T.C.

BURSA ULUDAG UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF EFL INSTRUCTORS ON ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS

M.A. THESIS

Tansu YİĞİT

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Advisor

Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda YEŞİLBURSA

BURSA

2019

BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK

Bu çalışmadaki tüm bilgilerin akademik ve etik kurallara uygun bir şekilde elde edildiğini beyan ederim.

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"İngilizce Öğretim Görevlilerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri, Uygulamaları ve Öğrenci Görüşleri" adlı Yüksek Lisans tezi, Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanmıştır.

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EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE,

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda 801610009 numara ile kayıtlı Tansu YİĞİT'in hazırladığı "İngilizce Öğretim Görevlilerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri, Uygulamaları ve Öğrenci Görüşleri" başlıklı Yüksek Lisans çalışması ile ilgili tez savunma sınavı, 05/07/2019 günü 10:00/11:00.. saatleri arasında yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda adayın tezinin **başarılı** olduğuna **oybirliği** ile karar verilmiştir.

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Danışmanı : Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda Yeşilbursa

İngilizce Öğretim Görevlilerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri, Uygulamaları ve Öğrenci Görüşleri

Yabancı dil konuşma öğretiminde hata düzeltimi her zaman tartışmalı konulardan biri olmuştur. Neredeyse her bir araştırmacının ve öğretmenin, sözlü hata düzeltimi konusunda kendine özgü bir fikri ya da inancı vardır. Bunun yanında, öğretmenlerin sınıflarındaki kendi sözlü hata düzeltimi uygulamalarının çok farkında olmadıkları görülmektedir. Öğrencilerin de bu konudaki inançlarının göz önünde bulundurulması gerektiği düşünülmektedir. Dolayısıyla, bu araştırmanın önemi, öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin arasındaki bu konudaki ayrılık ve öğretmenlerin kendi inanç ve uygulamalarındaki farklılıklardan doğmaktadır. Araştırmanın asıl amacı hem öğrencilerin hem de öğretim görevlilerinin sözlü dönüt verme konusundaki inançlarını ve öğretim görevlilerinin bu konudaki tutum ve uygulamalarının birbiriyle uyuşup uyuşmadığını incelemektir. Çalışmaya, Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinin hazırlık

okulundan 107 öğrenci ve onların konuşma dersinden sorumlu 6 öğretim görevlisi katılmıştır. Öğretim görevlileri için ayrı, öğrenciler için ayrı hazırlanan ve onların düzeltici sözlü dönüt (DSD) konusundaki görüşlerinin sorulduğu anketler uygulanmıştır. Öğretim görevlilerinin konuşma dersi uygulamaları gözlemlenip istatistiksel veri ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları göstermiştir ki öğrencilerin ve öğretim görevlilerinin DSD kullanımına ilişkin bazı alanlarda görüş ayrılıkları vardır ve öğretim görevlilerinin DSD üzerine görüşleri ve uygulamaları da farklılıklar göstermektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: hata düzeltme, düzeltici sözlü dönüt, edimsel çıkarım, onarım

Abstract

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Thesis: Beliefs and Practices of EFL Teachers on Oral Corrective Feedback and Students' Perceptions

Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda Yeşilbursa

Beliefs and Practices of EFL Teachers on Oral Corrective Feedback and Students' Perceptions

Error correction in foreign language speaking instruction has always been a controversial issue. Almost every researcher and teacher has an individual point of view or belief towards oral correction feedback (OCF). Besides, it was seen that teachers may rarely know about their actual oral error correction procedures in the classrooms. It is also needed to take into account of students' beliefs towards OCF. Therefore, the significance of the present study arises from these two gaps between students and teachers perception of OCF; and teachers' beliefs and practices. The main purpose of the study is to investigate the beliefs of both students and teachers towards OCF, and find out whether teachers' beliefs and actual OCF practices match. 107 students from a preparation school of a state university in Turkey and their six speaking course instructors participated in the study. For data collection, two

questionnaires designed specially for students and instructors for investigating their beliefs towards OCF were applied. Speaking course instructors' practices were observed to be compared with the statistical data. The results of the study show that there are some conflicts between students and instructors in terms of OCF usage; and instructors' beliefs and practices show differences.

Keywords: error correction, oral corrective feedback, uptake, repair

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List of Abbreviations

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

WM: Working Memory

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

ADDIE: Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation

RQ 1: Research Question 1

RQ 2: Research Question 2

RQ 3: Research Question 3

RQ 4: Research Question 4

RQ 5: Research Question 5

RQ 6: Research Question 6

RQ 7: Research Question 7

RQ 8: Research Question 8

Chapter I

Introduction

1.0.Introduction

This chapter consists of information about the background of the present study on beliefs and practices of EFL instructors on oral corrective feedback along with students' perceptions. This chapter presents the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, and the limitations and significance of the study as well as research questions.

1.1. Background of the Study

In foreign language teaching, there have been many different views on whether learners should be corrected, if so, to what extent they need to be corrected along with by whom learners can be corrected the best and when. Besides these questions, researchers have examined whether errors or mistakes need to be corrected and what kind of errors or mistakes need correction.

Over the years, as learners make more and more errors, there has been a shift from supporting Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982) which claims that sufficient and appropriate input would be enough for language learners into supporting more interactional views. Long (1996) and Swain (1985) claim that only comprehensible input would not be sufficient to utter grammatically correct sentences. According to Swain, language production is a crucial part of language learning. She claimed that learners fail because of lack of a chance for language production by stating that "output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired is facilitative of second language (L2) learning." (p. 252). She then added a new concept of 'pushed output' meaning that speaking or writing would not be sufficient but learners "need to be pushed to make use

of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy." (1993, p. 160). She saw that in French immersion classrooms, teachers were not pushing students and stated that "negotiating meaning" should be extended beyond transmitting the message solely. Ungrammatical utterances and feasible but inappropriate language in terms of pragmatism can also transmit the message across; however, negotiation of meaning requires to form precise and appropriate messages. Pushing learners for output is a similar concept to "i+1 of comprehensible input." (Swain, 1985, p. 248 -9).

Swain (1985) identifies three functions of output. First is the noticing function which serves for learners to notice what they cannot say in the target language while they are being pushed to produce output, which brings about cognitive awareness. The second is the hypothesis testing function, which serves as a 'trial run' for learners on their hypothesis about how to say a thing in L2. Finally, the metalinguistic (reflective) function which means reflecting on language that is produced by self or others contributes to language learning with the help of collaborative dialogues as language sources like Vygotsky's sociocultural theory claims as well. Swain states that as well as collaborative dialogues, the private speech of learners shows progress as a cognitive tool for learners, which she calls 'languaging'. (Swain, p.75). Sheen (2011) sees Swain's theory encouraging to elicit learners' self-repair and claims that producing output enables learners to reach from comprehension to production of meaningful utterances.

Long (1996) argued that negative feedback in interlocutor's speech facilitates modified output. This interaction brings about input, internal learner capacities and output together. Negative feedback in the input informs learners about whether their utterances are comprehensible or not by drawing their attention to the gaps in their interlanguages. If it is not

comprehensible, negative feedback enables them to modify their output which can be done by either creating a new message or processing the original message again to get rid of the deficiency (Izumi, 2002).

Schmidt, who proposed Noticing Hypothesis in 1986, claims that unless input is noticed, it cannot become intake for learners of the foreign language which requires conscious registration. Schmidt had two case studies which helped him shape his theory. The first case study was conducted on uninstructed teaching to a Japanese learner of English, who was a good learner with lots of willingness to communicate and good vocabulary. However, this learner had many problems with morphology and syntax. Schmidt thought that it would be due to lack of noticing of grammatical forms and "over-reliance on an implicit learning strategy" (Schmidt, 2010, p.3). He claims that adults lack the learning abilities of children, which would only require implicit knowledge. Instead, they need direct and explicit information. The second case study was on his own process of learning Portuguese with the researcher Frota (1986). They found out that even the salient forms in input were not acquired unless they were consciously noticed, and he claims that he was not even aware of being corrected at that time. He draws attention to consciousness as attention a lot because it brings about many subsystems such as alertness, selective attention and facilitation to light, which work well for language learning.

Izumi (2002) investigated the potentially facilitative effects of producing output, whether it promoted noticing and whether output-inducing noticing learning style equals only input-exposed learning style. He made sure to provide learners with more opportunities to produce appropriate output and receive enough relevant input. The results of his study has revealed that "the noticing function underscores the interconnectedness of input and output processes in SLA" (p. 566). He also added that when students' attention is caused by external

factors, as in input-enhancement, learning decreases gradually compared to learning with internally-caused attention as in output production.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Ellis (2006) emphasizes the importance of explicit knowledge as it plays an important role in noticing the gaps while learners are monitoring their output. To enable learners to notice their errors and produce output, oral corrective feedback (OCF), with the definition by Ellis (2006) as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (p. 28), plays a crucial role. As a result, studying OCF serves a great deal of importance for foreign language teaching research. There has been much international research on comparisons of OCF types (e.g. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Hawkes & Nassaji, 2016; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Sarandi, 2006 etc.); however, until recently, there has not been much research in Turkey conducted on preferences of OCF types, timings and sources by teachers and students except for a few studies (e.g. Ölmezer- Öztürk& Öztürk, 2016; Öztürk, 2016; Özmen & Aydın, 2005, Yılmaz, 2013). However, this study tries to compare instructors' and students' beliefs together and bring about the advantages and disadvantages of usages of different types of OCF from the perspectives of both sides. Teachers may not realize what their practices go through in years since negotiations of meaning can get automatic (Farrell & Mom, 2015), and the study's observational data can enable the participants in this study and other teachers in the field to reflect on their practices (Farrell, 2009). They can also reflect on students' beliefs to shape their future practices. All these reasons brought about the purpose of the study.

Therefore, the present study deals with the beliefs and practices of instructors towards OCF, which is compared with students' beliefs based on the data obtained from both instructors and students and is supported with observational data. The preferences of

instructors' and students' about different types, timings and sources of OCF are researched, and instructors' beliefs are compared with their actual practices.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to investigate which OCF types and sources are seen as beneficial from the perspectives of both students and their instructors, along with how often they are used and when they are the most useful. At the same time, the OCF types the instructors used while the lesson was in process were observed to determine whether the beliefs of instructors matched with their practices.

1.4. Research Questions

The study is designed to address the following research questions:

1. What are the general perceptions of students and instructors regarding OCF?
2. What types of OCF do instructors believe they use?
3. What types of OCF do instructors actually use in classrooms?
4. Do instructors' beliefs and observed practices match?
5. a. What types of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

5. b. What types of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

5. c. What are the differences between the instructors' and students' beliefs about the types of OCF?

6. a. Which timing of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

6. b. Which timing of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

6. c. What are the differences between the instructors and students beliefs about the timing of OCF?

7. a. Which source of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

7. b. Which source of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

7. c. What are the differences between the instructors and students beliefs about the sources of OCF?

8. What types of OCF bring about student repair?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Roothooft (2014) claims that teachers are not completely aware of their teaching practices and this study tries to find out whether there is a gap between instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices to be compared with students' beliefs as well. The present study was conducted at the School of Foreign Languages at Bursa Uludağ University. This school offers intensive English courses to the students before they start studying at their major departments. The program comprises of teaching skills such as grammar, vocabulary, writing, reading, and listening and speaking. This group of participants is a proper sample to collect and analyze data for actual OCF usage and its effects on learners. Therefore, this study aims to address the importance of OCF usage in the classroom by showing its profound impacts on foreign language learning supported by observational data.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted with 108 participants from pre-intermediate level classes of a preparation school at a state university in Bursa. This participant sample can be enlarged by having more participants from different levels and different universities. Additionally, the listening and speaking course instructors of these participants were observed for 1 hour in total because of participants' reluctance. This period can also be enlarged by observing the classes for more hours to have better results. Therefore, the implications of the study can be generalized with the help of more data and help further studies.

Chapter II

Review of literature

2.0. Introduction

In this chapter, a review of the literature on several topics from constructivism to oral corrective feedback (OCF) will be discussed. Errors and mistakes are defined and categorized; corrective feedback in constructivism is discussed. OCF is defined and categorized along with some variables affecting it, such as instructional settings and teacher experience. Besides OCF, uptake and repair, which are instructional matters coming with OCF, are reviewed through many studies. Finally, teachers' beliefs towards OCF and their comparisons with students are researched and discussed consisting of subtopics as preferences towards OCF.

2.1. Errors in language learning and teaching.

2.1.1. Defining errors. The definition and recognition of errors are important in terms of constructivism. Piaget (1973) pointed out the importance of understanding the children's step by step development and highlighted the discovery in learning along with the conditions serving for it. Constructivist perspective encourages the learner to interpret and construct the language he/she is leaning. Learners should take responsibility in information processing rather than passively receive the stimuli (Wang, 2006).

Constructivism prioritizes learning over teaching and learner autonomy. Therefore, teachers should have a different role in the classrooms such as facilitators or guides instead of being the source of information (Wang, 2012). This act of role changing brings about cooperation and communication between learners and teachers (Liu, 2003).

Vygotsky (1978) supports the view that children's learning is supported by the interaction they have with their parents and peers; and defines the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as readiness for a learner to learn. He states that teachers should scaffold

learners through the different levels of development and understanding by providing models for them, coaching them and providing feedback.

Some researchers have tried to identify errors from mistakes. For example, Ellis (1994) defined mistakes as failure of performance that occurs when learners cannot succeed in implementing their language knowledge and fall to non-standard rules due to processing problems whereas errrors are a competence phenomena (1994, p. 51).

Corder (1967) emphasizes the difference between systematic and non-systematic errors and claims that the errors of performance are unsystematic and errors of competence are systematic ones; and defends both types of errors as the evidence of learners' learning strategies rather than seeing them as inhibitors of learning. Corder claims that when a child utters an ill-formed sentence, it is not considered as an error, but a sign of child's step in his/her development; and adults around the children tend to repeat or expand the children's utterances seeing the errors in these ill-formed utterances as important evidence of the language learning process.

2.1.2. Sources of errors. Tarawneh and Almomani's (2013) study was conducted to find out what causes students to make errors and their results showed that Jordanian English students might have been making errors or mistakes due to the influence of L1, overgeneralizations, carelessness and lack of competence which would give an idea whether these errors/mistakes should be corrected or not.

Along with with these researchers, Gürbüz and Tilfarlioğlu (2017) wanted to know what causes errors and unmodified errors after corrective feedback and found out that it might be due to lack of knowledge of students and teacher's ignorance. Roberts (1995, as cited in Rassaei, 2013) points out the importance of giving feedback as seeing feedback as a tool for error recognition for learners.

Feltsen (2009) compared beginner level students and intermediate level students learning English in terms of different error types they make and the number of errors that these two groups happen to be making. Researcher formed five error categories, which are grammatical errors, morpheme errors, word missing errors, spelling errors and word order errors. It was found that beginner level learners commit grammatical errors just like intermediate learners the most, then morpheme errors and spelling errors come. However, intermediate level learners make fewer errors than the former group supporting the belief that when learners get older, they make fewer errors. Even though intermediate level students participating in the study make fewer errors, they make the very same errors with beginner level students, namely; grammatical errors the most, word missing errors the second and morpheme errors the third.

2.1.3. Error correction. Li (2013) claims that teachers should give priority to correct the errors that are impeding comprehension via some ways such as stressing the wrong syllable and causing a change in the meaning of a word is a case to be corrected. To be able to correct the learners, it is inevitable to define and understand what corrective feedback is for a teacher.

2.2. Corrective feedback.

Polio and Gass (1997) claimed that learners in a foreign language classroom are exposed to two different types of input, which are positive evidence and negative evidence. The aim of providing positive evidence is to enable learners to see the correct use of L2. Negative evidence, on the other hand, displays to the learner that the utterance he/she produced is not acceptable in L2 thanks to the provision of corrective feedback. Corrective feedback is defined as "… the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language." (Ellis & Sheen, 2006 as cited in Hinkel, 201, p. 593), or as "responses to a learner's non-target like L2 production" (Li,

2010, p. 309). Corrective feedback serves as an essential tool for the interactive classroom atmosphere that constructivists support since it brings about negotiation in the classroom between teachers and students. Therefore, for the speaking classes, orally given corrective feedback is an important aspect of teaching to research on.

2.3. Oral corrective feedback

Ellis (2006) defined oral corrective feedback (OCF) as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (p. 28). In his video on Apple Lecture (Teachers College, Columbia University, 2018), Lyster also defined oral corrective feedback as "teachers' responses to learners' errors" and adds even though it seems to be very simple, "when you look at it closely, there is nothing simple about it because of complex discourse phenomenon." According to him, if errors are not treated with OCF, they can become fossilized. Lyster groups different OCF types as reformulations –or explicit ones- (i.e. recast and explicit correction) when the correct form of student utterances are provided by the teacher and prompts –or implicit ones-(i.e. elicitation, metalinguistic-feedback and clarification requests) when it is demanded from the learner to notice the error and correct it. Although there are different classifications of OCF, the present study will be based on Lyster and Saito's (2010) taxonomy solely (see appendix D).

Yu, Wang and Teo (2018) wanted to conceptualize OCF at three aspects: linguistic, individual and contextual ones. They claim that at a linguistic level, OCF should be analyzed in terms of both types and timing as important variables. At the individual level, they draw attention to working memory (WM) claiming that every student has a different WM span, and it affects their unique L2 learning profoundly. Besides, in Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii and Tatsumi's (2002 as cited in Bitchener & Knoch, 2010) study, it is also revealed that learners with higher WM capacities benefited better from recasts compared to learners with lower

WM. At a conceptual level, it is pointed out that OCF perceptions of students can be shaped through not only their own beliefs but also by their relations with their teachers.

However, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) emphasize that enabling learners to be aware of the purpose, importance and different types of OCF can be very effective for them to benefit from it. Roberts (1995 as cited in Rassaei, 2013) also states that "the efficacy of error correction is directly related to the condition that the L2 learner not only recognizes that he/she is being corrected but understands the nature of correction" (p.167). This natural aspect of correction can be affected by some variables such as instructional setting, age and teacher experience, which will be discussed below.

2.2. Variables affecting OCF.

A number of variables affect the OCF practices such as different instructional settings, age of learners and experience of different teachers. These are certain important aspects to be able to understand the different usages of OCF.

2.2.1. Instructional setting and age. Naturally, each teacher and student in different contexts may have a different view on the usage of OCF. Milla and Garcio Mayo (2013) discovered that in EFL classes, OCF is used more explicitly than in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classes where the focus is on meaning, and implicit types of OCF is preferred. Like Milla et al., Lyster and Saito (2010) wanted to see whether OCF is beneficial for L2 and whether the instructional setting, type of OCF and learners' age affect the efficiency of OCF. They found out that receiving OCF is beneficial for L2 learners; however, the instructional setting does not interfere with this process. On the other hand, the type of OCF and learners' age affect OCF treatment. According to the results of their study, prompts showed more utility for learners than recasts, and recasts showed more utility than explicit corrections. Finally, they have concluded that the younger the learners are, the more

meaning out of OCF they get. They claim that it might be due to the length of instruction that younger learners receive by being treated with longer sessions than adults.

Cheatham, Jimenez-Silva and Park (2015) conducted a study on the usage of OCF on children and although "teacher feedback has primarily been investigated and found to be effective with older language learners (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Russell & Spada, 2006 as cited in Cheatham et al." (p. 1455), they concluded that children should be provided with feedback, however, if it continually occurs, they may get frustrated and unable to communicate. According to Lee's (2016) study, there was seen a significant difference in terms of self-confidence and fluency in oral skill courses between ESL and EFL learners as well. ESL students experience far less anxiety than EFL students and feel more confident in oral skill courses.

2.2.2. Teacher experience. Rahimi and Zhang (2015) discovered a noteworthy difference between experienced teachers and novice teachers. They dug out the fact that teachers' personal experiences have a great deal of impact on their beliefs towards the necessity of OCF, its timing and usage of different types of it. While novice teachers approach OCF through their own learning experiences, experienced teachers show high awareness of factors influencing their use of OCF such as error frequency, error severity and learner differences. As it can be seen, identifying the best type, timing and source of OCF to be applied to different contexts may not be appropriate. However, Brown (2001) classified 10 general factors to keep in mind while providing OCF: a) types of problematic language such as vocabulary, grammar or pragmatics; b) problematic language source which can be native tongue influence or about the uniqueness of the target form; c) complexity of problematic language which affects whether OCF should be given immediately or delayed; d) whether this problematic language hinders meaning or not; e) whether teachers are dealing with a mistake

or an error that should be treated with OCF; f) individual learner factors; g) the proficiency level of the learners claiming that elicitation and metalinguistic feedback can be more appropriate to utilize for students with higher level of proficiency whereas, for lower level students, explicit correction would serve better; h) the focus of the lesson –whether it is on form or meaning; i) the context where students produced problematic language; and j) different philosophies and instructional styles of different teachers.

Apart from the variables discussed above, the efficacy of OCF should be evaluated by the uptake and repair that it brings about so as for a teacher to shape and condition the practices of OCF she/he is actualizing at present. The following section deals with these two phenomena.

2.3. Uptake and repair.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied OCF along with the *uptake* it gathers and *repairs* that follow it. They defined uptake as "… a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance…" (p. 49) and divided it into two: a) uptake that successfully results in 'repair' which means repairing the error dealt with a) feedback, and b) uptake which still needs repair.

They also categorized four different *repair* types. The first is *repetition,* which refers to the student's repetition of his/her teacher's feedback consisting of the corrected form. The second is *incorporation,* which is similar to repetition, but students add new utterances. The third is *self-repair* that refers to the students' self-correction after teachers' feedback that does not consist of the corrected form of the student's initial utterance. Finally, *peer-repair* is provided by a peer after the teacher's feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Regarding *needs-repair* types, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different categories. The first one is *acknowledgement* referring to a 'yes' utterance in response to the

teacher's feedback. The second one is the *same error* that refers to the student's repetition of his/her initial error. The next one is *different error* referring to a new error added by the student to his/her initial error. *Off-target is* another type of needs-repair that means the student's circumventing teacher's feedback without making any more errors and lastly, *partial-repair* comes that is student's correction of only one part of his/her initial error.

After they analyzed their data, Lyster and Ranta (1997) underlined that recast was the dominantly used feedback type for all teachers by half per cent. It was followed by elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction and repetition. However, when it comes to uptake that follows teachers' feedback, the results were not matching. It was seen that recasts led to the least uptake, either as in repair or needs-repair forms. Recasts were followed by little uptake while elicitation led to the most repair and metalinguistic feedback had the second highest remark. Lyster and Ranta also wanted to distinguish between the real repair and student's repetition of what the teacher said. They created a new category as 'student-generated repair' which consists of self-repair and peer-repair. It was revealed that elicitations created full uptake and half of the student-generated repair. Besides, clarification requests, metalinguistic-feedback, which was the second most powerful feedback type for student-generated repair and repetition were shown to be successful at maintaining uptake. With their study results, they wanted to emphasize that recasts are 'echoes' and students may not be able to notice the modification that is done on their utterances. They point out that unlikely what teachers believe, none of the OCF types or uptake hinders the flow of communication in the classrooms. On the other hand, uptake indicates that students are all in the conversation back again.

Llinares and Lyster (2014) conducted a study to see the distribution of different OCF types used in the classrooms and their learner uptake in three different contexts which are the following: a) content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classes in Spain, b) French

immersion classrooms (FI) in Quebec and c) Japanese immersion classes (JI) in the US. All the teachers working in those different settings used recasts the most, which is followed by prompts and then explicit corrections.

According to Sheen and Ellis' (2011) distinction of recast as didactic ones and conversational ones, the former one refers to the recasts that are explicit reformulations of student utterances with no concern of communication breakdown whereas the latter one refers to the recasts that are implicit not to have a communication breakdown. Recasts in Llinares and Lyster's (2014) study managed to achieve repair in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and Japanese immersion (JI) classrooms whereas in French immersion (FI) classrooms, prompts managed to gather the most repair. Llinares and Lyster claim that it might be a result of FI classroom teachers' use of conversational recasts while CLIL and JI classroom teachers prefer didactic recasts. They conclude that teachers in different settings create different classroom cultures shaped by their beliefs and experiences in which they shape their students' responds as well.

Lyster and Mori (2006) wanted to explain the difference between FI and JI classrooms, and they discussed it on counter-balance hypothesis as French and English are cognate languages with very similar writing systems and syntactic structures while Japanese and English are not cognate languages causing teachers to orient a more form-focused instruction.

However, Sakurai (2014) wanted to test Lyster and Mori's (2006) counter-balance hypothesis, which is based on similarities and differences between languages. Sakurai tested this hypothesis in three English immersion (EI) classrooms in Japan. The results of the study showed recasts were the most frequently used type of OCF supporting Lyster and Mori's study; however, the greatest uptake was gathered through prompts in EI classrooms similar to FI classes but not JI classes. In terms of repair, EI classroom observations showed a similar

pattern to JI classrooms gaining more repair from recasts unlikely to FI classrooms, and the researcher concluded that counter-balanced hypothesis could not be supported by the light of his study results.

Similarly, Tsang (2004) did a scientific study in Hong Kong with learners of different ages ranging from seven to 11 and found out that recasts and explicit corrections occurred in those classes the most; however, none of those student-generated repairs followed recasts or explicit corrections, but repetition managed to gain the most student-generated repair. Grammatical repairs followed negotiations, on the other hand, for phonological errors, recasts and explicit corrections worked the best.

In Kennedy's (2010) study, the researcher compared the number of different types of OCF used by a teacher in two different classes of learners with different proficiency levels. Kennedy brought about the fact that higher level students produced more uptake than lower level students as they are more aware of being corrected. Whereas lower level students received more recasts than the other class, which might have resulted in less uptake, or they created less uptake due to a confusion of recasts with repetition and not being aware of being corrected at that time (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor and Mackey (2006) conducted a study on distinguishing recasts from repetitions. With their study results, they came to two conclusions. Firstly, it was seen that students were able to identify recasts when they were provided with their original utterances before recasts. They needed to hear it first, then the recast version of their initial utterances to understand that they are being corrected, not repeated. Secondly, it was harder for students to identify recasts for morphosyntactic errors than phonological and lexical ones.

Naemi, Saeidi and Behnam (2018) were other researchers who also worked on EFL learners' uptake gathering, learning and retention and it was seen that recasts were the most effective type of OCF to induce successful uptake; however, metalinguistic feedback was

proven to be the most impactful type of feedback for learning and retention for phonological errors. They also found out that the lack of uptake cannot mean that there happens no learning. Instead, learners may be encountering conversational constraints.

Nikoopour and Zoghi (2014) studied with 60 intermediate level students and saw that teachers provided the most feedback to lexical errors. However, the greatest uptake was gathered by elicitation while highly preferred recasts led to the least uptake. To sum up the uptake and repair part, Loewen's (2004) study can be analyzed.

Loewen (2004) observed 12 meaning-focused English lessons for 32 hours and evaluated the uptake OCF gathers. Loewen concluded that uptake of learners could be affected by the complexity of language, type of feedback provided and timing of the feedback. With the results of this study, it was seen that overall uptake occurred with a percentage of 73%. When the researcher compared the results with previous studies, s/he concluded that fee-paying adult learners in ESL classes produce more uptake than younger learners in immersion classrooms. Besides, the results showed that immediately and elicited responses of students led to a higher amount of successful uptake.

According to Doughty (2001, as cited in Loewen, 2004), feedback should be within 40 seconds after the trigger. It is also claimed that longer negotiations of meaning led to higher chances for students to notice their errors and successful uptake compared to providing correct form immediately.

Despite the research that has been done on uptake and repair of different types, timings and sources of OCF gathers, teachers' beliefs regarding OCF are crucial factors when teachers decide on how to correct their students' oral output. The following section will deal with this issue in more detail.

2.4. Teachers' beliefs regarding OCF.

Teachers' beliefs are shaped through many different aspects throughout their training, and each teacher somehow can hold a different view towards providing OCF as well as contradicting with what their students' believe.

2.4.1. Teachers' beliefs and practices. Pajares (1992) described beliefs as:

> [travelling] in disguise and often under alias—attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy (p. 309).

In other words, they are very personal constructs that help to understand the evaluations and judgements of teachers' practices.

Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) claimed that pre-service teachers' beliefs are already shaped when they were students in the classrooms which remain latent throughout their training in pedagogy at college, and they serve as the major force once they are in their classrooms. Similarly, Kennedy (1997) states that the source of teachers' beliefs can be their life experiences, socialization processes, the individual difference in academic success and/or many other aspects. Kennedy also agrees with Zeichner and Tabachnick by stating that teachers "…already have what it takes to be a good teacher, and therefore they have little to learn from the formal study of teaching" (p.14). Bruner (1996) called this "folk pedagogy" reflecting some "wired-in human tendencies and some deeply ingrained beliefs" (p.46).

Farrell and Mom (2015) studied teachers' beliefs and practices about questioning in the classroom, relying on interview and observational data and found out that their beliefs and practices did not match totally. Kamiya (2018) investigated the teachers' belief in OCF's

'natural' aspect and saw that the word 'natural' might mean different features for every teacher. The researcher found out that some teachers considered OCF as a part of daily conversation; some consider it as an action which is done unconsciously and automatically; whereas some see it as a part of their job. Teachers who take OCF as a part of daily conversations use echoing and back-channelling, which correspond to recasts and clarification requests in OCF classification. On the other hand, teachers who see providing OCF as a part of their job mention to be using it consciously and appropriately for different situations. Lastly, the teachers who claim to be providing OCF automatically and unconsciously mention that they use all types of feedback for appropriateness of different error cases.

Demir and Özmen (2017) found a significant difference between native and non-native English-speaking teachers in terms of their preferences of different OCF types, their tolerance for errors and the amount of OCF they provide. It turned out that native English-speaking teachers were more tolerant towards errors and they prefer to correct intelligibility-hindering errors such as mispronunciation and lexical errors; whereas non-native English-speaking teachers are stricter towards errors and prefer correcting primarily grammatical errors. Every teacher holds a different view towards OCF; however, the point whether their beliefs match with their actual practices is not clear.

In their study, Al-Faki and Siddiek (2013) analyzed the beliefs of teachers towards OCF, observed their actual practices in classrooms and saw that they are neither parallel to each other; nor there is any significant relationship between the beliefs and practices of teachers in terms of OCF usage.

Borg (2003) showed with his study results that teachers' beliefs towards OCF had an impact on their practices; however, teachers' beliefs and practices who participated in his study did not match to Baştürkmen's (2012) study. Baştürkmen claims that it may be due to "automatic and generally unexamined behaviors" of teachers. (p.291).

Debreli and Onuk (2015) also worked with teachers at a university in Cyprus and wanted to see whether there is a mismatch between teachers' beliefs towards OCF and their practices. The results revealed that there was a mismatch between their preferences for OCF and practices. At the end of the study, teachers' main concern turned out to be task completion, which may be due to the inflexibility of the program, and thus, they mostly used direct and simple explicit correction; however, they could not enable self-correction or peer-correction despite seeing those feedback procedures very beneficial for students.

Demir and Özmen (2018) studied with 30 ELT students registered on an online course for training of OCF. Using the ADDIE model, student-teachers used different types of OCF in their microteaching, and their peers observed them while writing a reflection paper about their performance. It turned out that online course on OCF was beneficial for both performing and observing student-teachers as they used different types of OCF effectively and their peers could label the types of OCF also by reflecting on how they would practice them in their microteaching as well.

Ellis, Baştürkmen and Loewen (2001) conducted a study on focus-on-form episodes (FFE) of L2 learners considering its reactive and preemptive forms. Focus-on-form episodes can be divided into two categories such as proactive –in other words, planned- and incidental, which consists of reactive and preemptive FFE. Reactive focus-on-form occurs in the presence of an actual performance problem, which is addressed by the teacher or a peer. It provides learners with negative evidence, either explicitly or implicitly during negotiations. On the other hand, preemptive focus-on-form is started by either the teacher or the students even though there is not an actual error occurred. Preemptive focus-on-from addresses a perceived gap in students' interlanguages. Teacher-initiated focus-on-form starts with the teacher's prediction of a gap in students' knowledge, whether it is actual or not, shaped by a teacher's experience. In student-initiated focus-on-form episodes, the gap is real, and

according to Williams' (1999 as cited in Ellis et al., 2001) study, high-proficient learners start focus-on-form episodes more than low-proficient ones. However, it should be supported in the classrooms as the results of this study show that student-initiated FFE gained far more uptake than teacher-initiated FFE did.

Besides different beliefs of teachers regarding OCF, there is also another dimension to take into account in speaking classrooms; students' voices. According to some research, which is discussed in the next section, there can be a mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs regarding OCF.

2.4.2. The mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs regarding OCF.

Often errors are not corrected in classroom interactions, and one of the reasons is the conflict between students' and teachers' beliefs towards OCF. Garcia-Ponce and Mora-Pablo (2017) think that it may be possible to see OCF as something face-threatening for the students and thus limiting their oral production, similarly to Sung and Tsai's (2014) results revealing that teachers are concerned about interrupting the flow of communication while providing OCF.

According to Roothooft's (2014) study, teachers are not completely aware of which types of OCF should be used or to what amount of OCF use they actually go through. Teachers participating in this study claimed to have concerns in terms of causing negative affective responses. However, Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study which was carried out with 395 students and 46 teachers showed that general beliefs of teachers for not correcting each student error claiming that it is discouraging and too much for the students was proven not to be shared by the students. Students preferred to be corrected more than teachers thought they would like to. Besides, students claimed to be more positive towards explicit types of OCF than their teachers are, just like Gürbüz et al., (2017)'s study showing that both students

and teachers are in favor of OCF, but students demand more correction than their instructors thought.

Zhang, Zhang and Ma (2010) investigated the beliefs of teachers and students on OCF and found out many significant differences. First of all, the students claimed to think that every oral error they commit should be corrected while their teachers hold the point of the opposite. Teachers claimed to think that correcting each oral error might create frustration and result in low self-confidence of students. Secondly, while students give the most importance to lexical errors and then grammatical errors, and thirdly phonological errors; their teachers claimed to provide the highest amount of feedback to firstly lexical errors and then phonological and grammatical errors. Lastly, in general students seem to prefer explicit correction, but their teachers claim to try to provide different types of OCF such as explicit corrections for phonological and lexical errors, and metalinguistic clues for grammatical errors.

Unlike the studies that have been discussed above, Tomczyk (2013) wanted to listen to the voices of both students and teachers in terms of OCF. He found out that both students and teachers agreed on the point that pronunciational errors were the most important ones to be corrected, followed by grammatical errors. Lexical errors, on the other hand, were seen to be the least important type of error.

2.5. Preferences towards OCF.

As well as focusing on different types of errors to correct, teachers can have different opinions on which types of OCF to be used, when to use them and who would be better to provide them in their classes.

2.5.1. Preferences for Different Types of OCF. As it was discussed earlier, every teacher has a different teaching style and consequently has a different view and belief towards every different type of OCF. Sung and Tsai (2014) claim that there is not a specific type of

OCF that can show more success for learner uptake compared to other types of it; however, there are differences in terms of preference of teachers. The participant teachers in their study mentioned correcting phonological and lexical errors the most, and it was seen that recast was their favorite type of feedback; just like Öztürk' (2016) study results which show teachers' high tendency towards recast and explicit correction. Teachers participating in Öztürk's (2016) study mentioned ignoring some of the student errors due to the reasons such as unwillingness to interrupt the activity, unwillingness to affect students negatively, lack of knowledge on the very item or unwillingness to correct the same error.

Similarly, Dilan's (2016) study showed that teachers' initially thought that they were providing all types of OCF, but that explicit corrections and isolated recasts were the dominating type of OCF accompanied by repetition and elicitation.

Long (2001) states that recasts may be preferred by the students since they are less face-threatening and not interrupting the flow of interaction. Lochtman (2003) conducted a study in an analytical teaching setting; in other words, where English is taught with a focus-on-form. The teachers participating in the study were seen to be using mostly metalinguistic feedback and elicitation to let students correct themselves, which results in the negotiation of form.

Sarandi (2016) wanted to work on OCF by dividing it into two; as input-providing –ready-made correct exemplars/recasts- and output-triggering –requiring students to work out the correct form/prompts. The researchers' study reveals that teachers preferred explicit correction or metalinguistic feedback when they think the language feature is new for the learner. However, if it is the opposite case, they preferred prompts to let students self-correct as prompts may result in self-correction better than recasts. (Lyster et al.,1997). Sarandi suggests providing explicit correction and metalinguistic information just before giving students prompts, such as elicitation or repetition to scaffold self-correction gradually.

After 10 hours of classroom observation of learning Chinese as a foreign language, Fu and Nassaji (2016) identified 12 types of OCF used such as the following: recast, clarification requests, translation, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, asking a direct question, repetition, directing the question to others, re-ask by asking the original question, using L1-English and multiple feedback. Some of these types led to great uptake such as directing the question to others and using L1-English by full uptake. Recast was the most frequently used type of OCF, which is followed by metalinguistic feedback as the focus of the lesson was grammar. However, the highest uptake was gathered through the least frequently used types of OCF, namely clarification requests and elicitations. Students' and teachers' perception on the other hand, was not matching as students thought they had received more feedback than the actual amount and teacher thought s/he was providing more feedback than s/he actually was.

The study of Kamiya (2014) showed that teachers preferred the implicit type of feedback not to 'humiliate' learners and their actual practices and beliefs were matching. In another study, Ananda, Febriyanti, Yamin and Mu'in (2017) saw that the most frequently preferred type of OCF was repetition, and it is preferred to be given individually to the students.

Safari (2013) observed an English EFL class with an Iranian teacher in Kuwait for 16 hours. Recast was the dominantly used type of OCF by 51%, which is followed by elicitation with 21%, and repetition with 18%. However, the highest amount of uptake was gained by explicit correction, elicitation, and clarification requests by full percentage followed by repetition. However, recasts led to little uptake. The most uptake gathering feedback types were used by the teacher rarely. Nikoopour et al.'s (2014) study showed that phonological and grammatical errors were treated with recasts and explicit correction for a 'natural flow of

communication'. While explicit correction was the most frequently used type of OCF, metalinguistic feedback did not seem to be favored by the teachers.

According to Yang's (2016) study, teachers favored recast and explicit correction the most for phonological, lexical and grammatical errors. Panova and Lyster (2002) also conducted observational classroom research in which they observed the classroom for 10 hours with 1716 student turns, and 1641 teacher turns. They found that that the teacher prefered recast the most and translation, which leads to a low rate of learner uptake and low rate of repair.

As can be seen above, there is no single preferable type of OCF that is valid for all teachers or learners. It can change due to teachers' experience and beliefs as well as different students' different reactions. While researching on different types of OCF preferences, researchers also compared the effects of different types of OCF on students' academic performance in various areas. This issue will be dealt with in the following section.

2.5.2. International studies on the effect of OCF type on student achievement.

Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) wanted to compare the effects of prompts and recasts on students in a dyadic interactional context with native or native-like French teachers via a form-focused instruction where the target form of the study was grammatical gender. They predicted that the group that received prompts would make better progress than the recast group since they claim that prompts enable students to better processing while pushing themselves to retrieve the target forms and leading to a chance for a modified output whereas recasts cannot. They also point out that recasts would suit better in communicative classrooms where the flow of communication and students' attention for meaning should not be disturbed. On the other hand, prompts would suit better in focus-on-form classrooms as they provide negative evidence to students to draw their attention from meaning to form. It is also stated in the article that recasts of lexical and phonological errors can be more noticeable for students

rather than recasts of morphosyntactic errors. (Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor, & Mackey, 2006; Han, 2008; Lyster, 2001; Mackey, Gass and McDonough, 2000 as cited in Lyster et al., 2009).

However, what Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) found out was different from what they had predicted. Their analysis showed that both of the groups made quite similar progress even though they were treated with different types of feedback. They attribute recasts' success to the claim of Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) as when learners approach language like an object to study, they are more likely to grasp the corrective aspect of recasts and therefore; utilize the negative evidence out of them.

For the prompt group, on the other hand, Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) attributed their efficiency to not the exposure to positive evidence of the target forms but the constant exposure to negative evidence leading to modified input. Thus, even though both of the groups had similar progress, their processing procedures were different.

Ellis et al. (2006) wanted to compare metalinguistic feedback as a type of explicit type of OCF and recast as an implicit type of OCF. Their study results which were gathered through grammaticality judgement test, oral elicited imitation test and a test for measuring metalinguistic knowledge showed that explicit feedback was more effective in learning than recast or no feedback.

Similarly, Rahimi and Zhang (2016) worked with three groups of participants, and their teachers provided the first group with recasts, the second group with prompts and the control group with no feedback. The results revealed that for grammatical errors, the group who received prompts had the highest scores in both immediate and delayed post-tests; and the group who received recast outperformed the control group in those tests. Because prompts trigger output, noticing the error and self-repair, whereas recasts only provide the corrected utterance of the student, these findings may not be surprising.

Yang and Lyster (2010) worked on recasts and prompts similarly to Rahimi et al. by focusing on past tense forms and showed that prompts were more effective than recasts or no feedback in terms of accuracy of the target forms.

Ammar and Spada (2006) studied recast and prompts by conducting a study with 64 students and found out that prompts benefited students more effectively than recasts in general. However, they also discovered that this was valid for low-proficient learners. On the other hand, high-proficient learners benefited from recasts and prompts equally; which may be a result of the claim that high analytical learners can notice and process recasts better than low analytical learners (Lyster, 2018).

Tamayo and Cajas (2017) worked on two participant groups, one of which was provided with metalinguistic feedback and the other of which was provided with recasts. The results revealed that metalinguistic feedback was far more beneficial for students than recasts. This was also reaffirmed by the same data that metalinguistic feedback led to the highest rate of uptake and self-repair; whereas recast led to the least.

Zhao (2013) had two groups of participants from a Chinese state university and discovered that the participants who were treated with recast outperformed the control group in terms of accuracy, and learners with higher phonological short-term memory were able to benefit from recast better and maintain more information longer in their short-term memory thanks to this type. These results support the previous studies mentioned above, which shows the efficacy of recasts on phonological linguistic features.

Ammar (2008) compared recasts and prompts through an oral picture-describing task and fill-in-the-blank activity to reapply oral task four weeks later. With the results of the study, it was seen that prompts helped learners more than recasts to be able to move up to the higher stages of possessive determiner scale which was achieved by only two-thirds of the

learners who were treated with a recast. Prompts were more useful for learners to retrieve possessive determiner input faster than recasts.

Fatemi and Harati (2014) were also in a large group of researchers who compared the efficacy of recasts and prompts. Their results showed that negative evidence that is mostly provided by prompts contributed to the learners' development significantly. While prompts group performed better in the post-test than the recast group along with the most self-repair, recast group outperformed the control group despite not leading to initiate any self-repair at all.

Carroll and Swain (1993) studied with 100 adult Spanish learners of English with the target form of English dative. Group A was treated with explicit metalinguistic information, and other groups were treated with either implicit negative evidence, that is, clarification requests or no feedback. It turned out that Group A outperformed all the other groups; and even in Guchte, Rijlaarsdam, Braaksma and Bimmel's (2015) study which was conducted on German comparatives, it was seen that prompts were more effective than recasts.

Dekhinet (2008) conducted a noteworthy study bringing native speakers of English (NS) as tutors and non-native speakers (NNS) of English as tutees on an online chat program; MSN. NNSs of the study were intermediate level students who had no NS of English friends or teachers before the study and NSs of the study were students from the University of Dundee. Results showed that only 2.02% of NNSs' self-correction occurred. Instead, NNSs noticed and reacted to their NS tutors' enhanced corrective feedback –either implicit or explicit- by 93.3%. It was also shown that NNSs produced more elaborated turns, but with fewer requests for clarification compared to NSs.

Rahimi and Zhang (2016) investigated the effects of incidental unfocused recasts and prompts on students' grammatical accuracy applying both oral interviews and TOEFL grammar test. As most of the other studies showed, recasts and prompts groups outperformed

the control group; whereas prompts group left the recast group behind. These researchers attribute these findings to the result of prompts' being more facilitative for student-generated repair and prompts' requirement to draw attention to forms explicitly, which contributes to better grammar accuracy.

Poorahmadi and Ghariblaki (2017) were also among the researchers who wanted to compare recasts with clarification requests. Their results showed that students who received recasts performed better than the control group. However, the group receiving clarification requests outperformed the other groups which supports Lyster's (2018) statement as "Good teachers tend to use clarification requests". According to Lyster, clarification requests may be contributing to better mental processing leading to more uptake.

Ellis and Sheen (2006) claim that to define recasts is such a hard task since they take different forms and functions. However, it is by far the most frequently used type of OCF with an average of 60% in EFL contexts (Sheen, 2004 as cited in Ellis et al., 2006). Recasts provide learners with positive evidence which, according to Shwartz (1993) is the key to the acquisition of competence, in other words, implicit knowledge. On the other hand, it is also believed that raising consciousness by providing explicit knowledge can also support learners' interlanguage development. However, recasts can be confused with repetition. Lyster et al. claim that learners may need to be informed about being corrected. Otherwise, they can assume that recasts are only the repetition of their own utterances and should be given enough time to self-correct to produce uptake.

Loewen and Philp (2006) studied on recasts as the most commonly used type of OCF which according to Lyster (2004) is similar to the language patterns the parents' use while they are raising their children. According to the researchers, the ambiguity of recasts can be decreased by discoursal, prosodic or phrasal cues provided by the teacher. Recasts were found to be varying in terms of implicitness, and this situation may influence their efficacy. On the

other hand, Ellis et al. (2006) state that recasts should not be considered as implicit. Instead, it should be considered in a "continuum of linguistic implicitness-explicitness" (p. 583). It depends on the receiver's perspective, according to Ellis et al. Recasts, if treated as explicit corrections, can make it easier for learners to reflect on the patterns and rules. If treated as otherwise, recasts may not raise awareness of the rules. However again, recasts, which only focus on a single linguistic feature, can be distinguished from repetition with the help of emphatic stress. Although Lyster, Lightbown and Spada (2000) agree with the other researchers in terms of recasts' potential ambiguity with conversational moves, they suggest making recasts more salient in the classrooms by some means such as shortening the students' utterances to make it easier for them to locate their errors or by adding stress to the errors for emphasis.

Nassaji (2017) targeted the structure of articles in English in his study and applied intensive recast, which was provided for only article errors, to one group; and extensive recast, which is provided for any error besides article errors, to the other group. The results of the study showed that on oral picture-description task and grammaticality judgement test, extensive recast group did far better than the control group while intensive recast group could not. It shows that recasts can be provided for a wide range of errors and still be beneficial.

Han (2002) grouped four conditions in which recasts can be more successful. The first one requires individualized attention as this study was conducted in a special lab and participants received special attention from the teacher, which made recasts more effective. The second one is *consistent focus*, which refers to tense consistency. It was seen that when the same tenses were used while providing recasts, students were able to react to them easily. The third condition is the developmental readiness of the learners to be able to process recasts and finally intensity of recast usage referring to exposing students to a high frequency of recasts along with salience of linguistic items. Salience can be defined as "particular

characteristics that seem to make an item more visually or auditorily prominent than another" (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 33).

To research on recast, Leeman (2003) worked with 74 participants and created four interactive learning conditions for them consisting the elements as the following: recasts along with negative evidence, negative evidence alone, increased salience of positive evidence alone, and finally unenhanced positive evidence. She found out that the groups who were provided with recasts and increased salience of positive evidence outperformed the other groups. These findings reveal that recast utility is born by an increased salience of positive evidence, but not by the recast's implicit negative evidence. It also means, contrary to some research, recasts can promote L2 development to a better extent than unenhanced positive evidence.

Moghaddam and Behjat (2014) compared over-correction, which means pointing out the parts of utterances which are inaccurate with recasts, on one group with the control group in terms of grammar performance and saw that there is not a significant difference in the performances of these two groups of learners. However, they also compared declarative and interrogative recasts. Declarative recasts state that learner's utterance is incorrect by repeating the same utterance or providing new statements. Interrogative recasts state that the learner's utterance is incorrect by clarification requests. Their study revealed that more than half of Iranian EFL learners, whose proficiency level was intermediate, prefer interrogative recasts to declarative ones.

Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) note that in real life conversations, it is very natural to repeat the utterances of the interlocutors to show that they are being paid attention to and students may confuse recasts with this kind of repetitions.

Fiori (2005) conducted a study with 27 state university and applied synchronous computer-mediated communication sessions besides pre-tests and post-tests. Dividing

participants into two groups, the researcher wanted to use meaning-focused (MF) instruction to one group and form-and-meaning-focused (FMF) to the other group. The focus of the study was to raise consciousness for the FMF group to see whether raising consciousness benefits grammatical development. Students were required to come to the class on time for chat sessions, but the FMF group was also requested to review the target structures along with preparing the pre-chat questions before coming. During the sessions, the FMF group was treated with recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, whereas the MF group was treated with only recasts and clarification requests as they were not focusing on forms. The findings of the study indicated that raising consciousness for FMF instruction for grammar contributed to the grammatical development significantly as FMF group test and chat results showed more accurate production of the target forms and a higher level of syntactic success thanks to being treated with a wide variety of feedback.

Hawkes and Nassaji (2016) compared two groups of participants receiving recast and no feedback. They measured both the progress and students' reaction time to detect and correct their errors. It was seen that students receiving recasts were more successful at correcting and faster at detection of the errors compared to the control group.

Saggara and Abbuhl (2018) examined 218 Anglophone teachers of beginner Spanish learners to compare the efficacy of recast with no recast, enhanced recast and utterance rejection via computer-administered feedback in written or oral mode. To sum up all the results, it turned out that recasts led to more learner repair and target-like utterances and the researchers added that to make computer-delivered recasts more effective, instead of providing only typographical information, oral input enhancement and promoting higher working memory should be considered. They also found out that students with higher working memory outperformed all others in the other groups since processing a recast requires recalling both one's initial utterance and the recast he/she has just received.

Revesz (2012) compared the recast group's success with the control group's success in terms of oral, written and grammar skills. It was seen that recasts are very effective in oral production but not in written production and grammaticality judgement test.

Parlak and Ziegler (2016) wanted to see the effects of recasts on phonological development, particularly lexical stress. They had four groups: a) synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) recast group, b) SCMC control group, c) face-to-face (FTF) recast group, and d) FTF control group. Although they did not find any significant difference in terms of phonological development amongst these groups, all the participants agreed that receiving recast on SCMC is less stressful than receiving recast face-to-face.

Üzüm (2015) studied with 32 lower-intermediate level classes and wanted one of the groups to be treated with recast via the aural channel, the other group to be treated with recast via the visual channel and the last group to be provided with recast via both of these channels. For instance, in the picture description tasks, students were shown some cards on which the verbs and time phrases were written to be formed into a sentence by adding an agent by the students. Group A (aural recast) was corrected by being told the correct form of the verb by the instructor. Group V (visual recast) was corrected by being shown only the orthography of the corrected form of the verb that was written on the other side of the card. Finally, Group AV (aural and visual recast) was provided with both the orthography and instructor's oral correction of the verb. The results showed that learners on Group V and Group AV retained the visual information more successfully than Group A. They could also recall the corrected form of the verb more easily and use it when making output. Comparing the first groups, Group AV performed better than Group V outperforming all groups in both pre-tests and post-tests with the lowest loss of the information shown in the delayed post-test.

Yoshida (2008) studied learners' perceptions of OCF in relation to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis and understanding of OCF usage of those learners' partners'. The results of the

study revealed that even though students reformulate their utterances, indicating that they noticed their errors, some of the students mentioned not having understood their peers' OCF. According to the data, errors were shown to be noticed; however, not fully understood.

2.5.3. Turkish studies on the effect of OCF type on student achievement. Yılmaz (2013) worked with 80 EFL learners and distributed them into groups such as explicit-only feedback, implicit-only feedback, mixed feedback and control group with no feedback. There was not a significant difference between the mixed feedback and explicit-only feedback groups' post-test results and these two groups outperformed all the other groups. Yılmaz argued that this result might be due to the increased salience of negative evidence and correct forms provided by explicit and mixed feedback compared to what is provided by implicit feedback.

In Özmen and Aydın's (2005) study, it was seen that student-teachers favored recasts the most for grammatical errors, whereas they preferred using explicit correction for pronunciational errors and metalinguistic feedback for vocabulary errors. Yılmaz and Yüksel (2011) conducted a study and worked with 24 native speakers of English who were required to study 51 Turkish words on vocabulary learning tasks. The participants who scored above 60% met with the researchers, and then they completed two communicative tasks one of which is face-to-face and the other is text-based computer-mediated (SCMC) task while both of the groups received recasts. The results showed that receiving recasts on text-based SCMC benefited more for learners than receiving recasts face-to-face. That might be a result of text-based SCMC's advantage for learners to re-read the current and previous recast consisting of messages. In this way, they were able to consider different interpretations of recasts and explore them.

As it is seen, there is a wide variety of research done on recasts than any other type of OCF. Since recasts seem to be the most commonly used type of feedback, it might be normal to work more on its effects and comparisons with others.

***2.5.3. Preferences of different timings of OCF*.** There are also different views on when to provide OCF by students and different teachers. Özmen et al. (2005) worked with student-teachers in Turkey, and they have seen that student-teachers prefer immediate correction if the error case is about accuracy. However, they preferred delayed correction if the case is on fluency.

Dabaghi (2006) wanted to know whether there is a significant difference in terms of the effectiveness of immediate and delayed correction, along with explicit and implicit correction. His study revealed no significant difference in the effectiveness of immediate and delayed correction, but it was seen that there was a significant difference between explicit and implicit feedback. The former was seen to be enabling students to score significantly higher in the individualized retelling tests than the learners who received implicit correction.

Long (2007) suggests to use immediate corrective feedback to enable students to be aware of their wrong utterances and give a chance to them for self-correction. Willis and Willis (2007), on the other hand, prefer delayed correction with the concerns of breaking the flow of the conversation. Instead, delayed correction can be given for presentation classes for the most benefit.

In Gürbüz et al.'s (2017) study, it was seen that both students and teachers favored after task correction, which is a preferable implicit type. Zhang et al. (2010) also mentioned that it seems for students that to treat phonological errors, immediate feedback could be the best, but for lexical and grammatical errors, they prefer delayed correction whereas teachers reported to prefer utilizing delayed correction for both phonological and grammatical errors. Havranek (2002) claims that the success of OCF is influenced by different situations.

According to his study, if learners repeat the correct version of the utterance just after the feedback provided by the teacher or the peer, it is most likely to actualize learning. Tomzczyk's (2013) study, teachers mentioned preferring delayed correction considering immediate correction as disruptive. According to Bagheridoust and Kotlar (2015), feedback should be constant and provided to the learner at regular or with frequent intervals for weeks or months. It should be timely and provided to the students immediately and at proper times. Finally, it should be manageable for students having sufficient time for processing the feedback.

To sum up, there are also different views on when to provide OCF among different researchers and teachers, which can also be affected by learners' beliefs.

2.5.4. Preferences of different sources of OCF. When we come to the point of different views on who should provide OCF, Boyno, Akıl and Dolaş (2013) claim that if teachers want to have a native-like atmosphere and interaction in the classrooms, they should focus on meaning rather than form when providing OCF. They suggest letting self-correction first, then peer-correction the second and providing feedback as a teacher as a last resort.

Mendez and Reyes Cruz (2012) showed in their study that their students preferred feedback by their instructors the most like Kaivanpanah et al. claimed, peer feedback the second and self-correction the least which may cause less repair as teacher feedback enables less noticing compared to self-correction and peer-feedback.

Alhaysony (2016) also suggests giving teacher correction first, if not possible, enabling students to self-correct the second and finally peer-correction due to the concerns of causing negative feelings on students. Zhang et al. also mentioned that both students and teachers participating in their study preferred teacher-correction for any error type. In Tomczyk's (2013) study, students preferred teacher-provided feedback because teachers are considered to be the ultimate authority.

Sato (2016) investigated the effects of peer interaction on grammar and lexis development. The participants preferred being given OCF for lexical errors by 68% compared to grammatical errors. This type of interaction was seen to be beneficial for students in terms of improving vocabulary and producing more output.

Zuo (2017) studied with 42 freshmen at a vocational college in China. The researcher wanted to create an environment in which no teacher correction is available but peer correction and self-correction. They had two tasks: speaking and writing. They recorded their speaking task and handed it in on a tape while writing task is handed in on paper. Before handing in the tape, students talked in their groups while the other members of the group were taking notes on the pronunciational errors or inaccurate expressions without correcting the speaker. After handing in the tape, all the tapes were distributed to others to revise their own tapes and the others'. After this stage, it was seen that revising their own tapes and listening to the others' sample speeches enabled students to correct their errors consciously by themselves. For some of the errors which were not easy for them to notice, the teacher organized a summary of rules with the help of his/her observation during the group discussions to explain to the whole class later. This study shows that self-correction can be achieved by facilitating and selecting appropriate materials.

Ellis (2009) also supports self-correction in congruence with Lyster (2006) who favors using prompts in classrooms as they lead to more self-correction. In contrast, Kaivanpanah, Mohammad Alavi and Sepehrinia (2015) support that peer feedback can create negative feelings on the students, whereas their students were generally positive towards such feedback.

2.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, as well as defining OCF, variables affecting it, teachers' beliefs towards it and preferences of its different types, timings and sources were discussed and

elaborated on. It was important to go into detail to be able to depict a clear picture of the variety of different features of OCF and reflect on them for the sake of the present study results.

Chapter III

Methodology

3.0. Introduction.

The main purpose of the study is to investigate university EFL instructors' beliefs towards OCF, their students' beliefs, and what their actual practices are in terms of usage of different types, different timings and sources of OCF. Moreover, it sought to find out whether there was a significant relationship between FLSA level of students and their beliefs towards OCF.

This chapter aims to present the research questions and research design. In addition, the details about the participants of the study, the instruments which are used for collecting data, the procedures of data collection and data analysis are discussed.

3.1. Research design.

As the main purposes of the study are to analyze the beliefs of teachers and students towards OCF and compare the actual practices of teachers with their beliefs; the design of the present study is a mixed type which consists of collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data. As Brown (2014) claimed, separating quantitative and qualitative research methods is rooted from a false dichotomy, and there is a need to combine those methods to cross-validate each other. Riazi and Candlin (2014) also point out this in their statement: "the current thrust in research principles and methodologies favors a synergistic and more pragmatic mixed-methods approach to research and knowledge production." (p. 139).

According to Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska and Creswell's (2005) classification of mixed-method research designs, this study will be based on concurrent triangulation design. Specifically, first quantitative data will be collected and compared; second, qualitative data will be collected and compared with the quantitative data. It is required to collect quantitative data about the teachers' and students' perceptions of OCF through similar questionnaires.

Additionally, observations of teachers' who are conducting speaking lessons at this state university are required to be able to compare their perceptions with their practices.

The research questions of the present study are as follows:

1. What are the general perceptions of students and instructors regarding OCF?
2. What types of OCF do instructors believe they use?
3. What types of OCF do instructors actually use in classrooms?
4. Do instructors' beliefs and observed practices match?
5. a. What types of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

5. b. What types of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

5. c. What are the differences between instructors' and students' beliefs about the types of OCF?

6. a. Which timing of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

6. b. Which timing of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

6. c. What are the differences between the instructors and students beliefs about the timing of OCF?

7. a. Which source of OCF do instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

7. b. Which source of OCF do students believe to be the most beneficial?

7. c. What are the differences between the instructors and students beliefs about the sources of OCF?

8. What types of OCF bring about student repair?

3.2. Context and participants.

3.2.1 Context. The current study was conducted in the Preparatory English Department of the School of Foreign Languages of a large, state-run university in Northwestern Turkey. At the beginning of the year, the students are selected and put in

different levels of classes through a Placement Test, which is prepared and applied by the school. Most of the students are selected for elementary level classes, some of the students are selected for pre-intermediate level classes and few of them are selected as intermediate level learners. For this study, pre-intermediate level students are chosen as it is thought that they can represent better data appealing for the general success of the school. These students are exposed to a skill-based instruction, which is composed of writing, reading, listening and speaking skills along with grammar and vocabulary elements of language. They have seven hours of listening and speaking lessons a week, five hours of grammar, five hours of reading, five hours of writing lessons and two hours of vocabulary instruction. During the term, they are responsible for two listening and speaking mid-terms, five performance tasks on speaking and a final speaking task for the end of the term.

3.2.2. Participants. There are two groups of participants participating in the study which are namely instructors and students at a preparation school of a state university in Turkey.

3.2.2.1. Instructors. Six instructors, two of whom are native speakers of English and four of whom are nonnative speakers participated in the study. One of the native speaker instructors is from the US, and the other native speaker participant is from Australia. Among the nonnative speaker instructors, one of them is from Syria, and other participants are Turkish. One of the six instructors is a male teacher, and other instructors are female. All of the instructors had more than ten years of teaching English as a foreign language, and five of the instructors have at least five years of teaching experience in this school.

3.2.2.2. Students. The students who participated in the study were 107 (female=64; male=43) pre-intermediate students from the preparatory department of the School of Foreign Languages involved in the current study. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 24. The

students will continue to have their majors at engineering, veterinary and other faculties once they complete their preparation year at this school.

3.2.3. The role of the researcher.

The researcher tried to facilitate participants in case of confusion about questionnaire items while collecting quantitative data without being intervening. During the qualitative data collection procedure, the researcher observed the classroom without any interference or making comments on OCF practices.

3.4. Instruments

To collect data on beliefs of teachers and students, a questionnaire designed for teachers (see Appendix A) and a questionnaire designed for students (app. B) by Fukuda (2004) were adapted into Turkish of which the content was revised and approved by a Turkish expert was applied.

3.4.1. Pilot Study. The questionnaire was piloted with 23 pre-intermediate students from the same school, and according to SPSS statistics program, the reliability of the instrument was seen to be .83 of Cronbach's alpha. The two questionnaires are almost identical in terms of format and content. The questionnaires consist of Likert-Scale items measuring the perceptions of beliefs and a few multiple choice questions; 23 questions for teachers and 23 questions besides eight questions of FLSA measuring items for students in total. For the audio-recording of the observations, a personal computer and a voice-recorder were used at the same time put in different angles of the classrooms to have a better result and quality.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

The research design is a mixed-type design; therefore, there has been a quantitative data collection procedure as well as a qualitative data collection procedure. Table 1 presents the data sources for each RQ.

Table 1

Data sources for each RQ

Research Questions	Data Sources
1. What are the general perceptions of students and instructors regarding OCF?	Instrument (Items 1,2,3)
2. What types of OCF do instructors believe they use?	Instrument (Items 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20)
3. What types of OCF do instructors actually use in classrooms?	Classroom Observation
4. Do instructors' beliefs and observed practices match?	Instrument + Classroom Observation
4. What types of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?	Instrument (13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20)
5. Which timing of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?	Instrument Items (4, 5, 6, 7)
6. Which source of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?	Instrument (21, 22, 23)

7.	What types of OCF bring about student repair?	Classroom Observation

3.5.1. Quantitative data collection procedures. To collect data in answer to RQs 1, 4, 5, and 6, the questionnaire (Fukuda, 2004) was administered to the six Listening and Speaking instructors who volunteered to participate in the study (four Turkish questionnaires for Turkish teachers, and two English questionnaires for foreign teachers). They were encouraged to contact the researcher for clarification if necessary. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to six pre-intermediate classes to collect data in answer to RQs 4, 5, and 6. The researcher was present in each class while the participants were filling the questionnaires to offer clarification if necessary.

3.5.2. Qualitative data collection procedures. At the beginning of the spring term of the 2018 – 2019 educational year, one of the six pre-intermediate classes' listening and speaking lessons were observed with the help of the observation checklist (app. C). This checklist consist of different types of OCF along with different timings and sources is prepared to be used during the observations. It shows which type of OCF is used how many times, by whom and when it is used along with whether it brings about uptake or not. The checklist was designed to be able to measure the frequency of each type of feedback occurring during the observations and to compare them with each other along with their timing and their potential for uptake-gathering. The agents providing the OCF were also addressed in the checklist, along with what type of errors the OCF is provided for. The design of the checklist was done by the researcher. It was based on the RQs of the present study and the researcher also tried to reflect on the items on the questionnaires to be able to create a proper comparison between the quantitative and qualitative data.

There was a three-week-long winter break between the two procedures. Observations of the speaking lessons were done randomly as the content of the lesson was not taken into

account. The observational process took a week. All the procedures of data collection were conducted by the researcher to make sure that these processes were followed in accordance with the aim of the current study. It must be stressed at this point that to maintain an ethical approach in the qualitative data procedure; the participants were asked if they would consent to have their lessons recorded for analysis purposes. When they did not give their consent, the researcher was obliged to limit the observation to the checklist that was completed in situ. This situation limits the depth of the observational data.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures.

3.6.1. Quantitative data analysis procedures. The quantitative data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Version 23. Descriptive statistics were used to find out the means for each item. Then the means of the items that are answered by students and instructors were compared. Due to the low number of instructors in proportion to students, it was not feasible to run any inferential statistical tests on the data. Hence, comparisons were made manually.

***3.6.2. Qualitative data analysis procedures*.** Frequency analysis was used to analyze the observational data that were collected using the checklist. Specifically, the data in the checklists were categorized through Lyster and Saito's (2010) taxonomy of OCF. In this way, it was possible to observe which type of OCF was used how often, when, by whom, and whether it is followed by a learner uptake or repair.

Chapter IV

Results

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The present research aimed at investigating the perceptions of students and instructors about OCF types, timing and sources; along with observing instructors' actual classroom practices.

4.1. General Perceptions of Students and Instructors Regarding OCF

The descriptive analysis showed that 91% of the students preferred being corrected by selecting the options such as often (45.4%), always (36.1%), sometimes (13.0%) and never (5.6%). Moreover, they stated that they approached receiving OCF with contentment (76.9%) the most, and shame with a percentage of 17.6, anger (2.8%) and indifference (2.8%). On the contrary, their speaking course instructors do not share the same opinion as they show a strong hesitation towards providing OCF by having a mean of 2.6 for the item measuring their general attitude towards providing OCF. Three out of six instructors selected the option that errors should be corrected often, two out of six instructors preferred correcting errors sometimes and one out of six instructors preferred rare correction. Students and instructors did not have the same opinion about how learners feel towards receiving OCF either. Four out of six instructors stated that students would feel shame and only two out of six instructors agreed with the students about their contentment towards receiving OCF.

According to descriptive analysis, students prefer their meaning-hindering errors to be corrected the most (4.1), secondly the common errors (3.9), then individual errors (3.5) and errors which are not common (3.5), and finally, errors which are not meaning-hindering (3.3) come. The instructors had also presented similar results by stating to prefer correcting common errors the most (4.3), meaning-hindering errors (3.8) the second, and finally

individual errors (3.3). The instructors do not seem to be willing to correct errors which are not meaning-hindering or common (2.0).

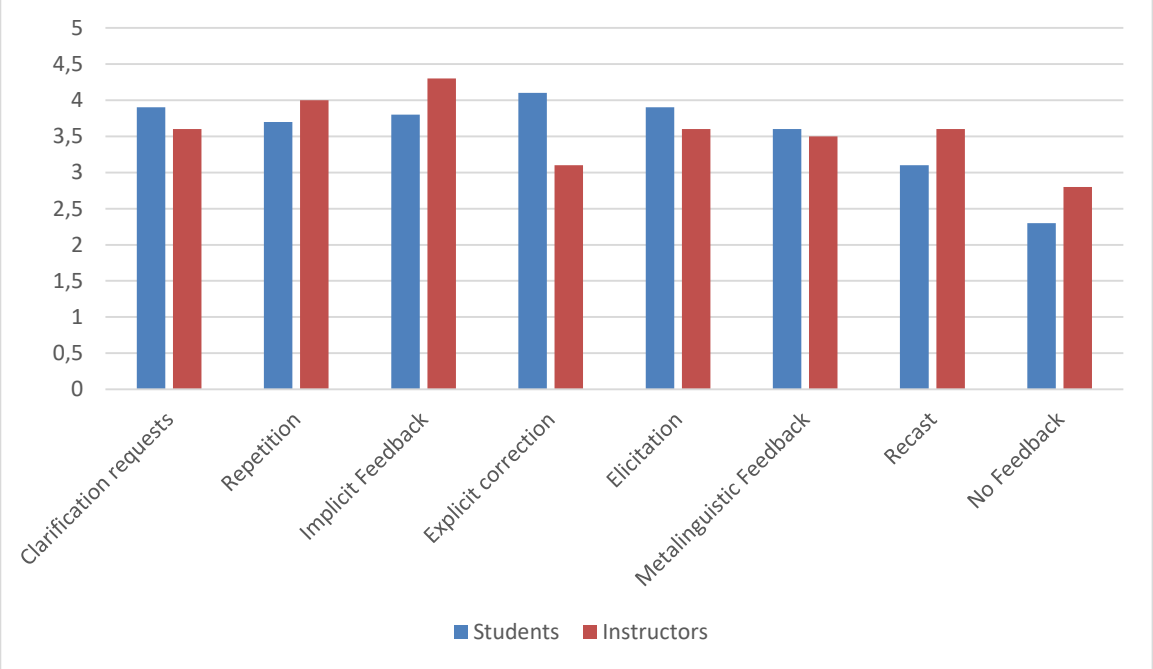
4.2. Types of OCF.

4.2.1. Types of OCF instructors believe to be beneficial. When instructors' preferences of different types of OCF are analyzed, implicit type of correction was seen to be the most favorite type with a mean of 4.3. Secondly, they stated preferring to use repetition (4.0). Following that, the instructors preferred elicitation, recast and clarification requests equally with a mean of 3.6. Lastly, they chose metalinguistic feedback (3.5) to use in their classes. Surprisingly, the instructors seemed to be unsure about using explicit correction (3.1) which was the students' most favorite type of OCF. Finally, the instructors did not support a classroom environment without feedback (2.8).

4.2.2. Types of OCF students believe to be beneficial. The students' preferences for type of OCF are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

The preferences of students and instructors on different types of OCF



After descriptive analysis, it was seen that there is no significant difference in preferences among the different types of OCF for students. The participants preferred to receive explicit correction the most with a mean of 4.1 along with clarification requests (3.9) and elicitations (3.9). Fourthly, they preferred receiving implicit correction (3.8), then repetition (3.7), and metalinguistic feedback (3.6). However, the participants were not sure about receiving recasts (3.1), and they did not prefer receiving no feedback at all (2.3).

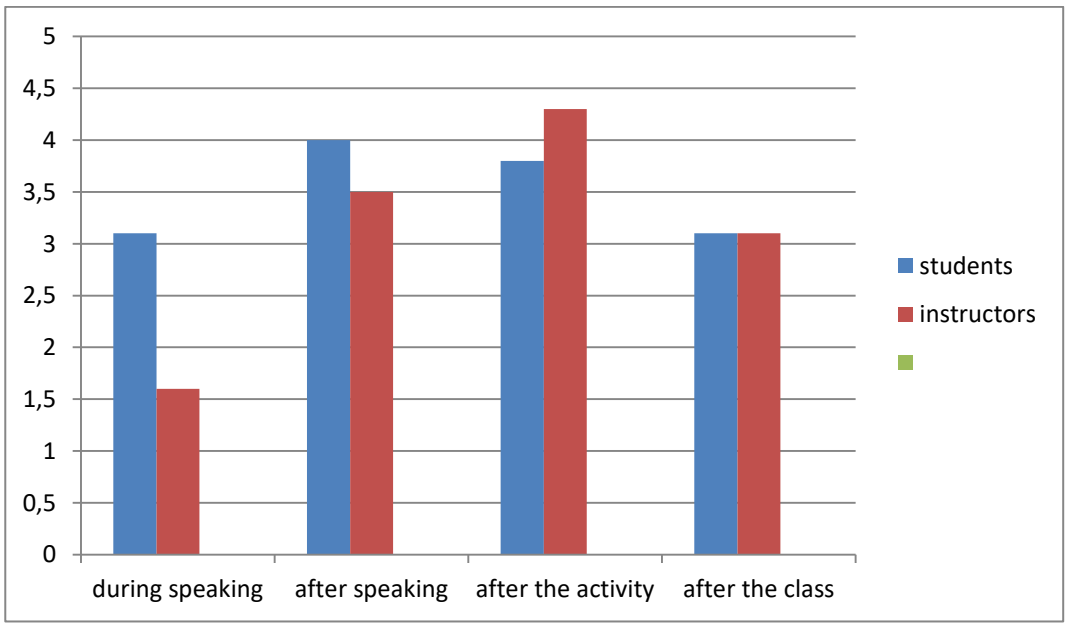
4.3. Timing of OCF.

4.3.1. Timing of OCF instructors believe to be beneficial. The instructors had similar opinions with students in terms of preferable timing of OCF. They preferred to correct students after activities (4.3) the most, and after they finished speaking (3.5). They were not sure about correcting them after class (3.1), and they did not prefer correction at the moment of speaking (1.6).

4.3.2. Timing of OCF students believes to be beneficial. The students' preferences for the timing of OCF are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2.

The preferences of students and instructors on different timings of OCF



Descriptive analysis showed that students prefer to be corrected after they finish speaking, with a mean of 4.0, and after the activity is finished (3.8) the most. Besides, they are not sure about being corrected at the moment of speaking (3.1) and after class (3.1).

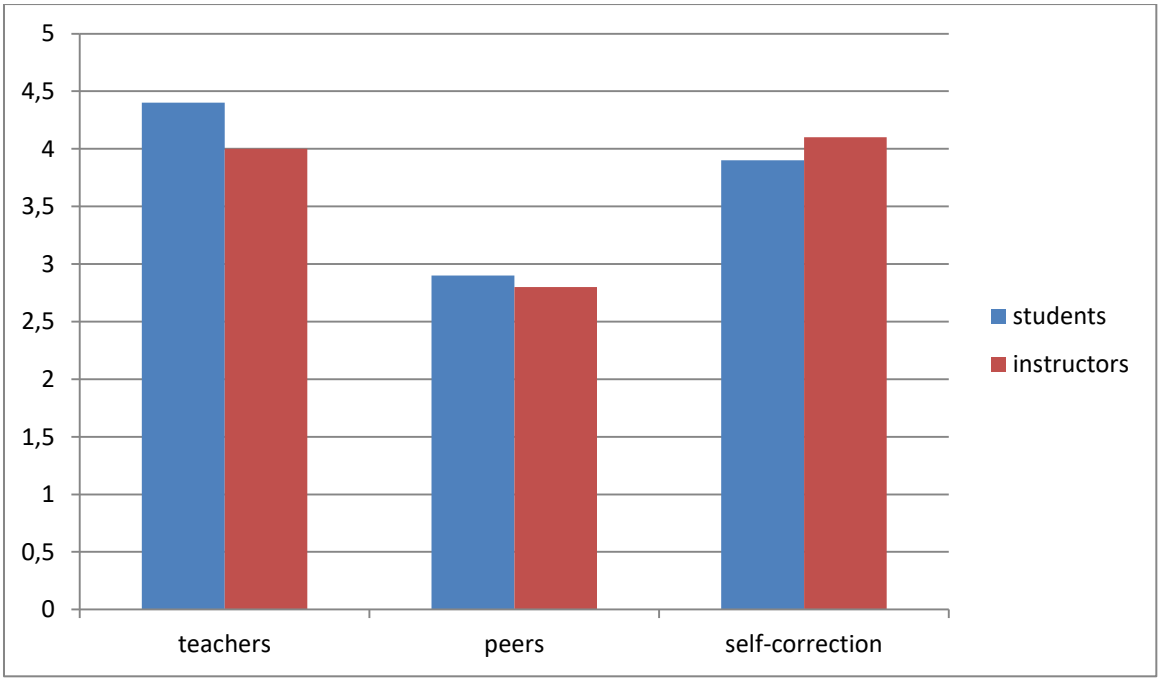
4.4. Source of OCF.

4.4.1. Source of OCF instructors believe to be beneficial. When it comes to the preferences of who to provide OCF, a difference was observed between students and instructors. The instructors prefer to see self-correction in their classes the most (4.1) and to provide OCF by themselves (4.0). Finally, they do not seem to be considering to let peer correction much (2.8).

4.4.2. Source of OCF students believe to be beneficial. Students, on the other hand, prefer their teachers to provide OCF the most (4.4), then they prefer self-correction with a high mean of 3.9. However, they do not consider their peers as a good source of OCF (2.9) as it is shown in Figure 3 below**:**

Figure 3.

The preferences of students and instructors on different sources of OCF.



4.5. Profiles of instructors regarding OCF preferences.

Six instructors, four of whom were non-native and two of whom were native speakers of English volunteered to participate in the observation of classroom practices. The results of the comparisons of instructors' beliefs and classroom practices are discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.5.1. Reported beliefs of participants regarding OCF. The results of the interviews with the instructors are summarized in Table 2, and then discussed in more detail.

Table 2.

Beliefs of instructors regarding OCF preferences

Beliefs of Instructors		Bianca	Bella	Sofia	Daisy	Henry	Diana
Types	Clarification request	#	#	√	√	√	√
	Repetition	√	√	√	√	√	#
	Explicit correction	#	√	X	√	√	X
	Elicitation	X	√	√	X	√	#
	Metalinguistic feedback	√	X	#	√	√	#
	Recast	#	V	√	√	X	√
	No feedback	X	X	X	#	√	√
Timing	Immediate (During speaking)	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Delayed (After speaking or after activity)	√	√	√	√	√	√
Delivering agent	Teacher	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Peer	√	X	X	X	√	√
	Self-correction	√	√	√	√	√	√

Note: X=disagree, √=agree, #=not sure

Participant 1. Bianca is a non-native instructor. She has taught English for more than ten years; gives oral skills course for 6-9 years, and she is Turkish. She agrees on correcting students' oral errors often, despite thinking that it is embarrassing for students; she does not support correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, she prefers correcting errors after the activity or after students finish speaking. She prefers correcting errors which hinder the meaning, and common ones; but she does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors or errors that do not cause a breakdown in communication. While correcting errors, she prefers repetitions, implicit correction, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback. Lastly, she considers all OCF sources as beneficial.

Participant 2. Bella is a non-native instructor. She has taught English for more than ten years, gives oral skills course for more than ten years, and she is Turkish. She does not support correcting students' oral errors often, but sometimes, since she thinks that it embarrasses students, and she does not support correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, she prefers correcting errors after the activity or after students finish speaking. She prefers correcting errors which are meaning-hindering or special to students and common ones, but she does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors or errors that are not meaning-hindering. While correcting errors, she prefers repetitions, implicit correction, explicit correction, elicitation, and recast. Lastly, she considers teachers and self-correction as beneficial sources of OCF but not peers.

Participant 3. Sofia is a native-speaking instructor. She has taught English for more than ten years, gives oral skills course for more than ten years, and she is from Australia. She does not support correcting students' oral errors often, but sometimes, as she thinks that it embarrasses students, and she does not support correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, she prefers correcting errors after the activity. She prefers correcting common errors but she does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors, or errors that are do not hinder

communication. While correcting errors, she prefers clarification requests, repetitions, implicit correction, elicitation, and recast. Lastly, she considers teachers and self-correction as beneficial sources of OCF but peers.

Participant 4. Daisy is a non-native instructor. She has taught English for more than ten years, gives oral skills course for 6-9 years, and she is Turkish. She does not support correcting students' oral errors at all and prefers providing OCF rarely as she thinks that it embarrasses students. She is totally against providing correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, she prefers correcting errors after the activity or after class. She prefers correcting errors which are meaning-hindering and common, but she does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors or errors that are not meaning-hindering. While correcting errors, she prefers clarification requests, repetitions, implicit correction, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback and recast. Lastly, she considers teachers and self-correction as beneficial sources of OCF but peers.

Participant 5. Henry is a native-speaking instructor. He has taught English for 6-9 years; gives oral skills course for 6-9 years, and he is from the US. He supports correcting students' oral errors, often thinking that it brings about contentment for students. However, he does not support correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, he prefers correcting errors after students finish speaking or after the activity. He prefers correcting errors which are common, meaning-hindering or special to students, but he does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors or errors that are not meaning-hindering. While correcting errors, he prefers clarification requests, repetitions, implicit correction, explicit correction, elicitation but not recast. Lastly, he considers all sources of OCF as beneficial.

Participant 6. Diana is a non-native instructor. She has taught English for more than ten years, gives oral skills course for more than ten years, and she is from Syria. She is unsure about correcting students' oral errors. However, she claims to provide feedback, usually

thinking that it brings about contentment for students. However, she does not support correction at the time of students' speaking. Instead, she prefers correcting errors after they finish speaking or after the activity. She prefers correcting errors which are common or meaning-hindering, but she does not prefer giving OCF to uncommon errors or errors that are not meaning-hindering. While correcting errors, she prefers clarification requests, implicit correction, recast and sometimes not providing OCF at all. Lastly, she considers teachers and self-correction as beneficial sources of OCF but not peers.

4.5.2. Instructors' observed OCF practices. To collect data about the OCF practices of the instructors, the researcher observed one of each of their classes and completed a checklist. Table 3 presents a summary of the results of the classroom observations.

Table 3.

OCF practices of instructors

Practices of Instructors		Bianca	Bella	Sofia	Daisy	Henry	Diana
Types	Clarification request	√	X	√	X	√	√
	Repetition	X	√	X	√	X	X
	Explicit correction	√	X	X	√	X	X
	Elicitation	√	√	√	√	√	X
	Metalinguistic feedback	√	X	X	X	X	X
	Recast	√	√	√	√	√	√
	No feedback	X	X	X	X	√	X
Timing	Immediate (During speaking)	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Delayed (After speaking or after activity)	√	X	X	X	X	X
Delivering agents	Teacher	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Peer	X	X	X	X	X	#
	Self-correction	X	X	X	X	X	X

X=not observed √=observed, #=rarely observed

The classroom practices of all instructors are discussed in more details below with comparisons to their beliefs, referring to each participant.

Bianca. When Bianca's classroom observation results were analyzed, it was seen that she had 16 turns to provide OCF during the observation. Ten of them were elicitations, three of them were metalinguistic feedback along with one recast, one clarification request, one explicit correction. Her beliefs and practices matched in this sense as she mentioned finding elicitations and metalinguistic feedback effective; however, she was unsure about using recast or explicit correction, and the observational data supported that. On the other hand, even though she mentioned favoring to provide OCF after students finish speaking, she provided 10 of her feedback after students finished speaking and six of them were provided during students' speech which did not match with her beliefs. She also mentioned preferring to correct meaning-hindering errors and common errors and eight of her OCF were provided for meaning-hindering errors, and the rest was for common ones. However, even though she mentioned finding all the sources of OCF beneficial, she only provided OCF herself and did not allow for self- or peer correction. Finally, her elicitations and clarification requests brought about uptake but her metalinguistic-feedback, recast and explicit correction did not bring about any uptake.

Bella. When her actual classroom practice was observed, it was seen that she had 11 turns to provide OCF during the observation. Even though she believed in providing OCF after students finish speaking, her observational data showed the opposite. She corrected all the students at the moment of speaking. She provided six feedback for meaning-hindering errors, three for common errors and two for errors which are not meaning-hindering, which is in congruence with her descriptive results. She mentioned finding elicitations, repetition, explicit correction, and recast effective, and she provided six elicitations, three recasts and two repetitions during the observation. She also mentioned that metalinguistic feedback and

peer correction are ineffective and did not use them at all. Instead, she provided all OCF while she had supported self-correction as well. Lastly, the elicitations she provided brought about uptake but recast, and repetitions did not work in this sense.

Sofia. During her classroom practice observation, she had ten turns to provide OCF. She contradicted with herself as she provided all her OCF at the moment of students' speech, but she had mentioned preferring OCF after students finish speaking before the observations. She corrected five meaning-hindering errors, four common errors and two errors which are not meaning-hindering, and this was in congruence with her beliefs. She used five clarification requests, three recasts and two elicitations, which was again supporting her beliefs. However, even though she reported to support self-correction, she did not enable students to self-correct in the classroom. She also did not support peer correction and did not promote any. Finally, the clarification requests and elicitations provided by the participant created uptake; however, recast were not beneficial in terms of uptake-eliciting.

Daisy. During classroom observation, she had ten turns to provide OCF, all of which was during students' speech contradicting with her beliefs. She corrected four meaning-hindering errors, three common errors and three individual errors, which are in congruence with her beliefs. However, even though she did not support elicitations in the classroom, she used three elicitations, three recasts, three repetitions and an explicit correction during the lesson. She mentioned not supporting peer correction in the classroom and provided all OCF by herself; however, she did not leave any chance for self-correction, which was contradicting with her beliefs. Lastly, elicitations she provided were useful in terms of uptake-eliciting but not her explicit correction, repetitions or recast.

Henry. During the observation of his classroom practice, he had 11 turns to provide OCF, all of which was during students' speech even though he had preferred to provide OCF after students finish speaking. He corrected five meaning-hindering errors, four common

errors and provided no feedback for two not-meaning-hindering errors which was in congruence with his beliefs as he did not support correcting the errors which are not hindering the listeners from understanding the speaker. He provided four elicitations, three clarification requests, two recasts and skipped two errors without providing any feedback. He reported to support all types of OCF above except for recasts; however, he used recasts for pronunciation mistakes. Lastly, he had agreed to support all types of OCF sources; however, he provided all OCF by himself. It was obvious that elicitations and clarification requests he provided were useful for eliciting uptake but not recast.

Diana. When it comes to her actual classroom practice observation, it was seen that she had ten turns all of which were during students' speech contradicting with her beliefs as she had mentioned supporting OCF after students finish speaking. She corrected seven meaning-hindering errors and three individual errors in congruence with her beliefs. She had found clarification requests and recast effective, and she used five turns for each. She was the only instructor who had supported all sources of OCF and created a chance for a peer correction by asking for paraphrase from peers. The remaining nine instances of OCF were provided by herself, although she had supported self-correction as well. Finally, her elicitations worked well to elicit uptake while her recasts were not successful in this sense.

4.5.3 The Comparison of observational results of instructors and their beliefs regarding OCF. As can be seen from Table 2 and three above, there are some matches and mismatches between instructors' beliefs and practices. In general, prompts, namely elicitations and clarification requests were the dominantly used types of OCF which are followed by recast, and this was contradicting with instructors' beliefs. They reported to utilize all types of feedback in their classrooms; however, it was seen that they used prompts dominantly. Besides, they reported to prefer providing delayed feedback; however, they

provided almost all OCF during students' speech, which was seen during their classroom observations.

On the other hand, instructors reported to try to benefit from teacher-correction or self-correction, but they reported not to prefer peer-correction. Supported by observational data, it was seen that they provided all OCF by themselves. They did not enable much peer-correction except for one occasion.

4.6. Conclusion

To sum up, the results of the study have shown that there were some mismatched beliefs of students and instructors regarding OCF use. Moreover, it was seen that there were both mismatched and matched aspects between instructors' beliefs and practices that were analyzed through the present study.

Chapter V

Discussion

5.0. Introduction.

In this chapter, the findings of the present study are discussed and compared with the findings of previous study results in relation with RQs of the study. The aim is at presenting and discussing the results with their possible reasons with the light of related previous study results. For the clarity of presentation, the results of the RQs two and three will be discussed together.

5.1. Instructors' and Students' General Perceptions towards Providing and Receiving OCF.

The study has found that the students participating in this study approach receiving OCF during their speaking courses with contentment unlikely to Garcia-Ponce et al.' s (2017) study results show. According to their study results, students participating in their study find OCF as something face-threatening whereas the participants in this study report to prefer being corrected often with contentment. Moreover, the participants in this study demand more correction than their instructors thought they would; similarly to Gürbüz et al. (2017) and Zhang et al. (2010)'s study results. This might be due to the fact that they are responsible for four listening and speaking mid-terms throughout the year, five speaking performance tasks and one final speaking task at the end of each term to be able to pass the proficiency exam at the end of the year and start their major degrees. Therefore, they are most likely aware of the importance of being corrected; so that they can do better in the following speaking mid-terms or tasks.

Conversely, the instructors participating in the study consider receiving OCF as something that creates shame for students. According to Roothooft et al. (2016), receiving OCF can be discouraging for students; as a result of this, the instructors participating in this study may be unsure about providing it. Likewise, Lee's (2016) study shows that EFL

students experience more FLSA than ESL students; for this reason, the instructors who are participating in this study may also be showing a tendency to avoid providing OCF often. They report to treat meaning-hindering errors and common errors in particular which is supported by the study results of Rahimi et al. (2015). The experienced teachers participating in their study report to take into account of error severity whereas novice teachers do not. Since the instructors in this study are all experienced teachers with at least 10 years of teaching experience, they might be behaving meticulously while correcting student errors. Alternatively, Sung et al. (2014) claim that teachers may be concerned of breaking the flow of communication in the classrooms by providing OCF and the instructors in this study might be willing to abandon OCF for the sake of communication flow.

5.2. The Comparison of Instructors' Beliefs and Observed Practices

When instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices were compared, it was seen that they matched and mismatched in some aspects. Borg (2003) claims that beliefs of teachers have an impact on their classroom practices. Correspondingly, instructors participating in this study reported to believe that meaning-hindering errors and common errors should be treated and their observed practices matched with their beliefs since they provided OCF for these kinds of errors.

Moreover, similarly to what Demir et al. (2017) also found out, native instructors in this study were seen to be more tolerant towards errors by having skipped some of them without providing any feedback for while non-native instructors were stricter towards especially grammatical errors. Since Zeichner et al. (1981) and Kennedy (1997) claim that teachers' beliefs are already shaped through and by their own learning journeys before they start formal teaching education; non-native instructors in this study might be giving more importance to grammatical errors based on their own foreign language learning experiences.

On the other hand, similar to Debreli et al.'s (2015) and Al-Faki et al.'s (2013) study results, there were also mismatches between instructors' beliefs and practices. The instructors in this study reported to prefer providing OCF after activities are over or after students finish speaking. However, the very majority of the OCF occurred in the classrooms were provided during students' speaking. Moreover, they reported to support self-correction in their classrooms whereas except for only one occasion, all OCF was provided by the instructors during the observations.

Roothooft (2014) claims that most of the teachers are not aware of their own teaching practices; and the instructors participating in the present study may not even be aware of their current practices in terms of the issues discussed above which may justify the mismatched parts between their beliefs and practices.

5.3. Instructors' and Students' Beliefs regarding Different Types of OCF.

When instructors' and students' perceptions regarding the RQ "What types of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?", it was seen that there is a kind of mismatch between students' and instructors' beliefs. Instructors prefer providing implicit type of OCF similarly to teachers participating in Kamiya's (2014) study since they think explicit type of corrections could make students feel humiliated. However, students in this study reported to prefer receiving explicit correction the most. It might be rooted from the fact that students are aware of the importance of being corrected in terms of their academic success and their concerns for the final proficiency exam at the end of the year. As Roberts (1995 as cited in Rassaei, 2013) also claims that "the efficacy of error correction is directly related to the condition that the L2 learner not only recognizes that he/she is being corrected, but understands the nature of correction" (p.167). Therefore, the students in this study might prefer explicit correction due to their understanding of being corrected and nature of

correction rather than seeing it as something face-threatening whereas instructors might act hesitantly to provide explicit correction so as not to create negative feelings on students.

After explicit correction preference by the students, clarification requests and elicitations follow similarly to instructors' preferences. With the support of the data of classroom observations, and in congruence with Long's (2001) study results; instructors in this study also support and make use of elicitations and clarification requests, which can be called prompts in general, the most in their classrooms which is followed by recast.

The findings contradict with the study results of Dilan (2016), Fu et al. (20016), Öztürk (2016), Panova et al. (2002), Safari (2013) and Sung et al. (2014) which show that the dominating type of OCF provided in the classrooms is recast. It is also contradicting with the claim of Lyster et al. (2009) that recasts would suit better in communicative classrooms which is the type of observed classrooms in this study. However, it has been found out in several research (e.g. Ammar et al., 2006; Ammar, 2008; Fatemi et al. 2014; Poorahmadi et al. 2017; Rahimi et al. 2016; Tamayo et al. 2017; Yang et al. 2010) that prompts serve better for students in terms of accuracy than recasts. Thus, the instructors in this study might be taking into account of accuracy of students' speech equally important as the flow of communication; therefore, they might be providing more prompts than recast. They provided a considerable amount of recast as well; however, they were provided for mostly phonological errors which is also in congruence with Yang's (2016) study results showing that teachers use recast for mostly phonological errors.

Yet, it should also be argued what Sarandi (2016) found out in his study which is that the teachers may prefer using explicit corrections and meta-linguistic feedback when the language form is brand new to the learners; however, they prefer providing prompts when it is the opposite case. Since the listening and speaking course materials and lessons at this school are designed to enable students speak more instead of teaching new language forms to them,

which is done in separate grammar courses at the school, instructors here might be preferring to let prompts dominate their lessons; or provide no feedback for some errors to protect the flow of communication as Öztürk (2016) argues as well.

5.4. Instructors' and Students' Beliefs regarding Different Timings of OCF.

To be able to answer the RQ "Which timing of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?", students' and instructors' perceptions are compared and it was seen that there is no significant difference between them. Both students and instructors favor OCF provided after students finish speaking or after the activity is over which is in line with previous research results (e.g. Gürbüz et al, 2017; Willis, 2007; Zhang et al., 2010; Tomzczyk, 2013). According to Ölmezer-Öztürk and Öztürk's (2016) study, students see immediate feedback as teacher's interruption and feel disturbed by this. On the other hand, they find delayed feedback useful for creating a chance for self-correction and anxiety-decreasing which is also supported by Shabani et al. (2016) research on timing of OCF showing that immediate correction creates foreign language speaking anxiety on some of the students. Therefore, students in this study might prefer to receive delayed correction so as to avoid foreign language speaking anxiety. This is an issue that merits further research.

When the observational data analysis has been done, there was seen a mismatch between what instructors believe about the proper timing of OCF and what they practiced in their classrooms. It was seen that despite their beliefs, all teachers provided most of their OCF while students were speaking, similar to the teachers participating in Özmen et al.'s (2005) study.

Long (2007) supports immediate correction defending the idea that students should be aware of their errors to be able to correct them and produce output thanks to the immediate OCF provision. However, since this contradicts with the beliefs of instructors in this study, it should be argued why instructors practiced immediate correction. Debreli et al. (2015)

brought about the fact that although teachers participating in their study hold the belief of favoring delayed correction, they provided immediate correction in their teaching practices due to the concerns of task completion and inflexibility of the program. Correspondingly, the instructors in this study may be facing the similar concerns as the program of the school is loaded and tight. Therefore, they might be providing immediate correction to be able to continue to the lessons in the pacing that the school program allows.

5.5. Instructors' and Students' Beliefs regarding Different Sources of OCF.

Regarding the RQ "Which source of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?", it was determined that students prefer to receive OCF from their instructors first and then they support self-correction. This finding is in line with the findings of several studies (e.g. Alhaysony, 2016; Mendez et al., 2012; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Tomzczyk, 2013; Zhang et al.,2010) which claim that students can see their teachers as the ultimate authority; therefore the best source of correction. Students in this study might have felt the same way and preferred to be corrected by their instructors the most. Correspondingly, they were quite against to receive any correction from their peers. Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) state that receiving correction from the peers can create negative feelings on students; and student-participants in this study might be rejecting to receive peer correction due to this possibility. Although, Sato (2016) found out that peer correction could be quite beneficial in terms of treating lexical errors, the participants in this study are not in favor of receiving it at all.

When instructors' beliefs and practices are compared regarding of which source of OCF should be promoted, it was revealed that they were contradicting with their beliefs. They reported to favor creating self-correction chances in their classrooms the most, then providing teacher correction and not supporting peer correction at all. Akıl et al. (2013) and Ellis (2009) argue that if native-like atmosphere is targeted in the classes, teachers should facilitate self-correction the most. Therefore, instructors in this study could have agreed on the self-

correction facilitation to have a more authentic atmosphere during their listening and speaking courses. However, during the observations, it was seen that except for only one occasion, all OCF, regardless of types and timings, were provided by the instructors. Except for only one instructor and for once, all instructors provided the corrections by themselves and did not create a chance for self-correction for students at all.

One of the teachers participating in Ölmezer-Öztürk et al.'s (2016) study stated that she prefers correcting students herself only; otherwise she considers that students could get nervous. Hence, instructors in this study might prefer teacher correction as the second favorite source of OCF because of a similar concern. Alternatively, it might be also caused by the fact that instructors in this study have a very tight schedule and might have task completion concerns as well. However, as Zuo's (2017) research shows that by selecting appropriate materials and with a better planning, self-correction can be easily achieved.

5.6. Types of OCF that Elicit Uptake.

To be able to answer the RQ "What types of OCF bring about student repair?", classroom observations were done and analyzed. After the analysis, it was revealed that the most commonly used types of OCF; elicitations and clarification requests, which can be called prompts, brought about student repair whereas recast, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction and repetition did not. The findings are in congruence with Lyster et al. (1997), Llinares et al. (2014), Nikoopour et al. (2014) and Loewen (2014)'s studies and contradicting with the findings of Naeimi et al.'s (2018) and Tsang's (2004) studies showing that recast and repetition can create student repair mostly.

Lyster et al. (1997) claim that recasts can be perceived as 'echoes' of what they are saying by the students. As a result, they may not even understand being corrected and consequently not produce any repair at all which is also supported by the data of Ölmezer-Öztürk et al.'s (2016) study; where students reported to find recasts like repetitions from the

teachers. Sheen et al. (2011) distinguish between didactic recast and conversational recast and according to Llinares' et al. (2014) study results, didactic recasts were successful at eliciting student repair whereas conversational recasts, more implicit type of recast with the concern of not breaking the flow of communication, were not. The instructors participating in this study might have wanted to use conversational recasts not to break the flow in their classes; therefore, recasts may have failed to elicit any student repair.

5.7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the study indicate that students hold a positive view towards receiving OCF while the instructors seem hesitant to provide it often. Instructors participating in this study reported to take into account of error severity while providing OCF. Moreover, there was a mismatch between instructors' and students' beliefs regarding the use of different types of OCF.

In addition, the findings of the study revealed that there is a mismatch between instructors' beliefs and their classroom practices. It might be due to different possibilities such as lack of time, lack of knowledge, overcrowded classes etc.to see those mismatched aspects of the instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices.

Chapter VI

Conclusion

6.1. Summary.

There is a great number of international studies conducted on OCF procedures and their implications for EFL literature. However, there are not many studies conducted in Turkey about preferences of learners and instructors towards OCF. The present study aimed at finding the convergent and divergent beliefs of university EFL instructors and their students as well as comparing instructors' beliefs and their actual classroom practices regarding OCF.

Instructors' and students' beliefs towards different types, timings and sources of OCF overlapped in terms of some aspects; yet contradicted with each other as well. The reasoning behind those aspects was discussed in the light of related previous studies. The study has also tried to explain the reasons why instructors' beliefs and practices mismatched in some cases.

In general, it has been revealed that although instructors reported to correct oral errors of students rarely with the concern of creating shame on them, the students reported to be content about receiving more correction from their instructors. However, both students and instructors have agreed on that meaning-hindering errors, common errors and errors that are special to students should be treated with OCF.

The study addressed the following eight RQs:

1. What are the general perceptions of students and instructors regarding OCF?
2. What types of OCF do instructors believe they use?
3. What types of OCF do instructors actually use in classrooms?
4. Do instructors' beliefs and observed practices match?
5. What types of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?

6. Which timing of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?
7. Which source of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?
8. What types of OCF bring about student repair?

RQ1 aimed at finding out the general perceptions of students and instructors regarding OCF. It was seen that although instructors consider OCF as something creating embarrassment on students, students reported to be content about receiving OCF from their instructors. Moreover, even though instructors reported to provide OCF sometimes, especially when errors are hindering the meaning, students demanded correction for all their errors. RQ2 aimed to explain instructors' personal beliefs about their own teaching practices. The findings revealed that instructors believe that they correct the meaning-hindering and common errors and use a variety of OCF types from clarification requests to recast. RQ3 addressed the comparison of instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices. Observations demonstrated that the types they believe using to correct errors and the types they are actually using in the classroom mismatched in some parts, similarly to what Roofhooft (2014) suggests and in congruence with Debreli et al.'s study results.

RQ4 addressed the potential mismatch between instructors' beliefs and practices. The findings showed that instructors' beliefs were matching with their practices in terms of what errors to correct and partially matching with the belief about who to provide OCF. However, it was also seen that even though instructors reported to utilize all types of OCF, they turned out to be using prompts dominantly and providing OCF during students' speech in contrast to their reported belief about providing delayed feedback similarly to teachers participating in Tomczcyk's (2013) and Gürbüz et al.'s (2017) studies.

RQ5 aimed to reveal whether there is a gap between students' and instructors' beliefs regarding the beneficial types of OCF. The results of the study showed that instructors believe using implicit type of feedback would be better in terms of preventing a face-threatening atmosphere while students reported to receive explicit correction the most. Instructors' attitudes participating in this study showed congruence with Kamiya's (2014) study results; however, their tendency not to provide explicit correction metalinguistic feedback contradicted with the results of several studies (e.g. Dilans, 2016; Lochtman, 2003; Nikoopour et al., 2014; Sarandi, 2016; Yang, 2016).

The aim of RQ6 was to explore whether students' and instructors' beliefs regarding the timing of OCF are parallel to each other. Although both group of participants agreed that delayed OCF should be preferred which is provided after students finish speaking or after the activity similarly to what Willis (2007) suggests not to break the flow of communication, observational data showed that all instructors tended to correct students during their speaking.

RQ7, "Which source of OCF do students and instructors believe to be the most beneficial?" attempted to find out the beliefs of students and instructors regarding who to provide OCF. The findings showed that both students and instructors preferred peer-correction the least, however, students reported to prefer receiving teacher feedback in congruence with Mendez et al.'s (2012) and Tomzczyk's (2013) study results while instructors reported to prefer enabling self-correction similarly to Boyno et al.'s (2013) study results. Yet, self-correction was not enabled by the instructors during the observations.

RQ8, "What types of OCF bring about student repair?" was researched based on the observational data. The findings revealed that elicitation and clarification requests brought about uptake while recast, metalinguistic feedback and repetition did not which is in line with the previous study results (e.g. Lyster et a., 1997; Lyster et al., 2006; Kennedy, 2010; Nikoopour et al., 2014).

To sum up, the findings of the present study indicated that university EFL instructors are not fully aware of the OCF practices they are conducting. Kennedy (1997) claims that teachers' beliefs are shaped before starting their formal training process and through their own learning experiences; therefore, teachers may not be questioning their beliefs which prevents them from making comparisons between their beliefs and their practices. Besides, it was seen that they were not negotiating with their students about their preferences towards OCF procedures since students and instructors turned out to be disagreeing with each other in terms of their preferences of different types of OCF.

6.2. Implications of the current study.

The findings of the present study may suggest noteworthy implications for English language instructors, English language teacher educators, and the schools of foreign languages of universities in Turkey. Each of these areas will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

6.2.1. Implications for English language university instructors. This study has indicated that there is a gap between students' and instructors' beliefs regarding OCF. Moreover, there is also a mismatch between instructors' beliefs and classroom practices. This finding may indicate that instructors may not have been through OCF procedures during their formal training processes. Although Kennedy (1997) claims that teachers' beliefs are shaped before they start their formal trainings, raising awareness regarding OCF could contribute to their future practices.

Lyster (2004) suggests teachers to have negotiations with their students about OCF to create a more cooperative classroom atmosphere. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2014) claim that enabling students to be aware of the purpose of correction can be practical for them to benefit from OCF more. In terms of OCF procedures, instructors at universities can raise awareness of their students about being corrected and at the same time, they can also question their own

classroom practices. Therefore, educational institutions should apply some updates on the curriculum of ELT departments which will be discussed below.

6.2.2. Implications for schools of foreign languages. Mann (2005) claims that even though professional development is a career-orientated remit, teacher development is consisted of more personal and moral dimensions. Besides, Sowden (2007) considers that authenticity is a profound aspect for effective teacher development saying "we teach who we are" (p. 309). Considering these, it can be said that teachers could cooperate with their colleagues from the same authentic context they are teaching at to exchange their personal and professional ideas to combat with the same authentic problems they are facing. Vo and Nguyen's (2010) study showed that applying peer observation to instructors with the help of a predetermined format for evaluation was beneficial to exchange professional ideas. Similarly, Korkmazgil and Seferoğlu's (2013) study supports that peer-support could promote professional development of teachers.

Balbay, Pamuk, Temir and Doğan (2018) claim that teachers need the exchange of professional ideas through activities such as team teaching, coaching, workshops, case studies and self-monitoring to contribute to individual and institutional development. Here, schools of FL can promote these kinds of activities for instructors to create a more collaborative teaching environment in their institutions by inviting speakers to their schools to have workshops on error correction and OCF. Through these activities, instructors could share their own error correction procedures with each other and even implement a peer-observation to improve their peers' OCF applications in their classrooms.

6.2.3. Implications for English language teacher education. Ilgaz (2019) who conducted a research with pre-service teachers at a state university in Turkey discovered that pre-service teachers think education faculties in Turkey are not successful at all at training teachers. They reported to be discontent about not having enough chance for practicing

teaching. The pre-service teachers at Turkish universities go through a similar curriculum of ELT during their formal training process. They first start to take academic speaking skills, advanced communication skills, and oral expression and public speaking courses in their first two years to improve their own English speaking competences. Subsequently, they start taking ELT methodology courses consisting of teaching different skills. However, during their methodology courses, they are not taught oral error correction or OCF particularly.

Balbay, Pamuk, Temir and Doğan (2018) who studied the issues in pre-service teacher training programs in Turkey found out that there are many factors affecting teacher training programs. Needs of institutions, time, technology deficiency and funding are among the profound factors affecting training programs. However, Balbay et al. found a gap between contextual needs of teachers and the training programs in Turkey and claim that English for Academic Purposes should be promoted to enable pre-service teachers to receive a proper training according to the needs of students. They suggest implementing an internship program for pre-service teachers at preparation schools of universities. Therefore, the present study suggests designing this kind of an internship program with the consideration of OCF applications in classrooms. Alternatively, instead of leaving OCF teaching to Master degree courses as an elective course, pre-service teachers can be trained to provide OCF during their methodology courses and be evaluated by their OCF performances during their practicum courses or during their internship programs.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

This study was conducted with six university EFL instructors and their 107 pre-intermediate level learners at a preparation school of a state university in Bursa. The present study tried to address the potential gap between students' and instructors' beliefs regarding OCF and the mismatch between instructors' beliefs and practices. However, it does not focus on the effects of provided OCF on students in the classrooms.

Further studies can be designed to fill in the gap of OCF effects on students. Besides, experimental studies can be conducted by designing research designs accordingly to students' beliefs to be applied in the classroom to see the effects and results on the learners.

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Appendices

Appendix A. The Instrument for Measuring the Beliefs of Instructors regarding OCF

Questionnaire for Teachers

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about error correction. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research.

TANSU YİĞİT
tansutasdemir@uludag.edu.tr

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

1. Students' spoken errors should be treated.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. How often do you give corrective feedback on students' spoken errors?

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

3. What do you think your students feel when their errors are corrected in general?

A) Anger B) Shame C) Contentment D) Indifference

※ Students' spoken errors should be treated at the following time.

4. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts the student's speaking.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. After the student finishes speaking.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. After the activities.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

7. At the end of class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

※ How often do you treat each of the following types of errors in oral communication classes?

8. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

9. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

10. Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

11. Infrequent spoken errors

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

12. Individual errors made by only one student.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ How do you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

Teacher: Where did you go yesterday?
Student: I **go** to the park.

13. Could you say that again?

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

14. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

15. You went to the park yesterday? (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

16. "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.

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

17. Yesterday, I…..(Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

18. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

19. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metaliguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

20. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

※ The following person should treat students' errors.

21. Classmates

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. Teachers

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

23. Students themselves

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Demographics

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

24. Gender

Male	Female

25. How long have you been teaching English?

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

26. How long have you been teaching oral skill classes?

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

Appendix B. The Instrument for Measuring the Beliefs of Students regarding OCF

Questionnaire for Students

Data collected from this anonymous survey will be used for completion of a master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers Of Other Languages at Sacramento State University. The information gathered will be used for research on corrective feedback in language classrooms.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about error correction. You could feel uncomfortable with some of the questions, but you may skip any question you prefer not to answer. There are no benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

1. I want to receive corrective feedback (e.g., provide a hint for me to self-correct, tell me that I made an error, or correct my error.) when I make mistakes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

3. What do you feel when your errors are corrected in general?

A) Anger B) Shame C) Contentment D) Indifference

※ When do you want your spoken errors to be treated?

4. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my conversation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. After I finish speaking.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. After the activities.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

7. At the end of class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

※ How often do you want each of the following types of errors to receive corrective feedback?

8. Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

9. Less serious spoken errors that do not affect a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

10. Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

11. Infrequent spoken errors

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

12. My individual errors (i.e., errors that other students may not make.)

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ How would you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

> **Teacher:** Where did you go yesterday?
> **Student:** I **go** to the park.

13. Could you say that again?

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

14. I go? (Repetition: The teacher highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

15. I went there yesterday, too. (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

16. "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.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

17. Yesterday, I….. (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

18. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

19. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metaliguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

20. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

※ The following person should treat students' errors.

21. Classmates

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. Teachers

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

23. Myself

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Demographics

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

24. Gender

Male	Female

25. Your first language

Korean	Japanese	Chinese	Spanish	Other:

26. How long have you been studying English?

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

26. What is your speaking or listening class level?

Beginning	Intermediate low	Intermediate	Intermediate high	Advanced

Appendix C. Observation Checklist for Collecting Qualitative Data

Name of the teacher :	*Date / Hour:* *OCF type*	**Clarification requests**	**Recast**	**Elicitation**	**Metalinguistic feedback**	**Repetition**	**Explicit correction**	**No feedback**
UPTAKE	---------- →							
Timing	***During student's speech***							
	After student's speech							
	After the activity							
	At the end of the class							
Delivering agents	**TEACHER**							
	PEER							
	STUDENT-SELF							
Error types	**Meaning-hindering errors**							
	Not meaning-hindering errors							
	Common speaking errors							
	Not common speaking errors							
	Individual / special errors							

Appendix D. Lyster and Saito's (2010) Taxonomy of OCF

Type of OCF	Description	Example
Explicit correction	The teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates what the student had said was incorrect	S: The dog run fastly. T: 'Fastly' doesn't exist. *'Fast' does not take –ly.* That's why I picked 'quickly'.
Recasts	The teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's utterance	S: Why you don't like Marc? T: Why *don't* you like Marc?
Elicitation	The teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions such as "How do we say that in French?" or by pausing to allow student to complete the teacher's utterance, or by asking the students to reformulate his or her utterance	S: My father cleans the plate. T: *Excuse me, he cleans the??*

Metalinguistic clues	The teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance such as "We don't say it like that in English."	S: We look at the people yesterday. T: *What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?*
Clarification request	The teacher uses phrases such as "Pardon?" and "I don't understand" following learner errors to indicate to students that their utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is required	T: How often do you wash the dishes? S: Fourteen. T: *Excuse me?*
Repetition	The teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error	S: We is… T: *We is?* But it's two people, right?

Appendix E. Approval from the Ethical Board for Social Sciences

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİK KURULLARI
(Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma ve Yayın Etik Kurulu)
TOPLANTI TUTANAĞI

OTURUM TARİHİ	OTURUM SAYISI
30 Kasım 2018	2018-10

KARAR NO4: Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'nden alınan Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı öğrencisi Tansu TAŞDEMİR'in "İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulanacak anket sorularının değerlendirilmesine geçildi.

Yapılan görüşmeler sonunda; Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı öğrencisi Tansu TAŞDEMİR'in "İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulanacak anket sorularının, fikri, hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından metot ve ölçeğine ilişkin sorumluluğu başvurucuya ait olmak üzere uygun olduğuna oybirliği ile karar verildi.

Prof. Dr. Mehmet YÜCE
Kurul Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Abamüslim AKDEMİR
Üye

Prof. Dr. Doğan ŞENYUZ
Üye

(Katılmadı)
Prof. Dr. Kemal SEZEN
Üye

(Katılmadı)
Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KURT
Üye

Prof. Gülay GÖĞÜŞ
Üye

(Katılmadı)
Prof. Dr. Alev SINAR UĞURLU
Üye

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

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Date of Birth: 03.05.1992

EDUCATION

2016 - Bursa Uludağ University, Institute of Education Sciences, MA in English Language Teaching

2010 - 2016 Middle East Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Languages, English Language Teaching

2006 – 2010 Bursa – İnegöl Zeki Konukoğlu Anatolian Teacher Training High School

WORK EXPERIENCE

2016 – 2018 Bursa Uludağ University, School of Foreign Languages, English Instructor

ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

TEZ ÇOĞALTMA VE ELEKTRONİK YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Yazar Adı Soyadı	Tansu Yiğit
Tez Adı	İngilizce Öğretim Görevlilerinin Düzeltici Sözlü Dönüt Türleri Üzerine Görüşleri, Uygulamaları ve Öğrenci Görüşleri
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Anabilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Tez Danışman(lar)ı	***Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda Yeşilbursa Dr. Figun Dinçer Dr. Kaine Gülözer***
Çoğaltma (Fotokopi Çekim) izni	☐ Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum ☐ Tezimin sadece içindekiler, özet, kaynakça ve içeriğinin % 10 bölümünün fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum ☐ Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin vermiyorum
Yayımlama izni	☑ Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin Veriyorum

Hazırlamış olduğum tezimin belirttiğim hususlar dikkate alınarak, fikri mülkiyet haklarım saklı kalmak üzere Uludağ Üniversitesi Kütüphane ve Dokümantasyon Daire Başkanlığı tarafından hizmete sunulmasına izin verdiğimi beyan ederim.

Tarih :09.07.2019

İmza :