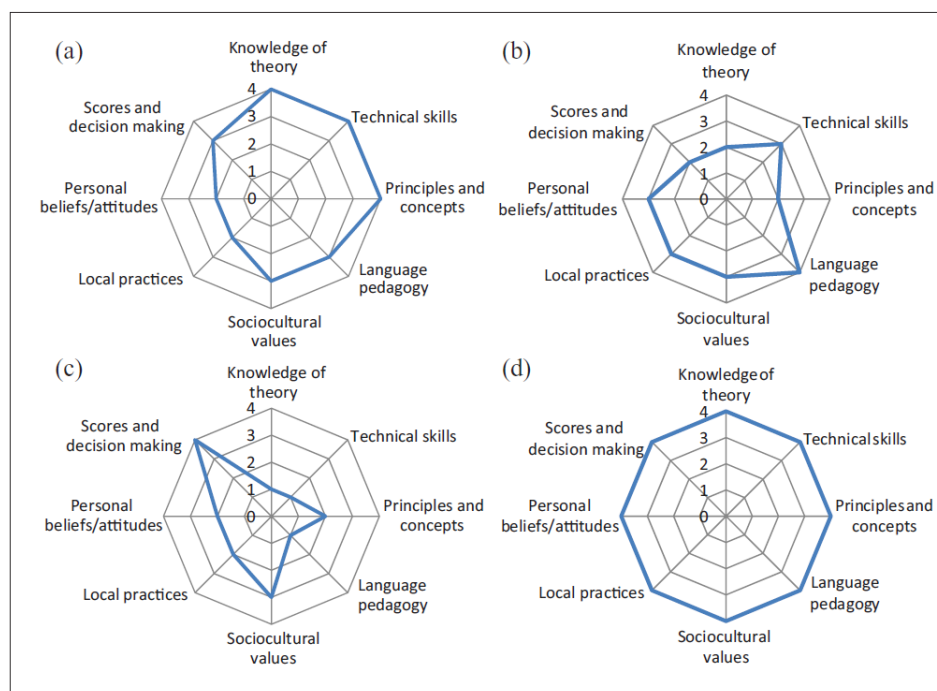
hold in the field of language testing. Taylor (2009) emphasizes that a full understanding of these components holds great importance for effective language assessment literacy. Fulcher (2012) also provided a more comprehensive definition after their empirical study that it refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to design, develop, maintain, or evaluate standardized and classroom-based tests, acquaintance with the test procedures, and the awareness of relevant concepts and principles guiding and forming the basis of practices. In addition to this, it is the ability to fit knowledge, skills, processes, principles, and concepts in wider historical, social, political, and philosophical frameworks to be able to make sense of why practices arose and to evaluate the influence of testing on society, institutions, and individuals.

Moreover, Giraldo (2020) defines language assessment literacy essentially as showing different levels of knowledge, skills, and principles in language assessment either from a development perspective or a knowledge perspective. Whereas the development perspective deals with designing and evaluating language assessments, the knowledge perspective is related to making an understanding of and using assessments to make sound decisions about students' language abilities. Giraldo and Murcia (2019) signify the necessity and inevitability of language assessment by putting forward that educating language teachers both in and through language assessment must be taken seriously because otherwise, in case teachers are not trained enough, it might result in malpractice, and language learners may suffer from poor assessment. Apart from these, Taylor (2013) puts emphasis on the fact that more empirical research studies are necessary for LAL not only to reveal and inform about the current policies or practices but also to come up with new initiatives to spread knowledge and expertise in language assessment to the increasing test stakeholders. According to Taylor, different stakeholder groups require different levels of assessment literacy based on their roles and responsibilities during the assessment processes, and they propose a differential AL/LAL model/profile for four constituencies as (a) profile for test writers, (b) profile for classroom

teachers, (c) profile for administrators, and lastly (d) profile for professional language testers (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1

Taylor’s (2013) LAL profiles for four different types of stakeholders



Note. From “Communicating the theory, practice, and principles of language testing to stakeholders: Some reflections” by L. Taylor, 2013, *Language Testing*, 30 (3), 403-412.

All these and some predominant conceptual articles considered, they all emphasize the importance of assessment literacy in professional development (e.g., Fulcher, 2012; Kremmel & Harding, 2019; Popham, 2009; Taylor, 2009; Xu, 2017).

2.2 Feedback

Within all these assessment practices, Sadler (1989) points out the importance and function of feedback in formative assessment, “Feedback is a key element in formative assessment and is usually defined in terms of information about how successfully something has been or is being done” (p.120). It is also striking to

notice that Gibbs and Simpson (2005) and Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) assert that quality feedback lies within formative processes rather than summative ones. Upon this, Chickering and Gamson (1987) contend that knowing what somebody knows and does not know focuses on learning, and students need to receive appropriate feedback to benefit from courses. At various points during their education, they need to reflect on what they have learnt and what they are to learn, and this might be achieved through feedback. In other words, feedback is a component of effective instruction.

However, during assessment practices, knowledge and familiarity with the assessment practices are not adequate, but abilities and skills in the definition of language assessment literacy carry tremendous importance. Teachers apply assessment in the classrooms by developing, administering, using, interpreting, analysing, and making interpretations/ evaluations based on the language tests and assessment tools so as to monitor the students' signs of progress and provide constructive feedback according to the results received (Brown, 2004; Lam, 2014; Muñoz, Palacio, & Escobar, 2012; Vogt & Tsagari, 2014). According to Sevimeş-Şahin and Subaşı's (2021) research study involving pre-service English language teachers, all the participants held the same opinion that assessment is undeniably as crucial as teaching because it is helpful to reveal if learning has occurred, and it provides feedback about the effectiveness of teaching. In fact, assessment is defined as feedback for not only teachers but also students because whereas students make the most of feedback by seeing their mistakes, making conclusions, and learning from them, teachers find the opportunity to evaluate their teaching techniques to make necessary modifications (Sadler, 1989). Therefore, the place of feedback in assessment practices is two-fold: feedback to the students and stakeholders. Moreover, Rea-Dickins (2001), Ramsden (2003), and McNamara and Hill (2011) suggest that providing feedback should be taken into consideration in language assessment to alter and boost the practices for better learning. Similarly, Bachman and Damböck (2018) state that language assessment is a key source of feedback for enhancing learning, and Bruno and Santos (2010) and Vogt et al. (2020) signal that feedback is a crucial part of

assessment and learning; therefore, theoretical insights of feedback in the EFL classrooms are essential, and feedback is considered a robust formative assessment tool in the EFL settings.

2.2.1 Feedback and its reconceptualization

Black and William (1998) point out the importance of feedback by stating that feedback results in greater student engagement and higher achievement. While many authors articulate the fact that feedback is a vital component of assessment (e.g., Beaumont et al., 2011; Boud & Dawson, 2021; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kamiya, 2016; Nicol, 2010; D. J. Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Shute, 2008), there has been a plethora of definitions and interpretations of the term throughout history (Davis, 2020).

To consider the definition of feedback from a historical perspective, Bruner (1974) refers to feedback as the correction of errors. Similarly, Kulhavy (1977) defines feedback as any of the procedures to report to the learner if any of the instructional responses are right or wrong. According to Ramaprasad (1983), it is defined as the information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system. Based on this interpretation, feedback is to change this gap somehow. Sadler (1989) criticizes Ramaprasad's definition since it is merely considered feedback when it is used to alter the gap between the actual and the expected level, and it is too narrow to be used since the knowledge of the results cannot be conveyed only as being correct or incorrect. Instead of this narrowly defined feedback, Sadler proposes a more comprehensive definition of feedback involving three conditions. Based on their definition, to be able to improve, students must develop a capacity to be able to monitor their own work's quality while producing in the first place. This requires them to own an appreciation of what high-quality work is and has, and they have the evaluative skills to compare their own work to a higher level one. Besides, they are able to develop and adopt several tactics and moves to make necessary changes in their

work to carry it to higher standards. According to Sadler, improvement occurs if teachers provide remedial and detailed advice and students follow it.

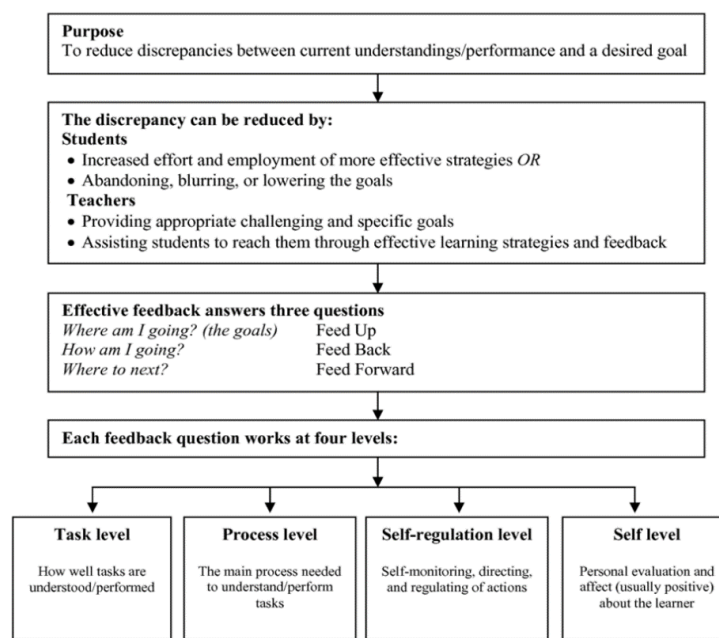
When it comes to after the 2000s, Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) provide a definition saying that feedback is information about in what ways and how students' current state of learning and performance state against predetermined goals and standards. Moreover, they touch upon a shift in focus on feedback, during which students have more of a proactive role rather than a reactive one while producing and making use of feedback. They essentially promote the idea that the development of self-regulation is required in feedback processes.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) define feedback as information given about one's performance or understanding by an agent such as teachers, peers, books, parents, self, or experiences; hence, it is basically a consequence of performance. They proposed the model of feedback to improve learning (presented in Figure 2.2).

Dawson et al. (2019) claim that as of the early 2010s, literature regarding feedback has changed its view of feedback and has started to define it as a process whereby students make sense of information about the work they have created and use that understanding to enhance the quality of the subsequent works. To illustrate, Nicol (2010), Green (2019), and Lee et al. (2017) propose that feedback must be dialogical and contingent; it is a two-way process in which coordinated teacher-student and peer-to-peer interactions besides active learner engagement occur. According to Nicol, to make feedback more dialogical, one of the actions that could be taken is to let students express a preference for the sorts of feedback they would like to receive while submitting an assignment. With regard to such a preference process, McKeachie (2002) recommends students to attach questions about the areas with which they think they need help; whereas some of the questions may be about the writing process, the other ones might be related to conceptual understanding and concept application.

Figure 2. 2

Hattie and Timperley’s (2007) Model of Feedback to Enhance Learning



Note. From “The power of feedback” by J. Hattie and H. Timperley, 2007, *Review of Educational Research*, 77 (1), 81-112.

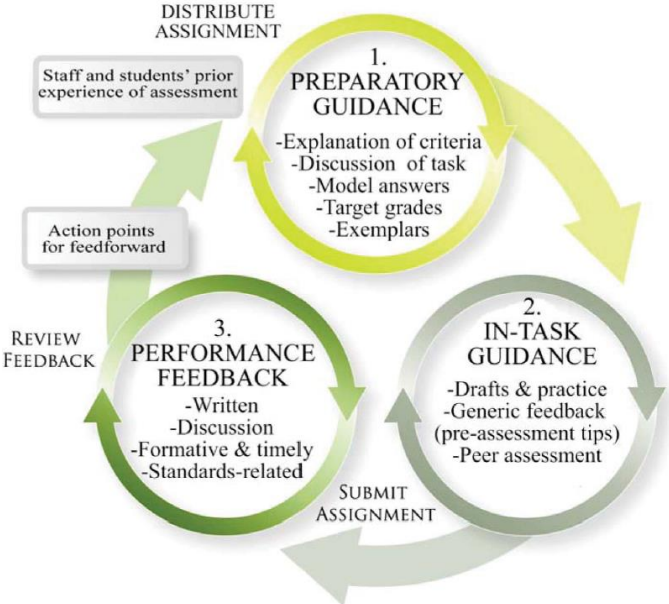
Nicol (2010) suggests that requested feedback might help decrease unproductive teacher comments, and also letting students request feedback followed by responding to it and actively connecting it to subsequent assignments is probable to lead to students’ paying more attention and being able to make use of teacher feedback. Nicol (2010) adds that audio feedback is beneficial for this dialogical feedback process, as well. When teachers check students’ assignments, they attach audio files including feedback upon those student responses. After that, students may be asked to listen to or read teachers’ feedback comments, and afterward, they might be organized in small groups to discuss the feedback received.

Beaumont et al. (2011) conducted a qualitative study involving 23 staff and 145 students in six schools and colleges as well as three English universities across three disciplines. While examining the results, they used the model called the *Dialogic Feedback Cycle* (Figure 2.3), which they came up with after a previous

empirical study, as the framework. According to their findings, students perceived feedback as a dialogic guidance process instead of a summative event.

Figure 2. 3

Dialogic Feedback Cycle in Schools/Colleges



Note. From “Reconceptualization assessment feedback: A key to improving student learning?” by C. Beaumont, M. O’Doherty, and L. Shannon, 2011, *Studies in Higher Education*, 36 (6), 671-687.

Beaumont et al. (2011) criticize Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick's (2006) feedback practices by stating that they are useful yet inadequate on their own. They claim that the principles Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick proposed must be implemented in a systematic way at appropriate points within the cycle to be considered effective. According to Beaumont et al., the reconceptualization of feedback as a process instead of an event is essential as it highlights the time-dependent nature of the feedback processes.

When it comes to Sadler (2013), they put forward the concept of “knowing to” during feedback processes. They assert that the most problematic area of the

traditional feedback models is that the assessors, such as academics, teachers, and peers, are those who do the noticing and come up with how to do corrections/modifications or improve. However, learners must actually be responsible for these steps; they must develop awareness and responsiveness to be able to detect problematic areas on their own (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Sadler, 2013). Moreover, Sadler (2013) points out that this occurs only if students acquire an adequate basis of tacit knowledge about the content and the implications of the markers' feedback. Therefore, students must be provided with opportunities to develop such skills. In addition to that, Boud and Molloy (2013) define feedback as a process in which learners get information about their work so as to create more improved work and emphasize the fact that there must be a mutual understanding of the function of feedback both by teachers and students. Both groups need to view feedback as a way of fostering learning through active learners, but not individual acts of providing or receiving information. In other words, feedback is considered not as "telling" but as "appreciating." Feedback is not a process that educators do for the students. In contrast, all stakeholders in teaching and learning processes must consider the purpose of feedback as self-regulating and view it as a means to boost capability in making judgements and eventually acting on them. The dialogical nature of these features suggests a more sustainable approach during feedback processes (Boud & Molloy, 2013).

Lately, regarding the conception of feedback, it has been believed that feedback is a robust process for learning to occur; however, similar to Sadler (2013) and Boud and Molloy (2013), learners are need in of a number of capabilities to make the most of feedback. To make feedback more engaging and more influential for learners, it has been suggested that the feedback authenticity must be increased (Dawson et al., 2021). Dawson et al. proposed five dimensions for authentic feedback (a) realism: to what extent learners deal with tasks within social and physical contexts of feedback in the discipline, (b) cognitive challenge: to what extent feedback engages learners in higher-order thinking skills, (c) affective challenge: to what extent learner control and regulate their

emotions as well as making use of these emotions, (d) evaluative judgement: to what extent learners make judgements of both their own and others' work, and (e) feedback enactment: to what extent learners respond and engage in feedback as a professional would do within discipline or profession.

2.2.2 Effective Feedback

Seden and Svaricek (2018) point out the significance of effective feedback by indicating that providing effective feedback has been regarded as one of the key strategies in the learning and teaching processes. To what extent students are engaged in feedback processes is what makes it effective (Carless & Boud, 2018; Dawson et al., 2021; Sadler, 1989). In addition to this, Dawson et al. (2021) assert that feedback processes are effective on the condition that learners are to obtain, make sense of, and make use of feedback. Moreover, Kulhavy and Stock (1989) assert that effective feedback enables learners to reach two significant types of information: verification and elaboration. For English language teaching settings, in particular, Vogt et al. (2020) indicate feedback plays a key role in language teaching and learning processes since it guides the future steps which are taken for improvement.

Sadler (1989) posits three conditions for effective feedback to occur, and essentially their ideas suggest that students have the ability to make judgements of what they are creating and to regulate what they are doing while they are creating something. According to Sadler, these three conditions are (a) learners possess a concept of the standard, which could be a goal or reference level; (b) learners are able to compare their own level with the standard provided; and (c) learners can take appropriate action to close the gap. In one of their later studies, Sadler (2013) also supports this viewpoint by saying that when learners have acquired an adequate amount of knowledge to understand and interpret the content and implications of the markers' feedback, feedback could be effective since learners become far more percipient, intuitive, analytical, and creative while working independently and developing high quality products.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) suggested that to be effective, feedback must be clear, purposeful, meaningful, and in accordance with students' previous knowledge to be able to make meaningful connections with the new information. Besides, provided that it includes information about the process or how to proceed, feedback is regarded as effective. Hattie and Timperley have proposed an effective feedback model consisting of three questions either asked by teachers or learners: Where am I going? (The goals are questioned.); how am I going? (The progress being made is questioned.), and where to next? (What should be executed for better progress is questioned.). Moreover, Hattie's (1999) more detailed meta-analysis database revealed that the most effective forms of feedback are cues and reinforcements provided to the learners, as well as video, audio, and computer-assisted feedback. However, the least effective forms of feedback are programmed instruction, providing praise, punishment, and extrinsic rewards.

Moreover, Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) have proposed seven principles of good feedback practices to facilitate self-regulation as follows:

Good feedback practice:

- a. helps clarifying what good performance is through goals, criteria, expected standards.
- b. enables the development of self-assessment during learning processes.
- c. provides high quality information about their learning to students.
- d. facilitates teacher and peer dialogue during learning processes.
- e. facilitates motivational beliefs and self-esteem.
- f. enables opportunities to close the gap between present and expected performance.
- g. gives information to teachers to shape teaching.

Dawson et al. (2019) investigated qualitatively what the purpose of feedback is and what makes feedback effective from the perspectives of both educators and learners. In the study, 406 staff and 4514 students from two Australian

universities responded to a survey, and consequently, it has been revealed that what an essential part of effective feedback is high-quality feedback. From the staff's point of view, the effectiveness of feedback depends on timing, mode of the comments (e.g., rubric, face-to-face, digital recording), and connected tasks, while students have stated that what makes feedback effective is it including high-quality comments with the features of being usable, adequately, and thoroughly detailed, direct, focused as well as being individualized depending on individual differences. Basically, Dawson et al. remark that effective feedback must show a visible effect; thus, the feedback system needs to be judged and adapted accordingly. In addition to this study, regarding the quality feedback as a part of effective feedback, Beaumont et al. (2011) conducted a qualitative research study involving 23 staff and 145 students in six schools and three English universities from three different disciplines. Similar to Dawson et al., it has been uncovered that quality feedback is perceived as timely, detailed enough, and with an opportunity to discuss face-to-face with the educators. On the other hand, unlike Dawson et al., Beaumont et al. (2011) demonstrated that students desire to see a grade as a standard indicator as well as criterion-referenced comments. More importantly, student participants have articulated the significance of discussing drafts with educators and access to exemplars.

In the EFL context, Seden and Svaricek (2018) carried out a qualitative interpretive study examining ten English as a foreign language teachers from seven middle schools. The researchers particularly looked for how teachers perceive effective feedback with respect to student learning and how feedback practices in the classroom affect their perceptions through interviews, lesson observations, and document analysis of student work. Upon the findings, one of the effective feedback practices that teachers adopt is that they are mostly in favour of giving whole class feedback for common mistakes, whereas they also provide individual feedback depending on individual-specific mistakes. Another effective feedback consideration revealed about the teachers is that they find written feedback rather effective if it focuses on three areas separately: students' weak points (what is wrong), their strengths (what is right), and possible

solutions (what needs to be done to improve). Yet, what is regarded ineffective feedback practice is giving grades all alone as they think it does not make any contributions to further learning.

2.2.3 Direct and Indirect Feedback

Lee (2008a) claims that a huge number of teacher feedback research studies are focused on error correction as the types and extent of error feedback. While responding to errors, teachers can make use of direct and indirect feedback. Direct feedback is defined as teachers' provision of the correct answer to the learners. After they have seen the corrections, learners are to revise their products to merely transcribe them into the corrected version, which is already provided by the teachers. However, indirect feedback occurs when teachers highlight and indicate some kind of a problem exists in the products; they let the learners know about the existence of it, but the teachers do not make any corrections as students are supposed to come up with solutions and make necessary corrections (Bø, 2014.; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008a). Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Lee (2008a) assert that indirect feedback can be coded to show error types such as "tense" and "preposition," or it can be uncoded by only underlining, highlighting, or circling an error without indicating what type of an error it is. Furthermore, according to Ferris (2002), error feedback might be exhausting from teachers' point of view, whereas it may be overwhelming from students' stances. Hence, selective error feedback would be much more viable and productive compared to marking all errors (Lee, 2003, 2008).

Regarding indirect feedback in the EFL settings, in their experimental study, Ferris and Roberts (2001) looked for 72 EFL students' abilities to edit their texts based on three different feedback conditions: errors marked with codes, errors underlined but not marked, or labelled, and no feedback. The results of this study demonstrated that the first two groups performed significantly more than no feedback group, yet there was no significant difference between the first two groups. Therefore, they have concluded that less explicit feedback is also helpful

for students' self-edit. In another EFL context, Lee (2008a) investigated the error correction of 26 secondary school English language teachers in Hong Kong with document analysis which was followed by six interviews. According to recommended feedback principles about error correction, teachers should not correct all the mistakes in learners' work since it is time-consuming and demotivating for learners (CDC, 1999, p. 95), and teachers must indicate mistakes and learners must correct them on their own (CDC, 1999, p. 96). Namely, indirect feedback has been promoted in the local curriculum. However, the results showed that direct error feedback constituted 71.5 % of the data, which was followed by 21.6 % coded feedback (indirect) and 6.9 % uncoded feedback (indirect). Overall, the findings are inconsistent with what is expected in the curriculum.

Another scholar Chandler (2003) conducted an experimental study in an EFL setting in terms of grammatical and lexical errors. Their findings have shown that both direct correction and simply underlining the errors (uncoded feedback) are superior to coded feedback. In addition to that, to what extent direct feedback and uncoded feedback are effective depends on the goals. Direct correction can be utilized to produce more accurate products from students' perspectives; from teachers' perspectives, it being more convenient in multiple drafting plays a key role. On the other hand, students might learn more from their self-correction through uncoded correction. It would also take less time for teachers. The preference may change depending on the goals and circumstances (Chandler, 2003).

In the Turkish context, Babanoğlu et al. (2018) carried out an experimental study to see the effectiveness of explicit (direct) and implicit (indirect) written feedback in an EFL higher education setting . A total number of 43 students were divided into three groups receiving direct feedback, indirect feedback, and no feedback. After an experimental procedure of 4-week treatment, both experimental groups demonstrated significant improvement in learning prepositions, while no significant difference appeared in the control group.

However, there was no statistical superiority of direct or indirect written feedback over the other. Overall, it can be concluded that indirect feedback can be as effective as direct feedback (Bø, 2014).

2.2.4 Oral and Written Feedback

It is essential to notice the distinction between oral and written feedback. Whereas written feedback can be provided at any phase of the writing process, and it enables learners to recall and turn back to feedback received at any time, oral feedback is to be provided at any time as well, yet with a handicap carried along with it, which is the possibility of being easily forgotten by the learners. However, the use of body language and opportunities to be able to ask questions simultaneously are what make oral feedback robust (Bø, 2014).

Focused on separately, oral corrective feedback (henceforth OCF) is defined as any response type given after students' wrong utterances (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Ellis, 2009; Ellis et al., 2006). Su and Tian (2016) have come up with four inseparable constructs of oral corrective feedback: (a) feedback provider (e.g., teacher, classmate, a competent speaker of the target language), (b) feedback receiver (e.g., learner), (c) feedback purpose (e.g., to facilitate language teaching and learning), and (d) corrective feedback type (e.g., the type depending on teachers' beliefs and perceptions and learner needs). In the case of the effectiveness of oral feedback, Raimes (1983) asserts that it is quite an effective way of providing feedback, such as one-to-one oral conferences (Yu, 2021) as it allows the teacher and student interaction. The dialogue between teachers and students renders it possible to get a chance to explain unclear parts and answer questions in a more fruitful manner although it requires a relatively massive amount of time.

In the EFL settings, there are a number of research studies carried out to reveal teachers' oral feedback beliefs, attitudes, and real classroom practices. To illustrate, Junqueira and Kim (2013) did a research study through observations,

stimulated recalls, and interviews to compare an experienced and a less experienced teacher. They discovered that experience did not affect beliefs about oral feedback, but the experience brought a more varied repertoire of oral feedback practices along with it. Similarly, another scholar Kamiya (2016) conducted a study making use of classroom observation and an interview for each of the four English language teachers who participated. The results gathered demonstrated that the teachers' beliefs and practices were in harmony. Besides, teachers remarked on the significance of not humiliating students while providing oral feedback; instead, there must be a comfortable atmosphere. Both Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Kamiya (2016) found that recasts are the most frequently used oral corrective feedback type among the corrective feedback types suggested by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Moreover, Gómez Argüelles et al. (2019) interviewed six English language teachers at the college level to ascertain their attitudes towards oral corrective feedback. According to their findings as a result of interviews with those participants, they are unaware of different types of oral corrective feedback and its effectiveness for learner feedback uptake. Yet, two of the instructors explicitly remarked their negative attitudes towards oral corrective feedback since they thought telling students what is wrong explicitly makes the students uncomfortable. Roothoof (2014) attained very similar results in their study. They revealed through a questionnaire and observations that English language teachers are not fully aware of the amount and type of oral corrective feedback they have been making use of. As Gómez Argüelles et al.'s (2019) study suggested, the participants hold concerns about provoking students and causing a negative and uncomfortable classroom atmosphere. Moreover, recasts have been found to be the most used type of corrective feedback.

In terms of how to provide oral feedback, Wang et al. (2017) investigated teacher feedback to student oral presentations through a case study in which data were drawn from semi-structured interviews with an experienced Chinese teacher of English as a foreign language. According to the interview results, the teacher participant adopts a pattern of "praise-criticism-suggestion" in their oral

feedback. This feedback pattern looks similar to feedback sandwich in which negative comments are embedded between positive comments (Molloy, 2010).

It is also probable to encounter several studies conducted in the Turkish EFL contexts focusing on oral corrective feedback. To illustrate, Kır (2020) collected data from four Turkish ELF instructors through a questionnaire, classroom observations, and interviews. The number and types of corrective feedback put forward by Lyster and Ranta (1997) were asked in the interviews and observed during lessons. From the data drawn from them, it was found that due to the lack of content knowledge of OCF and proceduralization of this content knowledge led to inconsistencies between beliefs and practices. In addition to this study, Demir and Özmen (2017) conducted a study to find out how OCF preferences of English language teachers differ according to being a native speaker of English and a non-native speaker of English. According to the results collected through classroom observations and interviews, native speakers of English are much more tolerant of student errors compared to non-native speakers of English. Both Kır (2020) and Demir and Özmen (2017) found that recasts are the most predominant oral corrective feedback type, similar to the findings of Kamiya (2016) Junqueira and Kim (2013), and Roothoof (2014) as discussed earlier.

When the shift is turned to written feedback from oral feedback, Hyland and Hyland (2019) define teacher feedback upon writing as judging a text constructively and evaluating students' performance by pointing towards the future of their writing. According to Yu (2021), in a product-oriented approach to writing, teacher feedback is provided on the level form (e.g., structure, content, topic development), and feedback basically involves scores, grades, types of written corrective feedback (henceforth WCF) as being direct and indirect, focused or comprehensive WCF (Lee, 2019). However, in the process-approach, teacher feedback considers writing purposes and processes, and context is prioritized over language accuracy (Goldstein, 2004). Goldstein also emphasizes that in process-oriented classrooms, it is heavily recommended that teacher feedback must be concrete, clear, and involve text-specific comments

consisting of not only praise but also constructive criticism. What is more significant is to provide feedback by engaging with students and building strong and meaningful relationships between them (Goldstein, 2004; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Hyland and Hyland (2006) favour multiple drafting over single drafting and assert that teachers need to be demonstrating a balanced coverage in their written feedback by concentrating on content, organization, structure, language, and style.

In relation to written feedback, Nicol (2010) lists ten characteristics of how written feedback should be constructed: (a) *understandable* by the students, (b) *selective* in the sense that commenting on one or two reasonable details rather than correcting every single mistake, (c) *specific* by focusing on the instances on individual students' written work, (d) *timely*, which suggests it is provided in time to be applied in the upcoming work, (e) *contextualized* referring to the learning objectives/outcomes and criteria, (f) *non-judgemental* that referring to being descriptive instead of evaluative, in other words, mainly built based upon learning goals rather than performance goals, (g) *balanced* in terms of articulating positive sides as well as aspects in need of improvement, (h) *forward looking* involving recommendations for how the future work may be enhanced, (i) *transferable* in the sense that focusing on skills and processes as well instead of merely content knowledge, and lastly (j) *personal* referring to individual student's performance considering what is already known about that student's previous and current performance. Furthermore, Nicol (2010) and McKeachie (2002) mention a way to prevent unproductive commenting by the teachers and promote the dialogical nature of feedback (Green, 2019; Lee et al., 2017) through requested feedback. How it works is that students attach some questions regarding areas they would like some help with, such as the writing process, content, conceptual understanding, or application of the concept, and teachers concentrate on those areas while providing their written feedback afterward.

In the EFL context, there is a multitude of research studies about written feedback. Lee (2003) administered a questionnaire to 206 English language

teachers in Hong Kong followed by 19 telephone interviews selected from those participants. According to the results of this study, even though selective marking (Ferris, 2002; Nicol, 2010) is recognized in national syllabus and error correction literature, teachers do not make use of it; instead, they mark the papers with comprehensive feedback by spending a vast amount of time on student writing. As well as this, it was revealed that feedback strategies of teachers were quite limited; for instance, only a limited number of teachers were using error logs or error patterns to help students realize their own mistakes. Teachers were not content with student improvement, either, despite the tremendous effort put in by them. The study's implication suggested that students need to be turned into agents of their own learning by being given more responsibility for it. In their other study, Lee (2008a) examined the feedback of 26 English language teachers in Hong Kong and interviewed six of them. The gathered results demonstrated that teachers heavily depend on single drafting, although multiple drafting is favoured in the national syllabus and error-focused feedback is provided more. Also, very similar to Lee et al.'s (2017) results, some contextual factors, such as teacher beliefs, values, and knowledge were said to be determinants of the teachers' feedback practices. Based on the findings of these two research studies, the article written by Lee (2008b) displayed ten mismatches between teachers' feedback beliefs and their real written feedback practices. The mismatches found are that even though teachers believe there are more important considerations than accuracy, they pay the greatest attention to language form in their written feedback; teachers apply comprehensive error marking rather than selective marking; although teacher hold the belief that students must take the responsibility for their own learning, they spot and correct students' mistakes; while they think that students cannot understand the codes, teachers use error codes. Whereas they believe that the purpose of feedback deviates from its utmost aim, they grade students' papers. Even though they are aware of the fact that feedback must be balanced including both strengths and weaknesses, they primarily pay attention to weak points; their feedback leave very little room for taking the responsibility of students' own learning. While they believe process writing is more beneficial, they go with single drafting;

their feedback is error-focused, and last mismatch is even though they are aware that their effort does not pay off, teachers keep providing comprehensive feedback.

It is probable to encounter other written feedback types besides corrective feedback. Burke and Pieterick (2010) touch upon *evaluative feedback* as pointing at errors students make in specific writings and as informing students about to what extent they have performed well in certain tasks or assignments. With regard to *developmental feedback*, Lizzio and Wilson (2008) define it as constructive and pointing to future improvement. In other words, it does not only spot errors yet gives information on why these errors occur, how to abstain from them, and how to turn into better writers. Murtagh (2014) adds one more to the list, *phatic feedback*. This feedback type is simply confirming the information provided by the students with a tick or any other signs. Taking into these concepts, Murtagh (2014) looked into the written feedback practices of two experienced literacy teachers in the United Kingdom via observations, interviews, and document analysis. The results of the research study demonstrated that both teachers overly depended on phatic feedback as well as marking each and every piece of written student work to escalate student motivation and self-esteem. However, this opinion was not shared by the students in that they sought descriptive feedback.

The overall results imply this situation creates over-dependency on teacher work. More recently, other scholars have also focused on written feedback in their research studies. In their longitudinal study, Green (2019) carried out document analysis, semi-structured interviews, and text-based interviews with a TESOL MA program student participant. The participant showed a vague understanding of the provided feedback according to the results. The study suggests the importance of shared understanding of the feedback information through the notion of dialogic feedback instead of the monologic nature of feedback. Besides, students must be empowered to seek and negotiate feedback rather than simply receive it. Another scholar, Heerden (2020), looked for whether the

purpose and practice of feedback are aligned under Legitimation Code Theory in English language studies. The results showed otherwise because teachers mainly focused on identifying and correcting language mistakes. Content and referencing mistakes came later in their feedback practices.

Kumar and Stracke (2007) put forward the concept of *expressive feedback* in the shape of praise, criticism, and suggestion on the students' written work. Based on this notion, Yu et al. (2020) administered a large-scale survey to 1190 students in 35 universities in China. Their results contradicted the previous studies mentioned above in that expressive feedback was found to be the predominantly employed written feedback strategy, whereas written corrective feedback was the least used one. In addition to that, process-oriented feedback and written corrective feedback were found to be demotivating for the students, unlike expressive feedback. In another research study, Yu (2021) searched for what and how teachers can learn from feedback-giving experiences. The study was carried out by 27 English language teachers in China, and the results revealed that teachers value learning opportunities risen by students' writing; this might improve teachers' results of actions and regulate their teaching processes; in other words, it may lead to the reflective learning experience by the teachers (Lee, 2019).

In their article written after a needs-analysis survey applied to 1788 English language learners in different countries, such as Cyprus, Greece, Hungary, and Germany, Vogt et al. (2020) found based on students' responses that written feedback practices in EFL classrooms are sequenced from the most used and the least used as marks (e.g., grades, points), brief comments (e.g., "well-done"), comments on how to enhance the performance, and lastly detailed comments on the oral or written work of the students.

In the Turkish EFL context, a bunch of studies have been conducted regarding written feedback. Bostancı and Şengül (2018) carried out a quasi-experimental study to reveal the most effective agent while providing indirect written

corrective feedback (henceforth IWCF). Class A received only instructor IWCF, Class B received only peer IWCF, and Class C received collaborative IWCF, involving both instructor and peer feedback. The results revealed that Class C significantly enhanced their writing skills in comparison to the other two groups. Another Turkish scholar Geçkin (2020), looked into students' beliefs and attitudes towards written corrective feedback to multiple drafting in essays. Upon the results gathered from 208 tertiary level students, divided into four proficiency levels, it has been articulated that all proficiency level students believe in the essentiality of written corrective feedback for their multiple drafted essays, and they all seek feedback on grammar, lexical knowledge, and structure/organization. However, it also has been found that higher proficiency level students pay more attention to teacher feedback and analyse it meticulously in comparison to lower proficiency level students. Furthermore, all the groups preferred oral explanations on their drafts over indirect feedback given with symbols or codes. In addition to these studies, in terms of the effect of using codes during the course of error correction, Ekinci and Ekinci (2020) carried out a quasi-experimental study involving an achievement test followed by a perception questionnaire in one of the universities in Turkey. After eight weeks of treatment, it was revealed that providing written feedback using error correction codes improves students' language proficiency level. Besides, the perception questionnaire showed that students have developed positive attitudes towards obtaining feedback in the form of error correction codes to improve their writing performances.

If both oral and written feedback are taken into account, it is a great deal better to employ the combination of the two to have effective feedback because provided that feedback is simply written, it lowers the chances of discussing unclear points or addressing individual needs. However, when oral feedback is provided upon written feedback, teachers and students both find opportunities to explain their points of view and ensure that what is meant is well understood by both parties (Bø, 2014).

2.2.5 Feedback Types and Practices in English Language Teaching

It is inevitable for learners to make mistakes during the course of learning a foreign language. Errors play a crucial role in EFL since they display to what extent learners have grasped the topics and what areas or skills still need improvement. Hence, error correction is inevitably connected to foreign language learning and teaching (Su & Tian, 2016). Lyster and Ranta (1997) assert that how well and how competent speakers show reactions to learners' language errors come about in a variety of forms in a plethora of settings, and it has been referred to as "corrective feedback" by foreign or second language teachers. At this point, Lightbown and Spada (2006) point to corrective feedback as any type of feedback showing learners that their products or utterances are incorrect. Lyster and Ranta (1997) have proposed a model of six different types of feedback:

1. *Explicit correction*: Teachers explicitly provide the correct answer or directly tell that answer is incorrect.
2. *Recasts*: Teachers' reformulation of the students' utterances by repetition with change (by correcting the error) and "repetition with change and emphasis."
3. *Clarification requests*: A repetition or reformulation of the response is requested by teachers mostly because of either a misunderstanding or an ill-formed structure.
4. *Metalinguistic feedback*: Without providing the correct answer, teachers remark some comments, information, or questions about the nature of the error, in other words, through metalanguage. The well-formed response is aimed to be elicited from the learners.
5. *Elicitation*: It is used by teachers to elicit correct responses from the students directly. It occurs in three different ways: Teachers pause their utterances intentionally and ask students to complete the rest; teachers use questions to elicit the correct forms excluding yes/no questions as they are

metalinguistic feedback, and lastly, teachers might ask students to reformulate their sayings/utterances.

6. *Repetition*: Teachers repeat students' utterances, including an error, by changing their intonation to grab their attention to the erroneous part.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) have added a seventh category to these six preceding feedback types as *multiple feedback*, referring to the combination of more than one corrective feedback type.

Another scholar has proposed a model for feedback types, too. Shute (2008) defines formative feedback as information transferred to learners with the utmost intention of changing their way of thinking, behaviours, and enhancing learning. In their review, Shute demonstrates that feedback is formed in a diversity of types and summarizes what each type refers to, as can be seen in Table 2.1. It undeniably overlaps with the model proposed by (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Table 2. 1

Feedback types (Shute, 2008)

Feedback Type	Description
No feedback	Students are posed a question to answer, but there is no indication of if the response is correct or not.
Verification	“Knowledge of the results.” Informing the students about their answers as right or wrong.
Correct Response	“Knowledge of the correct response.” Providing the correct answer to learners without additional information.
Try again	“Repeat-until-correct.” Providing the information of incorrect and asking/enabling learners to make more attempts.

Table 2.1 (continued)

Error flagging	“Location of mistakes”. Without providing the correct answers, highlighting where the error is.
Elaborated	The explanation of why a given response correct or incorrect by the learner.
Attribute isolation	Feedback which addresses central issues of the target topic or skill.
Topic contingent	Feedback which provides learners with contingent information to the target topic. It may simply be reteaching the topic being studied.
Response contingent	Feedback which provides learners with information by focusing on a specific response of them. It might give information about why a correct answer is correct and why an incorrect answer is incorrect.
Hints/prompts/cues	Feedback which guides the students to right direction through strategic hints, such as telling what might be done next or showing exemplars. It does not provide the correct answer.
Bugs/Misconceptions	Feedback that necessitates error analysis and diagnosis. It demonstrates information regarding specific learner errors. It reveals what is wrong with its possible reasons.
Informative Tutoring	Feedback that is the most elaborated one involving verification feedback, error flagging, strategic hints as well as how to keep going. The correct answer is mostly not given.

In relation to various types of feedback practices, even though perceptions about their effectiveness and usability differ from researcher to researcher, Chan and Luo (2021) present six commonly accepted pedagogical practices as feedback, which are listed as (a) stamps and digital badges, (b) grades, (c) simple corrections, (d) rubrics, (e) remarking comments to the entire class, and lastly (f) generic exemplars. In their research study, which was conducted at a university in Hong Kong, during ten different workshops, including 20-30 participants in each, they administered a survey to uncover which of these six common pedagogical feedback practices are considered feedback. The results have revealed that the majority of the teachers (over 50%) believed that grades, rubrics, simple corrections, whole class comments, and generic exemplars are feedback practices. Overall, the results have suggested that rather than studying an individual most effective type of feedback, teachers are advised to prepare their own “feedback toolkit,” involving diverse feedback practices appropriate for different feedback purposes (Chan & Luo, 2021).

2.2.6 Self and Peer Feedback

Self-regulation is viewed at the heart of good and effective feedback practices (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Yang & Carless, 2013). Thus, Cranny (2016) contends that teachers are not the sole providers of feedback, but feedback can be produced by peers and eventually by students themselves, which refers to peer and self-feedback, respectively. Moreover, peer feedback, in particular, is defined as a process whereby students assess or are assessed by their pairs to be able to improve their work (Carless & Boud, 2018; Sadler, 1989). Shepard (2000) argues that feedback from peers and students themselves constitutes the centre of social processes which foster intellectual ability development, knowledge construction, and student identity formation within the constructivist paradigm. The significance of peer feedback is emphasised from other different points of view as escalating evaluative judgement regarding students’ own work (Carless et al., 2011; Carless & Boud, 2018), increasing students’ critical thinking skills (Abdioğlu, 2019), letting teachers save time (Ferris, 2014), and

handling large classes (Lee et al., 2017). Regarding self-feedback, Dochy et al. (1999) asserted in their review that self-assessment or self-feedback boosts students' performance and, eventually, their control over learning strategies. Apart from them, Hattie and Timperley (2007) point out the necessity of classroom environments in which students learn from their mistakes through peer and self-feedback. Lee (2019) indicates that by teaching students peer and self-editing, writing accuracy might develop, and Gibbs and Simpson (2005) allege that learners can supervise themselves and apply necessary revisions before submitting their finalized work thanks to self and peer-feedback.

In the EFL setting, contemporary research is rich with studies about self and peer-feedback, peer-feedback in particular. To illustrate, Xu and Carless (2017) observed classes and conducted interviews in Chinese university contexts to reveal peer feedback use upon oral presentations. The results demonstrated that students consider it a safe and supportive way for effective learning, and it constitutes a good solution for the lack of resources in university contexts. Another study in China carried out by Hu and Lam (2010) displayed similar results in that the significant improvement in the students' revised drafts was linked to peer feedback. Moreover, the qualitative part of the study brought about the fact that peer-feedback is acknowledged as a suitable pedagogical activity in Chinese educational settings. A very similar empirical study was conducted by Kurihara (2017), applying pre and post-tests over 12-week period of treatment. According to the results, peer feedback contributed to improvement in students' writing skills.

In the case of peer feedback, a question remains in people's minds as to whether higher-proficiency level students can benefit from lower-proficiency level students if they are put together during peer-feedback activities. Upon this question, Yu and Hu (2017) empirically displayed that both groups can take advantage of peer-feedback activities. To be more precise, higher-achievers also learn from their peers because lower-achievers can be their mediators in peer-

feedback activities and offer them the required scaffolding to help them through their Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978).

On the other hand, several existing studies demonstrated a disparity between students' and teachers' opinions or underuse of self and peer feedback. For instance, a study done by Killingback et al. (2020) in the UK showed conflicting views between students and lecturers. The students stated that they were not being sincere while self-assessing or peer-assessing, yet the lecturers strongly articulated their favour of self-assessment as they believed it is more focused, more meaningful, and a good reflective skill for students. Furthermore, Veugen et al. (2021), Öz (2014), and Babanoğlu et al. (2018) all found that self and peer-assessment/feedback were the least used formative assessment activities. Geçkin (2020) also revealed that the majority of the students still rely more on teacher feedback compared to peer feedback while writing their subsequent drafts.

2.2.7 Timing of Feedback

Gibbs et al. (2005) articulate that one of the prominent features of effective feedback is being prompt and timely. When timing is concerned, there are two concepts that come to mind: immediate and delayed feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Shute (2008) defines them based on feedback delivery time. "Immediate" feedback occurs right after a student responds to something or right after a quiz or a test is completed. Yet, "delayed" feedback takes place after some period of time following the completion of a task, a quiz, or a test.

Even though some researchers are strongly in favour of delayed feedback (e.g., Kulhavy & Anderson, 1972; Schroth, 1992; Surber & Anderson, 1975), some other scholars proved the superiority of immediate feedback over delayed feedback for certain areas, such as for more difficult tasks (e.g., Clariana, 1990), to avoid frustration (e.g., Knoblauch & Brannon, 1981), and for more verbal, procedural and more motor skills-required tasks (e.g., Corbett & Anderson, 2001). However, Fluckiger et al. (2010) adopt a more moderate approach and

indicate that both of them could be effective based on the task. At that point, Kulik and Kulik (1988) put forward that at the task level, such as testing situations, delayed feedback is more beneficial; yet, at the process level, such as classroom activities and classroom procedures, immediate feedback is more beneficial to employ.

In the Turkish context, Demir and Özmen (2017) brought about some factors determining the timing of error correction. According to their research results, while some native English language teacher participants claimed that OCF in an immediate manner is more beneficial right after students make a mistake, some others have uttered their concerns about it since they believe immediate OCF carries the potential to discourage students from speaking / oral production and deteriorate their self-esteem. Other factors having an influence on the timing of feedback are the course orientation, task type, error frequency, and affective issues (Demir & Özmen, 2017).

2.2.8 Modes of Feedback Delivery

Price et al. (2010) assert that the key factors affecting quality feedback products are their timing and mode of delivery. Therefore, various modes of feedback must be taken into account to fulfil feedback effectiveness, too. Killingback et al. (2020) list a diversity of feedback modes as written, screencast, video, podcast, face-to-face, self, and peer feedback. In their research study, Killingback et al. looked for preferred feedback modes from the viewpoints of both lecturers and students. The results of the qualitative study demonstrated that, whereas students had a tendency to select interactive feedback types with the lecturers, such as face-to-face, video, and screencast, the lecturers opted for peer and self-assessment as favoured feedback mode to develop students' reflective skills. Apart from these modes, e-mails (Cox et al., 2011; Henderson et al., 2019), audio feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Dawson et al., 2021; Green, 2019; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Molloy et al., 2020; Nicol, 2010), and different comment modes such as paper-and-pen, and computer-mediated ones (Cox et al., 2011;

Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Huang, 2016; Lee, 2008b; Yu et al., 2020) have also been regarded as other modes of feedback delivery. Moreover, Molloy et al. (2020) recognize individual or group, and structured or informal types of feedback as modes of feedback, as well.

A handful of research studies looked into feedback delivery modes and their effectiveness. To illustrate, Cranny (2016) focused on screencasting as a way to promote formative feedback, and it has been revealed to be an effective feedback delivery mode since the data suggest it allows students to rewatch, pause where necessary, and it is easily accessible. Henderson et al. (2019) administered an open survey to 3807 Australian students and found that even though interactive feedback, face-to-face, in particular, would be more appreciated by the students, most of the students indicated that the very last feedback they had received comprised text-based comments which were followed by marking sheets and rubrics in terms of frequency.

2.2.9 Student Barriers to Feedback

Feedback processes are demanding to be fully implemented, and the mutual frustration between teachers and students might reduce its potential learning benefits and effectiveness (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Carless and Boud (2018) argue that students themselves are the agents to act upon to enhance their learning through feedback. Similarly, Winstone et al. (2017) assert that for effective feedback to occur, it needs being used by the learners; that is why it is crucial to recognize barriers that would prevent learners from using feedback.

Plenty of scholars have touched upon possible causes of student barriers to feedback uptake. According to Jonsson (2013), its being useless, insufficient individualization, extremely authoritative, students' lack of strategies, and incomprehensible terminology might be the main reasons students are reluctant to make use of it. Lack of understanding of it constitutes one of the main barriers to engaging with effective feedback (Van der Kleij & Lipnevich, 2021; Winstone

et al., 2017; Wood, 2021). Trying to decode academic language (Sutton, 2012) and insufficient knowledge of appropriate academic vocabulary (Davis, 2020) might render it challenging to understand and make the most of feedback for learners. Van der Kleij (2019) revealed in their study conducted in five Australian secondary schools for English and Mathematics classes that the way feedback provided by teachers poses a barrier to student uptake. To be more precise, some students stated that teacher feedback was not sufficiently clear, and also, even the teacher's poor handwriting led one of the students to ignore the entire feedback. Other reasons might be sequenced as timeliness, such as providing feedback too late to be used (Hartley & Chesworth, 2000), the impact of it, such as inappropriate or irrelevant comments being employed in upcoming tasks (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Henderson et al., 2019), and perceived individual capabilities and attitudes towards feedback (Henderson et al., 2019).

Winstone et al. (2017) carried out a systematic exploration of student feedback barriers in 11 different focus groups with 31 tertiary level psychology students in the UK. Grounded on this study, four major themes embodying psychological processes and barriers as subthemes emerged as follows: (a) *Awareness* of what feedback is and its purpose: inability to decipher feedback and lack of feedback model knowledge; (b) *Cognisance* of strategies to employ feedback: insufficient knowledge of feedback strategies and opportunities; (c) *Agency* to employ feedback strategies: the sense of disqualification and challenges in putting feedback into practice, and finally, (d) *Volition* to examine the feedback and its strategies closely: lack of proactivity and responsiveness.

Nash and Winstone (2017) wrap up all the arguments by stating that the issue is mutual; students easily accuse educators of providing poor feedback while educators put the blame on the students for engaging poorly with feedback. Therefore, the way out is to cherish a shared responsibility between learners and educators, as Nicol (2010) initially suggested.

2.3 Feedback Literacy

As clearly seen in contemporary theories and research studies, feedback has undergone reconceptualization throughout history and has transformed into a more student-centred concept (Joughin et al., 2021; Ketonen et al., 2020). It is now believed that teachers' responsibility is not simply providing feedback, but making sure of students' recieption and utilization of it (Boud & Molloy, 2013) through feedback-related dialogues (Wood, 2021) and building a shared responsibility between them and their students (Carless, 2020; Nash & Winstone, 2017). Based on this shared responsibility understanding, a partnership is required between both parties; whereas teachers hold the responsibility of designing opportunities for learners to take action as a consequence of feedback provided, learners need to be responsible for engaging with and making use of that feedback information (Carless, 2020; Havnes et al., 2012; Ketonen et al., 2020; Wood, 2021). However, as discussed earlier too, students face barriers in the utilization of feedback (e.g., Henderson et al., 2019; Winstone et al., 2017), and one of the most contributing factors to this situation is lack of feedback literacy (Carless, 2019; Han & Xu, 2021). Moreover, to get rid of the misalignment between purpose and real-life practices of feedback, feedback needs to be considered and developed as a discipline-specific literacy (Van Heerden, 2020), and it has been argued that the development of feedback literacy can enhance student engagement with feedback processes (Ajjawi et al., 2017; Carless & Boud, 2018).

Various feedback literacy conceptions have arisen in different contexts and with different foci, and also with distinctive points of world views and methodological approaches (Joughin et al., 2021). Initially, Sutton (2012) defined and conceptualized feedback literacy as “the ability to read, interpret, and use written feedback” (p.31.). According to Sutton's conceptualization of feedback literacy, three dimensions of it exist as (1) *epistemological dimension* (e.g., learner engagement with knowing or academic knowledge), (2) *ontological dimension* (e.g., learner engagement with their selves or identities), and (3)

practical dimension (e.g., learner engagement with acting, such as reading, reflecting on, and feeding forward the feedback information) (p.33). This early definition of feedback challenged learners to take out and make sense of their educators' expectations concerning their academic identities as students (Davis, 2020). Thus, Carless and Boud (2018) extended this definition by stating that feedback literacy involves needed understandings, capacities, and dispositions to make sense of feedback information and make use of it to improve work or learning strategies. What feedback literacy highlights and denotes is the necessity of students being proactive in the feedback processes; in other words, regardless of the usefulness of teacher feedback, feedback does not automatically benefit its receiver unless it is accepted, processed, and acted upon by the receiver (Ketonen et al., 2020; Winstone et al., 2017). It is also reckoned that the capabilities to be discerning with feedback can be expanded by providing authentic feedback (Dawson et al., 2021).

2.3.1 Student Feedback Literacy

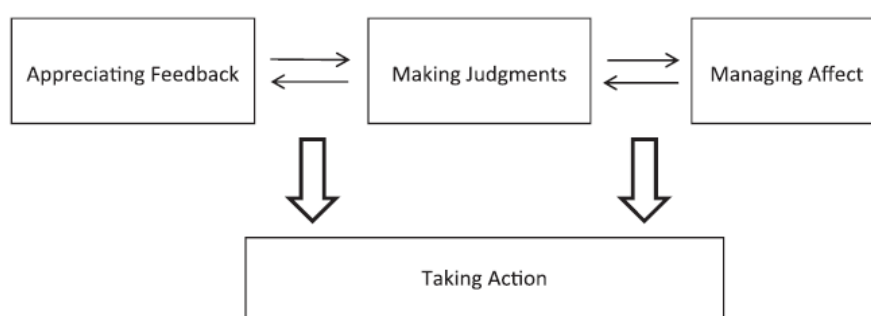
Putting learning and learners themselves at the centre of feedback processes has brought along the development of the concept of student feedback literacy (Malecka et al., 2020). Building upon Sutton (2012)'s conceptualization of feedback literacy, student feedback literacy has been defined as seeking, producing, and using feedback information as well as the development of capacities to be able to make academic judgements (Carless & Boud, 2018; Molloy et al., 2020). Carless and Boud (2018) proposed a student feedback literacy framework comprising four interrelated features as follows:

- 1- *Appreciating feedback processes*: Feedback literate students make sense of and appreciate the role of feedback to enhance the quality of their work as well as their active role during feedback processes. They are also aware of the fact that feedback information is provided in different forms and sources, and also, actively use technology to have access, store, and revisit feedback information.

- 2- *Making judgements*: Feedback literate students build capacities to be able to make plausible judgements of their own work and others' work. Besides, they actively participate in peer feedback practices and boost their self-evaluative capacities as time passes so as to make more sound judgments.
- 3- *Managing affect*: Feedback literate students keep up their emotional equilibrium and dodge defensive reactions as a response to critical feedback. Moreover, they take active roles in eliciting suggestions from their teachers and peers and keeping up the dialogue. Last but not least, they acquire habits seeking ongoing improvement as a response to internal and external feedback.
- 4- *Taking action*: Feedback literate students are fully aware of the fact that they need to take immediate action upon feedback information. Furthermore, they make conclusions and draw implications from diverse feedback experiences for continuous improvement, and they build up a repertoire of strategies to act on feedback.

Figure 2.4

Features of Student Feedback Literacy



Note. From “The development of student feedback literacy: Enabling uptake of feedback” by D. Carless and D. Boud, 2018, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43 (8), 1315-1325.

As illustrated in Figure 2.4., it has been proposed that the combination of the three features at the top of the figures increases the possibility and potential of students to take necessary action afterward. Carless and Boud (2018) also offer activities to develop student feedback literacy, forming and receiving peer feedback and analysing exemplars referring to samples to be analysed and compared to the work in progress rather than model answers. Within this scheme, the roles of the teachers are to facilitate suitable classroom environments encouraging active learner participation; to provide guidance, coaching, and modelling; to provide details regarding the rationale of the activities, how they must be done, the potential benefits or possible challenges students would encounter, and to foster dialogue between them and their students to reduce misconceptions of feedback practices.

Following the proposition of this student feedback literacy framework, Malecka et al. (2020) argued that how student feedback literacy could be integrated into the curriculum was yet to be discussed. Therefore, they have proposed three mechanisms, which are claimed to be congruent with social-constructivist approaches to feedback. The mechanisms put forward are (a) *eliciting*, which requires learners to look for information from a diverse range of sources to address issues such as from digital resources, teachers, peers, practitioners when necessary; (b) *processing* that is about learners' handling information that was received from various sources, human and non-human. This is a sense-making process in which credibility, reliability, and solidity of the source are evaluated, and (c) *enacting* which happens only with the production of upcoming work and refers to the long-term development of learning strategies embodied. Students are able to make use of the feedback information from a previous work in their subsequent works. To be able to accomplish those three mechanisms, Malecka et al. (2020) have also offered improved versions of four practices. To begin with, through developmental feedback requests, students can seek feedback they wish to receive, and consequently, this would enable and encourage teachers to adjust their feedback according to individuals' personal needs and specific requirements. The second practice is continuous use of self-assessment during

tasks and units, which is suggested to be longitudinal tracking of self-assessment. This idea is appreciated since it contributes to students' development of evaluative judgment. The third practice is cumulative peer review, as it is appropriate for requesting clarification and justification, and revision of the target work by being involved in processing, responding, and enacting the results of feedback. This practice is believed to be beneficial for student feedback literacy development provided that students are trained, and the value of peer reviews is explained thoroughly at the initial step of it. The last practice put forward is e-portfolios that are specific to feedback information. Students can synthesise feedback from a multitude of sources, keep track of their progress, and even create personalized feedback implementation plans comprising tasks to be completed by certain dates. Considering all these, Malecka et al. (2020) point out that designing courses allocating a huge place for the development of feedback literacy, for example, through these strategies, would address problems in the existing feedback practice challenges.

Extending Carless and Boud's (2018) framework, Chong (2021) approached the student feedback literacy concept from an ecological perspective. The point from which this model is drawn is the notion of learner agency, which emphasises the interaction among contextual, structural, and personal elements, consequently forming an ecological system whereby people interact with their surroundings (Han, 2019). Being inspired by this notion, Chong (2021) proposed a multi-dimensional model including three dimensions in which feedback literacy emerges as a result of an interplay among them: (a) the *engagement* dimension, which is conceptualized upon Carless and Boud's (2018) model dealing with cognitive, affective, and behavioural engagement (b) the *contextual* dimension, which is separated into four levels as a textual level (e.g., types, content, and modes of feedback), an interpersonal level (e.g., trust, power, emotions, and relationships in feedback processes), an instructional level (e.g., teachers' feedback literacy fostering students' engagement with feedback), and a sociocultural level (e.g., the impact of culture on students' perceptions, attitudes, and uptake of feedback), and lastly (c) the *individual* dimension concerning

individuals' own influence on their feedback uptake, processing, and retention. Chong (2021) claims that under the light of sociocultural theory, this model redefines student feedback literacy as a capacity intervened by material and symbolic artefacts.

Taking into account these three frameworks, there is one more essential issue to add to the list, which is how to improve student feedback literacy. After a thorough search of the literature, Yu and Liu (2021) have compiled five common ways to enhance student feedback literacy regarding their understanding, regulation, and evaluation during feedback practices. They assert that with the help of technology-enhanced feedback, as also Wood (2021) and Molloy et al. (2020) suggest, democratic feedback in which students decide upon the type, mean, and amount of feedback to be received, dialogical feedback with an interaction between teacher-student and peer-to-peer, rubric understanding, and reflection, student feedback literacy might be enhanced.

2.3.2 Research Studies on Student Feedback Literacy

Although it has been considered an emerging construct in educational research and its popularity has been increasing, empirical research on student feedback literacy is still in its infancy (Han & Xu, 2021; Yu & Liu, 2021). However, interventions to develop student feedback literacy and research studies have started to be carried out (Hoo et al., 2021).

In the Australian setting, Molloy et al. (2020) have built upon the notion of the student feedback literacy framework proposed by Carless and Boud (2018) through a large-scale survey applied to 4514 students in two large universities in Australia and five focus group interviews conducted by 28 students. Grounded on their empirical work, they have proposed a more comprehensive student feedback literacy framework consisting of seven items and 31 categories as sub-themes. These categories are committing to feedback as improvement, committing to feedback as an active process, eliciting information to enhance

learning, processing information provided with feedback, accepting and dealing with probable emotions, accepting feedback as a reciprocal process, and enacting feedback outcomes (see Molloy et al., 2020, for more). This framework constitutes an example of a feedback view in which learners are active and the outcomes following it. Another study done in Australia is peculiar to a healthcare setting, in which the scholars Noble et al. (2020) aimed to discover students' perceptions and prior experiences with feedback as well as experiences followed by a student feedback literacy program. The results of this qualitative interview study carried out by semi-structured interviews with 27 students and outlined by Carless and Boud's (2018) framework have demonstrated that feedback has begun to be seen as a developmental process and to challenge learners less after the intervention. Overall findings suggest that with the help of focused training, student engagement with feedback and feedback literacy might be augmented.

Winstone et al. (2019) in the UK looked for the perceived usefulness of the Developing Engagement with Feedback Toolkit (DEFT) in terms of supporting students' feedback literacy skills. Involving three different studies in the whole research, in the third study, they compared students' responses to a 14-item measure of student feedback literacy grounded on the framework proposed by Sutton (2012) after the students had completed a DEFT feedback workshop. The results of this comparison have shown that this kind of resource can augment students' feedback literacy. However, it has also left question marks regarding the exact time to apply such interventions and whether it should be on a voluntary basis or not. Also, in another research study in the UK, Fernández-Toro and Duensing (2021) repositioned peer marking as a tool for developing student feedback literacy and reported the results of an illustrative study in which peer marking was put in the first-year distance learning undergraduate course content by using digital asynchronous tools. Students' learning behaviours and attitudes towards peer marking were analysed according to both quantitative and qualitative methods. Based on the results gathered, the scholars concluded that this study showed the benefits of peer marking because the students basically

made evaluative judgements considering exemplars, their own performance, and the criteria. Besides, students had to justify themselves against these criteria. Fernández-Toro and Duensing (2021) suggested that peer marking does not suffice to achieve feedback literacy on its own, but it is part of a vast jigsaw that is contributing the students in their journey to become feedback literate.

In another context, Hong Kong, Ma et al. (2021) sought to find out the perceived influences of learning-oriented online assessment on L2 (EFL) learners' feedback literacy and whether individual differences exist through the lens of an ecological perspective proposed by Chong (2021). With multiple sources of data collection instruments, such as a survey on student feedback literacy, semi-structured interviews with two of the participant students, drafts of these two focal students, including teacher feedback on it, and supplementary online assessment practices reflections, it has been revealed that overall, students less favour online mode of learning to develop feedback literacy while they have relatively more positive perceptions of appreciating feedback, developing judgements, and taking necessary actions. Yet, considerable variations have been observed in two focal students' feedback literacy development, especially in terms of managing affect and taking action. While one of the participants was eager to seek and utilize teacher feedback by keeping calm to negative teacher feedback, the other one was rather demotivated to seek and use feedback and reluctant to take action as a response to teacher feedback.

Moreover, in a cross-cultural management course in one of Singapore universities, Hoo et al. (2021) sought to reveal the presence and extent of student feedback literacy capabilities over some time in a course with an intervention of peer and self-assessment. To be able to figure that out, 237 student journals revised after self and peer feedback were coded to identify student feedback literacy feedback features outlined by Molloy et al. (2020). Evidence for all seven items in the framework was found in the data. The scholars asserted that student feedback literacy was significantly enhanced over a semester thanks to the conscious design and pedagogic approaches in harmony.

It is also possible to encounter research studies in the EFL context in China in relation to student feedback literacy. To begin with, Han and Xu (2019) investigated whether teacher follow-up feedback after peer feedback contributes to the development of student feedback literacy. This was carried out as a multiple case study of three Chinese undergraduate students taking an academic writing course. As a result of the data analysis, which were gathered via various instruments as students' drafts with peer feedback on them, teachers' written feedback on those peer feedback documents, semi-structured interviews, verbal reports, field notes, and classroom documents, it was found that teacher follow-up feedback on peer feedback causes considerably different effects on students depending upon factors such as language ability, student beliefs and attitudes, and student motivation. The prominently significant result was that two higher-achiever and more motivated students enhanced their feedback literacy skills more compared to their lower-achiever and less motivated friend. Secondly, Wei et al. (2020) investigated the influence of enhanced student feedback literacy on their teachers' feedback by comparing senior and junior students. As instruments, a survey applied to 427 students and interviews conducted with 11 students were adopted. The survey data results proved no statistically significant difference between senior and junior students regarding modifying their expectations on teacher feedback. However, another conclusion drawn from open-ended questions was that senior students seek more learning-centred and feed-forward practices, such as more self-assessment activities and having more control over feedback practices. Grounded on these results, the scholars have concluded that these changes between the two parties might be due to students' enhanced feedback literacy as a result of lessened teacher feedback in senior year, the disparity between teacher feedback and students' learning or careers goals, and the increasing reputation of peer feedback. The third research study done in the Chinese context was conducted by Fernández-Toro and Duensing (2021), and it was a case study of two students looking into WCF. The utmost purpose of the study was to reveal the focal students' feedback literacy and its influence on their engagement with WCF. The data were collected via a diverse range of instruments including students' writing drafts with written feedback on

it, verbal reports, semi-structured interviews, class observations and documents. This research study has demonstrated that the construct of student feedback literacy is multifaceted including cognitive capacity, socio-affective capacity as well as socio-affective disposition. Also, it is emergent since students' knowledge of WCF and errors shift from person to person. Lastly, it is defined as situated in the sense that students' own capacities and enthusiasm towards WCF are under the influence of teacher instruction, conditions of the task, and, more importantly, their own beliefs and motivation. Thus, the scholars recommend that the aspects of cognitive capacity, socio-affective capacity, and socio-affective disposition must be aligned to increase engagement with WCF because their unbalanced development led to less engagement of the students.

It is impossible not to notice that the studies till far have all been conducted in higher education contexts. For middle schools that have not received much attention, Ketonen et al. (2020) carried out a case study in Finland investigating middle school students' feedback literacy and its development with an intervention of formative peer assessment. Although variations occurred among individual students, overall, advancement was observed between seventh and eighth-grade students in science classes after one year of practice of peer assessment. Moreover, it has been concluded by the researchers that Carless and Boud's (2018) framework is applicable in middle school contexts, too. This case study was given a place in Ketonen's (2021) academic dissertation to explore connections between peer assessment and feedback literacy and agency, and the researcher restated that feedback literacy can be performed in middle schools as well.

Davis (2020) wrote a thesis based on a research study investigating in what ways a programmed-focused approach in curriculum designs impacts students' feedback literacy. To gather data, a survey was administered to students from five different programs at Edinburgh Napier University, semi-structured interviews were carried out with both programme leaders and module leaders and categoriefocus group interviews were conducted with participant students as

a follow-up. Davis revealed five program features affecting students' engagement with feedback literacy, and they are staff's attitudes towards feedback, the condition that there is programme-focused approach, the role of the students in feedback processes, the condition that there is a sustained approach to feedback, and lastly, institutional acknowledgement of the challenge of obtaining a sustained approach to feedback practices. Apart from recommending a programmed-focused approach to feedback practices, Davis has concluded that educators have to be feedback literate themselves in the first place.

When it comes to the Turkish context, Kara (2021) carried out a research study with undergraduate English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT) students to uncover the feedback literacy indicators along with enhancing and impeding factors. Besides, the study aimed to reveal how undergraduates perceive feedback in terms of type, amount, and timing. The study was a qualitative study that had a basic qualitative design, and the data collection instrument was a semi-structured interview conducted with 39 ELT undergraduate students from three universities in Turkey. According to the results obtained in this study, it was found that the most frequently implemented feedback types are explicit correction, providing clarification, clues, and sources. Regarding amount, following assignments/projects and presentations, the interviewees stated they receive detailed feedback, whereas the exams involve not detailed feedback and mostly grades. As to the timing, 12 out of 39 students indicated they receive feedback within seven days after assignments/projects, almost all of them said right after presentations and 16 of them indicated that feedback is provided one or two weeks after the exams. Besides, all these components were told to be dependent on the task or the teacher. In relation to the feedback literacy indicators, all four of the categories of student feedback literacy proposed by Carless and Boud (2019) were uncovered. In appreciating feedback, the participants acknowledged that they need to play an active role during feedback processes, as well as the importance of seeking feedback in case it was not provided or even if the task completed by them is successful. Lastly, the student participants pointed to feedback as an invaluable source of information to correct

their mistakes and enhance their performance in completing tasks and, consequently, their learning. The second category, making judgement, encompassed understanding the criteria, evaluating the quality of their peer's work and exemplars, and evaluating their own performance. When it comes to managing affect, the majority of the interviewees touched upon the emotional challenges they went through because of the feedback they got. Therefore, they told they sought strategies to overcome these challenges, such as anxiety and stress. In addition, some participants implied being emotionally open to feedback. In the last category, taking action, the participants pointed to the use of feedback in the subsequent tasks, adapting the previous feedback in the following tasks, feedback usage for self-improvement, and benefitting from feedback for their future careers. Regarding the enhancing factors of feedback literacy, it was found that feedback characteristics play a crucial role, and constructive and timely feedback are highly appreciated. In instructional factors, the use of exemplars, rubric/guidelines, and self-evaluation was considered to be of great value. In learner characteristics, self-regulation and intrinsic motivation were the leading factors. Lastly, in social factors, positive teacher attitude, teacher guidance and expertise, peer availability, common experiences, and trust in peer expertise were found to be influencing. The same themes emerged as impeding factors as well. Insufficient and delayed feedback was of less value based on students' perspectives. Ambiguous criteria and discontinuous tasks were viewed as impeding instructional factors. Moreover, students acknowledged that being resistant to feedback and grade-oriented negatively affect feedback practices. Finally, negative teacher attitudes and comparisons to peers were revealed to be inhibiting social factors.

2.3.3 Teacher Feedback Literacy

The research studies and scholars have emphasized the importance of student feedback literacy. Rather than feeling threatened by this new conceptualization of feedback, teachers need to take it as a learning opportunity to augment their own feedback literacy to be able to facilitate students' autonomy in classrooms

(Li & Han, 2021). Also, it has been clearly stated that the development of student feedback literacy is heavily dependent upon teacher feedback literacy (Malecka et al., 2020), but teachers' exact roles in those processes have not been explained much (Boud & Dawson, 2021). According to Carless and Winstone (2020), teacher feedback literacy is defined as the knowledge, expertise, and dispositions to design feedback practices and processes through which students' uptake of feedback is fostered, and the development of student feedback literacy is facilitated. On the condition that teachers perform skills and capabilities to create conditions for students to appreciate and make use of feedback information, teacher feedback literacy fosters the development of student feedback literacy (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Upon these ideas, they claimed that teachers' roles had not been put into a framework, so Carless and Winstone (2020) proposed a teacher feedback literacy framework complementing the existing student feedback literacy understandings put forward by Carless and Boud (2018) and Molloy et al. (2020). This framework comprises three interrelated and overlapping dimensions, each focusing on the deployment of technology as the following:

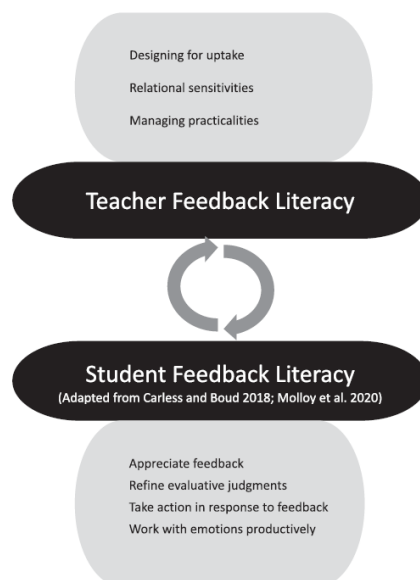
- 1- *Design dimension*: Feedback literate teachers design the overall curriculum and assessment practices in a way that fosters student production and uptake of feedback. Also, they encourage students to make judgements of their peers and their own products with the help of activities such as peer feedback and evaluating exemplars. They pay attention to timeliness for feedback uptake; they do not provide feedback too late feedback after a task. Besides, they benefit from technology to foster feedback uptake and engagement.
- 2- *Relational dimension*: Feedback literate teachers are supportive, approachable, and sensitive while sharing their feedback. They design feedback processes as partnerships between them and their students. Moreover, they deploy technology to enhance the relational matters of feedback communication.

3- *Pragmatic dimension*: Feedback literate teachers deal with different functions of feedback and manage disciplinary issues during feedback processes. Furthermore, they benefit from technology in terms of timeliness, efficiency, and portability, and they balance teacher workload allocated to feedback. They manage the process thinking of what is more beneficial to students but not drowning under the burden of infinite work.

As illustrated in Figure 2.5, Carless and Winstone (2020) represent the mutual reinforcing cycle between teachers and students. Partnership and shared responsibilities form the interplay between two literacies since both parties must be involved and make an investment. The scholars also suggest that teachers can reconsider their feedback designs taking into account their students' viewpoints and challenges they face in engagement with feedback.

Figure 2. 5

Interplay between Teacher and Student Feedback Literacy



Note. From “Teacher feedback literacy and its interplay with student feedback literacy” by D. Carless and N. Winstone, 2020, *Teaching in Higher Education*, 1-14.

Boud and Dawson (2021) asserted that Carless and Winstone's (2020) three-dimensional framework was an important initial step regarding what teachers can do in each dimension, yet what kind of knowledge teachers need to possess and their exact roles and the other educators who are also involved in designing or implementing feedback practices were not given a place as well as being lack of structural features and constraints. To be able to fill that void in teacher feedback literacy, almost concurrently, Boud and Dawson (2021) put forward a new teacher feedback literacy grounded on empirical work from prior two research studies conducted with 62 university teachers in five Australian universities and through inductive analysis of interviews and focus groups. The framework consists of pragmatically divided three levels (a) *macro*, which refers to programme design and development, (b) *meso* regarding unit/course design and implementation, and (c) *micro* feedback practices on individual students' homework. These three levels are also divided into 19 inductively derived competencies, as displayed in Table 2.2 (see Boud and Dawson, 2021 for more).

It is highly probable to notice overlapping points in Boud and Dawson's (2021) and Carless and Winstone's (2020) frameworks. The points mentioned in *design dimension* overlaps with competencies at macro and meso levels, while the *relational dimension* overlaps with the micro level. The *pragmatic dimension* does not fully fit in one category but can be observed throughout the entire framework.

2.3.4 Research Studies on Teacher Feedback Literacy

In the contemporary literature, there has been a growing appreciation of the roles of not only teacher but also students for effective feedback (Gravett et al., 2020). The idea of student and teacher feedback literacy is gaining more popularity (Kleijn, 2021); however, the issues related to teacher feedback literacy have been less explored (Xu & Carless, 2017; Yu & Liu, 2021).

Table 2. 2

The Summary of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework (Boud & Dawson, 2021)

Macro	Meso	Micro
1- Planning feedback strategically	8- Maximizing feedback opportunities	17- Spotting and responding to students' needs
2- Using resources well	9- Organizing timing and order of feedback information	18- Providing appropriate inputs to students
3- Promoting feedback-rich environments	10- Designing feedback dialogues and feedback cycles	19- Differentiating feedback based on individual needs
4- Developing student feedback literacy	11- Developing and employing tasks accompanying feedback processes	
5- Collaborating with co-workers	12- Putting feedback into frame relating to standards and criteria	
6- Managing pressure caused by feedback	13- Managing tension caused between grading and feedback	
7- Enhancing feedback processes	14- Benefitting from technology to support feedback practices	
	15- Designing feedback to urge student action	
	16- Designing feedback involving peers and other parties	

Note. Adapted from “What feedback literate teachers do: An empirically-derived competency framework” by D. Boud and P. Dawson, 2021, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 1-14.

In comparison to student feedback literacy, even fewer studies are encountered in educational research studies.

In the EFL context, several scholars did research studies on teacher feedback literacy in China. To begin with, Xu and Carless (2017) conducted a case study in one of the Chinese universities involving an English language teacher and

students in the processes and products of peer feedback on oral presentations. According to the data results collected through class observations and interviews, the effectiveness of peer feedback on oral presentations depends on the skills of teachers and their true interventions regarding the timeliness, amount, and functions as well as teacher modelling. Also, the results exemplified the notion of teacher feedback literacy in terms of providing quality feedback and getting students ready for these feedback processes cognitively and socially affectively by building trust in their teachers and peers. Another scholar Yu (2021) investigated the learning experiences of 27 EFL writing teachers while providing written feedback to their students in different Chinese universities, and the majority of the teachers saw this as a learning opportunity for themselves and believed that it increased their feedback literacy because these experiences allowed them to enhance their understandings of different functions, roles, and strategies of feedback practices. They also stated that through progressive interaction with their students, they changed their approach to comprehensive feedback; they started to provide more focused feedback after realizing that students did not benefit from comprehensive feedback and as it seemed less effective from the students' perspectives. Other researchers Jiang and Yu (2021) conducted an inquiry into 16 Chinese EFL teachers' shift of feedback practices as a result of the outbreak of COVID-19. Data collection instruments were interviews, course materials, and screen recordings of their online lessons. The findings were categorised under the tripartite framework proposed by Carless and Winstone (2020), and three patterns emerged as positive modifications in feedback giving motivation and feedback design, reduction in formative feedback practices due to challenges in securing student work and maximized feedback workload, and lastly, unchanged perception of feedback as information transmission from teachers to students. Within these three emerged patterns, feedback literature teachers behaved more willing and motivated to respond to students' emotional needs at such hard times and also to create or design feedback practices by utilizing technology for the sake of feedback and by managing increased workload more successfully.

In addition, in the UK, researchers Gravett et al. (2020) examined the development of academics' feedback literacy via peer review. Data were collected through interviews and reflections of scholars getting critical feedback. The results were evaluated under the framework of Carless and Boud (2018), and it was revealed in accordance with this framework that academics appreciated the positive effect of feedback on both themselves and their work. Also, they stated that they can be more proactive in feedback processes and develop capacities to be able to make judgements through positive feedback. Some of the academics believed in the discomfort or emotionally hurting feelings caused by critical feedback. Besides, the findings demonstrated that academics apply a bunch of strategies to engage with the feedback received. Grounded on these findings, Gravett et al. (2020) concluded that educators develop their feedback literacy skills just like students do; therefore, it is significant to approach them with kindness, empathy, and transparency while delivering feedback to students. Other scholars Heron et al. (2021) explored the nature of spoken feedback, in other words, feedback talk. Data were collected from six seminar events by six teachers from a diversity of disciplines. Following it, two of teachers were invited to semi-structured interviews to delve more into the issue. While interpreting the results, Carless and Winstone's (2020) teacher feedback literacy framework was considered. By referring to the second research question since it is fundamental to the development of teacher feedback literacy, teachers' perceptions of feedback talk were divided into two as dialogue and teaching. Teachers believed in the dialogic nature of the feedback because it is momentary to address misconceptions in feedback, and it fosters interaction with students in terms of relational aspects. Also, they held the opinion that feedback talk and teaching are intertwined as feedback can boost encouragement and student participation, and it can also create teaching opportunities as a result of student responses to an issue. The researchers made a last remark saying that teachers need to be aware of feedback talk to enhance their feedback literacy.

Apart from these scholars, two different studies conducted in Hong Kong were concluded with implications for teacher feedback literacy. Chan and Luo (2021) explored how university teachers distinguish a pedagogical practice as feedback and based their study on ten workshops on feedback practices for university teachers. In their conclusion, the scholars claimed that they added a new component to the notion of teacher feedback literacy by stating feedback literate teachers identify various purposes of feedback and in what ways different pedagogical activities can address these purposes. Besides, they advised teachers to prepare their feedback toolkit to implement on different occasions for different purposes to improve their literacy. Moreover, in their position paper, Lee (2019) argued that focused written corrective feedback is a way forward compared to comprehensive written corrective feedback because thanks to it, teachers achieve more by also spending less time on providing feedback. It means fewer chances of risk-taking and more active involvement of students via self or peer feedback. Lee made a final remark stating that this practice can lead to teachers' assessment and feedback literacy growth.

2.4. Summary of the Literature Review

When the relevant literature is reviewed, it can be concluded that feedback is a significant component of summative and formative assessment, and it is regarded as a crucial part of student learning. Even though its utmost aim has been reckoned the same throughout some time, it has been reconceptualized from the idea of correcting mistakes by educators to a dialogic process whereby students play active roles in their own learning thanks to it by making judgements and acting on the feedback information to boost their self-regulation and learning as a consequence.

It also arises that feedback is a multi-dimensional concept, which could be turned into an effective process, and it encompasses a wide range of types, modes of delivery, and timing to employ wherever and whenever is appropriate to maximize its effects on learning. Nevertheless, whereas it has been recognized

as an enhancing factor for learning, the literature suggests that it could be frustrating and overwhelming from both educators' and learners' perspectives for a couple of reasons.

However, it is emphasised in the literature that the way to avoid such negative connotations regarding feedback is to enhance teacher and student feedback literacy. Through a shared responsibility between teachers and students, in which teachers are to design appropriate feedback opportunities for students and students are to engage with the feedback input and act on that, feedback literacy might be boosted. In addition, deeply rooted biases against feedback might be diminished so that it can effectively serve as a vital component for learning.

Studies relevant to feedback are concerned with certain aspects of feedback, such as peer or self-feedback, written corrective feedback, and oral feedback. As to feedback literacy studies, both student and teacher feedback literacy studies are still in their infancy worldwide; teacher feedback literacy is even fewer. Besides, the situation is not different in the Turkish context. Namely, feedback studies are focused on particular aspects of feedback, and there is no study addressing teacher feedback literacy in the Turkish context.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter aims to present the research method, and it comprises ten main parts. Initially, research questions are introduced, and then the study's overall design and the rationale behind this design are displayed. After that, the research setting, participants, data collection procedures, data analysis, the role of the researcher, and trustworthiness issues are elaborated. Finally, the limitations of the study are discussed.

3.1 Research Questions

The aim of this research study was to investigate what views middle school English language teachers hold in regard to feedback. In addition to that, what type of feedback practices are implemented and what the suggested feedback practices are from the teachers' perspectives were aimed to be revealed. Moreover, teacher competencies within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework were sought to be uncovered.

Hence, the leading research questions in this research study were as follows:

- 1- What are the middle school English language teachers' views regarding feedback in assessment practices?
- 2- What feedback practices are employed by the middle school English teachers working in a private school? What feedback practices are suggested by the middle school English language teachers working in a private school?

- 3- What are the teacher competencies of the middle school English teachers within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework?

3.2 Design of the Study

There are two types of data collected in research studies, quantitative and qualitative. Braun and Clark (2006) differentiate these two different research types by stating that quantitative research uses numbers as data and analyses them through statistical techniques, whereas qualitative research uses words as data since they are collected and analysed in various sorts of ways. With regard to qualitative research study, Denzin and Lincoln (2013) define it as “Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive and material practices that make the world visible” (p. 6). They add that qualitative research is done in natural settings to make sense of or interpret phenomena to uncover the meanings people attribute to them. Moreover, Merriam and Tisdell (2016) share similar opinions by asserting that qualitative researchers strive to understand how people interpret their experiences, construct their world, and what kind of meanings they give to these experiences. By its very nature, qualitative research focuses on “how” and “what” questions (Creswell, 2013), and it attempts to explore and understand particular settings or contexts whereby participants in the study address a problem or issue for depths of understanding (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 1985).

This research study holds the purpose of exploring specific phenomena, which are feedback and teacher feedback literacy, for a deep understanding of them (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 1985). Furthermore, the study has been conducted in a natural setting to interpret the phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). It has also sought participants’ attributed meanings to their own experiences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) as well as discovering these experiences and meanings through “what” questions (Creswell, 2013). Considering all these, employing a qualitative design was appropriate for this study.

There are various types of qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2013). Among them, a basic qualitative research design was employed in this research study. A researcher carrying out a basic qualitative study would be interested in how people construct their world, and what kinds of meanings they attach to their experiences. Besides, they strive to figure out how people make sense of their experiences and lives (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). As the utmost purpose of this study was to unveil teachers' feedback views, their feedback practices, and competencies under the teacher feedback literacy framework and to be able to collect bountiful information about the phenomena within their real-life setting, a basic qualitative design was appropriate to be utilized in this research study.

3.3 Research setting

The school where the current study was conducted is located in Ankara, Turkey. Having been established in the 1980s, it has been one of K-12 foundation schools with different campuses in other cities throughout Turkey. As the centre of these foundation schools, the recent study context is a private school including mostly academics' children, but also students from financially privileged families. It has above 850 teachers and approximately 7000 students.

The foundation holds the same educational purposes on its different campuses in various provinces, and it carries out project-based and student-centred academic programs, assuring the same processes on the other campuses as well. Apart from it, the schools give importance to the development of social aspects of their students rather than solely on academic elements, and to an enormous number of studies conducted with experts in the field.

The current school where the study was carried out offers education from kindergarten to high school level. However, this study at hand was conducted with English language teachers working in a middle school. The utmost mission of the school is to equip students with the 21st century higher-order skills;

therefore, student-centred approach is adopted during English teaching and learning processes. To enable students to participate actively in the lessons, facilitating pair and group work activities is considered significant. In addition to that, for students to experiment with the target language structures in an effective way, practices such as role-plays and presentations are integrated into the lesson plans and learning environment at all levels. Besides, all the learners are invited and provided with online platforms to read English literary works to build critical thinking. Students are also given opportunities to engage in extracurricular activities, such as clubs and projects.

Students' educational process is closely tracked with a scientific approach in keeping with the learning process. Throughout each semester in an academic year, learners' language skills are assessed through a diverse range of assessment tools such as written exams, grammar quizzes, speaking performance tasks, writing portfolios, and project assignments. Students at each class level starting from 5th to 8th grade take two formal examinations encompassing reading and use of English questions, take two listening quizzes and one grammar quiz, and deliver two speaking performance tasks each semester. All these quizzes and exams are prepared by two testing members in the English department, which are then checked and approved by two English coordinators and the assessment and evaluation unit at the school. Moreover, in line with the Ministry of Education's Regulations on Secondary Education Institutions, the high school directorate administers a preparatory exemption exam that 8th grade students are required to take to be exempt from the preparatory level at high school. Hence, extra studies in accordance with both the current curriculum and the exam type questions are employed at the 8th grade level.

Similar to the importance given to assessment, feedback provision to the students is highly embraced. Feedback during instruction, as a part of formative assessment, and feedback after summative assessment are expected by the institution. Teachers provide feedback during their lessons as oral and written feedback depending on the tasks. They are free to send their feedback through

online platforms, as well. Receiving loads of feedback prior to any testing is a prerequisite, and students get feedback for each skill in English. Also, after any sort of testing, students are transmitted feedback based on their individual performances and needs, and they are assigned extra individual practices, which are later checked and provided feedback by the teachers again.

There are approximately 12 sections at each grade level, with around 22 students in each. Also, there are 18 local and five international teachers working in the middle school English department. The lessons in each grade level are divided into two: the main course and courses provided by native teachers, named English 2. The number of lessons on students' weekly schedule changes based on their grade level. To illustrate, while 5th grade students have seven main course lessons and three English 2 lessons with their native teachers, 6th and 7th grade students have eight and two respectively. Also, 8th grade students have nine English lessons with their main course teachers, whereas two English 2 lessons are provided. In terms of lesson content, main course teachers and English 2 teachers follow different curricula. English 2 teachers mostly focus on reading and speaking skills in their courses and are primarily responsible for covering the objective assigned for that lesson hour. However, the main course teachers deal with all four skills in English as well as keeping track of students with various responsibilities, such as providing regular feedback, grading students' exams and quizzes, conducting one of the speaking tasks (the native teacher administers the other one), checking students' portfolios and project assignments as well as offering time slots to students during school time or after school to study individually with them.

Each teacher is supposed to teach around 24 hours a week; however, apart from teaching, all teachers are supposed to take part in department and level-based meetings on a weekly basis, invigilate during examinations, set up parent meetings, and be in contact with them regularly, to be on duty in every break time during one day or one and a half day in each week, to prepare lesson plans as well as extra practice materials, to substitute lessons when somebody is

missing in the department or at school, and to be involved in professional development activities.

The current institution emphasizes selecting high-quality English language teachers to employ, executed by interviews and lesson observations. Besides, after recruiting, equipping the teachers with essential skills of English language teaching, and boosting their teaching practices are the primary concern of the institution. That's why a professional development cycle based on Danielson's Framework (Danielson, 2013) is conducted by the department head each term. As an initial step, the teacher is asked to prepare a 40-minute lesson plan, and then a pre-conference is conducted between the teacher and the department head. After that, the department head observes that lesson in a selected class by the teacher. During post-conferencing, the teacher is evaluated with regard to three aspects: planning and preparedness, classroom atmosphere, and teaching. Both the teacher and the department head reflect on the procedure of that particular lesson, and if there is an absence of or inadequate practice of any items in the framework, that skill is considered a point that needs improvement. After some time of practicing on that point or area, another lesson observation is conducted by the department head, focusing specifically on that.

3.4 Participants

In qualitative research designs, the sampling method is selected based on methodology and topic, not withholding the need for generalizability of the findings (Higginbottom, 2004). There is a variety of non-random sampling strategies in qualitative research designs: convenience sampling, purposive sampling, theoretical sampling, selective sampling, within-case, and snowball sampling (Creswell, 2013; Higginbottom, 2004), but the most commonly preferred one in content analysis studies is purposive sampling (Kääriäinen & Kanste, 2011; Patton, 2015). In purposive sampling, the researcher looks for participants that have the best knowledge regarding the research topic (Creswell, 2013) because, through purposive sampling, the full scope of issues might be

explored (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Within that sampling method, the researchers select the cases to be involved in the sample based on their judgement of the cases' typicality. In this way, they create a sample to satisfy their research needs (Cohen et al., 2007). In line with these, Patton (2015) asserts that the logic and power of qualitative purposive sampling derive from its emphasis upon an in-depth understanding of specific, or information-rich cases. With the help of these information-rich cases, the researchers can gain deep insights into issues of primary importance to the purpose of the research.

In this recent study, a purposeful sampling strategy was employed in the selection of the participants, considering the purpose of the study. The participants were selected based on a predetermined criterion, in which all cases meet some criteria that assure usefulness (Cohen et al., 2007). The criterion was that native teachers who have never taught as a main course teacher before, as assessment and feedback practices are not their main concern, were purposefully excluded from the study. Among 22 participants, excluding the researcher, three native teachers were not asked to participate in the study due to the reasons mentioned. Yet, the other two native teachers were invited since they have had a main course. With the voluntary participation of 15 participants among the remaining 19, this study was carried out. Inviting novice and experienced English language teacher participants in this study at hand aimed to enable the researcher to investigate the issue from various viewpoints. Furthermore, hearing a range of voices from different class levels from 5th to 8th grade was to ensure valuable insights about varying practices in different grade levels. Each of the 15 participants is described more comprehensively below.

T1 is a graduate of the American Culture and Literature Department of a state university in Turkey. Also, their minor is English translation and interpreting. They have been teaching English for nine years, and they have been working in the research context for the past five years. Before this year, they had taught in all four grade levels at the institution, and currently, they are teaching 8th graders

as a main course teacher, and before, they had a chance to teach at the tertiary level as well prior to working at the research context.

During their B.A, they did not receive any training about feedback since they are a graduate of American culture and literature; their English language teaching process started with the pedagogical formation process. They became aware of feedback processes, particularly when they first started teaching. Moreover, they describe their feedback practices as a process that has progressed and improved with much real-life experience.

T2 graduated from Film and Film Culture undergraduate studies at a state university in London, England. After that, they received certificates for teaching the English language, and completed internationally recognized TESOL and CELTA courses. They have been teaching English for the last ten years, and they have been teaching in the research context for two years. Before this year, they had taught 8th graders, and currently, they are teaching 7th graders both as a main course and an English 2 teacher.

During their B.A, they did not receive any education regarding feedback, and they do not recall any specific feedback training in TESOL and CELTA courses. They mainly emphasise that they have become more aware of and learnt feedback practices at this institution under study.

T3 is a graduate of the Foreign Language Education program from a state university located in Cyprus. They are currently getting their master's degree in English language teaching studies at a state university in Turkey. This has been their third year of experience in the research context out of four years of teaching experience in total. In the research context, they have taught 6th and 7th graders up to the present, and this year they have been teaching 6th graders as a main course teacher.

Throughout their B.A, they did not receive any courses peculiar to feedback; instead, training about feedback was integrated into methodology courses. Moreover, they do not recall any feedback training focusing on each four skills in English. The most focused area was how to provide feedback on writing skills.

T4 is a graduate of the Foreign Language Education program from a state university situated in Turkey. They are recently getting their master's degree in English language teaching studies at a state university in Turkey. They have been working in private middle schools for the past three years, and they are a novice teacher in the context under study. Currently, they are teaching 6th graders as a main course teacher.

During their B.A, they recall feedback training as an embedded topic in methodology courses as briefly explained, but not as a subject seriously studied under a separate course. Besides, they define the received feedback education based on theories rather than practical implementations. Although they did not encounter real-life examples of feedback in their first term of internship as a senior, their mentor teacher in their second term of internship at a different school let them get involved in feedback processes to help them get familiar with the processes. They indicated that they had not seen any actual examples of feedback information until that period.

T5 is a graduate of the Foreign Language Education program from a state university located in Turkey. They have been working as an English language teacher in private middle schools for the past four years. They are a novice teacher in the research context, in which they are teaching 5th graders as a main course teacher.

They indicate that, throughout their B.A, they were not trained about feedback practices in detail under a feedback-specific course. However, they remember their instructors touching upon the significance of feedback in writing as well as

the mode of delivery, such as whole class, individual, written, and oral feedback. These issues were embedded into English language teaching methodology courses.

T6 graduated from a state university in Turkey in the field of Foreign Language Education. Right after graduation, they started to work in the research context, and they have been working there for four years. Currently, they are teaching 7th graders.

They admit that they do not remember receiving any special training about feedback practices during their undergraduate education. The several points they recall are that their instructors expressed that they would make use of explicit correction or error codes in writing tasks. Several discussions were conducted about the importance of providing immediate feedback in class.

T7 is a graduate of Foreign Language Education from a state university situated in Turkey. Currently, they are getting their master's degree at a private university in Turkey in the field of educational administration and planning. After graduation, they began to work in the research context; they are the most experienced teacher in the research setting as they have been working there for the last 21 years. So far, they have found a chance to teach in all four grade levels at the middle school level, and this year, they are working with 7th graders as a main course teacher.

Regarding feedback education during their B.A, they do not recall much detail, yet they remember their instructors' emphasis on error coding as a valuable method to adopt and merely silhouette of theoretical points mentioned. However, they point out that what they still reflect on their teaching even now is the consequence of their getting inspired by how their research methods and techniques instructor provided feedback during those times. Rather than being instructed with the theoretical information in relation to feedback practices, they assert that they have learnt enormously about feedback practices with the help of the way of feedback their research instructor provided.

T8 received their B.A in English Language and Literature from a state university in Turkey. They are pursuing a master's degree in the field of English language teaching at a state university in Turkey. This is their 6th year in their English language teaching career, and they have been working in the research context for the last four years. They have found an opportunity to work with all four grade levels at the middle school level until now. Moreover, currently, they are teaching 8th graders as a main course teacher.

During their undergraduate education, they did not receive any training on feedback due to their department, English literature. Moreover, this did not change a lot during their pedagogical formation education, as well. They remember taking solely two or three lessons about written and oral feedback, which were integrated into other courses offered.

T9 is a graduate of Foreign Language Education from a state university in Turkey. Directly after graduation, they started to work in the research context, and this has been their 4th year there. They have been employed as a native teacher, but they are also teaching as a main course teacher. So far, they have worked with 5th and 6th graders, and this year, they are teaching 5th graders as both the main course and English 2 teacher.

They do not recall getting any special training about feedback practices except the sandwich method during their B.A. They remember speaking of that and describe it as a way to encourage student learning by showing both weaknesses and strengths. Besides, putting the statements in order as one positive thing, then ordering weaknesses and closing with a motivating remark is how they define what they learnt about feedback during their undergraduate education.

T10 is a graduate of Foreign Language Education from a state university in Turkey. At present, they are getting their master's degree in English language education at a state university in Turkey. Right after graduation, they started to work in the research context, and this is their 4th year at the institution. Even

though they had worked at the primary level for two years before, they have been working at the middle school level for the last two years. They have been teaching 5th graders as a main course teacher.

They did not receive a feedback-specific course throughout their undergraduate education except for integrating some theoretical issues of feedback practices in testing and evaluation and materials adaptation courses. They emphasize that as their university is mainly concerned about educating their students for higher education level, topics requiring real-life practices such as feedback practices were not focused on enough. Moreover, they describe their feedback practices progressing as they get experienced in a real-life context.

T11 graduated from English Language and Literature from a private university in Turkey. Afterward, they completed their pedagogical formation education at a state university in Turkey. Before starting to work in the current research context, they had taught in various institutions at the middle school level for four years, and they have been working at the recent institution for five years. Up to now, they have worked with 7th and 8th graders at the institution, and currently, they are teaching 8th graders as the main course teacher.

Due to their undergraduate field of study, they did not receive any training in feedback practices, but this did not change in the pedagogical formation period either. They describe the period by saying that feedback was an issue touched upon briefly in the lessons and a topic to be asked in the exam. However, they accumulated their knowledge of feedback practices through in-service training called A-CELTA, a mixture of CELTA and DELTA courses.

T12 is a graduate of Foreign Language Education from a state university located in Turkey. Directly after their graduation, they started to work at a middle school level of a private institution. After working there for two years, they are a novice teacher in the research context at present. Also, they are working with 5th graders as a main course teacher.

They claim that they do not recall much detail of any training regarding feedback practices during their undergraduate education. They describe their opinions about feedback by stating it is not an issue to be considered theoretical; instead, the knowledge learnt must be put into practice to make it work as desired. Besides, they claim that feedback is a phenomenon as a mingle of a myriad of issues; every situation requires a unique type of feedback. Therefore, it should not be stereotyped so much with theories; just the opposite; it is being learnt through experiences in professional life.

T13 graduated from Foreign Language Education program at a state university in Turkey. Right after graduation, they started to work in the research context at hand, and they have been working there for the last three years. So far, they have taught 6th and 7th graders, and they are currently teaching 7th graders as the main course teacher.

They do not recall any training or a course peculiar to feedback in a straightforward way. They assert that technical feedback knowledge was integrated into different courses superficially, such as testing and evaluation and materials adaptation courses. However, they remember receiving feedback from their instructors, either in written or verbal modes of delivery. These examples shed light upon their current feedback practices.

T14 is a graduate of the Foreign Language Education program from a state university situated in Turkey. Prior to their employment at the current institution, they had worked at different K12 school levels, such as middle and high school levels for ten years. At present, they are working their 3rd year in the research setting with 8th graders as the main course teacher. Furthermore, they have had a chance to teach 7th and 8th graders at this institution up to now.

With regard to the feedback education during their bachelor's, they remember their instructors' emphasising the importance of getting to know students and providing feedback to each in an individualized way. They accentuate that when

feedback is provided in a moto-mot manner, rather than in line with the needs of every individual student, it is not fruitful enough. Hence, they report that they have been benefiting from these ideas throughout their teaching career.

T15 graduated from English Language and Literature program at a state university located in Turkey. After their graduation, they attended two certificate programs and successfully completed them, which are Certificate in English Language Teaching and Diploma in English Language Teaching. Apart from them, they have attended many other educational programs with the aim of in-service training, too. They are the most experienced teacher in this research context, with 29 years of experience in total at various K12 levels as primary middle, and high school levels. Besides, they have been working in the research setting for the last six years with a diverse range of experiences in all different grade levels from 5th to 8th grade. Currently, they are teaching 8th graders as the main course teacher.

They define the feedback education they got during their undergraduate studies by stating that their instructors would set some assignments in the feedback program, either a research paper or a presentation. Then, the instructors would arrange sessions for students to execute peer feedback sessions so that they could provide feedback on each other's work in both oral and written modes of delivery. In addition to that, the students were assigned to observe one another's classes and provide feedback again under the name of peer coaching. Therefore, they pointed out that they have been well-acquainted with feedback processes in a diversity of ways as of their undergraduate education. Moreover, in their previous workplace, they were given many opportunities concerning feedback practices, such as the crucial points while designing and providing feedback and how and when to provide feedback.

The characteristics of the participants are summarized in Table 3.1.

3.5 Instruments

A semi-structured interview protocol was employed as the main data collection instrument in this research study. As Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest, data are collected through interviews, observations, and document analysis in basic qualitative studies. Withholding the aim of the basic qualitative study at hand, to carry out in-depth interviews to prompt the participants to explore a matter profoundly and to look for their various insights and viewpoints (Merriam, 2009), an interview protocol was developed by the researcher.

Table 3. 1

Descriptive Information about the Participant-Teachers

Pseudonyms	Educational background	Teaching experience	Teaching experience in the research context
T1	American Culture and Literature	9 years	5 years
T2	Film and Film Culture	10 years	2 years
T3	Foreign Language Education	4 years	3 years
T4	Foreign Language Education	3 years	1 year
T5	Foreign Language Education	4 years	1 year
T6	Foreign Language Education	3 years	3 years
T7	Foreign Language Education	21 years	21 years
T8	English Language and Literature	6 years	4 years
T9	Foreign Language Education	4 years	4 years
T10	Foreign Language Education	4 years	4 years
T11	English Language and Literature	9 years	5 years
T12	Foreign Language Education	3 years	1 year
T13	Foreign Language Education	3 years	3 years
T14	Foreign Language Education	13 years	3 years
T15	English Language and Literature	29 years	6 years

Merriam (2009) remarks that interviews can either be structured, in other words well-defined, or semi-structured, which are much more flexible in nature to explore the matter. For this particular research study, both structured and semi-

structured questions were generated for the interview. To be able to gather demographic data from the participants, a structured part was developed as the first section of the interview consisting of questions about participants' educational background (undergraduate and graduate level of education, if applicable), entire teaching experience, and teaching experience in the research context as well as feedback training received during undergraduate education.

The first part was followed by a semi-structured section which comprised a list of open-ended questions with the utmost purpose of revealing *hows* and *whys* of the significant events and insights about participants' points of view (Yin, 2018) to elaborate on the research questions (Merriam, 2009). During the preparation stage of the interview questions, the researcher worked meticulously as the entire data of the research study would be gathered through the semi-structured interview results. The interview questions were developed at the initial stage after a thorough search of the current literature on two aspects: feedback views and practices in English language teaching and teacher feedback literacy. Therefore, the questions were generated in accordance with previous research studies on feedback in English language teaching and the conceptual framework of teacher feedback literacy. Also, the questions were prepared in Turkish to enable participants to express themselves better in their native language.

After getting reviewed by the research supervisor, the interview questions were sent to two experts respectively to receive their opinions about the quality of questions as to their relevance to the research questions and whether there is any existence of bias, ambiguity, or vagueness. Firstly, one expert in Educational Sciences reviewed the questions. Upon their suggestions, the questions in the feedback views/approaches part were reorganized from more general to specific, and several questions were omitted in the feedback procedures part as they were found irrelevant to the research questions or they were thought to be too guiding. Following the necessary modification based on the first feedback received, another expert was consulted, in the field of English Language Teaching. Taking their suggestions into account, the order of two questions in the feedback

views/approaches part was changed: the role of students in the feedback process was asked prior to the teachers' role to avoid teachers' inspiration from their role while answering the students' role. Besides, a new question was added to feedback procedures as to providing feedback either in Turkish or English. After all these considerations, the research questions were generated under headings as follows:

1. Personal information
2. Feedback views/approaches
3. Feedback procedures
4. Support mechanisms

Under these headings, sample questions are presented as the following:

1. What is your educational background? (From which university and program did you graduate? / Do you have postgraduate education?)
2. How do you define *feedback*? How do you define *effective feedback*?
3. Do you differentiate your feedback based on students? If not, why do you not prefer doing it? If yes, how do you manage to do that?
4. What kind of opportunities are provided by your institution to support you for feedback procedures?

A pilot study was carried out with a volunteer English language teacher from the same research context to ensure that the interview protocol could begin. This pilot study enabled the researcher to see how the interview would proceed, the quality of the questions, and her interviewing skills as a novice researcher. An online interview protocol was conducted and recorded with the participant's consent. Afterward, the transcription of the pilot study probed on the researcher how to abstain from ambiguity, be more precise, and elaborate on the questions with additional questions when the interviewee uttered a response with a lack of necessary details. In the light of the pilot study, several adjustments were made to satisfy clarity; for example, the *criteria* did not make sense on their own, so

the question was specified as *content, organization, and use of English*. In addition to that, some probe questions were added. To illustrate, for the question “Do you use peer feedback; if yes, how?”, several additional questions were included if the participant did not respond enough in the first place. For instance, “Do you train your students for peer feedback activities? What do you do when these activities are completed?” Consequently, the final version of the interview protocol was formulated with three demographic questions and 17 semi-structured interview questions (See Appendix B & C).

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

Following the approval of the research study by the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (see Appendix A), the researcher informed the participants, at the end of one of the department meetings about the purpose and the scope of the research study. Every one of them was invited to voluntarily participate in the study as long as they were teaching as a main course teacher. Upon their voluntary agreement, the researcher sent the consent form as a soft copy via e-mail and then arranged an interview schedule considering participants’ availability and preferences of day and time. With all rearrangements of interview schedule due to participants’ unexpected matters and hectic daily school and life schedules in some instances, data collection lasted 16 days with 15 interviews with 15 participants between the 20th of November 2021 and the 5th of December 2021 in 2021-2022 fall semester.

Because of the hectic schedule and unavailability of a suitable place quiet enough to interview at school, including concerns about the pandemic, all the participants were invited to meet at an online video conference program named “Zoom” after school time or at the weekends. Initially, participants were requested to state their oral consent for voluntary participation and for the fact that the interview was going to be audio-recorded for an accurate transcription later. The participants were also notified that they had all the rights to leave the interview at any time and not to answer questions if they did not feel comfortable

about it. In addition to that, it was assured that no one except the researcher would have access to the audio recordings withholding the purpose of confidentiality of the participants' identities. Through the integration of additional questions, clarification requests, and prompts, each interview was conducted in the pursuit of a standard interview protocol. They lasted between 35 minutes and 148 minutes, depending on the participants' eagerness to respond to the questions; most of them were around 60 minutes. All the interviews were conducted in Turkish, which is the native language of all the participants, to create a more comfortable atmosphere and obtain more in-depth data. At the end of all interview procedures, all the data were transcribed verbatim by the researcher herself for the coding process. Besides, they were translated into English to exemplify the codes in the results part of the research study.

3.7 Data Analysis

Patton (2015) asserted that "Since as a qualitative analyst, you do not have a statistical test to help tell you when an observation or pattern is significant, you must rely first on your own sense making, understandings, intelligence, experience, and judgment" (p.572). Considering this, in the data analysis of this qualitative research study, as the initial step after transcribing all the data sets, the researcher immersed herself in the data reading and digesting so as to make sense of the entire data sets and to grasp what is going on (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Morse, 1999) through reflexivity, open-mindedness, and following the rationale of the participants' responses. In this way, the researcher revised and internalized the data; in other words, she got familiar with the data, as Braun and Clarke (2006) put forward as the first step of the qualitative data analysis. The data analysis was conducted via MAXQDA 2022 qualitative data analysis software.

According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), data analysis is the process to answer the research questions at hand; the overall process starts with recognizing the segments in the data responsive to the research questions. To perform this,

Fraenkel et al. (2012) contend that content analysis is a method that could be used to analyse data and define that “content analysis is a technique that enables researchers to study human behaviour in an indirect way, through an analysis of their communications” (p.476). They add that conducting content analysis has several advantages: It is unobtrusive, in other words, the contents being analysed are not affected by the researcher’s presence; it is quite useful to analyse interviews; the researcher can delve deeply into the documentation regardless of time and space to get a real feel for it; it is basically simple and economical, and lastly, it allows the other researchers to replicate it. Taking into account these sequenced advantages and being aware of the fact that content analysis is quite common in many qualitative studies in social sciences, qualitative content analysis was employed to answer the research questions in the current research study.

This particular research study sought answers for middle school English language teachers’ (1) views about feedback, (2) employed feedback practices and suggested feedback practices, and lastly, (3) their competencies under the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency framework. To be able to answer the first two research questions, a qualitative and inductive content analysis was carried out. On what Fraenkel et al. (2012) suggested, the researcher became very familiar with the data and allowed the categories to emerge as the analysis continued. The aim was to ensure that all the significant aspects of the data were captured (Gale et al.,2013). After reading each transcript line by line a couple of times, the researcher began to identify key concepts using these two research questions as lenses (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Firstly, the researcher conducted open coding by assigning any possible codes. Upon the emergence of a plethora of initial codes, they were compared to one another to notice any similarities or patterns to shrink the initial code list. Afterward, the codes carrying any similarities or patterns were clustered, and each cluster was assigned a name to refer to or represent each code to signify their similarities, which were called themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Regarding the third research question, both deductive and inductive content analysis was conducted by adopting a sequential approach. Firstly, a deductive approach was applied. The teacher feedback competency framework proposed by Boud and Dawson (2021) was taken as a base, and it was treated as a start list. More precisely, the category levels were determined before the analysis began based on the knowledge of the extant literature on the topic, namely, on this particular framework. The data were coded into categories grounded on this start list. Subsequently, the inductive approach was utilized to derive other themes and codes from the data sets to place under any suitable category levels.

The emergent themes for each of the three questions were presented in Appendix D along with their codes, sub-codes if applicable, and definitions. After the inductive content analysis, the views about feedback were categorised under seven themes: the characteristics of feedback mechanism, the characteristics of effective feedback, the role of feedback, the role of teachers, expectations from students, inhibiting factors, and enhancing factors. To illustrate, a code named “dynamic” emerged under the characteristics of feedback mechanism, which referred to the dynamism of feedback processes changing depending on individual students, teachers, and even classroom atmospheres.

As to the second research question, as a result of the inductive content analysis, eight themes emerged under the employed feedback practices: employed feedback practices as to language preference, feedback frequency, timing, amount, and mode of delivery, employed feedback types, employed feedback practices on receptive skills (listening and reading), and finally, employed feedback practices on productive skills (speaking and writing). For example, the code “explicit correction” appeared under feedback types, which means revealing the correct answer to the students directly without providing them with the chance to reflect on their own mistakes. After the inductive content analysis was carried out in the second research question, the second heading emerged as the suggested practices. The results were analysed under three themes: school-related, assessment/feedback-related, and pre-service education-related

suggested practices. As an example, “lowering workload” emerged as a code under school-related feedback practices. This code referred to the lessening teachers’ extra duties to spare them time to deliver richer and more effective feedback.

When it comes to the third research question, grounding on the teacher literacy framework proposed by Boud and Dawson (2021), the results of the data were examined under three competency levels as macro, meso and micro competencies as a result of the deductive and inductive data analysis respectively. The number of themes that emerged under each competency is: six themes under macro competencies, nine themes under meso competencies, and two themes under micro competencies. To illustrate the data analysis process for each category level, for the first one, which is macro competencies, “improving feedback processes” was regarded as a theme due to the deductive approach in the first place, and the emergent codes under it were “collecting evidence about the effectiveness of feedback” and “utilizing collected evidence from the students.” On the other hand, several other codes appeared under some of the themes based on what the current data demonstrated. For instance, under the theme “developing student feedback literacy,” the code “helping students manage affect” was derived even though it was not presented in the framework. Moreover, the second category level, meso competencies, comprised nine themes as it was proposed in the framework. Similar to the first category level data analysis process, the data were analysed deductively as the initial step, and the codes were assigned as they were in the framework. For example, the theme “utilizing technological aids to feedback” was exemplified with the codes “using a Learning Management System” and “deploying audio feedback.” However, while “managing tensions between feedback and grading” emerged as a theme as proposed Boud and Dawson (2021) in their framework, the present data yielded a different set of codes which were not presented in the framework, such as “timing of exams” and “inconsistency between feedback and exam.” Furthermore, for the third and last category level, which is micro competencies, some codes were assigned deductively, such as “posing questions to students”

and “identifying students at risk of not being able to use feedback.” Besides, a number of other codes were derived inductively after the deductive data analysis process, such as “praising students.” Nevertheless, the names of the themes did not remain as they are in the framework, instead, they were named differently after clustering the codes as “reconsidering input based on students’ needs” and “differentiation based on student needs.”

3.8 The Role of the Researcher

According to Creswell (2013), while designing a qualitative study, researchers must take into account potential ethical issues during the research study and take the necessary action to plan how these issues must be addressed during the course of the research. Therefore, as the primary means of data collection, analysis, and interpretation, the researchers have the tremendously important responsibility to place themselves in the study to enable the research to be more transparent, credible, and ethical. Hence, writing ourselves as researchers into the study and clearly stating who we are and what our role is as an *insider* or an *outsider* is viewed as an essential step taken for ethical considerations (Weis & Fine, 2000). The role of the researcher as an *insider* shares commonalities with the participants under the research study in terms of the characteristics, roles, and experiences (Buckle & Dwyer, 2009), or a complete member researcher who is already a member of the research group (Adler & Adler, 1987), whereas an *outsider* is a non-native or stranger to the study group or the research context (Breen, 2007).

It is evident that being an insider brings advantages and disadvantages along with it. Regarding the potential drawbacks, Asselin (2003) accentuates that the dual role may lead to role confusion in researchers. Consequently, they might analyse the data from a perspective other than that of a researcher. The chances are higher when the researcher is an insider. Another potential impediment is that the researchers’ perceptions may be clouded by their own personal experiences, and they might have trouble differentiating their own perceptions

from those of the participants (Buckle & Dwyer, 2009). To be more precise, the researcher might assume similarities, thereby failing to elucidate individual experiences thoroughly and guiding and shaping the interview by their own experiences. When it comes to the advantages, Kanuha (2000) suggests that being an insider escalates the depth and breadth of understanding and describing a population that might be inaccessible to an outsider. In addition to that, being a member of the group contributes positively to researcher acceptance. The researcher's membership directly ensures a level of trust and openness between the participants and the researcher (Buckle & Dwyer, 2009).

Having discussed both advantages and disadvantages of being an insider, I must clarify my own position in this research as an *insider* researcher who is also an English language teacher in the research context. I majored in English language teaching and graduated from a state university in Turkey. I have been working under these foundation schools for six years, and I have been teaching in this particular research context for the past three years. My personal interest in "feedback" and "teacher feedback literacy" was not something new that emerged during the course of the research study; it was quite the otherwise. Personally, I have always held the opinion that feedback is the most significant endeavour that shapes and guides a student's learning. Therefore, since the day I started working, other teachers' feedback styles and procedures have aroused curiosity in me because I believe everybody follows idiosyncratic feedback procedures. I have also been wondering to what extent they are knowledgeable about and aware of what they are doing. This was the trigger for me to conduct this research study; I strongly thought it would help me uncover the phenomena from various perspectives and deepen my understanding of them.

To be more precise, as an insider, I share plenty of commonalities with the participants, and I have had a great deal of priori knowledge of the context in terms of assessment and feedback practices. As a natural consequence of that, during data collection, my insider role allowed me to be accepted rapidly and entirely by the participants, and they were quite open and honest with me while

sharing their responses. As I was one of them, the participants were quite enthusiastic about their experiences due to the assumption of my understanding of them. On the other hand, the moment I felt that they had not provided adequate details about a particular question, I addressed additional questions to the participants. Also, at the beginning of the interviews, I conveyed the message clearly that they needed to treat me as if I had had no idea about their assessment and feedback procedures, and as if I had been an outsider. Moreover, prior to the data collection process, I had bracketed my personal biases and viewpoints, and I reflected on the research questions thoroughly in written form to avoid potential concerns regarding being an insider as a researcher. I endeavoured to be intrigued by the participants' views and experiences in an open, authentic, honest way and devote myself to revealing them accurately and adequately.

3.9 Trustworthiness issues

Most writers on this topic claim that qualitative research is grounded on assumptions about reality and various worldviews. However, the common point is that all research studies seek to produce valid and reliable information ethically, and the results are considered trustworthy as long as there has been some degree of rigor in conducting the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). There is a fact that the names of the concepts vary depending on the philosophical assumptions, but according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the key concepts are referred to as credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability.

3.9.1. Credibility or Internal Validity

According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), credibility or internal validity is concerned with responding to the question of how research findings match with reality, how congruent the results are with reality, and whether researchers are investigating what they think they are investigating. To ensure the credibility of the research studies, several ways exist, such as triangulation, member checks, adequate engagement in data collection, researcher's position/reflexivity, and

peer examination/peer review (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this research study at hand, adequate engagement in data collection, researcher's position/reflexivity, and peer examination/peer review were employed to enhance the credibility.

With respect to adequate engagement in data collection, Patton (2015) contends that the researcher needs to seek data supporting alternative explanations to ensure credibility. In this particular study, the data were gathered until the beginning to see and hear similar concepts and ideas repeatedly. When the data reached saturation with 15 participants, the data collection procedure was halted when no new information appeared as more data were collected.

In addition to these two strategies, the researcher's reflexivity procedure was applied as well. As Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest, this is how the researcher affects and is affected in turn by the entire research process. Therefore, they need to clarify their biases, dispositions, or assumptions about the research to be carried out. In this current study, the researcher was an insider who carries the potential drawbacks of an insider as a researcher. However, the researcher reflected on the research questions in written form to determine and prevent any biases or assumptions from interfering with the participants' responses. As explained in the researcher's role section, through this way, the researcher's role was previously determined, and her relationship to the study that might affect the investigation was discussed.

Peer review ensures that raw data are interpreted in an accurate way (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Saldaña, 2011). A peer knowledgeable about the topic and the methodology review the data and make recommendations to increase credibility (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). That is why peer review was consulted in the two steps of this research study. Firstly, as it was pointed out in the instruments section of this paper, two experts reviewed the research questions, and adjustments were made based on their feedback. Furthermore, the

data were reviewed by the thesis supervisor, who is closely familiar with all the processes of the study in order to verify credibility.

3.9.2. Dependability

Dependability, in other words, reliability or consistency, is defined as the stability of responses to the numerous coders of the data sets (Creswell, 2013) or the extent to which research findings will yield the same results when replicated (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) propose some strategies that can be utilized by qualitative researchers, which are triangulation, peer examination/intercoder agreement, investigator's position, and the audit trail. Similarly, Creswell (2013) points to intercoder agreement and recording and transcription of the data.

In this study at hand, peer examination was utilized as it was discussed in the Credibility and Internal Validity section as well. In addition to that, considering what Creswell (2013) suggests, "Reliability can be enhanced if the researcher obtains detailed field notes by employing a good-quality tape for recording and by transcribing the tape" (p.253), all the audio recordings were attentively recorded and transcribed by the investigator to assure reliability. Moreover, for intercoder agreement (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), after the researcher coded the transcripts and generated a codebook, two peers knowledgeable about the coding procedures independently coded two different data sets considering the codebook prepared by the researcher. Then, each of them separately came together with the investigator to discuss the similarities and differences in coding and to come to an agreement. Following the entire data coding procedure, the investigator and the thesis supervisor went over each code, viewing excerpts under them as well, to simplify the code list and finalize the codes and themes that emerged in the study.

3.9.3. Transferability

Lincoln and Guba (1985) put forward, “It is not the naturalist’s task to provide an index of transferability; it is his or her responsibility to provide the database that makes transferability judgements possible on the part of potential appliers” (p.316). To be more precise, the researcher must provide the readers with the evidence that the study’s findings might be applicable to other contexts, times, situations, and populations; it could be transferred. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest this could be achieved through “thick description” (p. 359). That is why, the investigator presented as detailed information as possible about the research context, the participants, the methods adopted, and the study results to fulfil thick description and enable other researchers to apply them in their own contexts or situations.

3.10 Limitations of the Study

Similar to the other research studies, this particular study had certain limitations. Even though the thick description and in-depth narratives were provided, the current study focused on the feedback views, practices, suggested practices, and feedback literacy competencies of merely 15 participants in a single research context. This might have yielded limited results; therefore, applying it to another context to reveal individual and context-bound realities and to generate more comprehensive results would be more valid.

Secondly, the data were collected via solely semi-structured interviews; however, feedback stands as a deep phenomenon that could not be well understood through interviews carried out in a relatively short period of time. It could have been enriched by collecting data with a higher number of instruments, such as focus group interviews, document analysis, or classroom observations to better explore the participants’ views, experiences, suggestions, and competencies as to feedback.

The last limitation might be having conducted the interviews virtually through an online communication platform, Zoom. Unanticipated or unpredictable external factors may have distracted the interviewees during the interviews. Nevertheless, using an online platform was the single option owing to the participants' busy weekly schedules at the school and COVID-19 precautions. In spite of all the limitations, the investigator holds the opinion that this study at hand has yielded significant findings thanks to in-depth exploration through planned and systematic data collection and data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the qualitative data analysis. The results are displayed in line with research questions divided into three major parts. The first section demonstrates the English language teachers' views regarding feedback in assessment practices. When it comes to the second part, the feedback practices of the middle school English language teachers are presented as well as the suggested practices. The third and the last part reveals the teacher competencies of the middle school English teachers within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework.

4.1 Views about Feedback

This section presents findings for the first research question with respect to English language teachers' views about feedback in assessment practices. The results will be demonstrated under seven themes that emerged as a result of inductive content analysis: the characteristics of feedback mechanism, the characteristics of effective feedback, the role of feedback, the role of teachers, expectations from students, inhibiting factors, and enhancing factors.

4.1.1 The Characteristics of the Feedback Mechanism

Characteristics of feedback mechanism were the initial theme that came up within feedback views. This theme was examined under four codes, as displayed in Table 4.1. The codes are dynamic, non-academic, ongoing, and difficult.

Table 4. 1

Frequencies for the Characteristics of the Feedback Mechanism

Characteristics of the feedback mechanism	<i>f</i>
Dynamic	14
Non-academic	7
Ongoing	5
Difficult	2

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

Being dynamic was the most referred characteristic of the feedback mechanism by the majority of the participants ($f=14$). Almost all the participants addressed the feedback mechanism as a dynamic process changing dependent on individual students, teachers, and also classroom atmospheres. To illustrate, T13 expressed themselves in terms of dynamism of feedback depending on individual students:

I think feedback is somewhat dependent on the student. I can give different examples. After writing, we provide feedback in written form and individually. After providing written feedback, we ask them to correct and rewrite according to this feedback. Some students ignore the feedback I have given and write it back in the same way and give it to me. So, it does not do much for them because they do not pay much attention. Some students are also able to write properly again by considering the feedback I wrote. (T13)

In the similar way, T4 touched upon the feature of feedback as being “dynamic” from a teacher-focused perspective by stating, “*Feedback may vary depending on the purpose of each teacher. In other words, some teachers may not attach much importance to the personal development of children. Therefore, they can only implement merely lesson-based feedback*” (T4). Besides, regarding classroom atmosphere as a factor resulting in dynamism, T1 expressed their opinion, “*I usually try to create a discussion in class before providing feedback myself. Of course, the dynamics of each class is different; it doesn't work in every class*” (T1).

One of the most addressed characteristics of feedback was being “non-academic.” Almost half of the participants ($f=7$) stated that feedback is not

confined to only students' academic aspects, but also social aspects like behaviours and psychological aspects of life are also crucial parts of this mechanism. For instance, in terms of the social aspects of the feedback mechanism, T15 pointed out:

We use feedback constantly; it is in every lesson, and it is both educational and behavioural. Sometimes I ask my students, "Do you think what you are doing now is right or wrong?" This way, I am confirming whether it is an appropriate behaviour or not. I am trying to raise awareness of it, and at least the child learns the appropriacy of the behaviour on a very simple level, whether it is right or wrong. (T1)

Regarding the psychological aspect, T11 emphasised:

To provide feedback following the exams, actually, two forms of feedback come into play; one of them is psychology. Because sometimes the students may not be able to do a topic or a specific question in the exam that they can easily do in their homework or out of the classroom. Since I believe that knowledge will not fly away in a concise period of time, I consider this as a psychological factor and provide feedback to that aspect, too. (T11)

Another feature of the feedback mechanism mentioned by five participants ($f=5$) was "ongoing." They articulated that the feedback mechanism is a continuous process, and it happens in a gradual manner. To illustrate, T5 pointed out the continuation of feedback, "*In my opinion, feedback is something that constantly occurs in the lesson; it is the one thing that never ends.*" (T5) In line with that, regarding being gradual, T9 expressed what they are telling their students, "*Look, how far you have progressed! But you can still go on; this should be your next step now*" (T9).

Finally, the last code was "difficult," which was touched upon the least by two respondents ($f=2$). Both participants emphasised that feedback is a difficult process to manage. For instance, T11 stated, "*It is really hard to receive feedback, and it is even harder to provide it. Because while providing feedback, you seem to be talking to more than 20 students simultaneously*" (T11).

4.1.2 The Characteristics of the Effective Feedback

In this section, findings concerning the feedback views are presented regarding effective feedback characteristics. The results have been displayed based on teachers' understanding and interpretation of what effective feedback is. As demonstrated in Table 4.2, within this theme, 13 codes emerged: constructive, timely, individualized, dialogic, interactive, understandable, motivating, continuous/process-oriented, varied, gradual, metalinguistic, persuasive, and built on mutual trust.

“Constructive feedback” was one of the most frequently articulated feedback characteristics as effective feedback ($f=10$). Most of the participants emphasised that feedback must guide students for future improvement by offering ways to escalate the quality of the current performance in an honest manner. For example, T9 explained this understanding as follows:

I think it is essential to be truthful as much as we have mentioned good sides of the performance, we must mention how it will proceed, what the mistake exactly is, how it can be done right, or where it is supposed to reach and how the student can go there. I think, of course, the thing is not to decrease the motivation because emotions are crucial. However, in my opinion, it is important to talk about not only the destination but also how to get there. (T9)

In addition to that, of all, three of the respondents touched upon “avoiding phatic feedback” ($f=3$). Murtagh (2014) explains phatic feedback as a type that simply confirms the student information with a tick or any other signs. These three participants interviewed asserted that teachers must abstain from this type of feedback consisting of ticks, other signs, or expressions such as very good, very bad, and loved it. Instead, the feedback must define what the good aspects are of a performance rather than simply indicating the work is well-prepared. To illustrate, T8 shared their experience and opinion:

Table 4. 2

Frequencies for the Characteristics of Effective Feedback

Characteristics of effective feedback	<i>f</i>
Constructive	10
Timely	10
Individualized	8
Dialogic	7
Interactive	6
Understandable	5
Motivating	5
Continuous/Process-oriented	4
Varied	3
Gradual	3
Metalinguistic	3
Persuasive	2
Built on mutual trust	2

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

When I first started working at this institution, I used to write “well-done” on a wonderful piece of paper, but I realized that the children did not appreciate it. They wanted to see what was actually done well. A few times in my first year, I got that reaction, for example, “Yes, you like it, but is there nothing that I can improve?”. Then, I learned that it should not be done. (T8)

T8 also added:

No matter how good the paper is, even if there is one tiny point that I can find, after writing the strong points, for example, I write like, “If I were you, I would do this; have you ever thought about that,” or “Here your supporting detail was good, but maybe you can do a little more reading in this area.” I am trying to put a task on it. On the other hand, there are those whose writing is already very strong, but I have started to write to them what is precisely good because the child is starting to feel like they are not cared for at all. When the teacher simply writes well-done or thank you, the students do not feel they have succeeded. Instead, they want to see what points are really liked by the teacher. (T8)

The same number of participants referred to the timeliness of feedback by regarding it as effective feedback ($f=10$). They pointed out that feedback needs to be provided in a short period of time to avoid students forgetting about what they have produced. To illustrate, T5 expressed:

When students forget what they have produced, it does not really mean much to them; it is not effective at all. Therefore, I try to check student productions as fast as possible. For instance, I try to set aside the weekend to provide feedback to be able to go over the task again on Monday so that students can get fresh feedback. (T5)

In the same vein, T11 emphasised the importance of providing timely feedback as follows:

I believe in feedback practices that if time intervenes, the student will forget the material they have written or produced once. If that happens, when you give the paper back, they will not remember the production and just disregard it without taking it seriously. That's why what we should do as teachers is to provide feedback shortly afterward to render it more effective. (T11)

More than half of the participants pointed to “individualized feedback” ($f=8$) to render feedback practices effective. These participants articulated that feedback must be specific to individuals by recognizing and being aware of their individual needs, and students must receive personalized feedback. For instance, T15 expressed her approach to considering students' needs by stating, *“I think effective feedback processes occur when I know the student that I will provide feedback really well. Considering the particular student's missing objectives, I need to shape my feedback according to their needs”* (T1). Similarly, T1 highlights the importance of personalized feedback with the following words:

When I approach the student personally and provide feedback on behalf of the student, I see the progress clearly. That's why I think the main point for effective feedback is the work we do focusing on individual students, on the student's behalf. (T1)

“Dialogic feedback” was another feedback type considered effective by almost half of the participants ($f=7$). They held the idea that feedback practices can be more effective when coordinated two-way interactions exist between teacher and students and peer-to-peer and active learner involvement and engagement in feedback processes instead of maintaining a passive role. In terms of coordinated two-way interactions, four of the participants indicated that this is what makes feedback practices effective. At this point, T1 put into words, *“I believe that the*

student should see their own shortcomings, be aware of them, work with each other, and move forward in this way and that we should work together to make the most of feedback” (T1). In addition to this aspect, four of the participants (f=4) particularly stressed active learner involvement, engagement, and maintaining an active role to make the feedback practices effective. For example, T13 reported, “I think an effective feedback process should involve the student. In other words, the student should take active roles in the whole process” (T13).

Another characteristic of effective feedback was being “interactive” (f=6). Most of the participants emphasised that maintaining a healthy mutual connection and communication with students promotes effective feedback. To clarify this viewpoint, T11 explained as follows:

For effective feedback, the issue that I have seen very clearly, especially in the eighth grades I have been teaching for a few years, and the experiences I had in online processes, is that I think that only written notification on paper is never enough. So actually, I believe in that human connection in the feedback. Just as we are teaching, we can clearly see whether students understand it or not from the eyes of the students. When we provide feedback on a piece of paper, we never know whether it reaches the child or not. Of course, we have classroom observations or long-term observations. In our studies, we test children one more time. But did learning take place? Did you help them? Did someone else actually step in there? Therefore, I cannot see on paper how learning takes place, and I think the most crucial part is that the feedback is provided face-to-face through mutual interaction and human connection. (T11)

At this point, one of the respondents focused on the interaction that can occur through written language as well, feedback written in a way as if speaking to the students. T7 elaborated on the issue, expressing:

I see that it is very effective to write like this while providing feedback. I don't know every level, but I use it for young learners. For example, starting with your name and here, Dear Jack, I know that you have worked a lot on this; I really find it funny... Bringing up funny parts or asking interesting questions like “is it really so?” or something like drawing a smiley face, drawing a thinking face in some parts. I think these kinds of interactive things are very effective, especially in the new Z generation whose lives are spent digitally. Hence, I think that some digital quotes' appearance makes them look at the feedback more positively. (T7)

Five of the participants ($f=5$) brought up “understandable feedback” to be regarded as effective. The participants stated that feedback is effective as long as it is presented in a clear, level-appropriate way and away from complexity to easily keep in mind. As an example, T3 proposed:

Effective feedback should be built in a way that the child can understand and remember. So, for example, feedback involving a lot of terms or very long feedback would not be helpful because the child would look at it when you do something like this and cannot remember anything afterwards. Therefore, feedback needs to be short and clear enough for children to bear in mind easily. (T3)

The same number of participants ($f=5$) referred to “motivating feedback” as being effective. Participants asserted that the effectiveness of feedback is also dependent on giving a place to positive remarks in feedback to enhance student motivation. For instance, T1 explained themselves by stating:

I definitely try to increase the student’s motivation in the final part of my feedback. So, if I have work that is even slightly better than the previous one, I would like to show that I have noticed it. At this point, I think that if I boost the student's motivation rather than correcting the mistakes, I am sure that they will write something more error-free the next time. (T1)

Another characteristic of effective feedback emerged as “continuous/processed oriented,” articulated by four of the participants ($f=4$). The respondents emphasised the fact that feedback must happen on a continuous or an ongoing basis instead of being accumulated or waiting for the final product. At this point, T10 articulated the significance of it by telling:

Let’s start with one paragraph, for example. After providing feedback, I think the student should definitely write the second draft, and I need to rewrite the feedback for them. Moreover, from time to time, according to the production, it may be necessary to ask for the third or fourth draft to ensure the progression. So, I think it should be a little bit of an ongoing process to render the process as effective as supposed to be. (T10)

Of the respondents, three of them ($f=3$) viewed “varied feedback,” feedback presented in various types, such as verification and error flagging, as one of the characteristics of effective feedback. To be more precise, T4 articulated:

Diversity is also important; there is no single truth about some issues. For example, let's talk about a word used completely wrong by a student. While providing feedback to that student, presenting feedback with a variety of feedback types as much as possible and providing different options can both contribute to their autonomy and increase the student's awareness of this subject. (T4)

The same number of respondents ($f=3$) named “gradual feedback” as a characteristic of effective feedback. These participants believed that if feedback is presented in a step-by-step manner without excessive information at a time, it increases the likelihood of its effectiveness. To illustrate, T8 expressed themselves as follows:

It is vital to provide feedback step by step and create a balance in the child for feedback effectiveness. When we show too many steps to some students, we actually lose the child's motivation. That is why I think it is more important to put the goals in front of them in tiny steps, especially for weak students, I mean, we can imagine a very long journey in our mind for that student, but we should not show them this long road directly, but small targets like stations. First, maybe by saying I aim to correct the content, maybe then I will take care of the grammar little by little. (T8)

Of all respondents, three ($f=3$) of them opted for “metalinguistic feedback” as effective feedback. They argued that effective feedback does not present the correct answer explicitly but attaches some comments about the nature of the error. Moreover, all three respondents accentuated that feedback must enable students to think or reflect on their own mistakes. As an example, T13 expressed themselves:

Feedback should make the student think. Therefore, we shouldn't just write everything about the product in a detailed way. The students should also be able to think about their own mistakes in line with our feedback. I think they should first identify their own mistakes and try to fix those. I think that the teacher should not provide everything. (T13)

Another characteristic of effective feedback disclosed by two participants ($f=2$) was “persuasive.” These respondents underlined that feedback must be convincing so that students can believe in its righteousness in the first place and then make use of it. T7 supported this view by saying:

To provide effective feedback, I think we must first discover the shortcomings of the person who prepared the job, and we must convince them. You know, in order for them to be better, the feedback must convince them that this method should be followed. I think it is persuasive when it is done in an exploratory way and when the teacher gives guidance on how to proceed to the next step. (T7)

The last characteristic of effective feedback emerged as “built on mutual trust,” articulated by the same number of participants ($f=2$). They supported the view that feedback must be built on mutual trust between teachers and students to raise its effectiveness, whereby they count on each other. On this matter, T15 expressed themselves by stating:

It is imperative to build mutual trust to make the most of feedback. The students must trust their teachers endlessly, and the teachers must trust their students so that they will not see that their efforts are wasted. We move forward on this path only together. Otherwise, it would be likened to a table that lacks the fourth leg, and it will always be the teacher trying to balance it. Then as it would be a very tiring process, it would not make any sense, and we might not see any progress in students. (T15)

4.1.3 The Role of Feedback

The role of feedback was the third theme that came up concerning teachers’ views about feedback. As shown in Table 4.3, five codes emerged under this theme: mirror for students, continuous improvement of students, mirror for teachers, boosting student self-efficacy, and lastly, raising students’ autonomy.

Table 4. 3

Frequencies for the Role of Feedback

The role of feedback	<i>f</i>
Mirror for students	10
Continuous improvement of students	9
Mirror for teachers	4
Boosting student self-efficacy	2
Raising students' autonomy	2

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

Being “a mirror for students” was the most mentioned role of feedback by the respondents ($f=10$). These participants argued that feedback reveals information for students to see their performance and progress distinctly. T3 exemplified this argument with the following words:

To see whether a student is making any progress or not, how much they know, where they stand, or how much they do not know, what they do right, or what they need to do differently. The role of feedback is to help them to see this. (T3)

Likewise, another participant touched upon the same issue claiming, “*I think feedback is the greatest thing because students can improve themselves based on feedback, see their mistakes and areas for improvement, or see their strengths*” (T14).

Nine participants pointed to “continuous improvement of students” as a role of feedback ($f=9$). These respondents put forward that feedback enables students to progress more continuously and/or gradually and raises them above their level. Regarding helping students progress more, T1 articulated:

Regardless of the age group, whatever the level is, most students cannot understand what they have learned or what they have not learned. That is why I think feedback is very vital. Like most of us, I believe that students of all levels do not progress without feedback on an ongoing basis. (T1)

From another perspective, several participants specifically focused on the role of feedback in raising students' current levels. At this point, T10 reported that *"When we do it by adopting different types of feedback according to language skills, or the area in which we work, I think it is a tool to take students one-click further from their current point every time"* (T10).

Among all the respondents, four of them referred to the role of the feedback as being "a mirror for teachers" ($f=4$). They all proposed that feedback brings valuable information to light for teachers to see the current level and the progress of their students. To illustrate, T2 expressed themselves, *"Feedback is also vital for the teacher because we can see if the student is actually progressing or where they often make mistakes"* (T2).

Furthermore, "boosting student self-efficacy" was another referred feedback role by two of the participants ($f=2$). The respondents contended that feedback boosts students' beliefs about themselves that they can be successful and show improvement. For instance, T7 indicated:

Feedback is definitely a very effective method. If any work that comes out is evaluated in its first appearance, it can damage that person's motivation, creativity, or even the sense of ownership of the job or those feelings. However, the student's belief and motivation will increase when there is feedback. Self-confidence will escalate in the way of doing better. (T7)

The last code brought up by the same number of respondents ($f=2$) was feedback's role as "raising students' autonomy." Both stressed that feedback uplifts students' feeling of independence and provides them with the power to make decisions by themselves. On this matter, T12 stated that *"The role of feedback is not to show the student everything but only to show them where and how to look and to let them find the result and reach conclusions themselves"* (T12).

4.1.4 The Role of Teachers

The fourth theme that appeared under teachers' views about feedback was the roles that teachers need to play during feedback processes. As it is displayed in Table 4.4, eight codes emerged under this theme as follows: being a facilitator, involving students in feedback processes, keeping a record of every student, planning the feedback process, providing individualized feedback, providing timely feedback, motivating students, and listening attentively.

Table 4. 4

Frequencies for the Role of Teachers in the Feedback Process

The Role of Teachers	<i>f</i>
Being a facilitator	11
Involving students in feedback processes	4
Keeping a record of every student	4
Planning the feedback process	4
Providing individualized feedback	4
Providing timely feedback	4
Motivating students	2
Listening attentively	1

Note. n_{total}=15

The initial code that appeared as a role of a teacher in feedback practices was being a facilitator, uttered by the majority of the participants ($f=11$). Different viewpoints were put forward regarding being a facilitator. The common point emphasized was the necessity to give students help or advice regarding the importance of feedback and how feedback processes must proceed and guide them through all these processes. For instance, T4 explained themselves in terms of how they help students show that making mistakes is natural and build a positive approach to feedback as follows:

It is essential for me to explain this to the student: Mistakes exist everywhere in life. I always give myself as an example. I always say that if a native-like teacher comes and listens to me, they will find ten mistakes. It is necessary to

explain to them that making mistakes is a natural thing and is a part of the learning process. (T4)

Another participant focused on how teachers must a guide through feedback processes by stating:

The most significant role of teacher is guiding. When we look at it in the simplest sense, they must be a guide or an assistant, actually. Ideally, the student should exist at the centre of this process, not the teacher. The person who guides the student must be the teacher. The process must be shaped by the teacher as needed where necessary. Without harming learner autonomy, the teacher should shape the process and help and guide when needed. In my opinion, in this way, there can be a healthier and more efficient feedback process, and the feedback can really achieve its purpose. (T10)

Apart from this, five of the participants also mentioned that teachers must push students to think critically and reflect on their responses based on the received feedback instead of telling them everything explicitly. With regard to this, T5 articulated, *“Feedback effectiveness is achieved by asking the right questions. The teachers must ask the students those right questions and make them question themselves”* (T5).

Four of the respondents pointed to involving students in feedback processes ($f=4$) as a role that teachers need to play. These participants asserted that teachers must involve students in the feedback process by assigning multiple feedback roles and helping them turn into active participants during feedback processes. T6 simply summarized the role of the teachers, saying, *“The teacher needs to provide feedback to the student in a way that includes them in the feedback process.”* In terms of how to trigger students to have active roles during the feedback processes, T1 uttered the role of the teacher, *“As long as we approach students from their own language, a fifth grader can also give feedback on themselves. They can also do peer feedback. They even can evaluate the feedback very well and work on it”* (T1).

Some respondents also mentioned keeping a record of every student as a teacher role in feedback processes ($f=4$). They accentuated the importance of keeping a written account of students' products, performances, and/or assignments so that they can refer to those documents later. For instance, T15 suggested:

The teacher should keep records of all kinds of individual student work, send the necessary additional work to the student according to the records they keep based on students' unfulfilled objectives, and provide them with feedback on the same work on a regular basis. (T15)

Another code that emerged as a teacher role was "planning the feedback process," put forward by four respondents ($f=4$). These participants remarked that teachers must plan and organize feedback processes by devoting enough time to achieve feedback effectiveness. As an example, T1 shared their ideas and experiences:

I believe an effective feedback process requires a great deal of preparation. That is why I strive to devote plenty of time to this myself. Therefore, I actually spend more time than preparing a lesson. Because I think feedback should be of good quality so that it can enable students to take their learning to the next level. Therefore, the teacher must put a lot of effort into it. (T1)

Moreover, T7 pointed out what would happen unless there is planning by claiming, *"I provide feedback the moment I find enough time. Otherwise, feedback given without adequate preparation may cause more harm than good. I think we need to take that into account as well"* (T7).

The fifth code that came up within teacher roles was "providing individualized feedback," articulated by four interviewees ($f=4$). These participants held the opinion that teachers must be aware of individual needs, interests, and differences and provide feedback peculiar to students considering their individuality. Upon this opinion, T14 expressed themselves:

The role of the teacher should be to identify each student's emotional needs and academic shortcomings or strengths and provide specific feedback to the child. I think this is very important because if you are presenting a child a choice with

about one mistake by asking whether they think it will be a or b, the other child can reach the same conclusions with an open-ended question instead of being given any choice. That is because that child's cognitive level, readiness, and skills are different. Therefore, the role of the teacher, and the most important one, is to be able to provide individualized feedback. (T14)

Three respondents referred to “providing timely feedback” as a teacher role ($f=3$). All three participants pointed out that feedback must be provided in time before students forget about what they have produced. For instance, T3 articulated, *“Timing is very important. It is vital that teachers provide feedback when students' minds are still fresh about what they have produced, and before a lot of time intervenes”* (T3). Also, two of the interviewees ($f=2$) emphasised that teachers must provide feedback at regular intervals without so much time passing between activities that require feedback. As T6 briefly uttered, *“The teacher's role is to give the child quality feedback on a regular basis”* (T6).

Another code that emerged was “motivating students,” put forward by two respondents ($f=2$). They held the belief that teachers must motivate students to maintain their enthusiasm for feedback information. Regarding this, T14 conveyed:

...I have benefited a lot from this throughout my teaching life. When the students receive the message that the teacher cares about them, such as through one-to-one conferencing and remarking that the kid's performance is going well. This is the role of the teacher, namely, to encourage the child. (T14)

Finally, the last code for teacher roles brought up by one respondent was “listening attentively” ($f=1$). The participant meant that teachers must listen to students' utterances rigorously to be able to receive correct messages and provide accurate feedback in return. The participant asserted:

The role of the teacher is to receive the right messages from the student, and when they receive the right messages, they need to direct the student on the correct path. The reason for this is, yes, we are the person who provides the flow of information up to a point. However, if we do not get the right message, we can get into the wrong flow. We can also misdirect or provide inaccurate

feedback. At this point, perhaps the most prominent role of the teacher is to perceive the right message from the student. (T5)

4.1.5 Expectations from Students

The fifth theme emerged in relation to teachers' views about feedback was "expectations from students." The interviewees articulated their opinions regarding what students must do and what is expected from them. The theme was examined under seven codes: being involved in feedback processes, high awareness and readiness, making use of feedback, openness, trusting teacher expertise, guiding teachers, and lastly, being patient, as demonstrated in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5

Frequencies for the Expectation from Students

The Expectations from Students	<i>f</i>
Being involved in feedback processes	8
High awareness and readiness	7
Making use of feedback	7
Openness	3
Trusting teacher expertise	3
Guiding teachers	2
Being patient	1

Note. n_{total}=15

To begin with, among 15 respondents, eight of them stated that they expect students to be actively involved in feedback processes ($f=8$). All these participants noted that students must take active roles in feedback processes instead of behaving like only recipients of feedback information. To give an example, T10 reported, "By adopting these feedback processes, learners must be actively involved in them with what we call learner autonomy" (T10). In the same vein, T13 asserted:

What I always support is that the students find the result themselves, with the support of their teacher, and reach the result themselves. I think the teacher

should not say that there is a mistake right here, correct it, you have written it wrong, correct spelling, or such things. If necessary, the student must search by looking at the previous lessons and examine the notebook. If they cannot find it, I think the teacher should say it only in that case, as the last step. (T10)

From another point of view, one of the respondents pointed out that students' active role is needed in relation to the interaction with peers. They stated:

When the student is involved in this process, I think the most valuable part is where they learn to give feedback to themselves or call their friends and say things, for example, what I especially liked is... or I think you should change this part. To promote these occurrences, they need to be actively involved in the process. (T1)

Almost half of the participants ($f=7$) pointed to "high awareness and readiness" as an expectation from students. These respondents articulated students are expected to be aware of the value and the scope of feedback information and be prepared for these processes. For instance, T3 clarified their viewpoint with the following words:

Students need to understand the value of feedback. Because sometimes they can see it as a note, just a mere thing or something written with a red pen. Unfortunately, they may not be able to consider the feedback the way teachers do. Here, students' role is first to understand why feedback is necessary, internalize it, and then be involved in their own learning processes. (T3)

T15 clarified their perspective in terms of preparedness, "*Students have a huge role to play; we are both leading actors because when I give that feedback if the other person is not ready for it, that will never work*" (T15).

Moreover, seven interviewees focused on "making use of feedback" ($f=7$). What they highlighted was that students need to read, draw some conclusions from feedback information, and take necessary actions upon it by utilizing it in their upcoming works with the aim of improvement. One of the representative comments involved:

The student's role is to take responsibility and be able to use feedback in subsequent work. So, I think the system crashes when they do not play this role because this does not turn into anything other than the exchange of documents. About the feedback given, when there is no reaction from the student, that is, when they do not apply it in their other works, it means they do not play their essential role. Therefore, I think that at this point, the role of the student is to take responsibility for learning. It is necessary to read the feedback, first of all. My expectation from them is to read feedback effectively. (T14)

Another representative excerpt read, "*The role of the students, by being open to learning in the first place, is to try what they can do at a higher level after receiving the feedback*" (T7).

Three of the participants referred to "openness" as an expectation from students ($f=3$). All three of them touched upon the necessity to be acceptive to engage with feedback instead of being closed to it. On this matter, T11 explained themselves:

The student must be open to feedback. I mean, they need to be open to learning and making mistakes, that is, thinking that the other person is not criticizing but trying to show them the right way. They should first be open to this idea and feedback. (T11)

The other code that was uttered by three participants was "trusting teacher expertise" ($f=3$). These respondents held the opinion that students must believe in their teachers' level of knowledge and respect their authority. Regarding this, T12 expressed themselves:

I think it is crucial that students really take the teacher as a reference point, giving them credit. Because if you do not respect the person in front of you or you do not believe in their expertise, you will not take their feedback seriously. Therefore, the role of the student is actually teacher-based. Students need to be aware that the teacher is there to help them become better or improve. (T12)

From a similar point of view, T15 articulated, "*The student will believe wholeheartedly in the teacher's feedback, stay in the way of what the teacher says, and try to do their best*" (T15).

The sixth code emerged as an expectation from students was “guiding teachers,” brought up by two respondents ($f=2$). What they meant by that was students are expected to show or somehow direct their teachers regarding what kind of feedback information they need and what the possible ways are to help them boost their performance through feedback information. T5 exemplified the issue:

The role of the student is actually to direct the feedback they will receive. So, what kind of support and feedback do they need? For example, when there is a very quiet child, you may not know what kind of feedback you should provide, but if the student is aware of this and is aware of the feedback they will receive, they direct or guide the teacher to that particular way. (T5)

The last code appeared as “being patient,” uttered by one of the respondents ($f=1$). They contended that students must have enough patience as benefitting from feedback is an ongoing process instead of being short-cut and easily achieved. The related argument is as follows:

To give an example from any written work, the student’s role is primarily to be patient. Because here, they have to get feedback and redo the work. It needs to change for the better, and more work emerges after feedback: changing, adding, redoing, etc. As already known, in studies without feedback, the work is done, shared, and completed. Namely, it is finalized at once. However, there is an ongoing process of feedback. It is very time-consuming, requiring more effort, spending more time on it, and trying to correct yourself afterward. Therefore, since these are all things that require patience and effort, I think being patient in feedback is essential. (T7)

4.1.6 Inhibiting Factors

Another theme under teachers’ views about feedback was inhibiting factors for feedback information. These factors were essentially about the elements negatively affecting implementation and utilization of feedback information. They are displayed under five sub-themes: feedback characteristics, student, teacher, discipline, and school-related factors.

4.1.6.1 Feedback characteristics-related factors

Feedback characteristics were the initial sub-theme that came up as an inhibiting factor affecting feedback implementation and making use of it based on teachers' views about feedback. As demonstrated in Table 4.6, six codes emerged under this theme: explicit correction, very frequent feedback, too detailed feedback, too much praise, on the spot feedback, and lastly red coloured feedback.

Table 4. 6

Frequencies for Feedback Characteristics-Related Factors as an Inhibiting Factor

Inhibiting Factors	<i>f</i>
Explicit correction	3
Very frequent feedback	3
Too detailed feedback	2
Too much praise	1
On the spot feedback	1
Red coloured feedback	1

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

First of all, of all respondents, three ($f=3$) emphasised that giving the correct answer directly to students without providing them with an opportunity to reflect on their own mistakes restrains the effectiveness of feedback. Therefore, they did not value explicit correction at all and considered it as an inhibiting factor. To give an example, T6 supports this claim with the following words:

The feedback we provide by correcting the children's mistakes directly does not work in any way. The child already gains the habit of getting ready-made feedback without any effort just because the teacher will correct it. That is why it is not effective feedback for me. (T6)

Another excerpt read:

If the student cannot diagnose their own mistakes, if they always get spoon-fed, they cannot make any progress because they would not realize their own mistakes. With only what I have corrected but they do not participate in any way

never makes feedback work. Therefore, they should realize their own mistakes. (T15)

Another code that emerged as an inhibiting factor concerning feedback characteristics related was “very frequent feedback,” brought up by three participants ($f=3$). They argued that providing feedback excessively by commenting on everything and every second impede feedback practices negatively. Upon this, T13 stated:

Feedback on everything means students are drowning in it. I do not think we have to provide students with feedback on everything and every time. I do not think it is beneficial either. When students get excessive feedback on anything and everything, it turns into a tremendous burden on them and the teachers. (T13)

Two of the respondents ($f=2$) touched upon too detailed feedback as an inhibiting factor, too. They held the opinion that providing too long and too detailed feedback abstaining from being selective results in student demotivation, and they assume that there is a lot to do to improve the performance. T14 exemplified this claim by stating:

When you bombard the child with things in five different criteria simultaneously, I think the feedback is not efficient. It is also necessary to consider the emotional and psychological situation there. Hence, in my opinion, the psychological limit of the child should not be exceeded there. (T14)

One of the interviewees considered “too much praise” as an inhibiting factor ($f=1$). According to this view, overuse of appraisal or approval of students’ performances may result in a misunderstanding in the students assuming there is not much left to boost their performance. T8 explained this point of view as the following:

For example, when they always get positive comments on a writing task, they may stop thinking about it or practicing. I think this is dangerous. Hence, I’m trying not to create the perception that they are very good at writing. No matter how good the kid is at writing, you need to be careful while praising a little. That is while writing the positive aspects. (T8)

One of the least mentioned codes was “on the spot” feedback by T9. The respondent contended that providing immediate feedback after each and every mistake of the students results in student demotivation and impedes feedback practices. To be more precise, *“When the feedback is too on the spot, the student can be discouraged. The negative feeling that I have observed, especially in verbal feedback, is generally disappointment, sadness, or discouragement of the student”* (T9).

The last code which was also brought up by one of the respondents was “red coloured feedback.” This leads to misinterpretation in students assuming that the feedback is negative. T14 clarified their point of view and shared an experience as follows:

I got an adverse reaction to the feedback I wrote with a red pen. For example, students misinterpreted it, saying they could not do anything. So there, I realized that red is a dangerous colour for them. I had never thought of it that way. We have one red, one blue, and one black pen as teachers. However, at that moment, I realized I should change that red colour and write in purple, green, or so. (T14)

4.1.6.2 Student-related factors

The second sub-theme that came up as an inhibiting factor affecting feedback implementation and making use of it was student-related factors. As also displayed in Table 4.7, under this theme, five codes emerged: Learners’ personal characteristics, younger age group, unfriendly classroom environment, language level gap between students, and finally, change in students’ needs due to COVID-19.

The majority of the participants ($f=12$) pointed to some personal characteristics of learners as an inhibiting factor during feedback practices. Almost half of the respondents stated that if students are closed to feedback, in other words, if they are not open to it and do not appreciate its value, this hinders feedback practices. To illustrate, T13 expressed themselves:

Table 4. 7*Frequencies for Student-Related Factors as an Inhibiting Factor*

Inhibiting Factors	<i>f</i>
Learners' characteristics	
Closed to feedback	7
Prejudiced against feedback	4
Grade-oriented	4
Overconfident	3
Shy/introverted/sensitive	3
Non-autonomous	1
Younger age group	2
Unfriendly classroom environment	2
Language level gap between students	1
Change in students' needs due to COVID-19	1

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

I do not think it is any use if the student does not utilize feedback or is not open enough to the idea. They just do something and close it immediately. Even if they see their mistakes, I do not think there is any benefit after they do not understand. We actually see this very often. When we give additional work at school, the student says they do it, and actually, they do it, but it does not help. Why not? Because they do not go over their mistakes that they have received feedback from their teacher. They do not understand what they have done wrong. Even if they do additional work afterward, even if they complete another production, it is useless unless they are open to it. (T13)

Another learner characteristic that hinders feedback practices was prejudice against feedback, brought up by four of the respondents ($f=4$). They asserted that when students hold unreasonable opinions and feelings about feedback, this negatively affects feedback processes. To illustrate, T6 commented on this sharing their experiences:

Since some students do not understand that feedback can also be positive, they always perceive the feedback we write on paper or give verbally as error correction. That is why I get reactions as the feedback gets longer or when I call some students and try to provide oral feedback. I receive a reaction from some, for example, "But you gave my other friend only in writing, why are you explaining it to me again? Was my writing that bad? Or was my homework that bad?" They have such biases against feedback. (T6)

The same number of respondents ($f=4$) also referred to being “grade-oriented” as a personal characteristic deteriorating feedback procedure. The common argument of these participants was if students care merely about grades they get, they do not appreciate the value of feedback, and this negatively affects feedback processes. For instance, T8 exemplified such a characteristic as follows:

Let’s say I provided feedback on writing in the class. For example, one of the students asks, how much will I get if I write this in the exam? Because the child has a fear of grades. Sometimes they ask, for example, will you read the writing in the exam, or will another teacher read it? I think grade orientation creates psychological pressure on the child and damages the feedback process. (T8)

Another code that emerged as a student personal characteristic negatively influencing feedback procedures was overconfidence, mentioned by three participants ($f=3$). These participants indicated that if students overtrust themselves and disregard feedback because of it, it prevents them from utilizing feedback information as needed. As T9 asserted, “*Some believe that they are proficient enough, but with some misperceptions. They say it is not like the teacher said, what they have done is enough. They are just doing it, and it seems like nothing more is needed*” (T9).

Three respondents addressed being “shy, introverted, and sensitive” ($f=3$). These participants claimed that feedback practices become more difficult to implement when students carry particular characteristics, such as being timid, scared of expressing themselves in public and getting upset easily by things people say or do. A sample excerpt read, “*This feedback process is even more difficult with introverted and shy students and those who cannot handle the feedback information in front of the classroom*” (T3).

Lastly, one respondent pointed out that when students lack self-regulation to keep track of their own responsibilities, this creates problems for teachers and increases their burden in feedback processes. To clarify their viewpoint, T13 articulated:

Students sometimes do not submit homework, which interrupts feedback due to students' forgetting. Or, for example, when I ask them to bring again after my feedback, some students do not bring them. That is why it leads to confusion. I question myself; "Did I provide feedback? What did the student do or did not do?" They all get mixed up. It is actually a process that the student must follow. However, the teacher has to keep track because some students do not follow. That situation is also time-consuming. (T13)

Two participants referred to the "younger age group" as a student-related inhibiting factor during feedback processes ($f=2$). The participants indicated that working with young learners leads to interruptions in feedback practices because the younger the age, the longer their adaptation to the feedback practices is. Moreover, they are easily offended by feedback when they see their mistakes. Regarding the adaptation process, T8 expressed themselves sharing their experience:

It is difficult for them to get used to the feedback process, especially when I taught the fifth grade because it took some time to establish their perception of feedback. For example, the following dialogue occurred once. Although I wrote much detailed information on their paper, showing mistakes and giving suggestions, they came to me during break time and asked, "Did I write this properly?" Maybe because of the difficulty of language or facing difficulties in writing, a fifth-grader asked me that. (T8)

From another perspective, T5 exemplified how younger age groups easily get offended by feedback stating:

Their moods change a little after feedback. Some children are pleased, but the majority are not very happy to see their mistakes. Because for them, it may be due to a little bit of age. They are heartbroken about this issue; they think they have not made a mistake, which hardens feedback processes. (T5)

Two participants pointed to an "unfriendly classroom environment" as an inhibiting factor for feedback processes ($f=2$). They claimed that if there is a hostile and unpleasant classroom atmosphere preventing students from expressing themselves or commenting on each other's work, feedback practices are negatively influenced. To illustrate, T4 commented on this as follows:

The general atmosphere in the classroom environment is crucial: how the students are as a society or whether they are close to each other, if they can handle feedback, and what kind of a relationship exists between them. If the classroom does not carry positive features regarding these questions, it is tough to appropriately carry out the feedback practices. (T4)

One of the least referred student-related inhibiting factors was the language level gap between the students ($f=1$). The participant focusing on this factor indicated that students' English proficiency levels being different from each other hardens teachers' implementation of feedback practices. They asserted this, "*The language level difference between the students is really huge, and it is one of the things that makes feedback challenging to apply for us*" (T6).

Lastly, another factor that emerged as a student-related inhibiting factor was the "change in students' needs due to COVID-19 pandemic" ($f=1$). The respondent noted that distance education has led to unfulfilled objectives, and students' prioritized needs have changed. Hence, these cause interruptions in feedback processes and slow them down. To be more precise, T10 shared their experiences:

We have just got out of distance education, and the fifth graders I am teaching are like they are newly graduating from the fourth grade and have that much content knowledge. At the beginning of the term, I realized the children had forgotten how to write in their notebooks. For example, when the school first started, we spent the first month getting used to it again. Even in this case, I had to provide feedback to the children, but it did not work as desired due to the changing priorities. (T10)

4.1.6.3 Teacher-related factors

The third sub-theme that emerged under inhibiting factors based on teachers' views was teacher-related factors, which were examined under four codes as displayed in Table 4.8: Teachers' negative mood/low motivation, lack of bonding relationship with students, teachers' insufficient field knowledge, and lastly, teachers' personal life matters.

Table 4. 8

Frequencies for Teacher-Related Factors as an Inhibiting Factor

Inhibiting Factors	<i>f</i>
Teachers' negative mood/low motivation	5
Lack of bonding relationships with students	3
Teachers' insufficient field knowledge	2
Teachers' personal life matters	2

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

The first code that came up under teacher-related inhibiting factors was teachers' negative mood and low motivation, which inhibit feedback practices. Five respondents touched upon this factor ($f=5$) and proposed that when teachers are lowly-motivated or in a low mood, this might prevent them from providing feedback effectively and efficiently. In terms of low motivation, T11 elaborated on the issue, illustrating:

Sometimes I find myself reading the same paper ten times. This has nothing to do with time; it has to do with my not being ready to provide that feedback. That is why this psychological part of the job is very challenging. Because giving feedback is already a complicated process itself. Maybe you have plenty of time and are free for 24 hours, but you cannot give feedback even for one sentence. It is purely a matter of motivation. (T11)

From another point of view, low mood, T12 expressed themselves:

I think the teacher's mood is also very influential. To be frank, I think that the things happening in the teacher's life are reflected in the teacher's work life, especially the feedback. Because if the teacher cannot feel entirely focused on their work, they will definitely look for shortcuts in the feedback they provide. (T12)

Three of the respondents touched upon "lack of bonding relationships with students" as an inhibiting factor ($f=3$). These participants specified that unless a close connection or strong relationship is built between teachers and students, this may have a negative influence on feedback practices. To illustrate, T3 shared their experiences:

Sometimes even my relationship with students can affect feedback practices. Sometimes I really get so annoyed with that student, and I just provide feedback in an unenthusiastic way, doing it just for the sake of doing it. I know this is wrong, but that's what I'm doing. (T3)

Moreover, T9 pointed out the significance of the relational aspect or bonding with students as follows:

Especially when you really see how fundamental this emotional motivation thing and this relational thing is, you realize that when these things do not happen, no matter how much information I give, no matter how much I say, as you can learn like this, is not very effective. It is mainly because the basis is missing. (T9)

Of all interviewees, two of them drew attention to “teachers’ insufficient field knowledge” as a teacher-related inhibiting factor ($f=2$). What they stated was if teachers lack background knowledge about a topic to be able to provide feedback on that with adequate and accurate explanations, this might lead to a delay in conveying feedback information. T5 explained their opinions and experiences, stating:

My own knowledge as a teacher also affects this a lot. So, I feel it is necessary to know a subject very well to provide effective feedback on that. If I do not have anything to explain about that subject, I tell the students that I will give them feedback on this later because I may have to look it up again, which negatively affects the feedback practices due to delay and the teacher’s mood. (T5)

The last code brought up by the same number of participants was “teachers’ personal life matters,” negatively influencing feedback practices ($f=2$). It was conveyed that teacher-based issues resulting from personal life may lead to interruptions in feedback practices. To provide an example, T4 delivered, *“Sometimes I cannot find time for feedback due to having more important personal things to do. Therefore, I delay providing feedback on those occasions”* (T4).

4.1.6.4 Discipline-related factors

The fourth sub-theme that appeared under inhibiting factors was called “discipline-related factors.” The factors stemming from English language teaching as a discipline were gathered under this sub-theme. As it can be seen in Table 4.9, three codes emerged: language barrier, high number of activities requiring feedback, and finally, English as a discipline.

Table 4. 9

Frequencies for Discipline-Related Factors as an Inhibiting Factor

Inhibiting Factors	<i>f</i>
Language barrier	5
High number of activities requiring feedback	3
English as a discipline	3

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

“Language barrier” was put forward as an inhibiting factor by five interviewees ($f=5$). These participants pointed out that if students are not proficient enough in English to be able to understand the feedback information, it becomes more troublesome for them to make sense of and make use of feedback information. To illustrate, T8 exemplified the issue by sharing their experiences:

After reading the written feedback, many students do not understand some of the feedback information. For example, if there is a content problem in the first draft, they might submit the second draft the same way. Most probably, they cannot understand the written comment. (T8)

In the same vein, T9 raised the issue, stating that “*Students sometimes do not really understand the teacher’s language, which interrupts feedback practices*” (T9).

Another code that arose as a discipline-related inhibiting factor was “high number of activities requiring feedback,” articulated by three respondents ($f=3$.) As the number of in-class and outside-class activities to be provided feedback is

high in English as a subject, this might be overwhelming for teachers and might disrupt feedback practices. On this matter, T13 reported:

So obviously, we need to provide feedback for everything. This can be a simple production, it can be a small, short text, but we need to give feedback for each production. To put it simply, this is for the online platform we use, for example, for writing on the platform where they read, which means 3-4 times a week, we are expected to provide feedback even for these. This is a challenging situation. Because we both provide feedback in the classroom, then collect some productions, and then give them back again. I think this is an arduous process for the teacher. (T13)

The third and the last discipline-related inhibiting factor emerged as “English as a discipline.” Three of the participants pointed out that since language comprises different skills and boosting each skill is indispensable, implementing feedback practices in English language teaching as a discipline makes it even harder ($f=3$). The representative comment involved:

Our job is challenging, especially in the part of teaching in our field, namely English language teaching. Because, as we always talk with our friends, we do not have a formula like a math lesson or something to be memorized. We have skills, and those skills need to be developed separately. (T1)

4.1.6.5 School-related factors

The fifth and the last sub-theme came up as “school-related factors.” The codes examined under this sub-theme were workload, lack of devoted time to feedback, high number of students, satisfying different stakeholders, a standardized curriculum/assessment, and lastly, lack of a suitable place, as it is also displayed in Table 4.10.

To begin with, the code emerging was “workload,” expressed by ten participants ($f=10$). The majority of the fifteen participants complained about workload as an inhibiting factor in feedback practices. They all accentuated that due to the high amount of work to be completed in a certain period of time, apart from feedback practices, feedback practices are disrupted, and teachers cannot provide feedback

as effectively as they desire. To exemplify, T12 touched upon this matter, stating:

Table 4. 10

Frequencies for School Related Factors as an Inhibiting Factor

Inhibiting Factors	<i>f</i>
Workload	10
Lack of devoted time to feedback	7
High number of students	5
Satisfying different stakeholders	5
A standardized curriculum/assessment	2
Lack of a suitable place	2

Note. n_{total}=15

The workload is definitely a significant factor in feedback. You know, when there is plenty of time and energy, most teachers can provide detailed feedback, but in some cases, you have to cut it very short. Also, we have a lesson intervals of 35 minutes and 40 minutes. That’s why I try to keep it as short as I can because there is so much more to do. They also have to be completed. Hence, I strive to use those intervals as effectively as possible. (T12)

Likewise, T15 commented on this factor as follows:

We live within a constant deadline cycle. The school dictates, “I want this on Monday morning or afternoon today.” This time, other businesses get ahead student feedback. In fact, there should be comfortable working environments where the teacher does not get tired of such extra things and focus entirely on their students. However, since I started working here, I have been having difficulties in many areas. Too many things are considered much more important than the student and the teacher. The teacher’s job should be wholly lesson-oriented and student-oriented, though. I should be able to handle many things in the classroom. Yet, there is a lot of work left to be dealt with outside school. I even remember studying with a student on Teams at 9 p.m. But when there are many to-do lists, feedback has to be left behind them. I think this needs to be balanced. (T15)

The second code that emerged under school-related factors was “lack of devoted time to feedback,” told by almost half of the participants (*f*=7). These respondents claimed that they need to chase after students and get overwhelmed

regarding feedback practices consequently unless they are offered any time spared for feedback provision. The related example is:

I am unable to provide feedback as much as I would like because I do not have time at school spared to do so. Well, I also have a hard time finding and reaching out to the children individually after the class or before the class. (T9)

Of all, five respondents brought up a “high number of students” as an inhibiting factor ($f=5$). What they put forward is that when the student number allocated for each teacher is high, the provision of feedback to individuals becomes more troublesome. For instance, T2’s comments captured that they would provide more effective feedback if they had fewer students. *“Some conditions are necessary for a teacher to provide good feedback. For example, I have around 300 students this year. You know, it can be very difficult to provide one-to-one feedback to all of them”* (T2). T6 also shared similar concerns stating:

For example, I do not consider myself to be able to provide feedback in the way I want and in the quality I want. Because ideally, it takes about half an hour to give feedback on a child’s paper, which is impossible when we consider the number of students. (T6)

The same number of respondents brought up “satisfying different stakeholders” as an inhibiting factor ($f=5$). The requirement to keep in touch with various stakeholders such as department head, school administration, and parents to report them about feedback practices overburdens teachers with regard to feedback practices and prevents them from implementing them as effectively as they desire. As an example, T4 reported:

If possible, for example, the institution does not tell you this directly, but as it can be understood, we are required to work with students who have unfulfilled objectives during recess, lunch break, or assign them extra homework. Besides, we are to talk to their families constantly to inform them, talk to the assistant principal, communicate with the psychological counselling department, and inform the teachers of other courses about the student. So, we are under such expectations. Is this how it works for every student? Does it work so perfectly? No. Difficulties can prevent them, but teachers are obliged to do their best. (T4)

T6 also shared a relevant example as follows:

Providing feedback to the child, the parent, and sometimes even to the child's private English teacher. So I really think that this should not be a teacher's job and to give regular feedback to the vice-principal and even the English coordinator about the children's situation. So the number of people we have to deliver feedback to is so high. But I mean, we really have to give a lot of information about children's performance to many people. I think this affects us negatively in feedback practices in return. (T6)

Two of the respondents put forward "a standardized curriculum/assessment" as an inhibiting factor in feedback practices ($f=2$). They indicated when teachers are supposed to follow a standardized curriculum and assessment practices as a requirement of the school, this inhibits them from taking personal steps in feedback practices. As an example, T14 shared their experiences:

...I make these plans for myself, but the system we are in is not such a system; instead, it is a process where you have to act together with certain decisions, such as group decisions and administrative decisions. That's why you cannot decide and implement it alone or take the initiative. Therefore, I could not do this in practice, as I explained. I couldn't, but I wrote it to the kids in my feedback because I thought it should be like this. I tried to achieve it by writing small notes in the feedback. I tried to reach them only this way (T14).

The last code mentioned by the exact number of respondents emerged as "lack of a suitable place" ($f=2$). These participants indicated that when teachers are not offered a suitable and peaceful place to provide feedback, this has a negative impact on feedback practices. Concerning this, T7 uttered:

Lack of a suitable place... For example, there are students you want to talk to individually. However, you do not have a chance to do this in a noisy environment. It is noisy all over the place during break times. If you had an office and had a chance to talk to the child one-on-one in that office, like in universities, I think it would be very stylish and beneficial. But there is no such possibility here. (T7)

4.1.7 Enhancing Factors

The very last theme that came up under teachers' views about feedback was enhancing factors positively affecting feedback practices. They are categorised under four sub-themes: teacher, instruction, school, and student-related factors.

4.1.7.1 Teacher-related factors

The initial sub-theme emerged as “teacher-related factors,” in which teacher-related aspects have positive influences on feedback practices to be implemented and made use of. As it is shown in Table 4.11, five codes were examined under this sub-theme: teacher praise/encouragement, planning of feedback, bonding relationship with students, teacher experience, and teacher's positive mood.

Table 4. 11

Frequencies for Teacher-Related Factors as an Enhancing Factor

Enhancing Factors	<i>f</i>
Teacher praise/encouragement	3
Planning of feedback	3
Bonding relationship with students	3
Teacher experience	2
Teacher's positive mood	1

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

First of all, three respondents pointed to “teacher praise/encouragement” as an enhancing factor during feedback practices ($f=3$). They held the idea that the teacher's articulating or writing positive remarks and praises motivate students to utilize feedback information and improve themselves. On this matter, T8 stated:

Even if the student's performance is very low, I find one hopeful, positive thing on their paper and start with it. Sometimes I refer to the progress they have made. For example, I write, “The second draft is way better than the previous draft.” If I remember, for example, we remember certain students who have written poorly or short in the first draft, I write that they have gone into detail

this time. So, I am making some comparisons between the two tasks. When they see these comments, including positivity, we actually ensure that they are motivated and continue their way. (T8)

Similarly, T3 expressed themselves,

When you say this is wrong, this is bad, that is worse, and when the student receives the feedback, they may be demotivated to see as it seems impossible to fix; they may be upset, but I think it is good for children to see that there is hope in them, that there is such a shining light. (T3)

Three participants focused on “planning of feedback” as an enhancing factor in feedback practices ($f=3$). Two asserted that informing students about the scope of feedback information prior to providing it escalates the likelihood of feedback effectiveness. For instance, T1 delivered:

I believe that the system works much better when the students know in advance what I am giving feedback to or what I will give feedback to. That's why I sometimes tell students how I will evaluate that paper and on specifically what they will receive feedback on. That is, the children know what they will see in their paper in advance and read the feedback input accordingly. (T1)

On this matter, one of the respondents touched upon the significance of having the content knowledge of what is going to be covered in a specific lesson so that they can provide more effective feedback on students’ responses. To be more precise, T8 expressed themselves:

For example, in listening lessons, there are some questions that I think students will answer in certain ways. To prepare myself for those, I think I should definitely listen to the track before and during my preparation process to provide effective feedback after listening. Because when I listen to it in the classroom, I answer the questions there, but I cannot look from the child’s side. Therefore, I always get prepared for that and take my notes beforehand. For instance, I sometimes ask them whether they have written this or that as a response to a specific question. I think it is much more effective when this preparation is made to be able to look from students’ point of views. (T8)

The same number of participants brought up “bonding relationship with students” as an enhancing factor ($f=3$). What they conveyed was that when teachers build a close connection or strong relationship with students, and give

importance to their feelings and motivation, students benefit from feedback more. To illustrate:

But I have had students with whom we got over their prejudices together, and their success has increased. As the child's success grows, the child's happiness also increases. Their motivation, their interest in the lesson, and their love increase. Their perspective towards you is changing, whereas prejudice is the hardest thing to break. I have seen how students benefit when teachers accompany them during their learning journey. I have even witnessed students receiving thirties and forties at first but going up to 90s in the exams. It is a great pleasure for both the student and the teacher, especially for the student to become aware of themselves and see their capacity when they set out on this journey with you. (T15)

Another code that appeared as a teacher-related enhancing factor was “teacher experience,” articulated by two interviewees ($f=2$). Both held the belief that teachers might increase the quality of their feedback practices year by year with real-life teaching experiences. The representative comment involved:

Feedback is to be integrated into the lesson plans or made a part of the academic stuff. Besides, it is something that can be learned with experience. For example, I have not seen various student profiles yet. However, as I see it and get to know the diversity of the students, I think that I get to experience regarding how to approach a diverse range of students and how to attract their attention. In fact, I gradually learned what I should do considering their perspectives and how they would be pleased. So, I think I'm getting better, but am I where I want to be now? No, it is never enough. As I said, I am on a journey, and I think I will be a better feedback provider as I get more experienced. (T12)

The last code uttered by one of the respondents pointed to “teacher's positive mood” ($f=1$). This interviewee reported that when teachers are in a high mood, this contributes positively to the feedback practices they are implementing. More clearly, they remarked that “*Sometimes my mood is so high that I enthusiastically write very detailed and guiding feedback*” (T3).

4.1.7.2 Instruction-related Factors

The second sub-theme emerged as “instruction-related factors” enhancing feedback practices grounded on teachers' views. Considering teaching and

learning atmospheres and practices concerning feedback, five codes came up as enhancing factors under this sub-theme: friendly and feedback-rich environments, training students for feedback practices, providing exemplars, in-class feedback, and lastly, face-to-face feedback, as also demonstrated in Table 4.12.

Table 4. 12

Frequencies for Instruction-Related Factors as an Enhancing Factor

Enhancing Factors	<i>f</i>
Friendly and feedback-rich environments	4
Training students for feedback practices	4
Providing exemplars	3
In-class feedback	2
Face-to-face feedback	1

Note. n_{total}=15

The first code was “friendly and feedback-rich environments,” brought up by four respondents ($f=4$). These respondents emphasised that by creating a pleasant environment whereby students do not feel hesitant to express themselves and feedback-rich environments in which students collaborate, feedback practices can be executed more fruitfully. As an example, T13 stated:

When I tell a student that they have a mistake about a word or about a sentence, I wait for them to seek help from their friends. I state that they should let a friend help and guide them. I think it is an effective feedback process when students express themselves clearly and reach the correct result with a friend.
(T13)

T7 also emphasised the significance of the environment where feedback properly works by articulating, “*If a classroom culture has been created, children are already correcting their mistakes without offending each other*” (T7).

Another code, “training students for feedback practices,” was articulated by the exact number of respondents ($f=4$). What it meant was that teaching and preparing students about feedback practices to help them familiarize themselves

with those processes accelerate and boost the effectiveness of feedback practices.

T13 exemplified this by sharing their experiences:

They have already used checklists so much during the entire semester that they now clearly understand what I want. After a particular time, I do not need to go over it too much. Because at the beginning of the semester, we worked on this a lot together. They know exactly what to do when they see the checklist now. (T13)

T8 touched upon this training from a broader time period perspective, considering the previous grade levels, by articulating the following:

... The students are actually very used to it. In the 5th grade, class routines are determined and start to work properly. In the following grade levels, our system is always the same. Since our expectations are the same, the child who starts the 7th or 8th grade is aware of all the processes. For example, when I say peer feedback, they directly change their position and start checking their friend's production at once by looking at what they are supposed to do. (T8)

Of all, three respondents touched upon “providing exemplars” as an enhancing factor ($f=3$). Exemplars are defined in two different ways: The first one is a typical or good example of something, such as a model response; however, according to Carless and Boud (2018), they are samples to be analysed and compared to the work in progress instead of being treated as a mere model answer. While one of the respondents opted for the model answer response, two of them mentioned the latter definition as an enhancing factor in feedback practices. Regarding the first definition, T15 exemplified:

Every student has different needs. For example, one of them told me that they could not write conflict in a short story and asked for a sample. So, I wrote a model story myself and sent it to them. Then, I asked them to write again, considering it. I gave the opening sentence first; then, I asked them to write the opening sentence themselves so that they could write a story by themselves, developing their own conflict. I always provided them feedback supported by examples, and consequently, they wrote something really well-structured in the last exam. (T15)

In relation to the second definition of an exemplar, T7 shared their opinions and experiences:

It is much more effective if you start a feedback process where a high-quality sample is shared on the target topic, and its positive aspects are revealed through discovery. For example, we did paragraph writing yesterday. The correct use of the past tense in the paragraph was the goal. Every child wrote. If I had collected, for example, every child's work and had underlined or marked some codes, this would have seemed a bit boring. But, by reviewing the samples from the class, showing the good, average, and poor paragraphs, giving them a rubric, and letting them guess my grade, I got them to explore by intriguing them. Then, everyone paid attention, and I stated that although the samples were very nice, we discovered some shortcomings. We discussed how we could improve them by using the rubric we had. Afterward, I asked them to look back at what they had written. Based on my experiences so far, I can clearly state that their knowledge increases a lot when I do this. (T7)

The other enhancing factors appeared as “in-class feedback,” brought up by two respondents ($f=2$). They argued that providing feedback in-class rather than outside class increases the likelihood of students' making use of it and lessens teacher workload outside the class. To be more precise, T6 expressed themselves:

I think feedback is more effective if provided in the classroom. Because we get outstanding results from the feedback provided while monitoring students during the activities in class. It also does not require spending extra time or does not return to us as extra workload, either. (T6)

The last code was “face-to-face feedback,” told by one interviewee as an enhancing factor ($f=1$). What the participant contended was that providing students with feedback through one-to-one oral conferencing, including a face-to-face teacher and student interaction, increases the possibility of understanding and making use of the given feedback information. The participant referred to a comparison between distant education due to COVID-19 and face-to-face education happening now. The representative comment involved:

During online teaching, one of my students was constantly making tense mistakes; whatever I did, I could not fix those. Then, when we started face-to-face education at school, I came across them and told them the mistakes one by one and showed them some ways to fix those. So, that student almost never repeated the same mistakes from that moment on. Therefore, I think feedback is a situation that can easily occur between two people who are open to providing and receiving feedback face-to-face at the right time. (T11)

4.1.7.3 School-related factors

Another sub-theme came up as “school-related factors” under enhancing factors. The participants reflected that feedback practices could be affected positively or could be improved with the help of school-related factors. As it can also be viewed in Table 4.13, seven codes were probed within this sub-theme: collaboration with colleagues & administration, assessment and evaluation unit, Professional Development System, a Learning Management System, training provided by the institution, school requirements, and finally, clear guidance provided by the institution.

The initial code emerging under school-related factors was “Collaboration with colleagues & administration,” put forward by five of the respondents ($f=5$). Whereas three participants especially focused on the collaboration with colleagues within the department, three of them particularly emphasised the support they receive from the administration for feedback practices. To exemplify the former, T10 asserted:

Table 4. 13

Frequencies for School-Related Factors as an Enhancing Factor

Enhancing Factors	<i>f</i>
Collaboration with colleagues & administration	5
Assessment and evaluation unit	4
Professional Development System	3
Learning Management System	3
Training provided by the institution	2
School requirements	2
Clear guidance provided by the institution	2

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

Our head of the department is very supportive indeed. They are very motivating, positive, and empathetic. For example, when we were grading the writing parts of the exams, they said that those who needed support should always tell them because they would help, and they actually did. Because we did double marking, two teachers graded the same paper, and our department head looked at a few

documents with a big difference in points, for example. There is always such support within our department in feedback practices, especially from our head of the department. (T10)

For the latter one, T11 said:

The institution helps us a lot in reaching out to students, I mean physically reaching them. Because most of the time, you cannot find the child to provide feedback at school. However, when you request this from the school to provide feedback to the kids, they are of great help. For example, when there were sharing hours, I was free since I was not a class teacher and requested from the administration to use that time for providing feedback. They accepted it and scheduled it at once. Or, let's say we want to work with a particular group of students together. They can be taken from certain courses, or this can be arranged after school. At least, we do not deal with that scheduling. This actually makes our job easier. (T11)

Of all, four of the interviewees put forward “assessment and evaluation unit” as a school-related enhancing factor for feedback practices ($f=4$). The participants pointed out that through ready-made rubrics for self-assessment and peer feedback, criteria for writing/speaking, various sources, detailed analysis of summative assessment components, and meetings arranged concerning feedback, this unit contributes to lessening teacher workload and supports teachers during feedback practices. On this matter, T3 indicated, “*The assessment and evaluation unit has prepared self-assessments, peer-feedbacks, and criteria adopted. They support us from this aspect*” (T3). Similarly, T1 articulated their help as follows:

We carry out feedback studies both individually and the whole class, and these feedback studies are decided to be executed by looking at the analyses prepared by the assessment and evaluation unit. We can see both the deficiencies of the class and the individual deficiencies of our students through these analyses. Of course, it turns out to be a very detailed picture for us. You know, it is something that we can do on our own with much more effort. (T1)

Two of these respondents, who are in their first year at the institution, asserted that the assessment and evaluation unit set up a meeting explaining what feedback is and what kind of feedback might be provided. The representative comment included:

We attended a meeting on how feedback should be provided and on a general definition of feedback set up by the Assessment and Evaluation Unit. Apart from that, we attended a couple of meetings related to this issue before the semester began during the summer seminar period. (T12)

Apart from these, another code was brought up as “Professional Development System” by three of the participants ($f=3$). These participants referred to lesson observations conducted at their institution under the scope of a Professional Development System and action plans developed concerning feedback, if need be, as an enhancing factor. T3 clarified this viewpoint explaining:

We have a performance development system. Let’s say they observed that a teacher’s in-class feedback process is not enough. At this point, for example, they try to guide them and take an action plan and try to improve the teacher in that area. So, individual action plans are developed for such. (T3)

T2 touched upon their action plan after being observed as a requirement of the Professional Development System and uttered, *“Our department head has sent me a couple of articles about feedback practices. You know, they have supported me a lot in this process”* (T2).

“Learning Management System” came up as another enhancing factor, articulated by three interviewees ($f=3$). They reported that offering the teachers and students Learning Management System, such as “MS Teams” and “ASIST” makes students’ and teachers’ work easier by accessing feedback information quickly and increasing the likelihood of teacher-student conferencing with the purpose of feedback provision. At this point, T7 asserted, *“There is MS Teams program, and we can use it for video conferencing with students since it is open to access. I think it is a great convenience”* (T7). In addition to that, T10 remarked:

We have our ASIST page, which we use as a school. It can be thought of as an online platform opportunity the school offers. We upload everything in there, such as flipped materials, in-class materials, or extra practice materials for students to benefit from. (T10)

Two of the participants mentioned “training provided by the institution” as another enhancing factor ($f=2$). They claimed that in-service training offered by the institution raises the quality of their feedback practices by expanding their horizons. The related example is as follows:

We attended a training called A-CELTA. The school actually provided this for us for free. It was a volunteer-based training program, a mixture of CELTA and DELTA courses, and I think it contributed a lot to me. For example, the feedback we are talking about right now was taught me there; I am not a graduate of the education faculty. After the things I learned there and the things I experienced myself, I had the chance to combine it with the theory since I received the education offered by this school. Both the theory was explained, and we were observed in practice. It was a long process and such practical training. (T11)

The same number of respondents pointed to “school requirements” as another school-related enhancing factor ($f=2$). What was conveyed was those school requirements asking teachers to integrate feedback into the curriculum and lesson plans, provide feedback frequent enough for student improvement contributes to teacher feedback literacy and feedback practices as a natural consequence. To illustrate, T1 elaborated on this:

My institution attributes great importance to feedback because it attaches tremendous importance to student well-being, students’ individuality, autonomy, and self-evaluation. For this reason, no matter how much we care about doing this on our own behalf, the institution is already in a position to dictate it to us. Because it is a school that adopts the individual evaluation of students as a corporate philosophy, that all students are different, and that there are individual differences. That’s why feedback is already on the agenda in all our lesson plans and all meetings. (T1)

The last code was “clear guidance provided by the institution,” mentioned by two respondents ($f=2$). They held the opinion that a system and documents to be followed as a requirement of the institution render it possible for teachers to be guided clearly during feedback practices. T12 illustrated how the school guides them with the following:

Regarding feedback practices, the institution actually tries to show all the steps as much as possible. It actually shows the roadmap; for example, how feedback

should be provided; what is expected. There is an established system and related documents; there are certain things to be followed, that is, there are processes, and we can follow them. I can say that the school is really guiding us. (T12)

4.1.7.4 Student-related factors

The fourth and the last sub-theme emerged as student-related enhancing factors. Only one code appeared here as students being open to/questioning/requesting feedback, as it is also seen in Table 4.14.

Table 4. 14

Frequencies for Student-Related Factors as an Enhancing Factor

Enhancing Factors	<i>f</i>
Students being open to/ questioning/requesting feedback	5

Note. n_{total}=15

The mere code appearing as a student-related enhancing factor was “Students being open to/ questioning/requesting feedback,” articulated by five respondents ($f=5$). What is meant by this is that as long as students are open to feedback rather than insistent on disregarding its value, question the given feedback, and request feedback information from their teachers, they benefit from it more. For instance, T4 exemplified these students and added their comments as follows:

Some students come at the end of the lesson or during the lesson and ask, “Teacher, what did you write here?” They say they do not understand. For example, this is a very positive thing in terms of feedback; I think students who do this benefit from feedback more than others. (T4)

Another related example is:

Some are very open to feedback. You want to provide that child even more feedback because it motivates you as a teacher, too; because the child writes, you see that they improve, and that motivates you as well. We fill with hope, too, and we feel thrilled when we see our students are improving. (T8)

4.2 Employed Feedback Practices and Suggested Practices

This section introduces findings for the second research question concerning English Language teachers' employed feedback practices in assessment practices and suggested practices. The results reached after inductive content analysis will be displayed under two headings: employed feedback practices and suggested feedback practices.

4.2.1 Employed Feedback Practices

Employed feedback practices are categorized under eight themes: employed feedback practices regarding language preference, feedback frequency, timing, amount, and mode of delivery, employed feedback types, employed feedback practices on receptive skills (listening and reading), and lastly, employed feedback practices on productive skills (speaking and writing).

4.2.1.1 Employed Practices Regarding Language Preference, Feedback Frequency, Timing, Amount, and Mode of Delivery

The initial themes that appeared under English language teachers' feedback were their language preference, feedback frequency, timing, amount, and mode of delivery as a result of the inductive content analysis. Concerning their feedback language preference, participants mentioned the reasons behind their choices for each. Feedback frequency came up when they were asked how often they provided feedback. Timing refers to what time they prefer providing feedback; the amount is related to the details of the feedback information, and mode of delivery is concerned about the ways or mediums of how feedback information is conveyed to the students. The frequencies for each code and sub-codes are demonstrated in Table 4.15.

Concerning language preference, two codes emerged: preferred feedback language as L1 and preferred feedback language as L2. Almost all of the

participants accepted the fact that they switched their language to L1, to Turkish, to provide feedback information to low-achieving students to have better and healthier communication and oral feedback ($f=13$). For example, T12 stated on this matter:

In some cases, some weak students are behind the class, and we have to provide feedback to them in Turkish, but frankly, it is not a problem for me. I am not insistent on providing feedback in English. The students can express themselves more easily in their mother tongue and even understand the feedback. When you speak in Turkish, the things you say have more value in the eyes of the child. (T12)

Apart from this, some participants pointed out that when feedback is provided in their language, students feel more relaxed and sincere. To illustrate, T1 stated, *“The fact that my personal criticisms towards students, either good or bad, are in Turkish makes me more comfortable because the student feels more comfortable and behaves more sincerely toward me in that case”* (T1).

While the majority of the interviewees stated that they prefer switching to their native language in oral feedback, not in written feedback, one of them admitted that they provide feedback in Turkish in written feedback, too, in some instances. They explained themselves as follows:

If the student does not understand, if they have not changed anything in the writing task that they brought me, and if I see that they do not understand the feedback, I have to switch to Turkish by necessity. I do this both when providing oral feedback and when providing written feedback, depending on the needs of the student. (T13)

Table 4. 15

Frequencies for Employed Feedback Practices Regarding Language Preference, Frequency of Feedback, Timing, Amount, and Mode of Delivery

Employed Feedback Practices	<i>f</i>
Language Preference	
preferred feedback language as L1	13
preferred feedback language as L2	13
Frequency of feedback	
every second	2
in every lesson	5
every day	5
2-3 times a week	3
every other week	2
Timing of feedback	
immediate feedback	8
delayed feedback	
at the end of the lesson	3
within 1-3 days	8
within seven days	5
within 7-10 days	2
Amount of feedback	
detailed	11
not detailed	9
no feedback	2
Mode of delivery	
written feedback	15
whole-class feedback	15
face-to-face (individual) feedback	14
oral feedback	12
online feedback	9
audio feedback	5

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

On the other hand, 13 participants articulated their language preference as L2, in English, too ($f=13$). Some participants expressed that if they believe the student can understand feedback in English, they opt for using English. For example, T4 said, “*If I think that the student can understand me well, I speak in English while providing feedback*” (T4). Three interviewees stated that their first choice is mostly English. For instance, “*But I prefer using English in feedback, as the first choice*” (T13).

Apart from them, some participants emphasised that they have to opt for English due to school requirements as the medium of instruction in English lessons. An excerpt illustrating the point:

My feedback is generally in English; I mean 95 percent English. It is actually out of necessity because, in our institution, we always prioritize the use of English when talking to students. It is always like that in classes, too. (T10)

In addition to that, participants accentuated they provided written feedback in English. At this point, T3 stated, *“In written feedback, I always use English”* (T3). A participant uttered that they sometimes select the feedback language based on some students’ choices. They expressed themselves, *“Of course, I don’t ask every child, but I do ask certain groups of children. Do you want your feedback in English or Turkish?”* (T15).

In relation to the frequency of feedback, when the participants were directed the question of how often they provide feedback, various frequencies came up based on their perceptions. Two participants addressed this question by saying “every second” ($f=2$). Five participants said, “in every lesson” ($f=5$), and another five participants stated, “every day” ($f=5$). The remaining participants articulated a broader period of time; while three of them said “2-3 times a week” ($f=3$), the remaining two participants said, “every other week” ($f=2$).

In addition to that, two codes related to timing are “immediate feedback” and “delayed feedback.” According to Shute (2008), whereas *immediate feedback* occurs right after a student response of any kind, *delayed feedback* occurs after some time following any type of student response. Immediate feedback was touched upon by eight of the respondents ($f=8$). As an example, T11 specified, *“In fact, every day, maybe every lesson, a mistake is made, and at that moment, the student receives feedback in the form of error correction”* (T11). Regarding delayed feedback, three interviewees indicated they spent some time on feedback for common errors they encountered throughout the lessons at the end of their lessons ($f=3$). T8 illustrated, *“At the end of each lesson, I provide short whole*

class feedback in the last 5 minutes, I mean in the wrap-up part, on the areas that I find very problematic” (T8). Furthermore, when the participants directed the question of how long after they provide feedback upon tasks or assignments, eight of them asserted “within 1-3 days” ($f=8$), five of them said “within seven days” ($f=5$), and finally, two of them said, “within 7-10 days” ($f=2$).

When it comes to the amount of feedback, it was noted as detailed, not detailed, and no feedback. In terms of detailed feedback, which refers to being comprehensive and lengthy, 11 respondents pointed to providing detailed feedback on writing skills as a part of formative assessment ($f=11$). To illustrate, T4 claimed, “*Students get very detailed feedback on their writing done in class*” (T4).

In a similar way, T2 stated:

If there is a writing task, using underlining or coding, if there is a grammatical mistake, I point to the grammatical mistake, or I show the spelling mistakes. I mean, I write them in detail to explain them better to the students. (T2)

More than half of the respondents claimed to provide “not detailed feedback” ($f=9$). Not detailed feedback refers to feedback that is not comprehensive or which is short. All nine participants emphasized that they do not write long or explanatory feedback on exam papers. One of the representative comments involved:

I don't know how it must be, but I do not particularly tend to write very detailed feedback on the exam paper, or I do not like to correct all the mistakes in a writing section on the exam paper. (T1)

“No feedback” was uttered by two interviewees ($f=2$). That means there is not any feedback conveyed to the students. These two participants pointed to exam papers as not writing any feedback to students on those. T13 explained:

No, there is no feedback on the exam paper. In the writing section, we put indicators, such as small ticks or crosses that can help only the teacher, but unlike the homework, there are no sentences or words, such as questions that we write at length or to guide them. (T13)

With regard to “mode of delivery,” all the participants acknowledged that they provide “written feedback,” feedback delivered to students in written form ($f=15$). T8 exemplified their experience:

When we consider it, once every two weeks, sometimes every week in eighth-graders, for example, it can be very short writing on target vocabulary or something long, like a short story. In fact, we have a lot of papers to deliver written feedback, and a written feedback process is actively progressing between the teacher and the student. (T8)

Moreover, all the participants emphasised that they take into account some points in their written feedback to enable students to benefit from it to a large extent. For instance, T7 shared their ideas and experiences:

I have several criteria while delivering written feedback. The first is it should not upset the student. If we sit down and fix everything, it can be very destructive for some students. So, I decide what to pay attention to in the written feedback. What is essential, e.g., my goal, and what I am trying to achieve. I need to define them well. Also, it is crucial to have a rubric to be realistic, and the criteria must be clear. Thirdly, while giving the message that the approach is fundamental, there should be a friendly approach, and fourthly, it is vital to have a reference. So, for example, students have made a mistake in the past tense. Okay, how the child will fix it; they have not understood it anyway, so I can put a video on it, I can put a link. Or I should give reference points like they can go to these pages and look from there so that they do not feel lost. (T7)

From another point of view, T12 expressed themselves:

In the written feedback process, I pay attention to that my ideas are clear. Because once you write your feedback, you usually cannot change it again after giving it to the child. Therefore, I usually pay attention to writing directly to the point. I really do not want the students to drown in the feedback. Because when we write a lot of feedback, it may lead to confusion in fifth graders, a very young group of students. That is why I try to write as concisely as possible. (T12)

Another mode of delivery used by all the participants is “whole class feedback,” feedback addressed to the entire class instead of one-to-one conferencing ($f=15$). All the participants accentuated that they delivered feedback to the whole class to conduct common error sessions. To give an example:

For example, when children are doing group activities, I write down children’s mistakes or misused statements I hear while monitoring in a notebook that I always use. Then we do common errors session. Actually, I am writing those ill-formed examples on the board. I direct questions such as, “Do you think there are any problems here; how can we fix this; how can we improve it?” We usually correct or make the task better together with volunteers or sometimes by guiding low-achieving children with the right questions. (T6)

The other mode of delivery used by almost all the participants is “face-to-face (individual) feedback,” feedback delivered when there is one-to-one conferencing through teacher and student interaction ($f=14$). For instance, T1 articulated:

One-to-one feedback works much better for some students. Because some students do not want to express themselves in public or express themselves better to their teacher when they are alone. I use it often because I think it works for many students. (T1)

From another point of view, T3 shared their ideas and experiences:

For example, I do not give feedback to students I think are very good during class. I do not provide feedback to everyone in the class. Because this time, other children might feel very bad when you deliver feedback to the strong student in public like this. I prefer to give one-to-one feedback to the shy child as well as the successful child to express they are doing very well. (T3)

The majority of the participants pointed to “oral feedback,” feedback delivered or articulated to students in spoken form ($f=12$). T13 commented on this, “*Oral feedback can happen whenever conducting discussions in the classroom, talking about a grammar topic, or vocabulary. This is a type of feedback I actually make use of in every skill, and I provide oral feedback at any time*” (T13). Besides, some highlighted that they consult oral feedback after written feedback as a polish-up. The representative comment involved:

Sometimes I find it difficult to reach some students with written feedback. Because when I give them back their writing, they may regard it as a piece of paper that I have written something on their written work. Maybe they read, maybe they do not. Therefore, some students must be provided oral feedback to polish the written feedback, as written feedback is not effective for every child. I sometimes ask them to visit me during break time to review their written feedback. In my opinion, it is more effective to go over the same feedback once more by simplifying it. (T8)

Furthermore, they contended that some points must be taken into account while delivering oral feedback. To illustrate, T7 pointed out:

It is important to me that my message is understandable. That is why I consider it essential not to be complicated but clear, understandable, and message-oriented. The tone of voice and body language is fundamental, too. Because I think it is vital not to act in any demotivating way. Other than that, it's important to be realistic. How can it be done both realistically and without discouraging? The method that I think has worked the most so far is to convince the student first. I think you can do this better; what do you think, how would you do it better? I think it is very important to make them discover it. Again, without correcting their English, while the child is speaking, trying to understand as much as they say, asking if there is anything you do not understand, then summarizing it and pointing out they have made an excellent point. I mean, pursuing a negotiation is the key point. (T7)

Likewise, T3 asserted:

In oral feedback, how you show your emotions, tone of voice, and words also come into play. You can pay close attention to this in written feedback. For example, the words you write and use. However, paying attention to this in oral feedback is a little more challenging. Therefore, before delivering oral feedback, I plan what to say and how to say, even the vocabulary I will use to be more effective and not upset the students. Even speaking speed matters in oral feedback. If you speak fast, they will not understand anything. (T3)

Another code brought up in the mode of delivery was “online feedback,” used by nine participants ($f=9$). What is meant by it is that feedback is conveyed to the students via online platforms, such as a Learning Management System. Whereas two of the respondents constrained the online mode of delivery to the online teaching period due to COVID-19, others stated they maintain using it. To exemplify, T14 uttered when they prefer using it:

If a child needs to be contacted in person and those who do not have enough courage to read aloud the work they have done in front of their friends, I meet online with them. Or with the ones who are more emotional and shy in class. I am making an appointment with those students. One-on-one, in a way, they will feel more comfortable because children at this age may have a lot of anxiety due to adolescence. Online is convenient at this point. Or, if they need more extended feedback that cannot be handled in school, if they need more support, I use this to avoid occupying their recess or lunch breaks. (T14)

T4 also mentioned, *“Sometimes we need to provide feedback to students through Teams or other platforms we use. But again, I do it in written form”* (T4).

The last code under the mode of delivery is “audio feedback,” put forward by five respondents ($f=5$). This is a mode of delivery in which audio files, including feedback information upon student responses, are attached. Whereas four of these participants asserted that they benefitted from audio feedback during online teaching, one of them said they have still been using it. As an example, from the online teaching period, T13 uttered:

I was delivering feedback as voice recording a lot. For example, I used it for some of my students rather than writing detailed feedback after a writing task. I also thought that the audio recording would be very useful for low achievers, such as students who would have difficulty understanding my written feedback because there was no face-to-face teaching at that time. I reviewed their products one by one and recorded audio covering my comments on all the parts. I asked them to listen to this audio recording and rewrite it, and I saw that their writing was much better after doing what I had asked. (T13)

The participant who has still been using it explained themselves:

I use audio feedback depending on the situation and the end product. For example, I am asking a student to record their voice, and I provide them with written feedback. However, sometimes for children who want to hear how something must be done, I record my own voice and deliver feedback to them in that way. (T11)

4.2.1.2 Employed Feedback Types

As a result of the conducted inductive content analysis, seventeen feedback types were recognized as being adopted and implemented by English language

teachers in their instruction. As also shown in Table 4.16, the codes examined were: explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elaborated feedback, hints/prompts/cues, verification, sandwich feedback, constructive feedback, direct feedback, error flagging, topic contingent, elicitation, providing sources, recasts, indirect feedback, informative tutoring, response contingent, intonation change/emphasis, and try again, respectively based on their frequency.

Table 4. 16

Frequencies for Employed Feedback Types

Feedback Types	<i>f</i>
explicit correction	13
metalinguistic feedback	12
elaborated feedback	11
hints/prompts/cues	9
verification	9
sandwich feedback	9
constructive feedback	9
error flagging	8
direct feedback	6
topic contingent	5
elicitation	4
providing sources	4
recasts	2
informative tutoring	2
response contingent	2
intonation change/emphasis	1
try again	1

Note. n_{total}=15

The initial feedback type employed by almost all participants emerged as “explicit correction” (*f*=13). Lyster and Ranta (1997) define it as feedback in which the correct is directly given by the teacher, or the teacher says that an answer is incorrect straight away. The respondents pointed out that they prefer using this type of feedback as they find it practical at some points. For example, T6 expressed themselves:

We do production activities in the lessons a lot, such as vocabulary production, reading production, and sometimes more than one production. Since the number of these productions is too high, I cannot ask students to correct the underlined parts and bring them back to me in the corrected version. Therefore, I make corrections directly to the child's homework. Apart from that, I correct the writing task before the exam in the same way and give it back to the children. (T6)

Another respondent stated, *“If I have a time constraint like a topic I am trying to complete, or if I think it is enough to cover that subject in less time, I use explicit correction while providing feedback to those”* (T7).

The second feedback type brought up by most of the respondents was “metalinguistic feedback” ($f=12$). According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), metalinguistic feedback occurs by not revealing the correct answer directly but by attaching some comments, information, or questions regarding the nature of the error with the aim of eliciting a well-formed answer from the students. Using error codes exemplifies this type of feedback. Whereas all twelve participants pointed to error codes under metalinguistic feedback, some specified they also make use of colour codes. Regarding error coding, T5 remarked:

For example, for written work, I have started teaching students codes. For example, is it a grammatical error or a vocabulary usage error? I said that there are codes related to this and that we will only mark those codes while providing feedback on their writings. Then, they should correct them while writing it for the second time and submit the second draft to us after having completed the corrections. (T5)

With regard to colour coding, T7 stated:

I really like colouring. For instance, when I highlight the same mistakes with the same colour, such as colouring all the grammatical mistakes with yellow, the child realizes that they have made grammatical mistakes the most. They conclude they should pay attention to that. Or, if I have shaded the spelling error in green, a typographic map appears. (T7)

Another feedback type emerged as “elaborated feedback,” touched upon by more than half of the interviewees ($f=11$). Shute (2008) refers to this type of feedback

requiring students to explain and elaborate on why a given response is correct or incorrect. T1 elaborated on this, suggesting:

Even on a grammar subject, I like to do this as well rather than explaining why an answer is true or false in reading tasks. For example, I have given a cloze test consisting of grammar questions. There are options about tenses, and the child chooses “e.” That is the correct answer. The answer is “went,” but why? I often see that the student cannot explain why they are using past simple. So, at this point, of course, knowing the name of the tense is not essential. It does not matter if they know the technical names. However, they need to be able to explain how they have got the impression that it was supposed to be past tense. (T1)

The next feedback type suggested by more than half of the participants was “hints/prompts/cues,” guiding students in the right direction with the help of strategic hints without revealing the correct answer at once ($f=9$). T15 exemplified their practices as the following:

I always thrive the students to find their own mistakes in individually assigned or whole-class studies. At first, I prompt them with such small hints. If I realize that the child is having a hard time, I scaffold not to scare or demotivate them, I prompt keywords without giving the correct answer. Then, I tell them the points they need to pay attention to, and I also provide them with information on whether they have diagnosed their mistakes correctly or not. (T15)

“Verification” was touched upon by more than half of the respondents ($f=9$). According to Shute (2008), this type of feedback refers to feedback informing learners merely about whether the knowledge of results is right or wrong. A representative example included:

In assignments that are short and unimportant or that I do not think much time needs to be spent on, I just show the students the answer or look at their answers. I say this is right, and this is wrong. (T3)

Nine of the respondents also referred to adopting “sandwich feedback” ($f=9$). Wang et al. (2017) define this type of feedback as a pattern of “praise-criticism-suggestion,” which is quite similar to Molloy’s (2010) definition in which negative comments are embedded between positive comments. To illustrate the first definition, a related comment is as follows:

If they did a good thing, first of all, I would say thanks for your effort. That is how I make an entry to motivate the child. Below, I sequence my comments regarding our expectations in the rubric one by one as well as the things I have explained in the lessons. Of course, this is not only to criticize the child; for example, I remark, “You did this very well; keep up the excellent work, or you did this well, but if you do this, it will improve more.” I clearly explain their strengths and deficiencies so that it will be much better next time. (T15)

In addition to that, for the latter definition, T13 exemplified by stating, “*I usually use the sandwich method while providing written feedback, sequencing my ideas as positive, negative, and then positive. So, in this way, I like to focus not only on the weaknesses but also on the strengths*” (T13).

Nine of the participants pointed to “constructive feedback,” directing students for future improvement by offering ways to improve the current performance quality by precisely defining its strong aspects ($f=9$). Moreover, it serves to expand students’ existing knowledge by establishing a relationship between the knowledge they already have and newly encountered information to expand their schemata. In relation to the former aspect of constructive feedback, T1 said:

I clearly tell a faultless student what is good or what I especially like in their response. For example, “I love the use of perfect tenses” because I think it is much more helpful than saying, “I love this paragraph.” (T1)

For the latter point of view, T3 articulated, “*When a student states their opinion in discussions, I ask some sort of follow-up questions. For example, “What do you think it has to do with this topic we learned or discussed earlier? Can you relate this to this?”*” (T3).

Eight interviewees mentioned “error flagging,” feedback pointing to mistakes without giving the correct answer, only highlighting the erroneous part (Shute, 2008). As a related example, T5 stated, “*On the papers of children who are native-like, sometimes it is enough just to underline the mistake and help them notice it*” (T5). Similarly, T9 indicated, “*For higher-level students, for example,*

if there is a mistake in their paper, but I guess they will find it themselves, I simply underline it” (T9).

Apart from those, six of the participants raised “direct feedback,” which is defined by Lee (2008a) as providing the correct answer to the learners ($f=6$). To elaborate on it, seeing the corrections, the students simply revise their responses to transcribe them into the corrected version, which is already provided by the teacher. These participants stressed the word “direct” in their responses about feedback types. To give an example, T4 articulated:

Since I newly met with the students, I tended to make my initial feedback information more direct. That is, by identifying the students' mistakes, highlighting them with a coloured pencil on the writing, and writing the corrected versions next to them. (T4)

Another example to illustrate it is the following:

Sometimes, I think children can integrate fancier words we have covered in our lessons in their written products, and if these children are academically weak, I say directly that they could use these words I have written here in this story; try to use them. (T8)

Five respondents touched upon “topic contingent,” in which participants are offered with contingent information on the target topic, such as being retaught it (Shute, 2008). As an example, T8 expressed themselves:

If the child progresses slowly and has specific unfulfilled objectives, I do not underline their mistakes and put a tense sign. Yet, I make a detailed explanation. For example, “There is a specific time here. Which tense should we use? We need to use simple past.” Sometimes I write an example sentence for a vocabulary item, too. (T8)

“Elicitation” was raised by four respondents as another feedback type ($f=4$). Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggest elicitation occurs in various ways, such as teachers’ pausing their utterances intentionally and asking students to complete the rest, teachers’ directing questions to elicit the correct forms from the students, and/or teachers’ requesting students to reformulate their responses.

These four interviewees referred to the second type of elicitation practice in which teachers pose questions to elicit the correct responses from the students. T7 exemplified it, stating, *“I write the mistakes on the board. Without revealing the students’ identities, I indicate there are problems there, ask questions about how they can be fixed and get the students to fix the ill-formed sentences through the right questions”* (T7).

Four respondents pointed out “providing sources” ($f=4$). This type of feedback urges students to discover information or more information on their own with the help of teachers’ suggested reference points or sources. As an example, T8 specified:

For example, even if the child receives feedback in listening, they must do additional listening independently because what we do in the classroom alone is not enough. That is why I always tell them to have English in their lives as much as possible. Doing homework alone is not enough. Therefore, I share extra links and materials that children can listen to extensively, or I strive to make recommendations for movies and TV series. (T8)

Three interviewees brought up “recasts,” ($f=3$) which is defined as teachers’ reformulation of students’ responses with a change, either by correcting the error or repeating with change and emphasis on the ill-formed part (Shute, 2008). T14 shared a relevant example on it:

When the child utters the sentence, I formulate the correct sentence instead of saying that this sentence is not like this, or this is wrong. For example, when the kid says, “I go there yesterday,” I respond, “Hmm, you went there yesterday.” (T14)

Two respondents referred to “informative tutoring” ($f=2$). According to Shute (2008), this feedback includes verification feedback, error flagging, strategic hints, and ways to proceed, and the correct answer is not revealed by the feedback provider most of the time. T11 exemplified this as follows:

Since these errors are usually repetitive, I correct the first error; I put arrows in the second error pointing to the first correction I have made. In the third

mistake, I put codes there, i.e., the wrong tense, and lastly, I only underline them towards the end. (T11)

Another two participants pointed to “response contingent” ($f=2$). This feedback type requires the feedback providers to elaborate on why either a correct response or incorrect response works that way rather than eliciting from the students (Shute, 2008). T15 provided a related example to this, *“For example, grammar has clear lines. This time, after receiving the answers from the students, I comment on them. Your answer is false for these reasons or valid due to these reasons”* (T15).

One of the least reported feedback types is “intonation change/emphasis” by one of the respondents ($f=1$). This feedback type requires teachers to modify their intonation or put emphasis on their utterances to grab students’ attention to the erroneous part of their responses. The relevant example is, *“Sometimes there are instances for immediate feedback. While providing spoken feedback, we correct or emphasize when speaking. We use our voice”* (T1).

Lastly, “try again” came up by being uttered by one participant ($f=1$). Shute (2008) expresses this feedback suggests “repeat until correct.” The feedback provider articulates that the response is incorrect and asks students to make more attempts until coming up with the correct answer. T13 exemplified this with the following:

For example, I tell the student that they have a mistake about their word or their sentence, and I wait. In fact, their friends are helping out there, too. I only say it is wrong, and they get help from their friends until they find the correct answer. (T13)

4.2.1.3 Employed Feedback Practices on Receptive Skills

The seventh theme appeared under the title of employed feedback practices on receptive skills, in other words, listening and reading. The interviewees were asked to describe their feedback practices for each skill separately and based on

what they have articulated referring to each, the codes and frequencies to reveal the similarities and differences between them are demonstrated in Table 4.17.

Considering the respondents' descriptions for each skill separately, one of the prominent codes was that while seven participants referred to listening as "the least feedback-provided skill" ($f=7$), six participants pointed out that reading is a "frequently feedback-provided skill" ($f=6$). To illustrate, with regard to listening, T6 confessed, *"To be honest, my weakest point in feedback is probably the listening skill. I do not even remember providing much feedback to listening"* (T6). To compare it to the reading, T3 remarked:

In general, reading is actually a skill that we provide feedback on more often than listening because the students are constantly reading something. They are reading books on our online platform or constantly reading something in the classroom. I can say that there is more of a feedback process in this skill. (T3)

Besides, regarding the frequency of feedback practices employed for each, one respondent pointed out that they provide listening feedback once a week within formative assessment ($f=1$), and three participants said that listening feedback occurs twice a month formatively ($f=3$). However, when it comes to reading, it seems to be more frequent because three participants claimed that they deliver reading feedback twice a week formatively ($f=3$); two of them said reading feedback occurs once in two weeks ($f=2$), and two of them articulated that occurs once in three-four weeks within formative assessment ($f=2$).

Another difference between the two receptive skills emerged in terms of the amount of feedback. One respondent claimed that students are not delivered detailed feedback in listening ($f=1$), whereas another respondent contended students receive detailed feedback in reading ($f=1$). Concerning feedback types implemented for each, the participants stressed more frequent use of explicit correction ($f=8$) and verification ($f=7$) in listening skill. For example, at this point, T12 explained:

Table 4. 17*Frequencies for Employed Feedback Practices on Receptive Skills*

Employed Feedback Practices	<i>f</i>
Listening	
the least feedback-provided skill	7
once in a week formatively	1
twice in a month formatively	3
not detailed feedback	1
explicit correction	8
verification	7
elaborated feedback	5
providing sources	4
hints/prompts/cues	2
peer feedback	1
whole-class feedback	10
individual feedback	5
oral feedback	3
Reading	
frequently feedback-provided skill	6
twice in a week formatively	3
once in two weeks formatively	2
once in 3-4 weeks formatively	2
detailed feedback	1
elaborated feedback	6
hints/prompts/cues	3
explicit correction	3
verification	1
peer feedback	1
whole-class feedback	11
individual feedback	9
written feedback	2

Note. n_{total}=15

Since there is only one correct answer in listening, there is no other method other than error correction because if I hear something wrong while listening, the way to correct it is to tell the correct answer. I think there is not much else other than error correction. (T12)

In addition, five participants asserted that they implement elaborated feedback ($f=5$), and four participants highlighted the importance of providing sources in listening skills ($f=4$). To elaborate on providing sources, T14 exemplified:

I provide some sources for listening. I say it would be better if you studied from here because the chance to improve each child individually for listening skills is only possible with the resources we suggest. I say that this is your area of improvement based on this score. Put listening in your study plan. You can use these websites. You can go to these links. Then I ask them to send me their work to review it together. (T14)

Less frequently employed feedback types in listening came up as hints/prompts/cues reported by two participants ($f=2$) and peer feedback ($f=1$).

When it comes to reading in terms of feedback practices, the most employed feedback type appeared as elaborated feedback reported by six respondents ($f=6$). To explain the reason behind this, T6 articulated:

While going over the answers in Reading, I definitely ask the students to give justifications because, in our reading questions, there are too many expressions such as support your answer by giving evidence from the text. So, they need to practice this a lot. (T6)

The other feedback types implemented in reading skill were reported as hints/prompts/cues ($f=3$), explicit correction ($f=3$), verification ($f=1$), and peer feedback ($f=1$). As to the mode of delivery, in both skills, whole class feedback and individual feedback play a huge role based on the participants' responses. However, while oral feedback was noted to be employed in listening ($f=3$), it was not particularly touched upon in reading. Instead, written feedback was told to be used in reading feedback practices ($f=2$).

4.2.1.4 Employed Feedback Practices on Productive Skills

The last theme came up under the title of employed feedback practices on productive skills, namely speaking and writing. The participants were asked to describe their feedback practices for each skill separately, and upon what they have expressed, the codes and frequencies to demonstrate the similarities and differences between them are displayed in Table 4.18.

Based on participants' descriptions of their practices for each productive skill, one of the most prominent differences reported by two participants was that speaking is a skill on which feedback is provided less ($f=2$). To give an example, T12 mentioned:

Speaking is generally the least evaluated one among all skills because evaluating speaking is not practical in terms of time compared to the other skills. While you can jot down some notes on paper and examine the other skills, you need to deliver feedback on speaking on the spot. That is why it is harder to deliver feedback. (T12)

On the other hand, four respondents referred to writing as a frequently feedback-provided skill ($f=4$). For instance, T3 expressed themselves:

Feedback on writing skills is done frequently because even if we deal with another skill, there is still a production after them to do with writing, and we provide feedback to all of them. Apart from this, the students have activities or assignments that they write under the name of writing assignment. In other words, I can say that feedback is more frequent for writing skills. (T3)

The common point in speaking and writing was noted to be the importance of rubric usage: In speaking, seven respondents ($f=7$) stressed it, and in writing, three respondents ($f=3$) pointed out its significance to base students' performances upon.

Apart from them, as peculiar to speaking skills, more than half of the participants emphasised the importance of teachers' note-taking while listening to students' speaking performances ($f=9$). For example, T2 stated:

As teachers, we need to attribute great importance to the teacher's taking notes for speaking. If the children make any mistakes, the teachers should take a look at the rubric. For example, if the student forms a perfect sentence or uses an excellent vocabulary, they need to jot them down. I think it is vital to do so during the feedback process to motivate the child while delivering the feedback. (T2)

Table 4. 18*Frequencies for Employed Feedback Practices on Productive Skills*

Employed Feedback Practices	<i>f</i>
Speaking	
less feedback provided skill	2
rubric usage	7
teacher's note-taking	9
dialogue/interview/role play/discussion	2
audio recordings outside class	1
in every lesson formatively	2
once in 2-3 weeks formatively	3
explicit correction	5
peer feedback	4
elaborated feedback	3
hints/prompts/cues	3
verification	2
recasts	2
individual feedback	10
oral feedback	7
whole-class feedback	7
written feedback	7
online feedback	1
Writing	
frequently feedback-provided skill	4
rubric usage	3
once in a week formatively	3
once in 3-4 weeks formatively	2
not detailed feedback on the exam paper	7
metalinguistic	12
explicit correction	6
peer feedback	6
self-feedback	3
hints/prompts/cues	3
elaborated feedback	1
individual feedback	11
whole-class feedback	6
written feedback	7
oral feedback	2
online feedback	1

Note. n_{total}=15

Another distinctive feature of speaking skills was in-class practices to provide feedback, such as dialogues, interviews, role plays, and discussions raised by two respondents ($f=2$). Besides, as outside class practice, students' audio recordings to be provided feedback was mentioned by one respondent ($f=1$).

Concerning the frequency of speaking feedback, while two respondents reported that speaking feedback occurs once in two to three weeks formatively ($f=2$), two respondents said it happens in every lesson ($f=2$). When it comes to writing, while three participants noted they provide feedback once a week within formative assessment ($f=3$), two reported that feedback is delivered to writing skills once in three to four weeks. A frequency discrepancy in teachers' reports is possible to notice in both skills.

With regard to summative assessment practices for writing, almost half of the respondents indicated that they do not write detailed feedback on the exam paper ($f=7$). At this point, T10 indicated, "*In the writing exam, only the sentences are underlined; there are no comments or corrections*" (T10).

As to the feedback types implemented, explicit correction and hints/prompts/cues seem to play an important role in both productive skills. Apart from them, in speaking, four participants mentioned they employ peer feedback ($f=4$), and three participants pointed to elaborated feedback ($f=3$), which are also noted in writing. In writing, six respondents touched upon peer feedback ($f=6$), and one of them referred to elaborated feedback ($f=1$). Speaking diverges from writing in that two respondents emphasised they employ verification in speaking feedback ($f=2$), and the same number of respondents pointed to recasts in speaking skills ($f=2$). What differentiates writing feedback from speaking is that almost all the participants referred to metalinguistic feedback implemented in this skill ($f=12$), and three respondents also raised self-feedback ($f=3$).

Concerning the mode of delivery in productive skills, some similarities have been noticed. To elaborate on it, ten participants noted they provide individual feedback in speaking ($f=10$), and in writing, eleven respondents reported so ($f=11$). Very similarly, for speaking, seven participants said they deliver whole class feedback ($f=7$), and six respondents noted so for writing ($f=6$). The exact number of respondents in both skills told that they employ written feedback in these skills particularly ($f=7$), and also online feedback was raised for each skill by the same number of respondents ($f=1$). The mere difference was noticed in the use of oral feedback on productive skills. Even though seven participants stated they employ oral feedback for speaking ($f=7$), two participants reported so for writing ($f=2$).

4.2.2 Suggested Practices

English language teachers' suggestions regarding feedback practices in English language teaching were examined under three themes: school-related, assessment/feedback-related, and pre-service education-related suggested practices.

4.2.2.1 School-Related Suggested Practices

Based on what the participants proposed in close relation to school to enhance feedback practices in English language teaching, eight codes were examined under this theme: in-service training, lowering workload, more collaboration with colleagues, training students for feedback practices, clear expectations/regulations, feedback-rich school culture, providing teachers with office hours, and lastly, lowering student numbers allocated for each teacher, as it can be seen in Table 4.19.

The initial code that came up under this theme was “in-service training,” highlighted by the majority of the respondents ($f=11$). These participants held the opinion that teachers must be offered with more in-service opportunities, such as

orientations, seminars, webinars, and workshops by the institution they are working at. T6 exemplified this matter:

If a teacher works in an institution like ours, if such a detailed feedback process is expected, then the new teachers should definitely be given detailed information and training about this feedback process. Moreover, the teachers at the school should be reminded of the importance of feedback, the desired feedback techniques, or the types that should be used. Also, all the criteria and checklists should be explained well. (T6)

In the same vein, T8 expressed themselves:

As an institution with so many goals and aims to develop its teachers professionally, we always get feedback on our weaknesses and strengths in our instruction, which is very nice. But for example, I am a graduate of English Language and Literature, and I am dealing with feedback by observing the children, with a little more trial and error method, and through experience. But when we talk about feedback, I do not know the term names. Yes, maybe I do apply them, but how can I make it more effective? Or what is the psychological dimension of feedback? Hence, I think a seminar must definitely be organized on this subject by the institution. (T8)

Table 4. 19

Frequencies for School-Related Suggested Practices

Suggested Practices	<i>f</i>
in-service training	11
lowering workload	5
more collaboration with colleagues	4
training students for feedback practices	3
clear expectations/regulations	3
feedback-rich school culture	2
providing teachers with office hours	1
lowering student numbers allocated for each teacher	1

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

Another code that was brought up under this theme was “lowering workload,” noted by five participants ($f=5$). What these teachers proposed was that teachers’ extra duties must be lessened so that they can find more time to deliver richer and more effective feedback.

For example, I have witnessed this a lot. I arrange a meeting with a student, saying I need to meet them during their physical education class to deliver feedback. I also inform the head of the department and the assistant principal about it. But suddenly, I receive an e-mail regarding a class I need to substitute in that lesson period. I have experienced this a lot. I try to set things up on my own; since I know that ten minutes will not be enough for that student, I must allocate forty minutes, but it does not work out that way due to these things. Therefore, they need to reduce our workload. (T15)

The third code emerged under school-related suggested practices was “more collaboration with colleagues,” articulated by four respondents ($f=4$). The interviewees underlined colleagues must collaborate more under formative and summative assessment practices to ensure consistency. An excerpt illustrating this suggestion is as follows:

Most of the time, the problem we experience is that it is challenging to standardize ourselves while writing feedback, but it is more challenging to do this within an institution. For example, we teach students how to write a short story. Everyone’s expectations are different. Here, I think we need to do peer feedback with our colleagues. I do not know how my other 8th-grade friends provide feedback on short stories. So maybe they are implementing something straightforward that I have a hard time with. For this reason, I think the school can create environments where people can contribute to each other. (T11)

Three of the participants drew attention to “training students for feedback practices” ($f=3$). The idea behind that was feedback must be introduced to the students at a younger age by strongly underlining its importance, and they need to be trained in feedback practices. For example, T5 remarked on this matter:

I think students should be trained for feedback. So, most students cannot realize how feedback processes should be managed at ease, especially in low age groups at low levels. Therefore, they need to understand how we give them some feedback, what their needs are, and why it is given. After that time, they will probably act a little more aware. In fact, even as teachers, feedback is something that we deal with unconsciously, but I think every student should be mindful of this. (T5)

The exact number of participants pointed at “clear expectations/regulations” ($f=3$). These participants stressed that schools must hold clear expectations and certain policies or approaches to feedback practices so that they can be implemented more effectively. On this issue, T9 highlighted:

Institutional expectations could be a little clearer. The expectations about what kind of feedback is expected are not distinct, in my opinion. Its type and method are also not always clear and practical either. Sometimes the expectation is out of or above the practice. Or it may be at a point where we surpass the benefit, apart from what it provides. So maybe that evaluation can be done a little better, and it can be standard. In other words, there would be a particular organization throughout the institution. For example, the institution must precisely state we want it this way. This is how we provide feedback; this is how this school is. And this should apply to everyone. There can be such clarity as it will apply to all branches. (T9)

“Feedback-rich school culture” was another suggestion made by two interviewees ($f=2$). Each participant supported this idea from a distinctive perspective. The first participants emphasised that feedback should not be regarded as negative criticism and must occur frankly between every part of the institution, including teachers and administrators. To elaborate on it more, the relevant example is as follows:

Institutions should not forget to bring up the good things. Moreover, since there is a culture of turning to a more negative attitude when it comes to criticism in the Turkish society, it reflects the same way in institutions as well. However, for example, I think that if a policy of openness to criticism can be established between teachers and administrators within the institution to bring the good to the fore, share and improve each other in the institution's policy, it will automatically reflect on the lessons without the need for training. As people will have awareness, it will turn into a behaviour. Therefore, the teachers will automatically be the models in the classroom environment. I believe this is the best method. (T7)

From another point of view, T15 touched upon the significance of standardization at institutions as to feedback practices and participation of each party to enrich those practices. To be more precise, T15 uttered:

For example, peer feedback is something that should be in school culture. If the school implements this culture in all courses, a culture will develop in the student as well. Unfortunately, I try to implement that culture only as much as I have learned in the training and seminars I attended. In fact, it would be perfect if this spread to school culture, if such activities were carried out in all lessons, and if the importance of feedback, both in education and personal development, was emphasized. For example, I had the chance to observe the positive effect of peer feedback on reducing bullying or sustaining empathy in schools in Europe. Therefore, a feedback culture that can be applied on behalf of all branches should be established. (T15)

One of the least noted school-related practices came up as “providing teachers with office hours” ($f=1$). This respondent held the idea that teachers must be offered office hours to reach out to students more efficiently and contact them in a more peaceful way. The representative comment included:

I think something like this would be nice. You know, there are office hours in universities for professors. If only we had time like that, and our program was adapted accordingly so that we could do individual feedback studies with the student in that time period. I think it would be much more effective. (T10)

The last code that came up under school-related practices was “lowering student numbers allocated for each teacher” ($f=1$). The participant asserted that effective feedback practices could be employed as long as teachers can address each individual student; therefore, student numbers allocated for each teacher must be lower. To be more exact, T6 put forward:

We cannot reduce the frequency of feedback because it is essential to students. Then since we cannot do this, we will reduce the number of students so that the number of students for whom the teacher is responsible is less, and they can provide feedback as often as they want, more precisely, and in the quality they desire. (T6)

4.2.2.2 Assessment/Feedback-Related Suggested Practices

The second theme under suggested practices emerged as assessment/feedback-related practices. The participants touched upon what might be done concerning these to enhance their feedback practices in English language teaching. This theme was examined under four codes: a system/an app, simplifying criteria for students to understand, more frequent testing, and finally, project-based learning with fewer/no testing, respectively (Table 4.20).

Table 4. 20

Frequencies for Assessment/Feedback-Related Suggested Practices

Suggested Practices	<i>f</i>
a system/an app	3
simplifying criteria for students to understand	1
more frequent testing	1
project-based learning with fewer/no testing	1

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

To begin with, three participants brought up “a system/an app” which is user-friendly for teachers to provide feedback with ease and grab students’ attention more ($f=3$). To illustrate, T14 articulated:

To make it more fun, I would like the feedback delivered by the teacher to be done, for example, via software. It is because students are individuals keen on games, and we are now in the digital age. Children are much more knowledgeable about that digital stuff than us. Therefore, I wonder how we could set up more fun, different, and more user-friendly digital program for the teacher in a game in such a system without the students realizing that it is feedback. I mean, by offering them that digital resource. Feedback is something you must speak in the student’s language, and it is crucial for their progress. (T14)

The second code, “simplifying criteria for students to understand,” was put forward by one respondent ($f=1$). The participant pointed out that the criteria/the rubrics utilized may be simplified to ensure students’ understanding of the expectations. Upon this, the related excerpt is:

For example, I show the children a paper under the title of “speaking criteria.” The child does not understand half of what is written there—especially low-level children. Maybe they can be edited through an arrangement that will appeal to the students and enable them to understand. (T3)

Another suggested practice appeared under the code “more frequent testing” by one interviewee ($f=1$). The idea behind it is that rather than accumulating a plethora of topics to administer exams, testing must be done more frequently to

provide feedback in time when students have fresh knowledge of the target topics. Regarding this, T11 commented as follows:

We accumulate the topics and evaluate them at the end. Then, we report to the student that they succeeded here but failed here. Therefore, instead of accumulating and evaluating subjects in this way, I find instant, on-spot evaluations more appropriate. I think the exams and evaluation processes should be nothing very different from in-class work, so I would increase their frequency and decrease their content because it is impossible to administer a test and put all the skills in it and deliver feedback to all of them simultaneously. We think we are giving feedback. However, students receive feedback where they focus and already seek feedback. So, it does not actually achieve its purpose. Our assessments are actually feedback to the student, but I think we cannot achieve this goal because of these reasons. That is why it makes more sense for me to increase the frequency, reduce the content and provide more frequent and more immediate feedback. (T11)

As opposed to the idea of more frequent testing, another respondent proposed “project-based learning with fewer/no testing ($f=1$). The participant suggested more of a learning opportunity through hands-on and project-based activities less requiring or free of testing. At this point, T14 shared their opinion:

Of course, we will evaluate; we will deliver feedback. We will consider how far the child has progressed, but not in the name of an exam, not something on a report card. The child feels stigmatized because they cannot reflect on their actual performance. Actually, we do not convey such a message, but after all, we have a meeting with the parents over their grades, as if the only thing we need to focus on is the things they write at that moment. As if we measured their knowledge there, they did not answer, and they did not know. Because it is our data, after all. So, I would reduce or remove that number of testing. I would go with a more project-based way. Frankly, I would like more of a setting where students can demonstrate their performance and conduct teamwork, free of the exams. Why they are not autonomous is that, I think, they get prepared for the exam. They start studying two days prior to it. They quit and forget everything they have studied that very night when the exams are over. (T14)

4.2.2.3. Pre-service Education-Related Suggested Practices

Pre-service education-related suggested practices came up as the third theme under suggested practices. To boost the quality and effectiveness of feedback practices in English language teaching, the participants proposed several activities and practices that might be employed during pre-service education with

the aim of preparing prospective English language teachers to be fully equipped and ready for feedback practices in in-service. This theme was analysed under five codes: internship period, detailed/feedback-specific course offered, focusing on each four skills, modelling, and through real-life examples, respectively. The codes are shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4. 21

Frequencies for Pre-service Education-Related Suggested Practices

Suggested Practices	<i>f</i>
internship period	6
detailed/feedback-specific course offered	4
focusing on each four skills	2
modelling	2
through real-life examples	2

Note. $n_{total}=15$

To begin with, almost half of the participants suggested some activities and practices be implemented during the “internship period” ($f=6$). What they proposed was that pre-service English language teachers must be involved in feedback processes, and the internship period constitutes an appropriate opportunity to fulfil that. This period must be enriched through observations while their mentor teachers are delivering feedback or letting the interns provide feedback to get acquainted with feedback processes. On this matter, T10 expressed their experiences and suggestions:

In my opinion, the internship period is the part where a teacher candidate will do the best practice during their undergraduate education, and so I think that the mentors should definitely support them in terms of the feedback. I personally have not experienced anything like that. It was something changing depending on the mentor. For example, I had friends who evaluated an exam paper or a worksheet because their mentors asked for it. However, neither of my mentors made such a request to me, and I did not have such an experience. Therefore, I think that this should be officially included in the process at universities. Because theoretical knowledge helps us to a certain extent in teaching. In addition to theory, feedback must be supported by practice in the internship period. (T10).

In the same vein, another excerpt read:

I definitely think that internship periods can be spent a little more effectively on feedback. It would be great to take this issue more seriously during the internship. For example, if I had given feedback when I was a senior at the university, if I had been involved in these things a little, I would have felt much more comfortable and ready when I first started teaching three years ago, and even now. I provided feedback for the first time when I started working. (T12)

Four of the respondents suggested a “detailed/feedback specific course offered” ($f=4$). All four participants stressed the necessity for a more detailed education on feedback during pre-service, which could be achieved through a feedback-specific course instead of embedding theoretical information concerning feedback into methodology courses. To illustrate, T5 expressed themselves:

When I think about my pre-service, my undergraduate education, I think we progressed a little more theory-based. I think the feedback we could deliver according to the questions that might come up in real classrooms should have been discussed more concretely. Our instructors could have done this in undergraduate education. I think it might not need to be a course covering the whole year, but it could have been a course that would cover at least one semester because feedback is something that requires a lot of communication. The adequacy of the teacher is actually an issue that needs to be questioned at this point, and I think that its education should be offered in detail in pre-service education. (T5)

The third code emerged as “focusing on each four skills,” uttered by two interviewees ($f=2$). What they conveyed was that feedback practices fitting more for each different skill must be covered in detail during pre-service education. To give an example, T6 asserted that *“There is also a need for focusing on four skills. Because each skill requires various types of feedback and techniques. They should teach us those and enable us to practice them in pre-service”* (T6).

Two participants suggested, “modelling” ($f=2$). They pointed out that instructors at pre-service must constitute models to pre-service teachers through employing effective feedback practices in their own instruction. The related examples are presented below:

I do not remember much about the theory, but after the feedback provided by the instructor in the research lesson and the way I used it to improve my own work, I had a better idea about how to do it. Therefore, rather than teaching feedback as a separate course at the undergraduate level, the way each academician delivers feedback in each subject should be at the expected and desired level of feedback delivery so that prospective teachers can reflect it on the teaching profession by taking their own teachers as role models. (T7)

I rarely remember even giving feedback to each other during pre-service. For example, peer review is something we use a lot. We used to do many production activities when we were at university, but I do not remember that we did peer reviews and provided feedback to each other. You know, they had to get us used to them first so that we could transfer this knowledge to our students and use it effectively. I will give an example from the first year again. When they told me I needed to do peer feedback activities, I did not precisely understand what to do or did not know how to use peer review. The students completed it somehow with a checklist, but I then stood still, not knowing what to do next. (T6)

The last code brought up by two interviewees was “through real-life examples” ($f=2$). They implied the necessity for being offered opportunities to provide feedback on real-life examples of students’ responses in their undergraduate courses. The illustrative excerpt is:

Examples must be examined. There is a lot of theory about how to provide feedback during pre-service. Therefore, the practical part of it must be concentrated more. You know, when we say real-life experiences, here is a chance to focus on feedback through examples. First, how to write feedback on a response or product and then how to provide feedback on the given feedback can be studied with the help of these real-life examples. (T11)

4.3 Teacher Competencies under the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework

This section presents the findings for the third and the last research question in relation to the teacher competencies of the middle school English language teachers within the scope of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework. Teacher feedback literacy is defined as the knowledge, expertise, and dispositions to be able to design feedback practices and processes that facilitate students’ uptake of feedback and the development of student feedback literacy (Carless & Boud, 2020). A few teacher feedback literacy frameworks have been proposed so far; however, to answer the third research question in this

research study at hand, an empirically derived competency framework developed by Boud and Dawson (2021) was adopted. This framework is essentially a generative framework comprising three competency levels as *macro*, *meso*, and *micro* competencies. As a consequence of conducting both deductive and inductive content analysis by taking this framework as a base, the findings have been displayed in three category levels: macro competencies, meso competencies, and lastly micro competencies.

4.3.1 Macro Competencies

The first category level, macro competencies, basically refers to programme design and development (Boud & Dawson, 2021). The data that emerged under this category level were separated into six themes after deductive and inductive content analysis: creating feedback environments, planning feedback strategically, coordinating colleagues, developing student feedback literacy, managing feedback pressures, and improving feedback processes (Table 4.22).

The first theme, “creating feedback environments,” comprised two codes: making processes familiar and creating a positive feedback environment. To begin with, “making processes familiar/modelling” was brought up by more than half of the respondents ($f=10$). These interviewees asserted that students must be allowed to get familiar with feedback practices through modelling or showing criteria and checklists to the students. For example, T14 put her ideas and action into words as follows:

I attach tremendous importance to introducing the criteria to the children for writing. But I’m not talking about giving a self-checklist saying, guys, these are the criteria you will be evaluated with. At the very beginning of the feedback process, I feel the urge to explain these criteria and what they serve. For example, what does it mean to use linkers in this criterion, or what does it mean for sentences to be in harmony? There is this criterion, but the child does not know what that criterion is. Therefore, children should be introduced to all these, such as content and organization, and learn about language use. (T14)

Table 4. 22*Frequencies for Macro Competencies*

Macro competencies	<i>f</i>
Creating feedback environments	
Making processes familiar/modelling	10
Creating a positive feedback environment	9
Planning feedback strategically	
Developing strategies involving students	12
Being responsive to change	9
Inclusive feedback for all students	8
Coordinating colleagues	
Working with teams for consistency	11
Sharing feedback practices	2
Developing student feedback literacy	
Making judgements of self/other's work	12
Helping students manage affect	11
Explaining feedback to students and their roles in it	8
Mobilizing students for multiple feedback roles	8
Promoting feedback as something useful in the world	2
Managing feedback pressures	
Leaving teacher time for other feedback	6
Using class time	5
Improving feedback processes	
Collecting evidence about the effectiveness of feedback	4
Utilizing collected evidence from the students	3

Note. $n_{\text{total}}=15$

On the same matter, T6 exemplified what they implement as follows:

If I am giving feedback with codes, first of all, I need to make sure that the children know those codes very well. For this, I am doing a lesson on codes beforehand. So, I explain which code means what, and I give a few examples for each code. For example, here, I have underlined and written tense. How can we fix this? or I have written spelling here. What error is there here? I go over all of them with examples. At the same time, I make sure that the codes are always available on the clipboard in the classroom because sometimes I want the students to make corrections in the classroom right after distributing their papers back. Therefore, there is one error code document in their files and one in the classroom. (T6)

The second code appeared as “creating a positive feedback environment,” mentioned by nine participants ($f=9$). What is meant by this was creating

classroom environments whereby feedback is likely to occur, and feedback practices are commonplace as a natural consequence of a helpful and collaborative classroom atmosphere where students do not hesitate to be participative. For example, T1 underlined what necessitates them to create a positive environment by stating:

Before I start providing feedback, I first establish a family atmosphere in a classroom. Because I believe that in order for the feedback process to work one hundred percent well, students should not be afraid of each other in the classroom; instead, they should be able to talk comfortably and express their shortcomings to each other frankly. (T1)

At this point, T4 also exemplified how creating collaborative classroom environments can contribute feedback to become commonplace as follows:

For example, after the oral presentations, there was no time left. We could not do the “who said what to whom session” during that lesson. However, after the lesson, I saw that the students were going to each other very enthusiastically. They were asking questions, “How was mine; how many points did you give me?” Also, sometimes, for example, there is a presentation, everyone gives their feedback, and we vote and choose the best presenter in the class. We organize such activities. I usually get positive feedback from them as well. In all three of my classes, the outstanding presenters were selected the last time. This can be an example of how this feedback process works correctly. (T4)

The second theme was “developing feedback strategically,” which was examined under three codes: developing strategies involving students, being responsive to change, and inclusive feedback for all students. Initially, almost all participants pointed to developing strategies involving students ($f=12$). These respondents touched upon designing feedback activities and practices through strategies planning to ensure student participation to an enormous extent, and whereby students are given an active role as feedback providers as well instead of being solely recipients. T14 presented an example of how they come up with some strategies to ensure student participation and active involvement:

After an individual or a group work, I distribute a peer-check to all of them. Then they provide written or verbal feedback to peers. However, sometimes, some children are afraid of being criticized. Therefore, I let them do a gallery

walk. They hang their products on the walls. I ask them not to write their names but write what the strengths and weaknesses are in their friends' works. With coloured pencils, they write on them, wandering around. In this way, you give the children the freedom to choose this; some say they do not want to give feedback to their pair. The fact that they are adolescents puts some pressure on you as a teacher. They say I am cross with that peer. That prevents them from providing constructive feedback or finding the faults in their peer's work. So, this way, I try to come up with a solution to prevent this quarrel from happening. (T14)

T11 also exemplified how they strategically plan to ensure student participation in feedback activities to maximize its effects. The related example is:

I do not think every student can learn from every student. Therefore, I arrange the seating plan for my students, considering who can contribute to each other. Then, I make them sit accordingly, and I try to put the child with substantial vocabulary knowledge and the child with strong grammar side by side so that they can work together and teach something to one another. One can provide vocabulary feedback to the other, while the other can provide feedback on their friend's grammar. Because giving feedback is a difficult thing, while it is difficult for students to receive it, and when it is challenging to provide feedback to a friend, I try to put together children with different strengths. (T11)

The second code, "being responsive to change," was exemplified by more than half of the participants ($f=9$). This competency is essentially required to take a strategic approach to feedback to be able to be responsive to change. The participants being responsive to change in feedback processes due to shifts to online or face-to-face constituted an example of this responsiveness. To illustrate, T8 shared their experiences in the online teaching period:

During online teaching last year, with 7th grades, I used to highlight the mistakes, and I was even using colour codes in my written feedback, such as colouring the grammar mistake with red or highlighting it with yellow if there is a vocabulary error. The students got used to the colour coding, too. (T8)

Another participant exemplified being responsive to mode of delivery shifts with the following excerpt:

We had been teaching online for two years. We are currently conducting face-to-face education. Therefore, how I conveyed the feedback to the children differed from time to time. For example, last year, I used voice recording and

texting a lot on the online platform we used while delivering feedback. But right now, I do not usually make use of audio feedback. This year, I talk to the students face to face during recess times and lunch breaks to comment on their mistakes in their writing papers, for example. (T10)

The third and the last code brought up under this theme was “inclusive feedback for all students.” Eight respondents pointed to feedback addressing all types of students equally and fairly ($f=8$). To give an example, T5 shared their dialogue with their students, implying they provide feedback to their students this way, “*What I always say to my students is that they are all different. I also need feedback from them so that I can deal with each of them individually and provide each with feedback*” (T5). Similarly, T13 uttered, “*As I said, I write long and comprehensive feedback for low achievers. There is a long written feedback process, but I actually do this for all students because we have to guide them all somehow*” (T13).

“Coordinating colleagues” was the third theme under macro competencies examined with two codes: working with teams for consistency and sharing feedback practices. Most of the interviewees mentioned the first code, “working with teams for consistency” ($f=11$). They underlined that they work with teams in feedback processes to pursue a consistent feedback experience for all students. For instance, T13 talked about they conduct first and second marking for accurate assessment and feedback information afterward. To be more precise, T13 uttered:

When I speak in terms of assessment during the feedback process, another teacher does the second marking after I do the first marking in writing. In terms of accuracy, there is a process of helping out. Sometimes, the other teacher can see something that we have missed. Actually, to ensure accurate assessment and correct feedback, I believe this is an effective solution when two teachers sit down and talk about it. I think this leads to a healthier feedback process. (T13)

Besides, T1 indicated, “*The feedback we provide after the exam is unfulfilled objective oriented. We generally operate this at school as a requirement of the system. I mean, this is not something I personally do*” (T1).

The second code under this theme was “sharing feedback practices.” Two respondents underlined they have been sharing successful practices with their colleagues to inspire and help them out through dialogues and peer observation ($f=2$). The related example is:

Feedback is a phenomenon we are constantly working on as we are aware of its importance. That is why we observe each other’s lectures and make peer observations. We are working on feedback processes, and we discover new things altogether. (T1)

The fourth theme under macro competencies was “developing student feedback literacy.” Student feedback literacy refers to learners’ seeking, producing, and utilizing feedback information and the development of capacities to make sound academic judgements (Carless & Boud, 2018; Molloy et al., 2020). Five codes were brought up under this theme: making judgements of self/others’ work, helping students manage affect, explaining feedback to students and their roles in it, mobilizing students for multiple feedback roles, and lastly, promoting feedback as something useful in the world. To begin with, most of the participants asserted that they help students build capacities to make plausible judgements of their work and their peer’s work ($f=12$). With the help of self and peer assessment activities, they can enlarge their evaluative capacities as time passes to be able to make more reasonable judgements (Carless & Boud, 2018). For instance, T8 illustrated how they strive to manage this:

For example, while a student is delivering a presentation, I assign a task to the other students. They write feedback about their peers. For example, I liked this aspect in this presentation because they did something like this; I would add something like that if it were me. So, I can see, at least, if the children are aware of what is going on. What did they like in their friend’s presentation, what did the presenter miss, or what were the presenter’s strengths? What would the others do if they were in their friend’s shoes? (T8)

Another excerpt read:

With the help of peer feedback, the student automatically provides feedback to themselves and their friend. While delivering feedback to their friend whose paper is being checked, they make some comments on their own work. For example, “Oh, I didn't write the title. I'll write time the next time.” “There is no, I think, in my opinion pattern in my thesis statement, or I did not put a setting in my short story, but my friend did.” They also notice some similarities, “My friend wrote the title the way I did.” (T15)

“Helping students manage affect” was the second code mentioned by more than half of the respondents ($f=11$). According to Carless and Boud (2018), feedback literate students keep up their emotional equilibrium and stay away from defensive reactions against critical feedback. These participants pointed to helping students build self-esteem by engaging with feedback and their ability to control their affect during feedback practices. To give an example:

Students having an outstanding English level sometimes perceive feedback negatively. They think they have not made a mistake or are not wrong there. Some others get upset when they receive feedback. There are students I have experienced this with, and these are generally successful students who do not tolerate mistakes and always think that they are doing the right thing. If students have a lot of success anxiety, you do not have good relationships when you correct them too much because the student already thinks that they are fine and don't need feedback. However, I always feel the urge to tell those students mistakes exist in every part of life. I always give myself an example. For instance, if a native-like teacher comes and listens to me, they will find ten mistakes. It is necessary to explain to them that making mistakes is a natural thing and part of the learning process. (T4)

In the same vein, T12 shared their ideas and experiences:

When I receive an adverse reaction from the students on the feedback, I definitely think it is essential to talk one-to-one. When such a situation occurs, I usually always talk to the student privately in case they may feel uncomfortable in front of their friends, and in fact, I say that this feedback is purely for their own good and development. As I said, instead of building barriers, I generally try to be as unifying and constructive as possible so that they can be happy. (T12)

When it comes to the third code, “explaining feedback to students and their roles in it” was addressed by eight respondents ($f=8$). What these participants pointed out was the necessity of explanation and expectation setting with students as to what feedback is, what the practices will be, and how to conduct them as well as

how actively they must play a role in these feedback processes rather than solely being recipients of feedback information. At this point, T5 put their opinions and experiences into words:

I can say that I do a little reminder before each peer feedback activity because the students forget what to do, and why to do it. I explain the necessity of doing it. I think children need to be taught why and how as they cannot be sure. They do not know why they should. It is like they are expecting feedback from the teacher all the time. (T5)

Moreover, T15 described their expectation setting process as follows:

In feedback processes, we need to explain it to the student in a good way. Because otherwise, the teacher will be rowing against the current, and we will not reach our goal. To reach a goal, the teacher and the student must set out on this path together. I always tell my students from the beginning that we need to solve problems together, that their autonomy is critical in this process, that parent involvement is the last step, and that there is no point in providing feedback on an assignment that was completed with the force of the parents. We make such an agreement from the very beginning. (T15)

The fourth code raised by the same number of interviewees was “mobilizing students for multiple feedback roles” ($f=8$). These participants indicated that they use students as feedback resources, enlisting them in self and peer feedback processes. T7 exemplified how they mobilize their students in self and peer feedback activities with the following words:

The first step is to make the student discover through the right questions by choosing the excellent, medium, and poor samples among all the products, asking what comments they deserve and their reasons. Then, it is much more helpful to have the students turn back and criticize themselves to see what they have done rather than the teacher’s underlining it. Then, by getting it done as pair work, if you say that they evaluate their pair’s work afterward, this also puts a responsibility on the students’ shoulders. (T7)

The last code under this theme came up as “promoting feedback as something useful in the world.” Two respondents claimed that they help their students build self-esteem by engaging in feedback by emphasising its significance in every aspect of life rather than solely for school subjects ($f=2$). The related example is:

I am trying to give the message that feedback is not a bad thing, but they will actually benefit from it, and that we are doing it for their own sake. In fact, they need feedback not only on school basis but also in the outside world. I am trying to convey that feedback is a life skill. (T5)

The fifth theme that came up under the macro competencies level was “managing feedback pressures,” analysed under two codes: leaving teacher time for other feedback and using class time. Six of the participants mentioned designing tasks including self or peer-correction on minor matters and leaving teacher time for more expert feedback based and built on students’ corrections ($f=6$). On this matter, T6 explained the process briefly, “*The students provide feedback to each other. According to that feedback, they make the necessary changes first. Then I collect the papers and provide feedback*” (T6).

The second code under the fifth theme was “using class time,” uttered by five of the interviewees ($f=5$). These participants pointed to using class time for some feedback activities to be able to manage the workload resulting from feedback delivery. One of the relevant examples is:

This year, for example, I have approximately 300 students. It can often be challenging to provide one-to-one feedback to all of them. That’s why I carry out whole class feedback or peer feedback in the classroom to lighten my workload. I know it is not nice to do, but they can also deliver positive feedback to their friends. (T2)

In addition to that, T13 also exemplified how they use class time with the following words:

Following my written feedback, I think that some students also need oral feedback. In that case, when there is such a situation, I ask those students to my side while other students are dealing with something else and provide oral feedback. (T13)

The fifth and the last theme under macro competencies appeared as “improving feedback processes,” which was examined under two codes: collecting evidence about the effectiveness of feedback and utilizing collected evidence from the students. Four interviewees acknowledged that they gathered evidence about the

effectiveness of feedback processes ($f=4$). These participants pointed to benefitting from student surveys questioning about feedback, such as exit tickets. For instance, T2 articulated their experiences, *“For example, at the end of the lesson, I asked how they found the process of providing feedback to each other with an exit ticket. They all said that everything was very positive and beneficial”* (T2).

The second code was “utilizing collected evidence from the students.” Three of the interviewees articulated that after collecting evidence about the effectiveness of the feedback processes or analysing students’ work samples, they make some adjustments and modifications in their own practices ($f=3$). To illustrate, T9 uttered:

When I see something negative or when they say they have not understood a point in their comments, I think more about that area or revise it. In that sense, it is formative to receive notifications from children. Or if they have evaluated themselves very wrongly in their self-assessment, it means that there is a problem in their self-perception. It also means that they actually did not even understand the evaluated area there. I make edits to the next practice accordingly or try to elaborate on what is required from them the next time. (T9)

4.3.2 Meso Competencies

The second category level, named meso competencies, essentially comprises competencies for course/unit design and implementation (Boud & Dawson, 2021). Conducting deductive and inductive content analysis, the data that appeared under this category were divided into nine themes: designing to intentionally prompt student action, utilizing technological aids to feedback, designing for feedback dialogues and cycles, constructing tasks accompanying feedback processes, designing feedback processes involving peers, maximizing effects of limited feedback opportunities, organizing timing/sequencing of feedback events, framing feedback to standards/criteria, and lastly, managing tensions between feedback and grading (Table 4.23).

The initial theme brought up under meso competencies was “designing to intentionally prompt student action,” which was categorised under three codes: developing individualized action plans based on exam results, designing activities for subsequent action, and persuading students. To begin with, eight respondents acknowledged that they prepare individualized action plans upon unfulfilled objectives grounded on summative assessment/grading and sustain feedback practices after it ($f=8$). At this point, T1 expressed themselves:

There are listening, grammar, vocabulary, and reading sections in the exam. Speaking is included in their performance grade. I always examine these skills after the exam, and I conduct extra studies based on students’ unfulfilled objectives one by one because, for example, the student is a student with perfect English, but there is still a problem in understanding what they hear while listening. Regardless, we need to be concentrating on this skill, and they should be getting feedback on it. (T1)

The second code, “designing activities for subsequent action,” was put forward by four respondents ($f=4$). All these participants referred to designing activities in a way that the students can incorporate the feedback information into their subsequent assignments or tasks. T8 exemplified this as follows:

For example, after writing in the first place, providing feedback to show weaknesses and strengths, we give a second writing assignment to complete the missing achievements. Or in speaking, for example, they deliver a presentation. After giving feedback, we expect them to improve these areas till the next time since there is actually a second speaking presentation or a second task. Or sometimes, when there are too many missing areas, we directly ask the child to do another task as individual work. We aim to make them aware of their real performance and see if they can make use of the feedback we have provided. (T8)

Table 4. 23*Frequencies for Meso Competencies*

Meso competencies	<i>f</i>
Designing to intentionally prompt student action	
Developing individualized action plans based on exam results	8
Designing activities for subsequent action	4
Persuading students	2
Utilising technological aids to feedback	
Using a Learning Management System	5
Deploying audio feedback	5
Designing for feedback dialogues and cycles	
Staging tasks to maximize effects of feedback	7
Using nested assessments	6
Prompting students to request feedback	2
Constructing tasks accompanying feedback processes	
Designing/using self-assessment tasks	10
Decisions made by teachers	4
Using exemplars to show the features of a good work	4
Using pre-prepared cohort-level comments	2
Designing feedback processes involving peers	
Implementing peer feedback	13
Reasons for not doing	
COVID-19	3
Time-consuming	2
Training students for peer feedback	
Explaining checklist/rubric	8
Modelling	5
Guiding them for constructive feedback	4
Using a simplified checklist/criteria	3
Using exemplars involving peers	3
Maximizing effects of limited feedback opportunities	
Holistic feedback	13
Targeted feedback	
Considering skills	10
Considering a pre-determined target	9
Organizing timing/sequencing of feedback events	
Providing feedback in time	14
Sequencing feedback events	1
Framing feedback to standards/criteria	
Criteria	12
Rubric	11
Checklist	8
Managing tensions between feedback and grading	
Student expectations	3
Formal requirements	2
Timing of exams	2
Inconsistency between feedback and exam	1
The role of the teacher as a grader vs. a mentor	1

“Persuading students” appeared as the third code under this theme. Two participants pointed to presenting persuasive rationales for the importance of student action in the feedback procedures. As an example, T7 expressed themselves:

Some students complain about feedback: Are we going to fix this again? Are we going to write the second draft? Convincing them is pretty effective, though. We need to tell them why they should do this. When the purpose of things, such as what will happen when they do it, what the result will be, and what will be gained, is explained to the students, and once they internalize it, everyone is generally happy. (T7)

The second theme, “utilising technological aids to feedback,” was examined under two codes: using a Learning Management System and deploying audio feedback. First of all, five participants addressed using a Learning Management System, Asist and MS Teams to deliver and access feedback information ($f=5$). T15 exemplified how they make use of MS Teams, stating:

Sometimes I tell the student to meet me on MS Teams at a predetermined time. I call them at that time, and by explaining the steps of the topic as we did in the classroom, I deliver oral feedback to the student on their written work. (T15)

T 15 also added with another anecdote:

We do not share some materials on Asist. I do not upload them there, but according to that child’s individual needs, I send extra practices through MS Teams because sometimes the student’s achievement level can be low than expected. For example, there was one last year. The student was in eighth grade but still confused about present continuous and present simple or past continuous and past simple. I am not able to constantly deal with this in the classroom because I have to comply with the class in general. Therefore, in order for this student to feel comfortable, I sent a lot of simple-level studies about their missing objectives via Teams, and sometimes I sent the answer key, sometimes in written form, sometimes by meeting with the student online, I conveyed their feedback. (T15)

Furthermore, the exact number of respondents affirmed that they have benefitted from audio feedback by attaching audio files, including feedback information on student responses or products ($f=5$). While four of them referred to the online

teaching to have used it, one participant mentioned they still use it, as it is also mentioned under the first research question-mode of delivery. For example, T10 indicated that *“Last year, I used audio recording and texting a lot to provide feedback via the online platform we used to conduct online lessons”* (T10).

“Designing for feedback dialogues and cycles” came up as the third theme. Three codes arose under this theme: staging tasks to maximize effects of feedback, using nested assessments, and prompting students to request feedback. To begin with, seven participants marked that they “stage tasks to maximize the effects of feedback” ($f=7$). To be more precise, they claimed to arrange and sequence tasks in a way that students can benefit from the feedback information at the ultimate level. To illustrate, for students to make the most of feedback, T1 stressed that some topics need to pile up for comprehensive feedback. They expressed themselves:

In every lesson, the students do not receive feedback on everything. Because I believe that it must take some time prior to students use of what they have learnt; for example, some topics need to accumulate, or students need to complete short productions before the comprehensive feedback. Speaking of oral feedback, it happens every minute, every second, but I think a little bit of experience is needed for feedback on a larger scale. (T1)

T13 exemplified how they sequence the tasks to enable their students to use the received feedback information in the upcoming task at the maximized level as follows:

If the two subjects are related to each other, for example, the past tense, after teaching tenses, we move on to story writing with the students and ask them to use the past tenses in story writing. Therefore, I wanted to collect and provide detailed feedback, especially in the grammar production part, that is, after teaching the past tenses. Because this was something that would definitely affect story writing. The feedback I delivered here would significantly affect their story writing. Hence, I collected their productions and gave feedback, particularly on grammar. (T13)

The second code under this theme was “using nested assessments,” uttered by six respondents ($f=6$). This refers to setting tasks split into parts, and all these

participants referred to commenting on drafts as the first draft and second draft of a writing task. T8 briefly mentioned this is a requirement of the institution, “*If it is a written task, a second draft is supposed to be written in our institution*” (T8). Similarly, T10 shared their experiences:

My students were preparing for the exam. According to the feedback I provided on the first drafts, I asked them to make sure they made necessary changes and wrote their second drafts so that they could study for the exam in this way more effectively. I also asked them to bring it afterward to go over it once again. (T10)

The third and the last code was “prompting to students to request feedback,” articulated by two participants ($f=2$). The participants noted that they stimulate their students to initiate student-led feedback dialogues; their students request feedback due to this initiation. T15 exemplified how they do this with the following words:

I always say to my students that they can always come to me and ask questions about anything they want. They can request feedback. My job is not just these 40 minutes and 80 minutes. First, I try to instil that self-confidence. In other words, from the first moment I enter the class, I try to instil this in my students. Even if I am swamped, I say that I will make time for you; it really is; I never promise something that I will not do. (T15)

On the other hand, some of the participants noted that some students request feedback by themselves regardless of teacher prompting. The characteristics of these natural comers were described as open to self-improvement ($f=9$), autonomous ($f=3$), supported by families ($f=1$), under family pressure ($f=1$), and grade-oriented ($f=1$). For instance, T13 exemplified open to self-improvement students saying, “*Many of them are students very open to feedback. In fact, too many of my students come and ask me directly, “I wrote this; can you provide me feedback upon it?”*” (T13).

The fourth theme under meso competencies was “constructing tasks accompanying feedback processes,” which was analysed with three codes: designing/using self-assessment tasks, using exemplars to show the features of a

good work, and using pre-prepared cohort level comments. To begin with, ten participants indicated that they either design or make use of the pre-prepared feedback activities to enable students to self-assess before receiving input from the teachers ($f=10$). All ten participants underlined that they utilize ready-made self-assessment rubrics or checklists within the institution; however, four of them highlighted they make some modifications or adjustments to these feedback materials while making use of them. For example, T6 briefly explained these types of activities, “*The student first evaluates themselves on the checklist. They tick, cross, write comments next to the items*” (T6). Similarly, T9 commented on it as follows, emphasising the format might change depending on the skill:

Generally, they first check themselves with a rubric for projects and similar works. Did I pay attention to the organization? Did I do this? They check accordingly. Our exit tickets are also a bit directed towards this self-assessment thing. Once, I asked the whole class a bit about their feelings, for example, about this grammar subject, where do you feel right now, how much did you understand or did not understand. In that way, it can change after a bit based on the skill. (T9)

When it comes to the decisions made by the teachers, uttered by four respondents ($f=4$), T1 illustrated how they could improvise a self-assessment checklist in their lessons:

The students use a checklist while evaluating themselves. Or, if I do not have a form at that moment when students are to evaluate themselves, I improvise something. I definitely write something on the board. So, look at this, do you have this, do you have that? If they are all ticked, it means they did what I wanted. You can do this as a self-assessment; it does not need to be a comprehensive 20-item thing. I can write three titles. Is the content enough? Did you use the perfect tenses correctly? Did you use three new vocabulary items? If they tick all of them, it means they are already close to what I want. I think the critical point here is that the student knows what to look for in themselves. (T1)

Another participant exemplified how they make some changes in the way they use pre-prepared self-assessment checklist. The relevant example is:

I sometimes do not do the self-assessment part directly after the first draft. For example, they write the second draft after I provide feedback on the first draft. Before collecting the second draft, I ask them to look at my feedback again and fill that checklist considering my feedback and their second draft. I generally see this; when they tick the checklist, they really put it by looking at my feedback, it is evident. I want to see whether they have seen their shortcomings, understood, and completed based on the feedback. Sometimes after the first draft, I get the students to check themselves, yet sometimes I proceed this way. Did they at least understand and perceive their feedback in that process and correct their deficiencies accordingly? This is my question and aim to achieve. (T8)

Under this theme, another code that came up was “using exemplars to show the features of a good work,” mentioned by three respondents ($f=4$). What these participants claimed to do is using exemplars to demonstrate the features of a quality work like a model answer, and then enable students to compare it with their own work. To illustrate, T7 mentioned:

For example, I write a model on the board. I ask, “What can you change in your own work by looking at this model?” Then, I get them to highlight those points first. After they highlight, I confirm, saying now it is true, or you have forgotten these; you should do these as well. (T7)

The last code brought up by two participants under this theme was “using pre-prepared cohort level comments” ($f=2$). This essentially means making use of the pre-prepared cohort-level comments comprising specific comments to copy and paste when a common type of mistake or good point is encountered. Both participants pointed to using them during online teaching. To give an example, *“We used to copy and paste some comments according to some templates in online teaching, which was very good”* (T15).

The next theme emerged as “designing feedback processes involving peers.” Three codes were examined under this theme: implementing peer feedback, training students for peer feedback, and using exemplars involving peers. The initial code was “implementing peer feedback,” suggested by almost all the interviewees ($f=13$). These participants indicated that they make use of and encourage students to engage in peer feedback activities. As an example, T4 illustrated how they employ peer assessment activities in their lessons:

This could be a small paragraph, a longer paragraph, or a presentation. To give a specific example, I asked my students to evaluate their friends' presentations according to certain criteria while delivering their oral presentations in the past weeks. I think this is a good example of peer feedback. Some children do that very well. (T4)

Two participants contended that it does not have to be a written or speaking task; peer feedback could be implemented in many areas and activities ($f=2$). One the related example is:

After the production tasks especially, or even after the activities that the students answered in any students' book or workbook, I want them to change their books or papers and give each other feedback with the help of certain checklists, correct their mistakes or tell their peers what they can do to improve. (T6)

Moreover, two other respondents articulated that they encourage their students to peer teach each other outside the class as well ($f=2$). The relevant excerpt is:

For example, today I gave two of my students such an assignment that they were to compare their works to each other and decide how they could bring these two to almost the same level. One of these students is one of the best in the class, the other is a middle-achiever. I am trying to employ peer teaching this way as well. (T7)

On the other hand, whereas three participants accentuated that its usage is restricted because of COVID-19 precautions, two participants asserted they do not employ pair work activities due to being time-consuming ($f=2$). Regarding COVID-19, three participants acknowledged that it was challenging to employ pair work activities in the desired way ($f=3$). For instance, T4 uttered:

Unfortunately, since we are going through a difficult period currently, the exchange of students with each other is restricted. In the past, they would change their papers without any hesitation. But right now, everything students do poses a risk. We try to do peer assessment by reducing this risk as much as possible because we think students should get used to it somehow. (T4)

When it comes to the time issues, T13 shared their opinions saying as it takes a lot of time unnecessarily, they abstain from implementing it. To be more exact:

I do not think peer feedback does any good for the other student when one of the pairs ignores it or gives it just for the sake of completing the activity. In some cases, I think it can be a waste of time in vain, depending on the general condition of the class. That is why it is not something I prefer right now. (T13)

The second code was “training students for peer feedback,” which was examined under four sub-codes: explaining checklist/rubric, modelling, guiding them for constructive feedback, and using simplified checklist/criteria. First of all, more than half of the participants asserted that they train their students to both provide and receive feedback information from each other by explaining the checklist/criteria of these activities ($f=8$). T9 described what they do as follows:

In general, about the rubric, I say to the students that I want them to pay attention to a specific grammar topic to help their friends confirm whether they have successfully completed the task. Why? Because we have actually worked on these. Or we were going to use these words. Did they use them? Is there a spelling mistake? In fact, they have to find out what they have and have not done by themselves. I am going over the rubric there. I mean, I explain the expectations there. (T9)

Five participants pointed to “modelling” to train their students to both provide and receive feedback information from their peers ($f=5$). As an example, T10 uttered:

I always do modelling first. For example, I do it myself first before they start peer feedback. Prior to their evaluating each other, I evaluate one of theirs, and they have a look at it. So, they see that is what it is supposed to be. Sometimes I explain the rubric first in class. Later, I do modelling again with a student from the classroom. In this way, it becomes more understandable for students. (T10)

“Guiding students for constructive feedback” was put forward by four interviewees ($f=4$). These participants touched upon orienting students to use an appropriate language, such as not being too harsh while making judgements of their peer’s work, as well as guiding them towards making recommendations on how to improve their current work. In terms of the language aspect, T4 expressed themselves:

I warn the students from the beginning about the language they use. They will evaluate their friends; after all, a classroom is an environment where students should live more peacefully. But some students do not like each other, and these students can be very destructive when they work together. They can be very damaging. So, of course, there may be negative feedback, but I advise students to turn them into positive feedback as much as possible. (T4)

From another perspective, T5 talked about why they guide their students to constructive feedback:

To use peer feedback rubrics effectively, we need to guide the students, especially in the lower age groups. They can say too much that “it is very nice” and finish writing their comments this way. Hence, I am trying to direct them to make more constructive criticism to help their friends to improve their work. (T5)

The last sub-code came up as “using simplified criteria/checklist.” Three interviewees asserted that they supply their students with criteria or checklists in which language is simplified so that the students can comprehend better what they must do ($f=3$). At this point, T11 stated, *“I think we are guiding the students by keeping these criteria as simple as possible regarding what they should do or write”* (T11).

Concerning the last code, three participants referred to “using exemplars involving peers,” which is essentially implementing activities involving exemplars and asking students to make judgements of that/those sample(s) ($f=3$). T11 exemplified this, *“In reading, for example, we provide whole class feedback on sample answers to understand better how to answer some question types”* (T11).

The sixth theme under meso competencies emerged as “maximizing the effects of limited feedback opportunities,” examined under two codes: holistic and targeted feedback. Firstly, almost all respondents referred to holistic feedback focusing on the “whole” of a student response instead of solely a part of it, and they accentuated this is primarily applicable in written tasks ($f=13$). T3 elaborated on this issue stating:

For example, in a writing assignment, all three of these are very important: content, organization, and the use of language. I cannot tell all three apart if the goal is writing such as an essay or a paragraph. That is mainly because all these criteria will be scored in the exam after this feedback. (T3)

The second code “targeted feedback” was analysed under two sub-codes: considering skills and considering a pre-determined target. Initially, ten interviewees articulated that they differentiate the focus on the criteria (content, organization, and use of language) in feedback practices in congruence with their importance depending on the target skill ($f=10$). For instance, T5 expressed themselves:

What I focus on actually changes depending on the course or the material. If I am doing a grammar lesson, I give importance to language use, or if there is a writing study, I try to balance them all. Or if it is speaking, I think content is what I am considering in the first place; can they really express themselves? Because after they can express themselves adequately, you can improve the child’s language use later in a way. For example, if it is reading, I look directly at the content, I ignore the use of language, and it does not matter whether the student has put apostrophes. (T5)

In the same vein, T10 explained:

Which criteria I focus on depends on the task and its purpose. For example, it is a vocabulary part; if it does not affect the meaning too much, I do not care much about the grammatical error or vice versa. Or, they have written an open-ended response in reading. The student has conveyed the meaning clearly and precisely. I know that the student has referred to the right part of the text. Then, I do not care too much about the spelling error there. I do not care unless the vocabulary or grammatical error is vital. That is why I prioritize things with purpose. However, in writing, we have to look at all of them. After all, there is a product at hand; therefore, I take into account all of them. (T10)

The second sub-code was “considering a pre-determined target,” put forward by more than half of the participants ($f=9$). The participants mentioned that they might provide feedback selectively based on a pre-determined objective or focus, whereby the feedback can have the most effect instead of providing comprehensive feedback on everything. The purpose behind this is to leave the remaining feedback points to another time by concentrating on the target in the first place. To give an example, T2 put forward:

For example, let's say my target is the present perfect tense. If they make a mistake about it, I will fix it immediately through feedback. However, if there are mistakes in other tenses, I do not correct them because my focus is on the present perfect then. (T2)

Likewise, T12 shared their opinions on this, saying the organization is not their primary focus, explaining the reasons behind. To be more precise:

Among the criteria, I put the organization in the last place; the use of language and content are significant for me. That is how I usually provide feedback when I read student products. I only teach the fifth grade. In my opinion, students will have to get the organization right somehow when they go to university. I think it will be fixed naturally then because otherwise, the students will get a lot of feedback. When I remember the essays we wrote at the university, I believe they will learn it at one point as it is crucial at university. In the fifth graders, who are a bit young, I consider how the child felt while writing rather than how they organized their opinions. It may be written a little messy. I think this is a little forgivable for the fifth-grade group or the early age groups. (T12)

When it comes to the seventh theme, “organizing timing/sequencing of the feedback events” was examined with two codes: providing feedback in time and sequencing feedback events. Firstly, almost all the participants asserted that they ensure that feedback information is delivered in time for the subsequent tasks to boost its positive influence on students' progress ($f=14$). As an example, T15 expressed themselves:

I definitely read the student products in two days and give them back before they forget what they have written. At this point, the attitude of the teacher is critical. If the teacher does not read it for days, time will have passed. Other things will come in the way. Hence, I read it in two days; even if the task is short, I write my feedback on that particular day and distribute the papers back the next day. (T15)

Similarly, T7 uttered, *“I make sure to deliver feedback at once because I think the students should not forget why they wrote it that way and why they did it that way. So, it must be returned as quickly as possible”* (T7).

The second code, “sequencing feedback events,” was put forward by one participant. What is meant by this was the activities requiring feedback

information are put in order considering their importance level. To be more exact, the participant claimed:

Sometimes when I am very busy, I sort the products in order of importance. For example, let's assume they wrote a short paragraph after a vocabulary lesson, and the second draft of the short story was also written at that time. I am trying to prioritize the longer ones that take up more time. I put off checking the smaller ones that are short and easy to remember. In this case, I deliver feedback to the short story first. But still, I try to get back to all of them within a week at the most so that the students will not forget what they have written. (T8)

“Framing feedback to standards/criteria” came up as the eighth theme under meso competencies, under which three codes were analysed: criteria, rubric, and checklist. Criteria, which is used to have students create or evaluate their work against explicit components (e.g., content, organization, use of English), was touched upon by twelve respondents ($f=12$). To illustrate, T15 stated:

For example, we have evaluation criteria. Content is the backbone of any work; the students start writing considering content first. However, we can never separate content and organization, and of course, what is the muscle mass that shapes this content and organization? Grammar and vocabulary. Of course, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization are also significant. The students shape their writing with those as the last step. (T15)

“Rubric” was the second code mentioned by almost the same number of interviewees ($f=11$). What was meant by rubric was a guiding document listing particular criteria for grading or judging against so that the students can reach the standards. T2 illustrated this with the following words:

I usually either give or reflect a rubric on the screen to the children. I want to demonstrate to them what they should pay attention to in their peer's performance and evaluate their mistakes, if any, according to the criteria in the rubric. I project onto the screen most of the time. (T2)

The third code under this theme was “checklist,” brought up by eight respondents ($f=8$). These participants acknowledged that they make use of checklists to have students produce or evaluate responses considering a list of components they must think or remember to do. For instance, “I have written a

clear setting or developed my characters clearly” is a checklist component in a short story. T8 elaborated on how they utilize checklists as follows:

And I want them to see the checklist again when they read my feedback., which is already in our writing packs. It is a detailed chart to see where the student is and what expect. In fact, the student sees the expectations simultaneously while writing the task and reading my feedback afterward. (T8)

Similarly, T5 touched upon using checklists while employing peer assessment activities with the following words:

If the material is something like a written task, I sometimes give the students checklists to evaluate their friends. Sometimes we ask their friends to write comments, or we ask them to make corrections about their friends’ work. In general, we try to make them write comments, look, and learn from each other using a checklist. (T5)

The ninth and the last theme here emerged as “managing tensions between feedback and grading.” Boud and Dawson (2021) assert that feedback and grading serve different purposes; therefore, teachers need to attempt to separate the two processes for students. Regarding this, this theme was examined under five codes: student expectations, formal requirements, the timing of exams, inconsistency between feedback and exams, and finally, the role of the teacher as a grader vs. a mentor. To begin with, “student expectations” was brought up by three interviewees ($f=3$). Two of these participants argued that students might disregard activities that will not be graded or hold inaccurate opinions about the correctness of their responses. Hence, the teachers may need to justify their grades. The relevant example for the first argument is:

We do not include peer feedback and self-feedback directly into the assessment. This is actually one of the missing points. I mean, if it had a consequence, the students might take it more seriously, but it is something like, “Let’s just do it.” But if the students were told they would evaluate themselves and each other, and at the end of this, they would be graded, it would be much healthier. Because the only thing that students care about is their scores. I would care about that too if I was a student myself. So, unfortunately, I cannot criticize the students on this issue. They are not very careful about things that have no return to them, which is why. Unfortunately, we do not include them in grading. (T4)

The related example for the second argument is:

We also provide one-to-one feedback after the exams. Because, even if we go over the answers as a whole class where they lost points, the children want to come and get individual feedback with the hope that their answer is acceptable. Sometimes you really need to convince children of the answer. For example, when we ask to show evidence from the text, they think that they have found the correct answer even when they only make a very small 1–2 word referral. To persuade the children on this issue, it is necessary to explain exactly why the answer is so or what is expected and justify that their answer is not at the expected level there, so that they can understand the reasons well and will not make the same mistake in the next exam. (T6)

From another point of view, another participant indicated that when students encounter tasks similar to previously studied ones on which feedback has been received, they might not have much difficulty in the exams as they are familiar with them. To elaborate on it more, T15 uttered:

Extra practical work before the exam is already done in the classroom. Repetition strategy studies are being carried out. Since the forms of questions in the exam and the assignments we have given are very similar to each other, the students are not unfamiliar with any subject in any way. Children are aware of what is what as they have already received feedback in advance. (T15)

The following code, “formal requirements,” was put forward by two respondents ($f=2$). What is stated by them was some activities might not be a component of summative assessment to be graded, or some summative assessment components may not include any feedback on them owing to formal requirements. To illustrate the first issue, T10 said:

Peer and self-feedback are not part of the summative assessment. Of course, from a teacher’s perspective, everything we collect from the student is data about the student, after all. However, we do not put it into a formal evaluation. It is not part of the assessment. (T10)

For the second issue, T12 reported that *“If it is something that should be officially hidden, we usually do not write feedback directly on the paper. We are trying to provide that feedback in a different way”* (T12).

The third code, “timing of exams,” was referred by two respondents ($f=2$). One of these interviewees stated that if the time interval between summative assessment components is long, teachers would not need to wait for those summative data; instead, they might take actions grounded on their in-class observations and formative assessment results to deliver feedback to that student. To be more exact, T1 stated at this point:

For a collective assessment of these different skills, I need to have applied an exam for evaluation. However, if I do not want to wait for the exam process, you know, an English teacher sees students for too many hours, and we can see what the students are missing from the first two weeks, what they need me for, or what they need to get feedback from. Or there is definitely a production at the end of every lesson. In oral or written form, students can also receive feedback from them, which can also improve the student. (T1)

The other participant indicated that summative assessment does not require any modifications in the teachers’ way of delivering feedback. They are solely administered assessment components at regular intervals to gather evidence about the reliability of the implemented activities completed that far. To elaborate on it more, T11 noted:

The feedback methods we apply do not actually change after the exams. The exams are only the processes that interfere with formative assessment and give us feedback on our curriculum and instruction. Of course, we draw a road map according to them, but we do not change feedback methods anyway. What might have changed hereafter in the evaluation? Actually, we question ourselves. We often do this at the end of exams. Yes, that is how we taught it. Yes, we delivered feedback like that. Are they working properly? However, we already ask ourselves that; I think we do not only do this at the end of the exams. (T11)

The next code, “inconsistency between feedback and exam,” was brought up by one participant ($f=1$). The participant noted that there might be some inconsistencies in students’ in-class and exam performances. As a result, teachers may need to contact those students, sometimes to ask or further discuss the potential factors behind it as well. The participant exactly stated:

When the child receives feedback a few times and then takes the exam, sometimes their performance is lower than expected. This time they may react by saying, I wrote this task for the third time, my teacher provided me feedback three times, and they wrote well in the exam. Or they misinterpret, assuming the feedback was all positive no matter how balanced you wrote your feedback. I think the perception changes a little when the exam intervenes in the feedback process. Exams are actually a result of their feedback processes, so of course, there are different factors, such as stress and anxiety, but they do not perform very differently. In other words, they receive feedback, and in the exam, they show a performance up to that point. However, for some children, even if they can write more comfortably in the classroom, their performances seem to decrease, and while providing feedback on them, I ask whether they had a problem with time management or experienced anxiety in the exam. (T8)

The last code appearing under this theme was “the role of the teacher as a grader vs a mentor,” mentioned by one participant ($f=1$). The participant pointed out that teachers are graders in the dimension of summative assessment, yet they are also mentors throughout the entire feedback processes to guide their students. At this point, T2 remarked:

So the teacher is undoubtedly a grader, but they can also be a mentor in this process. When I provide feedback, for example, the child asserts they want to improve on some specific things. According to that feedback, the teacher can also make the necessary guidance. I think they can be an assistant or a coach for that student. (T2)

4.3.3 Micro Competencies

The third category level, also referred to as micro competencies, has been defined as feedback practices in relation to individual students and individual student assignments (Boud & Dawson, 2021). As a result of the deductive and inductive content analysis, the data that emerged under this category were split into two themes: reconsidering input based on students’ needs and differentiation based on student needs, as displayed in Table 4.24 below.

Table 4. 24

Frequencies for Micro Competencies

Micro competencies	<i>f</i>
Reconsidering input based on students' needs	
Posing questions to students	7
Relating feedback input to students' self-assessment	2
Differentiation based on student needs	
Differentiated feedback to a different group of students	
Students' achievement level	15
Students' needs/interests	6
Students' personalities/emotions	6
Grade level appropriate feedback	4
Fine-tuning comments	6
Identifying students at risk of not being able to use feedback	6
Praising students	4

Note. $n_{total}=15$

To begin with, the first theme, “reconsidering input based on students’ needs,” was examined with two codes: posing questions to students and relating feedback input to students’ self-assessment. Seven respondents pointed to “posing questions to students,” which can open up new ways of thinking about their work and other ways of doing it ($f=7$). To give an example, T4 shared their way of using concept check questions:

I use concept check questions because I feel the urge to ask questions that will push the students to question a little more and think a little more critically, such as what exactly their mistake is, what they did wrong, and how they would fix it. If these questions are shallow and simple, they do not benefit either the teacher or the student, unfortunately. (T4)

T6 also expressed themselves in terms of posing questions in their oral feedback process as follows:

In our private conferencing with the student, I take the task in front of us and ask questions such as I think there is something here, what do you think could be wrong here, or how can we develop this better? (T6)

The following code, “relating feedback input to students’ self-assessment,” was brought up by two interviewees ($f=2$). The respondents remarked that they link feedback information with students’ self-assessment of their work. T14 exemplified this with the following excerpt:

When the student completes the self-assessment and comes back, we discuss where their determinations are correct. I also open my own feedback about that student and say, “Do you know? I thought of those too. Look, we have a common point here.” Sometimes, there are parts where they censure themselves. I say, no, that was nice. I think this boosts their self-esteem. Sometimes, they realize their own mistakes and say, “Even if you said it five times, I wrote the word “saw” with double o; there is a spelling mistake. You have told me this before, but look, this has not improved.” (T14)

The second theme under micro competencies emerged as “differentiation based on student needs,” split into four codes: differentiated feedback to a different group of students, fine-tuning comments, identifying students at risk of not being able to use feedback, praising students respectively. To start with, the initial code “differentiated feedback to a different group of students” was analysed under four sub-codes. The first sub-code uttered by all the participants was “students’ achievement level” ($f=15$). The respondents accentuated that they provide differentiated feedback to different groups of students considering their achievement levels, such as high, mid, and low achievers. Among all participants, eleven of them asserted that they change the feedback type depending on student level. For example, whereas low achievers are mostly provided feedback through direct feedback types, such as explicit correction, middle and high achievers are provided feedback through more indirect ones, such as elaborated and hints/prompts/cues. To give an example, T10 elaborated on what they do:

I definitely pay attention to the level of the student while providing feedback. So, there is a considerable difference between what I write to a strong student and what I write to a weak student; I change the content based on their level. For example, I write more indirect feedback to a strong student, maybe a question sentence, like what they think might change there. But I do not do this to weak students. I directly state they need to pay attention to this there saying, “Please

pay attention to the places I have highlighted; replace them with the things I have written.” (T10)

In the same vein, seven of the respondents touched upon error code usage, in other words, metalinguistic feedback. They all highlighted that while they opt for this type of feedback for the stronger student, they do not adopt it as much for the weaker. To illustrate, T13 shared their opinions:

I definitely do not think these error codes actually work the same for all students. I will talk about high achievers and low achievers again. When many of my students see “sp,” they may realize that there is a spelling mistake here, they can discover it themselves or find a tense-related error, but these codes do not work for some students. In that case, I prefer to write long, and for low achievers, I even write the correct answer. I cannot guide them much because they are students who are not very much open to getting feedback anyway. Therefore, I prefer to focus directly on the result for those students, and I directly tell them to make the necessary changes that I have written. (T13)

Upon achievement level again, nine of the participants stated that they switched to Turkish to deliver feedback to low-level students in oral feedback. At this point, T6 uttered:

There are some students who will not understand anything if I provide feedback in English. Honestly, we have students at that level. Yes, we also have outstanding students, but the level difference between students is pretty huge, which puts us in a difficult position. Since the child does not even understand what I am talking about in the lesson, I think that it will not be plausible at all to provide feedback to that child in English, so I speak in Turkish. Nevertheless, they are only a handful of students, luckily. (T6)

Moreover, three of the interviewees remarked that they provide oral feedback upon written feedback for low-level students to make sure they understand the feedback input. T8 responded that “*Sometimes I provide oral feedback to a very weak student after the written feedback to make sure the feedback is understandable*” (T8).

Four respondents articulated that they pay special attention to the weaker students’ motivation to maintain it. For instance, T14 mentioned how they are

careful about not writing too detailed feedback for weaker students. To be more precise, they argued:

If we are talking about a low achiever, in terms of English level, I pay attention not to write everything down, scribble on that paper too much, fill it with feedback or write it too long to prevent their demotivation. (T14)

T12 touched upon how they closely monitor weak students to help them receive more feedback by being active participants and asking questions. To elaborate on it more, T12 said:

For example, if the grammar is being taught during that lesson, I observe the weak children a little more; I stand by them more. I am trying to make them feel my presence more. If they want to ask something in class, I already have my eyes on them and let them ask immediately. (T12)

Besides, T7 explained how they strive to keep up weaker students' motivation through modelling. The related excerpt is:

Motivation is fundamental in weak students. They have a serious motivation problem because they are already behind the class. Furthermore, seeing a lot of fixed things in their hands will make them unhappy because they compare themselves with their friends as well. There, for example, I write a model. Looking at that model, I pose questions, "What can you change?" For example, I make them highlight first. After that, when they highlight, I confirm, "It is true, or you forgot these, you should do these too. Now, what changes can you make in your own writing accordingly?" For example, this is the simplest way of feedback that the children we call the lowest achiever will receive from me. (T7)

The following sub-code came up as "students' needs/interests," considering which the students are provided differentiated feedback. Six participants reported applying differentiated feedback according to students' varying needs and interests ($f=6$). To illustrate, T15 referred to differentiated feedback based on different student needs by stating:

I try to follow different feedback methods according to the student's individual characteristics, according to the subject, and in a way that will benefit the child.

Each student's learning style is different, and we learn it as we get to know the student. (T15)

T7 exemplified how they differentiate their feedback by taking into account students' diverse interests as the following:

I try to give examples from the students' areas of interest in my feedback. From our posts at the beginning of the semester, I look at the films, characters, things that students are interested in, or their sentence structures and strive to use them. We create a dialogue between us, a special bond. I think the feedback provided using that bond is more effective. For example, a student of mine is a Garfield enthusiast. If I am writing a sample sentence, if I am doing modelling, I usually write a sentence about Garfield. (T7)

When it comes to the third sub-code, the same number of participants pointed to differentiated feedback according to "students' personalities/emotions," which vary ($f=6$). T4 illustrated this issue by articulating:

Some students do not feel comfortable in public, yet some feel otherwise. That is why some of the students request that I talk to them privately if there is a problem. In such cases, I favour one-to-one feedback with those who have asked for it, which I do very often. (T4)

Likewise, T14 touched upon they differentiate their feedback upon this by saying:

I consider students' structural differences. Thus, I think I always base my feedback on character traits. Because if they have experienced a failure in English in their past life until middle school, if they think that they will not be able to succeed, I always consider those factors and differentiate my feedback accordingly. (T14)

The last sub-code that emerged under this code was "grade-level appropriate feedback," articulated by four participants ($f=4$). These respondents asserted that they provide differentiated feedback taking into account students' grade levels. As an example, T12 talked about using a tangible common errors signboard as they work with younger students. To put it into words:

Since I work with a very young group, 5th graders, I come across plenty of common mistakes. There are many problems in writing skills, especially in spelling, and most children make mistakes in the same things. For example, there is a target word in our units, and they have difficulty spelling it. There is a common error signboard that I hung in the classroom on a corner to avoid this from happening. I actively use it and write the correct version of what children often misspell on it. (T12)

Another related example was shared by T3. They stated they have been marking some symbols on students' products to appeal to them. The relevant excerpt is:

I also like to use symbols such as a smile or a heart; children feel thrilled with such things. They speak ecstatically, saying the teacher put a heart on my writing or something like that. I also pay a little attention to them in written feedback. (T3)

The second code under differentiation based on student needs appeared as “fine-tuning comments,” referring to the changing the complexity of the feedback language, taking into consideration how much feedback information a particular student is able to process. Six of the respondents pointed to fine-tuning their comments in their feedback input. For instance, T11 expressed themselves:

I am trying to use simpler words in my feedback, to be honest. Not with a heavy language like we wrote in the rubric, but by simplifying it. I am using such a simple language so that the students can grasp the feedback input more easily. (T11)

In addition to that, three of these participants further stated that they differ in the complexity of their feedback language depending on the students' levels. For example, whereas using a more simplified language for low-achievers, they would rather use a more complex one for high-achievers. To give an example:

In general, depending on high achievers and low achievers, the form of my writing feedback changes. Also, depending on how open the student is to receiving feedback, for example, the simplicity of my feedback language shifts. I use a simpler language for low achievers. (T13)

“Identifying students at risk of not being able to use feedback” was brought up as the third code by the same number of interviewees ($f=6$). The respondents

asserted that they identify and beware of students at risk who are not able to utilize feedback information or processes well. As an example, T1 shared their experiences:

I have two classes. A total of five students in my two classes have not received any constructive feedback from me so far, and even though I tried to provide feedback forcibly, even though I spoke one-to-one, I could not get anything back. So, in a way, the student's resistance is also influential at this point. I think one of the most critical obstacles to the feedback process is the student's attitude. Also, after so many months, I could not break the persistence of these five-six students no matter what. (T1)

Besides, T13 added their thoughts on the reasons behind why some students cannot use feedback. Based on their experiences, they claimed:

Students, who we call low achievers, do not use feedback persistently due to their lack of self-confidence or lack of sense of responsibility. Frankly, I know that I wrote very detailed feedback, which I think is not very accurate; it was really step-by-step. I remember writing in a really simple language too. Despite this, I also know that I encountered productions that had not been changed in any way. So how do I define these students? In fact, if they read it step by step, at least once, they can change it. But along with a bit of sense of responsibility and prejudice, getting feedback scares them. They think it is wrong again, and they need to change many things. Due to this prejudice, some students are not available to receive much feedback. Actually, they are afraid of getting very negative feedback. (T13)

The last code emerged as "praising students." Four respondents remarked that they articulate or write motivating or encouraging remarks, particularly to those in need to keep up and/or increase their motivation ($f=4$). For instance, T1 expressed themselves:

When I see a student's improvement, I usually write "I am proud of you" under any work of a weak student because if there is slightly better work than the previous one, I am really proud of them. Because it means they have done something, and it is vital for them to see that they are really being kept track of and their progress is noticed. That is why I care about praise. There, the student's motivation is more critical. Fix this! Is this the...? Instead of these patterns, I strive to choose my language a little more meticulously so that I will not demotivate the student for the future. (T1)

In a similar way, T8 articulated:

Even if it is a too weak product, for the weak child, I find something hopeful, something positive, and start with it. “So that is very good.” Sometimes I refer to the path they have taken: “This draft was much better than the other.” If I recall, which is usually certain children, poorly they wrote, I say, “Look, you went into detail about it this time.” So, I make a comparison. I am trying to convey the message that they are still below our expectations, but it was better than the previous one. When they see it, we actually assure that they will continue their way. (T8)

4.4. Summary of the Results

The results of the current study after the analysis of the semi-structured interviews demonstrated that English language teachers working in a private school hold various views about feedback; they implement a diversity of feedback practices and suggest some feedback practices, and they show a number of competencies under the framework of the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework.

To begin with, the data revealed teachers hold views about feedback regarding the characteristics of the feedback mechanism, the characteristics of the effective feedback, the role of feedback, the role of teachers, and the expectations from students. Apart from these, some inhibiting and enhancing factors were uncovered. Inhibiting factors comprised feedback characteristics, student, teacher, discipline, and school-related factors. When it comes to the enhancing factors, some similar and distinctive factors emerged compared to the inhibiting factors. They consisted of teacher-related, instruction-related, school-related, and student-related factors.

Secondly, it was found that teachers make a language preference while providing feedback. Moreover, frequency of feedback, timing of feedback, amount of feedback, and mode of delivery were unveiled to differ depending on circumstances. A variety of feedback types were found to be employed by the teachers, as well. Also, the data showed that teachers have some suggestions

regarding feedback practices, which are school-related, assessment/feedback-related, and pre-service education-related practices.

Lastly, as to the teacher competencies under the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework, teachers were found to be demonstrating some macro, meso, and micro competencies.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter seeks to discuss the results of the current study through a critical analysis of them compared to the results in the related literature. It consists of three sections, initially presenting the relationship between the results and the previous literature. The second part consists of implications for practice in the educational context. The last section addresses recommendations for further research.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

The results of this study uncovered the middle school English language teachers' feedback views, their feedback practices, suggested practices concerning feedback as well as their competencies under the teacher feedback literacy competency framework. Initially, their views about feedback were presented under seven themes as the characteristics of feedback mechanism, characteristics of effective feedback, the role of feedback, the role of teachers, expectations from students, inhibiting factors along with enhancing factors. While the inhibiting factors comprised feedback characteristics-related, student-related, teacher-related, discipline-related, and school-related factors, the enhancing factors came up as teacher-related, instruction-related, school-related, and student-related factors. Moreover, concerning the second research question, the employed practices were presented as to language preference, frequency of feedback, timing of feedback, amount of feedback, mode of delivery as well as feedback types. When it comes to the suggested practices with regard to feedback, a variety of suggestions emerged as school-related, assessment/feedback-related, and pre-service education-related practices. Lastly, the competencies under the teacher feedback literacy framework proposed by

Boud and Dawson (2021) were presented within three category levels as macro, meso, and micro competencies.

5.1.1. Views about Feedback

The current study unveiled the teachers' feedback views. The findings demonstrated that the teachers described the feedback mechanism as dynamic, changing based on some circumstances, such as students, teachers, and classroom atmospheres. This was congruent with Fernández-Toro and Duensing's (2021) finding suggesting that students' knowledge of feedback and errors shift from person to person. Another characteristic of being ongoing was also in line with Beaumont et al. (2011) and Dawson et al. (2019), who described feedback as a process rather than a single event. Moreover, the other characteristic of feedback as being difficult concurred with Carless and Winstone (2020) since they referred to feedback as a demanding phenomenon to be fully implemented. A novel finding of this study proposed that feedback is sometimes non-academic and not constrained to solely academic aspects but also the other aspects of students, such as behaviours. This may stem from the teachers' views about feedback as a holistic phenomenon, involving both academic and non-academic dimensions, and/or also the classroom management techniques they need to apply to prevent disruptive behaviours as they are teaching young learners.

Moreover, most of the characteristics of effective feedback underlined were in line with the relevant literature. Regarding constructive feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007) highlighted the significance of making connections between the previous and new information and demonstrating ways to proceed while providing feedback information, as this study uncovered. Similarly, Seden and Svaricek (2018) and Nicol (2010) proposed clearly stating the weak points, strengths, and possible solutions to enhance the current performance. Timely feedback as being effective feedback was also touched upon by some other scholars (e.g., Beaumont et al., 2011; Dawson et al., 2019; Gibbs & Simpson,

2005; Nicol, 2010). Delivering feedback before students forget what they have produced is an essential aspect to consider. Furthermore, individualized feedback, in other words personalized feedback, which is peculiar to individual students was also considered effective by Dawson et al. (2019). When it comes to dialogic feedback, it is two-way process involving teacher-to-student and peer- to-peer interactions that were consistent with the literature (Green, 2019; Nicol, 2010; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Lee et al., 2017; Yu and Liu, 2021). Moreover, Hattie and Timperley (2007), Goldstein (2004), and Nicol (2010) highlighted the importance of clear feedback so that it can be understood, and it emerged within the current study as understandable feedback. Akin to Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick's (2006) good feedback practices definition as facilitating motivational beliefs and self-esteem, the study at hand revealed motivating feedback as being effective. Similar to Hyland and Hyland (2006), who favour multiple drafting over single drafting, continuous or process-oriented feedback was believed to be effective in the current study as well. However, this contradicted Kumar and Stracke (2007) in that they found students find process-oriented feedback demotivating. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) put forward multiple feedback consisting of more than one type of corrective feedback. In this study, it was found to be effective; varied feedback, presented in diverse types, was favoured. Apart from these, the novel findings of the effective feedback in the current study came up as interactive, gradual, metalinguistic, persuasive, and built on mutual trust feedback. Feeling the urge to have a healthy interaction and build trust between both parties may result from striving to prevent teacher monologue in feedback information. Besides, it is rather difficult to learn everything at a time; therefore, the teachers may feel the need to divide feedback into steps to gain a better result. If the students do not believe in the truthfulness of the feedback information, they may abstain from utilizing it, and also having students reflect on their own mistakes; thought on them may yield better learning.

The current study also revealed the role of feedback from the teachers' perspectives. Being a mirror for students was consistent with the literature

(Hakim, 2015; Sadler, 1989). As Sadler (1989) noted, the place of feedback in the assessment practices is two-dimensional as being feedback to the students and the other stakeholders. Besides, the view that feedback enables students to progress more and raises them above their current level corroborates the findings of a great deal of previous work (e.g., Black & William, 1998; Garrison & Ehringhaus, 2007; McNamara & Hill, 2011; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Saito & Inoi, 2017; Widiastuti et al., 2020). For instance, Black and William (1998) and McNamara and Hill (2011) emphasised the function of feedback for higher achievement and better learning consecutively. In addition to being a mirror for students, being a mirror for teachers was discovered to be another function of feedback in this study, also suggested by Sadler (1989), Lee (2019), and Yu (2021). As Lee (2019) put forward, feedback activities may result in reflective experience by teachers; they may regulate their teaching processes thanks to it. Moreover, feedback was considered to be boosting student self-efficacy in that they can improve and be successful. Congruently, Heron et al. (2021) articulated that feedback may enhance encouragement and student participation. Raising students' autonomy was another believed function of feedback, which also accords with earlier studies (e.g., Boud & Molloy, 2013; Garrison & Ehringhaus, 2007; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). For instance, as in line with Boud and Molloy's (2013) assertion that the purpose of feedback is to self-regulate, it was uncovered in the study that feedback increases students' independency and empowers them so that they can make decisions on their own. The views about the role of feedback demonstrated that the teachers hold high opinions about feedback being of tremendous value to lead to better learning opportunities and progress.

Regarding the role of teachers, it mostly evolved around being a facilitator. It was believed that teachers need to make students think critically rather than telling everything explicitly. Also, they must guide them through feedback processes. This finding broadly supports the work of other studies (e.g., Boud & Molloy, 2013; Brown, 2004; Lam, 2014; Muñoz, Palacio, & Escobar, 2012; Sadler, 1989; Vogt & Tsagari, 2014). Boud and Molloy (2013) explicitly stated

that teachers are to facilitate suitable classroom environments along with guidance and coaching. Involving students in feedback processes was considered another role of the teachers, which was in line with Green (2019), who proposed empowering students to seek and negotiate feedback. Moreover, it was emphasised in the current study that teachers need to organize and plan feedback activities by devoting time to it. This study supports evidence from previous studies (Carless, 2020; Havnes et al., 2012; Ketonen et al., 2020; Wood, 2021) in which teachers are held responsible for designing feedback opportunities so that learners can take action as a result of the feedback information. Besides, similar to Henderson et al. (2019), providing individualized or personalized feedback perceiving individual differences and capabilities was seen as another role of the teachers. Furthermore, Hartley and Chesworth (2000) mentioned the inappropriacy of providing feedback too late to be used. Consistent with the literature, this research found that participants viewed providing timely feedback before students forget what they have produced. Apart from these, the novel finding of this study at hand was teacher roles as keeping a record of every student and listening attentively. The idea of keeping a record of every student and listening attentively may result from the need to address each and every student based on their individual needs and differences.

Surprisingly, the number of teacher roles revealed was more than the expectations from the students. This might be due to the ongoing understanding that teachers have a bigger role to play in feedback processes. When it comes to the expectations from the students, in particular, they were mostly consistent with the relevant literature. The results demonstrated that students need to be involved in feedback processes by playing an active role. This reflects those of Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) and Carless and Boud (2018), who also asserted that students must have a proactive role instead of a reactive one, and students themselves are the agents to act on feedback to boost their learning, respectively. The need for students to be highly aware of and ready for feedback was also backed up by Sadler (2013) and Boud and Molloy (2013). The current study unveiled the need for students making use of feedback, in which they read,

draw conclusions, and take necessary actions to utilize it for their future work. Correspondingly, Boud and Molloy (2013), Carless (2020), Havnes et al. (2012), Ketonen et al. (2020), Winstone et al. (2017), and Wood (2021) specified that learners must be responsible for engaging with and making use of feedback information provided. Moreover, this study supports evidence from previous studies (Ketonen et al., 2020; Winstone et al., 2017) that students need to be receptive to engage with feedback; they need to be open to it. In the current study, trusting teacher expertise was discovered to be another student role, which was supported by Li and Han (2021), who mentioned the significance of teachers' expertise on the students' feedback uptake, and also by Sadler (1989) who claimed students are to follow remedial and detailed advice provided by the teachers. Guiding teachers and being patient were found to be the other roles of students. A possible explanation for these roles may be the view that it is the student who leads the way in their learning process, and feedback processes are demanding and take time; therefore, students are to be patient to gain a satisfactory result.

Regarding the inhibiting factors, feedback characteristics-related factors emerged. The findings suggested that giving the correct answer directly to the students without providing them with a chance to think of their own mistakes impedes the effectiveness of the feedback practices. This is related to Ferris' (2002) point of view, stating error feedback may be exhausting from teachers' viewpoints, while students can find it overwhelming. From a similar point of view, Gómez Argüelles et al. (2019) found that the instructors remarked their negative attitudes toward explicitly telling what is wrong to the students as it makes students uncomfortable. Another factor was too detailed feedback. In relation to that, Dawson et al. (2019) emphasised the importance of adequately and thoroughly detailed feedback; however, the study revealed that excessive details inhibit feedback effectiveness. This may be due to students finding it overwhelming and building prejudices against it by assuming many things must be corrected. Moreover, too much praise and on-the-spot feedback emerged within the present study, which were congruent with other studies by Hattie

(1999) and Demir and Özmen (2017). The reason behind them may be leading to unnecessary overconfidence and discouraging students from speaking by damaging their self-esteem (Demir & Özmen, 2017). Besides, very frequent feedback and red-coloured feedback were found to be impeding in this study. The former could be attributed to the possible boredom and overwhelm in students while the latter might signal that they have made a plethora of mistakes.

Student-related inhibiting factors were mostly attributed to learners' characteristics as being closed to feedback, which also emerged within the relevant literature (e.g., Han & Xu, 2019; Kara, 2021; Ma et al., 2021, and Winstone et al., 2017). Ma et al. (2021) clarified that some students might be demotivated to seek and reluctant to take action as a response to feedback information, which was also unveiled in the present study. Also, Kara (2021) found that if students are resistant to it, it impedes feedback practices. Being grade-oriented was congruent with Kara (2021), too. Moreover, non-autonomous learner characteristics were discovered to be inhibiting, as it was also brought up by Winstone et al. (2017). They claimed volition, which is a lack of proactivity and responsiveness, results in feedback barriers. Other characteristics as being prejudiced against feedback, overconfident, and shy/introverted/sensitive were believed to be negatively affecting feedback practices. They may be because all of them are extreme feelings to prevent somebody from taking any action. Apart from them, an unfriendly classroom environment was told to be inhibiting. As Gómez Argüelles et al. (2019) argued, a comfortable atmosphere is necessary; otherwise would deteriorate the feedback and learning purposes. The remaining factors came up as the younger age group, language level gap between students, and changes in students' needs due to COVID-19. Since the study was conducted at a K-12 level school, the younger age group may be challenging to train and help them adjust to the feedback processes. Also, having students with huge language level differences may cause the teachers to modify their feedback, which would lead to teacher workload. Online teaching owing to COVID-19 may have affected students' study habits and practices, which might harden the feedback processes.

Teacher-related factors inevitably came up under inhibiting factors, as well. As Goldstein (2004) and Hyland and Hyland (2006) signify, it is crucial to provide feedback by engaging with students and building robust and meaningful relationships with them. In line with that understanding, a lack of bonding relationships with students was considered an inhibiting factor in the study, which was also found by other scholars (Carless & Winstone, 2020; Kara, 2021). Moreover, insufficient field knowledge concerning feedback practices was another impeding factor. As Lee et al. (2017) accentuated, teacher knowledge is a determinant of the teacher's feedback practices, and as Kara (2019) pointed out, teacher expertise is essential; it is vital to take into account. Moreover, Kir (2020) revealed that teachers demonstrated some inconsistencies between their feedback beliefs and practices due to the content knowledge of oral corrective feedback and its proceduralization. Teachers' negative mood and low motivation, as well as their personal matters, were said to be the other inhibiting factors. They may be attributed to the necessity of teachers' readiness and enthusiasm to employ feedback practices; solely student-related aspects should not be reckoned with.

Among the discipline-related emerging factors, the language barrier came up as the most emphasized one in the current study. As Sutton (2012) asserted that because of striving to decipher the academic language, and as Davis (2020) marked owing to the inadequate vocabulary knowledge, feedback was said to be demanding to make sense of and be utilized by the students. These stem from language barrier. In addition to that, English as a discipline and a high number of activities requiring feedback were viewed as the other impeding factors. The reason for them may have something to do with the nature of the language encompassing different skills and boosting each requires differentiated and diligent work.

The last inhibiting factors, school-related factors, mostly evolved around workload as consistent with the relevant literature (e.g., Chan & Luo, 2021; Heron et al., 2021; Lee, 2021). Both the scholars and the study showed that the

heavy workload caused by the other work to be completed or the feedback practices might lead to interruption in feedback practices and prevent teachers from providing feedback as effectively as they desire. Furthermore, handling large classes (Lee et al., 2017; Lee, 2021), lack of devoted time to feedback, lack of a suitable place, and satisfying different stakeholders were brought up as the other factors. These results are likely to be related to the research context, which is a private school and K-12 level, whereby the administration and the parents are involved in many processes. Besides, the reason behind seeing a standardized curriculum and assessment as impeding might be it restraining teachers from designing and implementing feedback practices as they please.

With regard to the enhancing factors, teacher-related aspects, such as their praise and encouragement of the students, feedback planning were also put forward by some other scholars (e.g., Carless, 2020; Havnes et al., 2012; Ketonen et al., 2020; Wood, 2021), and bonding relationship with their students were believed to be enhancing the feedback practices. Carless and Winstone (2020) alleged that building a relational dimension with students by being supportive, approachable, and sensitive are crucial steps to be taken by the feedback literate teachers. Upon this, the study revealed that the participants attach tremendous importance to it with praise and encouragement and by developing a bonding relationship with their students. Apart from them, the participants believed in the significance of gaining experience to excel in feedback practices as well as their positive emotional states to practice feedback better.

Secondly, several points were put forward as to the instruction as enhancing factors in feedback practices, which were all congruent with the literature. Akin to what Kamiya (2016) suggested, not humiliating students but maintaining a comfortable classroom atmosphere, the participants in the study at hand emphasised the importance and the benefit of a pleasant environment whereby students feel comfortable expressing themselves and collaborating. In addition to that, the participants held the belief that training the students for feedback practices carries the potential to enhance feedback practices. Correspondingly,

Noble et al. (2020) proclaimed that student engagement with feedback and improvement in their feedback literacy could be guaranteed with the help of focused training. Furthermore, very similar to Beaumont et al.'s (2011) and Kara's (2021) findings, providing exemplars was considered to be augmenting feedback practices by increasing students' awareness and the likelihood of utilizing the provided feedback information. Additionally, in line with Seden and Svaricek's (2018) study, it was discovered that teachers favour and believe in the benefit of in-class feedback, especially for common mistakes, and face-to-face feedback involving one-to-one interaction for feedback practices. The benefit of face-to-face feedback also concurred with some other scholars (e.g., Beaumont et al., 2011; Raimes, 1983; Yu, 2021). According to Raimes (1983), the dialogue between the teacher and the students renders it possible to clarify unclear points, as the participants in the study put forward, too.

Although some school-related factors were believed to be inhibiting, some others were brought up as helpful for feedback processes. The participants credited the school with enhancing feedback practices through establishing a collaborative environment between colleagues and the administration (e.g., Broadbent et al., 2018), providing them with an assessment and evaluation unit, a learning management system (e.g., Ajjawi et al., 2019), in-service training, and clear guidance. Besides, promoting feedback practices within a professional development system as well as other school requirements were brought up as strengthening feedback practices in the study at hand. A possible explanation for these results may be the context-specific nature of conditions affecting feedback practices. As a consequence of being a private school, the institution might be offering such opportunities to its teachers to thrive in feedback and, as a natural result, better student learning.

Contrary to the expectations, this study did not uncover many student-related factors to maximize the feedback opportunities. Even though there was a handful of inhibiting factors considering students as the source, students being open to, questioning, and requesting feedback was believed to be the student-sourced

enhancing factor per se. To be more precise, the teachers were found to be playing a more influential role in increasing the feedback opportunities and practices. Nevertheless, in line with the literature (e.g., Han & Xu, 2019; Ma et al., 2021), when students carry these characteristics, it is believed to be maximizing the feedback opportunities. Ma et al. (2021) exemplified it by stating that student who was willing to seek and make use of the teacher feedback by being calm to negative teacher feedback enhanced their feedback literacy considerably.

5.1.2. Employed Feedback Practices and Suggested Practices

The current study sought employed feedback practices, and the language preference in L1 and L2 in the feedback was discovered to be dependent on students' achievement levels and the mode of delivery; most of the participants opt for Turkish for low achievers, and in oral feedback per se. It seems possible that these results can be attributed to the language barrier some students face, an issue which was also brought forward by Sutton (2012) and Davis (2020). Concerning the frequency of feedback, divergent results emerged. When the participants were directed the question of how often they provide feedback, some of them responded by stating every second or in every lesson though some others replied every other week. These inconsistencies can be explained with their separate feedback opinions. Namely, while some teachers think of oral feedback provided more often, others might imagine written feedback happening less frequently. Moreover, the timing of feedback was brought up as immediate and delayed feedback in line with Hattie and Timperley's (2007) and Shute's (2008) definitions. The current study suggested that immediate feedback occurs for more verbal tasks right after a student responds with an utterance, as proposed by Corbett and Anderson (2001). Besides, the study was congruent with Kulik and Kulik's (1998) assertion that delayed feedback is for task level, such as testing situations. In contrast, immediate feedback is for the process level, such as classroom activities and procedures. The participants also pointed to delayed feedback for homework assignments. Additionally, the amount of feedback was

articulated focusing on the length as consistent with some other researchers: detailed (Green, 2019; Kara, 2021; Vogt et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2020), not detailed (Kara, 2021), and no feedback (Babanoğlu et al., 2018, Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Kara, 2021; Shute, 2008). Apart from these, the current study displayed that the participants deliver their feedback information in a diversity of modes congruent with the literature: written feedback (Killingback et al., 2020), whole class feedback (e.g., Chan & Luo, 2021), face-to-face (individual) feedback (e.g., Henderson et al., 2019; Killingback et al., 2020), oral feedback (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Ellis, 2009; Ellis et al., 2006), and audio feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Dawson et al., 2021; Green, 2019; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Molloy et al., 2020; Nicol, 2010). It may be that these participants benefit from the diverse range of feedback delivery modes suiting best their current circumstances. Another point to put emphasis on here is that the data revealed comply with the idea of employing the combination of written and oral feedback to attain more effective results, as Bø (2014) indicated. Several participants in the study accentuated that they provide oral feedback upon their written feedback to ensure feedback recipience.

When it comes to the feedback types, a variety of feedback types emerged in the study at hand, which also concurred with the relevant literature. The most preferred feedback types arose as explicit correction (e.g., Chan and Luo, 2021; Kara, 2021; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), metalinguistic feedback (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), elaborated feedback, hints/prompts/cues, verification, compiled by Shute (2008), sandwich feedback (e.g., Molloy, 2010; Wang et al., 2017), and constructive feedback (e.g., Brown, 2004; Lam, 2014; Muñoz, Palacio, & Escobar, 2012; Vogt & Tsagari, 2014). Except for explicit correction and verification, all the types mentioned so far open up ways for students to question themselves and reflect on their own responses. In spite of being less frequent, the other employed feedback practices came up as direct feedback (e.g., Babanoğlu et al., 2018; Lee, 2008a; error flagging (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008a; Shute, 2008), topic contingent (Shute, 2008), elicitation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), providing sources

(Kara, 2021), recasts (e.g., Demir & Özmen, 2017; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2016; Kır, 2020; Lyster & Ranta; 1997), informative tutoring, response contingent, try again, and intonation change/emphasis complied by Shute (2008). In their experimental study, Chandler (2003) unveiled that both explicit correction and error flagging forego metalinguistic feedback. However, in the current study, it was found that explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback are employed almost as much while error flagging is way behind them. Furthermore, the results presented that the participants do not adopt a single feedback type, but instead, they have their own feedback toolkit encompassing various feedback practices suitable for different feedback purposes, as asserted by Chan and Luo (2021). In addition, Galaczi (2018) asserted that ability in one skill (e.g., speaking) could not guarantee performance in another (e.g., listening). Correspondingly, it was found in the study that the teachers alter their feedback practices intended for each four skills, particularly considering receptive and productive skills distinction.

In addition to the employed feedback practices, the participants suggested some other aspects to enhance feedback processes, which were more or less related to the inhibiting and enhancing factors they put forward. They mostly evolved around in-service training under school-related factors and pre-service education. The participants' desire to receive more and more-quality in-service and pre-service training as to feedback was consistent with the relevant literature. For example, Lee (2019) viewed mini debates presenting arguments and counterarguments in written feedback as a tremendous opportunity for both pre-service and in-service teachers to gain multiple perspectives and think outside the box. Besides, Yu (2021) emphasised the importance of feedback-giving practices through self-reflection and ongoing practice to be included in the training programs. Just as mentioned about the internship period in pre-service education, Bostancı and Şengül (2018) suggested a collaborative work of pre-service and in-service instructors to provide feedback to create a friendlier, more positive, and collaborative language learning environment. The participants also

sought less workload, office hours devoted to feedback, and fewer students to employ feedback more productively and effectively at the school.

Concerning the pre-service, the other suggested practices focused on a thoroughly detailed feedback-specific course dealing with each four skills, as each requires different practices and through real-life examples. They also touched upon the necessity of the instructors' modelling of feedback to constitute examples for the prospective teachers' future practices. A possible explanation for this might be that authenticity can increase the likelihood of handling feedback more easily in their novice years and escalating the quality in the upcoming years.

Several other suggested practices encompassed assessment/feedback-related issues, and contradictory opinions emerged at this point proposing more frequent testing, as Stiggins (1991) also articulated and project-based learning with fewer or no testing. These conflicting ideas may be due to the inevitable need for assessment with less content for the former and the idea of the inessentiality of the testing but studying more on projects to boost creativity for the latter. In addition, the importance of bringing the language of the criteria down to the students' level for them to understand backs up the claims of Sutton (2012) and Davis (2020). Besides, a system or an app proposal might be owing to the needs and interests of Generation Z. The teachers may be trying to appeal to students to benefit from feedback enormously to maximize learning opportunities with the things that interest them.

5.1.3. Teacher Competencies under the Teacher Feedback Literacy Competency Framework

As Boud and Dawson (2021) divided the teacher competencies into three category levels, the teacher feedback literacy competencies demonstrated by the participants were categorized as macro, meso, and micro competencies. To begin with the macro competencies, the present study affirmed that teachers endeavour

to create feedback environments by making the feedback processes familiar to the students and modelling. In accordance with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that sharing the criteria with the students (Black et al., 2003; Wiliam, 2007), explanation of the criteria (Beaumont et al., 2011), and rubric understanding (Yu & Liu, 2021) are of utmost importance in feedback processes. Moreover, making feedback commonplace with the help of building a positive, helpful, and collaborative environment whereby nobody hesitates to be participative was another thing articulated by the participants in the present study. Correspondingly, classroom questioning (Black et al., 2003; Wiliam, 2007), effective classroom discussions (William & Thompson, 2007), and the necessity of classroom environments in which students learn from their own mistakes with the help of self and peer feedback were highlighted in some other research studies (e.g., Gibbs et al., 2005; Hattie & Timperly, 2007).

Another point that the participants attached importance was developing several strategies through strategic planning and considering their classrooms' peculiar characteristics to involve students in feedback processes and address each and every student fairly and equally in their feedback. Upon this, the present study also discovered that the participants developed strategies to be responsive to change during online teaching. For instance, they adjusted their feedback delivery mode to online to reach out to their students. This finding was also reported by Jiang and Yu (2021), who made such a discovery in a study investigating the feedback practices after the outbreak of COVID-19. According to them, feedback literate teachers were more motivated and enthusiastic about designing feedback practices using technology, and they adapted more easily. Furthermore, the present study uncovered that the participants work with teams for consistent feedback practices and share successful feedback practices with their colleagues to inspire them. It seems possible that this result can also be attributed to the context-specific factors requiring teachers to pursue a standardized process.

Carless and Boud (2018) specified the feedback literate students as the ones seeking, producing, and making use of the feedback by also developing capacities to be able to make academic judgements. Considering these, this current study unveiled that the teachers employ some practices which would serve to develop student feedback literacy as proposed by Boud and Dawson (2021). The results suggested that the teachers encourage their students to make evaluative judgments of their own work as well as their peers' work. These practices comply with the other scholars' findings and ideas (e.g., Carless & Boud, 2018; Carless et al., 2011; Carless & Winstone, 2020; Malecka et al., 2020; Molloy et al., 2020). Moreover, Carless and Boud (2018) stressed that feedback literate students maintain their emotional equilibrium and stay away from defensive reactions against critical feedback. Similarly, Xu and Carless (2017) signified the importance of getting students ready socially affectively during feedback processes. Helping students manage affect also emerged within the present study. The participants responded well aware of the fact that they need to help students build self-esteem by engaging with feedback and managing affect. In addition, the current study revealed the necessity of explanation and expectation setting with students as to what feedback is, what the processes are, and how they will be conducted with their active role. Congruently, Sadler (2013) mentioned that students must be given the opportunity to develop skills regarding the tacit knowledge about the content and the implications of the feedback provider. It seems that the participants value such processes to attain more fruitful outcomes as a result of feedback. Cranny (2016) asserted that the teachers must not be the mere providers of feedback, yet feedback needs to be produced by peers and the individual students themselves as well. The present study confirmed this because the participants acknowledged that they mobilize their students as feedback providers by enlisting them not only in self but also in peer feedback activities. Another point the participants uttered was promoting feedback as crucial in every aspect of life, not solely for school subjects. A possible explanation for this might be that they conceive feedback holistically and beneficial to every aspect of life.

According to Gibbs and Simpson (2005), learners can supervise themselves and make some necessary revisions in their work with the help of self and peer feedback prior to submitting it to their teachers. Correspondingly, the present study uncovered that the teachers design peer and self-feedback activities so that the learners can make low-level corrections and the teachers can save time for more expert feedback. Also, using class time for feedback activities to manage feedback pressures was brought up in the study. In line with that, Ferris (2004) stated that peer feedback in class renders it possible for teachers to save time. Additionally, Carless and Winstone (2020) underlined that teachers must reconsider their feedback designs taking into consideration their students' ideas and challenges they encounter during engagement with feedback. Upon this, the current study demonstrated that the teachers gather evidence about the effectiveness of the feedback processes with the help of exit tickets to initiate changes or modify their feedback practices to improve them.

With respect to the meso competencies, the present study explored that teachers design feedback activities to prompt student action consequently. Numerous scholars referred to the significance of assessment, stating they provide teachers with information as to the appropriateness of the course content and about students' learning (e.g., Thomas et al., 2004), assessment help teachers collect evidence about the potential problems and necessary modifications (e.g., Gibbs & Simpson, 2005), and assessment results display self-reflection and critical performance analysis (e.g., Hakim, 2005). In line with these understandings, the participants reported that they analyse exam results and develop individualized action plans based on them for each student. Besides, as Henderson et al. (2019) suggested, the study revealed that the participants design activities in a way that students can incorporate the received feedback into the subsequent tasks. This may also be related to the teachers' views about feedback as ongoing. Furthermore, the relevant literature put forward that the rationale of the feedback activities (Carless & Boud, 2018) and the value of peer review (Malecka et al., 2020) must be provided thoroughly to the students. Correspondingly, the

participants stated they provide their students with persuasive rationales for student action during feedback processes.

Furthermore, as the related literature asserts, feedback literate teachers benefit from technology-enhanced feedback (Yu & Liu, 2021), and they use technology to facilitate student feedback uptake and engagement (Carless & Winstone, 2020). Congruent with these, the present study displayed that the teachers utilize technological aids to feedback via learning management systems and by deploying audio feedback (Nicol, 2010), enabling students to access the stored feedback information whenever they need it. Additionally, the present study uncovered that the teachers seek to design feedback dialogues and cycles through nested assessments. This confirmed the same results with Beaumont et al. (2008) and Geçkin (2020), who supported a multiple drafting system. However, it contrasted with Lee's (2003) research study, which demonstrated that the teachers were massively dependent on single drafting even though multiple drafting was favoured in the national syllabus. This might be due to the heavy teacher workload and lack of devoted time to feedback to execute it fully-effectively. Apart from the drafting system, the current study found that the teachers sequence tasks in such a way maximizing student recipience and utilization of the feedback. Moreover, several scholars articulated that with the help of developmental feedback requests, students can seek feedback they wish, and this would encourage teachers to adjust their feedback according to the individual needs and requirements (Malecka et al., 2020) and enable teachers to reduce unproductive teacher comments (Nicol, 2010). This also emerged in the present study; the teachers stated they prompt their students to request feedback. That might contribute to enhancing both student autonomy and feedback literacy.

Many scholars in the relevant literature affirm the necessity and benefits of self-assessment or self-feedback tasks (e.g., Black et al., 2003; Dochy et al., 1999; Hoo et al., 2021; Killingback et al., 2020; Lee, 2019; Malecka et al., 2020; William, 2007). To illustrate, Killingback et al. (2020) found in their study that

the lecturers are up for self-assessment tasks as they are believed to be focused, meaningful, and a good reflective skill for students. Also, Malecka et al. (2020) considered these tasks as contributing to the students' evaluative judgement. Another scholar Lee (2019) promoted self-feedback involving fewer risks but more active student involvement. Likewise, the present study revealed that the participants either design or utilize pre-prepared self-assessment tasks in their feedback processes. Even though they mentioned a standardized system to be followed in their institution, it was found that they can make changes and adaptations considering their own classrooms' peculiar needs/interests. However, this outcome is contrary to that of Öz (2014) and Babanoğlu (2018) in the Turkish context, who found self-feedback is one of the least used formative assessment activities. These contradictory results might be attributed to the context-specific nature of the conditions; the other two studies were carried out in higher education context, whereas the current one was done in a private middle school. Furthermore, another teacher feedback literacy competency was using exemplars to demonstrate the features of good work. Sadler (1989) offered students using evaluative skills to compare their performance to a higher level one, and numerous other scholars supported this view (e.g., Beaumont et al., 2011; Carless & Boud, 2018; Chan & Luo, 2021). A comparison of the findings with those of other studies confirms that the participants make use of exemplars as good models in their feedback processes. In addition, it was uncovered that the participants were benefitting from pre-prepared cohort level comments to copy and paste to save time during online teaching in particular. It might also be linked with being responsive to change.

In addition to self-feedback, peer assessment or peer feedback is favoured by a plethora of researchers (e.g., Black et al., 2003; Beaumont et al., 2011; Carless & Boud, 2018; Lee, 2019; Malecka et al., 2020; Sadler, 1989; William, 2007; Xu & Carless, 2017). It is defined as transforming the students into instructional resources for each other (William & Thompson, 2007) and is viewed as a vital tool for developing student feedback literacy (Fernández-Toro & Duensing, 2021). Also, a number of other scholars proved its effectiveness on student

learning in their experimental studies (e.g., Hoo et al., 2021; Hu & Lam, 2010; Ketonen et al., 2020; Kurihara, 2017). Likewise, the study at hand showed that almost all of the teachers implement peer feedback by motivating students to engage in peer feedback activities. Unlike Geçkin (2020), in the Turkish context, who found that the students are less reliant on peer feedback while writing their subsequent drafts, the participants in this research are aware of the fact that it is beneficial to student learning and believe that students can sometimes learn much better from one another. The very few reasons for not implementing such activities were based upon being time-consuming and COVID-19 precautions. Because of COVID-19, pair work and group work activities had to be restricted for social distancing. Nevertheless, almost all of the participants admitted that they continued employing these activities. Concerning peer feedback still, Malecka et al. (2020) expressed that peer feedback is invaluable for student feedback literacy development as long as students are trained for it. The study's findings complied with this because the participants affirmed that they prepare their students for peer feedback in various ways by explaining checklist and rubric, modelling, guiding them for constructive feedback to provide each other as well as utilizing a simplified checklist and criteria. Moreover, in line with Fernández-Toro and Duensing's (2021) study that showed the benefits of peer marking by considering exemplars and making evaluative judgements of others' work, the current research discovered that the participants include exemplars for their students to deliver feedback to those samples. This might be contributing to the students' development of evaluative judgements to a large extent.

In addition to those, the present study showed that the participants strive to maximize the effects of limited feedback opportunities. The scholars Hyland and Hyland (2006) asserted that teachers must show a balanced coverage in their written feedback by focusing on content, organization, language, and style. Correspondingly, the data unveiled that teachers are in favour of holistic feedback, concentrating on the whole of a student response, including content, organization, and language usage, particularly in written tasks. On the other hand, several other scholars embraced the idea of selective feedback rather than

comprehensive feedback (e.g., Lee, 2003, 2008, 2019; Nicol, 2010) since they view it as a lot more viable and productive. For example, in their research study, Yu (2021) found that teachers shifted their approach from comprehensive feedback to selective feedback after they had realized it was not beneficial for students at all. The current study confirmed the same results. By considering skills and a pre-determined target, the participants acknowledged that they provide targeted feedback, especially if the lesson objective is grammar and vocabulary. This inconsistency between holistic and targeted feedback may be due to the different feedback provision processes for different language skills.

The data also revealed that the teachers prioritize the timing and sequencing of feedback events. In line with Carless and Winstone (2020), who defined feedback literate teachers as paying close attention to timeliness for student feedback uptake, the study confirmed that the teachers ensure feedback information is delivered in time, not too late after a task so that students can make use of it in their subsequent tasks. This may also be related to defining timely feedback as effective. Also, sequencing the activities requiring feedback by considering their importance level was raised in the data. This result may be explained by the length of the student product as well. While more extended and more detailed tasks may be more likely to be forgotten relatively easily, such as an opinion essay, a short paragraph including several target words could be remembered more quickly by the students.

Concerning framing feedback to standards and criteria, the data demonstrated that the teachers make use of them as also supported by the relevant literature, such as criteria (e.g., Fernández-Toro & Duensing, 2021), rubrics (e.g., Chan and Luo, 2021), and checklists including a list of components to be remembered while completing a task. The purpose behind this may be clearly connecting feedback information to the standards to be achieved and to help students justify themselves against explicit criteria (Fernández-Toro & Duensing, 2021). Apart from them, Winstone and Boud (2020) claimed that even though feedback and grading serve distinct purposes, they merge somehow in the same process.

Therefore, Boud and Dawson (2021) described feedback literate teachers as ones who can manage tensions between feedback information and grade justification. Upon this, the current study unveiled that the participants managed to do it by trying to justify students' grades when they hold untrue opinions about their performance and by not writing feedback on the exam papers but marking only grades. Besides, they act considering students' in-class performance without waiting for the exams and try to figure out the reasons behind the inconsistencies between in-class and exam performance along with recognizing the dimension of their roles as being not only a grader but also a mentor in a balanced way, which was also put forward by (Stiggins, 1991).

In regard to the last category level, micro level competencies, the present study found that the teachers allow the students to reconsider some input based on their needs, such as by posing questions to them to lead to new ways of thinking about their work and by building feedback upon students' self-feedback, as proposed by Boud and Dawson (2021). At this category level, differentiation comes into play based on students' individual needs. Similar to the regard that individualized feedback as effective feedback and a teacher role by the participants, the data showed that the teachers provide differentiated feedback to a different group of students taking into account a variety of features, such as their achievement level, needs/interests, personalities/emotions along with grade level appropriateness of the feedback. Besides, even changing the complexity of the language was put forward depending on the students' levels. It seems possible that these results are due to the need for inclusive feedback for all students; the teachers might feel the urge to provide feedback to all students fairly and equally, but also in an appropriate and individualized way to foster each one's recipience of it. In addition, Boud and Dawson (2021) define feedback literate teachers as being able to recognize and be aware of the students at risk who are not utilizing the feedback information. For instance, Geçkin (2020) found in their study that lower proficiency level students pay less attention to the teacher feedback in comparison to higher proficiency level students. Consistently, this current study demonstrated that the teachers were

aware of those students and described them as low achievers, prejudiced against feedback, and scared of receiving negative feedback.

Boud and Dawson (2021) articulated that the relational dimension of Carless and Winstone's (2020) teacher feedback literacy features would fit into micro level competencies in their framework. Upon this matter, Carless and Winstone (2020) uttered that feedback literate teachers are supportive, approachable, and sensitive while sharing their feedback. Likewise, Gravett et al. (2020) signified the kind, empathetic, and transparent approach to delivering feedback to the students. Similar findings also emerged within the present study. The participants underlined the importance of creating a bonding relationship with students and uttering or remarking encouraging words to maintain or enhance students' motivation. It may be that these participants teach in a middle school context; therefore, building trust and bonding with young learners might contribute to the effectiveness of feedback to make the most of it.

Regarding a conceptual framework, Ravitch and Riggan (2012) say that it serves as a guide and ballast to a research study. Boud and Dawson's (2021) conceptual framework adopted in this research study functioned as an integrating system of many aspects of it, including the research setting, the study of the phenomena in the setting, research questions, and interview questions. The competencies of being a feedback literate teacher are reported considering the category levels and components of this particular framework. Focusing on feedback planning and implementation by coordinating colleagues and managing feedback pressures, developing student feedback literacy, how to provide feedback with the help of technology, using self and peer feedback, using exemplars, and differentiation in feedback was the main contribution of the framework to this study during data collection, analysis, and reporting.

5.2. Implications for Practice

The results of this research study shed light on teachers' feedback views, their practices, and suggested feedback practices, along with teacher competencies under a teacher feedback literacy framework. Thus, they provide insights and implications for teachers, educational administrators, and policymakers to enhance implemented feedback practices and feedback literacy.

The present study revealed that feedback is a dynamic and continuous process, also demanding to cope with at some points, which aims to improve students both academically and non-academically. Besides, feedback was uncovered to be a reflection for not only teachers but also students by raising student self-efficacy and self-regulation. Hence, building an effective instructional context whereby students happen to engage with feedback and make the most of it is vital for better student learning. As it holds such massive importance for student learning, teachers should look for ways to make it more effective, and so a variety of ways can be tried, such as providing constructive feedback, in which they specifically describe the strong, weak, and open to improvement aspects, timely feedback, which occurs before students forget about their productions, individualized feedback adjusted based on individual needs and interests, dialogic feedback, involving a two-way process interaction along with understandable and motivating feedback. In addition to that, teachers should bear their roles in mind to maximize the effects of feedback on students' learning. Firstly, they should recognize the role of being a facilitator to help and guide their students throughout feedback processes. Moreover, involving students in feedback processes, keeping track of every student, planning feedback activities, and providing personalized feedback are recommended.

As there are some enhancing and inhibiting factors affecting feedback practices, teachers are suggested to avoid explicit correction, extreme cases, such as very frequent and too detailed feedback, too much praise and red coloured feedback as they are believed to be impeding feedback practices. Instead, they should

provide feedback input thoroughly and detailed enough by making use of a diversity of delivery modes and feedback types that lead students to reflect on their own mistakes and think critically, such as metalinguistic feedback, elaborated feedback, hints/prompts/cues, and error flagging. For educational administrators, it can be recommended that lowering teacher workload to enable them to deliver feedback as effectively as they desire by also offering them a suitable place and office hours devoted to feedback could be of great value. Also, providing teachers with opportunities to yield a more collaborative environment with their colleagues and administration, offering assessment and evaluation units to alleviate their workload, a professional development system and in-service training to improve their feedback literacy, and a learning management system to store and access feedback information is suggested for educational administrators. Furthermore, policymakers should consider the needs and interests of the new generation and come up with a system or an app turning feedback into a more appealing and fun element for students. Apart from the in-service training, policymakers are advised to make some regulations and remedial practices in pre-service education to prepare prospective teachers for feedback in their future careers. Offering them opportunities to collaborate with in-service teachers during the internship period and offering a detailed and feedback-specific course through real-life examples might enhance their feedback literacy and make them fully ready prior to their career.

Feedback literate teachers are believed to demonstrate some competencies (Boud & Dawson, 2021). In line with those, teachers are suggested to strategically plan their feedback by developing strategies to involve each and every student equally and fairly. Besides, they should easily adjust to changing situations, such as the shift to online teaching. Creating a positive and feedback-rich environment as well as making the feedback processes commonplace and familiar to the students through modelling are of utmost importance, too. Coordinating colleagues for consistent feedback practices along with using class time and students as feedback resources for tiny matters are how the teachers should behave to manage feedback pressures. In addition, teachers are suggested to remediate their

feedback practices by gathering evidence from the students and making use of that evidence for improvement. More importantly, teachers should develop their students' feedback literacy in numerous ways. By explaining what feedback really is, mobilizing students for multiple feedback roles, and helping them keep up their emotional equilibrium against negative feedback, teachers can increase the likelihood of student feedback literacy and turn the students into agents of their own learning. Also, teachers can foster students to make evaluative judgement of their own and peers' work by assigning them different feedback provider roles.

Additionally, teachers can benefit from selective or targeted feedback rather than comprehensive feedback to yield better learning results and abstain from the workload caused by feedback. They are advised to sequence feedback events considering their importance level and provide feedback in time before it is too late. Moreover, teachers should employ a multiple drafting system instead of single drafting so that students can apply the received feedback information to their subsequent works. As students are to be the agents of their own learning and play an active role in feedback processes, teachers should prompt students to request feedback. Thanks to it, students might actively connect it to their upcoming work by paying closer attention and utilizing it. Furthermore, since self and peer feedback are regarded as valuable ways to enhance student feedback literacy, teachers should design feedback activities including those. While doing so, framing feedback to standards and criteria, such as rubrics or checklists, carries tremendous importance, too as they present tangible components or points to be included in a work. Relating teacher comments on self and peer feedback comments is also suggested. Besides, making use of exemplars either in self or in peer assessment to illustrate the features of model work and ask students to provide feedback to that or compare it with their work at hand is highly recommended. However, teachers should train their students to get used to them for all these processes to be executed rewardingly. Apart from them, teachers should also utilize technological aids to feedback, such as audio or screencast feedback or a learning management system as the modern world

requires so. Another suggested thing is to be aware that feedback and grading serve distinct purposes and successfully manage the tension between feedback information and grade justification.

Furthermore, teachers are advised to open up new ways of thinking about their works by posing students some questions. Differentiating feedback to individual students, such as considering their achievement levels, interests, and personalities, is of high importance, as well. To make the most of feedback, each student should receive it in a way they can understand. Also, considering the relational dimension, teachers are recommended to create a bonding relationship with their students to keep up their motivation and enthusiasm for better learning. Praising students might be a great chance to achieve that.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

A number of recommendations can be made for further research concerning the current study's findings. The present research confined its data source to semi-structured interviews with participant teachers. In spite of its detailed and rich data source, semi-structured interviews with the administration or the coordinators and classroom observations can be conducted to expand the design of this study with the aim of grasping feedback views, practices, and teacher feedback literacy from a broader perspective.

Secondly, the qualitative data were collected from English language teachers employed in a private school. The same data collection protocol might be applied to teachers working at the same branch but in state schools to reveal the similarities and differences between them depending on context-specific features.

Also, a longitudinal study can be carried out to investigate teachers' feedback literacy growth. Selecting in-service novice teachers and observing their progress in a certain period of time regarding applied feedback practices and their growth

mindset on feedback gained through experience can be conducted. Apart from this, a pre-post design might be carried out to find out the changes in their feedback literacy with the intervention of in-service training.

Another point is that this study was obviously limited by size (15 English language teachers interviewed) and location (a private middle school) due to its qualitative nature. Considering these and owing to the scarcity of quantitative research studies on teacher feedback literacy, a scale might be developed to measure teachers' feedback literacy so that it can be explored deeply as to whether the response practices and philosophies by the teachers are generalizable to broader samples and various contexts. Besides, it would render it possible to explore the correlation of feedback literacy with other variables, such as experience and undergraduate degree.

Apart from these, the present study purposefully selected English language teachers working in a private middle school and explored their views, practices, and competencies through qualitative data. On the other hand, the feedback literacy of teachers from diverse disciplines is not known due to the lack of studies. Thus, the same data collection protocol, relatively modified based on discipline-specific features, might be applied to the other disciplines, and the results obtained can be compared to uncover the similarities and differences between various disciplines depending on the subject matter.

With respect to the relevant literature and this research study, the construct of feedback literacy was explored from the teachers' point of view. However, student feedback literacy is yet to be explored in the Turkish context. Therefore, the feedback literacy of K12 students could be the focus of another qualitative study to gain some insights into the construct from students' perspectives.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

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MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Sayı: 28620816/

01 ARALIK 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Doç. Dr. Yeşim Çapa-Aydın

Danışmanlığını yürüttüğünüz Türkan İSTENCİOĞLU'nun "Investigating teachers' beliefs and practices of feedback in English language education from a teacher feedback literacy framework perspective" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 493-ODTU-2021 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY
İAEK Başkanı

B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (IN ENGLISH)

A. Demographic Information

1. What is your education level? (Which university/which program did you graduate from? Do you have a postgraduate education?)
2. How many years have you been teaching? How many years have you been teaching at this institution?
3. What kind of training did you receive about feedback processes while you were in your undergraduate program?

B. Feedback Views/Approaches

4. How would you define feedback? How would you define an effective feedback process?
5. In your opinion, what is the role of feedback in the education process?
6. What do you think is the role of students in feedback processes?
7. In your opinion, what is the role of the teacher in the feedback process? (Teacher as a reader or teacher as a grader) What are your reasons for thinking this way?
8. To what extent do you think your students benefit from the feedback?

C. Feedback Processes

9. Could you tell us about your feedback process? (Can you give an example?)
 - a. How often? How long after collecting assignments do you provide feedback? Why?
 - b. What types of feedback (e.g., verification, explicit correction, elaborated, hints/prompts/cues, and constructive) do you provide?
 - c. Which criteria (content/organization/language usage) do you focus more on? Why?

- d. What modes of delivery do you use when providing feedback? In what situations do you use it? (Written, oral, individual, whole class, online, audio recording, video...) (Do you prefer to provide in Turkish or English?)
 - e. Do you use peer feedback? If so, how?
 - f. Do you use self-feedback? If so, how?
10. Could you tell me about your oral feedback process that you deliver in English? What do you pay attention to?
 11. Could you tell me about your written feedback process that you deliver in English? What do you pay attention to?
 12. Do you differentiate your feedback according to students? If no, what are your reasons for not doing this? If yes, how do you do it?
 13. What are your observations about your students' feelings and thoughts after receiving feedback? How do you manage these situations? Can you give an example? (Positive and negative emotions)
 14. What kind of feedback process do you follow for exams? How does it differ from assignments?
 15. Could you tell me about your feedback process that you use or follow for different skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing)?
 16. What other factors affect your feedback process?

D. Support Mechanisms

17. What are your institution's expectations from you regarding the feedback process?
18. What opportunities does your institution provide to support these processes? (In-service training, technological tools, testing office). What amenities do you need?
19. Apart from these, what can be done pre-service and in-service to better prepare teachers for feedback processes?
20. Is there anything you would like to add?

C. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (IN TURKISH)

A. Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Eğitim durumunuz nedir? (Hangi üniversiteden/Hangi programdan mezun oldunuz? Lisansüstü eğitiminiz var mı?)
2. Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz? Kaç yıldır bu kurumda öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz?
3. Lisans programınızdayken, geri bildirim süreçleriyle ilgili ne gibi bir eğitim aldınız?

B. Geri Bildirim Görüşleri / Yaklaşımları

4. Geri bildirim nasıl tanımlarsınız? Etkili bir geri bildirim verme sürecini nasıl tanımlarsınız?
5. Size göre geri bildirim eğitimi öğretimi sürecindeki rolü nedir?
6. Geri bildirim süreçlerinde öğrencilerin rolü sizce nedir?
7. Size göre geri bildirim sürecinde öğretmenin rolü nedir? (Okuyucu olarak öğretmen ya da not veren öğretmen.) Böyle düşünmenizın sebepleri nelerdir?
8. Öğrencilerinizin geri bildirimden ne ölçüde yararlandıklarını düşünüyorsunuz?

C. Geri Bildirim Süreçleri

9. Geri bildirim verme sürecinizi anlatır mısınız? (Örnek verebilir misiniz?)
 - a. Ne sıklıkla? Ödevleri topladıktan ne kadar süre sonra geri bildirim veriyorsunuz? Neden?
 - b. Hangi tür geri bildirimler (teyit edici, düzeltici, açıklayıcı, teşhis edici ve genişletici/ekleyici) veriyorsunuz?

- c. Hangi kriterlere (içerik/organizasyon/dil kullanımı) daha çok odaklanıyorsunuz? Neden?
 - d. Geri bildirim verirken hangi yöntemleri kullanıyorsunuz? Hangi durumlarda kullanıyorsunuz? (Yazılı, sözlü, birebir, toplu, online, ses kaydı, video...) (Türkçe mi yoksa İngilizce mi vermeyi tercih ediyorsunuz?)
 - e. Akran geri bildirimini kullanıyor musunuz? Nasıl?
 - f. Öz geri bildirimini kullanıyor musunuz? Nasıl?
10. İngilizce olarak verdiğiniz sözlü geri bildirim verme sürecinizi anlatır mısınız? Nelere dikkat edersiniz?
11. İngilizce olarak verdiğiniz yazılı geri bildirim verme sürecinizi anlatır mısınız? Nelere dikkat edersiniz?
12. Geri bildiriminizi öğrencilere göre farklılaştırıyor musunuz? Hayır ise, bunu yapmamanızdaki sebepler neler? Evet ise, nasıl yapıyorsunuz?
13. Öğrencilerinizin geri bildirim aldıktan sonraki duygu ve düşüncelerine ilişkin gözlemlerinizi neler? Siz bu durumları nasıl yönetiyorsunuz? Örnek verir misiniz? (olumlu ve olumsuz duygular)
14. Peki sınav yapıyoruz dediniz; sınavlar için nasıl bir geri bildirim süreci izliyorsunuz? Ödevlerden ne gibi farklılık gösteriyor?
15. Farklı beceriler için (konuşma, dinleme, okuma, yazma) kullandığınız veya izlediğiniz geri bildirim sürecinizi anlatır mısınız?
16. Geri bildirim sürecinizi etkileyen başka faktörler nelerdir?

D. Destek Mekanizmaları

17. Kurumunuzun sizden geri bildirim süreciyle ilgili beklentileri nelerdir?
18. Kurumunuz bu süreçlerde destek olmak için ne gibi olanaklar sağlıyor? (Hizmet içi eğitim, teknolojik araçlar, testing ofis). Ne gibi olanaklara ihtiyacınız var?

- 19.** Bunların haricinde, öğretmenleri geri bildirim süreçlerine daha iyi hazırlamak için hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi neler yapılabilir?
- 20.** Sizin eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?

D. LIST OF THEMES AND CODES

List of Themes and Definitions of Codes for the First Research Question

Themes	Codes	Sub-Codes	Definitions
Characteristics of feedback mechanism	dynamic		Feedback processes changing based on individual students, teachers, and classroom atmospheres
	non-academic		Feedback not confined to merely academic aspects but also other aspects of students (e.g., social aspects like behaviours, psychological aspects)
	ongoing		Feedback as a continuous process and in a gradual manner
	difficult		Feedback as a difficult process to manage
Characteristics of effective feedback	constructive		Feedback provided to guide students for future improvement by offering ways to enhance the quality of the current performance in a truthful manner

Feedback specifically defining what the good aspects are in a performance by avoiding phatic feedback, which simply confirms the student information with a tick or any other signs.

Feedback provided in time before students forget about what they have produced

Feedback provided peculiar to individual students/differentiated or personal feedback for each of them

Feedback as a two-way process in which there are coordinated teacher-student and peer-to-peer interactions through active learner involvement and engagement in the processes rather than a passive role

Feedback involving a healthy mutual connection and communication between teachers and students, and with other stakeholders if applicable

Feedback written in a way as if speaking to the students

Feedback presented with a level appropriate and simplified language

timely

individualized

dialogic

interactive

understandable

without complexity; and feedback short and clear enough to bear in mind

Feedback including positive remarks enhancing motivation

Feedback happening on an ongoing basis rather than waiting for the final product

Feedback presented in various types (e.g., verification, error flagging)

Feedback presented in a step-by-step manner avoiding too much information at a time

Feedback abstaining from providing the correct answer directly, but remarking some comments,

information, or questions about the nature of the error, in other words through metalanguage. Feedback encouraging student to think/reflect on their mistakes

Feedback convincing the students to believe in its righteousness and make use of the provided feedback information

Feedback built on mutual trust between teachers and students; they

motivating

continuous/process-oriented

varied

gradual

metalinguistic

persuasive

built on mutual trust

The role of feedback	both count on each other
mirror for students	Feedback reveals information for students to see their performance and progress of themselves
continuous improvement of students	Feedback enables students to progress more gradually and/or continuously, and raises them above their current level
mirror for teachers	Feedback reveals information for teachers to see the current level and progress of their students
boosting student self-efficacy	Feedback raises students' beliefs that they can improve and be successful
raising students' autonomy	Feedback raises students' independency and gives them power make decisions by themselves
being a facilitator	Teachers need to push students to think critically, question their received feedback, and then come up with their own solutions rather than explicitly telling students everything.
The role of teachers	Teachers need to give students help or advice regarding the importance

of feedback and feedback processes and guide them through during these processes.

Teachers need to involve students in the feedback processes by assigning them multiple feedback roles and turning them into active participants of their own learning processes.

Teachers need to keep a written account of students' products, performances, assignments, etc. so that it can be referred to later.

Teachers need to plan and organize feedback processes by devoting time to it.

Teachers need to explore individual needs, interests, and differences, and provide feedback peculiar to individual students/differentiated or personal feedback for each of them

Teachers need to provide feedback in time before students forget about what they have produced, and feedback at regular intervals without too much time passing between activities requiring feedback.

Teachers need to motivate students

involving students in feedback processes

keeping a record of every student

planning the feedback process

providing individualized feedback

providing timely feedback

motivating students

to maintain their enthusiasm towards feedback information.
Teachers need to listen to students' utterances very carefully and receive their messages correctly to be able to provide accurate feedback in return.

Students need to take active roles in feedback processes rather than being simply recipients of feedback information as well as interacting with their peers.
Students need to be aware of the value and the scope of feedback information and be prepared for these processes.

Students need to read, draw conclusions from feedback information, and take necessary actions upon that by utilizing it in their works for continuous improvement.

Students need to be receptive to engage with feedback rather than being closed to it.
Students need to believe in their teachers' level of knowledge and

listening attentively

Expectations from students

being involved in feedback processes

high awareness and readiness

making use of feedback

openness

trusting teacher expertise

respect their authority.
 Students need to show or direct their teachers regarding what kind of feedback they require and what the possible ways are to help them improve through feedback information.
 Students need to have enough patience since feedback is a continuous process rather than being short-cut and easily achieved.
 Providing correct answer directly to the students without giving them a chance to reflect on/think of their own mistakes prevents the effectiveness of feedback practices.
 Providing excessive feedback by commenting on everything and every second affects feedback practices negatively.
 Providing long and too detailed feedback without being selective leads to student demotivation with the idea that there is a lot of work to do to improve the product.

guiding teachers

being patient

Inhibiting factors
 Feedback characteristics- related

explicit correction

very frequent feedback

too detailed feedback

too much praise	Providing excessive praise leads to misunderstanding in students with the idea that there is not much left to do to improve themselves.
on the spot feedback	Providing immediate feedback after each and every mistake of students leads to student demotivation.
red coloured feedback	Providing feedback with red coloured pen leads to misunderstanding in students by assuming that feedback is negative.
Student-related	
learner characteristics	When students are not open to feedback and do not appreciate the value of it, this prevents them from using it. If students hold unreasonable opinions and feelings about feedback, this prevents them from using it. If students care only about grades, they do not appreciate the value of it, and this damages feedback procedures. If students over trust themselves and disregard feedback at some point, it
	closed to feedback
	prejudiced against feedback
	grade-oriented
	overconfident

restricts their making use of feedback.		
When students carry certain characteristics, such as being timid, afraid of expressing themselves in public, and or getting easily upset by the things people say or act, feedback practices might be more challenging to implement.	shy/introverted/sensitive	
When students lack self-regulation to follow their own responsibilities regarding feedback, this causes more burden for teachers in feedback procedures.	non-autonomous	
Working with young learners causes interruptions in feedback practices because the younger the age, the longer their adaptation to the feedback practices is. Also, they are easily offended by feedback when they see their mistakes.		younger age group
If there is a hostile and unpleasant classroom atmosphere whereby students hesitate to speak and/or make comments to each other's work, this negatively affects feedback practices.		unfriendly classroom environment

language level gap between students

change in students' needs due to COVID-19

Students' different English proficiency levels hardens feedback practices for teachers to apply. Students' having had distant education resulted in unfulfilled objectives from previous years and their needs to be prioritized have shifted. Therefore, this situation causes interruptions in feedback practices and slows them down.

Teacher-related

teacher's negative mood/low motivation

If teachers are lowly-motivated or in their low mood, this might abstain them from providing effective feedback.

lack of bonding relationships with students

When teachers do not develop a close connection or strong relationship with students, this might affect feedback practices negatively.

teachers' insufficient field knowledge

If teachers lack background knowledge of a topic to be able to explain it well in feedback, this might cause delay in feedback information.

teachers' personal life matters

Teachers' personal life issues might interrupt feedback practices.

Discipline-related

language barrier

If students are not proficient enough in English to understand the feedback information, it becomes much more challenging to be made sense of and used.

high number of activities requiring feedback

As the number of in-class and outside class activities requiring feedback is high in English as a subject, this overwhelms teachers and causes interruptions in feedback practices.

English as a discipline

Since language consists of different skills and improving each skill is necessary, feedback practices are challenging to be implemented in English language teaching as a discipline.

School-related

workload

Due to the high amount of work to be done in a certain period of time other than feedback practices might interrupt feedback information to be provided as effectively as desired by teachers.

lack of devoted time to feedback

If teachers are not offered any time spared for feedback provision, but instead they are to chase after the

students to provide feedback, this overwhelms them, and negatively affects feedback practices. If the student number allocated for each teacher is too high, feedback information addressed to individuals is difficult to provide. Requiring teachers to keep in touch with several stakeholders such as department head, school administration, and parents about feedback practices overburdens teachers and prevents them from implementing feedback practices as effectively as they desire. When teachers are to follow a standardized curriculum and assessment practices as a requirement of the institution, this prevents them from taking personal steps in feedback practices. When teachers are not offered a suitable place to provide feedback, this hinders feedback practices.

Articulating/writing motivating

high number of students

satisfying different stakeholders

standardized curriculum/assessment

lack of a suitable place

Enhancing factors
Teacher-related

teacher praise/encouragement

remarks and praising encourage students to make use of feedback information and improve themselves. Having the content knowledge of what is going to be covered in a specific lesson and letting students know about the scope of feedback information prior to providing it increases the likelihood of effective feedback practices.

When teachers develop a close connection or strong relationship with students and give importance to students' feelings and motivation, this positively affects students' utilization of feedback.

With real life teaching experience year by year, teachers might enhance the quality of their feedback practices.

If teachers are in high mood, this contributes positively to feedback practices.

Through a pleasant environment whereby students feel comfortable to express themselves and feedback-

planning of feedback

bonding relationships between teachers and students

teacher experience

teacher's positive mood

friendly/feedback-rich environments

Instruction-related

rich environments including collaboration, feedback practices can be enhanced.
Teaching and preparing students about feedback practices help them get familiar with the processes more and accelerate and enhance feedback practices.
Providing students with a typical or good example of something, such as a model or samples to be analysed and compared to the work in progress, increases students' awareness and the likelihood of making use of provided feedback information.
Providing in-class feedback increases the likelihood of students' making use of it, and it alleviates teacher workload.
Providing students with feedback as one-to-one oral conferencing where there is teacher and student interaction increases the likelihood of understanding and making use of feedback information.

training students for feedback practices

providing exemplars

in-class feedback

face-to-face feedback

School-related

collaboration with colleagues & administration

Keeping in touch with colleagues regarding feedback processes and getting help from administration to reach out students contribute to feedback practices by lessening teacher workload.

assessment and evaluation unit

Through ready-made rubrics for self-assessment and peer-feedback and criteria for writing/speaking, various sources, and detailed analysis of summative assessment components, meetings in relation to feedback, assessment & evaluation unit contributes to decreasing teacher workload and supports teachers during feedback practices.

Professional Development System

Through a Professional Development System applied at the school, preparing action plans for teachers about feedback enhances their feedback practices.

Learning Management System

Providing the teachers and students with Learning Management Systems, such as ASIST and MS Teams enable students to access feedback information easily and increases the likelihood of teacher-student

conferencing for feedback information.
 In-service trainings provided by the institution increases the quality of feedback practices.
 School requirements asking teachers to integrate feedback into curriculum and lesson plans, and to provide feedback frequent enough for student improvement enhance teacher feedback literacy and feedback practices as a result.
 A system and documents to be followed in the institution guides teachers for feedback practices.
 If students are open to feedback, question it, and request feedback information from their teachers, they benefit from it more.

training provided by the institution

school requirements

clear guidance provided by the institution

students being open to/questioning/requesting feedback

Student-related

List of Themes and Definitions of Codes for the Second Research Question

Themes	Codes	Sub-Codes	Definitions
Employed Feedback Practices Language Preference	Preferred feedback language as L1		Preferred feedback language as Turkish as L1
	Preferred feedback language as L2		Preferred feedback language as English as L2
Frequency of feedback	every second		Teachers referring to providing feedback in terms of frequency as happening every second
	in every lesson		Teachers referring to providing feedback in terms of frequency as happening in every lesson
	every day		Teachers referring to providing feedback in terms of frequency as happening every day
	2-3 times a week		Teachers referring to providing feedback in terms of frequency as happening 2-3 times a week
	every other week		Teachers referring to providing feedback in terms of frequency as happening every other week

Timing of feedback	Timing	Feedback
immediate feedback		Feedback occurring right after a student responds to something or right after a quiz or a test is completed
		Feedback taking place after some period of time following a response, the completion of a task, a quiz or a test
delayed feedback	At the end of the lesson	Feedback provided to students at the end of the lesson
	Within 1-3 days	Feedback provided to students within 1-3 days
	Within 7 days	Feedback provided to students within 7 days
Amount of feedback	Within 7-10 days	Feedback provided to students within 7-10 days
	detailed	Feedback provided to students is detailed being comprehensive and long
	not detailed	Feedback provided to students is not detailed being superficial and short
Mode of Delivery	no feedback	There is no feedback provided to students

written feedback	feedback delivered to students in written form
whole class feedback	feedback provided /addressed to the entire class rather than one-to-one conferencing
face-to-face (individual) feedback	feedback provided to students as one-to-one oral conferencing where there is teacher and student interaction
oral feedback	feedback delivered /articulated to students in spoken form
online	Feedback delivered to students via online platforms like Learning Management System
audio feedback	Attaching audio files including feedback upon those student responses
explicit correction	Feedback in which teachers explicitly provide the correct answer or directly tell that answer is incorrect
metalinguistic feedback	Feedback without providing the correct answer, remarking some comments, information, or questions

Feedback Types

elaborated	about the nature of the error, in other words through metalanguage. The well-formed response is aimed to be elicited from the learners. Using error codes is an example of it. Feedback requiring students to explain why a given response is correct or incorrect
hints/prompts/cues	Feedback guiding the students to right direction through strategic hints without providing the correct answer
verification	Feedback informing students about the knowledge of the results as right or wrong
sandwich feedback	Feedback patterned as praise-criticism-suggestion or negative comments are embedded between positive comments
constructive feedback	Feedback provided to guide students for future improvement by offering ways to increase the quality of the current performance by particularly defining its strong aspect as well, and for expanding students' existing knowledge by establishing a relationship between knowledge they have and new information to expand

error flagging	<p>the schema they have</p> <p>Feedback locating mistakes without providing the correct answer but only highlighting where the error is</p>
direct feedback	<p>Feedback providing the correct answer to the learners. For example, after seeing the corrections, the students revise their products to merely transcribe it into the corrected version, which is already given by the teacher.</p>
topic contingent	<p>Feedback providing learners with contingent information to the target topic. It might be reteaching the target topic.</p>
elicitation	<p>Eliciting correct responses from the students directly. It occurs in three different ways: Teachers pause their utterances intentionally and ask students to complete the rest; teachers use questions to elicit the correct forms, or teachers might ask students to reformulate their sayings/utterances.</p>
providing sources	<p>Feedback encouraging students to discover (more) information on their own by suggesting reference points</p>

recasts	and/or sources. Feedback formulated through teachers' reformulation of the students' utterances by repetition with change (by correcting the error) and "repetition with change and emphasis".
informative tutoring	Feedback including verification feedback, error flagging, strategic hints as well as how to proceed. Correct answer is mostly not provided.
response contingent	Feedback providing learners with information by focusing on a specific response of them. It gives the information about why either a correct or incorrect response works that way.
intonation change/emphasis	Feedback requiring teachers to change their intonation or emphasize to grab students' attention to the erroneous part.
try again	Feedback suggesting repeat until correct. Telling the information that response is incorrect and asking students to make more attempts until finding the correct answer.

Suggested Practices
School-related

in-service training	Teachers must be provided with more orientations, seminars, webinars, and workshops offered by the institution.
lowering workload	Teachers' extra duties must be lessened to enable them to provide richer and more effective feedback.
more collaboration with colleagues	To have consistent feedback practices under formative and summative assessment practices, colleagues must collaborate more for consistency.
training students for feedback practices	Students must be introduced with feedback emphasising its importance from a younger age and trained for feedback practices.
clear expectations and regulations	Schools must hold clear expectations and have certain policies or approaches to feedback practices so that teachers can apply their feedback practices more effectively.
feedback-rich school culture	Feedback should not be always regarded as negative criticism, and it must occur frankly between every party at the institutions, such as

between teachers and administrators.

The importance of feedback and feedback practices must be regarded in the same way at institutions and each party must participate to enrich the practices.

Teachers must be offered with office hours to be able to reach out students easily and communicate with them more peacefully.

To be able to provide more effective feedback by addressing each individual student, student numbers allocated for each teacher must be lowered.

Teachers might be provided with a user-friendly system/an app to provide feedback easily through it and to attract students' attention.

The criteria/the rubrics used might be simplified for students to understand the expectations better.

Instead of accumulating plenty of topics to apply summative assessment, it must be applied more

providing teachers with office hours

lowering student numbers allocated for each teacher

a system/an app

simplifying criteria for students to understand

more frequent testing

Assessment/Feedback-related

frequently to provide feedback in time when students' knowledge of topic is fresh.
Students must be learning through more hands-on and project-based learning activities involving fewer or no summative assessment.

project-based learning with fewer/no testing

Pre-service education-related

internship period

During internship period in pre-service, prospective teachers must be involved in feedback processes. Internship period must be enriched by offering opportunities to pre-service teachers to observe teachers while providing feedback or letting them provide feedback to get familiar with the processes.

detailed/feedback-specific course

A more detailed feedback education must be offered at pre-service education, which might be achieved through a feedback specific course rather than being embedded into methodology courses.

focusing on each four skills

What sort of feedback practices suit more for which skill must be covered in detail during pre-service

modelling

through real-life examples

education.

Instructors at pre-service education must do modelling to pre-service teachers by applying effective feedback practices in their own instruction.

Pre-service language teachers must be offered with opportunities to provide feedback to real-life examples of students' responses/products in their undergraduate courses.

List of Themes and Definitions of Codes for the Third Research Question

Category Levels	Themes	Codes	Sub-Codes	Definitions
Macro competencies	Creating feedback environments	making processes familiar/modelling		Enabling students to get familiar with feedback practices through modelling or showing criteria or checklists to the students
		creating a positive feedback environment		Creating classroom environments whereby feedback is likely to occur and feedback practices are commonplace through building a helpful, and collaborative classroom atmosphere, and where students do not hesitate to participate.
	Planning feedback strategically	Developing strategies involving students		Designing feedback activities and practices

through strategic planning to ensure student participation to a large extent, and in which students are given an active role as feedback providers as well rather than simply being recipients of feedback. Taking a strategic approach to feedback to be responsive to change, such as impacts of shifts to online or face-to-face modes of delivery on feedback practices. Feedback addressing all types of students fairly and equally.

Working with teams of different feedback information providers so that there is a consistent feedback experience for all students.

Being responsive to change

Inclusive feedback for all students

Working with teams for consistency

Sharing feedback

Coordinating colleagues

practices

Sharing successful feedback practices with colleagues to inspire and help them through dialogues and peer observations

Developing student feedback literacy

making judgement of self and/or others' work

Helping students build capacities to be able to make plausible judgements of their own work and others' work. Students actively take part in self and peer feedback practices and enhance their self-evaluative capacities as time passes to be able to make more sound judgments

Helping students build self-confidence by engaging with feedback and their ability to manage affect throughout feedback practices

helping them manage affect

because feedback literate students keep up their emotional equilibrium and abstain from defensive reactions as a response to critical feedback

Explanation and expectation-setting with students in terms of what feedback really is, what the practices will be and how they will be conducted, and how actively they need to take a role in feedback processes rather than being merely being feedback recipients

Teachers use students as feedback resources by enlisting them both in self and peer feedback processes.

Helping students build confidence in engaging in feedback by emphasizing that it is crucial in every

explaining feedback to students and their roles in it

Mobilizing students for multiple feedback roles

promoting feedback as something useful in the world

aspect of life, not just for school subjects

Managing feedback pressures

Leaving teacher time for other feedback

Designing tasks including peer or self-correction on minor matters and leaving teacher time for more expert feedback built upon what students have done

Using class time

Using class time for some feedback activities to manage workload caused by feedback

Improving feedback processes

Collecting evidence about the effectiveness of feedback practices

Collecting evidence about the effectiveness of feedback processes, such as student surveys questioning about feedback like an exit ticket

Utilizing collected evidence from the students

After collecting evidence about the effectiveness of the feedback processes, or

Meso competencies

Designing to intentionally prompt student action

analysing student work, teachers make adjustments or changes in their feedback practices to improve them

Developing individualized action plans based on exam results

Preparing individualized action plans for unfulfilled objectives grounded on summative assessment/grading and sustain feedback practices after it.

Designing activities for subsequent action

Designing activities so that students can incorporate the feedback responses into subsequent assignments/work

Persuading students

Providing persuasive rationales for the importance of student actions in feedback processes

Utilising technological

aids to feedback

Deploying audio feedback

Making use of audio feedback attaching audio files including feedback information upon student responses

Using a Learning Management System

Using Learning Management Systems (Asist and MS Teams) to provide and access feedback information

Designing for feedback dialogues and cycles

Staging tasks to maximize effects of feedback

Arranging or sequencing tasks in a way that students can benefit from the received feedback at the maximum level

Using nested assignments

Setting tasks that are split into parts, such as commenting on drafts as first and second draft of a writing

Prompting students to request feedback

Stimulating students to initiate student-led feedback dialogues

Constructing tasks accompanying feedback processes	requesting feedback
Designing/using self-assessment tasks	Designing or making use of pre-prepared feedback activities to enable students to self-assess prior to receiving input from teachers
decisions made by teachers	Improvisation and changes/adaptations made by the teachers to the provided self-assessment tasks by the institution
Using exemplars to demonstrate features of a good work	Using exemplars to illustrate the features of a quality work, such as a model answer, and then let students compare it with their own work
Using pre-prepared cohort level comments	Using pre-prepared cohort-level comments consisting of certain comments to copy and paste when a common type of mistake or good

Designing feedback processes involving peers

Implementing peer feedback	point is encountered
	Making use of and encouraging students to engage in peer feedback activities
(Reasons for not doing) COVID-19	Due to COVID-19 precautions and social distancing rules, it is difficult to implement pair work activities in the desired way. When teachers think it takes a lot of time unnecessarily, they abstain from implementing it.
Training students for peer feedback	Training students to both provide and receive feedback comments through explaining the checklist and/or rubric Training students to both provide and receive
	explaining checklist/rubric
	modelling

feedback comments through modelling
Orienting students to use an appropriate language, not too harsh, while making judgements of their friends' work. Also, guiding students to make recommendations with regards to how to improve the work.
Providing students with more simplified criteria or a checklist so that students can be more familiar with what is required to do.
Making use of activities including exemplars and asking students to provide feedback to that/those sample(s).

guiding students for constructive feedback

using a simplified checklist/criteria

Using exemplars involving student providing feedback

Maximizing effects of limited feedback opportunities

Holistic feedback

Focusing on the "whole"

of a student response rather than just a part of it, especially in written tasks.

Targeted feedback

considering skills

Differentiating the focus on the criteria (content, organization, and use of language) in feedback practices in congruence with their importance based on skill

considering a pre-determined target

Providing feedback selectively based on a pre-determined objective or focus where it can have the most effect rather than comprehensive feedback on everything. Teachers focus on their targets and leaves the remaining points to another time.

Organizing timing/ sequencing of feedback events

providing feedback in time

Making sure that feedback information is provided in

time for the upcoming tasks to increase its effects on the students' progress
Putting the activities requiring feedback provision in order based on their importance level

sequencing feedback events

Framing feedback to standards/criteria

criteria

Having students create or evaluate their own work against explicit criteria (e.g., content, organization, use of English)

rubric

Connecting feedback information to a rubric, a guiding document listing specific criteria for grading or judging against, to reach the standards

checklist

Having students produce/evaluate their responses considering a checklist, a list of components they must

think or remember to do.
For example, “I have developed my story with a clear character development/setting.”

Managing tensions between feedback and grading

student expectations

Students may disregard activities not to be graded or hold false opinions about their responses’ correctness; therefore, teachers may need to justify their grades.

If students encounter similar tasks in the exams to previously studied ones with feedback received upon them, they may not have difficulty in the exams since they are already familiar with the tasks.

formal requirements

Some activities may not be within summative

assessment components to be graded, or some summative assessment components may not include feedback on them due to formal requirements.

timing of exams

If the time interval between summative assessment components is long, teachers would not have to wait for those data; they might take actions based on their in-class observations or formative assessment results to provide feedback to their students.

Summative assessment does not require modifications in teachers' way of providing feedback to their students; they are merely regularly administered components to collect evidence about

the reliability of the implemented activities having been completed that far

There may be some inconsistencies in student performance in-class and in the exam. Teachers may need to contact these students, sometimes to ask or discuss the potential factors behind it, too. Teachers are graders in the dimension of summative assessment, but they are also mentors throughout feedback processes to guide students.

Posing questions to students which can open them new ways of thinking about their work and other ways of doing it

inconsistency between feedback and exams

role of teacher as a grader vs a mentor

posing questions to students

Micro competencies

Reconsidering input based on students' needs

Linking feedback information with students' self-assessment of their work.

relating feedback input to students' self-assessment

Differentiation based on student needs

differentiated feedback to different group of students

Providing differentiated feedback to different groups of students considering their achievement level

students' achievement level

Providing differentiated feedback to different groups of students considering their varying needs and interests

students' needs/interests

Providing differentiated feedback to different groups of students considering their varying personalities and emotions

students' personality/emotions

Providing differentiated feedback to different groups of students considering their grade

grade level appropriate feedback

level
Changing the complexity
of the feedback language
considering how much
feedback information a
particular student can
process
Recognizing and being
aware of students at risk
of not being able to make
use of feedback
processes/information
well
Articulating or writing
motivating/encouraging
remarks to those in need
to maintain and/or
increase students'
motivation

fine tuning comments

identifying students at risk
of not being able to use
feedback

praising students

E. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

Geri bildirim oldukça uzun bir süredir birçok bilim insanı tarafından değerlendirilmenin vazgeçilmez bir bileşeni olarak kabul edilmiştir (örn., Beaumont vd., 2011; Boud ve Dawson, 2021; Hattie ve Timperley, 2007; Kamiya, 2016; Nicol, 2010; Nicol ve Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Shute, 2008) ve çeşitli öğretim bağlamlarında öğrenme üzerinde derin etkisi olan en güçlü faktörlerden biri olarak kabul edilir (Hattie ve Gan, 2011; Narciss, 2013). Bu nedenle eğitim bağlamında ihmal edilmemelidir (Brookhart, 2008; Hattie ve Timperley, 2007; Nicol ve Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Van der Kleij vd., 2015).

Başlangıçta geri bildirim, doğru veya yanlış belirten öğretimsel hataların düzeltilmesi (Bruner, 1974; Kulhavy, 1977) ve gerçek düzey ile ulaşılması gereken en yüksek düzey arasındaki bilgi boşluğu (Ramaprasad, 1983) olarak tanımlanıyordu. Daha yakın zamanlarda, geri bildirim kavramı, öğrencilerin hem öğretmenler hem de öğrenciler tarafından karşılıklı bir geri bildirim anlayışı yoluyla çalışmalarının kalitesini artırmak için bilgi aldıkları bir anlayışa dönüşmüştür (Boud ve Molloy, 2018; Sadler, 2013). Daha doğrusu, geribildirim kavramının çağdaş tanımı, öğrenenlerin yalnızca bilgi alıcıları olmaktan ziyade aktif roller oynadığı sürdürülebilir bir sürece ve söylemeyi değil takdir etmeyi içeren bir sürece işaret etmektedir (Boud ve Molloy, 2018).

Geri bildirim yeniden kavramsallaştırılmasının birincil nedeni, ortaya çıkan geri bildirim sorunlarını ele almaktır. Bu yeni paradigma içinde, Carless (2015), dikkatin geri bildirim nasıl işlediğine ve her bir tarafın, yani öğretmenler ve

öğrencilerin, geri bildirim etkili bir şekilde uygulanabilmesi için neyin gerekli olduğuna dair iyi bir değerlendirmeye nasıl dahil edilmesi gerektiğine odaklanması gerektiğini iddia etti. Geri bildirimle ilgili diyaloglar (Wood, 2021) ve her iki taraf arasında paylaşılan bir sorumluluk oluşturma (Carless, 2020; Nash & Winstone, 2017), geri bildirim etkin kullanımı ile ayırt edilemez bir şekilde bağlantılıdır. Öğretmenler ve öğrenciler arasında ihtiyaç duyulan paylaşılan sorumlulukların giderek daha fazla tanınması ve geri bildirim önündeki engellerin üstesinden gelinmesi nedeniyle (Henderson vd., 2019; Winstone vd., 2017), geri bildirim, disipline özgü bir okuryazarlık olarak düşünülmeli ve oluşturulmalıdır (Van Heerde, 2010). Ayrıca, paylaşılan sorumluluk kavramı, öğrenci ve öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı arar (Winstone ve Carless, 2019).

Bu nedenle geri bildirim okuryazarı öğrenciler, akademik yargılarda bulunma kapasitelerini geliştirmenin yanı sıra geribildirim bilgisi arayan, üreten ve kullanan kişiler olarak kabul edilir (Carless ve Boud, 2018; Molloy vd., 2020). Bununla birlikte, öğrenci geribildirim okuryazarlığının gelişimi büyük ölçüde öğretmen geribildirim okuryazarlığına bağlıdır (Malecka vd., 2020). Öğretmenler, müfredat tasarımı, rehberlik ve koçluk yoluyla öğrenci geri bildirim okuryazarlığını teşvik etmede önemli kolaylaştırıcılar olarak kabul edilmektedir (Carless ve Boud, 2018).

Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu araştırma, ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretmen yeterliklerini Öğretmen Geri bildirim Okuryazarlık Yeterlik Çerçevesi kapsamında ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Buna ek olarak, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin değerlendirme uygulamalarında geri bildirim, kullandıkları geri bildirim uygulamaları ve geri bildirim uygulamalarına ilişkin önerileri hakkında kapsamlı bir anlayış geliştirmeyi amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın Önemi

Geri bildirim süreçlerinde kalıcı öğrenci ve öğretmen memnuniyetsizliği vardır (Sutton, 2012). Ayrıca, öğrenci yetenekleri ile öğretmen beklentileri arasında bir boşluk var gibi görünüyor. Bu açığı kapatmak için, öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı olan geri bildirimde gelişmiş öğretmen yeterlilikleri gereklidir (Xu ve Carless, 2017). Bu nedenle, geri bildirim ve öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlık yeterlikleri hakkında öğretmen görüşlerine, uygulamalarına ve önerilerine bakmak, geri bildirim öğrenmenin yadsınamaz bir parçasını oluşturduğundan, konunun tam olarak anlaşılması için eğitim araştırma ortamlarında önemli bir yere sahiptir.

Literatürde geri bildirim çok dikkat edilmiş ve dünya çapında İngilizce öğretiminde çeşitli açılardan ve yönlerden iyi araştırılmış bir konu olmuştur. Çok sayıda araştırmada, birçok araştırmacı, öğretmenlerin EFL bağlamında etkili geri bildirim hakkındaki inançlarını araştırmıştır. EFL'deki doğrudan ve dolaylı geri bildirimle ilgili olarak, birkaç araştırmacı çalışma yürütmüştür. Ayrıca İngilizcede sözlü geri bildirim kullanımı bazı araştırmacılar tarafından araştırılmıştır. Yazılı geri bildirim söz konusu olduğunda, birkaç araştırmacı bununla EFL bağlamında ilgilenmiştir. Geri bildirim türleri ve uygulamaları araştırılmıştır. Diğer bir açıdan, akran geri bildirimini birkaç araştırmacı tarafından incelenmiştir. Ayrıca, birkaç bilim adamı geri bildirim sağlama yöntemlerini incelemiştir. Bununla birlikte, dikkatler dünya çapında öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığına çevrildiğinde, sınırlı sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır.

Tüm bunlar göz önüne alındığında, öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı konusunda uluslararası düzeyde az sayıda araştırma bulunması ve Türkiye'de hiç bulunmaması nedeniyle, bu araştırma, öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı bileşenlerini de içeren yeni bir bakış açısıyla geri bildirim çalışmalarına başka bir bakış açısıyla katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca, Türkiye'de çeşitli yönlerden bir sürü geri bildirim çalışması olmasına rağmen, öğretmenlerin

özellikle ortaokul bağlamında geribildirimle ilgili görüşlerini, uygulamalarını ve önerilen uygulamalarını ortaya çıkarmak için kapsamlı araştırmalarla daha fazla incelemeye halen yer var. Ayrıca, Ketonen vd. (2020), geri bildirim okuryazarlığı çalışmalarının şimdiye kadar yüksek öğretime odaklandığını; ortaokullara yeterli ilgi gösterilmediğini belirtmiştir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, öğretmenlerin bir ortaokul, K12, bağlamında geri bildirimle ilgili görüşleri, uygulamaları ve önerilen uygulamaları ile birlikte öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığının örnekleyerek bu araştırma boşluklarını doldurabilir. Bu çalışma, öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerinin geri bildirim okuryazarlığını geliştirebilmeleri için geri bildirim okuryazarlıklarını nasıl geliştirebilecekleri hakkında fikir edinmeleri için geri bildirim, geri bildirim uygulamaları ve geri bildirim okuryazarlığı anlayışlarını yansıtma katkısında bulunabilir. Ayrıca, öğretmenlerin görüşleri, uygulamaları ve geri bildirimle ilgili önerileri hakkında derinlemesine bir anlayış yoluyla gelecekteki kararlar için iç görüş sağlayabilir. Ortaya çıkan bilgiler hem hizmet öncesi hem de hizmet içi karar vericilere ve öğretmen yetiştiricilerine, geri bildirim eğitimlerini yeniden gözden geçirmeleri ve geri bildirim yardımıyla öğrenme olasılığını artırmak için öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığını geliştirmeleri için rehberlik edebilir.

YÖNTEM

Araştırma Soruları

Araştırmaya yön veren araştırma soruları aşağıdaki gibidir:

- 1- Ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin değerlendirme uygulamalarında geri bildirimle ilişkin görüşleri nelerdir?
- 2- Özel bir okulda görev yapan ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenleri ne gibi geri bildirim uygulamalarına başvurmaktadır? Özel bir okulda görev yapan ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin önerdiği geri bildirim uygulamaları nelerdir?

3- Öğretmen Geribildirimi Okuryazarlık Yeterlik Çerçevesi kapsamında ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretmen yeterlikleri nelerdir?

Araştırmanın Deseni

Temel bir nitel araştırma yürüten bir araştırmacı, insanların dünyalarını nasıl kurdukları ve deneyimlerine ne tür anlamlar yükledikleri ile ilgilenecektir. Ayrıca, insanların deneyimlerini ve hayatlarını nasıl anlamlandırdıklarını anlamaya çalışırlar (Merriam ve Tisdell, 2016). Bu çalışmanın en büyük amacı, öğretmenlerin geri bildirim görüşlerini, geribildirim uygulamalarını ve yetkinliklerini öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı çerçevesi altında ortaya çıkarmak ve gerçek yaşam ortamlarında olgular hakkında bilgi toplayabilmek olduğundan, bu çalışmada temel nitel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Bağlamı

Mevcut çalışmanın yapıldığı okul Ankara, Türkiye'de bulunmaktadır. 1980'lerde kurulmuş olup, Türkiye'nin diğer şehirlerinde farklı kampüsleri olan K-12 vakıf okullarından biridir. Bu vakıf okullarının merkezi olarak, çoğunlukla akademisyenlerin çocuklarını, aynı zamanda maddi açıdan ayrıcalıklı ailelerin öğrencilerini de içeren özel bir okuldur. 850'den fazla öğretmeni ve yaklaşık 7000 öğrencisi vardır.

Araştırmanın yürütüldüğü mevcut okul, anaokulundan lise düzeyine kadar eğitim vermektedir. Ancak eldeki bu çalışma ortaokulda görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenleri ile yapılmıştır.

Öğrencilerin eğitim süreci, öğrenme sürecine paralel olarak bilimsel bir yaklaşımla yakından takip edilmektedir. Bir akademik yıldaki her dönem boyunca, öğrencilerin dil becerileri yazılı sınavlar, dil bilgisi sınavları, konuşma performansı görevleri, yazma portföyleri ve proje ödevleri gibi çeşitli değerlendirme araçlarıyla değerlendirilir. 5. sınıftan 8. sınıfa kadar her sınıf

seviyesindeki öğrenciler, İngilizce sorularını okuma ve kullanmayı içeren iki resmi sınava girerler, iki dinleme sınavına ve bir dilbilgisi sınavına girerler ve her dönem iki konuşma performansı ödevi yaparlar.

Her sınıf düzeyinde yaklaşık 12 sınıf vardır ve her birinde yaklaşık 22 öğrenci bulunur. Ayrıca ortaokul İngilizce bölümünde 18 yerli ve beş uluslararası öğretmen görev yapmaktadır. Her sınıf düzeyindeki dersler ikiye ayrılır: ana ders ve anadili İngilizce olan 2 öğretmenleri tarafından verilen dersler. Öğrencilerin haftalık programlarındaki ders sayıları sınıf seviyelerine göre değişir.

Her öğretmenin haftada yaklaşık 24 saat ders vermektedir; ancak öğretmenlik dışında tüm öğretmenlerin haftalık olarak bölüm ve seviye bazında toplantılara katılması, sınavlarda gözetmenlik yapması, veli toplantıları düzenlemesi ve onlarla düzenli olarak iletişim halinde olması, her teneffüste görev başında olması gerekmektedir. Diğer görevleri ise ders planları ve ek uygulama materyalleri hazırlamak, bölümde veya okulda biri eksik olduğunda dersleri doldurmak ve mesleki gelişim faaliyetlerinde bulunmaktır.

Katılımcılar

Bu çalışmada, katılımcıların seçiminde araştırmanın amacı dikkate alınarak amaçsal örnekleme stratejisi kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar önceden belirlenmiş bir kritere göre seçilmiştir (Cohen vd., 2007). Ölçüt, daha önce ya da hala bir sınıfın İngilizce 1 öğretmenliğini yapmış olmaktı. İngilizce 2 öğretmenleri değerlendirme ve geri bildirim uygulamaları kaygısı olmadığı için, kasıtlı olarak araştırmadan çıkarılmıştır. Geriye kalan 19 kişiden 15'inin gönüllü katılımı ile bu çalışma gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Bu araştırma çalışmasında ana veri toplama aracı olarak yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme protokolü kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılardan demografik veri

toplayabilmek için, görüşmenin ilk bölümü olarak katılımcıların eğitim durumu (eğer varsa lisans ve lisansüstü eğitim düzeyi), tüm öğretmenlik deneyimi ve öğretmenlik deneyimi ile ilgili sorulardan oluşan yapılandırılmış bir bölüm geliştirilmiştir. İlk bölümü, önemli olayların nasıl ve nedenlerini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla açık uçlu sorular içeren yarı yapılandırılmış bir bölüm izlemiştir. Mülakat soruları ilk aşamada güncel literatürün kapsamlı bir şekilde taranmasından sonra geliştirilmiştir: İngilizce öğretiminde geri bildirim görüşleri ve uygulamaları ve öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı. Bu nedenle sorular, İngilizce öğretiminde geri bildirim ve öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığının kavramsal çerçevesi üzerine daha önce yapılmış araştırmalara uygun olarak oluşturulmuştur.

Veri Toplama Süreci

Etik izin başvurusu ve onayından sonra araştırma için veriler 2021-2022 eğitim-öğretim yılının sonbahar döneminde toplanmıştır. 15 katılımcının katılımıyla tüm veri toplama süreci 16 gün sürmüştür. Görüşme öncesi her katılımcı ile bir randevu oluşturulmuş olup, randevu gün ve saatinde görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Katılımcılar ile bireysel görüşmeler okulun yoğun temposu ve COVID-19 tedbirleri kapsamında çevrimiçi olarak yürütülmüştür ve katılımcıların onayıyla kaydedilmiştir.

Veri Analizi

Veri analizi, MAXQDA 2022 nitel veri analiz yazılımı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Mevcut araştırma çalışmasında araştırma sorularını cevaplamak için nitel içerik analizi kullanılmıştır.

İlk iki araştırma sorusuna cevap verebilmek için nitel ve tümevarımsal içerik analizi yapılmıştır. Fraenkel vd. (2012), araştırmacının verilere çok aşina olduğunu ve analiz devam ettikçe kategorilerin ortaya çıkmasına izin verdiğini öne sürmüştür. Amaç, verilerin tüm önemli yönlerinin yakalanmasını

sağlamaktır (Gale vd., 2013). Her transkripti birkaç kez satır satır okuduktan sonra, araştırmacı bu iki araştırma sorusunu mercek olarak kullanarak anahtar kavramları belirlemeye başlamıştır (Braun ve Clarke, 2006). İlk olarak araştırmacı olası kodları atayarak açık kodlama yapmıştır. Çok sayıda ilk kodun ortaya çıkması üzerine, ilk kod listesini küçültmek için herhangi bir benzerlik fark etmek için birbirleriyle karşılaştırılmışlardır. Daha sonra, herhangi bir benzerlik veya örüntü taşıyan kodlar kümelenmiş ve her bir kümeye, benzerliklerini belirtmek için her bir kodu ifade edecek veya temsil edecek bir isim atanmış ve bunlara tema adı verilmiştir (Braun ve Clarke, 2006).

Üçüncü araştırma sorusuna ilişkin olarak, sıralı bir yaklaşım benimsenerek hem tündengelim hem de tümevarım içerik analizi yapılmıştır. İlk olarak, tündengelim yaklaşımı uygulanmıştır. Boud ve Dawson (2021) tarafından önerilen öğretmen geri bildirim yeterlik çerçevesi temel alınmış ve bir başlangıç listesi olarak ele alınmıştır. Veriler, bu başlangıç listesine dayalı olarak kategoriler halinde kodlanmıştır. Daha sonra, veri setlerinden herhangi bir uygun kategori düzeyine yerleştirilmek üzere başka temalar ve kodlar türetmek için tümevarımsal yaklaşım kullanılmıştır.

BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Geri Bildirim İnançları

Öğretmenlerin geri bildirim ilgili görüşlerine ilişkin bulgularda ilk tema dönütün özellikleri olarak ortaya çıkmış ve katılımcıların tamamına yakını dönüt mekanizmasını dinamik olarak tanımlamıştır. Diğer özellikler akademik olmayan, devam eden ve kullanılması zor olarak sıralandı. Ayrıca katılımcılar etkili geri bildirimi nasıl tanımladıklarını gündeme getirdiler. Yarısından fazlası, etkili geri bildirim yapıcı, zamanında ve bireyselleştirilmiş olduğunu dile getirdi. Ayrıca, kayda değer sayıda insan tarafından öne sürülen diğer özellikler diyalojik ve etkileşimlidir. Bunların dışında, görüşülen kişiler ayrıca anlaşılır,

motive edici, sürekli, çeşitli, kademeli, üst dilsel, ikna edici ve karşılıklı güvene dayalı geri bildirim etkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Ayrıca, katılımcıların yarısından fazlası, geribildirim rolünü öğrencilerin kendileri ve sürekli gelişimleri için bir ayna veya yansıma olarak görmüşlerdir. Diğer roller, öğretmenler için ayna olarak ortaya çıkmıştır ve öğrencilerin hem öz yeterliklerini hem de özerkliklerini artırdığı söylenmiştir. Öğretmen rollerine gelince, katılımcıların tamamına yakını geri bildirim süreçlerinde öğrencilere rehber olan kolaylaştırıcı konumundan söz etmişlerdir. Diğer öğretmen rolleri, öğrencileri geri bildirim süreçlerine dahil etmek, her öğrencinin kaydını tutmak, geri bildirim süreçleri için planlanmak, bireyselleştirilmiş geri bildirim sağlamak, zamanında geri bildirim sağlamak, öğrencileri motive etmek, bütünsel geri bildirim sağlamak ve dikkatle dinlemek. Geribildirim süreçlerinde öğrencilerden beklentiler söz konusu olduğunda, öğretmenlerin yarısından fazlası öğrencilerin geribildirim süreçlerine dahil olması gerektiğini vurgulamıştır. Diğer beklentiler ise yüksek farkındalık ve hazır bulunuşluk, geri bildirimden yararlanma, açıklık, öğretmenin uzmanlığına güvenme, öğretmene rehberlik etme ve sabırlı olma olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bunların dışında geri bildirimle ilgili görüşlerin altında engelleyici ve güçlendirici faktörler ortaya çıkmıştır. Engelleyici faktörlerle ilgili olarak, katılımcılar, açık düzeltme, çok sık geri bildirim, çok ayrıntılı geri bildirim, çok fazla övgü, anında geri bildirim ve son olarak kırmızı renkli geri bildirim olarak sıralanan çeşitli geri bildirim özellikleri ile ilgili faktörleri engelleyici olarak belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca, öğrenci ile ilgili faktörler de gündeme getirilmiştir. Belirli özellikleri taşıyan, mesela dönütlere kapalı, dönütlere karşı ön yargılı, not odaklı, aşırı özgüvenli, utangaç/içe dönük/duyarlı/ özerk olmayan öğrencilerin dönüt süreçlerini olumsuz etkilediğine inanılmıştır. Ayrıca, genç yaş grubu, huzurlu olmayan sınıf ortamı, öğrenciler arasındaki dil seviyesi farkı ve COVID-19 nedeniyle öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarının değişmesi, öğrenci kaynaklı diğer

engelleyici faktörler olarak öne sürülmüştür. Engelleyici faktörlerin tek kaynağı öğrenciler değildi; öğretmenlerin olumsuz ruh hali/düşük motivasyonu, öğrencilerle bağ kurmama, öğretmenlerin yetersiz alan bilgisi ve öğretmenlerin kişisel hayatı ile ilgili faktörler de öğretmenle ilgili faktörler olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Bir alan olarak İngilizcenin, dil engeli, geri bildirim gerektiren etkinliklerin çokluğu ve bir disiplin olarak İngilizce gibi bir dizi engelleyici faktörü beraberinde getirdiğine inanılmıştır. Ayrıca, engelleyici faktörler altında okulla ilgili bazı engelleyici faktörler de belirtilmiştir. Hemen hemen tüm katılımcılar iş yükünü işaret etmiştir. Diğer kodlar ise geri bildirim ayrılma zamanının azlığı, öğrenci sayısının fazlalığı, farklı paydaşların tatmini, standartlaştırılmış bir müfredat/değerlendirme ve uygun yerin olmaması şeklinde sıralanmıştır.

Öte yandan, geribildirim uygulamalarını geliştirici faktörler olarak bazı faktörler ortaya konmuş ve ilk alt tema öğretmenle ilgili faktörler olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcılar, öğretmenin övülmesi/teşvik edilmesinin, geri bildirim planlamasının, öğrencilerle bağ kurmanın, öğretmen deneyiminin ve öğretmenin olumlu ruh halinin geri bildirim süreçlerinin etkililiğini geliştirdiğine inanmışlardır. Bunların dışında, samimi ve geri bildirim açısından zengin ortamlar, öğrencilerin geri bildirim uygulamaları için eğitilmesi, örnekler verilmesi, sınıf içi geri bildirimler ve yüz yüze geri bildirimler gibi öğretimle ilgili çeşitli faktörler gündeme getirilmiştir. Okulla ilgili faktörlerin de geri bildirim süreçlerine katkıda bulunduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcı öğretmenler, meslektaşlar ve yönetim ile iş birliği, ölçme ve değerlendirme birimi, mesleki gelişim sistemi, öğrenme yönetim sistemi, kurum tarafından verilen eğitimler, okul gereksinimleri ve kurum tarafından sağlanan açık rehberlik gibi olumlu etkileri olan faktörler olduğu görüşünü benimsemişlerdir. Bunlara ek olarak öğrencilerin öğrenci ilişkilerinde açık/sorgulayıcı/geribildirim talep etme durumları gündeme getirilmiştir. Bunlara ek olarak öğrencilerin

açık/sorgulayıcı/geri bildirim talep etmeleri öğrenci ile ilgili geliştirici bir faktör olarak gündeme getirilmiştir.

Kullanılan Geri Bildirim Uygulamaları ve Önerilen Geri Bildirim Uygulamaları

Kullanılan geribildirim uygulamalarına ilişkin ikinci araştırma sorusuyla ilgili olarak, bulgular, öğretmenlerin öğrencilerin akademik düzeyleri gibi bazı durumlara bağlı olarak geribildirim dillerini Türkçe ve İngilizce arasında değiştirdiklerini ortaya koymuştur. Ne sıklıkla geri bildirim verdikleri sorulduğunda, her saniye, her derste, her gün, haftada 2-3 kez ve iki haftada bir olmak üzere farklı yanıtlar alınmıştır. Geri bildirim zamanlaması, anında geri bildirim ve gecikmeli geri bildirim olarak da belirtilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin çoğu ev ödevlerinden sonra 1-3 gün içinde dönüt verdiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca, geri bildirim miktarı ayrıntılı, ayrıntılı değil ve geri bildirimsiz olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Sunum şekliyle ilgili olarak, neredeyse tüm öğretmenler geri bildirim için kullanmak üzere birden fazla sunum şekline başvurduğunu söylemiştir. 15'i de yazılı ve tüm sınıf geri bildirimini kullanmasını söylerken, neredeyse tamamı yüz yüze ve sözlü geribildirime işaret etmiştir. Çevrimiçi geri bildirim ve sesli geri bildirim de dile getirilmiştir. Ayrıca öğretmenler tarafından uygulanmak üzere çoklu dönüt türleri dile getirilmiştir. Hemen hemen hepsi, direkt düzeltme, üst dilsel geri bildirim kullandıklarını söylemişlerdir. Yarısından fazlası ipuçları, doğrulama, sandviç geri bildirim ve yapıcı geri bildirim kullandıklarını söylemiştir. Diğer geribildirim türleri ise doğrudan geri bildirim, hata işaretleme, konu koşullu, ortaya çıkarma, kaynak sağlama, yeniden düzenleme, dolaylı geribildirim, bilgilendirici ders verme, yanıt koşullu, tonlama değişikliği/vurgulama ve tekrar deneme olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

İkinci araştırma sorusu üzerine, katılımcı öğretmenler ayrıca geri bildirim uygulamaları ve süreçleri ile ilgili çeşitli önerilerde bulunmuşlardır. En çok okulla ilgili uygulamalar olarak gündeme gelmiştir. Katılımcıların tamamına

yakını hizmet içi eğitimin gerekliliğine işaret etmiştir. Diğer kodlar ise iş yükünün azaltılması, meslektaşlarla daha fazla iş birliği, öğrencilerin geri bildirim uygulamaları için eğitilmesi, açık beklentiler/düzenlemeler, geri bildirim açısından zengin okul kültürü, öğretmenlere ofis saatleri sağlanması ve her öğretmen için ayrılan öğrenci sayısının azaltılması olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, geri bildirim sağlamak için kullanılacak bir sistem/uygulama, öğrencilerin daha kolay anlayabilmesi için kriterleri basitleştirme, daha az içerik için daha sık test etme ve az veya hiç olmayan proje tabanlı öğrenme gibi değerlendirme/geribildirim ile ilgili uygulamalar önerilmiştir. Hizmet öncesi eğitime de dikkat çekilmiştir. Kariyer öncesi geri bildirim süreçleri için staj döneminin iyileştirilmesi gerektiğini vurgulamışlardır. Ayrıca lisans düzeyinde eğitimde ayrıntılı bir geri bildirim dersi verilmesi önerilmiştir. Katılımcılar ayrıca hizmet öncesi eğitimleri sırasında analiz etmek için dört beceriye, modellemeye ve gerçek yaşam örneklerine odaklanmanın gerekliliğini vurgulamışlardır.

3. Öğretmen Geri Bildirim Okuryazarlığı Çerçevesinde Öğretmen Yeterlikleri

Üçüncü araştırma sorusuna gelince, Boud ve Dawson (2021) tarafından önerilen öğretmen geri bildirim okuryazarlığı çerçevesinde öğretmen yeterlikleri makro, mezo ve mikro yeterlikler altında incelenmiştir. İlk olarak, makro yeterliklerle ilgili olarak, çalışma, katılımcıların yarısından fazlasının geri bildirim süreçlerinin modelleme gibi öğrencilerine tanıdık gelmesine dikkat ettiklerini ve ayrıca öğrencilerin geri bildirimde bulunmaktan çekinmeyecekleri olumlu bir geri bildirim ortamı oluşturmaya çalıştıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Benzer şekilde, öğrencileri geri bildirim süreçlerine dahil etmek için bazı stratejiler geliştirdiklerini ve tüm öğrencilere adil ve eşit bir şekilde kapsayıcı geri bildirim sağladıklarını belirtmişlerdir. COVID-19'dan sonra çevrimiçi eğitime geçiş nedeniyle, çevrimiçi araçlardaki geri bildirim sağlamaları da değişime duyarlı olduklarını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, mevcut çalışmada öğretmenlerin tutarlılık için

ekiplerle çalıştıklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır ve birçoğu geri bildirim uygulamalarını birbirleriyle nasıl paylaştıklarına değinmiştir. Katılımcıların yarısından fazlası öğrenci geri bildirim okuryazarlığını geliştirmenin göstergesi olan bazı noktalardan bahsetmiştir. Bu göstergeler, kendilerinin ve başkalarının çalışmaları hakkında yargıda bulunmayı, öğrencilerin duygularını yönetmelerine yardımcı olmayı, öğrencilere geri bildirim ve rollerini açıklamayı ve öğrencileri çoklu geri bildirim rolleri için harekete geçirmeyi işaret etmiştir. Ayrıca, katılımcılardan ikisi, geri bildirim yalnızca akademik amaçlarla değil, dünyada faydalı bir şey olarak teşvik ettiklerini belirtmiştir. Mevcut çalışma, katılımcının geri bildirim baskılarını, kendini ve akran düzeltmesini kullanarak ve öğretmene diğer geri bildirimler için zaman ayırarak ve ayrıca geri bildirim girdisi sağlamak için sınıf zamanını kullanarak yönettiklerini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca geri bildirim etkinliği hakkında kanıtlar topladıklarını ve öğrencilerden topladıkları bu kanıtları geri bildirim süreçlerini iyileştirmek için kullandıklarını bulmuştur.

Mezo yeterliklerle ilgili olarak, bu çalışma öğretmenlerin sınav sonuçlarına dayalı bireyselleştirilmiş eylem planları geliştirerek, sonraki eylemler için etkinlikler tasarlayarak ve öğrencileri ikna ederek kasıtlı olarak öğrenci eylemini teşvik etmek için tasarım yaptıklarını göstermiştir. Ek olarak, sesli geri bildirim sağlamanın yanı sıra bir öğrenme yönetim sistemi kullandıkları da açıklamıştır. Kayda değer sayıda öğretmen ayrıca geri bildirim etkilerini en üst düzeye çıkarmak için görevleri sıralayarak ve iç içe değerlendirmeyi kullanarak geri bildirim diyalogları ve döngüleri tasarlamayı gündeme getirmiştir. Birkaçı, öğrencilerinden geri bildirim talep etmelerini istediklerini söylemiştir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin tamamına yakını öz-değerlendirme görevlerini tasarlamayı veya kullanmayı kabul ederken, bir kısmı da önceden hazırlanmış kontrol listelerinde sınıflarının özelliklerini dikkate alarak uyarlamalar yaptıklarını kabul etmiştir. İyi çalışmanın özelliklerini göstermek için örneklerin kullanılması ve önceden hazırlanmış kohort düzeyindeki yorumların kullanılması, mevcut çalışmada ortaya konan diğer yetkinlikler arasındadır. Öz değerlendirmeye ek olarak,

öğretmenlerin neredeyse tamamı akran geri bildirim uygulamalarını belirtmişlerdir. Çok az öğretmen, COVID-19 önlemleri nedeniyle kullanmadığını ve zaman alıcı bulduğunu itiraf etmiştir. Öğretmenlerin çoğunluğu öğrencileri akran geribildirim konusunda eğittiklerini belirtmişler ve kontrol listesi/dereceli puanlama anahtarı açıklama, modelleme, yapıcı geri bildirim için onlara rehberlik etme ve basitleştirilmiş kontrol listesi/kriter kullanma gibi çeşitli uygulamalar ortaya çıkmıştır. Akranları içeren örneklerin kullanılması da bahsedilen bir diğer yetkinlik olmuştur. Ayrıca, sınırlı geri bildirim fırsatlarını en üst düzeye çıkarmak için bütüncül geri bildirim ve hedefe yönelik geri bildirim kullanılarak, beceriler ve önceden belirlenmiş bir hedef göz önünde bulundurularak katılımcıların çoğunluğu tarafından gündeme getirilmiştir. Neredeyse tüm katılımcılar zamanında geri bildirim sağlamaya işaret etmiştir ve bir katılımcı geri bildirim olaylarını önemlerine göre sıralamaya değinmiştir. Ayrıca katılımcı öğretmenlerin tamamına yakını ölçüt, dereceli puanlama anahtarı ve kontrol listelerini temel alarak geri bildirim standartlarına göre çerçevelemekten bahsetmiştir. Mezo yetkinliklerin altındaki son yetkinlik, geri bildirim ve not verme arasındaki gerilimleri yönetmek olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Birkaç katılımcı, öğrenci beklentileri, resmi gereksinimler, sınavların zamanlaması, geri bildirim ve sınav arasındaki tutarsızlık ve öğretmenin not verene karşı mentor rolü nedeniyle bunları yönetmek zorunda olduğundan bahsetmiştir.

Son olarak, mikro yeterliklerle ilgili olarak, bu çalışma öğretmenlerin öğrencilere çalışmalarını hakkında yeni düşünme yolları açmak için sorular sorduğunu ve geri bildirim girdilerini öğrencilerin öz değerlendirmeleriyle ilişkilendirdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Öğrenci ihtiyaçlarına göre farklılaşma tüm katılımcılar tarafından dile getirilmiştir. Çalışmada, farklı öğrenci gruplarına başarı düzeylerine, ihtiyaçlarına/ilgilerine, kişiliklerine/duygularına göre ve sınıf düzeyine uygunluğu dikkate alınarak farklılaştırılmış geri bildirimler ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Önemli sayıda katılımcı ayrıca yorumların dilinin öğrenciye göre

değiştirilmesine ve geri bildirim kullanamama riski taşıyan öğrencilerin belirlenmesine dikkat çekmiştir. Ayrıca ihtiyacı olanları övmek de birkaç hoca tarafından dile getirilmiştir.

Öneriler

İleride yürütülecek olan geri bildirim okuryazarlığı çalışmaları için belirli önerilerde bulunmak mümkündür. Geri bildirim görüşlerini, uygulamalarını ve öğretmen geribildirim okuryazarlığını daha geniş bir perspektiften kavramak amacıyla bu çalışmanın tasarımını genişletmek için yönetim veya koordinatörlerle yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve sınıf gözlemleri yapılabilir.

Aynı branşta ancak devlet okullarında görev yapan öğretmenlere, bağlama özgü özelliklere bağlı olarak aralarındaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmak için aynı veri toplama protokolü uygulanabilir.

Öğretmenlerin geri bildirim uygulamalarının ve felsefelerinin daha geniş örneklemelere ve çeşitli bağlamlara genellenebilir olup olmadığı konusunda derinlemesine araştırılabilmesi için öğretmenlerin geri bildirim okuryazarlığını ölçmek için bir ölçek geliştirilebilir. Ayrıca bu ölçek, geri bildirim okuryazarlığının deneyim ve lisans derecesi gibi diğer değişkenlerle ilişkisini keşfetmeyi mümkün kılacaktır.

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