

T.C.
UNIVERSITY OF GAZIANTEP
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**PROPOSING A SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR ORAL
COMMUNICATIVE CLASSES REGARDING
TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF
MODIFIED OUTPUT**

MASTER'S OF ART THESIS

AKIN GÜRBÜZ

GAZIANTEP
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ÖZET

ÖĞRETMEN VE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİSİ DERSLERİNDEKİ SÖZEL KULLANIM YANLIŞLIKLARINA YÖNELİK “DÜZELTME ODAKLI” TUTUMLARI ESAS ALINARAK KONUŞMA BECERİSİ İZLENESİNİN ÖNERİLMESİ

GÜRBÜZ, Akın

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Bu tezin temel amacı Gaziantep Üniversitesi- Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'ndaki öğretmen ve öğrencilerin konuşma becerisi derslerinde geçen sözel kullanım yanlışlarına yönelik “düzeltme odaklı” yaklaşıma olan tutumlarını tespit etmektir. Örneklem Gaziantep Üniversitesi- Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'ndaki 48 öğretim elemanı ve 280 hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisinden oluşmaktadır. Katılımcı öğretim elemanları ve öğrencilere konuşma derslerindeki düzeltici geridönüt tutumlarını ölçmek üzere Geridönüt anketleri verilmiştir. Hem öğretim elemanı hem de öğrenci anketi (1) düzeltmenin gerekliliği, (2) düzeltmenin sıklığı, (3) düzeltmenin zamanlaması, (4) düzeltme yapılacak hata türleri, (5) düzeltme yöntemleri ve (6) düzeltme yapacak kişiler olmak üzere altı ana başlıktan oluşmaktadır. Anketlerde yer alan bu bölümler ders kayıtları ve 30 öğrenciyle yapılan yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmelerle de ayrıca incelenmiştir. Veri toplama teknikleri açısından, anket, ders kayıtları ve öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmeler sayesinde üç taraflı bir veri toplama çeşitliliği kazandırılmıştır. Bu anlamda toplanan veriler hem nicel hem de niteliksel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın bir sonuç çıktısı olarak, öğretmen ve öğrencilerin konuşma becerisi derslerindeki “düzeltme odaklı” geridönüt algılarını temel alarak konuşma becerisi dersleri için örnek bir izlençe önerisinde bulunmayı da hedeflemiştir. Betimleyici bir factor analizinin sonucu olarak, hem öğretim elemanlarının hem de öğrencilerin konuşma derslerinde geridönüt verilmesinin önemini farkında oldukları, hatta öğrencilerin bu konuda öğretim elemanlarından daha fazla talepkar oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretmen ve öğrenciler arasında tespit edilen bir benzerlik ise geridönütün zamanlaması olmuştur. Öğretmenler gibi, öğrencilerin de geridönütün öğrenciler konuşmalarını tamamladıktan sonra verilmesi konusunda hemfikir oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Konuşmada yanlış anlamaya neden olacak düzeyde önemli hataların ve sık sık tekrarlanan hataların düzeltilmesi konusunda öğretmen ve öğrenciler aynı fikirde olmalarının yanında, öğrencilerin daha fazla geridönüt talep ettikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Tekrar, ima yoluyla geridönüt ve çıkarım yaparak geri dönüt öğretmenler arasında ilgi görürken, öğrenciler arasında ise yine tekrar, ima yoluyla geridönüt ve şaşırtıcı bir şekilde dilbilimsel geridönüt türü ilgi görmüştür. Geri dönütün kaynağı olarak ise en çok ilgiyi öğretmen görmüştür. Sonuç olarak, *output hipotezi* esas itibarıyla konuşma ve dilbilgisel doğruluk arasındaki ilişki çerçevesinde şekillenirken, bu çalışmanın sonuçları da sözsözsel açıdan “düzeltme odaklı” yaklaşımın dillerarası gelişim sürecine katkıda

bulunacağını öngörmektedir. Bu yüzden, bu çalışma *output hipotezine* önemli ölçüde katkıda bulunmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Düzeltme Odaklı, sözlü konuşma becerisi, düzeltme odaklı geribildirim, izlence.

ABSTRACT**PROPOSING A SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR ORAL COMMUNICATIVE CLASSES REGARDING TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MODIFIED OUTPUT**

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M. A. Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching
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The primary concern of this thesis was to explore modified output perception of teachers and students at Gaziantep University -Higher School of Foreign Languages in their oral communicative classes. The sample of the research consisted of 48 instructors and 280 preparatory students at Gaziantep University -Higher School of Foreign Languages. The participants were administered the Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers and Modified Output Questionnaire for Students in order to conceive their perception of corrective feedback in oral communicative classes. Both the questionnaires consisted of six sections, namely (1) the necessity of error correction, (2) frequency of error treatment, (3) timing of modification, (4) types of errors need to be treated, (5) methods of correction and (6) delivering agents of corrective feedback. These six divisions were also analyzed based on classroom recordings and a semi-structure interview held with thirty students to explore teachers' and students' perception of modified output. In terms of data collection techniques, a triangulated inquiry using a variety of techniques such as questionnaires, audio recordings, and interviews have been conducted. In that sense, collected data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The study also aimed to present a communicative syllabus design based on teachers' and students' perception of modification in their speaking classes as final outcome. As a result of an exploratory factor analysis, the findings showed that both the teachers and students were well aware of the importance of the error treatment in oral communicative classes but students desired more correction than their teachers thought. Furthermore, one of the similarities found between the teachers and students was their regarding the timing of error correction. They both believed that error treatment after students finish speaking was effective. While both the teachers and students believed that serious and frequent errors should be treated; surprisingly, the students wanted to receive more error treatment. In addition, it can be concluded from the study that repetition, implicit feedback, and elicitation were the three most favored types of feedback among the teachers; whereas repetition, elicitation and interestingly, metalinguistic feedback were the most favored types of corrective feedback among the students. In terms of the source of modification, teachers were regarded as the most popular source of feedback for both the teachers and students. To sum up, the output hypothesis was originally framed in terms of the relationship between output and grammatical accuracy; the findings of the current study suggest that production of modified output may facilitate the progress of interlanguage development. Therefore, the present study lends a significant support to the claim of the output hypothesis.

Key words: Modified output, oral communicative skills, corrective feedback, syllabus design.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. PRESENTATION

This chapter introduces the problem, outlines the purpose and significance of the study, states the research questions and the hypotheses, explains the limitations of the study, the assumptions of the study, and defines the terms and abbreviations. It also introduces detailed background information on the concepts of modified output and corrective feedback and their role in ELT classes (Fukuda, 2004).

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Error treatment is not a new realm of study in ELT. When it comes to correcting the learner's errors, millions of ways might emerge according to what the philosophy of the teacher is, what his or her attitude towards correction is, what method of teaching is being used and a host of other factors which could play major parts in the game of correction. What have been in most cases neglected in such studies is the attitudes of the learners and teachers towards correction. Following what Breen (1984), Candlin (1984), White (1988) and Nunan (1999) put forward by claiming that negotiation is inevitable and being inspired by a research done in this area by Fukuda (2003; cited in McKay, 2006), we decided to carry this research out to arrive at what learners' and teachers' reactions to the treatment of errors in oral classes are and what can be proposed as curriculum based on their attitudes.

This study examines teachers' and students' perception of error correction in their oral classes and compares the differences between them, suggesting more effective ways of treating students' spoken errors in ESL settings through a proposed syllabus design for oral classes at Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages.

In order to set a theoretical framework for the study, a definition of "error" should be made. There are many definitions of error made so far and there seems to be no consensus on a single definition. Researchers like Allwright and Bailey (1996) have rightly become aware of the importance of speaking context, the intention of the teacher and student and the prior learning of the students in the process of deciding what an error is. Therefore, researchers dealing with error treatment have chosen the definition applying to their own research context. For this study, an error is broadly defined as a form unwanted by the teacher in the given teaching/learning context (Mosbah, 2007 cited in Coskun, 2010). Also, the term "corrective feedback" needs to be defined. It is the teacher reaction that transforms, disapproves or demands improvement of the learner utterance (Chaudron, 1977). Another term in need of clarification is "uptake" that refers to different types of student responses following the feedback, including responses with repair of the non-target items as well as utterances still in need of repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The correction may come from the learner himself, a peer or the teacher.

Over the last decades, the interest in researching corrective feedback in second language acquisition has increased, and several definitions have been offered since then. The terms *negative evidence* and *corrective feedback* are used interchangeably by some researchers. Schachter (1991 cited in Tatawi, 2002) however, points out that the former is used mainly in the field of language acquisition whereas the latter is preferred in language teaching. Long (1996) views feedback not only as negative evidence but also as positive. Positive evidence is when we provide the learners with models of what is grammatical and acceptable in the target language; and negative evidence is when we provide the learners with direct or indirect information of what is unacceptable. Lightbown and Spada (1999) define corrective feedback as any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. For the sake of convenience, in this paper the term corrective feedback is used in this sense. Although many studies have investigated teachers' preferences for and the effectiveness of corrective feedback in

second language acquisition (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2006; Henderickson, 1978; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Panova, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Philp, 2003), relatively few studies have investigated the difference between teachers' and students' preferences for error correction (e.g., Ancker, 2000; Brown, 2009; Fukuda, 2004; Yoshida, 2008).

The model proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was used for this study. As they suggest that their research on teacher feedback and student uptake does not yield conclusive results related to language, more research in different settings is believed to bring more insights into the issue of spoken error correction. As language learning input comes mainly from teachers, teaching materials and students in EFL contexts, such studies will help practicing teachers realize their correction behaviors in the classroom and shape the way they approach to spoken error correction. In their study that was conducted in an ESL setting, they made a categorization of error, feedback, and uptake to investigate the relationship between error types and types of feedback, and learner uptake. They focused on phonological, grammatical, and lexical errors and came up with a model of corrective feedback types such as recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification, repetition of error, and metalinguistic feedback. Another focus of their study was on uptake that can be grouped as “self-” or “peer-repair” and “teacher-repair”. Corrective feedback types as suggested by them can be further explained and illustrated with the transcribed data of the audiotaped classroom as follows (for transcription conventions, see Appendix B).

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Lightbown and Spada (2003) described corrective feedback as “an indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect.” which falls into two categories; explicit or implicit, depending on the way the errors are corrected. Explicit feedback, as Kim and Mathes (2001) stated in their article, refers to the explicit terms of the correct form, including specific grammatical information that students can refer to when an answer is incorrect, whereas implicit feedback such as elicitation, repetition, clarification requests, recasts and metalinguistic feedback (Lochtman, 2002), allows learners to notice the error and correct it with the help of the teacher. Dekeyser (1993), Lyster and Ranta (1997), and Nassaji and Swain (2002) investigated the effectiveness of

corrective feedback; Havranek (1999 cited in Buyukbay & Dabaghi 2010) aimed to identify the factors that may promote or oppose learning through corrective feedback; Kim and Mathes (2001) conducted a study to see whether explicit and implicit feedback benefits learners more, and explored the range, and types of corrective feedback.

The studies and conclusions provided put forth that use of corrective feedback in an appropriate context may contribute to oral language skills and conversely, inappropriate use may result in failure from the aspect of humanistic approach. Although education studies have focused on error correction and corrective feedback, there has not been much study in the field of EFL corrective feedback covering the oral communication skills of learners. In that sense, the purpose of this study is to present a communicative syllabus design through an exploration of the teachers' and students' perception of error treatment in their oral communicative classes regarding the type, source and timing of correction. The significance of the study can further be stated that there have not been any practices of needs analysis and syllabus design for oral communicative classes at GUSFL so far. Hence, the ultimate outcome of the present study, a proposed syllabus design for communicative classes, is very important as an impact in the field of the study.

1.4. PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The first purpose of the study is to define students' attitude towards corrective feedback in EFL oral skill classes at GUSFL. The questionnaire on students' attitude towards error correction, interview with students and audiotaped oral classes reveal a general mind-set for each participant which provides their feelings of error treatment. The information collected through these instruments is of high importance as it is used to determine the credible attitude towards error correction. Furthermore, three different EFL proficiency level group students, i.e. elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate, have been investigated for any probable difference in attitude towards error correction in oral skills classes.

Secondly the study aims to figure out teachers' attitude towards error treatment as the main sources of error treatment in EFL context. Researchers have used various functional definitions of corrective feedback, and they use different terms to refer to the

similar practices. For example, Schegloff et al. (1977 cited in Park 2010) define the term ‘*correction*’ as “*the replacement of error or mistake by what is correct*”. Chaudron (1977) defines correction as “*any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner’s utterance*”, which is the most common conception employed by researchers. Lightbown and Spada (1999) define corrective feedback as “*any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect*”. It is hoped that these studies will enable researchers to discover and comprehend what error treatment really means to the students and teacher in EFL context.

The third major purpose of the study is to determine the relative contributions of these attitudes to EFL oral skills success through a proposed curriculum in the following years. Still, the effects of some demographic variables to error correction attitude are included in the study. These variables are; age, gender, English proficiency levels, language learning background for students and similarly general language and oral skills teaching experience for teachers.

1.5. STATEMENT OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

1.5.1. Research Questions

Research Question #1 Are there any significant differences between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of error correction practices?

1a. Are there any differences between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of error correction?

1b. Are there any differences between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the types of errors that need to be corrected?

1c. Are there any differences between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the choice of correction providers?

1d. Are there any differences between teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the appropriate time of correction?

1e. Is there a correlation between gender and perception of error correction?

Research Question #2 Do learners with different English language proficiency levels show significant differences in terms of feedback types they prefer?

Research Question #3 What are the students' preference of the delivering agents of error correction?

Research Question #4 What are the sources of unmodified errors (lack of knowledge, emotional, ignorance, etc.)?

Research Question #5 What kind of a syllabus design can be proposed based on student and teacher attitudes towards modified output?

1.5.2. Hypothesis

Hypothesis for Research Question #1 There are significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction practices.

1a. There are significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction.

1b. There are significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the types of errors that need to be corrected?

1c. There are significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the choice of correction providers?

1d. There are significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the appropriate time of correction?

1e There is no significant correlation between gender and perception of error correction.

Hypothesis for Research Question #2 Learners with different English language proficiency levels show significant differences in terms of feedback types they prefer.

Hypothesis for Research Question #3 Students primarily prefer their teachers to correct their errors in the class.

Hypothesis for Research Question #4 The most common reasons for unmodified errors are *lack of knowledge, anxiety* and *ignorance* among learners.

Hypothesis for Research Question #5 Regarding the learners and teachers attitudes towards modified output, a well-developed syllabus design will be proposed for oral communicative classes at GUSFL.

1.6. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Assumption # 1 The sample participating in the study is assumed to reflect the population that is the whole body of students at University of Gaziantep School of Foreign Languages (GUSFL). The assumption is based on the fact that the selection of the sample was made through cluster random sampling to assure that the sample represents the whole population.

Assumption # 2 English language proficiency levels of the students taking part in the study were determined by a proficiency test administered at the beginning of the academic year. This standard proficiency test is assumed to be valid and reliable.

1.7. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitations of the study which may have affected the results of the study aroused from the duration of the study, the number of the participants used, the number of the feedback episodes in classes, and the difficulty of training the teacher to use various corrective feedback types in the audiotaped oral skill classes. However, studying the effectiveness of corrective feedback in oral skill classes with a larger number of participants and over a longer period of time could be the focus of a further research. Moreover, providing the participating teacher with more time to practice corrective feedback types in order to prevent ignoring the errors and wrong use of feedback types could be another alternative for a further research.

Participants in the present study were recruited from a single institution, and, therefore, the perception of students and teachers observed in the study might reflect the teaching method of the institution (see Kawaguchi, 2000). This obviously limits the generalizability of the findings from this study, as with previous studies (e.g., McDonough, 2001). In order to address this limitation, it would be necessary to collect data in multiple institutions.

1.8. DEFINITION OF THE TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The researcher defined terms with which it was important to be familiar with while reading the study. The key terms are defined briefly to support reviewers understanding the study better.

Corrective Feedback: CF can be defined as the teacher reaction that transforms, disapproves or demands improvement of the learner utterance (Chaudron, 1977).

Explicit Correction: Feedback that provides the correct form which clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Implicit Correction: Feedback that includes confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts, clarification requests, silence, and even facial expressions that express confusion in the student's utterance (Méndez et al., 2010).

Modified Output: Modified Output can be defined as language produced by the learner that is modified from the initial utterance either in response to feedback or without feedback, regardless of the extent to which the reformulation is targetlike (Ogino, 2008).

Pushed Output: Output that reflects what learners can produce when they are pushed to use the target language accurately and concisely. (Ellis, 2003, p. 349)

CF: Corrective Feedback

MOQ-T: Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers

MOQ-S: Modified Output Questionnaire for Students

ELF: English as a Foreign Language

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 PRESENTATION

This chapter starts with a review of previous studies on modified output and second language (L2) learning. Moreover, it is followed by a review focusing on controversies studies regarding impact of modified output on L2 learning. Lastly, a short summary of communicative syllabus design will be introduced as the outcome of the study.

2.2 MODIFIED OUTPUT AND L2 LEARNING

2.1.1 Roles of output in L2 learning

Over two decades, views about the role of output in second language acquisition (SLA) have shifted from a result of “acquired competence” (Krashen, 1987, cited in Ogino, 2008) to “part of the *process* of learning” (Swain, 2005, p. 471).

The reformulated output has been indicated by using several terms among which are *pushed output*, *comprehensible output* (Swain, 1985 cited in Ogino, 2008), *enhanced output* (Takashima, 1995), *uptake* (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and *modified output* (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 1995). The term pushed output has been defined as “output that reflects what learners can produce when they are pushed to use the target language accurately and concisely” (Ellis, 2003, p. 349), and the difference between modified output and pushed output was pointed out by Ellis (2003).

Pushed output does not necessarily include modification of the initial non-targetlike utterance because it could be a simple repetition, which is illustrated in the example:

Example 1:

S : I go cinema

T : Uh?

S : I go cinema last night

T : Oh, last night.

(Ellis, 2003, p. 82)

In the studies exploring the relationship between output and L2 learning within the framework of the output hypothesis, it seems important to include the output that is still not comprehensible, or not grammatically enhanced in comparison with the initial non-targetlike use. Therefore, a neutral, broad and comprehensive term, ‘modified output’ will be used to refer to language produced by the learner that is modified from the initial utterance either in response to feedback or without feedback, regardless of the extent to which the reformulation is targetlike (Ogino, 2008). This approach will widen our understanding of the role of output beyond comprehensible and grammaticalized output.

With respect to oral modification, the issue of error correction in a communicative context should be approached from a historical perspective. Traditionally, when the audio-lingual approach to teaching foreign languages was popular among English teaching professionals, errors were seen as something to be avoided. However, today the contemporary research seems to agree on the fact that rather than expecting students to produce error-free sentences, students are encouraged to communicate in the target language and making errors is a natural part of second language acquisition.

2.2.2 Categories of Errors and Corrective Feedback in EFL Context

This section presents categories of errors and a variety of corrective feedback types. We have included a definition and description of the corrective type along with an illustration of its use in order to have an overview and better understanding on how to

deal with some possible errors the learner can come up with within a language class. The examples are given specifically in the context of learning English as a foreign language.

2.2.2.1 Categories of Errors

Researchers have categorized errors in various ways. Burt (1975 cited in Park 2010) classified errors into two categories: global errors and local errors. Global errors refer to errors that significantly hinder communication and “those that affect overall sentence organization, such as wrong word order, missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors” (p. 56). On the other hand, “local errors affect single elements in a sentence but do not usually hinder communication significantly such as errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, and auxiliaries” (p. 57). Burt points out that correction of one global error clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors. Furthermore, Burt argues that high-frequency errors should be the first errors teachers should correct. From a slightly different perspective, Chaudron (1977) categorized the range of errors from the strictly “linguistic (phonological, morphological, syntactic) to subject matter content (factual and conceptual knowledge) and lexical items” (p. 32).

Mackey et al. (2000) categorized four types of errors in their analysis of L2 interactional data. The four error types that had triggered the teacher’s use of corrective feedback were phonology, morphosyntax, lexis, and semantics: (1) phonological errors were non-target-like pronunciation; (2) morphosyntactic errors were omitted plural *-s* and the preposition *in*; (3) lexical errors were inappropriate lexical items; (4) semantic errors were incorrect meanings or expressions. Some researchers also included a category that is relevant only to the specific target language. For example, five types of errors that triggered the teachers’ use of corrective feedback were categorized in Yoshida’s (2008) Japanese classroom study. For the study, Yoshida employed the coding scheme used in Mackey et al. (2000) and modified the categories of errors by adding Japanese Kanji reading errors.

2.2.2.2 Participants in the corrective feedback

Considering the participant(s) in the corrective feedback interaction, there is the following possibilities:

Self-correction: Learners are aware of mistakes they make and repair them. It seems to be preferred by students because it is face-saving (Murray, 1999; Zybert, 1999 cited in Méndez et al., 2010).

Example: A Student answering to the question. *What did you do yesterday? “I go ... went to the movies ...”*

Peer correction: Learners correct to each other in face-to-face interaction in a safe environment which helps students to protect their ego, increase their self-confidence and become more independent (Higgins, 1987 cited in Méndez et al., 2010).

Example: Learners work together in pairs and read to each other a tongue twister.

S1 reads the line: *A flea and a fly flew up in a flue.*

(She mispronounces the word *flew up*)

S2 corrects S1: *A flea and a fly [flu:] up in a flue.*

Teacher-correction: The teacher is perceived as a professional with a high level of English. He/She is the one who corrects learners’ errors and explains in a way that students can understand the mistake.

Example: In a task based activity, a student works in an employment agency and when starting the conversation he asks his classmate’s name immediately. The teacher corrects the student telling him the ways of opening a conversation in the target language.

S1: *What’s your name?*

S2: *My name’s Merve.*

T: (interrupting and correcting S1), *When you meet someone for an interview, before asking his name, you need to say good morning or say hi to the person. Then you ask his/her name.*

S1: *Good morning, how are you?*

S2: *Fine thanks.*

S1: *What’s your name?*

2.2.2.3 Corrective Feedback in EFL Context

Implicit versus explicit corrective feedback: Regarding the way corrective feedback is provided, Schachter (1991 cited in El Tatawi, 2002) classifies it into explicit or corrective feedback. The former includes, for example, grammatical explanation or

overt error correction. It refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Example: A student mispronounces the verb **watch** in past tense.

S: *I watched [wɒ:tʃɪd] TV all day yesterday.*

T: *I watched [wɒ:tʃt]TV all day. You have to be careful with the pronunciation of the regular verbs in past tense. (Teacher explains the different endings and pronunciation on the board)*

Implicit correction, on the other hand, can include confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts, clarification requests, silence, and even facial expressions that express confusion (Méndez et al., 2010). This type of feedback is meant to indirectly correct learner's errors. Below there is a description of these most frequent techniques used in error correction:

Recast: The teacher repeats what the learner has said replacing the error. Some teachers' recasts can be of one word, a grammatical or lexical modification or translations in response to a students' use of L1. When recast is used, the teacher does not use phrases such as "You mean..." or "you should say..." (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Example: Students complete an exercise and after that the teacher calls on students to check the sentences.

S: *Were you **surprising** by anything in the article?* (error-grammatical)

T: *Were you **surprised** by anything in the article?* (feedback-recast)

Clarification request: The teacher asks for repetition or reformulation of what the learner has said. This is a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. A clarification request includes phrases such as "Pardon me". (Lyster and Randa, 1997)

Example:

T: *What's the butcher's surname?*

S: *Lucy*

T: *"pardon me"? What's his surname?*

S: *López*

T: *Excellent!*

Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher provides, information, or questions related to an error the student has made without explicitly providing the correct form. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

Example: Students create a story with some pictures.

S: *When Androcles saw the lion he was...*

T: *surprise, surprised, surprising.*

S: *surprised*

Elicitation: According to Lyster (1998) in this type of feedback teachers provide a sentence and strategically pause to allow students to “fill in the blank”, then if the students give an incorrect answer he/she makes a comment such as “No, not that. It’s a...” or just repeats the error.

Example:

S: *Androcles and the lion become good friends.*

T: *become?* (emphasis)

S: *became*

Repetition of error: The teacher repeats the learner’s error in isolation, in most cases teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

Example: Students work in pairs discussing about their future plans.

S: *I going to visit my parents next week.*

T: *I going to...*(emphasis)

S: *I’m going to...*

Interruption: The teacher corrects students’ errors in the middle of their sentences before they have a chance to finish them (Yao, 2000 cited in Méndez et al., 2010).

Example:

T: *What are you going to do in your leisure time next weekend?*

S: *My lei... leish...*

T: *leisure time or free time.*

Body Language: The teacher does not use an oral response to indicate an error. Instead, he/she uses either a facial expression or a body movement (Shujen S. Yao, 2000 cited in Méndez et al., 2010).

Example: Students work in pairs. They ask and answer questions to each other like “What are you doing after this class?” The teacher moves around the classroom listening to their answers and correcting them using body language.

S: I go to have lunch after this class.

T: (moves her head indicating something is wrong)

S: I'm going to have lunch after this class.

2.2.3 Deciding Who Will Treat Oral Errors

The most common source of feedback to learners in an L2 classroom is the teacher. If it is not the teacher who treats the error, then it could be either the learner who made the error or peers in the classroom. In most cases, the teacher is the one who offers the learner the opportunity to modify the error. However, L2 learners need to notice inadequacies in their utterances and make changes in their developing interlanguage systems. Thus, teachers need to provide learners with level appropriate corrective feedback that can promote their language learning. Also, teachers need to allow students time for self-repair, whether it is initiated by self or others (Allwright & Bailey, 1991 cited in Park, 2010). When a teacher waits after posing a question to a learner, the possibility of a learner's correct response will increase and doing so, teachers can guide students in producing the target language accurately and fluently by internalizing the correct forms, which is the long-term goal of language teaching.

Likewise, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings revealed that student-initiated repairs in error correction are important in L2 learning since they help learners consolidate their current knowledge of the target language and lead the learners to revise their hypotheses about the target language.

2.3 CONTROVERSIES REGARDING CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

The controversy concerning corrective feedback (CF) centers on a number of issues: (1) whether CF contributes to L2 acquisition, (2) which errors to correct, (3) who

should do the correcting (the teacher or the learner him/herself), (4) which type of CF is the most effective, and (5) what is the best timing for CF (immediate or delayed). These controversies will be discussed by drawing on both the pedagogic and SLA literature and by reference to both oral and written CF.

2.3.1 The Efficacy of Corrective Feedback

The value attributed to CF in language pedagogy varies according to the perspective of different methods. Thus, in audiolingualism “negative assessment is to be avoided as far as possible since it functions as ‘punishment’ and may inhibit or discourage learning,” whereas in humanistic methods “assessment should be positive or non-judgmental” in order to “promote a positive self-image of the learner as a person and language learner,” and in skill-learning theory “the learner needs feedback on how well he or she is doing” (Ur, 1996, p. 243 cited in Ellis, 2009). However, in the post-method era, language teaching methodologists are less inclined to be so prescriptive about CF, acknowledging the cognitive contribution it can make while also issuing warnings about the potential affective damage it can do. Ur recognized that “there is certainly a place for correction” but claimed “we should not over-estimate this contribution” (because it often fails to eliminate errors) and concluded that she would rather invest time in avoiding errors than in correcting them—a position that accords with a behaviorist view of language learning. Other methodologists, however, distinguish between “accuracy” and “fluency” work and argue that CF has a place in the former but not in the latter. Harmer (1983 cited in Ellis, 2009), for example, argued that when students are engaged in communicative activity, the teacher should not intervene by “telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy and asking for repetition” (p. 44). This is a view that is reflected in teachers’ own opinions about CF. Harmer’s advice has the merit of acknowledging that CF needs to be viewed as a contextual rather than as a solid phenomenon.

2.3.2 Choice of errors to correct

There are two separate issues here: (1) which specific errors should be corrected and (2) whether CF should be unfocused (i.e., address all or most of the errors

learners commit) or focused (i.e., address just one or two error types). Various proposals have been advanced regarding which errors to correct. At this point “errors” and “mistakes” should be distinguished. According to Corder (1967 cited in Ellis 2009), an error takes place as a result of lack of knowledge (i.e., it represents a gap in competence) while a mistake is a performance phenomenon, reflecting processing failures that arise as a result of competing plans, memory limitations, and lack of automaticity. Moreover, Burt (1975 cited in Park 2010) suggested that teachers should focus on “global” rather than “local errors.” Global errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization such as wrong word order, missing or wrongly placed sentence connectors, and syntactic overgeneralizations. On the other hand, local errors are errors that affect single elements in a sentence (for example, errors in morphology or grammatical functional errors). Ferris (1999) suggested that written CF should be directed at “treatable errors” (i.e., errors relating to features that occur in “a patterned, rule-governed way” (p. 6). Whereas, others including Ellis (1993), have suggested that CF should be directed at marked grammatical features or features that learners have shown they have problems with. In fact, none of these proposals are easy to implement in practice because the distinction between an “error” and a “mistake” is not so clear enough as to be thought.

Selection is more possible regarding the issue relating to the choice of errors to correct. Methodologists generally advise teachers to focus attention on a few error types rather than try to address all the errors learners make (see, for example, Harmer, 1983, and Ur, 1996 cited in Ellis 2009). Interestingly, recent studies (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Sheen 2007; Ellis et al., 2008) have shown that when written CF is “focused”, it is effective in promoting acquisition. Second language acquisition studies of oral CF have increasingly investigated focused as opposed to unfocused correction with plenty of evidence of its efficacy (e.g., Han, 2001; Lyster, 2004; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005).

2.3.3 Choice of corrector

Teachers are often advised to give students the opportunity to self-correct and, if that fails, to invite other students to perform the correction (e.g., Hedge, 2000). Such advice can be seen as part and parcel of the western educational ideology of learner-

centeredness. Motivated by theories that place a premium on learner output as opposed to input, researchers have also examined whether self-correction is both possible and beneficial.

There are, however, a number of problems with learner self-correction. First, learners typically prefer the teacher do the correction for them. In addition, and more importantly, learners can only self-correct if they possess the necessary linguistic knowledge. That is, in Corer's terms (1967 cited in Ellis 2009), they can correct their "mistakes" but not their "errors." Other (typically teacher) correction will be necessary to enable learners to identify forms that are not yet part of the interlanguage. Thus, teachers sometimes face a dilemma -should they push the learner to self-correct or provide the correction directly themselves? One solution that has been advocated to this problem is to conduct CF as a two-stage process: first encourage self-correction and then, if that fails, provide the correction. This was the approach adopted by Doughty and Varela (1998). They responded to learner errors by first repeating the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress and, then, if the learner failed to correct, reformulating the utterance as seen in the example:

S: I think that the worm will go under the soil.

T: I *think* that the worm *will* go under the soil?

S: (no response)

T: I *thought* that the worm *would* go under the soil.

S: I *thought* that the worm *would* go under the soil.

(Ellis, 2009)

However, as Ellis (2009) put forward, that such an approach might be accepted as time-consuming and that it would be simpler and perhaps less intrusive to simply provide an explicit correction is another matter of argument (e.g., "You need past tense—thought").

2.3.4 Choice of CF strategy

A number of different ways in which errors can be corrected have been identified through descriptive studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1977 cited in Ellis 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) methodologists and SLA researchers have carried out. In the case of

written CF, the key distinction is between direct, indirect, and metalinguistic forms of correction (Ellis, 2009). In the case of oral CF, two key distinctions figure: (1) explicit vs. implicit CF (e.g., Carrol & Swain, 1993; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) and (2) input-providing vs. output-prompting CF (Lyster, 2004; Ellis, 2006). These two distinctions can be combined into the taxonomy shown in Table 2.1 and examples of the specific CF strategies are provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.1 A Taxonomy of Corrective Feedback strategies

	<i>Implicit</i>	<i>Explicit</i>
Input-providing	Recast	Explicit correction
Output-prompting	Repetition Clarification request	Metalinguistic explanation Elicitation Paralinguistic signal

(Ellis, 2009)

The disagreements regarding the relative efficacy of different CF strategies have motivated a number of experimental studies. The effects of different CF strategies on acquisition have been investigated by Russell and Spada (2006) through a meta-analysis of studies. This analysis demonstrated that CF is effective in promoting acquisition but it was not possible to reach any conclusion regarding the relative effectiveness of different strategies as the numbers of studies meeting the requirements of a meta-analysis were not sufficient. However, in a more traditional narrative survey of the research, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) concluded that (1) both types of CF, implicit and explicit, assist acquisition and (2) explicit CF is generally more effective than implicit.

Other recent studies on oral CF (e.g., Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006) have shown that output-prompting strategies are more effective than recasts (an input-prompting strategy). These studies suggest that it might be possible to identify those oral CF strategies that are *generally* the most effective, but whether they will prove the most effective with all learners in all contexts is a matter of controversy.

Table 2.2 Corrective feedback strategies

<i>Corrective feedback Strategy</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
1. Recast	The corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical).	L: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group?
2. Repetition	The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress.	L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I'll show you.
3. Clarification request	The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said.	L: What do you spend with your wife? T: What?
4. Explicit correction	The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction.	L: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May."
5. Elicitation	The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it.	L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it?
6. Paralinguistic signal (Body language)	The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error.	The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error.

(Ellis. 2009)

2.3.5 Timing of CF

In written CF the correction is always delayed to allow for teachers to collect written work and respond. In the case of oral CF, however, teachers are faced with the choice of either correcting immediately following the learner's erroneous utterance or delaying the correction until later. This is an issue that teacher educators have addressed. Hedge (2000) noted that teacher guides accompanying course books frequently instruct teachers to leave correction until the end of fluency activities. She listed a number of techniques that can be used in delayed CF (e.g., recording an activity and then asking students to identify and correct their own errors or simply noting down errors as students perform an activity and going through these afterwards). There is general agreement that in accuracy oriented activities correction should be provided immediately.

When it comes to fluency activities; however, some SLA researchers present theoretical arguments for immediate correction. Doughty (2001), for instance, argued that in order to make a change in learner's interlanguage via CF, it needs to take place in a "window of opportunity" and attract roving attention to form while the learner's focal attention remains on meaning. So that, CF helps the learner to construct a form-meaning mapping that is essential for acquisition to occur as opposed to metalinguistic understanding.

It is not possible to arrive at any general conclusion regarding the relative efficacy of immediate and delayed CF. While the claim that immediate CF inevitably disrupts fluency work is probably not justified, as Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) have shown, there is no evidence to show that immediate correction is any more effective than delayed. Consequently, whether oral or written, corrective feedback is an integral part of teaching and it occurs frequently in most classrooms but not in natural learning contexts (Chun et al., 1982 cited in Ellis, 2009). Regarding communicative language skills in natural learning contexts, this study aims to present a communicative syllabus design in terms of teachers' and students' perceptions of modified output as a final outcome.

2.4 COMMUNICATIVE SYLLABUS DESIGN

This section presents (1) definitional distinction between terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus design', (2) strategies in syllabus design and (3) types of syllabuses. The focus will be on communicative syllabus design as an end product of the study.

2.4.1 Curriculum and syllabus design

The terms "syllabus", "syllabus design" and "curriculum" have given rise to confusion in terms of their definitions and use. According to Stern (1983 cited in Kaur, 1990) the field of curriculum studies is part of the discipline of educational studies. In its broadest sense, it refers to the study of goals, content, implementation and evaluation of an educational system. In its restricted sense, curriculum refers to a course of study or the content of a particular course or programme. It is in this narrower sense of curriculum that the term "syllabus" is employed. According to Stern, "syllabus design" is just one phase in a system of interrelated curriculum development activities. Shaw's (1975 cited in Kaur, 1990) survey of literature on second language syllabus development brings out the following distinction between "curriculum" and "syllabus". He says:

"... the curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school and community, through classroom instruction and related programs..."

He then defines "syllabus" as a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself. According to Munby (1984), syllabus design is seen as a matter of specifying the content that needs to be taught and then organizing it into a teaching syllabus of appropriate learning units. Basically, a syllabus can be seen as a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students' learning (Breen, 1984) while its function is to specify what and in what order is to be taught (Prabhu, 1984).

From the above explanations on syllabus design, it can be concluded that syllabus design involves a logical sequence of three main stages, that is, (1) needs analysis, (2) content specification, and (3) syllabus organization.

This follows very closely the general model advocated by Taba (1962 cited in Kaur, 1990) which gave the following steps:

1. needs analysis
2. formulation of objectives
3. selection of content
4. organization of content
5. selection of learning activities
6. organization of learning activities
7. decisions about what needs evaluating and how to evaluate.

2.4.2 Stages in Languages Syllabus Design

Three main stages have been identified in the process of designing a language syllabus, namely needs analysis, content specification and syllabus organization.

2.4.2.1 Needs analysis

A native speaker uses language to perform a large number of notions and functions in the course of his everyday life. It is almost impossible, and impractical to attempt to predict all the possible uses for which a foreign learner might want to use language. There has to be some criterion for the selection of those notions and functions which would be particularly useful. According to Richterich (1972 cited in Kaur, 1990) language needs are the requirements which arise from the use of a language in the multitude of situations which may arise in the social lives of individuals and groups.

By analyzing the language needs of specific groups of learners, we should be able to identify those notions and functions which will be most valuable to teach.

The concept of needs analysis enables us to discriminate between various learner types and to produce syllabus inventories specifically equipped with their needs. But this system only holds true as long as the learner groups dealt with have the same needs. A needs analysis is usually seen as being most beneficial for an English for Special Purposes (ESP) course. Though this is true, it can also be equally well considered for general language education.

2.4.2.2 Content Specification

After having determined the language needs of the learner, the next step would be to decide on the content of the syllabus. Most language syllabus content is drawn from inventories or lists which may be word frequency lists, inventories of functions or lists of specific topics. Content can be also be specified through a series of checklists which deal with communicative functions, discourse skills, and study skills. For example, Candlin (1984 cited in Kaur, 1990) states that content is drawn upon from "some content bank" which is based on some stated objectives which are in turn derived from the needs assessment of learners. This view is also shared by Breen (1984) who says starting with a general view or definition of the target language and/or its use, more specific objectives or "needs" are selected as appropriate subject matter.

Trim (1973 cited in Kaur, 1990) pointed out that the content specifications of a syllabus can be described in terms of:

1. the behavioural input-output chain involved;
2. select language which can be used in a wide range of contexts; and
3. taught language that is appropriate to the interest of the pupils and the situations in which he might possibly use his linguistic knowledge.

But Shaw (1975 cited in Kaur, 1990) sees the selection of content to be concerned mainly with two questions:

1. how much can we teach or how much can be learnt by the learners in question; and
2. which items should be included.

2.4.2.3 Syllabus Organization

Having once decided on what to teach, the next state is to decide on an appropriate strategy of presentation. The objective of organizing a syllabus should be to promote learning, and not just to provide a description of the language. Therefore, the content matter should be organized in such a way so as to facilitate teaching and learning. The unit of organization should also suit the particular purpose of learning.

The syllabus may be structured on the basis of a gradual move from the more general to the more particular, a statement of a general rule to a statement of particular

rules or exceptions which incorporates the deductive process. The material can also be organized so that the direction is from the particular to the general which is the inductive process. The syllabus can also be organized such that the material starts with the learner's home life, moves on to the classroom situation and then moves out of the school into the post office, railway station, grocery shop and so on.

According to Allen (1984), there are basically three approaches which can be utilized to sequence and organize content:

1. the traditional, structural-analytic approach in which the highest priority is given to formal grammatical criteria;
2. the functional-analytical approach which defines objectives in terms of categories of communicative language use; and
3. a non-analytic, experiential, or "natural growth" approach, which aims to immerse learners in real-life communication without any artificial pre-selection or arrangement of items.

The syllabus sequenced on a particular view of learning may have to start with subject matter which is more "familiar" to the learner before moving on to something which is "unfamiliar". A syllabus may also represent a particular view of the conditions offered by the specific classroom situation. The sequence for the subject matter may have to take into account whether it is "easy to teach" or whether it is "more urgent".

2.4.3 Types of Syllabuses

Based on what has been dealt with earlier, various types of syllabuses can be designed to serve different needs.

2.4.3.1 Linear and Spiral Syllabuses

Language is mainly used either for production or reception. Usually, the same resources of language are used in different combinations to express different meanings. New bits of language are gradually learnt by experiencing them intermittently in different contexts and repeated experiences of the same features of language are necessary. This is the concept behind the "cyclical" or "spiral" syllabus. It reflects the

natural process of learning a language whereby the same things keep turning up in different combinations with different meanings.

2.4.3.2 Notional syllabus

The basis of this syllabus is an adequate needs analysis from which the content of learning is derived. It includes not only grammar and vocabulary but also the notion and concepts the learner needs to communicate about.

2.4.3.3 Functional syllabus

This type of syllabus arranges the learning material according to selected functions regardless of the grammar constructions that may be necessary to fulfill those functions.

The notional/functional types of syllabuses stress on communicative properties of language where the central concern is the teaching of meaning and the communicative use of patterns, it emphasizes what speakers communicate through language and derives its content from an analysis of learners' needs to express certain meanings.

2.4.3.4 Situational syllabus

The fundamental unit of organization here is a non-linguistic category, namely the situation. The designer of a situational syllabus attempts to predict those situations in which the learner will find himself, and uses these situations, for example, a restaurant, an airplane, or a post office, as a basis for selecting and presenting language content. The underlying assumption here is that language is related to the situational contexts in which it occurs.

2.4.3.5 Structural syllabus

This is known as the traditional syllabus which is organized along grammatical lines giving primacy to language form. It specifies structural patterns as the basic units of learning and organizes these according to such criteria as structural complexity, difficulty, regularity, utility and frequency. It makes ample use of highly controlled, tightly structured and sequenced pattern practice drills.

2.4.3.6 Process syllabus

This syllabus type provides a framework for decisions and alternative procedures, activities and tasks for the classroom group. It openly addresses teaching and learning and particularly the possible interrelationships between subject matter, learning and the potential contributions of a classroom. The actual syllabus is designed as the teaching and learning proceeds.

2.4.3.7 Procedural syllabus

This syllabus proposes to replace the linguistic syllabus with a syllabus of tasks which are graded conceptually and grouped by similarity. The tasks and activities are planned in advance but not the linguistic content. The emphasis here is on meaning rather than form. The learner is preoccupied with understanding, working out, relating, or conveying messages, and copes in the process, as well as he can with the language involved. There is no syllabus in terms of vocabulary or structure and no presentation of language items.

2.4.3.8 Multi-dimensional syllabus

There is no reason why only one of the inventory item types needs to be selected as a unit of organization. It would be possible to develop a syllabus leading to lessons of varying orientation - some covering important functions, others dealing with settings and topics, and yet others with notions and structures. This will allow a syllabus design which is less rigid and more sensitive to the various student language needs. There is flexibility to change the focal point of the teaching material as the course unfolds.

For the sake of the outcome of the study, various types of syllabus forms can be conducted. In terms of oral communicative skills of learners, a multi-dimensional syllabus which includes functional and situational types of syllabuses seems to be most appropriate for the end-product of this study.

2.5 CONCLUSION

To sum up, as the present study concerns with, a detailed review of the literature has been given above with the role of modified output in foreign language learning including its controversies and also a general frame of a communicative syllabus design has been drawn as an end product of the study. Throughout the study, the main objective of the researcher has been to observe practical implications of modified output in oral communicative classes and explore teachers' and students' perception of error treatment in real teaching/learning environment. The instruments to collect data and the final product, namely a communicative syllabus designed, have been designed in accordance and with contribution of such former studies.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. PRESENTATION

The purpose of the study was to find out students' and teachers' attitudes towards modified output. Furthermore, it aimed to propose a syllabus design for oral communicative classes at Gaziantep University School of Foreign Languages. In order to accomplish this, a descriptive study has been conducted. This chapter provides an overview of the research questions, research design, participants and setting, procedures, instruments and data analyses.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, a descriptive analysis was carried out to describe 280 students' and 48 teachers' attitude towards modified output at GUSFL and it aimed to propose a syllabus design for oral communicative classes. In addition, it attempted to discover what teachers think about modified output and how it can contribute students' communicative skills. The data was collected through measurable instruments as modified output questionnaire for students- MOQ-S and modified output questionnaire for teachers MOQ-T adapted from Fukuda (2004). The questionnaires were previously used by Fukuda (2004) and Park (2010); however, reliability and validity analysis of the questionnaires from these studies could not be obtained. When all the questionnaires were collected, the data was put onto the statistical analysis program (SPSS Statistics 20.0). The validity and reliability analysis of the data collected from the study showed that both of the questionnaires proved to be valid and reliable with the Cronbach's Alpha

figures of .86 for Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) and .64 for Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers (MOQ-T), which were parallel to the results of pilot study. Park (2010) also used the same questionnaires for students and teachers. While Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) was translated into mother tongue of the students, Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers (MOQ-T) was applied in English. Both questionnaires were culturally adapted and one of the items regarding interruption of the students' speech was excluded for humanistic reasons. The language used in each item was clarified and simplified to ease understanding for both teachers and students.

In addition to the questionnaires, interpretable instruments as interview with students and audiotaped classes of oral communicative skills have also been used in order to analyze collected data quantitatively and qualitatively. Moreover, demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, English proficiency levels and language learning background for learners and gender, general language teaching and oral skills teaching experience for teachers), were taken into consideration, as well. Data analyses have provided information on both the overall attitudes of the learners' and teachers' towards modified output. The final goal of the study is to propose a syllabus for oral communicative classes as an end-product.

3.3. PARTICIPANTS

3.3.1 Students

Two-hundred and eighty students participated in the study from a student population of about 1600 preparatory level students at GUSFL. The students' ages vary from 19 to 27 years. The table below illustrates the age distribution of the participants.

Table 3.1 shows the age distribution of participant students in the modified output questionnaire for students- MOQ-S. There were only one student in age group of 24; two students in each age group of 25 and 26, three students in age group of 23 and four students in age group of 27 year-olds. Twenty-two year-olds are another little quantity in the age distribution with a frequency of 15 (5.40%). Thirty-four students (12.10%) were 18 years old and thirty-six students were 21 (12.90%). The majority of

them, 183 (65,4%), were 19 and 20 year olds. The average age of the students was 19.90 years.

Table 3.1 Descriptive statistics for age

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18	34	12.10	12.10	
19	96	34.30	34.30	12.10
20	87	31.10	31.10	46.40
21	36	12.90	12.90	77.50
22	15	5.40	5.40	90.40
23	3	1.10	1.10	95.70
24	1	0.40	0.40	96.80
25	2	0.70	0.70	97.10
26	2	0.70	0.70	97.90
27	4	1.40	1.40	98.60
Total	280	100.00	100.00	100.00

In terms of gender, 165 (58.90%) of the participants were male students and 115 (41.10%) of them were females. The male female student ratio was 23:16. The participants were drawn from three different English language proficiency level groups, (i.e. pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate). They were asked to provide information about their genders age and English proficiency levels along with information about their language learning background in the questionnaire (MOQ-S).

Table 3.2 Descriptive statistics for proficiency levels

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Upper-intermediate	65	23.20	23.20	
Intermediate	105	37.50	37.50	23.20
Pre-intermediate	110	39.30	39.30	60.70
Total	280	100.00	100.00	100.00

Table 3.2 shows that 280 participants of this study were from three English proficiency level groups. Their language proficiency levels were determined by a placement test at the beginning of academic year. Of the participants, 65 (23.20%) were upper-intermediate; 105 (37.50%) were intermediate; and 110 (53%) were pre-intermediate English language learners. The number of participants constitutes almost twenty percent of the whole student body studying at GUSFL.

Table 3.3 Descriptive Statistics for Language Learning Background

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 year	55	19.60	19.60	
2-4 years	62	22.10	22.10	19.60
5-8 years	47	16.80	16.80	41.80
More than 8 years	116	41.40	41.10	58.60
Total	280	100.00	100.00	100.00

Language learning backgrounds of the participating students are presented in table 3.3. Actually, almost all of the students at GUSFL come from a similar language learning background. According to the table, the majority of the students (116; 32%) believe that they have more than 8 years of language learning background, while 47 (16.80%) believe they have 5-7 years of language learning background. Of the 280 participants, forty-nine are repeat students who failed the previous year and are studying prep class for a second year. Taking the condition of students into account as well, the number of students who believe they already have language learning background is 62 (22.10%). Lastly, the number of students who believe they actually begin learning English at preparatory class is 55 (19.60%).

The students participating in this study were mainly students who will study engineering the following year. In the preparatory class, there are three proficiency levels and the samples of the study were drawn from these three English proficiency level groups. Pre-intermediate and intermediate level students take 25 hours of the English course a week, while upper-intermediate students take 20 hours. The courses are designed to teach students general English skills. The faculty members of GUSFL

provide students with the English knowledge that they will need to understand oral and written English, express opinions about a topic and speak about personal interests and experiences through oral communicative classes which are held by native speakers for each level. In addition, the courses aim to develop the students' academic skills, such as writing paragraphs and essays, developing reading skills, and understanding authentic texts in English.

3.3.2 Instructors

Another instrument conducted to collect data is modified output questionnaire for teachers MOQ-T. Forty-eight instructor teachers participated in the study from a population of 80 at GUSFL. The instructor teachers were asked to fill a questionnaire towards regarding their general teaching experience, oral communicative teaching experience. Of the forty-eight instructor participants, 32 (68.80%) were female and 16 (31.30%) were male. The female male instructor ratio was 2:1. The table below shows the general teaching experiences of teachers.

Table 3.4 Descriptive statistics for instructors' general teaching experiences

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 year	5	10.40	10.40	
2-4 years	17	34.40	34.40	10.40
5-8 years	6	12.50	12.50	45.80
More than 8 years	20	41.70	41.70	58.30
Total	48	100.00	100.00	100.00

As presented in the table, five (10.40%) of the instructors participated in the study have only one-year general teaching background while 17 (35.40%) have 2-4 years teaching experience. The number of teachers who have 5-8 years teaching background is 6 (12.50) and the majority of the participant instructors 20 (41.70%) have more than 8 years general teaching experience in English.

Table 3.5 Descriptive statistics for instructors' oral skills teaching experiences

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 year	7	14.60	14.60	
2-4 years	19	39.60	39.60	14.60
5-8 years	5	10.40	10.40	54.20
More than 8 years	17	35.40	35.40	64.60
Total	48	100.00	100.00	100.00

Above is the table for descriptive statistics of instructors' oral communicative skills experiences with a frequency and percent analysis. The table indicates that seven (14.60%) of the instructors have only given oral communicative lectures for one year; merely five (10.40%) of them have given 5-8 years; while the majority of them 19 (39.60%) have given these classes 2-4 years. On the other hand, the biggest proportion of experienced instructors in terms of general language teaching remains at the second range with a proportion of 17 (35.40%). The results indicate that some of the instructors have already experienced skill based language teaching. Similarly, oral communicative skills classes are held by native speakers at GUSFL.

3.4. INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used in this research were; (a) Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) adapted from Fukuda (2004) (see Appendix A-1); Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers (MOQ-T) adapted from Fukuda (2004) (see Appendix A-3); (c) a semi-structured interview held with students adapted from students' questionnaires; and (d) audiotaped oral communicative classes at GUSFL. These involve triangulated inquiry; gathering data using a variety of techniques such as questionnaires, audio recordings and interviews (Diesing, 1971; Sevigny, 1981)

3.4.1 Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S)

For this study, a questionnaires adapted from Fukuda (2004) was distributed to students in order to investigate their preferences for error correction.

The questionnaire has two sections. The first section is designed to collect participants' demographic information, including their ages, genders, the length of English learning and their proficiency levels. Therefore, the demographic section consists of four question items for students. The second section includes twenty-four questions investigating students' perceptions of the necessity of error correction and frequency of error correction, preferences for timing of error correction, types of errors that need to be corrected, types of corrective feedback, and delivering agents of error correction. An open ended question has also been added at the end of the questionnaire for further comments of the learners regarding error correction in their oral communicative skills classes.

3.4.2 Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers (MOQ-T)

Another instrument to collect data for the study is the teachers' questionnaires adapted from Fukuda (2004) to ascertain their preferences for error correction. Similar to the students' questionnaire, the questionnaire for teachers has two sections as "demographic information" and "error correction" sections. The first section is designed to collect participants' demographic information, including their genders, the length of English teaching, and the length of oral communicative skills teaching. The demographic section for teachers consists of four question items for. The second section includes twenty-three questions investigating instructors' perceptions of the necessity of error correction and frequency of error correction, preferences for timing of error correction, types of errors that need to be corrected, types of corrective feedback, and delivering agents of error correction. Furthermore, an open ended question has been added at the end of the questionnaire for further comments of the instructors regarding modified output and oral skills.

3.4.3 Semi-Structured Interview

The term "discourse analysis" (DA) is best understood as an umbrella designation for a rapidly growing field of research covering a wide range of different theoretical approaches and analytic emphases (Nikander, 2006). Regardless of the particular form it takes, DA interrogates the nature of social action by dealing with how

actions and/or meanings are constructed in and through text and talk. Potential data sets in DA include all forms of talk transcribed into written format from audio or video recordings and a wide variety of written documents. Data in discourse analysis range from naturally occurring multi-party conversations in everyday and institutional settings to interviews and focus groups, the analysis of documents, records, diaries and newspaper items, media products like political gatherings, speeches or interviews and, increasingly, to the analysis of visual materials and semiotic structures of place (Scollon & Scollon 2004).

In this respect, a semi-structured interview is one of the most common forms of interviewing. In it, the interviewer has worked out a set of questions beforehand, but intends the interview to be conversational. To do so, the interviewer can change the order of the questions or the way they are worded. He or she can give explanations or leave out questions that may appear redundant. So, the main job is to get the interviewee to talk freely and openly while making sure you get the in-depth information on what you are researching.

In order to gain a range of insights on the issue and obtain specific quantitative and qualitative information from learners, a semi-structured interview has been conducted. The interview took place in a friendly atmosphere with each group of six students from different proficiency levels. In the end, five groups (regarding the population of the proficiency levels, two from pre-intermediate and intermediate each, and one group from upper-intermediate) have been interviewed. As the semi-structured interview encourages two-way communication, it was less intrusive to those being interviewed and they could ask questions to the interviewer as well. The questions for interview were adapted from modified output questionnaire for students (MOQ-S).

3.4.4 Audio-taped Class Recordings

Another tool used to collect data for this study was audio-taped recordings of oral communicative skill classes. In order to reflect what types of correcting feedback are being used, what the student reactions are and help to improve the understanding of corrective feedback in teaching process eight lessons from each proficiency levels have been audio recorded.

The reason why audio recordings were preferred instead of video recordings was not to distract students' and instructors' attention and not to put any pressure upon them, which would cause anxiety. As McLarty (2000) suggests, there occurs a change in people's behaviour when they know that they are being videotaped or observed. Another reason for the use of audio recordings was not to spoil the nature of oral communicative classes. Additionally, Pink (2001) claims that it is hard to determine the extent of the influence the researcher has over the results. The students were informed in advance about the recordings and the classes went on in their own process. Throughout these recordings, qualitative data was collected on error correction in its real environment.

In terms of preserving authenticity during data collection process, Barab, Squire, and Dueber (2000) point out, "authenticity is not an objective feature of any one component in isolation" as it comes into existence through a constant dynamic interaction between the learners, the task and the environment and "manifests itself in the flow" (p.38).

3.5. DATA COLLECTION

This section explains the piloting procedure of the modified instruments, data collection, and data analysis in detail.

3.5.1. Piloting Procedure

The pilot study was conducted to see how well the questionnaires were adopted and how much time was needed to fill out each one. Furthermore, the piloting procedure aimed to evaluate the internal consistency of the instruments. First, the researcher asked for permission to research a given group of learners. When permission was granted, the researcher designed the pilot study for the instruments. Next, each class was visited and the students were given information about the study and the modified output questionnaire for students (MOQ-S). They were assured that the information that they would give would be held confidential. The instructors were informed about the study, and three different English language proficiency-level groups were asked to answer the questionnaires. After that, modified output questionnaire for teachers (MOQ-T) was handed out to the instructors and collected similarly. Once all of the questionnaires were

collected, the researcher entered the data into the statistical analysis program (SPSS Statistics 20.0). The analysis of the data collected from pilot study showed that both of the questionnaires proved to be reliable with the Cronbach's Alpha figures of .86 for Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) and .64 for Modified Output Questionnaire for Teachers (MOQ-T).

3.5.2. Data Collection

The first tool to collect data for the study was audio recordings of oral communicative classes at GUSFL in the spring semester of 2011/2012 education year. As has been mentioned, oral communicative classes at GUSFL are being held by native speakers. Each class from all proficiency levels has two hours of communicative skills classes a week. Each lesson provides an introduction, step by step teaching guidelines and printable student worksheets. These classes primarily aim to improve students' fluency and build confidence when they speak English. Throughout the course, the students are expected to acquire certain communicative skills as being able to talk about their work/school lives and plans, tell anecdotes, talk about current events, economics, politics, and other topics of interest, and use different strategies in discussions.

Before the recordings were conducted, several meetings have been held with the native speaker instructors and they all have been informed about the basics of the study and aspects of corrective feedback in ELT, types of corrective feedback and other data collection tools. The instructor teachers all agreed that audio recording of the oral communicative classes would much comforting for their students and for the instructor teachers as well. The students were also informed about the recording and assured about confidentiality of the collected data. Classroom interactions related to corrective feedback have been transcribed and well employed to the study (see Appendix B).

As the subsequent data collection procedure, the questionnaires were administered to the students. They were handed out to students during regular class hours in their classrooms. As in the pilot study, the administration of GUSFL was informed about the study and permission was granted. The researcher visited three groups in each proficiency level, namely pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate. They were each given practical information on the nature and the

objectives of the study. The students were also told that they had the choice not to fill out the questionnaires or to quit any time they wanted. Their teachers then handed out the MOQ-S questionnaire and asked them to complete it anonymously. Some of the participants were missing in either of the questionnaires; therefore, they were excluded from the study.

Lastly, a semi-structured interview with six groups of students from each proficiency levels has conducted. The students for the interview were randomly picked from the classes the Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) was carried out. The interview took place as a group discussion regarding the adapted questions from MOQ-S. Throughout the interview, a friendly atmosphere and efficient discussion have been observed and both the researcher and the students appreciated the interview sessions.

3.5.3. Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaires was typed into SPSS 20.0, which was originally a statistical package for the social sciences. Descriptive statistics were obtained for all demographic variables on the questionnaires. These descriptive statistics included the means, standard deviations, percentages and ranges of the dependent and independent variables and sample characteristics. All data were quantifiable because they were coded using numerical values. Frequency distributions were also provided. The data collected through classroom recordings was transcribed and presented in appendix B. Similar to six sections in the questionnaires (namely (1) necessity, (2) frequency, (3) timing, (4) types of errors that need to be treated, (5) method of correction, and (6) delivering agents of the error treatment) were analyzed within the classroom interactions as well. Further, the interviews held with six groups of students were interpreted in terms of students' perception of error treatment and reasons behind unmodification.

The first analysis run was Cronbach's Alpha for the scales (namely, MOQ-S and MOQ-T). In order to answer research question one, total perception scores for students and teachers were determined based on the findings of each section in MOQ-S and MOQ-T. Then, the researcher used descriptive analyses on SPSS such as means,

frequencies, ranges, and standard deviations to identify student and teacher discrepancies on these sections. An Independent Samples T-Test was conducted to see if there is a significant correlation between teachers' and students' perception of corrective feedback in their oral classes. For the demographic variable, gender, again an Independent Samples T-Test was implemented. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to see the differences between English proficiency levels of the students for research question two. The third research question was analyzed in terms of delivering agents of corrective feedback and a one-way ANOVA test was executed to see the differences between students' preferences of three variables (namely teacher, classmates and student himself). Teachers' general language teaching and oral communicative teaching experiences were analyzed on the same test. In addition, post hoc analysis was conducted to compare outcome measurements between pairs of multiple groups. The statistic conclusion after such an analysis was to present whether the groups were homogenous, or whether they differed significantly from each other. Oral communicative classes of eight native speakers were recorded and transcribed. The analysis of the recorded classes supported distinctive data in terms of corrective feedback in practice. Finally, the interviews held with six groups of the students were interpreted to find an answer for research question four presented below:

Research Question #1 Are there any significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction practices?

1a. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction?

1b. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the types of errors that need to be corrected?

1c. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the choice of correction providers?

1d. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the appropriate time of correction?

1.e Is there a correlation between gender and perception of error correction?

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. PRESENTATION

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses of the data collected through the instruments given above (i.e. MOQ-S and MOQ-T). In this part, the research questions of the current study are presented and the answers for these questions are provided based on the findings of the inferential statistics.

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The questionnaires for students and teachers have six parts in common regarding oral communicative classes as (1) necessity of corrective feedback, (2) frequency of error correction, (3) timing of error correction, (4) types of errors treated, (5) methods of correction, and (6) agents of correction. Moreover, the differences between variant different English language proficiency levels and feedback types they prefer; and the sources of unmodified errors (i.e. lack of knowledge, emotional, ignorance, etc.) will be further discussed regarding the recorded classes and interview carried out with students.

Research Question #1 Are there any significant differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction practices?

1a. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions error correction?

1b. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the appropriate time of correction?

1c. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the types of errors that need to be corrected?

1d. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of the choice of correction providers?

4.2.1 Necessity of Error Correction

In the first section of the questionnaire, the students were asked to respond to statement, "I want to receive corrective feedback" (MOQ-S, question 1). Teachers were asked to respond to the statement, "*Students' spoken errors should be treated*" (MOQ-T, question 1).

As Figure 4.1 illustrates, the mean of the students ($M = 3.72$) was higher than the teachers ($M = 3.27$). This finding indicates that the students wanted to receive more error treatment than their teachers provided.

Figure 4.1 Mean Responses on the necessity of error correction

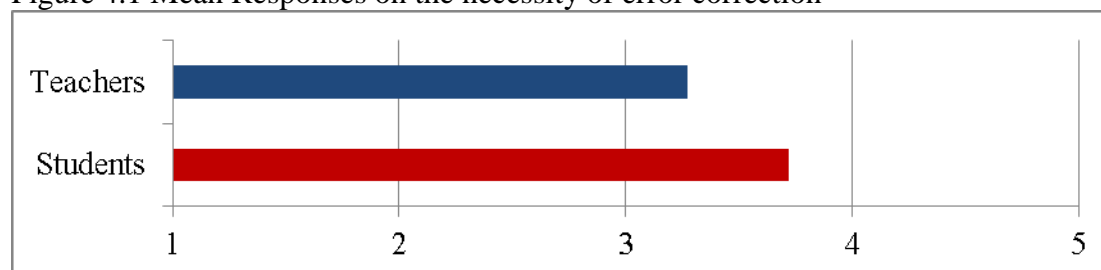


Table 4.1 shows the responses of the students and teachers regarding the necessity of error correction. Sixty-five percent of the participant students and almost 40% of the participant teachers responded "strongly agree" or "agree" on Question 1. Interestingly, over 66% of the students strongly agreed and agreed that they wanted their errors to be corrected, whereas 39.60% of the teachers agreed with the statement. Although over nine percent of the students strongly disagreed with the statement, none of the teachers did. The findings indicate that both the students and teachers think students' spoken errors should be corrected, but the students believe in the necessity of corrective feedback to a much greater extent. In addition, Table 4.2 shows that the difference between their responses was statistically significant ($p < 0.005$). Researchers have investigated teachers' and students' perceptions of error correction and found

mismatches between them. For example, Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies revealed that students' attitudes toward grammar instruction and error correction were more favorable than their teachers' attitudes; that is, learners want more error correction. Similarly, Park (2010) claimed that students wanted their errors to be treated more than the teachers thought and further asserted that when their instructional expectations are not met, their motivation can be negatively affected, and they may question the credibility of the teacher.

Table 4.1 Student/teacher responses on the necessity of error correction

Groups	Necessity (%)				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Ss (n=280)	37.10	28.60	12.50	12.50	9.30
Ts (n=48)	2.10	37.50	45.80	14.60	0.00

Table 4.2 Comparison of responses on the necessity of error correction

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Students	280	3.72	1.32	2.27	0.000*
Teachers	48	3.27	0.73		

* $p < 0.05$

4.2.2 Frequency of Error Correction

The second part in the questionnaire asked students, "How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?" (MOQ-S, question 4) and teachers, "How often do you give corrective feedback on students' spoken errors?" (MOQ-T, question 4). Responses to the question were also on a 5-point scale with "strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree."

Figure 4.2 displays the mean responses of the students (3.57) and teachers (3.45) regarding the frequency of error correction. In terms of the frequency of error correction, a significant discrepancy between the students and teachers was not found.

Figure 4.2 Mean responses on the frequency of error correction

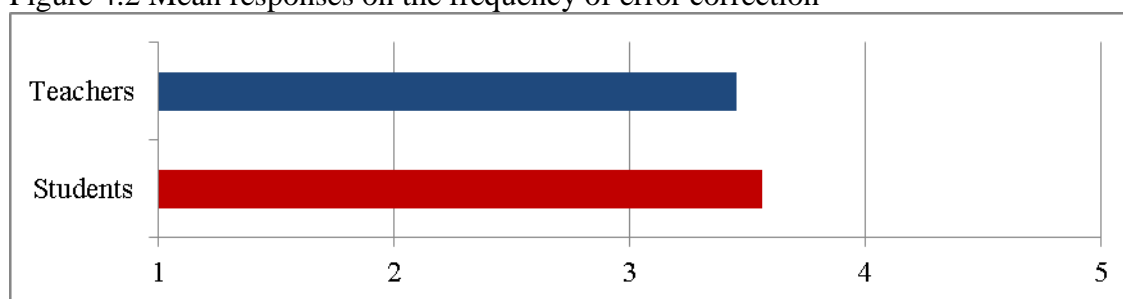


Table 4.3 provides the responses of the students and teachers to the frequency of error correction. Almost twenty-five percent of the students thought that their spoken errors should be “always” corrected, whereas only about six percent of the teachers always corrected their students’ errors. Almost the same cumulative percentage of the students and teachers agreed that students’ spoken errors should be “always” and “usually” corrected, 56% and 52% respectively. There were 6.10% of the students who thought that their errors should “never” be corrected while no teachers thought so. Table 4.4 indicates that there was a significant difference between the teachers and students ($p=0,002<0,005$). The findings are similar to the previous findings in that students usually expect teachers to correct their errors more frequently (Ancker, 2000; Park, 2010).

Table 4.3 Student/teacher responses on the frequency of error correction

Groups	Frequency of Error Correction (%)				
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Ss (n=280)	24.60	31.40	26.10	11.80	6.10
Ts (n=48)	6.30	45.80	35.40	12.50	0.00

Table 4.4 Comparison of responses on the frequency of error correction

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Students	280	3.56	1.15	0.629	0.002*
Teachers	48	3.45	0.79		

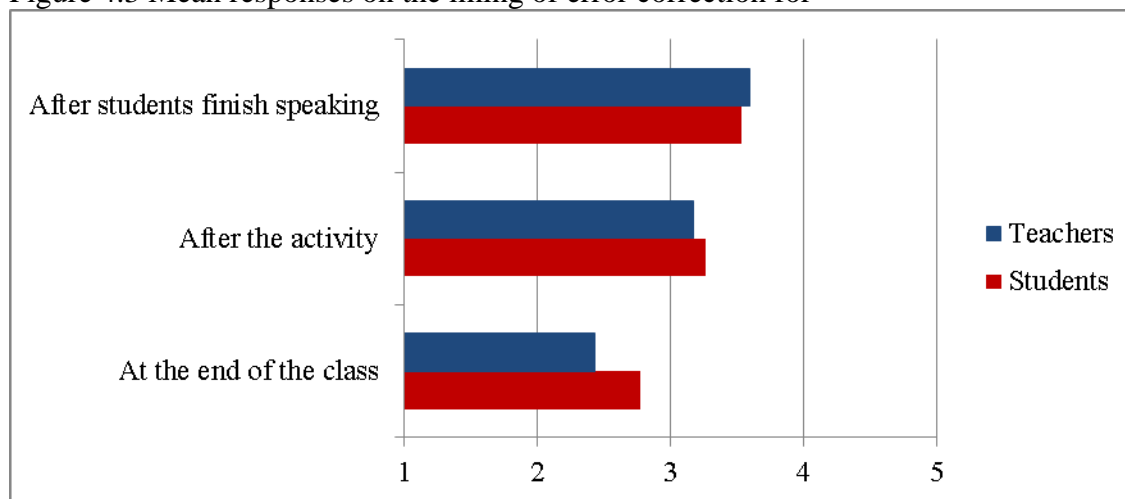
* $p<0.05$

4.2.3 Timing of Error Correction

The third part in the questionnaire is related to the appropriate time to correct students' spoken errors. The category consists of three questions for students: (item 5) *After I finish speaking*, (item 6) *After the activities*, and (item 7) *At the end of class*. For teachers, the category consists of three items, as well: (item 3) *After the student finishes speaking*, (item 4) *After the activities*, and (item 5) *At the end of class*. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with "Always, Usually, Sometimes, Occasionally, or Never."

The students' and teachers' mean responses on the timing of error correction are illustrated in Figure 4.3. Of the three choices, "*After the students finish speaking*" received the highest mean from both the teachers (M=3.60) and the students (M=3.54). On the other hand, "*At the end of the class*" received the lowest mean from both groups (Ts' M=2.43 and Ss' M=2.78). Furthermore, there was almost no difference between teachers' and students' mean for "*After the activity*" responses. The results indicate that, both the teachers and the students are in favor of the importance of immediate clarification without interrupting fluency of the speech and suspending till the end of the class. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue, immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak and obstructs the flow of communication; however, in a similar way, long delayed or postponed feedback is not effective.

Figure 4.3 Mean responses on the timing of error correction for



The survey results are illustrated in Table 4.5 over half of the students strongly agreed or agreed that their spoken errors should be corrected right after they finish speaking. Similarly, 54.20% of the teachers regarded correcting their students' errors right after they made them as the appropriate time. This finding suggests that, unlike the students who were focused more on accuracy in their spoken English, the teachers regarded fluency as well as accuracy as a crucial factor for their students' development of speaking skills which could be best accomplished in the classroom environment.

Table 4.5 Student/teacher responses on the timing of error correction (%)

Timing of Treatment	Groups	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
After Ss finish speaking	Ss	56.80	17.50	25.70
	Ts	54.20	37.50	8.30
After the activities	Ss	47.90	20.70	31.40
	Ts	35.50	43.70	20.80
At the end of the class	Ss	32.90	22.10	45.00
	Ts	12.50	35.40	52.10

As Table 4.5 illustrates, there was a significant difference between the students and teachers about providing corrective feedback after the students finish speaking and after the activities ($p < 0.001$). All in all, the teachers and students considered “*After the students finish speaking*” to be the most appropriate time to treat errors with 56.80% for the students' responses and 54.20% for the teachers' responses. For the next question, 35.50% of the teachers regard clarification “*after the activities*” and about 48% of the students call for clarification. The most significant difference can be realized in the responses for the last question of timing section. While thirty-three percent of the students feel themselves in need of correction at the end of the class, very few of the teachers (12.50%) believe in the practicality of this. The teachers believe that correcting spoken errors as soon as they are made, but without interrupting the speaking, can enhance both accuracy and fluency. In addition, another implication of this inference is that 52% of the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed error treatment “*At the end of*

the class.” Considering the students’ preferences for the timing of correction, Havranek (2002) suggested that teachers need to be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of immediate, delayed, and postponed error correction in order to provide their students with effective corrective feedback.

Table 4.6 Comparison of responses on the timing of error correction

Timing of treatment	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>p</i>
After students finish speaking	Ss	3.54	1.40	-0.308	0.000*
	Ts	3.60	0.91		
After the activities	Ss	3.27	1.39	0.352	0.000*
	Ts	3.18	0.89		
At the end of the class	Ss	2.78	1.39	1.661	0.001*
	Ts	2.43	0.98		

* $p < 0.05$

There were discrepancies among the students in regard to correcting errors *at the end of class*. Thirty-three percent of the students strongly agreed or agreed that student errors should be corrected *at the end of class*, whereas 45% of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed. Likewise, a discrepancy among the teachers was also found in regard to correcting students’ errors at the end of class. Though 12.50% of the teachers agreed that correcting student errors at the end of class was good, 52.10% disagreed.

4.2.4 Types of Errors that Need to be Treated

The questions in the fourth category asked which types of errors should be corrected by the teachers. The category consists of five types of errors: serious spoken errors, less serious errors, frequent errors, infrequent errors, and individual errors. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with “Always,” “Usually,” “Sometimes,” “Occasionally,” or “Never.”

As Figure 4.4 illustrates, *Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener’s understanding* received the highest mean from both the students and teachers.

Comparing the students and teachers, while teachers' responses for serious and frequent spoken error had higher mean rates than students, the mean rates of the student responses in other questions was higher than those of the teachers. Overall, the findings indicate that the students wanted more error correction regardless of the types of errors than teachers did. For the questions *less serious spoken errors* and *infrequent spoken errors* the means of the student responses can noticeably be seen much higher. Regarding types of errors to be corrected, Hendrickson's (1978) study investigated whether, when, which, and how student errors should be corrected and who should correct them. The findings are: correction promotes language learning; there is no general consensus as to when errors should be corrected; frequently occurring errors and errors that impair communication should be corrected; and various corrective feedback types are used by teachers.

Figure 4.4 Mean responses on error types that need to be treated

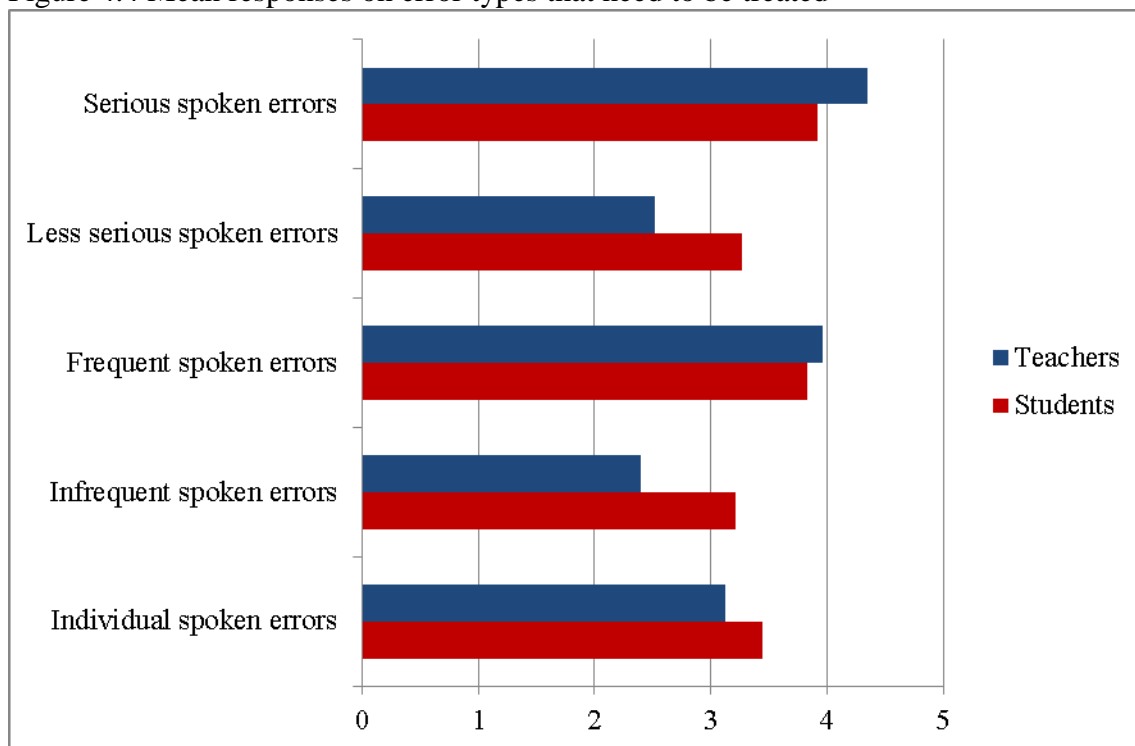


Table 4.7 shows the percentage of the students' and teachers' responses to the questions about errors types that need to be treated. Almost all of the teachers responded

that students' serious spoken errors should be always or usually treated, whereas 72% of the students wanted their serious spoken errors to be treated always or usually, and nine percent of the students wanted their serious spoken errors to be treated sometimes. On the other hand, teachers' responses for less serious and infrequent were remarkably low compared to the students demand for error correction even for those types, which suggests that students seems to be keener in the sense of error treatment. Overall, the findings indicate that the students wanted more error correction regardless of the types of errors than teachers did.

In general, the teachers treated their students' errors less frequently than the students expected; however, the teachers showed a strong preference for correcting serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener's understanding. It is not possible for a teacher to correct all the errors made by students in a classroom setting. Taking this into consideration, it is natural for teachers to focus on the most important errors that can cause misunderstanding between the speaker and listener. This finding shows that the teachers consider that being understood by the listener is the most important factor for ESL learners to convey their thoughts and keep conversation going.

Table 4.7 Teacher/student responses on errors types that need to be treated (%)

Types of errors	Always		Usually		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss
Serious	43.80	50.00	47.90	22.10	8.30	9.30	0.00	6.80	0.00	11.80
Less serious	2.10	18.20	8.30	24.60	37.50	33.20	43.80	13.60	8.30	10.40
Frequent	27.10	42.50	45.80	26.80	22.90	13.60	4.20	6.10	0.00	11.10
Infrequent	2.10	16.10	4.20	26.80	43.80	28.20	31.30	20.00	18.80	8.90
Individual	4.20	25.40	25.00	26.10	52.10	25.40	16.70	15.00	2.10	31.30

Ts (n =48) Ss (n =280)

By treating serious errors, the teachers can help their students decrease misunderstanding between the speaker and listener and increase the students' awareness of using target-like forms in their speaking. Unlike to the teachers, the students seem to

take their less serious and infrequent errors gravely. While both the teachers and students had a similar opinion about frequent errors, they showed a discrepancy in treating infrequent errors. Forty-three percent of the students wanted corrective feedback always or usually on their infrequent errors, but only 4.20% of the teachers usually provide their students with corrective feedback on the infrequent errors.

Table 4.8 shows a significant difference between the teachers and students. The finding indicates that teachers are more focused on more frequent errors made by their students rather than infrequent errors. Another significant difference was also found between the two groups in the question about correcting students' individual errors. Over twenty-five percent of the students always wanted their individual errors to be treated, but only four percent of the teachers always corrected individual errors made by only one student. Given the findings, teachers focus more on serious spoken errors than individual errors. It is not realistic to expect that teachers provide their students with corrective feedback on individual errors in a classroom setting.

Table 4.8 Comparison of responses on error types that need to be treated

Types of errors	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>P</i>
Serious	Ss	3.92	1.38	-2.13	0.000*
	Ts	4.35	0.63		
Less serious	Ss	2.27	1.20	4.11	0.06
	Ts	2.52	0.85		
Frequent	Ss	3.83	1.33	-0.61	0.000*
	Ts	3.96	0.82		
Infrequent	Ss	3.21	1.19	4.50	0.22
	Ts	2.40	0.91		
Individual	Ss	3.45	1.24	1.76	0.000*
	Ts	3.12	0.81		

* $p < 0.05$

These findings indicate that teachers focus more on serious and frequent errors made by their students rather than correcting infrequent and less serious errors. By focusing on serious and frequent spoken errors, teachers can help their students enhance both accuracy and fluency.

4.2.5 Method of Corrective Feedback

The fifth category asked the teachers and students about their preferences for types of corrective feedback. The category consists of eight methods of corrective feedback, including clarification request, repetition, implicit feedback, explicit feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, recasts, and no corrective feedback. The students and teachers were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale, from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*.

Figure 4.5 shows the mean responses of students and teachers to each of the eight types of corrective feedback and their preferences for them. As can be seen in the figure, implicit feedback (M =4.12) and repetition (M =4.10) had the highest mean among the teachers, and whereas explicit feedback (M =3.85) and similar to the teachers, repetition (M =3.52) had the highest mean among the students. No corrective feedback had the lowest mean among both the teachers and students. These findings show that both the teachers and students value corrective feedback on spoken errors; however, teachers prefer the types of corrective feedback which will not impede students' fluency.

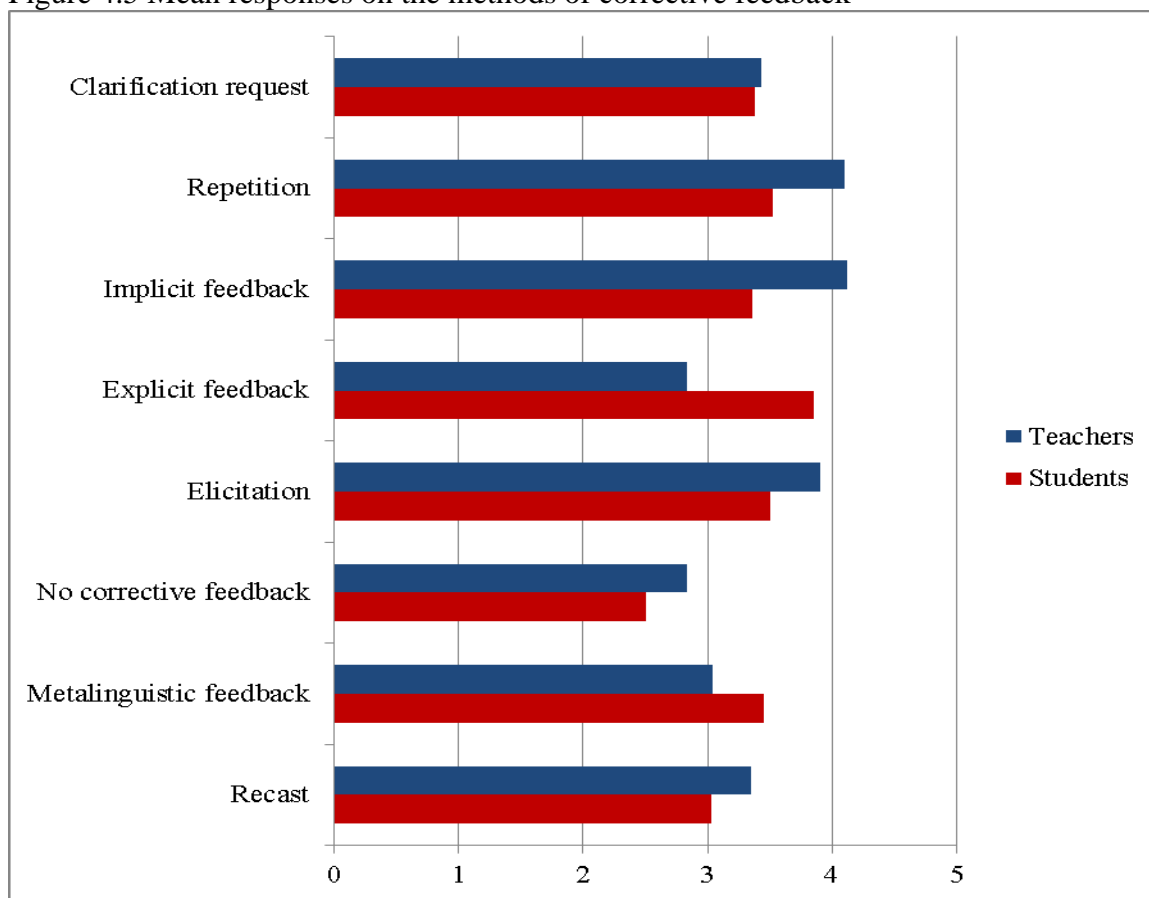
Table 4.9 presents a percentage compilation of student and teacher responses. Repetition and elicitation were the most favored methods of corrective feedback among the students, and an almost equal percentage of the students rated the methods as very effective or effective, 58.60% and 54.30% respectively. The findings indicate that the students wanted their teachers' repetition and elicitation feedback on their target-like utterances, and, they also wanted to have an opportunity to come up with these target-like language forms by themselves rather than entirely depending on their teachers' help.

Repetition and elicitation can help them develop self-editorial skills by providing the students with time to think about the target form.

The findings suggest that the students might expect their teachers to know and use various types of corrective feedback in a flexible way that suits their current proficiency level regarding the target item. For instance, if the students make errors that they can correct by themselves, they prefer their teachers to simply guide them to notice the ill-formed utterances so that they can restate the utterances with the target-like forms by themselves. In other words, the teachers' explicit feedback may deny students'

opportunities to produce “pushed output” (Swain & Lapkin, 1995), which is believed to be beneficial to acquisition. On the other hand, if the errors are beyond the students’ current level, they want their teachers’ direct and explicit error correction. Overall, the students’ apparently consistent responses on the need for error correction seem to indicate their expectations of the teachers’ moment-by-moment flexible treatment of their errors.

Figure 4.5 Mean responses on the methods of corrective feedback



There were discrepancies between students’ and teachers’ preferences for the methods of error correction (see Table 4.10). Unlike the students, repetition was the most favored method and implicit feedback was the second most favored type of corrective feedback among the teachers. The results show that a higher percentage of the teachers rated repetition, implicit feedback and elicitation as more effective methods than explicit feedback, which suggests that, unlike previous studies (e.g. Park, 2010) the

teachers believe that encouraging students to find the target-like forms indirectly are far more effective than pointing out their students' errors and providing the correct forms directly. Repetition was regarded as effective corrective feedback by 87.50% of the teachers, whereas only 58.60% of the students rated the method as effective. The finding indicates that the teachers believed that repetition can allow their students to think about their utterances once more, so that they can notice an error they made in their speaking.

Table 4.9 Teacher/Student Responses on methods of Corrective Feedback (%)

Types of Feedback	Groups	Strongly agree/ Agree	Neutral	Strongly disagree/ Disagree
Clarification request	Ts	54.20	20.80	25.00
	Ss	51.80	26.10	22.10
Repetition	Ts	87.50	4.20	8.30
	Ss	58.60	17.50	23.90
Implicit feedback	Ts	83.30	10.40	6.30
	Ss	50.80	22.10	27.10
Explicit feedback	Ts	33.30	20.80	45.80
	Ss	51.10	22.10	26.80
Elicitation	Ts	75.00	16.70	8.30
	Ss	54.30	26.80	18.90
No corrective feedback	Ts	25.00	35.40	39.60
	Ss	29.30	16.40	54.30
Metalinguistic feedback	Ts	41.60	16.80	41.60
	Ss	53.90	22.90	23.20
Recasts	Ts	50.10	33.30	16.70
	Ss	38.90	22.90	38.2

The students did not regard repetition as an effective feedback type to help them find the target-like forms to the same degree as teachers. From a student's perspectives, repetition can be confusing because it might not always be clear whether

the teacher is repeating the student's utterance to indicate the problem or to acknowledge the content. It is a surprising result since many previous studies have shown that recasts are the most frequently used corrective feedback by teachers in the L2 classroom although they are not the most effective method to correct learners' spoken errors due to ambiguity and implicitness (e.g., Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Panova, 2002; Sheen, 2006; Yoshida, 2008).

The highest discrepancy between the students' and teachers' responses was on repetition, implicit feedback and no corrective feedback and a statistically significant difference was found ($p=0,000 < 0,005$).

More than half of the students responded that metalinguistic feedback was effective, whereas the number of the teachers who find it effective and ineffective was the same (41.60%). The finding suggests that some students (51.10%) believe that they can benefit from their teachers' explanations on their errors because it can help them notice what makes their utterances ungrammatical. On the other hand, teachers may not consider this as an ideal type of corrective feedback in a classroom setting as the percentage of teachers regard it ineffective was much higher (45.80%) than those regard effective (33.30%). There were discrepancies between the students and teachers regarding no corrective feedback. Expectedly, 39.60% of the teachers rated no corrective feedback as ineffective, and 25% regarded it as effective, whereas 54.30% of the students rated it as ineffective, and interestingly, 29.30% of the students rated it as effective.

Given that over 65% of the students agreed with the statement *I want to receive corrective feedback when I make mistakes*, the findings indicate the students' consistent opinions about error correction. Almost the same percentage of the students (51%) rated implicit and explicit as effective methods of error correction. Conversely, a high discrepancy was found among the teachers regarding the effectiveness of implicit and explicit feedback on their students' spoken errors. Specifically, 83.30% of the teachers regarded implicit feedback as effective, whereas only 33.30% of them considered recasts as effective feedback. Also, regarding the effectiveness of clarification request, almost an equal percentage of the students and teachers rated the method as effective. Although there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in opinions

about clarification request, the findings show that teachers and students differ significantly in terms of recast. To sum up, there are a wide variety of techniques for the treatment of student errors and sometimes teachers' and L2 learners' perspectives differ on the desirability of error treatment (e.g., Ancker, 2000; Yoshida, 2008).

Table 4.10 Comparison of responses on methods of Corrective Feedback

Types of Feedback	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>p</i>
Clarification request	Ss	3.38	1.24	-0.308	0.329
	Ts	3.43	1.08		
Repetition	Ss	3.52	1.28	-3.023	0.000*
	Ts	4.10	0.90		
Implicit feedback	Ss	3.36	1.30	-3.928	0.000*
	Ts	4.12	0.84		
Explicit feedback	Ss	3.38	1.31	2.725	0.238
	Ts	2.83	1.19		
Elicitation	Ss	3.50	1.14	-2.350	0.002*
	Ts	3.91	0.94		
No corrective feedback	Ss	2.50	1.47	-1.454	0.000
	Ts	2.83	1.15		
Metalinguistic feedback	Ss	3.45	1.27	2.101	0.220
	Ts	3.04	1.11		
Recasts	Ss	3.03	1.31	-1.626	0.003*
	Ts	3.35	0.93		

* $p < 0.05$

Although over half of the teachers, 50.10%, regarded recast as an effective feedback strategy, only 38.90% of the students did. Overall, the students' responses to the methods of corrective feedback are over 50% except for no corrective feedback and recast in which teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the students' errors. The results indicate that while the teachers are selective

for corrective feedback methods, the students are in need of feedback rather than selection. The reason for this can be explained as learners need feedback on errors when they are not able to discover the differences between their interlanguage and the target language though a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input (e.g., Krashen, 1998). In other words, form-focused instruction induces learners to pay conscious attention to forms in the input and thus aids interlanguage development.

4.2.6 Delivering Agents of Error Correction

The last group of questions asked the students who should correct their errors. The statement in the question was “The following person should treat students’ errors.” There were three choices: classmates, teachers, and students themselves. The three questions attempted to elicit opinions regarding the value of peer-correction, teacher-correction, and self-correction. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with “Strongly agree,” “Agree,” “Neutral,” “Disagree,” “Strongly disagree.”

Figure 4.6 Mean responses on the delivering agents

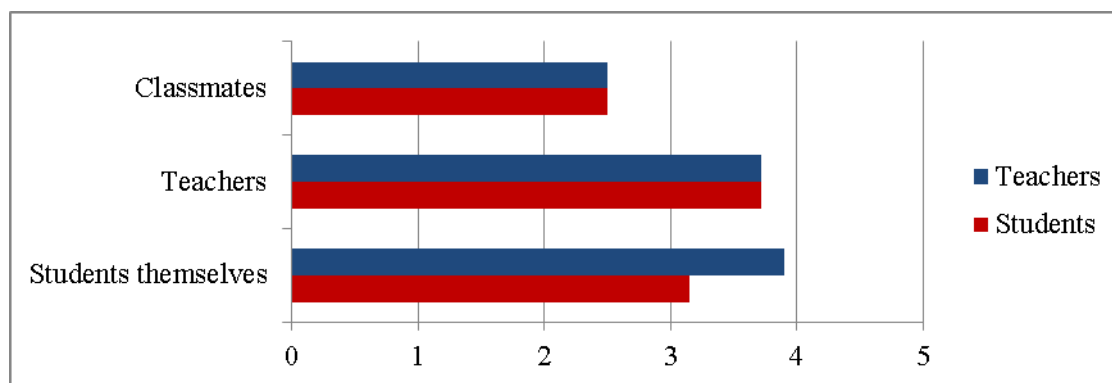


Figure 4.6 illustrates the means of students’ and teachers’ responses on delivering agents of error correction. Students themselves received the highest mean from the teachers ($M=3.90$). On the other hand, correction from teachers received the highest mean for the students, which was precisely the same mean as the teachers’ ($M=3.72$). Interestingly, correction from the classmates received exactly the same mean ($M=2.50$) for both the teachers and the students. From the illustrated figure it can be concluded that teachers want their students to gain self-confidence to make their own

correction, and parallel to repetition and implicit feedback types having been analyzed previously, the teachers expect their students to learn to explore their own errors.

Table 4.11 Students'/teachers' responses on delivering agents (%)

Agent of Treatment	Groups	Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree
Classmates	Ss	20.70	24.6	54.60
	Ts	8.30	50.00	41.70
Teachers	Ss	65.40	14.60	20.00
	Ts	66.70	27.10	6.30
Students themselves	Ss	35.80	38.50	25.70
	Ts	70.80	25.00	4.20

As Table 4.11 illustrates, students regarded teachers as the most appropriate people to correct student errors, 65.40%, while the teachers regarded student themselves as the most appropriate agents to correct their errors, 70.80%. Following the students themselves, the teachers are considered as the second most appropriate agents to make correction by the teachers, 66.70%, with almost the same percentage as the students regarded. Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding the teachers as the agent corrector; however for self-correction, almost 71% of the teachers whereas only 35.80% of the students strongly agreed or agreed that students should correct their own errors by themselves. Also, there was no great discrepancy in opinions of self-correction between the teachers and students (see Table 4.12). The finding indicates that the mean of peer-correction was the lowest among the three choices; that is, both the teachers and students did not strongly believe in the effectiveness of error correction delivered by classmates. Ever since a statistically significant difference was found between the two groups, the teachers valued self-correction much more than the students did. The findings indicate that while the teachers preferred self-correction to peer-correction, the students favored teacher correction.

Also, as Park suggested (2010), the students may expect their teachers to have superior knowledge to offer corrective feedback.

Table 4.12 Comparison of responses on delivering agents

Agents of Feedback	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>p</i>
Classmates	Ss	2.50	1.22	-0.019	0.003*
	Ts	2.50	0.87		
Teachers	Ss	3.72	1.27	-0.003	0.000*
	Ts	3.72	0.76		
Students themselves	Ss	3.15	1.15	-4.239	0.005
	Ts	3.90	0.80		

* $p < 0.05$

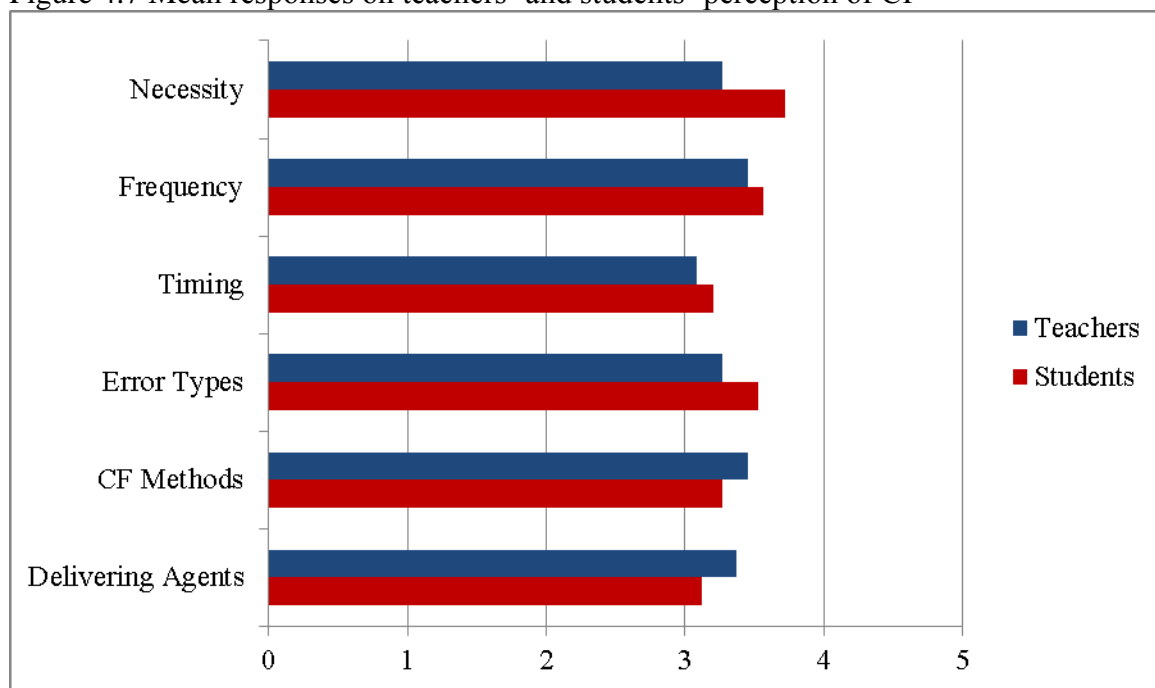
The second choice of delivering agent of error correction was students themselves. The advantage of students' self-correction has been highlighted by many researchers (e.g., Allwright & Bailey, 1991 cited in Park, 2010; Chaudron, 1977; Hendrikson, 1978), and the present study findings also show that both teachers and students valued students' self-correction. As noted in the literature review, language learners are the ones who make changes and thus develop their interlanguage system. The long-term goal is for language learners to be capable of self-correction by internalizing the correct forms, so they can produce the target language accurately and fluently without assistance from teachers.

Numerous studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1977; Ranta & Lyster, 2007; Sheen, 2006) have shown that error treatment is a complex process, and teachers have a wide variety of techniques available for the treatment of errors. The studies suggest that teachers strive to meet their learners' needs and thus maximize their learning by providing appropriate feedback according to students' proficiency levels. For this reason, teachers' feedback is not always systematic; instead, teachers selectively use corrective feedback by making choices "between the moment when an oral error occurs and the actual treatment that follows" (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 100 cited in Park, 2010).

4.2.7 Correlations of Teachers' and Students' Perception of CF

In this section means, standard deviations and ranges between teachers' and students' perception of corrective feedback was analyzed in terms of six sections in the questionnaires (MOQ-S and MOQ-T). Figure 4.7 illustrates that there is no significant difference between mean score for the participant students and teachers in general. The only significant difference in mean scores can be seen in the necessity of error treatment (Ts' $M=3.27$ and Ss' $M=3.72$). From the figure, it can be concluded that both teachers and students are in favor of error treatment in all aspects of the conducted questionnaire.

Figure 4.7 Mean responses on teachers' and students' perception of CF



The correlations between teachers' and students' perception of six sections in their questionnaire is presented in table 4.13. The results indicate that there is a significant difference between teachers' and students' perception of corrective feedback in general ($p < 0.05$).

The most significant discrepancy between two groups' perception can be seen in the necessity of the correction (Ss' $M=3.72$ $SD=1.32$ and Ts' $M=3.27$ $SD=0.74$). The mean score of the students were higher than teachers' in general except for the methods and delivering agents of corrective feedback. These results suggest that students are

typically more demanding of the error correction while the teachers are also well aware of the importance of it.

Table 4.13 Correlations between teachers' and students' perception of CF

Sections	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>P</i>
Necessity of CF	Ss	3.72	1.32	2.27	0.000*
	Ts	3.27	0.74		
Frequency of CF	Ss	3.56	1.15	0.62	0.002*
	Ts	3.45	0.80		
Timing of CF	Ss	3.20	1.06	0.75	0.000*
	Ts	3.07	0.67		
Types of errors	Ss	3.53	0.92	1.96	0.000*
	Ts	3.27	0.47		
Methods of CF	Ss	3.27	0.66	-1.88	0.002*
	Ts	3.45	0.43		
Delivering Agents of CF	Ss	3.12	0.67	-2.42	0.019*
	Ts	3.37	0.52		

P < 0.05

4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The data collected through the questionnaires regarding corrective feedback was analyzed in the previous subsection. Further in this section, demographic variables on the students' and teachers' questionnaires will be analyzed on SPSS 20.0. These variables are; age, gender, English language proficiency level, language learning background for students and similarly teaching experience for teachers. The demographic variables were coded on the questionnaire on numerical basis.

4.3.1 Demographic Variables for Students

4.3.1.1 Gender

Table 4.14 reflects statistical discrepancy analysis between male and female participant students of Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) as a

whole. Male and female participants have precisely the same mean for the complete questionnaire. Additionally, there is no significant difference ($P=0,401>0.05$) between male and female participants when their responses to the questionnaire are analyzed as a whole.

Table 4.14 Male/female comparison on MOQ-S

Groups	N	%	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Male	165	58.93	3.36	0.62	-0.059	0.401
Female	115	41.07	3.36	0.65		
Total	280	100				

$P>0.05$

As has been mentioned above, Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-S) consists six sections regarding corrective feedback as (1) necessity of Corrective Feedback, (2) frequency of error correction, (3) timing of error correction, (4) types of errors treated, (5) methods of correction, and (6) agents of correction.

Table 4.15 Male/female students' comparison of responses on error correction

Sections	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Necessity of CF	M	3.64	1.13	-0.72	0.61
	F	3.74	1.15		
Frequency of CF	M	3.52	1.10	-0.70	0.24
	F	3.62	1.23		
Timing of CF	M	3.20	1.08	0.16	0.61
	F	3.18	1.02		
Types of errors	M	3.50	0.88	-0.82	0.34
	F	3.60	0.95		
Methods of CF	M	3.27	0.66	0.08	0.55
	F	3.26	0.66		
Delivering Agents of CF	M	3.21	0.70	2.60	0.03
	F	3.00	0.61		

$P>0.05$

Table 4.15 illustrates statistical discrepancy analysis between male and female participant students on each section of the questionnaire in their oral communicative classes. According to statistical results from the table, when genders are compared, male and female participants of MOQ-S have almost the same mean rates for all parts of the questionnaire. Moreover, there is no significant difference between responses of the genders on error correction.

4.3.1.2 Proficiency Levels

The second demographic variable in the student questionnaire was about the proficiency levels of the participants. There are three proficiency levels at GUSFL, namely (1) pre-intermediate, (2) intermediate, and (3) upper-intermediate. In this part of the study, English proficiency levels of the participants will be analyzed as another demographic variable regarding six sections in the student questionnaire (MOQ-S).

Research Question #2 Do learners with different English language proficiency levels show significant differences in terms of feedback types they prefer?

A one-way anova test was conducted to compare English language proficiency levels of the students and feedback types they prefer. Table 4.16 presents the comparison of English proficiency levels of the participant students, namely (1) pre-intermediate, (2) intermediate, (3) upper-intermediate and eight types of error treatment represented in the questionnaire, namely, (1) clarification request, (2) repetition, (3) implicit feedback, (4) explicit feedback, (5) elicitation, (6) no-feedback, (7) metalinguistic feedback, and (8) recast.

Table 4.16 Comparison of proficiency levels and Corrective Feedback types

Proficiency levels	N	%	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>P</i>
Pre-intermediate	110	39.29	3.44	0.56	2	0.000*
Intermediate	105	37.50	2.97	0.67		
Upper-intermediate	65	23.21	3.45	0.63		
Total	280	100	3.26	0.66		

$P < 0.005$

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for pre-intermediate variable ($M=2.44$) did not significantly differ from upper-intermediate variable ($M=3.26$). However, the intermediate variable ($M=2.97$) was significantly different from pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate variables.

Table 4.17 indicates that there was a significant difference between preferred corrective feedback types and English proficiency levels of the students [$(p<0.005)$, $F(2.277)=19.33$ ($p=0.000<0.005$)].

Table 4.17 Comparison of proficiency levels and corrective feedback types

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15.05	2	7.52	19.33	0.000*
Within Groups	107.78	277	0.39		
Total	122.82	279			

* $p<0.05$

4.3.2 Demographic Variables for Teachers

4.3.2.1 Gender

Table 4.18 reflects complete statistical discrepancy analysis between male and female participant teachers of Modified Output Questionnaire for Students (MOQ-T). Male and female participants have exactly the same mean for the complete questionnaire. Moreover, no significant difference ($P=0.336>0.05$) was found between male and female participants when their responses to the questionnaire are analyzed.

Table 4.18 Male/female comparison on MOQ-T

Groups	N	%	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Male	16	33.33	3.38	0.33	-0.77	0.33
Female	32	66.67	3.31	0.29		

$P>0.05$

Table 4.19 demonstrates statistical discrepancy analysis between male and female participant teachers on each section of the questionnaire (MOQ-T). As regards statistical results from the table, when genders are compared, male and female participants of MOQ-T have almost the same mean rates for all parts of the

questionnaire. In addition, there is no significant difference between responses of the gender differences on error treatment.

Table 4.19 Male/female teachers' comparison of responses on error correction

Sections	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>P</i>
Necessity of CF	M	3.37	0.71	0.68	0.72
	F	3.21	0.75		
Frequency of CF	M	3.50	0.81	0.25	0.94
	F	3.43	0.80		
Timing of CF	M	3.18	0.72	0.80	0.42
	F	3.02	0.64		
Types of errors	M	3.25	0.37	-0.21	0.17
	F	3.28	0.51		
Methods of CF	M	3.53	0.43	0.85	0.24
	F	3.41	0.43		
Delivering Agents of CF	M	3.39	0.63	0.19	0.38
	F	3.36	0.46		

$P > 0.05$

4.3.2.2 General Language Teaching Experience

Another demographic variable collected through the teachers' questionnaire was their general language teaching experience. Table 4.20 displays statistical data collected through MOQ-T regarding the discrepancies between general language teaching experiences of the teachers and their responses to the questionnaire. Teachers' general language teaching experience was coded on numerical basis on the questionnaire as "1 year, 2-5 years, 6-9 years, more than 10 years".

Table 4.20 Comparison of teaching experience and responses on MOQ-T

Sections of the questionnaire		N	%	Mean	SD	T-value	<i>P</i>
Necessity of Corrective Feedback	1 year	5	10.42	3.40	0.54	0.79	0.97
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.23	0.75		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.33	0.51		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.25	0.85		
	Total	48	100	3.27	0.73		

Table 4.20 Comparison of teaching experience and responses on MOQ-T (cont.)

Frequency of Corrective Feedback	1 year	5	10.42	3.60	0.54	0.27	0.84
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.35	0.93		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.33	0.51		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.55	0.82		
	Total	48	100	3.45	0.79		
Timing of Corrective Feedback	1 year	5	10.42	2.53	0.29	1.34	0.27
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.13	0.45		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.27	0.49		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.10	0.87		
	Total	48	100	3.07	0.67		
Error Types	1 year	5	10.42	3.52	0.43	1.56	0.21
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.38	0.49		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.23	0.42		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.12	0.44		
	Total	48	100	3.27	0.47		
Corrective Feedback Methods	1 year	5	10.42	3.27	0.18	0.35	0.78
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.50	0.37		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.45	0.62		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.45	0.47		
	Total	48	100	3.45	0.43		
Delivering Agents	1 year	5	10.42	3.66	0.40	1.32	0.27
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.41	0.47		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.05	0.71		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.36	0.50		
	Total	48	100	3.37	0.52		
Total	1 year	5	10.42	3.30	0.12	0.25	0.85
	2-5 years	17	35.42	3.39	0.26		
	6-9 years	6	12.50	3.30	0.38		
	more than 10 years	20	41.66	3.30	0.36		
	Total	48	100	3.33	0.31		

$p > 0.005$

According to the table, five of the teachers have only one-year, 17 have 2-5 years, six have 6-9 years and 20 of the teachers have more than ten years of general language teaching experience. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to compare teachers' general language teaching experiences and their responses to six parts of the

questionnaire. The results from the table further indicate that there was no significant difference between teachers' general language teaching experience and each section of the teacher questionnaire (MOQ-T). Moreover, Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for one-year-experienced teachers ($M=3.30$), 2-5 year-experienced teachers ($M=3.39$), 6-9 year-experienced teachers ($M=3.30$) and more than ten years experienced teachers ($M=3.30$) indicate no significant discrepancies ($p=0.854>0.005$).

4.3.2.3 Oral Communicative Teaching Experience

The last demographic variable in the questionnaire was on teachers' oral communicative skills teaching experience. Teachers' oral communicative teaching skills teaching experience was coded on numerical basis on the questionnaire as "1 year, 2-5 years, 6-9 years, more than 10 years". Table 4.21 shows statistical data collected through MOQ-T regarding the differences between general language teaching experiences of the teachers and their responses to the questionnaire section by section and as a whole. According to table 4.21, seven of the teachers have one year, 19 have 2-5 years, five have 6-9 years and 17 have more than ten years of oral communicative skills experience. In addition, it can be concluded from the table that there is no significant discrepancy between teachers' oral communicative skills experiences and their responses on MOQ-T. Furthermore, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for one-year-experienced teachers ($M=3.31$), 2-5 year-experienced teachers ($M=3.31$), 6-9 year-experienced teachers ($M=3.46$) and more than ten years experienced teachers ($M=3.33$) indicate no significant discrepancies ($p=0.812>0.005$).

Table 4.21 Comparison of oral skill experiences and responses on MOQ-T

Sections of the questionnaire		N	%	Mean	SD	T-value	P
Necessity of Corrective Feedback	1 year	7	14.58	3.28	0.48	0.09	0.96
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.21	0.78		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.40	0.54		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.29	0.84		
	Total	48	100	3.27	0.73		

Table 4.21 Comparison of Ts' oral skills experiences and responses on MOQ-T (cont.)

Frequency of Corrective Feedback	1 year	7	14.58	3.57	0.53	0.73	0.53
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.26	0.93		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.40	0.54		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.64	0.78		
	Total	48	100	3.45	0.79		
Timing of Corrective Feedback	1 year	7	14.58	2.76	0.37	0.67	0.57
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.07	0.71		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.20	0.50		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.17	0.76		
	Total	48	100	3.07	0.67		
Error Types	1 year	7	14.58	3.37	0.29	0.47	0.70
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.30	0.57		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.36	0.32		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.16	0.44		
	Total	48	100	3.27	0.47		
Corrective Feedback Methods	1 year	7	14.58	3.33	0.20	0.71	0.55
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.46	0.46		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.70	0.20		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.42	0.51		
	Total	48	100	3.45	0.43		
Delivering Agents	1 year	7	14.58	3.61	0.35	0.97	0.41
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.24	0.61		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.33	0.23		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.43	0.51		
	Total	48	100	3.37	0.52		
Total	1 year	7	14.58	3.31	0.10	0.31	0.81
	2-5 years	19	39.58	3.31	0.35		
	6-9 years	5	10.42	3.46	0.06		
	more than 10 years	17	35.42	3.33	0.35		
	Total	48	100	3.33	0.31		

 $p > 0.005$

The last demographic variable in the questionnaire was on teachers' oral communicative skills teaching experience. Teachers' oral communicative teaching skills teaching experience was coded on numerical basis on the questionnaire as "1 year, 2-5 years, 6-9 years, more than 10 years". Table 4.21 shows statistical data collected through MOQ-T regarding the differences between general language teaching experiences of the teachers and their responses to the questionnaire section by section and as a whole.

4.4 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, data collected via other data collection tools, recorded oral communicative classes and interviews will be discussed. The researcher was not present in any of the conversations recorded in order not to have any influence over the results. Additionally, the equipment used in collecting the data was a digital Sony voice recorder which provided maximal sound recordings and minimal obtrusion. The conversations took place in eight communicative classes under the supervision of native speakers amounting 50 minutes each. All the recorded conversations were recorded in the natural flow of the lessons and were transcribed verbatim (see Appendix B). The data collected will be explained in a qualitative and quantitative way find out a response to the following research question.

Research Question #3 What are the students' preference of the delivering agents of error correction?

4.4.1 Recorded Oral Communicative Classes

Table 4.22 reflects quantitative data collected through a checklist for corrective treatments in oral communicative classes in percentage. For the study, eight oral communicative classes were recorded and corrective feedback methods, timing, delivering agents and error types are presented below. Furthermore, the typescripts of the recorded classes are available in Appendix B. According to the table, implicit feedback is the most frequent corrective feedback type (58%). Of all the implicit feedback implemented, 35% is given by the teacher, 15% by the classmates and 8% by the student himself.

Following the implicit feedback, other favorable feedback types are clarification request (16%), explicit feedback (10%), metalinguistic feedback (%), elicitation and recasts (4%), repetition (2%). ‘No corrective feedback’ received no attention from the implementations in the classes. It can be obviously seen that these results are parallel to the results obtained from the questionnaires applied to the teachers and students MOQ-S and MOQ-T).

Table 4.22 Checklist for CF treatments in oral communicative classes (%)

	CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK METHODS	Clarification Request	Repetition	Implicit Feedback	Explicit Feedback	Elicitation	No Feedback	Metalinguistic Feedback	Recasts	TOTAL
TIMING	After students finish speaking	10	2	50	8	4	-	-	-	74
	After the activity	4	-	4	2	-	-	5	4	19
	At the end of the class	2	-	4	-	-	-	1	-	7
DELIVERING AGENTS	Classmates	2	1	10	2	-	-	2	-	17
	Teacher	12	1	40	8	-	-	4	4	69
	Student himself	2	-	8	-	4	-	-	-	14
ERROR TYPES	Serious	16	-	32	4	-	-	4	-	56
	Less serious	-	1	3	-	1	-	-	2	7
	Frequent	-	-	18	6	2	-	2	-	28
	Infrequent	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	2	6
	Individual	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
	- TOTAL	16	2	58	10	4	-	6	4	

When the table is analyzed in terms of timing of the correction, it can be seen that 74% is conducted after students finish talking and 19% is conducted after the activity and only 7% is left to the end of the class. The most preferential time of correction is seen immediate after students finish talking. Another variable was delivering agents of corrective feedback in oral communicative classes. In terms of delivering agents of corrective feedback, the table further indicates that 70 percent of the correction is delivered by the teacher, 18% by the classmates while only twelve percent

is conducted by the students themselves. Compared to the results of the questionnaires, there is a great deal of similarities as the teacher is the most favored source of the error treatment. Lastly, error types were taken into account and similar to the teacher and student questionnaires, serious and frequent student errors were observed to be the most common treated ones (84%). On the other hand, individual errors (%3), infrequent (%6) and less serious errors (%7) were the least frequent to be modified in oral communicative classes. To sum up, it has been observed that implicit feedback was the most favored method of correction; after students finish talking was the best timing for treatment; teacher was the most preferred agent of error corrector; and serious errors were the most common errors modified.

4.4.2 Semi-structured Interviews

Lastly, a semi-structured interview was conducted to gain a range of insights on the issue and obtain specific quantitative and qualitative information from the learners. The interview took place in a friendly atmosphere with each group of six students from different proficiency levels (regarding the population of the proficiency levels, two from pre-intermediate and intermediate each, and one group from upper-intermediate). The questions for interview were adapted from modified output questionnaire for students (MOQ-S). In this way, it became possible to analyze the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire for students qualitatively incorporating the students to find an answer to the following research question.

Research Question #4 What are the sources of unmodified errors (lack of knowledge, emotional, ignorance, etc.)?

The questionnaire (MOQ-S) results had indicated that over 66% of the students strongly agreed or agreed their errors be treated in oral communicative classes. Additionally, according to the interview held with students, it was well identified that no students in each group disagreed with necessity of error correction. Almost all of the students in five groups wanted their errors to be corrected. In other words, very most of the students in all groups had strong opinions about the importance of error correction.

Furthermore, the evaluation of the interview indicated that the majority of the students were conscious of their spoken errors, so they wanted their errors to be

corrected by their teachers most of the time rather than their classmates or the error left the student himself to be treated. The students claimed that the teacher is the source of information and his treatment of the error is not only a correction but also a kind of guidance for them. However, they said that the classmates are not trustworthy sources of correction as they may misinterpret the error treatment as well. In addition, majority of the students added that they feel uncomfortable and anxious to be treated by a classmate. They further uttered that when the treatment is implemented by the teacher they better focus on the feedback than error treatment by a classmate. As the classmate tend to implement error modification, kind of a little confusion occurs in the class and this causes either not to notice their errors or ignore the correction. While anxious students are more open to the corrective feedback from various agents, they are more concerned about accuracy than less anxious students (Park, 2010). Thus, their anxiety level increases when they speak English in a chaotic environment. In that case, it can be assumed that most important causes of unmodification arise from emotional reasons like anxiety, feeling uncomfortable, and demand for over-accuracy.

The results indicate that the students wanted to receive treatment after they completed their speaking without any interruption caused by corrective feedback. Immediate error treatment can interrupt the flow of communication and even make students feel embarrassed or afraid of making errors; however, the students did not favor delayed error correction. Allwright and Bailey (1991) argued that immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak and hinders the flow of communication. In a similar way, long delayed or postponed feedback is not effective, either. As a speaker, the students were aware of the importance of being understood by the listener without misinterpretation in order to keep the conversation going.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1. PRESENTATION

The purposes of this study were to investigate: (1) teachers' and learners' opinions about error correction, including the necessity, frequency, timing, type, method, and delivering agent of error treatment; and (2) proposing a syllable design for oral communicative classes at GUSFL. Swain emphasized the importance of the role of modified output, argued that it is necessary for second language mastery. Swain further suggested that modified output could be the result of ample opportunities for output and the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers. Later, she proposed that modified output is the representation of "the leading edge of a learner's interlanguage" (Swain, 1995, p. 131).

While the purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' and learners' perception of corrective feedback, the research questions more specifically led the analysis. Firstly, the data collected through the instruments given above (i.e. MOQ-T and MOQ-S) has been analyzed to demonstrate the overall perception of feedback in oral communicative classes in terms of frequency and percentage analyses. Secondly, a one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) has been completed to see if the error treatment perception the three EFL proficiency level groups (namely pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate) are different. Then, the demographic variables like gender for students, general language teaching experience and oral communicative skills teaching experiences were analyzed through one-way ANOVAs and multiple comparisons with the Scheffe Post-Hoc tests.

Based on the analyses presented in the previous chapter, this chapter closely discusses the findings in the following section (*Discussion.*) Next, a coherent understanding and use of the findings in a foreign language class is presented in the section titled *Pedagogical Implications*. Finally, the drawbacks and limitations of the study will be presented in *Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research* along with concrete suggestions for further research.

5.2. DISCUSSION

Notwithstanding its limitations, the present study lends at least partial support to the claim of Swain's (2005) output hypothesis. This hypothesis was originally framed in terms of the impact of modified output on grammatical accuracy, but the findings of the current study suggest that production of modified output in oral communicative classes may facilitate the progress of language development.

The findings show that both the teachers and students agreed that student errors should be treated, but students wanted more correction than their teachers thought. Another similarity was found between the teachers and students regarding the timing of error correction. Similar to the teachers, students believed that error treatment after students finish speaking was effective. While both the teachers and students believed that serious and frequent errors should be treated, the students wanted to receive more error treatment. The students wanted error treatment even on infrequent and individual errors relatively. Repetition, implicit feedback, and elicitation were the three most favored types of feedback among the teachers, whereas repetition, elicitation and interestingly, metalinguistic feedback were the most favored types of corrective feedback among the students. As Kim and Mathes (2001) stated in their article, explicit feedback refers to the explicit terms of the correct form, including specific grammatical information that students can refer to when an answer is incorrect; however, implicit feedback such as elicitation, repetition, clarification requests, recasts and metalinguistic feedback (Lochtman, 2002), allows learners to notice the error and correct it with the help of the teacher. On the other hand, Teachers were the most popular source of feedback among both the teachers and students. A discrepancy was found between the

teachers and students regarding the student himself as the delivering agent of error treatment.

The findings show that though the teachers and students had reasonably similar opinions about the necessity, frequency and timing of error correction, they significantly differ from each other in terms of the method, and delivering agents of error correction, as well as types of errors that need to be corrected. A comprehensive interpretation of the classroom interactions indicated that implicit feedback was the most favored method of correction; after students finish talking was the best timing for treatment; teacher was the most preferred agent of error corrector; and serious errors were the most common errors modified. Further, from the inquiry of the interviews with six groups of students, the present study claim that most important causes of unmodification arise from emotional reasons like anxiety, feeling uncomfortable, and demand for over-accuracy.

In deciding the type of feedback to provide, the extent of explicitness is one of the issues the teacher must consider. Some teachers are concerned that corrective feedback might interrupt the flow of communication. Some researchers claim that recasting is a powerful tool in that it can provide opportunities for learners to become aware of the mismatch between output and input without interrupting communicative flow (e.g., Doughty, 1999; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998). Doughty (1999) suggests that recasting can be effective if it is targeted at only limited linguistic features and is provided with a clear signal. Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lightbown (1998) maintain that explicit feedback can be provided without breaking the flow of communication if it is given in a short time and the class resumes the conversation. It is difficult to decide whether explicit or implicit feedback is better because teachers must take linguistic and non-linguistic elements of each setting into consideration, such as complexity of target forms, influence or interference from learners' native languages, level of proficiency, motivation, ultimate target level, and so forth. For instance, it has been suggested that explicit instruction combined with explicit metalinguistic feedback may be beneficial for students to understand complicated rules (Carroll & Swain, 1993). In addition, non-linguistic factors like age and motivation might account for different

results from similar feedback as the studies of Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Ellis et al. (2001) revealed.

5.3. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

According to the noticing hypothesis theory (Schmidt, 1990 cited in Herrera, 2011), in order for something to be learned, it has to be noticed first, however, noticing on its own does not result in acquisition. Learners have to consciously pay attention to or notice input in order for input to become intake for L2 learning. In this way, Modified Output triggers learners to recognize the gaps between the target norms and their own interlanguage which leads to grammatical restructuring. While second language students make errors as part of the learning process, drawing attention to these errors is an important aspect to their language development.

Providing feedback in a second language is vital to a student's language learning development. While making errors is natural in all aspects of language learning, second language learners face unique challenges in developing their oral skills. Corrective feedback gives learners information that they need to notice their errors. Ferris (2002) suggests that students "need distinct and additional intervention from their teachers to make up their deficits and develop strategies for finding, correcting, and avoiding errors" (p. 4). While the value of written corrective feedback has centered on whether or not it is effective in helping learners' linguistic improvement, it is important to highlight that learners express preference for correction and expect it. Thus in perceiving different types of feedback and enhancing their benefits for language learners, noticing and awareness is vital. (Rezaei et al., 2011).

As Burt pointed out, the correction of one global error clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors (1975 cited in Park 2010). Burt furthermore argued that high-frequency errors should be the first errors teachers should correct. The results of the current study supported the claims represented by Burt and indicated that that most frequent errors are those primarily favored both by teachers and students to be treated as well as serious errors that may cause misunderstanding. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings revealed that since student-initiated repairs in error

correction help them consolidate their current knowledge of the target language and lead the learners to revise their hypotheses about the target language, they are important in L2 learning. Accordingly, the findings of the teacher questionnaire (MOQ-T) suggested that a great proportion of the teachers strongly agree or agree that the student himself should be the delivering agent of the error treatment.

In the case of oral corrective feedback, two key distinctions figure: (1) explicit vs. implicit CF (e.g., Carrol & Swain, 1993; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) and (2) input-providing vs. output-prompting CF (Lyster, 2004; Ellis, 2006). Throughout the analysis of the present study, it has been concluded that while implicit feedback was the most implemented type of corrective feedback by the teachers in oral communicative classes, explicit feedback received the highest score by the students. Furthermore, in a more traditional narrative survey of the research, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) concluded that (1) both types of corrective feedback, implicit and explicit, assist acquisition and (2) explicit feedback is generally more effective than implicit.

The results of the present study were further used in preparation of a communicative syllable design for oral classes (see appendix C). The long-term result of this practical product is that students may become more active in their own learning when the treatments of different error types are conducted in the classroom. As a result, students may no longer persist only teacher oriented error treatment in classroom-specific English learning tasks, but also favor self-initiated error correction. For this, the classroom activities can be managed to provide students with the tools that they need to succeed in other environments and thus construct self-correction. Moreover, students can be provided with feedback and positively motivated on a regular basis to make self-initiated treatment available to them.

5.4 A PROPOSED SYLLABUS DESIGN

5.4.1 Introduction

This study aimed to propose a syllabus design in the light of what has come out of the collected data through various tools (i.e. questionnaires, interviews and recordings) at Gaziantep University preparatory classes. The syllabus is designed relying

on information collected, research and actual practices in the related department. This part answers the fifth research question directed in the first chapter of this study presented below:

Research Question #5 What kind of a syllabus design can be proposed based on student and teacher attitudes towards modified output?

In the study, not only students' perceptions of modified output were examined, but the perceptions of the instructors were also investigated. The comparison and analysis of the subjects' perceptions were considered to be the starting point in designing a syllabus model.

5.4.2 Implications of Corrective Feedback for Syllabus Design

The requirements of corrective feedback were specified by means of the analysis reflecting the views of the participant instructors and the students. The analysis indicates the following implications which are presented in five sections of the questionnaire items mentioned in the previous chapter.

5.4.2.1 Necessity of Error Correction

The results indicated that both the instructors and students think students' spoken errors should be treated, but the students believe in the necessity of corrective feedback to a much greater extent. Further, the previous studies, Schulz's (1996, 2001) and studies Park (2010) revealed that students' attitudes error correction were more favorable than their teachers' attitudes and they wanted their errors to be treated more than the teachers thought. They further asserted that when their instructional expectations are not met, their motivation can be negatively affected, and they may question the credibility of the teacher.

5.4.2.2 Frequency of Error Correction

The collected data revealed that almost the same cumulative percentage of the students and teachers agreed that students' spoken errors should be "always" and "usually" corrected. The findings were similar to the previous findings in that students

usually expect teachers to correct their errors more frequently (Ancker, 2000; Park, 2010).

5.4.2.3 Timing of Error Correction

The results indicated that both the teachers and the students are in favor of the importance of immediate clarification without interrupting fluency of the speech and suspending till the end of the class. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue, immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak and obstructs the flow of communication; however, in a similar way, long delayed or postponed feedback is not effective.

5.4.2.3 Types of Errors That Need to be Corrected

The survey results suggested that unlike the students who were focused more on accuracy in their spoken English, the teachers regarded fluency as well as accuracy as a crucial factor for their students' development of speaking skills which could be best accomplished in the classroom environment.

5.4.2.4 Method of Corrective Feedback

The results pointed out that that while the teachers are selective for corrective feedback methods, the students are in need of feedback rather than selection. The reason for this can be explained as learners need feedback on errors when they are not able to discover the differences between their interlanguage and the target language though a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input (e.g., Krashen, 1998). In other words, form-focused instruction induces learners to pay conscious attention to forms in the input and thus aids interlanguage development.

5.4.3 The Model

To implement a communicative programme for preparatory speaking classes at Gaziantep University effectively, a syllabus model depending on the analysis of modified output is proposed in this part. The data collected through questionnaires,

semi-structured interview and in-class observations assisted the researcher to define the content and materials to trigger interactions (namely student-teacher interaction, student-student interaction, and group interaction) which would be followed by different methods of correction (namely self-correction, peer-correction, and teacher correction).

The suggested model was mainly based on process-oriented syllabus design. Therefore it was adapted from various syllabus types such as the communicative syllabus model of Munby (1978), the Skill-Centered syllabus model (Hutchinson and Waters, 1996) and Candlin's syllabus model (1978).

As can be seen in Figure 5.1, the model starts with the statement of the general goals. The general goals will explain the need for organizing the communicative classes within preparatory programme. The major component of the model constitutes a needs analysis process which tries to identify communicative skill needs by distributing questionnaires to a number of students and teachers, conducting interviews with students and recordings of speaking classes. Identification of needs enables the researcher to define specific goals and objectives. Specific goals and objectives of the program should be based upon the results of corrective feedback needs analysis. Selection of content, activities and materials follow statements of specific goals and objectives.

When selecting the content and the activities, the students' needs, expectations, preferences and individual characteristics need to be considered as well as the teachers. The content and activities chosen should generate teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction and group interaction. The modification of the errors in the shed of teacher and student expectations is to be performed through these interactions. Therefore, the interaction types will play an important role on three main points emphasized in the study: the method of correction (implicit or explicit), the agent of correction (teacher, classmate or student himself), the timing of correction (after student finish talking, after the activity or after the class). In that sense, the modifications in classroom practices should definitely be varied and encouraged. The instruction phase includes methodology, teaching and learning strategies to reach the goals of the program.

Figure 5.1 A Proposed Syllabus Model (Process Oriented)

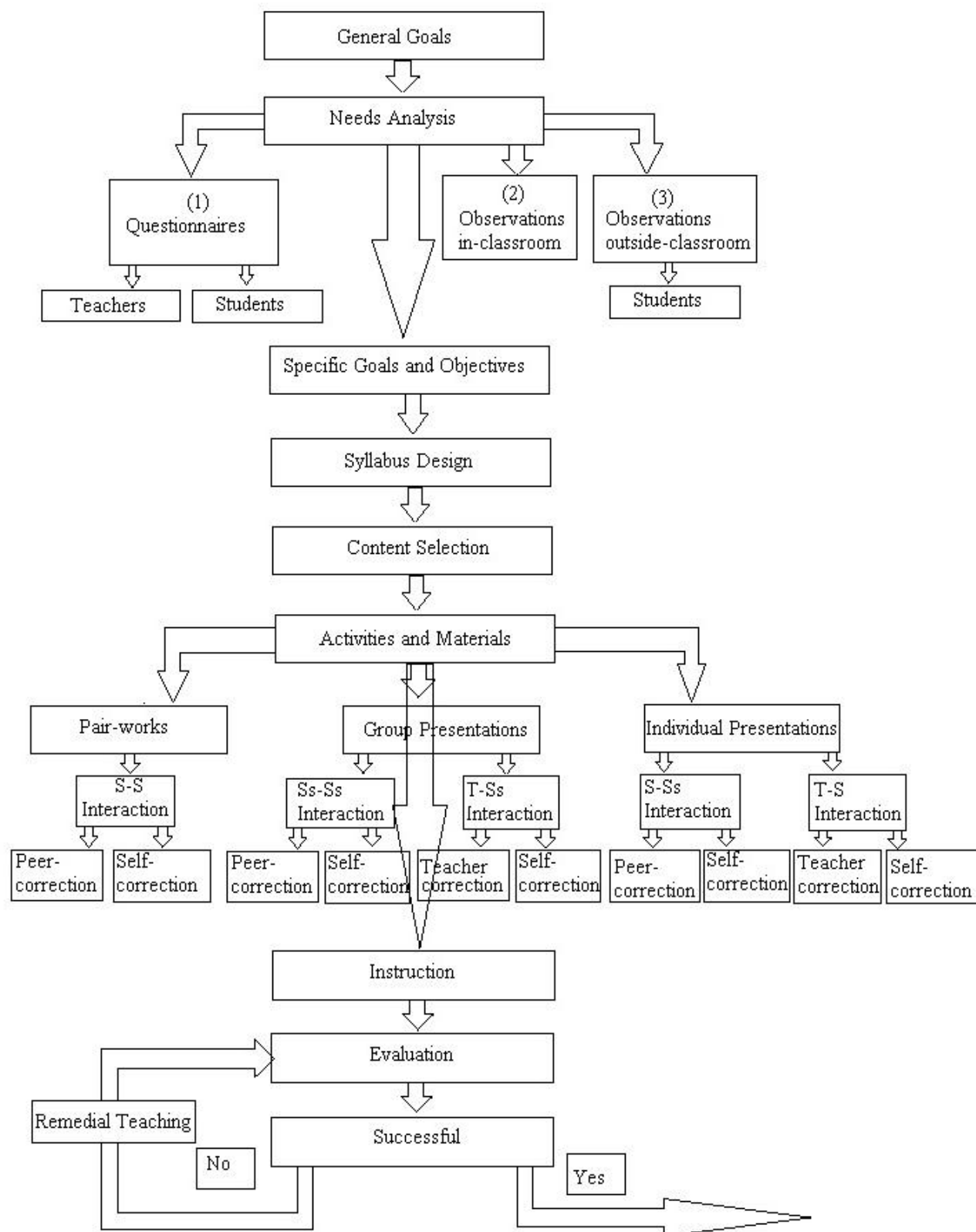
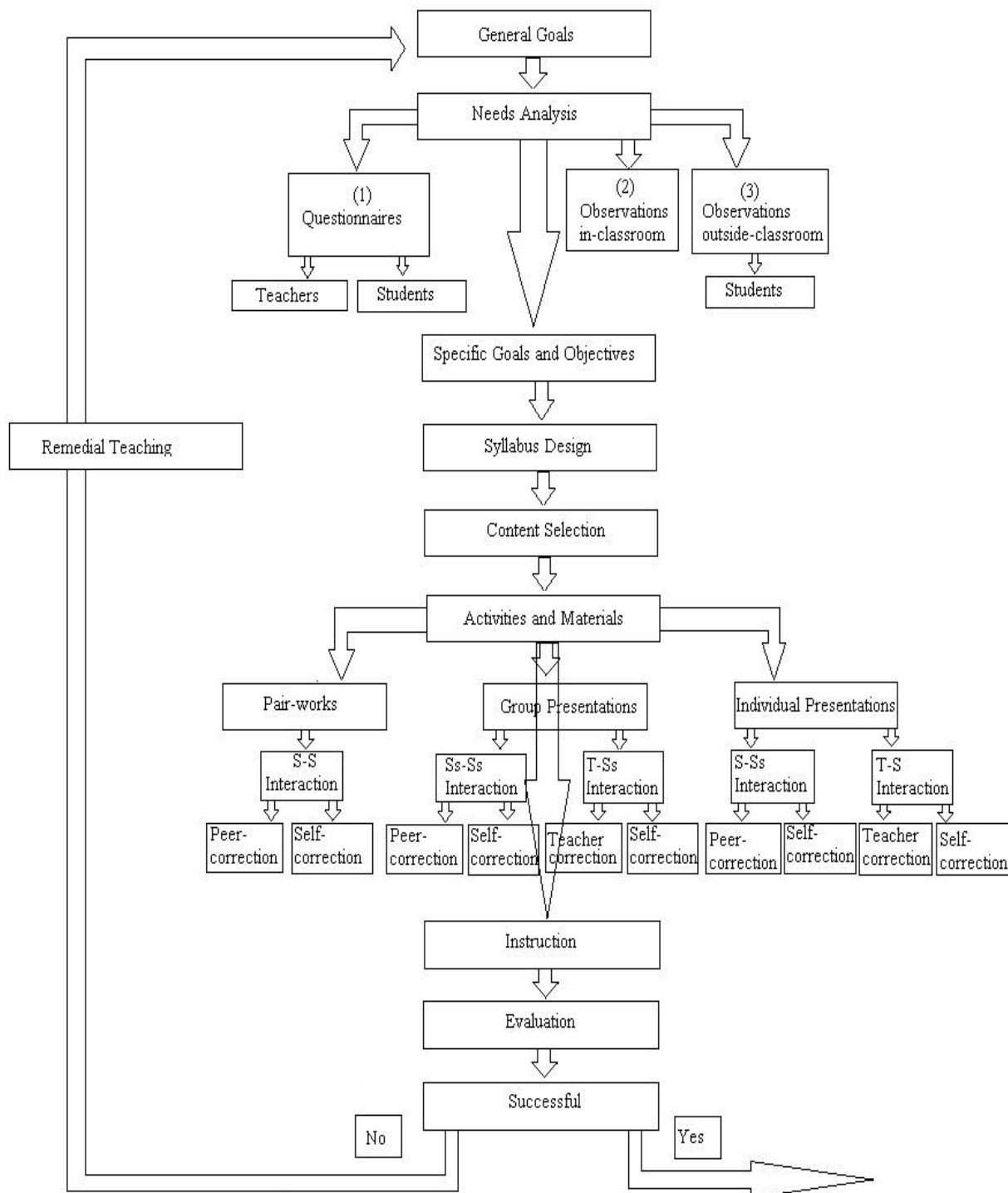


Figure 5.2 A Proposed Syllabus Model (Product Oriented)



The suggested syllabus model is expected to contribute to the development of the communicative course programme as it provides guidelines for the course designers so that the consistent decisions can be made to increase the effectiveness of the programme. Further has provided the speaking course a syllabus (see appendix D) design based upon communicative skills, which were formerly carried out merely according to pacing schedule (see appendix C).

5.4.4 The Shape of the Syllabus

The syllabus, based on the model mentioned in 5.1, is developed after having recognized the needs of the students at Higher School of Foreign Languages at Gaziantep University. After having applied the questionnaires and analyzing the results, it has been understood that different approaches to syllabus design would be combined to form an eclectic approach which includes all the components of different approaches to syllabus design. A communicative syllabus design is the starting point of the study because a communicative syllabus considers needs as the most important phase on which all other components are based. “Language is used in a context, which determines and constrains the choices that language users make with respect to purpose, style, register and topic.” (Graves, 1996)

In order to combine simple communicative structures and the meanings, a topic-based approach is used, so the students will be able to use the language not only considering its structures but also its meaningful components. A situational syllabus is also used to motivate the students to use the language in different situations and in their field of study.

As the students want to use the language both for academic and for their long term goals, researcher is led to combine skills and learning strategies. A skill-centered syllabus is used in order to reach the aims of the students to be fluent speakers of English by using communicative skills effectively.

As both the performance and competence is considered important, the syllabus makes the students take the responsibility of their own learning, make decisions and preferences, so it is learning-centered. In order to insert all the qualities into the syllabus

an integrated syllabus design was developed to meet the needs of the students and the university. Considering the holistic goals and aims pursued in the syllabus designed, the proposed syllabus was primarily based upon a process-oriented syllabus approach.

5.4.5 Course Description

This course aims at training preparatory class students at Gaziantep University to develop speaking skills in both formal and informal situations. The students who would like to study medicine, engineering, English language teaching, English literature, tourism and management, and finance and management (optional) departments are supposed to take preparatory classes at Higher School of Foreign Languages for one year. The students at preparatory class have 26 hours of classes a week including 15 hours of main course, five hours of writing skill, four hours of reading comprehension and vocabulary skills and two hours of speaking classes. The speaking classes are held by native speakers of English from the USA-Fulbright programme. Within this course role-plays, presentation, surveys, questionnaires and discussions are all used to practice various language functions. Considerable stress is put on practicing pronunciation at this level to raise student awareness about its importance.

This syllabus emphasizes the need to equip students with the necessary skills for self-expression and social interaction that will allow them access to a wide range of job opportunities. To enable students to succeed at preparatory school and in their departments, teachers will provide opportunities for pupils to encounter, learn about, use and respond to a range of spoken texts that will be of value to them.

5.4.6 Rationale

Students beginning the course at level one usually have a very low level of spoken English and consequently the course is geared towards them. Students majoring in the English language must build a strong foundation in spoken English as it is the medium for all the other subjects in the undergraduate program. Speaking is a fundamental skill that is required to communicate one's thoughts, needs, and feelings.

Therefore, speaking is one of the most important skills in which the students must obtain a good foundation.

The underlying principle is to build a strong foundation, which will allow the students to develop further during the undergraduate program. Without this foundation, the students will not have the tools or the motivation to build upon their communicative skills. In order to motivate the students, the course will combine communicative activities with skill-building exercises to boost students' academic success.

At the global level, English will allow students to participate in a knowledge-based business life where English is the lingua franca of the internet, of science and technology and of world in a wider sense. Therefore, it is timely to re-examine English language teaching and learning as well as ways to enrich teaching practices to better meet the communication needs of our students. This syllabus is based on the above considerations as well as the needs of our students and teachers identified in the course of the survey conducted at Gaziantep University, Higher School of Foreign Languages.

5.4.7 Goals and Objectives Based on the Model

Goals are defined as “general statements of the overall, long-term purposes of the course” by Graves (1996). Objectives on the other hand express the specific ways in which the goals will be achieved. While goals are timeless, future-oriented, non-measurable, statements of desired outcomes of a program, objectives are short-term, measurable, specific indications of intent (Bellon and Handler, 1982).

5.4.7.1 Goals of the Programme

This program is designed to:

- i. prepare the preparatory students at Gaziantep University to follow and understand the lectures and course materials in English in their fields of further studies.
- ii. develop students' language skills and awareness necessary to function as autonomous learners in the university context.

5.4.7.2 Objectives of the Programme

By the end of the program the students are expected to:

- i. develop fluency and accuracy about day-to-day topics and areas of special interest
- ii. express themselves on a limited range of topics
- iii. ask and responding to questions using complete sentences
- iv. participate in class discussions
- v. compare and contrast verbally
- vi. use reductions in spoken English
- vii. deliver a presentation with visuals
- viii. develop vocabulary use
- ix. identify and pronounce stressed sounds and words
- x. organize ideas to form a speech

5.4.7.3 Evaluation

The evaluation of oral communicative skills for each midterm is proposed to be as follows:

The oral communicative skills section consists ten percent of an overall midterm exam. The students will be graded with 20 points for the assignments within the lessons and participation; 20 points for homework assignments which will motivate them to carry the language learning process outside the classroom as well; 20 points for at least one presentation for each phase; and lastly, 40 points for a final oral examination at the end of each phase.

Table 5.1 Grading distribution of speaking course

Class assessment and participation	20 points
Homework assignments	20 points
Presentations	20 points
Final oral examination	40 points
Total Points	100 points

5.4.7.4 Required Texts

The required material for oral communicative skills is *Interactions Access Listening and Speaking*, Silver edition, by Emily Austin Thrush, Robert Baldwin, and Laurie Blass. This communicative material is the newly revised five-level, four-skill comprehensive ESL/EFL series designed to prepare students for academic content. The themes are integrated across proficiency levels and the levels are articulated across skill strands. The series combines communicative activities with skill-building exercises to boost students' academic success.

5.4.7.5 Instructional Procedures

The course will integrate authentic speaking situations such as pair work, group work, role-plays, interviews, surveys and debates. This will allow the students to use the language in a realistic context. During class time, the instructor walks around the classroom listening to the students, answering questions and correcting mistakes appropriately. This is usually followed by a whole class discussion about the topic.

Speaking occurs in real time, and its social context determines the purpose of the spoken language and shapes its structure and features. Students need to develop the ability to use spoken English effectively in a variety of contexts and to represent their understanding, ideas and learning in a variety of spoken texts. They must be able to speak and represent clearly their experiences and ideas in small and large groups as well as respond to others.

Hence, to develop in pupils the skills, learner strategies, attitudes and behavior for effective speaking and representing, teachers will:

- i.** model the appropriate and effective use of internationally acceptable English (Standard English) in both formal and informal contexts so that pupils are made aware of the value of speaking and representing well in a variety of situations.
- ii.** raise pupils' awareness of the language features found in spoken language, so that they can recognize the differences between spoken and written discourse,

and speak and represent appropriately according to purpose, audience, context and culture.

- iii. teach explicitly pronunciation and intonation to aid speech production.
- iv. model and demonstrate how meaning in a presentation is conveyed effectively through variations in pace, volume, tone and stress patterns.
- v. guide pupils in generating ideas, planning and organising their presentations using a variety of skills and strategies, according to the purpose, audience, context and culture.
- vi. demonstrate how the use of visual and audio resources, verbal and/ or non-verbal cues can add meaning to or enhance the impact of a presentation.
- vii. provide opportunities for pupils to plan, organise and deliver appropriately their ideas in a variety of media and forms, such as through posters, planned multimedia and spontaneous presentations.
- viii. expose pupils to a variety of spoken texts (e.g., conversations, speeches).

5.4.7.6 General Course Requirements

- **Attendance**

Students must attend all lectures. Any absences must be accompanied by a written excuse. Students absent for more than 20% of lectures will be prohibited from taking the final exam.
- **Materials**

Students are responsible for bringing into class all materials required for study. This includes the textbook, notebook and all writing utensils.
- **Assignments**

All assignments should be submitted on the specified due date. Assignments handed in late are subject to mark reductions.
- **Midterm Test and Final Exam**

Students must attend and complete a midterm test and the final exam in order to pass the course.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Future studies need to go beyond the simple identification of relationships between teachers and students or between the pairs of learner characteristics regarding preferences for error correction in order to overcome limitations of the present study and obtain more reliable results.

The findings of this study showed that both the teachers and the students agreed that error correction is necessary for language learning improvement. Based on the findings, several teaching guidelines related to error correction can be suggested.

Student errors should be corrected instead of being ignored as if there were no errors in their utterances. Given the fact that teachers' immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak (Allwright & Bailey, 1991 cited in Park, 2010), spoken errors should be treated after students finish speaking. Also, teachers should use various types of feedback to facilitate the effects of error correction and promote language learning. Teachers should also consider students' anxiety and emotions when making a decision on the degree of explicitness. Teachers can build students' confidence and self-esteem in their foreign language ability via encouragement and positive reinforcement. In this respect, teachers should be sensitive when correcting their students' errors and should remind them that it is natural for language learners to make errors in the process of acquiring the target language. The teachers' responses to students' errors may play the most important role in helping them alter their speaking for the better. Teachers, however, cannot and should not correct all the errors made by their students. Although students want to receive error treatment as much as possible, in reality, constant corrective feedback from the teacher can discourage students from participating in activities in class and increase anxiety (Park, 2010). As a result, students feel uncomfortable and lose motivation to practice their speaking in class. To become good speakers, students need an environment that makes them feel encouraged to speak. They can learn by trial and error, by taking risks, and thus improve their speaking. Also, language learners need both time and opportunity for repair in the classroom. Teachers have to help their students become capable of self-correction in order to speak the target language accurately as well as fluently. Teachers can help learners gain confidence by

providing them with a less stressful environment, and thus lead them to second language acquisition. To enhance effectiveness of error treatment, teachers need to assess their students' developmental stages accurately and identify the "optimum moment" that the learners are ready to notice the gap (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 104 cited in park, 2010). By trying to understand and acknowledge students' beliefs, teachers can minimize conflicts that may contribute to student hindrance, anxiety, and lack of motivation (e.g., Schulz, 1996).

Teachers, therefore, need to understand their students' various needs, concerns, and expectations towards error correction by using a variety of tools, such as questionnaires, interviews, and observations to determine the students' needs (Allwright & Bailey, 1991 cited in Park, 2010). Doing so, teachers can promote students' learning.

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APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A-1 MODIFIED OUTPUT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS
(MOQ-S)- ENGLISH VERSION**

Dear Students

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perception of students about error correction in their oral communicative classes. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Thank you for your contribution to the study.

Akın Gürbüz
Gaziantep University
ELT Department MA Student

Proficiency Level :

(Pre-intermediate) (Intermediate) (Upper-intermediate)

Gender :.....

PART I: PLEASE TICK THE BEST OPTION THAT APPLIES TO YOU. MAKE SURE TO MARK ONLY ONE.		ALWAYS	USUALLY	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
1	I want to receive feedback in oral communicative classes.					
2	How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?					
3	I want to receive corrective feedback after I finish speaking.					
4	I want to receive corrective feedback after the activities.					
5	I want to receive corrective feedback at the end of the class.					
6	Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener's understanding should be corrected.					
7	Less serious spoken errors that do not affect a listener's understanding should be corrected.					
8	Frequent spoken errors should be corrected.					
9	Infrequent spoken errors should be corrected.					
10	Individual errors (i.e., errors that other students may not make.) should be corrected.					

**APPENDIX A-2 MODIFIED OUTPUT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS
(MOQ-S)- TURKISH VERSION**

Sevgili arkadaşlar;

Size verilen bu anket İngilizce öğrenirken, konuşma derslerinde yapılan hata düzeltmelerine yönelik çeşitli yaklaşımları belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları sadece bilimsel bir araştırmada kullanılacaktır. Lütfen adınızı **YAZMAYINIZ**.

Katılımınız ve içtenlikle verdiğiniz yanıtlarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Akın GÜRBÜZ
G.Ü. İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Kur : (A Kuru) (B Kuru) (C Kuru)
Cinsiyet : (Bay) (Bayan)

		HER ZAMAN	GENELLİKLE	BAZEN	NADİREN	HİÇ
1	Konuşma derslerinde hata yaptığımda düzeltme yapılmasını faydalı buluyorum.					
2	Öğretmeninizin ne sıklıkla düzeltme yapmasını istersiniz?					
3	Konuşma esnasında yaptığım hatalara, söyleyeceklerim bittikten sonra müdahale edilmesini isterim.					
4	Konuşma esnasında yaptığım hatalara, çalışmamız bittikten sonra müdahale edilmesini isterim.					
5	Konuşma esnasında yaptığım hatalara, ders bittikten sonra müdahale edilmesini isterim.					
6	Dinleyenin yanlış anlamasına neden olabilecek düzeyde ciddi hataların düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
7	Dinleyenin anlamasını etkilemeyecek düzeyde hataların düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
8	Sık sık tekrarlanan konuşma hatalarının düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
9	Nadiren tekrarlanan konuşma hatalarının düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
10	Diğer öğrencilerin pek yapmadığı bireysel hataların düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					

AŞAĞIDA VERİLEN KARŞILIKLI KONUŞMADAKİ HATA İÇİN YAPILAN DÜZELTMELERİ DERECELENDİRİNİZ						
Öğretmen : Where did you go yesterday? Öğrenci : I <u>go</u> to the park.						
		HER ZAMAN	GENELLİKLE	BAZEN	NADİREN	HİÇ
11	“Tekrarlar mısınız lütfen?” gibi bir düzeltmeyi faydalı buluyorum.					
12	“ I go ” Öğretmenin tonlamayla öğrencinin dilbilgisi hatasına dikkati çekmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
13	Öğretmenin, “ I went there yesterday, too. ” diyerek üstü kapalı bir düzeltme yapmasını etkili buluyorum.					
14	Öğretmenin, “ go ” geniş zaman yapısında, burada geçmiş zamana ait fiil yapısı kullanmak gerekiyor” diyerek açık bir şekilde düzeltme yapmasını faydalı buluyorum.					
15	Öğretmen, “ Yesterday, I.... ” diyerek öğrencinin cümleyi tamamlayarak doğru formu bulmasını sağlaması gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
16	Öğretmen, “ Gerçekten mi? Dün ne yaptın orada? ” diyerek öğrencinin hatasıyla ilgili herhangi bir düzeltme yapmamasını yararlı buluyorum.					
17	Öğretmen, “ Geçmiş zaman kullandığımızda fiiller nasıl değişiyordu? ” diyerek direkt olarak hatayı belirtmeden öğrenciye ipucu vermesini gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
18	Öğretmen, “ I went to the park. ” diyerek öğrencinin cümlesini hataya herhangi bir vurgu yapmadan, düzeltilmiş bir şekilde tekrarlamasını etkili buluyorum.					
19	Konuşma derslerinde yaptığım hataların sınıf arkadaşlarım tarafından düzeltilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.					
20	Konuşma derslerinde yaptığım hataların öğretmenim tarafından düzeltilmesini faydalı buluyorum.					
21	Konuşma derslerinde yaptığım hatalarımı kendim düzeltilmeyi tercih ediyorum.					
22	Konuşma derslerinde yaptığınız hataların düzeltilmesi ve sizlere açıklama yapılmasıyla ilgili paylaşmak istediğiniz başka görüşleriniz varsa kısaca belirtiniz:					
.....						

**APPENDIX A-3 MODIFIED OUTPUT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS
(MOQ-T)**

Dear Colleagues

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perception of teachers about error correction in their oral communicative classes. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Thank you for your contribution to the study.

Akın Gürbüz
Gaziantep University
ELT Department MA Student

Please tick the information that applies to you.

Gender: () Male () Female

How long have you been teaching English?

() 1 year () 2-5 years () 6-9 years () More than 10 years

How long have you been teaching oral skill classes?

() 1 year () 2-5 years () 6-9 years () More than 10 years

PART I: PLEASE TICK THE BEST OPTION THAT APPLIES TO YOU. MAKE SURE TO MARK ONLY ONE.		ALWAYS	USUALLY	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
1	Students' spoken errors should be treated.					
2	How often do you give corrective feedback on students' spoken errors?					
3	Students' spoken errors should be treated <u>after the student finishes speaking.</u>					
4	Students' spoken errors should be treated <u>after the activities.</u>					
5	Students' spoken errors should be treated <u>at the end of class.</u>					
6	Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said should be treated.					
7	Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said should be treated.					
8	Frequent spoken errors should be treated.					
9	Infrequent spoken errors should be treated.					

10	Individual errors made by only one student should be treated.					
11	Classmates should treat students' errors.					
12	Teachers should treat students' errors.					
13	Students themselves should treat their errors.					
PART II: HOW DO YOU RATE EACH TYPE OF SPOKEN ERROR CORRECTION BELOW?						
Teacher : Where did you go yesterday? Student : I <u>go</u> to the park.						
		VERY EFFECTIVE	EFFECTIVE	NEUTRAL	INEFFECTIVE	VERY INEFFECTIVE
14	Could you say that again?					
15	I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)					
16	You went to the park yesterday? (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)					
17	"Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)					
18	Yesterday, I..... (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)					
19	Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)					
20	How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)					
21	I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)					
22	Please indicate any other comments you would like to share related with the study:					
.....						

APPENDIX-B TAPESCRIPS OF THE RECORDINGS IN ORAL CLASSES

LESSON 1

T: (after greeting students) Alright, we are going to page seventy-four, OK? We are going to talk about some situations that you might have experienced in your life in the past or maybe just some interesting situations. I think this will be a good discussion. So let's look at the picture in page seventy four. Can someone read the problem in the bottom? Can I have a volunteer? Could somebody read this?

S: You are having dinner.. (reading the text)

T: So we understand the situation, can you read the choices?

S: (reading)

T: Good, so we have some different choices here. So which one of these would you like to do A, B, C, or D? do you think that's a good idea to..

S: D

T: D? OK, why? Can you explain why you choose this?

S: I mean.. ben de olsam öyle yaparsım (explaining in his mother tongue)

T: English, please.

S: I think this idea.

T: OK, can you give me your reason? Can you tell me why you think this is a good idea?

S: This idea.. I think this idea is good.

T: Do you think that's nice thing to do?

S: No.

T: Maybe it is impolite.

S: Yes.

T: Maybe, right. So, maybe that's not the best idea. Any other ideas, any other choices you think would be right? Maybe instead of telling them not to eat, you can explain them why you don't eat it.

S: Yes.

T: You can do option B. Right? Why is option B a good idea?

S: *It is religion maybe.*

T: *OK, right. So you can explain..*

S: *If you.. if you.. some people can't eat er...*

T: *..pork*

S: *...pork meat, if they... if.. er.. some people can't eat.*

T: *And Jewish people can't, either.*

S: *Jewish people can't, as well. But if they are... er...*

T: *If they are Christian..*

S: *Yes, if they are Christian, they can eat pork meat.*

T: *...pork.* That's great, great. So, you can say I'm Muslim, and Muslim people and Jewish people do not eat pork. I understand that you are Christian, you can eat this but for me it is not allowed. So thank you, but I choose not to eat it.

S: Maybe they like meat.

T: Maybe they like it, right. So they like it but that does not mean you have to eat it. If you go to America, you will not make them upset, you will not hurt their feeling. OK? In Turkey, I know it is impolite not eat something, in America it is not impolite. If you explain that it is against my religion, and say thank you for the food, thank you, you will be fine, you will not hurt their feeling. On the other hand, you can eat rice, potato or something else instead. Will anybody say I'm not hungry, option A?

Ss: No.

T: *No. OK, why not?*

S: *It's not.. er.. after.. bir seferden sonra (in his mother tongue)*

T: *After one time or after the first time..*

S: *After the first time, if you.. er.. if you don't want to eat and lie.. and you go there..*

T: That's right, if you lie and go there again, then you have to lie again and again. So it's not a good idea. OK. Can you read number two? (pointing one of the students)

S: (reading the text for the second situation)

T: So, do we understand the situation? So, went to the supermarket and you see that somebody is stealing, is taking a packet of candy. So, can you read the options and what would you do?

S: *(reading the options) You clear your throat and say uhm, uhm.. and you stare (mispronounces)*

T: *..stare (with correct pronunciation)*

S: *...you ignore (mispronounces) the situation.*

T: *You ignore the situation, ignore (emphasizing) means do nothing, do not say anything.* OK? So, you are saying you would do A, why?

S: *Because this situation is social problem.*

T: *OK, it is a social problem.* Good.

S: I think I say "tell the person not to do that."

T: OK, great. Alright, would anybody say B? You would tell the person working at the store. So you would not tell the person who is stealing but tell the person who works at the store.

S: *First of all, the person too the.. in the basket. After the burglars talk them.*

T: *OK, I see, so first you would tell the person, and after that you would tell the person working at the store.*

S: Yes.

T: Good. Would anybody do D, ignore the situation, doing nothing.

S: No.

T: No, why not?

S: *If you see.. er.. it's not true.*

T: *It's not honest.*

S: *Not honest.*

T: Right.

S: The situation is our problem because we should be useful to this world.

T: So you guys are saying similar things. So you are saying it is not a good thing to do because it is a community problem, right? It's a problem for everybody. Very good guys, thanks. I think, I would do only B because I'm very small, you know. I would be afraid of somebody would beat me up. I would probably tell the person working at the store. Let's go to page seventy-five, the next page. Let's go to number three. Umut, can you read?

S: Yea. (reading the third situation)

T: Good, let me just go over the situation. Do we understand what is going on? So, you are taking a very difficult course, a very difficult class and your friend took the same class last year. So your friend asks you to give you the answers for the exam. What would you do? Can you read the choices now?

S: *Yes (reading the choices) ...D, report your friend's offer the to instructor. (mispronouncing)*

T: *...to the instructor. (correcting pronunciation)*

S: Yes.

T: *I think everybody should be careful when they are reading, by the way. Everybody should be careful when reading 'to' and 'the'. Sometimes students get confused and they say 'the to' instead of saying 'to the' (writing on the board). So, be careful when you reading those two words. 'The' is very very important because use it many times in English in a sentence.* OK,

good. So, we understand the choices, which of these would you do, A, B, C, or D? Who says I would do A? You can say, that's fine, just why? OK, why?

S: *Why? Because students don't know.. unknown about the lesson. I say you took the answers.*

T: *So you are taking the answers from your friend. Your friend has the answers and he wants to give you the answers. Will you take the answers from your friend?*

S: Yes, because I don't know the questions.

T: So, you would take the answers from your friend.

S: Yes.

T: OK. Oh my goodness. Who says B? Would anybody ask for hints or help but not asking for the answers? Option B? No? You think No?

Ss: No.

T: What about C, not accept any help from your friend?

S: Yes.

T: You would do C, why? Because you are very honest.

S: No.

T: OK, why?

S: *Because some students work all.. all..*

Ss: *lesson?*

T: *They are studying alone? They are working all day?*

S: *Because some students... they don't... çalışmıyorlar. (in his mother tongue)*

Ss: *...study.*

S: *They don't study.*

T: They don't study. So you think is dishonest to steal answers because you are not working hard?

S: Yes.

T: Very good, I'll shake your hand. Very, very honest, thank you.

S: I don't agree.

T: *You disagree, OK, why?*

S: *Because this situation is students' problem. One day a friend didn't study for the quiz, the exam and he say to give me the answer. I say don't give you. This problem for students.*

T: So, this is interesting because you say it's a problem only for the students and before you were saying stealing is a community problem. You don't think that cheating is a community problem? So, why is cheating not a community problem? It affects the other students, doesn't it?

Ss: Yes.

T: *You said yes, so, do you mean yes or no?*

S: *But I'm not understood.*

T: You said that stealing is a community problem.

S: Yes.

T: Cheating is not a community problem?

S: *But this situation is between the students. Your say the problem.. er.. between the local people.*

T: *..in the public you mean.*

S: Yes.

T: So, for example here, in prep school, the top twenty students go to Ireland, right?

S: Yes.

T: *So, if you cheat, if you take the answers..*

S: *But don't change.. give the answers, the twenty students. Twenty students all the time the tops.*

T: *Right, but maybe they are cheating.*

S: *But another student change the top place.*

T: *Right, but maybe, that student in top is cheating.*

S: *First and two exam give the answers, all exams don't give the answers.*

T: *So you think they cannot cheat in every exam.*

S: *Yes.*

T: *But let's say maybe the student in number one is cheating in every exam, is that fair?*

S: *Yes, how we know if.. the first and other.. another student cannot study?*

T: *How do we know the other students are not cheating in the exams?*

S: *don't change the twenty students because one and.. one and two exam give the answers, all exam don't answer, don't give answer, one and two exam.*

T: *But still, still it's unfair. If they cheated on two exams that's still unfair.*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *Because maybe, I have a ninety-five, and the top twenty students have a hundred. But the top two students cheated on two exams, they should not be the top students, right? So, it can be a community problem. Yea?*

S: *Same at high school.*

T: *Oh, it's the same with high school? What do you mean?*

S: *If you.. if.. er.. if a student give information to the other student, they er.. they..*

T: *Some of the students give answers to their friend? Can you explain some more?*

S: *Tip fakültesine gireceklerse, onun yerini alırlar. (explaining in his mother tongue)*

T: *Right, some students are very hardworking students, some students were not able to achieve their universities because some other students were cheating on their exams*

and have higher grades, right? That's a community problem. So the most successful students who do not cheat are not as successful sometimes, right?

S: *But I say, in the prep class for the quiz and exam.. for me different.*

T: *So, you are just talking about..*

S: *But in local... public exam don't give and take. And teachers.. Yani kopya çekmek illegal (in his mother tongue) it's illegal cheating.*

T: *It's always illegal, though. Cheating is always illegal.*

S: *For the prep class, it is not the problem I think.*

T: *I think that your teacher would tell you it is illegal.*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *It is illegal always. I do not think your teacher would say: Please cheat, I want you all get one hundred.*

S: *I will answer.*

T: *OK.*

S: *All the class don't do.. don't take and give the answer in the exam. Who don't give and take the answer?*

T: *So, you are asking who in the class does not cheat. You think everybody cheats.*

S: *It is not problem.*

T: *But that is a problem, though. That means that nobody knows the answer.*

S: *If everybody is cheating, that is no problem.*

T: *If everybody cheats, that is very very bad for Turkey because that means nobody knows the correct answer. This is a big problem because the people in this classroom will be the engineers of Turkey. And if you are cheating on your exams that means you don't know. And the doctors, we have here engineers and doctors. I do not want my doctor to cheat on her exam. If she is cheating, maybe she does not know how to*

operate. That's very scary. Do you want your doctors cheating on the exams? The person building your house, making machines, making your lights, do you want them cheating on their exams. No. You want them to be knowledgeable, you want to be safe. Right? Murat, do you want to say something?

S: Yes, I think this situation is terrible.

T: OK.

S: *Because it doesn't have quality.. personality who makes job quality nobody*

T: *So nobody is qualified in their jobs, absolutely.*

S: *And, this statue cause of Turkey grow up.*

T: *Oh, it is limiting Turkey.*

S: *This statue causing stop Turkey grow up.*

T: *I see. So, you think that, people who are cheating, people who are trying to take answers are stopping Turkey's development.*

S: *Yes. And viewer of Turkey is decreased other country people.. people from other country. They say that turkey doesn't have quality industry (mispronounces), engineer and doctor and teacher.*

T: *Absolutely, you are absolutely right. So you think that other countries know that Turkish students and Turkish professionals are not honest (laughing).*

S: *Other countries don't trust Turkey job.. people.*

T: *...employees, you can say.*

S: *Yes. For example, last year China creative a new place.. new live place, buildings. But er.. Tur.. er.. Turkish businessmen don't accept this..*

T: *They were not accepted. I see, so, in China they offered some jobs to people*

and Turkish businessmen were not accepted.

S: *Yes.*

T: *Very interesting.*

S: *Because, this statue is.. I think because.. er.. Ten years ago, earthquake for example.. and in business place.. er.. last year exploded. Yani işyeri kazaları çok fazla (in his mother tongue)*

T: OK, there were accidents.

S: Safety isn't important.

T: Right, maybe because it is expensive.

S: Because work, work, work.. day and night work.

T: Excellent, it sounds like you should be a politician. You should change this problems.

S: *I want to politic man.*

T: *Really?*

S: *But now, I maybe, I don't see easy job.*

T: *Right, it is a difficult job.*

S: *It is very hard.*

T: Definitely, well, the country needs you. I think you will.. you have very good ideas. OK, very good. So, let us move on to number four. Is everyone done with number three? Oh, sure.

S: (reading situation four)

T: Great, hold on a sec. Let's make sure we all understand the situation. You must hire, give somebody a new job and there are two people for the job. One is your friend, who is new to the company, maybe working for the company for six months. The other person is a very good employee for eight years. So, who would you give the job? Can you read the options?

S: *(reading the options) ...D, resign (mispronounces) from the company and employ a new job.*

T: *Good, resign (emphasizing).*

S: *Resign.*

T: That means quit, leave your job. What do you think? Who would give their friend the job, option A? does anybody say option A? No?

S: Maybe.

T: Maybe? Why maybe?

S: Because, I think it is not problem for me.

T: OK, so, you think that your friend could be a good employee?

S: Yes.

T: OK. Why is a friend a good idea?

S: *I think who is really good worker... er.. choose because works don't going to friendly and funny.*

T: *So the point is not going to have fun and to make friends, the point is to make money.*

S: Yes.

T: And to be successful.

S: Yes.

T: OK.

S: *I think, this statue should be really serious.*

T: *OK. So, giving a job is a serious thing.*

S: *Don't miss emotions.*

T: *Very good, great. So you would give it to the best employee.*

S: Yes, of course. If my friend is really quality person and quality worker, yes I choose this person.

T: *But if you think the other employee is better, you would give it to the other person.*

S: *Yes, to the other person.*

T: *Great, very good answer. Any other answers? Any other ideas?*

S: *I choose who is improve and develop my company.*

T: *OK, you will choose the person who will develop your work the most.*

S: *Yea. If my friend work.. er.. work good quality, I choose he. If the other*

person.. er.. same, same idea, I choose he.

T: *Good, so you and Burak have the same idea. You will choose the person who you think will be the most successful at the job.*

S: *And friendship is very important for this situation because I know which friend work for this job and which friend don't work for this job.*

T: *OK, so you can trust your friend.*

S: *Yes. OK. It's very good, for example, if Burak is not very good working... Burak is don't working for the job, and money is not problem, friendship is. Money is not problem between the I and my friend. It is very important for this problem.*

T: OK.

S: Money and friendship.

T: That's very mature. Do you think that your friend would be angry to you if you gave the job to the other person?

Ss: Certainly.

T: *Would definitely be angry at you, why?*

S: *Because he or she think he is the best one and he angry with me.*

T: Right, so would you give your friend the job so he would not get angry at you?

S: No.

T: No, what would you do?

S: *Who is... kim hakederse (in her mother tongue)*

T: *So, whoever is more qualified, the most successful one for the job.*

S: Yes.

T: Great. Yes.

S: *If you.. if you don't want.. don't want to lose your friend, er.. I think, hiçbir iş yapmamalısın (in his mother tongue)*

T: *So, you shouldn't so any type of work because..*

S: ... with your friends.

T: ... with your friends because you can get into some problems if you work with your friends. So we have different ideas. Yunus, did you want to say something? No? OK. Let's do the last one, can someone read it? Number five. Can you read? (addressing a student)

S: (reading the last situation) *The speed limit on the highway is 55 mph (mispronouncing)....*

T: ... mhp means miles per hour.

S: miles?

T: Miles per hour is like kilometer per hour. OK? Mph (emphasizing the pronunciation)

S: (reading the situation) *You hear the siren (mispronouncing) of a police car behind you...*

T: siren (with correct pronunciation)

S: Siren (with correct pronunciation)

T: Great, so we understand the situation, you were driving on the highway, and the speed limit is 55 mph, but everybody is going 70 mph. So you go at 60 mph and the police officer stops you. And says what were you doing? You were breaking the law, you were driving too fast. So what would you say? Can you read the options?

S: Yes. (reading the options) ...C, I'm sorry, I'm a foreigner (mispronounces) and I don't understand the laws here.

T: Foreigner (corrects pronunciation).

S: Foreigner.

T: OK, guys I wish we could finish the last one before the break but I guess it's time. That doesn't matter, we could continue next lesson. Now, enjoy your break.

LESSON 2

T: (After greeting students) How was your holiday? We didn't see each other, so, how was last week?

S: Er.. my hometown.

T: You were in your hometown.

S: Yes.

T: It was very good.

S: Yes.

T: Good. OK, what kinds of things can you give a presentation on? What kinds of things are you interested in?

S: Beşiktaş.

T: Beşiktaş. OK, it might be interesting, You might find a way how to do it to share some new information because you cannot talk for five minutes just saying 'I love Beşiktaş'.

Ss: (laughing)

T: What kind of information can you give and how can you make it interesting? So, Beşiktaş would be OK. Maybe the history, maybe a specific declare, I don't know, just try to make it interesting. OK?

S: OK.

T: If you listen to twelve people talk about Beşiktaş, Fenerbahçe and Galatasaray, I think we all might be sleepy and bored.

Ss: (laughing)

T: OK? Alright. And what else are you interested in?

S: Technology.

T: Technology. What kind of technology?

Ss: The computers, phones.

T: OK, technology and maybe phones will be interesting.

S: History maybe.

T: A historic place or maybe a historic event. OK. What are you interested in, Talha? What do you like?

S: Space.

T: Space. What in space could you talk about?

S: I don't talk about.. information but..

T: Space, the moon or maybe you could talk about the sun, planets like Pluto,

Mars. *Maybe you could talk about black holes, you know.*

S: Yes.

T: OK, black holes are cool. Kübra, what are you interested in?

S: Meals in different countries.

T: Meals and different countries? OK, so, cuisine from different countries. Talha, what are you interested in?

S: Musicians' life.

T: The life of musicians.. Musicians's life. A special musician or in general?

S: General.

T: OK. And?

S: *Wars, two wars.*

T: *Wars?*

S: *World of wars.*

T: *World wars. A game?*

S: *Warcraft.*

T: *World of warcrafts? Is that a game?*

S: Yes.

T: Maybe. Emre?

S: First world war.

T: The first world war and about Gallipoli. That would be very interesting.

S: Yes.

T: So, the first world war. OK. I think you should find something different and something original for your classmates. Er.. One thing I ask is that you might use the internet to research your topics, that is good. You can get information from the internet. However, you should not copy from the internet.

S: Cheating.

T: OK, no copying from the internet. Do you know why this is not allowed for you. I think in some other exams within the semester...

Ss: (talking and making noise)

T: Listen to here, that's important. ...some people, instead of thinking their ideas, they copy from the internet and then when they came to speak, they

couldn't remember and they were reading from the internet because the sentences are too difficult. If you cannot write them yourself, if you cannot say them yourself, you can't present them. So, if you copy from the internet you will not remember it and you will not say it well and other parts of your score like grammar and fluency will go down. Do you understand?

Ss: Yes.

T: Yes. So, that's my advice to you. If you cannot write it yourself, we will not understand it when you speak it. OK, so. Do you know this word? Superstition. Do you know it?

Ss: Yes, yes.

T: What does it mean? What is a superstition?

Ss: A black cat.

T: A black cat. That is an example for a superstition.

Ss: Mirror, teacher mirror.

T: A broken mirror.

S: Broken mirror.

T: OK. But if we have to give a definition of superstition, what's the definition? How would you define it?

S: *Anlami? (in his mother tongue)*

T: *Definition.* If you look up in your dictionaries, what would write in your dictionary about superstition?

S: Not really believe.

T: Not really believe? OK, that is a good start. So if a belief in something is not real or irrational. Irrational? Or maybe, illogical.

Ss: *Illogical.*

T: *What do these words mean? So, superstition is a belief in something irrational or illogical. What is it mean 'illogical'? Do you know the meaning of these words?*

S: *Imagine.*

T: *Imagined? OK. A superstition is generally.. when one action causes another. So, one thing happens and another thing happens because of it.*

S: *For example, in Turkey, knife.. er.. elden ele bıçak verilmez mesela.*

Ss: *..hand to hand.*

S: *Knife.. er.. I have a knife in my hand and hand to hand no. Because, fight. It is a superstition.*

T: *You cannot hand someone a knife.*

S: *Yes.*

T: *If you hand someone a knife, you can fight that person.*

S: *Yes.*

T: OK. We can call this a superstition because one action causes another. If you hand someone a knife and you get a fight with him.

Ss: *Yes.*

T: These actions aren't related, they aren't connected. But a superstition means that you connect them. You and a knife and get a fight with them. They become connected, it is an irrational belief.

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *For example.. another example?*

S: *For example, a glass of..*

Ss: *...drop?*

S: *A glass drop, er.. aydınlıktır.. uğurlu yani (in his mother tongue)*

Ss: *..lucky.*

S: *lucky, lucky. If you break, you are lucky.*

T: OK. That's good. Here we have another example. If you break a mirror, you..

Ss: *...get bad luck seven years.*

T: *..seven years. OK. Something really interesting happened to me recently. I was in İstanbul two weeks ago and I was walking in İstiklal. A bird pooped on my head, that is disgusting. But you, Turkish people believe this is good luck.*

Ss: *Yes.*

S: *No teacher, I don't believe.*

T: *You don't believe?*

S: *No.*

T: OK. Then it is an unfortunate event I guess.

S: *Teacher, a black cat.. er.. a black cat.*

T: *What about a black cat? If you see a black cat, what happens?*

S: *If you see eyes.. cat's eyes..*

Ss: *...you will have bad luck for a day.*

T: For a day. We say, in English culture, if a black cat crosses you, if it crosses in front of you, you have bad luck. OK, so,

S: *For example, you travel.. a car, set off.. vedalaşmak neydi? (in his mother tongue) set off..*

Ss: *see off.*

S: *see off, while you.. while you travel car, water..*

T: *So if you are traveling by car...*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *...and water goes under your car..*

Ss: *No, not under, behind.*

T: *If someone behind you throws water on your car...*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *You will have a good journey.*

Ss: *Yea.*

T: OK. What other superstitions you have? Can you tell me something about 'nazar boncuğu'? What is it? What can you tell me about 'nazar boncuğu' Gamze?

S: *I don't believe 'nazar boncuğu'.*

T: *You don't believe. But, why other people believe it?*

S: *Nazar boncuğu.. er.. keep you.. er..*

T: *Keeps bad luck away.*

S: *Yes.*

T: Do you know 'nazar boncuğu' in English? We call it 'evil eye', to keep devil away. So, er.. Why do you need

‘nazar boncuğu’? Why do you need an evil eye?

S: It keeps bad luck away.

T: Who need this? Why do you need it? If you are, er.. maybe successful?

S: For baby.

T: For a baby, OK. You have a very beautiful baby, it may attract ‘nazar’.

S: Good luck.

T: You have good luck. Right. Cassidy, you know Cassidy.

Ss: Yes.

T: She has blue eyes, you know. We were eating at a restaurant and suddenly the windows shattered. We had some Turkish friends, and they said “Cassidy, it’s because of your eyes”. Her eyes are blue and if you have colored eyes, such things may happen.

Ss: Yes.

T: Anything else? Okan (addressing a student)

S: In the ancient (mispronouncing) days, er.. believe a tree.

T: In the ancient days (emphasizing the pronunciation)..

S: and.. er.. and people wanted to do something. They went to tree and say something.

T: If they make a wish..

S: *Yes. If they make a wish.. er.. wood is good.*

T: *OK. Wood is special to make a wish. So, if you do this (knocking on the wood), what does it mean? When do you do that?*

S: *Teacher, God bless you.*

T: *We have a similar thing, we call it.. if you talk about success and good things, you knock on the wood to keep good luck.*

S: And garlic.

T: What is the garlic used for?

S: Garlic.. er..

T: To keep vampires away.

Ss: Yes. Also rabbits tail..

T: And the rabbits’ tail is the lucky charm. So you might have a rabbits’ tail to bring you good luck. What other things do you have as lucky charms?

S: *Charm ne? (in his mother tongue)*

T: *An object that you believe brings you good luck. And money, or coins. Do you have a lucky coins?*

Ss: *No. And a horse nail.*

T: *Horse shoe is lucky.* OK. So in general are you superstitious people. Superstition is a noun and superstitious is an adjective. Superstitious is used to describe people who believe in superstitions. Are you superstitious? Do you do this (knocking the wood)

S: Yes.

T: Do you have a lucky charm? Do you believe in these things? I believe you do not believe such things because you are men of science.

S: *There is not lucky.*

T: *Maybe. Maybe you are not lucky.* Maybe you are just a man of science, a man of the real world. You are rational.

S: We are logical.

T: You do not like illogical things, you are logical. Opposite of logical is illogical. So you are rational. What about Arife, are you superstitious?

S: No, I’m not.

T: You are not superstitious. Arife Çakıl, and you?

S: I’m not superstitious.

T: Not superstitious, you don’t believe. I do. I do knock on wood, and I also believe, if you spill salt, if the salt falls on the table, you should take the salt and throw it over you’re your left shoulder.

S: Yes, we know.

T: I also believe that you shouldn’t open an umbrella indoors, inside, you shouldn’t do that. I believe in that. I’m a little superstitious. I don’t know why,

but I'm a little superstitious. I don't know why. Maybe it's culture, tradition, you get used to doing things. Little things like that. I don't know why. In Turkey I have 'nazar boncuğu' around me.

Ss: Yes. Break, it is break time.

T: Break?

Ss: Yes, break, enough.

T: OK. That's all for today, have a nice week and enjoy your lunch.

LESSON 3:

T: (after greeting students) Match the speech bubbles in A to F to the people in the pictures. Remember, the cartoons we have read in the previous lesson. Josh, Loid, Jill, Frank, Zoe and Larry. Match the speech bubbles to these people. Who wants to do the first one? Firat, can you read it?

S: (reading the speech bubble) I wish the... and.. it was interesting.

T: So that's the..?

S: The sixth one. Let companies advertise on your car.

T: B? Selda.

S: I should have eaten before I left. I was starving by the end. Picture five.

T: Five, you say. Or?

Ss: One.

T: I should have eaten before I left. I was starving by the end. So, you say one, we'll see. People on the left in the cartoons. Er.. Alican?

S: I wish I had... about people. It's fascinating.

T: So, it's fascinating.

Ss: That's four.

T: Definitely four because it is psychology.

Ss: And brain.

T: And brain. D? Ayşegül.

S: *I wish they hadn't chosen (mispronouncing) me for the coffee tasting group, I didn't sleep all night.*

T: *I wish they hadn't chosen (stressing the correct pronunciation) me for the coffee tasting group, I didn't sleep all night.*

S: Three.

T: Three.

S: Join a focus group.

T: Join a focus group. E? Arife.

S: I shouldn't have taken so many supplies. You are allowed to buy what you like.

T: You are allowed to buy..

Ss: Five

T: It's five. The last one, F? Kamil.

S: *I shouldn't have mo.. moved (mispronounces the word) so often but it was so uncomfortable.*

T: *I shouldn't have moved (with correct pronunciation) so often but it was so uncomfortable. Two?*

S: Two.

S: One

T: That's the first one. So, let's go back to B. I wish I had eaten before I left, I was starving by then. So it's two, about the exam you were late.

Ss: Yeah.

T: Look at the speech bubbles A to F and are these people talking about present or past? Like, I wish the ad hadn't been so big. Is that present or past?

S: Past.

T: Exactly, that's about past because it hadn't been means it was very big.

T: (warning a student not to use her mobile during the lesson) Can you put that away into your bag? Into the bag, please.

S: OK.

T: Thank you. Good girl. I should have eaten before I went in. Is this about present or past?

Ss: Past.

T: Past. What does that mean, what is the real situation?

S: *He hadn't eaten.*

T: *She, it's Zoe.*

Ss: She hadn't eaten.

T: She hadn't eaten before she went in so she wishes she had eaten. It's about past regret, or past advice. I wish I had learned this stuff about brain before. Again, it's past. I didn't learn, I didn't know anything about that brain thing, but I wish I had. I wish they hadn't chosen me about coffee tasting group. They chose me. Choose and chose (clarifying the correct pronunciation). They chose me but I wish they hadn't.

S: Past situation.

T: Yes, it's again a past situation. I should have started this years ago. Is this present or past?

S: Past.

T: Again, it's past. I should have done this means I didn't do or I haven't done it until now. But I wish I had done or I should have done. I shouldn't have moved so often. I did move, but I shouldn't have. We use should have for past regrets or advice about past. For example, Fatih, where were you in the first lesson this morning, at nine o'clock?

S: Out.

T: Where out?

S: *Cafeteria.*

T: *In the cafeteria.* Why? Why didn't you come into the class?

S: I was smoking.

T: You were smoking. What time did you come to school? What time did you get up this morning?

S: *Seven.*

T: *At seven o'clock. And what did you do after you got up?*

S: *Have breakfast.*

T: *You had breakfast.*

S: I'm ill.

T: poor you. You are ill now?

S: Yes.

T: What's the matter with you?

S: Poisoned.

T: You were poisoned?

S: Meal.

T: You got poisoned by food? So what did you eat yesterday?

S: (The student explains in his mother tongue).

T: Anyway, OK. I give up with you Fatih. Thank you. Önen, why were you late this morning?

S: *I get up late at nine.*

T: *Got up at nine?*

S: Not nine, beş kala. (in his mother tongue)

Ss: All the students laugh.

T: How do you say "beş kala" in English?

S: Stay five.

Ss: All the students laugh

T: OK. Is it stay?

S: Before five minutes to..

T: Let's take out "before".

S: Five minutes to nine.

T: Now take out "minutes" as well.

Ss: Five to nine.

T: So, you got up at five to nine. Good. What time did you go to bed last night?

S: At one.

T: At one?

S: Yea.

T: And, what time do you normally go to bed?

S: One.

T: Don't you think you should sleep earlier as you have classes at nine in the morning?

S: I think I should.

T: You should have gone to bed..
S: I will.
T: When?
S: *After today.*
T: *Now that*
Ss: Now that.
T: Or you can say, from now on.
Ss: From now on.
T: So, Önen should have gone to bed earlier last night, but he didn't. He went to bed late. OK. Look at the cartoon D. The ad on Josh's car was or wasn't big?
Ss: It was.
T: Did he like it?
Ss: So so.
T: He didn't like it because he said it was embarrassing. That means he didn't like that.
Ss: Yes.
T: And look at cartoon B. I should have eaten before I went in. I was starving by then. Zoe ate or didn't eat anything before she went in?
Ss: Didn't.
T: Yes, she didn't eat. Does she regret it?
Ss: Regrets.
T: So, when we talk about past regrets, you can either use "wish" or "should have done". You know how to make wish clauses .
S: Yes.
T: And should have done is about past regrets. For example, you should have studied harder for the fifth mid-term exam. You wouldn't have failed. Or, You should have come earlier because it was too late for school.
S: "Wish" şimdiki zaman için mi kullanılır? (asking something in his mother tongue)
T: It can be used either for present or past. When it is used with present meaning we use past simple with the form. When it is past.. when the

situation is past, we use past perfect. So, we always take one step past form of wish clauses.

S: Ama anlam aynı oluyor değil mi? (asking something in her mother tongue)

T: The meaning is same. I wish I had eaten is same with I should have eaten. They both mean I didn't eat and they are both about a past situation. That's the real case, the real situation. Look at sentences in bold in speech bubbles A to F. Which verb form follows wish? Past or past perfect. When you talk about present you use simple past, and when you talk about past you use..

S: Past perfect.

T: And which verb form follows should have or shouldn't have?

S: Done.

T: Done, V3. That's past participle form of the verb. We can also use third conditionals for regrets.

Ss: Yes.

T: We can also use third conditionals to talk about regrets. For example, if I had known about this before, I would have done it years ago. Or we can say.. how can you express this wish clause with third conditional? I wish I had eaten before the session. Or, I should have eaten before the session.

S: *If I had known too long...*

T: *If I had known it was so long..*

S: If I had known it was so long, I would have eaten something before the session.

T: As you see, we use third conditional to talk about past regrets. Did you get it? Any questions?

S: Şunu da third contional yapabilir miyiz? (asking something in his mother tongue)

T: Which one? This one? Önen should have gone to bed earlier last night.

S: *If I will.. he will.. he would..*

T: *Let's start over. If I had gone..*

S: *If I had gone, I would..*

T: *Gone where?*

S: *If I had gone to bed earlier, I wouldn't have been earlier.*

T: *If I had gone to bed earlier, I wouldn't have been late.*

S: *Late.*

T: Again, as a whole.

S: If I had gone to bed earlier, I wouldn't have been late.

T: Great. So, if I had gone to bed earlier, I wouldn't have been late. That is, I should have gone to bed earlier or I wish I had gone to bed earlier. We can also use wish to talk about abilities you wish you had. For example, can you speak English fluently?

Ss: No.

T: Then make a wish about speaking English fluently.

S: *We wish we could speak English fluently.*

T: *I wish we could speak English fluently.* What other skills would you like to have, Pınar?

S: I wish I could play the piano.

S: *So wish I.*

T: *So wish I? We say, so do I.*

Ss: (laughing)

T: That was a nice wish.

S: So do I.

S: I wish I could swim.

T: You can't swim? Really? Poor you. Maybe, you could learn this summer. What other things you wish you could do? For example, I wish I could fly a plane.

S: *I wish I could buy my lorry.*

T: *You wish you could buy your own lorry.* Not a car but a lorry?

S: Yea.

T: Interesting. Kamil, what do you wish?

S: *I wish.. I wake up early.*

T: *You wish you could wake up early.* We use "wish + would" things other people or organizations do and..

Ss: we don't like.

T: Yea, things that annoy us. For example, I wish you would take more care of yourself. Or, I wish you would come late. I wish you wouldn't snore and sleep in my classes. Snore?

Ss: Horlamak. (in their mother tongue)

S: *I wish you give your bike to me.*

T: *I wish you would give your bike to me.* And I wish you wouldn't ask for my bike. OK, now listen and practice the sentences. Ready?

Ss: Yes.

T: Notice the difference between verb forms in sentences one and two. The first one goes to Firat. (Listening from the CD)

R: *I wish I had more time.*

S: *I wish I had more time.*

R: *I wish I'd had more time.*

S: *I wish I have more time.*

T: *Again. There are two different sentences. Listen to each sentence and practice them.*

R: *I wish I had more time.*

S: *I wish I had more time.*

R: *I wish I'd had more time.*

S: *I wish I'd had more time.*

T: Two. The first one is a present situation and the second one is past. Hüseyin, two.

R: *I wish he talked more slowly.*

S: *I wish he talked to more slowly.*

T: *I wish he talked more slowly.*

R: I wish he'd talked more slowly.

S: I wish he'd talked more slowly.

T: Exactly, that's he had talked more slowly.

LESSON 4:

T: (after greeting students) Today, we are going to talk about the differences between American and Turkish superstitions. Let's look at the pictures first. What's superstitions.

S: Supersti... (cannot pronounce the word properly).

T: Superstitions. For example, the number 13 is bad luck. This is an example of superstitions.

S: (says something in his mother tongue).

T: Yes. OK. Finding a four leaved flower brings good luck. Do you know this one?

Ss: Yes.

T: OK. The number 13 is bad luck.

S: Yes.

T: If you see a falling star, you can make three wishes and they will come true.

S: Yes.

T: Is it the same in Turkish culture?

Ss: Yes.

T: Do you believe the same thing? (waits for a while for a response) Yes or no? If you see a falling star, you can make three wishes and they will come true

S: Yes.

T: Yes, right? The same. Walking under ladder or seeking.. seeing a black cat in your path is bad luck.

Ss: Yes.

T: When your nose itches, it means that a company is coming. If your nose is itching.. what is it? itch?

S: 'kaşınmak' (in his mother tongue)

T: Yea, if it's itching, somebody is coming. Like a friend.. or someone will see you.

S: No.

T: OK. Let's look at American and Canadian superstitions. The first one is about numbers. The number 13 is bad luck and the, er.. the Friday 13th is an unlucky day. Is there a similar belief in Turkey?

Ss: Yea.. No..

T: So, is number 13 bad luck.. according to Turkish culture?

Ss: Yea.. No.. (one of the students) It can be somewhere.

T: No, it's not about.. like unlucky in our culture.

S: No.

T: OK. Yes Mert (addressing to a student), is it.. it is good luck to hang a horse-shoe on the wall? What is it?

S: Erm.. It's..

T: What is horse-shoe?

S: Erm.. (silence)

T: Horse shoe?

S: At nali. Nal mi? (in his mother tongue)

T: Yea, like the shoe of a horse. And if you hang it on the wall, it is good luck.. you hang it on the wall. Do we have a similar belief?

Ss: No.. No..

S: (*the student addressed by the teacher*) *people, Turkish people, er.. that way, er.. Turkish people believe that.*

T: *Ha ha (approving). OK, yea, the same. Some Turkish people, they put horse-shoe on the wall, they hang it on the wall.*

S: They hang on the door.

T: On the door, yes. OK. It's bad luck to walk under a ladder?

Ss: Yes.. No.. Yes..

T: Under a lad.. what's ladder?

S: No.

T: Ladder?

S: *Stairs?*

T: *Yea stairs.. ladder.. but this is not like the one in the picture, it is not stairs.*

S: We move it.

T: It is like, er.. portable. Ha?

S: We move it.. We move that.

T: Yes. You can move it. So it is bad luck to walk on the.. under a ladder.

S: The same.

T: The same. You should not open an umbrella indoors.

Ss: Yea. No..

T: It is bad luck, it is bad if you open an umbrella indoors?

Ss: No.. No.

T: I have heard it in..

S: (interrupting) I think, not same.

T: Not same, different? I have heard it the same in Turkey, if you open an umbrella indoors, it is bad. It is bad luck if a black cat crosses your path?

Ss: Yea. Yes.

T: What is it in Turkey?

S: *Er.. When I see a black cat, I touch (mispronouncing) my hair.*

T: *You pull your hair. Because, it is.. Why?*

S: Why? (all the other students laugh) I'm crazy.

T: Are you crazy? (students laugh) Because black cat is..

S: brings you bad luck.

T: brings you bad luck. If you see a black cat, you pull your hair.

S: I believe.

S: I don't believe.

T: If you see a falling star, you should make a wish.

S: Yes, maybe.

Ss: Yes.

T: What about rainbow?

S: Rainbow?

T: What happens? What is it? Like.. if there is a rainbow, you walk under the rainbow. And what? Do you know that?

S: Yes, yes.

T: Is it again, you make a wish? If there is a rainbow, walk under the rainbow and make a wish.

S: Maybe.

T: OK, it is bad luck to spill salt?

Ss: No. No.

T: Yes, that's not Turkish, we don't have it. Do you know the thing.. yeah, giving a knife to somebody? So, if I'm giving a knife to Botan..

S: Yes.

T: They don't.. What is it?

S: You should be careful.

T: You don't give knife to somebody...

S: harm together.. erm.. each other.

S: Yes. Fight each other.

T: And, what happens if you.. Yea, it means that if I give knife to Mert, you'll have a fight.

S: That's true.

T: Yea, it's just a superstition. OK, it's very bad luck to see the bride and groom to see each other before the wedding..

Ss: Yes. Might be.

T: Is it in Turkish culture? Is it to see?

S: No.

T: What is it? Can you see the bride the day before the wedding in Turkey?

S: If you want.

S: It brings bad luck.

T: brings bad luck to the couple?

S: Yes.

S: If you want, you can see.

T: If you want, you can see. (laughing) It's not a big deal.

S: But they don't usually.. erm.. want to see.

T: Yes. OK, so, which of them are similar to Turkish culture? Let's remember, then. Which of them are similar? Which of them are similar, like.. American superstitions and these Turkish superstitions?

S: Horse shoe.

T: Horse shoe?

Ss: Yes, good luck.

T: Hanging horse shoe on the wall. Black cat?

S: Yes. See a falling star.

T: See a falling star. Making a wish when you see a falling star?

S: It's bad luck.

S: Breaking window.

T: A broken window?

S: Yes, cam kırılması (in his mother tongue).

T: This is something different, they don't have it. What is it? Breaking a window or a vase in the house. What is it? If you break..

S: bad luck.

T: It's bad luck or? It means that something bad would happen, but it won't. OK. What else, what's more? Something like horse shoe, what is it?

S: *Nazar boncuğu (in his mother tongue)*

T: *Yes, evil eye. It means nazar boncuğu, right?* So if you carry the evil eye, what happens?

S: Yes.

T: And sometimes they hang it on the wall, like doors or sometimes it's a necklace or they put it on the babies, like their shoulder.

S: I think people really believe that.

T: Yes. It protects people from evil eye.

S: Yes, brings good luck.

T: OK. Any questions here?

Ss: No.

T: Now, we'll talk about the Chinese Zodiac. OK, page sixty-seven. What is Chinese Zodiac? Do you have any idea about it?

S: It's years..

T: It is years, depending on the years, you have a sign in Chinese Zodiac. But it's not about the month or day you were born, it's about the year. So, let's look at

the page sixty-seven, Chinese Zodiac page. In what year were you born? According to the Chinese Zodiac, what is your animal sign? You'll find your animal sign according to the year. Please find your sign. Did you find it?

Ss: No. Yes. (Saying something in their mother tongue)

T: Soner, what's your sign?

S: I can't find it.

T: They don't have it?

S: 89 hangisi oluyor? (in his mother tongue)

T: It's sheep.

S: Olmam ki. (making a joke in his mother tongue and all the other students laugh at his joke) Yes it's sheep.

LESSON 5

T: (After greeting students) According to the sign, what are the good qualities and bad qualities of you? According to Chinese Zodiac, Mert. What are your bad qualities and good qualities? For example, mine is red, sorry mine is horse, according to the sign I'm noble and my friends will be lifelong. I'm prone to mental strength and I avoid the other horses. What about yours?

S: *I'm sheep. Elegant and creative. I'm timid and prefer anonymity (mispronouncing). Er..*

T: *Yes.*

S: *I'm most compatibly with horse and rabbits.*

T: *Yes, you are most compatible with horse and rabbits. So the good things are, I'm creative and elegant. You are timid and you prefer anonymity.* OK, is there anybody who has a different sign?

Ss: No.

T: What about.. OK, this is Chinese Zodiac but what about your sign in horoscopes? Do you know your sign?

Ss: Yes.

T: Mine is Sagittarius, so as far as I know, er.. Sagittarius is a little jealous, which is a bad quality. And, er.. ambitious, which is I think good. And etc., so, what is your sign, Sefa?

S: *Lion.*

T: *Leo? Leo, OK. What are the characteristics of Leo?*

S: Leo is..

T: Do you know the characteristics of Leo?

S: *Enthusiastic.*

T: *Enthusiastic, yes.*

S: Ambitious.

T: Ambitious, yes.

S: Intelligent.

T: All the good things. Intelligent, smart and handsome.

Ss: Clever.

T: Clever. Are there any bad things about Leo?

Ss: Yes.

S: *According to me, being ambitious is some.. can be.. can sometimes be bad, so bad for me.*

T: *Yea, in your opinion, being ambitious is not always good. Sometimes bad, so it is a bad quality.* OK, Kübra, what is your sign?

S: *My sign Aquarius.*

T: *Yes, your sign is Aquarius.*

S: I'm enthusiastic.

T: Everybody is. Yes, go on.

S: And brilliant.

T: Brilliant, sure? Yea, everybody is saying like.. best things about their sign.

Ss: *Ugly (mispronouncing)*

T: *Sorry?*

S: *Ugly.*

T: *Ugly. You cannot say that about a sign. It is not about a sign, being ugly.* Come on, yes. Aydın?

S: I don't know the name.

T: What is it in Turkish?

S: Boğa (in his mother tongue).

T: Can you remember that in English?

Ss: *Maybe bull.*

T: *No, it is not. When we talk about horoscopes, they are different. Normally Yay (in Turkish) is not Sagittarius, but it is used as a sign. Not direct translation.*

Ss: Ta.. Tau-rus.

T: Taurus. Do you know the characteristics of your sign?

S: Yes, I know but I don't know in English.

T: OK, Osman, what is your sign?

S: I don't know.

T: And Mehmet Ali, do you know your sign?

S: Leo.

T: Leo. Do you know any other characteristics?

S: Not much.

T: Anybody else? Do you know any other characteristics? (pointing another student)

S: *Emotious.*

T: *Romantic?*

S: *Yes, romantic.*

T: Yea.

S: And friendly.

T: Ambitious, romantic, friendly.

S: *Emotional. (mispronouncing)*

T: *Emotional.* OK, do you have any questions here? About Zodiac or superstitions?

Ss: No.

T: Thanks, then. You may have a break now.

LESSON 6:

T: Yes, Mehmet Ali.

S: *I screwed (mispronouncing) up when I get ÖSS exam last year.*

T: *You screwed up when you took ÖSS exam.*

S: Yes.

T: OK.

S: I say another.

T: OK.

S: I screwed up when I meet another girl.

T: ...when you met a girl. OK, which girl? (joking) So, you say you screw up whenever you meet a girl. OK.

S: I screw up when I do not listen to my mother. And father get.. got angry with me.

T: OK. Yes, Gülseren.

S: No.

T: *Soner.*

S: *When I was a child I played football and broken my leg and we lost the match.*

T: *You failed.*

S: *We failed and I screwed up.*

T: *You screwed up because you didn't win and broke your leg.* OK, Fuat.

S: *In my home, my brother ask.. asked me have you got any money. I said I haven't got any money, after that I bought some trousers and he saw. I screwed up.*

T: *He asked for money and you said you didn't have any but then you bought something and he saw.* OK.

S: I make a mistake. And saw my mother shot me.

T: Shot you?

S: Bağırmak (in his mother tongue).

T: Ha.. Shouted at or yield at you. You can say, my father yielded at me.

S: *And I shouted to him. But then I sorry, sorry, sorry. And I screwed up.*

T: *Yes, you screwed up because you yielded at your father.* Uğur.

S: No, thanks.

T: Yes, Botan.

S: *I screwed up when I started Gaziantep University because it is very difficult.*

T: *What is difficult?*

S: *Er.. lesson.*

T: *OK. The classes. You screwed up when you chose to be in Gaziantep University.* OK, Yes.

S: When I played basketball in high school, then I don't stay.

T: In the game?

S: Yes.

T: You lost the game?

S: Yes.

T: You were playing in a team and you lost, so you screwed up. OK. Any questions?

Ss: No.

T: OK. That's all for today. See you next week.

LESSON 7:

T: (After greeting students) So, now friends, open your books, page 65.

Ss: Opening books, page 65.

T: (Asking students who do not have their books) How are we going to do that when you do not have your books? I told you, if you do not have your books, I will.. you know. Alright, get together with your friends. Brothers and sisters, get closer.

S: Brothers?

T: You are brothers and sisters, so get closer so that you can use a book together. So, right.. You know passive voices, right?

Ss: Yes.

T: When do we use passive voice? Why do we use it? When the doer of the action is not known, the object is the subject, right? If you watch CNN or BBC news, the news reporter, the announcer, er.. They talk using passive voice. Why do they mostly use passive voice? What do you think is the reason?

S: They are reporting.

T: Yes, they report but that is reported speech. Why passive? Because the action is more important not the agent. Right? Not the subject. And one more reason er.. is that when you use passive voice, it is more formal. When you use subject, you personalize but when you use passive voice you take people out and focus on the action. So, in this page we have the beginning of news. Then, in the following activity we are going to write the rest of the news. Imagine, I'm a news reporter, OK? And I tell the news. Yesterday there was a tragic fire after a lift off or launch. There was a tragic fire, and where was the fire? Think of the countdown; three, two, one, go! What is it? What is on fire?

S: Spacecraft.

T: Yes, exactly, it is. Look at the words here: five astronauts. These are the clues. Thank you. Now, with clues up here (pointing the page), with clues from the activity we are going to write the rest of the.. the following part of the news. OK?

Ss: Yes.

T: So, yesterday, there was a fire on launch. The first one has been done as an example for you. The astronauts were given their breakfasts at five a.m. Astronauts were given, so we make it passive. Just like a news reporter, or an announcer, we are going to write following parts of this news. The countdown begins.

Ss: Countdown?

T: What is countdown? Count, what is count? One, two, three, four.. and down. So ten, nine, eight, seven, etc. The countdown begins.

S: *The countdown was begin.*

T: *Begun, the third form of it.* But you can also add some extra information to make it like real news. OK? There was a tragic fire, that is the headline of the news. There was a tragic fire on the spacecraft. And then we explain the news. What happened? The astronauts were given their breakfast at 5 a.m. **And then the countdown..**

S: *was.. er..*

T: *Yea.*

S: *..begun.*

T: *Exactly. The astronauts...*

S: *..were asked. What is it happen?*

T: *What do they asked from the astronauts? Like, you can say, are you ready? They were asked if they were ready. Then the third one.. sorry, the fourth one. Then, the controls were..*

S: *The controls were checked.*

T: And they saw that everything was ready for launch. For lift off.

S: Everything was checked by the astronauts.

T: OK, that's right, fine. And then..

S: All the systems have tested.

Ss: ..were tested.

T: Exactly, were tested. And the last one?

S: *And they were.. the signal were given to somebody.*

T: *Careful, could you please repeat that?*

S: *The signal were given about information where they were.*

T: *OK, just wait here then because the next step says that suddenly a fire broke out in the booster rocket before the spaceship took off. It didn't take off.* The fire took off before the take-off.

So the signal, as you said was given that they were ready to take off. OK, focus on the seventh one.

S: *The Astronauts' cabin was didn't release oxygen.*

T: *Because of the fire, is it like.. back up support? Support oxygen because of the fire?*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: *Why oxygen? Why did you say oxygen?*

S: *Because oxygen tubes were..*

T: *...activated.*

S: *...activated.*

T: *Good. Because of the fire oxygen tubes were activated.* Alright, thank you. The next one.

S: The fire was put out.

T: OK, put out in the cabin. Alright. Next? Oh, that's bad news. The pilots..

S: ...were killed.

T: The pilots were killed by..

S: ..by the fire.

T: That's bad news. And? OK, go on.

S: *Two mechanics... er.. was injured in their bodies.*

T: *Could you repeat that, please.*

S: *Two mechanics was injured in their bodies.*

T: *Two mechanics were injured in their bodies by the fire.*

S: *...by the fire.*

T: OK, next. Mission control/shock. The mission control...

Ss: was shocked.

T: was shocked by what?

Ss: by fire.

T: Why were they shocked? Because of the... news. OK, you can go on. So, they were shocked by the news. They learned that there was a fire and they were shocked. OK. Burnt pieces/find...

S: *Burnt pieces were found everywhere by... yetkililer (in his mother tongue)*

T: *OK, by the authorities. Go on. Public/inform.*

S: *Inform?*

T: *"Inform" is a verb here. The public...*

S: *The public was informed about the news...*

T: *that the fire...*

S: *that the fire spread.*

T: *That the fire was put off.*

S: *... put off.*

T: OK, thank you. And the last one. The next mission...

S: ...was put off.

T: The next mission was put off by the government because of the accident, or the fire. Thank you. OK guys, thank you. We told a story and we told that in passive voice. We will try something new. I'll tell the beginning of a story, OK? I'm sure that you did this before in high school, back in those days. So, now, I'll tell the beginning of a story and then you will tell the following part of the story. We'll go one by one. You'll

create the story. Just use your imagination and creativity. The beginning of the story is just several sentences. OK?

Ss: Yes.

T: Listen to me. Shagaia was born and she was quite ordinary. When she was born she was like a normal person. There wasn't anything special about her when she was born but when she was about two years old... I think something abnormal, something unusual..

S: Passive mi kullanacağız? (asking something in his mother tongue)

T: No, forget about passive. OK. When she was born everything was normal, but when she was about two years old, what do you think happened?

S: Her parents discovered that she was...

T: Yes, she was two years old, her family discovered that she had some specific abilities about synesthesia. Synesthesia is an illness of most of the geniuses in the history. It is a stronger form of empathy.

S: ...*about sihir.. (saying something in his mother tongue).*

T: *Do you mean magical powers? Does she have magic or normal skills?*

Ss: *Magic.*

T: Magic. Come on your turn. What can she do? Create a story, right?

S: *Everything is strange for her.*

T: *She realized everything was strange for her.* OK. Alright, Metin.

S: *One day, she... she learned her abilities.*

T: *when...*

S: *When they walk on the street.*

T: *When they work on?*

S: *...walk on.*

T: *...walk on?*

S: *...walk on the street.*

T: *OK. She had already discovered, but what did she discover?*

S: *When they.. enter some rooms, some electronics will be...*

T: *...break down?*

S: *...broken down because her brains, hit..*

T: *Her brain?*

S: *Manyetik waves.*

T: *Yes, cool. Her brain was spreading magnetic waves. Cool, I like this. OK, next?*

S: And some electronic tools were broken down.

T: Yes, we know that. Say something different please.

S: *And some of them were... some of them was flying... er.. flying around the her head.*

T: *OK, some tools, some objects were...*

S: *...were flying around her head.*

T: *...around her head. OK. And Bülent.*

S: Ben bir şey demedim. (saying something in his mother tongue)

T: You should say something.

S: I don't know.

T: Nobody knows anything because we are creating something. You can say something because I saw in the exam that you can talk. And you are here to learn to speak. Anyway, thank you very much, now you can have your break.

LESSON 8

T: (after greeting students) OK. Look at the picture and tell what is happening?

S: *Shining.*

T: *What is shining?*

S: *Her eyes is shining.*

T: *Her eyes are shining.*

S: *Her eyes are shining.*

T: *Alright, now go to the next page. We have that superstition, you know what superstition is.*

S: *Batıl inanç. Batıl inanç değil mi hocam?*

T: *Yea, believing something which is not.. which is..*

S: *impossible.*

T: *Yea, maybe, impossible. Not logical.*

I know that you have already studied this in your course book. Remember, from Face to Face book. Here on the left are some of the superstitions. For example, about the numbers.. Number 13 is bad luck and Friday the 13th is an unlucky day. So, in our belief, in our community, do we have such kinds of superstitions about numbers?

S: I know why 13 is unlucky.

T: Why?

S: *Because I know that Hz. Muhammed was born in 572 and when you.. the numbers..*

T: *Add them together?*

S: *Add them together..*

Ss: *571*

S: *Yea, 571 add numbers together..*

T: *That makes 13.*

S: That makes 13.

T: But this unlucky number, 13, was an unlucky number before Mohammed.

S: I don't know.

T: It is a really old superstition, a really old. Do we have such lucky or unlucky numbers in our culture?

S: *My number is three.*

T: *Three is your lucky number, why is that?*

S: You.. always... you always have three chances.

Ss: (laughing).

T: Forty-one? Why do you think it is a lucky number in our culture? Anything about it?

S: *Kırk (in his mother tongue).*

T: *Erm..*

S: *Kırk.. (in his mother tongue).*

T: *Erm..*

S: *Forty is the number in.. in the..*

T: *It is lucky because?*

S: *...if you do..*

T: *...something for..*

S: *...something for forty times..*

T: *What happens?*

S: *It can be your habit.*

T: *It can come true. If you say something for forty times it can come true, right?*

Ss: *Yes.*

T: OK. That's cool. Another one, for example, horse shoe. It is a lucky object. Do we have such kind of objects which are lucky or unlucky?

S: *Nazar boncuğu. (in his mother tongue)*

T: *Yea, what is nazar boncuğu?*

S: *eye..*

T: *Evil eye.* It takes bad energy. And animals like.. a black cat is bad luck. Do we have any such animals?

S: Yes.

T: Do you know Bursa Zoo. There is a zoo in Bursa.

Ss: Yea.

T: OK. So, there is a zoo in Bursa and I went there one day. When we were passing by the cages of animals, I heard a little girl shouting at her mother. She was saying, "Mummy, mummy look at here, it is a haram animal."

Ss: (laughing)

T: It was a pig and she even didn't know the name of that animal. She knew that just as a haram animal. OK, if you see a falling star... What does a falling star mean? You can make a what?

S: wish?

T: Yes, you can make a wish. OK. What about food? It brings you bad luck if you spill salt in American culture. Do we have any about food? Do we have such kind of..

Ss: No.

S: I don't know.

T: *And, mirrors? If you break a mirror, what happens?*

S: *Seven years get bad luck.*

T: *Yea, you get bad luck for seven years.* And in our culture, I'm from Black Sea region; you cannot get married for seven years. So, I broke four or five mirrors when I was a child (making a joke). So..

Ss: (laughing) So, you won't get married.

T: Yea, unfortunately. Alright, it is bad luck to see the bride the day before marriage. Do we have such kind of superstitions? It is bad luck to see the bride with her wedding dress before the wedding.

Ss: No.

T: No, we don't have. So, do we have other superstitions? Do you know any other superstitions in our culture?

S: *I don't know if it is our culture but.. the thunder.. when it the ground..*

T: *...hits the ground...*

S: *Yea, when it hits the ground, it is a part of God.*

T: *Really?*

S: *I don't know, maybe not our culture but religious.*

T: *Sacred. Is it sacred?*

S: *Yea, sacred because it is a part of God. God comes to the Earth.*

T: That's interesting. I didn't know that. So, is it bad luck or good luck?

S: Good luck, maybe.

T: Are there any other superstitions?

S: (whistling)

T: *Yes, exactly, what is it?*

S: *You whisper..*

T: *That's saying something quietly (saying something quietly to one of the students). But, (whistling) that's whistle.*

S: *Whistle (mispronouncing)*

T: *Whistling, but especially when?*

S: At night.

T: Yea, whistling at night brings bad luck. What else? When I was a child, you know.. People usually scare you about religion. When I spilt salt on the ground, my friends, older ones, used to tell me that you will collect that salt in the hell with your eyelashes. I was really afraid. OK. What about the rice? If you cannot finish your dish, the rice in your dish... it means that.. what does that mean? Do you know?

Ss: No.

T: That means you will destroy mosques. If you do not finish your dish, you will destroy mosques.

S: :Çok acımasızlarmış (in his mother tongue)

T: Very. Further, moms usually say that if you do not finish your rice, it will run after you. Right?

S: (laughing).

T: So, any other? No? OK, the last topic guys. Could you please page sixty-eight? Now, I want you to read that expressions. Those are special expressions. Look. The first one: I goofed up something. Do you remember 'goofy'? Do you remember this one? (writing something on the board). Slang. What's slang? A slang word. Hot car, lady-killer.

S: Yes.

T: And etc. Remember. What was goofy? I'm a sixteen-year-old boy. When I see a girl I... (imitating goofy)

S: Foolish.

T: Yes, goofy was foolish. So, goofed up? I goofed up.. I made something foolish. OK? And I screwed up something. It means that.. for example, I went to a job interview and I couldn't speak. The boss didn't like me, so I screwed up, and I messed up. That's

same, actually they have similar meaning. I messed up and I screwed up. I screwed up everything. And the other one: I put my foot in my mouth. What does this mean, I mean this is an expression but not actually you do not take your foot into your mouth. It means that..

S: There is an explanation..

T: Yes, explain it.

S: Saying something rude.

T: Yes, I said something rude, you know.. and I made fool of myself. What's that?

S: Embarrassing?

T: Yea, I embarrassed myself. I will explain an event about those expressions and I want you just to write an event about yourself. I will talk about this, the last one: I made fool of myself. One day my mother... This is a real story guys. My mother made fool of herself. When I was fifteen, er.. I was singing in a choir. You know what is choir? Lots of people sing there.

Ss: Yes.

T: Er.. And, they thought that I was really successful about singing English songs. And I felt like a bomb to explode. All the teachers were coming, and even from other schools. I was just like a super star or something like that. And I was really happy. I was singing Titanic and The Bodyguard films' soundtracks. You know Titanic and The Bodyguard?

Ss: Yes.

T: So, I was singing them, and we'd decided to sing them with my teachers. And I went home with such happiness. And I told my mum that I was chosen to sing Titanic and The Bodyguard. I told my mum that I was going to sing Mariah Carey, I give my all song. Do you remember that?

Ss: Yes.

T: I told my mum that I would be on stage singing next year another song. But she told me that my father wouldn't let me be on stage, but want me to study.

S: (laughing)

T: So she made fool of herself. Now, I want you to give an example pf yourself with just one or two sentences. Just one or two sentences, OK? You can think of, you have two minutes. We will start when you get ready for that. Messed up, goofed up, screwed up, put my foot in my mouth, go on. You can also find another example in the other page, look. (reading the example) I screwed up..

S: I came here.

T: I screwed up when I..

S: I screwed up when I came here.

T: That's fine. You should have got better marks.

S: *I messed up about my friends because the mountains (mispronouncing) which is I trusted (mispronouncing)..*

T: *You what?*

S: *The mountain..*

T: *Ha ha..*

S: *The mountain which is I trusted (mispronouncing) was snowing.*

T: Snowy? Oh, come on. So that's another one. Alright.

S: *I screwed up when I didn't win university exam.*

T: *You didn't what?*

S: *...when I didn't win university exam.*

T: *Can we use 'win' for university exam?*

Ss: *No.*

T: *Actually, we use 'pass university exam'. But you are here, at the university.*

S: Last year.

T: Oh, you mean at the first year. OK. What else? Listen up.

S: I had an accident while I was driving a car.

T: Oh, really? So, you..

S: ...screwed up. (mispronouncing)

T: *Yea, you screwed up (with correct pronunciation) when you had an accident. Were you driving?*

S: *Yea.*

T: *Really? What happened?*

S: *I was driving a bit fast and I couldn't break it. I panicked, I was very speed..*

T: *You were driving very fast..*

S: *Yes, I was driving very fast, about 160 km/ph.*

T: Really? That's very fast, did you try to kill yourself?

S: *No. I just.. güvenmek neydi?*

Ss: *Trust.*

S: *I trust myself very much.*

T: So, did anything happen to you?

S: No.

T: What about the car?

Ss: (laughing)

T: What about the car?

S: The car.. er.. not better.

T: (laughing) OK. What about insurance, car insurance?

S: We had to pay 2.500 TL for the car.

T: Hopefully you are fine.

S: Yea. Thanks a lot.

T: Yea, what else? Listen.

S: I always forget something somewhere. I forgot my mobile phone in the cafeteria.

T: Really, did you go back to get it or did they bring it?

S: They brought and I was embarrassed.

T: Really, that's very kind of them. OK, that's the last one, just the last one.

S: When I was a child, I was...

T: OK, go on.

S: *I was playing around... kazan ne?*

Ss: *Pot.*

S: *I was playing around a big pot and I fall into it.*

T: *You were playing round a big pot and you fell into that?*

S: Yea.

T: Was that boiling?

S: Yes.

T: Really?

S: Yes.

T: Oh my God.

S: I burnt all my body.

T: Really? I mean, did you fall completely or just your arm?

S: With all my body.

T: You poor thing. So you.. messed up, screwed up, goofed up, put your foot into your mouth. Which one, choose one of them.

S: ...messed up.

T: So you messed up. OK guys. Thank you for your participating. Now you can go, free to go. Have a nice day.

APPENDIX-C THE PRESENT COURSE PACING

DATES	COURSE	ASSESSMENT
PHASE ONE		
1st Week	Introducing oneself and other people Understanding Body Language Likes & Dislikes	No Assessment
2nd Week	Ordering in a Restaurant	Ordering in a Restaurant
3rd Week	Describing Locations & Directions	Describing your Neighborhood
4th Week	Describing Locations & Directions	No Assessment

PHASE TWO		
5th Week	Health & Giving Advice	Making Appointments
6th Week	Talking about Customs & Apologizing	No Assessment
7th Week	Finding Roommate Tag Questions & Echo Questions	No Assessment
8th Week	Expressing Opinions	Role-Play
9th Week	Television	Describing a Favorite Show or a Movie
10th Week	Listening to Conversations Intonation with Exclamation	No Assessment

PHASE THREE		
11th Week	Getting Meaning from Context	NO ASSESSMENT
12th Week	Holidays	Talking about Holidays
13th Week	Dropping the –h sound	No Assessment
14th Week	Accepting & Refusing Invitations Debating	Classroom Debate
15th Week	Listening to Conversations	Discussing Technology in the House
16th Week	Conversational Exercises	No Assessment

PHASE FOUR		
17th Week	Phone Conversations Reductions	No Assessment
18th Week	Expressing Frustration Giving Advice Apologizing	Role-Plays
19th Week	Asking for Help Interrupting	Group Debates
20th Week	Exam Week	Group Projects

PHASE FIVE		
21st Week	Making Generalizations Contradicting	No Assessment
22nd Week	Guessing Expressing Approval and Disapproval Ordering Events	Role-Plays
23rd Week	Telling a Story Superstitions Acknowledging a Mistake	Narration
25th Week	Sharing experiences Paraphrasing	Group Discussions
26th Week	Making Up Sayings Relationships	Role Plays
26th Week	Exam Week	group Discussions

PHASE SIX		
27th Week	How to prepare a presentation	Dictation & Presentation
28th Week	Making Presentation Videos	Presentation
29th Week	Using Power-point for Presentations	Using IT
30th Week	Exam Week	Presentations
31st Week	Exam Week	Presentations

APPENDIX-D A PROPOSED SYLLABUS

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
1	“Neighborhoods, Cities, and Towns”	Cities and Means of Transportation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Asking for and giving personal information * Talking about cities and transportation * Interpreting a photo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Using prepositions with days * Comparing and contrasting * Using contractions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Neighborhood terms - Time and distance terms - Expressions about fares - Practicing new vocabularies in a variety of contexts

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stress words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Listening Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Using context clues * Speaking Confirming information Talking about days and dates Interpreting a photo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CD (texts about cities and transportation) The programme of speaking course Pictures of people Summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Coursebook Guessing the meanings of new words from context Listening to a dialogue and answering the questions Filling in a diagram Listening for personal information Rewriting a dialogue Discussing public transport Asking and answering questions about a calendar as a pair work

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
2	“Shopping and E-Commerce”	In a shopping mall Online shopping	* Developing reasoning skills for argumentation * Interpreting information on shopping websites * Using charts to compare and contrast	* Describing clothing * Using monetary terms for prices	- Shopping terms - Price expressions - Clothing types and colors - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Using reductions * Listening for and using stress words	* Listening Listening for prices Listening to online shopping information Listening for reasons Listening for reductions * Speaking Comparing prices and stores Describing clothes Interviewing classmates about shopping habits Role play: returning merchandise to a store Giving reasons	CD (texts about shopping and online shopping websites) The programme of speaking course Online shopping websites Summary	* Coursebook Comparing online shopping to traditional shopping Matching verb, adjectives and expressions Guessing the meanings of new words from context Listening and answering questions Gap filling exercises Evaluating an online shopping website Self-assessment: new vocabularies and expressions

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
3	“Friends and Family”	At school, at home, at a party, on the phone, and in a cafe	* Analyzing appropriate and inappropriate parts of conversation * Problem-solving: leaving appropriate voice mail messages	* Starting and ending conversations: formal vs. informal language * Topics of conversation	- Expressions for describing people - Expressions for starting and ending conversations - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stress words	* Listening Listening for conversation starters Listening to voice mail messages Listening to descriptions of people Listening for reductions * Speaking Describing people Leaving voice mail messages Interviewing classmates about friends and ways to keep in touch Role play: appropriate greetings based on situations	CD (texts about friends and family relations) The programme of speaking course Pictures of people Power Point presentations	* Coursebook Talking about classmates Guessing the meanings of new words from context Listening and answering questions Completing sentences about describing people Listening and completing a conversation Completing tables and diagrams Evaluation: describing a family member or a close friend

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
4	“Health Care”	In a hospital Illnesses Parts of body	* Analyzing solutions to problems * Making comparisons * Interpreting photos * Using charts to organize information	* Using modals to give advice	- Words and expressions for discussing health care - Words and expressions for making health care appointments Body part terms

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stress words * Listening for reductions * Using online pronunciation dictionaries	* Listening Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Listening for advice Listening to instructions Listening to complaints Using context clues * Speaking Discussing solutions to health problems Giving advice Discussing complaints Talking about body parts	CD (texts about health care) The programme of speaking course Pictures of body parts Charts	* Coursebook Describing pictures Asking answering questions with classmates Guessing the meanings of new words from context Listening and matching words with pictures Listening and answering questions Completing charts to organize information Evaluation: Discussing about health care as a group

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
5	“Men and Women”	Invitations and Celebrations At a party In a cafe	* Interpreting photos * Making inferences * Evaluating key words and URLs * Using a sunray graphic organizer to generate related ideas	* Patterns for small talk	- Words and expressions for discussing male and female relationships - Dating and social events - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stress words	* Listening Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Listening for reductions Listening for small talks Using context clues Listening to invitations * Speaking Making small talk Discussing invitations and celebrations	CD (texts about men and women relationships) The programme of speaking course Pictures of people Diagrams	* Coursebook Talking about pictures Asking answering questions with classmates Guessing the meanings of new words from context Completing a conversation Listening and answering questions Discussing dating with classmates Completing diagrams Review: Combining internet search skills Evaluation: Making small talk

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
6	“Sleep and Dreams”	Words about sleep A lecture about sleep and dreams	* Understanding and interpreting research studies * Evaluating important lecture points with note-taking * Understanding and using data to support a point	* Polite and impolite ways to agree and disagree	- Expressions for agreeing and disagreeing - Understanding basic vocabulary used in research studies - Transition vocabulary for narratives - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Stress: teens and tens * Listening for and using stressed words	* Listening Listening to numbers: teens and tens Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Listening to a narrative * Speaking Interviewing classmates about sleep and dreams Role play: agreeing and disagreeing Discussing a lecture Surveying classmates about sleep habits Narration: describing a dream	CD (texts about sleep and dreams) The programme of speaking course Research studies and survey results	* Coursebook Talking about pictures Asking answering questions with classmates Listening and answering questions Discussing a lecture Pair-work activities Surveying classmates about sleep habits Evaluation: Presenting survey results using power point presentations

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
7	“Work and Lifestyles”	At work Professions and career Chart and pie graphs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Interpreting photos * Categorizing people and things * Interpreting survey results * Using a cluster chart graphic to group related ideas * Evaluating career information on the internet * Using a chart or pie graph to illustrate survey results 	* Making complaints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Words and expressions for discussing jobs and careers - Job titles and major terms - Job interview terms - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Listening for and using stressed words * Distinguishing majors and job titles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Listening Listening for the main idea Listening for specific information Listening to complaints Using context clues Listening to job interviews Listening to future plans * Speaking Talking about jobs Making complaints politely and professionally Talking about job interviews Talking about the future 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CD (texts about sleep and dreams) The programme of speaking course Pictures of different professions Charts and pie graphs Survey results 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Coursebook Talking about pictures Asking answering questions with classmates Listening for specific information and note-taking Completing sentences using chart and pie graphs Discussing survey results presented in graphs Using Graphic Organizers: Cluster Charts Assignment: Finding job information on the internet

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
8	“Food and Nutrition”	At a supermarket: shopping for food Traditional food and fast food At a restaurant	* Making comparison charts * Ordering steps in a sequence * Evaluating search information on the internet	* Using sequencing word * Using present tense to talk about food preferences	- Words and expressions for discussing food and nutrition - Guessing meaning from context - Words and expressions for giving a sequence

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stressed words	* Listening Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Listening to instructions Listening for reductions Using context clues * Speaking Discussing food and health Ordering in a restaurant Giving opinions on food	CD (texts about sleep and dreams) The programme of speaking course Menus a restaurant Food and health facts on the internet	* Coursebook Talking about pictures Matching nouns, verbs, adjectives and expressions Asking answering questions with classmates Listening and answering questions Guessing meaning from context Dialogue completion Finding job information about food and health on the internet

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
9	“Great Destinations”	Holidays and vacations Travel and routes Transportation and journey	* Evaluating options and making decisions with a T-chart * Classifying information	* Using modals and expressions to persuade * Using past tense to talk about travel	- Describing places and events - Travel terms - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stressed words	* Listening Listening for main ideas Listening for specific information Listening to descriptions Listening to flight information * Speaking Describing photos Agreeing and disagreeing Asking about travel information	CD (texts about sleep and dreams) The programme of speaking course Pictures about holidays Maps and routes	* Coursebook Talking about pictures Matching nouns, verbs, adjectives and expressions Guessing meaning from context Listening and completing a T-chart Discussing holiday types with classmates Dialogue completion Matching holiday activities with pictures Evaluation: Presentation about summer holiday

UNIT	THEME	CONTEXT	FUNCTION	LANGUAGE STRUCTURE	VOCABULARY SET
10	“Our Planet”	Descriptions of the nature Environmental problems Endangered species	* Interpreting photos * Categorizing pros and cons with a T-chart * Interpreting persuasive messages * Finding information about the environment on the internet	* Using present tense to agree and disagree * Using the imperative to give advice	- Words and expressions for discussing the environment and endangered species - Terms of persuasion - Guessing meaning from context

PHONOLOGY	LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS	MATERIALS	PROJECT
* Listening for and using stressed words * Using stress words for emphasis	* Listening Listening for the main idea Listening for specific information Listening to persuasive messages Using context clues Listening to advice * Speaking Discussing environmental problems Agreeing and disagreeing Talking about endangered species	CD (texts about sleep and dreams) The programme of speaking course Pictures of the planet and endangered species	* Coursebook Discussing causes and solutions of pollution Guessing meaning from context Debating environmental problems with classmates Assignment: Finding the news about environmental pollution on the internet Evaluation: Poster presentation about environmental problem and endangered species

CURRICULUM VITAE

Akın GÜRBÜZ was born in Adıyaman in 1982. He is a graduate of İstanbul University–Hasan Ali Yücel Education Faculty- Foreign Languages Education Department –English Language Teaching Program (2004). He worked at Adıyaman Anatolian Technical and Vocational Highschool for four years. He has been working as an English instructor at Gaziantep University – School of Foreign Languages since 2009. He speaks English fluently.

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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