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MASTER'S THESIS

Özlem CENGİZ

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Thesis Advisor

Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem Genç

BURSA

2019

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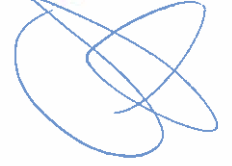

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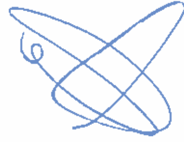

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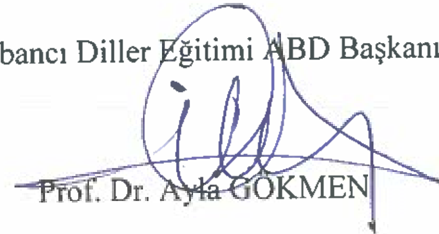

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Önsöz

Yabancı dil eğitiminde öğretmenlerin ders planı aşamasında verdikleri kararlardan ziyade ders içerisinde anında verdikleri kararlar sınıf atmosferinin canlı kalması ve öğrenci motivasyonunun yüksek tutulması anlamında önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Ancak öğretmenlerin mezun oldukları gibi bu kararların verilmesi ve ortaya çıkaracağı sonuçlarla ilgili deneyimi bulunmadığından hizmet öncesi öğretmen programlarının bu konuda öğretmen adaylarını hazırlaması ancak yansıtıcı düşünme uygulamaları kullanılarak teorik bilginin kazandırılması yoluyla mümkün olabilir. Sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri de sınıf içerisinde ani verilmesi gereken kararlardan biridir. Bu çalışma İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının yansıtıcı bir eğitim programıyla sözlü geri bildirim stratejilerine hakim olmasını ve uygun stratejileri doğru durumlarda kullanabilmesini hedeflemektedir. Sonuçlar İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının bu konudaki farkındalığının arttığını göstermiştir. Bu noktada öğretmen eğitiminde yansıtıcı uygulamaların hayati bir önem taşıdığı bir kez daha kanıtlanmıştır.

Engin bilgisiyle ve değerli geri bildirimleriyle bu çalışmanın ortaya çıkmasını sağlayan, veri toplama aşamasında desteğini hiçbir zaman esirgemeyen danışman hocam Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem Genç'e teşekkürlerimi ve saygılarımı sunarım.

Yüksek lisans programına başladığım günden beri beni destekleyerek yükümü hafifletmeye çalışan, kendimi ne zaman umutsuz hissetsem tekrar yoluma devam etmem için beni toparlayan, özellikle veri analizi konusunda yardımlarını esirgemeyen sevgili eşime minnetlerimi sunarım.

Beni her türlü fedakarlığı yaparak bu günlere getiren, özellikle eğitim alanında her zaman bir adım ilerisini hedeflememi sağlayan, vizyon sahibi bir birey olarak yetiştiren değerli anneme teşekkür ederim.

Bu çalışmanın bel kemiğini oluşturan, değerli katkılarıyla araştırmanın sonuçlarının güvenilirliğini yükselten, zorunlulukları olmadığı halde eğitim sürecinde etkin rol alan katılımcı öğretmen arkadaşlarıma teşekkür ederim.

Son olarak bu çalışmada kullanılan enstrümanların hazırlığı aşamasında yardımcı olan öğretmen arkadaşlarıma, ön testin uygulanması konusunda yardımlarını esirgemeyen sevgili hocamız Dr. Ayşegül Zıngır Gülten'e minnetlerimi ve saygılarımı sunarım.

Özlem Cengiz

Özet

Tezin Adı : Yansıtıcı Bir Eğitim Programının Türk İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Sözlü Geri Bildirim Stratejileri Üzerine Olan Etkileri

Ana Bilim Dalı : Yabancı Diller Ana Bilim Dalı

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Enstitü Adı : Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Tez Kabul Tarihi :

Danışmanı : Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem GENÇ

YANSITICI BİR EĞİTİM PROGRAMININ TÜRK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ SÖZLÜ GERİ BİLDİRİM STRATEJİLERİ ÜZERİNE OLAN ETKİLERİ

Sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri dil öğretimi alanındaki en karmaşık konulardan biridir ve önceden planlanamadığı için anında verilmesi gereken sınıf içi kararlarındandır. Öğretmen yetiştirme programları bazı derslerinde sözlü geri bildirim stratejilerini tanıtmasına rağmen, araştırmalar yeni göreve başlayan öğretmenler kadar deneyimli öğretmenlerin de bu stratejilere özyansıtma uygulamalarının eksikliği nedeniyle hakim olmadığını göstermektedir. Bir çok araştırma özyansıtma uygulamalarının etkilerini ortaya koymuştur, ancak sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri hakkında yansıtıcı düşüncenin etkilerini araştıran sadece bir kaç çalışma bulunmaktadır. Yakın dönemde Türkiye'de İngilizce öğretmen adaylarıyla bir çalışma yürütülmüştür. Öğretmen adaylarına sözlü geri bildirim stratejileriyle ilgili çevrimiçi bir eğitim verilmiştir ve adayların bu stratejiler üzerine yansıtıcı düşünebilmeleri için akran gözlem programı uygulanmıştır. Yapılan bu araştırma da sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri üzerine eğitim ve akran gözlemleri içeren bir yansıtıcı eğitim programının etkilerini bulmayı

hedeflemektedir. Veri 123 İngilizce öğretmen adayından ön test, son test, eğitim öncesi ve eğitim sonrası yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar, öz ve akran yansıtıcı düşünme formları ve yansıtıcı günlükler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar katılımcıların sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri hakkındaki düşüncelerinin çoğunun yansıtıcı eğitim programı sonucunda değiştiğini göstermiştir. Birtakım sınırlılıklarına rağmen, bu araştırma yansıtıcı uygulamaların İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının çeşitli sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri hakkında farkındalığının artması ve farklı durumlar için uygun stratejiler kullanmaları açısından önemlidir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Farkındalık, hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimi, öğretmen gelişimi, özyansıtma, sözlü geri bildirim stratejileri

Abstract

Name of Thesis : The Effects of a Reflective Training Program on the Awareness of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback Strategies

Department : Foreign Language Teaching

Name of University : Bursa Uludağ University

Name of Institute : Institute of Educational Science

Degree Date :

Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem GENÇ

THE EFFECTS OF A REFLECTIVE TRAINING PROGRAM ON THE AWARENESS OF TURKISH PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS' ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK STRATEGIES

The provision of oral corrective feedback is one of the most complicated issues in language teaching and among the in-class decisions which cannot be planned beforehand and thus have to be made instantly. Although pre-service teacher education programs introduce oral corrective feedback strategies in some courses, the research shows that novice as well as experienced language teachers are not aware of those strategies due to the lack of reflective practices. Many studies have demonstrated the effects of reflective practices; however, there are only a few studies investigating the effects of reflection about oral corrective feedback strategies. Recently a research study in a Turkish context was carried out with pre-service EFL teachers who were provided with an online training program about oral corrective feedback strategies and reflected on them through peer observation. The current research study also aims to discover the effects of a reflective training program about oral corrective

feedback strategies with face-to-face input sessions and peer observations. The data were collected from 123 pre-service EFL teachers through a pre-test, post-test, pre training semi-structured interviews, post training semi-strucured interviews, self- and peer reflection papers and reflective journals. The findings reveal that the majority of the participants' beliefs about oral corrective feedback strategies changed after the reflective training program. Despite a few limitations, the research proves to be significant as it demonstrates reflective practices could help pre-service EFL teachers become more aware of various oral corrective feedback strategies and use appropriate strategies for different situations.

Keywords: Awareness, oral corrective feedback strategies, pre-service EFL teacher education, reflection, teacher development

Table of Contents

Page

BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK SAYFASI i

YÖNERGEYE UYGUNLUK SAYFASI ii

JÜRİ ÜYELERİNİN İMZA SAYFASI iii

ÖNSÖZ iv

ÖZET vi

ABSTRACT viii

TABLE OF CONTENTS x

LIST OF TABLES xiv

LIST OF FIGURES xvii

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS xviii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION 1

1.1. Introduction 1

1.2. Statement of the Problem 5

1.3. Research Questions 6

1.4. Statement of Purpose 6

1.5. Significance of the Study 7

1.6. Assumptions 7

1.7. Limitations of the Study... 7

1.8. Definition of Key Terminology 8

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW 10

2.1. OCF Strategies 10

2.1.1. Definition of CF 11

2.1.2. Should learner errors be corrected? 14

2.1.3. How should learner errors be corrected? 20

2.1.4. When should learner errors be corrected? 30

2.1.5. Who should do the correcting? 31

2.1.6. Which errors should be corrected? 34

2.1.7. The effectiveness of OCF 37

2.1.8. Input hypothesis 43

2.1.9. Noticing hypothesis 43

2.1.10. Output hypothesis 45

2.1.11. Interaction hypothesis 46

2.1.12. Counterbalance hypothesis 47

2.2. Teachers' Beliefs and Practices about OCF 48

2.2.1. Definition and scope of teachers' beliefs 48

2.2.2. Sources of teachers' beliefs 49

2.2.3. Why are teachers' beliefs important? 52

2.2.4. Previous studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices ... 52

2.2.5. Previous studies on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices about OCF 56

2.3. Reflective Practice 63

2.3.1. Definition of reflection 64

2.3.1.1. Types of reflection 67

2.3.1.2. Levels of reflection 68

2.3.2. The necessity of reflection for teaching 70

2.3.3. Tools for reflection 71

2.3.4. Previous studies on reflective practices of OCF 76

2.4. Pre-Service Teacher Education 83

2.4.1. Teacher training and teacher development 84

2.4.2. Models & approaches in teacher education 90

2.4.3. Previous studies on pre-service teacher education programs 91

2.4.4. Suggestions to make pre-service teacher education programs more efficient 98

CHAPTER 3: METHOD 106

3.1. Research Design 106

3.2. Participants 107

3.3. Instruments 108

3.4. Data Collection Procedures and Analysis 111

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS 115

4.1. What do Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers Know about OCF Strategies.. 115

4.1.1. Should learners' errors be corrected? 116

4.1.2. Which errors should be corrected? 118

4.1.3. How should learners' oral errors be corrected? 119

4.1.4. When should learners' oral errors be corrected? 125

4.1.5. Who should do the correcting in class? 127

4.1.6. Other findings 130

4.2. What are the Effects of a Reflective Training Program on the Awareness of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' OCF Strategies? 131

4.2.1. Post-test results 131

4.2.1.1. Should learners' errors be corrected? 132

4.2.1.2. Which errors should be corrected? 134

4.2.1.3. How should learners' oral errors be corrected? 134

4.2.1.4. When should learners' oral errors be corrected? 141

4.2.1.5. Who should do the correcting? 143

4.2.2. The semi-structured interview results 146

4.2.3. The analyses of peer reflection and self-reflection papers 150

4.2.4. The analysis of reflective journals 152

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 157

5.1. What do Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers Know about OCF Strategies? 157

5.2. What are the Effects of a Reflective Training Program on the Awareness of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' OCF Strategies? 161

5.3. Recommendations 167

5.4. Conclusion 168

REFERENCES 169

APPENDICES 195

ÖZGEÇMİŞ 215

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ TEZ ÇOĞALTMA VE ELEKTRONİK YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU 216

List of Tables

Table ***Page***

1. *Demographic Information about the Participants* 107
2. *Data Collection Process* 111
3. *The Diagnosis of the Errors* 115
4. *The Frequency of the OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers* 116
5. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups* 116
6. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels*.... 117
7. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks* 117
8. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components* 118
9. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks* 119
10. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components* 120
11. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Gramatical Errors in Different Tasks* 121
12. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks* 121
13. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different Tasks* 122
14. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels* 123
15. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Age Groups* 124
16. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks* 125
17. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups* 126
18. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels* 126
19. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components* 126
20. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks* 128

21. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups* 129
22. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels* 129
23. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components* 129
24. *The Frequency of OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers in Post-Test* 132
25. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test*... 132
26. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test* 133
27. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups in Post-Test* 133
28. *Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test* 134
29. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Post-Test* 135
30. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 135
31. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components in Post-Test* 136
32. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Grammatical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 137
33. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 138
34. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 138
35. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test* 139
36. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Age Groups in Post-Test* 140
37. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Post-Test* 141
38. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 142
39. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test* 142
40. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups in*

Post-Test 142
41. *Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test* 143
42. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Post-Test* 144
43. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks in Post-Test* 144
44. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components in Post-Test* 145
45. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups in Post-Test* 146
46. *Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test* 146

List of Figures

Figure ***Page***

1. *Differences Between Oral and Written CF* 14
2. *Tedick and Gortari's Descriptive Summary of Examples Used in Lyster & Ranta (1997)* 21
3. *A Taxonomy of OCF Strategies* 23
4. *Frequency of Repair Moves After Each Feedback Type* 47
5. *Typology of Reflection: Dimensions and Guiding Questions* 68
6. *Action Research Cycle* 74
7. *Descriptive Model of Teaching: The Constituents* 84
8. *The Formula to Encourage Experiential Learning* 85
9. *Educating Strategies* 89
10. *Teacher Development Model* 105

List of Abbreviations

BA : Bachelor of Arts

CF : Corrective Feedback

DELTA : Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

ESL : English as a Second Language

FL : Foreign Language

IATEFL: International Association for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

INSET : In-Service Training

L2 : Second Language

MA : Master in Arts

OCF : Oral Corrective Feedback

PPT : Power Point File Format

SL : Second Language

SLA : Second Language Acquisition

SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TESL : Teaching English as a Second Language

TPR : Total Physical Response

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Corrective Feedback (hereafter CF) has attracted many researchers' attention for almost over two decades, particularly after Lyster & Ranta's (1997) descriptive research study which is considered to be prominent in the field. Since then, there have been a considerable number of research studies focusing on the provision of CF as it is seen the routine job of a language teacher (Kamiya, 2018) because it is clear by evidence that students want to be corrected upon their errors (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 2001; Simard & Jean, 2011; Genç, 2014).

Throughout the history, the value attached to CF has fluctuated based on different teaching methodologies proposed by ELT professionals. During the 1950s and 1960s, Audio Lingual Method, which was a widely practiced behaviorist teaching model, considered errors as inevitable. However, teachers were advised to prevent the occurence of errors with the provision of correct examples already existing in the natural use of language. On the other hand, in the 1970s behaviorist models began to be questioned due to the value they attached on grammar teaching and error correction. Therefore, during the 1970s and 1980s some scholars such as Stephen Krashen and John Truscott asserted that error correction was unnecessary and even harmful. Krashen (1982) justified that claim with the proposal of Affective Filter Hypothesis and the Natural Order Hypothesis. Although CF lost its popularity with the allegations that affective factors might hinder learning and language was acquired naturally following a natural acquisitional order, with the proposal of Communicative Language Teaching, which is still widely used in ELT classes today, CF gained its credibility partly back in the language teaching research focusing on the errors that might hinder

meaning primarily, not accuracy in the first place (Victoria Russell, 2009). In the 1990s, some research evidenced that focus-on-form, explicit grammar instruction and providing CF could facilitate second language acquisition (hereafter SLA) (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006). In the late 90s, Lyster & Ranta (1997) conducted a study where they investigated the five basic questions Hendrickson (1978) sought answers to as well as identifying six types of oral corrective feedback (hereafter OCF) that are explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic clues, repetition, clarification request, elicitation. After that pioneering study, a lot of other researchers examined the issue further by using Lyster & Ranta's (1997) taxonomy and description of CF.

Today, the fact that CF has an important place in language teaching and is an issue which language teachers have to handle cannot be ignored. Although CF is an issue covered in teacher pre-service education programs, the research demonstrate that teachers, whether novice or experienced, do not feel knowledgeable and confident about the provision of CF in the actual learning environment (Kamiya, 2016; Szesztay, 2004; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). In Kamiya's (2016) study, one of the participants who had 14 years of teaching experience and an MA degree in TESOL stated in the interview that he was not conscious about his OCF use in class. The reason behind this could be the way pre-service education programs are offered. Teacher education programs are expected to deliver different types of knowledge such as content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge and support knowledge (Day & Conklin, 1992; as cited in Day,1991). Day (1991) listed four models teacher education programs might use to transmit those knowledge types. These are apprentice-expert model, the rationalist model, the case studies model and the integrative model. Among those, Day (1991) suggests that the rationalist model is the widely used one in American universities. In the rationalist model scientific knowledge is taught to learners and then they are expected to apply it into their teaching. However, as Rahimi & Zhang (2015)

point out teacher education programs alone are not sufficient to change teachers' behaviors in the classroom with no teaching experiences. At this point, what is crucial is reflective practice embedded in the teacher education programs since the result of one's reflecting on their own practices could lead to a change in practice, if not that, at least a deeper understanding into the issue (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). All in all, theoretical knowledge is of no use when the reflective component is missing.

Reflective practice forms the basis for teacher education programs due to a number of reasons. First, reflective practice helps teachers to take control over their teaching (Loh, Hong & Koh, 2017) boosting observation skills and intuition so that they are able to notice or sense what is happening in the classroom rather than think about it (Szesztay, 2004). Fostered observation ability makes their lessons more effective as they can respond well when they are in between dilemmas or when unexpected situations suddenly occur in the classroom. Moreover, they can take immediate action and make a positive change in the classroom owing to the closely monitoring skills. (Loh, Hong & Koh, 2017). Furthermore, reflective practice leads teachers to lifelong professional development (Burton, 2009).

The literature consists of a great deal of research studies conducted on teachers' beliefs on CF (Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Kamiya, 2016; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothooft, 2014) and reflective practices for teacher education (Atay, 2008; Demirbulak, 2012; Evans, Williams & Metcalf, 2012;Farrell, 2016; Genç, 2009; Gün, 2010; Loh, Hong & Koh, 2017; McGillick, 1993; Nguyen, 2016; Szesztay, 2004). Nevertheless, to the researcher's knowledge, there are only four studies investigating the change in teachers' OCF beliefs and / or behaviors after a short period of training and some kind of reflection on teaching (Demir & Özmen, 2018; Mackey et al., 2004; Rankin & Becker, 2006; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). Of those, Vasquez & Harvey's (2010) study is a replication of Lyster & Ranta's (1997). As part of the SLA course in their MA program, nine teachers were asked to

conduct the same research as Lyster & Ranta (1997) did in their classrooms, which formed the reflective component of the study. The aim was to increase the participant teachers' awareness of OCF. Through questionnaires, journal entries and a group interview, it was discovered that reflective practice created a positive impact on their beliefs about OCF. The participant teachers' beliefs shifted from focusing on affective aspects of CF to "a more sophisticated understanding of corrective feedback" (p. 421), which proved the reflective dimension of teacher development works more efficiently to apply theoretical knowledge. Rankin & Becker (2006) also carried out a research study with a German teacher to monitor the effects of a seminar about OCF strategies and an action research afterwards. The results revealed that there was a significant change in the OCF behaviors of the German teacher. Similarly, Mackey et al. (2004) conducted a workshop about OCF strategies to four teachers using limited OCF strategies in their lessons. After the workshop, all the teachers' awareness about the use of OCF strategies was observed to have increased. The final one is of Demir & Özmen's (2018) which greatly differs in nature from the previous ones as it was conducted in a Turkish university with 30 pre-service EFL students. After a needs analysis, Demir and Özmen (2018) developed an online CF course which is called ONOCEF. Upon watching one or two episodes each week, pre-service EFL teachers tried to use the received knowledge in their microteachings that were formally held. After each performance, non-performing students were asked to fill in a reflection paper evaluating their peer's performance based on OCF strategies. The results indicated that ONOCEF worked well to foster students' competencies on OCF and raised their awareness on OCF srategies. This current research topic has been chosen upon the call for further research in Demir & Özmen's (2018) paper:

> … the ONOCEF, can be an instrument of experimental studies in similar and different contexts with pre- and post-test designs as distinct from the methodology it was tested through in the present study. In this way, its effectiveness can be validated with

statistical measures and can thus be complementary to the qualitative findings of the current study. In addition, the results of the ONOCEF content being offered face-to-face is also worthy of investigation. (Demir & Özmen, 2018, p.9)

1.2.Statement of the Problem

It is a fact that pre-service education does not guarantee the expected class behavior of a teacher. However, pre-service teacher education is mostly influential in shaping teachers' beliefs about teaching a language (Özmen & Aydın, 2015). Atay (2008) claims that teachers find in-service education and training programs unsatisfactory because the reflective component of the program is missing. The situation in pre-service education does not have much difference since the rationalist model still seems to be dominant in Turkish universities. This can be inferred by what Özmen & Aydın (2015) mentioned that pre-service teacher education "might provide students with extra courses on corrective feedback as well as more opportunities for students to practice strategies for OCF to build up their own pedagogy" (p. 153). In a similar vein, Demir & Özmen (2018) also suggest that pre-service teacher education programs should offer more opportunities for students to combine theory and practice.

As Cruickshank & Applegate (1981) point out, a teacher education program should "help teachers to think about what happened, why it happened and what else they could have done to reach their goals" (p. 553). In other words, reflective practice plays an important role in teacher development and awareness is the key element of reflective practice (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). Teacher education programs are considered to be designed to raise awareness in order to change teachers' classroom practices (Freeman, 1989). However, reflective practice is crucial in transforming teachers' past beliefs and received information into actual classroom behavior. This is because teachers' past beliefs resist the change (Karen Johnson, 1994). Therefore, as Kagan (1992) highlights, if teacher education programs are expected to

be successful, pre-existing beliefs of teachers have to be questioned and restructured. Thus, if "better student learning and more efficient performance" (Akbari, 2007, p. 204; as cited in Nguyen, 2016) is the goal, integrating reflective practice into pre-service teacher education programs is the only means to reach that goal. There is only one recent study in Turkey (Demir & Özmen, 2018) combining theory and practice on OCF strategies in a pre-service teacher education program and the results proved to be successful. Similarly, this current study seeks to bridge the gap between theory about OCF strategies and practice through reflective practices.

1.3. Research Questions

Demir & Özmen (2018) investigated whether OCF strategies offered by an online course and through formal microteaching could help pre-service EFL teachers to reflect on their peers' practices and ultimately increase their own awareness on OCF strategies. As a call for further research, they noted that the results could be verified with another research study which could be conducted through face-to-face instruction replacing the online videos. In order to find out if the results could be generalizable and to shed more light into the issue, the following research questions have been asked:

1. What do Turkish pre-service EFL teachers know about OCF strategies?
2. What are the effects of a reflective training program on the awareness of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' OCF strategies?

1.4. Statement of Purpose

The current study aims to verify the findings of Demir & Özmen (2018) in a slightly different context, through face-to-face instruction, by describing what pre-service EFL teachers already know about OCF strategies and how a reflective training program might influence the awareness of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' OCF strategies.

1.5. Significance of the Study

It is easy to find many research examples conducted on the effectiveness of OCF strategies, teachers' beliefs about OCF strategies and teachers' reflective practices on their teaching performances in the literature. However, to the researcher's knowledge, there are only four studies about OCF strategies combining the theory and practice through reflection (Demir & Özmen, 2018; Mackey et al., 2004; Rankin & Becker, 2006; Vasquez & Harley, 2010), and of those only Demir & Özmen (2018) demonstrate the situation with pre-service EFL teachers in the Turkish context. However, that study investigated whether a blended reflective program with online lessons would be effective on pre-service EFL teachers' awareness. The current study is significant as it is the first to examine the effects of a face-to-face instructed reflective training program on pre-service EFL teachers' awareness on OCF strategies in Turkey.

1.6. Assumptions

This study is based on two assumptions. First, the participants who are sophomores are assumed to have little or no background knowledge about OCF strategies as it is the third year of the pre-service teacher education program which offers courses addressing teaching techniques; thus, pre-service teachers are currently introduced to OCF strategies with courses such as teaching English to young learners, teaching language skills and teaching methods. Second, the participant pre-service EFL teachers are assumed to have similar education backgrounds and be familiar with the basic terminology of English lanuage teaching since they have been studying at the same university for two years and have taken the same courses.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

There are four limitations of the current study. First, it is a cross-sectional study, so only the short-term results of the reflective training program can be described. It is not possible to foresee the pre-service EFL teachers' behaviors of OCF strategies in the long run.

Second, the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs only studying in the second year of the program are examined; thus, the findings cannot be generalized to all pre-service EFL teachers in that particular institution or other institutions in Turkey except for the existing results of a similar recent Turkish study, Demir & Özmen (2018) who worked with junior pre-service EFL teachers, though. Third, although the participants are typical for the population, the number of the participants taking part in the reflective training program is limited to only one classroom. Therefore, further data are necessary to generalize the results. The final limitation of the study is individual differences of the participants were not taken into account during the data analysis.

1.8. Definition of Key Terminology

The following terms frequently used in the current study are introduced to make the concepts more clear.

Corrective Feedback (CF): Responses, of all kinds, to a learner's oral or written incorrect uses of the target language from the teacher or their peers.

Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF): Responses, of all kinds, to a learner's only oral incorrect uses of the target language from the teacher or their peers.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): the process during which a person naturally acquires a language.

Language Learning: the process during which a learner deliberately focuses on language units to be able to use them for communication.

Foreign Language (FL): The language a person learns other than their mother tongue which is not officially used in a particular country.

Second Language (SL): The language a person acquires other than their mother tongue which is officially used in a particular country.

Teacher Beliefs: What teachers assume to be true about teaching and learning.

Teacher Cognition: Teachers' knowledge, beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning.

Pre-Service EFL Teachers: Student-teachers studying at pre-service teacher education programs.

In-Service EFL Teachers: Gradute teachers officially working in an educational institution such as primary schools, universities or private language schools.

INSET Program: A training program offered for in-service teachers.

Reflection: the process during which a teacher deeply evaluates the impacts of their teaching procedures in a particular setting on the learners with the assistance of others in order to adjust the teaching procedures to the needs of the learners.

Teacher Training: A short-term or long-term formal teaching education program.

Teacher Development: The process a teacher improves the quality of teaching through the use of reflective tools either alone or with the assistance of others.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1. OCF Strategies

Truscott (1999) notes that teachers always have to make decisions in the classroom about what they should do and what they should not; however, because research always results in doubtful findings in language teaching, teachers have to make those decisions through experiential learning. The provision of OCF is among those decisions which has caused a great deal of controversy for decades (Azad, 2016; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Sarandi, 2016). Unfortunately the act of spotting the error and correcting it immediately is not sufficient (Terriche, 2017). As many researchers have pointed out (Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Mendez & Cruz, 2012), it is “a complex phenomenon.” (Ellis, 2009, p.16) and there are still questions about some issues such as the necessity for the provision of CF and the decisions made on the use of different strategies as well as the effectiveness of each strategy. In short, it is a “multilevel dilemma” to provide CF on erroneous utterances of learners (Terriche, 2017). Back in the late 70s, Hendrickson (1978) tried to address those major concerns about CF but he himself highlighted that most answers were speculative and not based on empirical studies. Since then, CF has attracted a great deal of attention as it is theoretically relevant to SLA and practically a concerning issue for teachers (Ellis, 2010) given that it is a common strategy used by teachers in teaching practice and a significant amount of teachers’ time and energy is spent on it; therefore, researchers wish to gain more information about the process (Sarandi, 2016). Besides that, CF is “very researchable” (Ellis, 2010, p. 336) as one can easily observe the CF moves and analyze them. Nevertheless, there is no general consensus on the issues regarding CF due to the differing research findings and theoretical arguments (Agudo, 2013); thus, it is not possible to “form clear conclusions that can serve as the basis for informed advise to teachers” (Ellis, 2009, p.11-12).

2.1.1.Definition of CF. "Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes" (Douglas Brown, 1994, p.204). It is the same in learning a language. On the other hand, one problem with linguistic systems is that they cannot be monitored directly (Douglas Brown, 1994). Thus, errors are the "signals that actual learning is taking place" (Hendrickson, 1978, p.388). Errors give teachers clues about student learning (Fanselow, 1977), teaching materials, teaching techniques and syllabus (Corder, 1967). Making errors is inevitable and natural part of the learning process and teachers are expected to help learners to grasp the correct use of language by providing feedback (Ananda et al., 2017; Karimi & Esfandiari, 2016). Learners benefit from their errors, which makes the learning process effective (Douglas Brown, 1994) and errors help reshaping their interlanguage systems (Harmer, 2001).

An error is simply "a systematic deviation" (Terriche, 2017, p.330). There are various reasons for errors to occur. These can be listed as developmental errors like over-generalization (Harmer, 2001), interlingual transfer, in other words, the negative transfer from L1 at the early stages of learning (Douglas Brown, 1994; Harmer, 2001), context of learning such as textbook or misunderstanding the teacher, and communication strategies like word coinage (Douglas Brown, 1994). Douglas Brown (1994) also describes 4 stages in interlanguage development in terms of the frequency of errors occuring in the interlanguage system while learning a language. The first stage consists of random errors where learners are not very conscious about the systematic use of linguistic forms but they just experiment and guess. The second one is emergent stage where some rules have been internalized and a systematicity in the language system has been recognized. There might be, however, backsliding in this stage and learners cannot make self-corrections when the errors are pointed by someone. The third stage is a truly systematic stage where learners are more consistent in production. The biggest difference between the previous stage and this stage is that learners

can self-correct their errors with the assistance of others. The last stage is the stabilization stage where learners make few errors and have internalized the systematicity of language. They can produce language with fluency and intended meaning. They are also able to make self-corrections without assistance.

Learners naturally make errors as they try to communicate in English before they expertise (Burt, 1975). After all, as Corder (1967) concludes, there would be no errors if there was a perfect teaching method and the world itself is not perfect, so what teachers and researchers should focus on must be how to handle those errors. Errors can be prevented through the provision of feedback. Feedback in general terms has been defined as the "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance" (Ur, 1996, p.242). Similarly, Hattie & Timperley (2007) considered feedback briefly as "a consequence of performance" (p. 81). Feedback shows learners the difference between where they currently are and where they are supposed to be (Tran, 2017).

Broadly speaking, there are two types of feedback in the language learning literature known as positive and negative feedback. It is also known as positive and negative evidence as learners are considered to be exposed to different types of input (Gass, 1997; Nassaji, 2007). Positive evidence includes the correct samples of language and positive feedback occurs when a teacher appraises learners upon their correct utterances. Positive feedback is important as through positive feedback affective support is provided to the learner. Teachers should encourage learners to carry on learning (Agudo, 2013). It, however, in SLA has not received much recognition as teachers' positive feedback might not be clear for learners since it might simply be a "yes" or "good" which could also mean the teacher agrees with the learners' utterances rather than praising the accurateness of the utterance. On the other hand, negative evidence shows what is not acceptable in the target language and negative feedback,

also known as corrective feedback, is “corrective in intent” (Ellis, 2009, p.3). It has received not only SLA researchers’ but also language educators’ attention over the past decades. There are many different definitions of CF by various researchers. However, they all refer, in common, to responses, of various kinds, to linguistic errors occuring in learners’ utterances (Ellis, 2009; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Kartchava, 2016; Li, 2010, 2013, 2014; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006; Sarandi, 2016; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). By some researchers CF has been referred to as incidental focus on form as it describes an instant shift in focus on language form during another activity (Li, 2014; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Long, 1991; Mackey et al., 2004). Considering the classroom environment, it is difficult for a teacher to design activities promoting practice which are both communicative in nature and deal with accuracy at the same time. That is why CF is important in handling the accurate use of target structures (Lyster & Sato, 2013). Long (1991) posits that both negative evidence and positive evidence might be useful for learners; however, positive evidence is not adequate in some cases. He maintains that sometimes one’s L1 might lead to errors. For instance, in French, as he mentions, “He drinks coffee every day” or “He drinks every day coffee” could be used interchangeably but in English the latter is not communicatively effective and needs negative evidence. While it is necessary that learners should know when they make correct utterances with the signals of teacher praise and approval, they also need to learn where they make mistakes to improve accuracy. CF is not just transmitting information to learners about linguistic, pragmatic or cultural issues but it is providing learners with opportunities for development towards more accurate, more appropriate and more clear use of target language (Tran, 2017).

OCF is different from written CF in nature, which can also be examined in Figure 1. Sheen (2010b) lists some distinct characteristics of OCF. First, when learners are given OCF, they could or could not recognize the corrective force and that depends on the CF type.

Second, OCF is an online provision of feedback. It causes an online cognitive load which makes learners count on their short-term memory (Sheen, 2010a). Third, OCF is provided to individuals in class which benefits everyone else, as well. Finally, OCF can take the form of multiple corrections.

Figure 1

Differences Between Oral and Written CF (Sheen, 2010b, p. 210)

Type	Oral	Written
1	Corrective force may or may not be clear.	Corrective force is usually clear.
2	Immediate.	Delayed.
3	Students function as addressees but also hearers of the feedback.	Students mainly function as addressees of the feedback.
4	Students are exposed to public feedback that was not restricted to their own errors.	Each student is exposed to feedback moves restricted to his or her own errors.

2.1.2. Should learner errors be corrected?. According to the different perspectives in L2 acquisition and learning, there has been a fluctuation over “what the teacher should do with learner errors” (Sheen, 2010a, p.169). Those differing perspectives can be described and analyzed through two interrelated aspects: historical and theoretical.

The place of CF in language classrooms has always been dependent on the teaching approaches and methods. Thus, there has been a shift in pedagogical focus on error correction which started from preventing errors towards the time when learning from errors is highly valued (Hendrickson, 1978). In the 1950s and 60s, when audiolingual method was widely practiced in language classes, CF had a restricted role in teaching. Since learners’ errors were considered as serious as sins, they had to be avoided at all costs well in advance. However, if a learner made an error in the classroom, it had to be corrected immediately by providing the learner with a sample of the correct utterance (Victoria Russell, 2009) to avoid the negative outcomes of the error such as the error’s becoming a habit since language learning mostly depended on repetition and drills. While behaviorists tried to provide the learners with the

correct use of language before they made errors, nativists ignored CF completely. Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis and Natural Order Hypothesis were completely against the provision of CF because according to the affective filter hypothesis, learners' anxiety increases their affective filter and when that occurs, it hampers fluency. Therefore; when CF leads to increased anxiety, it might impede acquisition. In a similar vein, the natural order hypothesis puts forward that there is a fixed order in the forms and structures of a language acquired naturally and the order cannot be changed with instruction. Thus, there is no need to provide learners with the correct samples of language as it is probably not the right time for them to acquire that particular structure. Similarly, Truscott (1999) believed that grammar correction was not a good idea as he stated,

> ...research evidence points to the conclusion that oral correction does not improve learners' ability to speak grammatically. No good reasons have been advanced for maintaining the practice. For these reasons, language teachers should seriously consider the option of abandoning oral grammar correction altogether. (p.437).

Humanistic methods, however, considered CF necessary as long as the provided CF was positive and not judgmental. Moreover, the supporters of skills-learning theory also thought CF was important since learners needed feedback on their performance so that they could improve their skills further (Ellis, 2009). Recently, with the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching, a still widely-used method by teachers today, CF has definitely a place in language classrooms after many studies have shown that CF is facilitative in language acquisition (Brandt, 2008; Ellis, 2010; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Kamiya, 2016, 2018; Li, 2010; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Oladejo, 1993; Roothooft, 2014; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006; Schulz, 2001). To sum up, after investigating those stages CF has come through, it is easy to see that CF has turned out to be an "interactional student-centered

relationship" (p.74) from a teacher-centered phenomenon (Kaivanpanah, Alavi & Sepehrinia, 2015).

The value attached to CF also depends on the principles of different theories. Cognitive theories view CF as individual-based and take it as an internal process which is activated to make language acquisition possible. In other words, after CF is received, systems in a learner's head start working in order to make use of that piece of CF. In contrast, sociocultural theory bases language learning on interaction, so it views language learning not as individual work but instead something that is shared between an expert and a novice in a meaningful context. Thus, according to sociocultural and sociocognitive theories, learning is considered "not as an outcome (i.e., something that results from correction) but rather as a process that occurs within the enactment of a corrective episode." (Ellis, 2010, p.346). From this perpective, CF definitely plays an important role in acquisition as CF moves form the basis for the zone of proximal development which is the key construct of sociocultural theory (Ellis, 2009). CF helps learners to output an utterance they cannot yet manage themselves. By scaffolding, learners are able to make use of the forms in the target language which they would not be able to without the help of an interlocutor. According to this theory, one single CF type working best for one learner might not be useful for another, at all, as all learners have different capacities and competences (Sheen, 2010a). Thus, all CF types should be used and customized to assist learners' development instead of the use of one single method. Interactionists are also open to CF as input naturally plays a role in interaction, but still it is dependent upon the way CF is provided. They believe that explicit error correction, for instance, is a rare one used in the real world setting as parents almost never say "no, that's not right" to their children as feedback (Lochtman, 2002). The role of CF is limited in the theory of Universal Grammar as input does not play the game itself but it just triggers the Language Acquisition Device since input only acts as a provider of positive evidence which is similar to

child-parent relationship. When children are learning their mother tongue, they are provided mostly only positive evidence by their parents and they acquire their first language. The concern here is whether the same situation applies for foreign language learning or not (Lochtman, 2002). Finally, Skills Acquisition Theory claims that language learning is a process which requires the target language to be used with a lot of effort in the beginning and in time it turns into the automatic use of the language as one practices and receives feedback on their performances (Lyster & Sato, 2013). Lyster & Sato (2013) make declarative and procedural knowledge clear as those lie at the heart of Skills Acquisition Theory. While declarative knowledge refers to the fundamentals or facts, procedural knowledge refers to the rules helping one on how to perform a task. Through practice it is possible to turn declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge which can also be called as proceduralization, the stage where one does not even have to think about the rules as they have been automized through a lot of practice.

As the question itself suggests "Should learner errors be corrected?", learners are at the heart of the CF process, so learners' opinions about the provision of CF should definitely be taken into account (Alan Brown, 2009; Ananda et al., 2017), since CF does not work if learners have a negative attitude towards error correction (Chenoweth et al., 1983). Learner beliefs have been defined by Dörnyei & Ryan (2015) as "significant learner characteristics to take into account when explaining learning outcomes" (p.187). Kartchava (2016) lists some factors shaping learner beliefs such as anxiety, motivation, learner autonomy, self-regulation, strategy use, language proficiency and gender. She further explains that learner beliefs are not stable but dynamic; therefore, it is important to understand them for teachers. Moreover, it is necessary to investigate learner beliefs as they show learners' opinions about what effective instruction should be like and those beliefs indirectly lead to enhanced learning (Kartchava, 2016). If learner preferences are to be neglected, there should be certain reasons for this (Ur,

1996). Previous research shows that learners want to be corrected on their errors (Agudo, 2013; Ananda et al., 2017; Azad, 2016; Chenoweth et al., 1983; Ge, 2017; Katayama, 2007; Eun Jeong Lee, 2016; Oladejo, 1993; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 2001; Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Genç, 2014) because they want to be more accurate, CF helps them to be aware of their errors and they view CF necessary for their oral language development. Eun Jeong Lee (2016) showed that the lack of CF might lead to the decrease in the teacher's credibility as one participant stated:

> As I told you, my previous English teachers didn't provide individual feedback like this. But, here my American teacher knows what the errors for Chinese are, what are the errors for Thais, for other countries in Asia, so she can – she knows, even, like, 'You pronounce L like this, but you should pronounce L like this.' They know, even, how we pronounce these words. So I think – I'm not sure if the teachers who taught in Thailand know this, know our weaknesses, our errors. (Eun Jeong Lee, 2016, p.811).

However, the research also presents some contradictory findings as Agudo (2013) demonstrated that two-thirds of the learners hated and worried about making oral errors. Truscott (1999) believes that it is the teachers who, by providing learners with CF, make their students assume that CF really works otherwise learners would not wish their errors to be corrected. He adds that learners would not ask for correction at all if teachers tried to conduct their lessons ignoring the errors.

Besides the investigation of learner beliefs, there are some research studies examining the teacher perceptions and behaviors, which are going to be discussed in great detail later on. Briefly, a teacher's methodological perspective usually influences their decisions over the provision of CF and how to provide it (Victoria Russell, 2009). As Oladejo (1993) points out, a lot of language teachers view errors as necessary in the learning process and only a small number of them considers errors to be ignored totally. In general there are two main concerns

of teachers while providing CF. First, they feel that CF might break the flow of the interaction and have a negative impact on communication (Alan Brown, 2009). Second, with their provision of CF learners might lose face in front of others; thus, CF might cause increased learner anxiety (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). Despite the concerns, many research studies (Atai & Shafiee, 2017; Davies, 2011; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Simard & Jean, 2011) have evidenced that teachers spend almost 10% of their lesson time on the provision of CF.

Foreign language learners are expected to make errors and although CF continues to be a controversial issue, it is agreed by the majority that teachers should assist learners with their errors (Ge, 2017; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). There are some reasons for that. First, as Hendrickson (1978) claims, learners' proficiency level improves further when they are given CF than they are not. Second, learners might think their utterances are fine when they are not provided with CF (Ananda et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important for accuracy in the target language (Atai & Shafiee, 2017). Third, in foreign language learning context, since target language is not spoken outside the classroom, learners usually depend on the materials, language course and the teacher who is the most proficient speaker they can interact with. As the noticing and hypothesizing opportunities are restricted to the classroom, it is mostly the teacher and the classmates that are the sources of mediation, means for interaction and CF. From this perspective, thus, in foreign language contexts OCF is precious for learners (Özmen & Aydın, 2015). Finally, the provision of CF is "pragmatically feasible, potentially effective and, in some cases, necessary." (Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.457) since it helps learners to discover the mismatch between their erroneous utterances and target language forms, which ultimately promotes L2 development (Rassaei, 2015).

It is agreed by the majority that CF should be provided; however, there are some issues teachers need to be cautious about. First of all, teachers should make sure that their students recognise their errors are being corrected (Ellis, 2009). Next, teachers should be

tactful when providing OCF in class as students' attitudes and personalities differ (Agudo, 2013). As Dresser & Asato (2014) point out, affective factors are usually undermined; however, OCF is particularly harmful if it is considered by learners as criticizing (Dresser & Asato, 2014). It has to be non-intrusive to learners (Agudo, 2013). Also, if CF causes learner anxiety, teachers should immediately stop providing feedback (Ellis, 2010). Furthermore, although it is challenging for teachers, they should individualize the errors they provide CF on.

2.1.3.How should learner errors be corrected?. Language teachers utilize a wide variety of CF strategies in order to support learners to be able to discover the negative evidence in their utterances (Mackey et al., 2007). With an attempt to find out what those strategies are, a lot of research studies have been carried out. The taxonomy of Lyster & Ranta (1997) is the most widely-used one among researchers due to its systematicity, although there was a significant number of researchers observing and suggesting a list of CF strategies for teachers to use before them (Douglas Brown, 1994; Fanselow, 1977; Harmer, 2001; Hendrickson, 1978; Oladejo, 1993; Ur, 1996). Lyster & Ranta (1997) observed 6 different CF types described in Figure 2. In addition to those types, they also added another category, multiple feedback, which refers to the use of more than one CF type at a time. Their research into French immersion classes depicted that teachers used recasts most frequently. Following that finding recasts were considerably investigated by researchers and although the opinions and findings differ, there is a general consensus among researchers that recasts are the mostly used CF type by teachers; however, it has still not been concluded whether recasts are efficient in language learning or not (Victoria Russell, 2009). Yoshida (2008) showed that less intimidating nature of recasts as well as time constraints led teachers to use this kind of feedback more often. Recasts are preferred in communicative classes as they provide the correct forms without breaking the communication flow, maintain the focus on meaning and

offer scaffolding for learners to be able to take part in the interaction which sometimes might occur beyond their proficiency level (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). On the other hand, even though recasts sound more natural and they are considered to disrupt the

Figure 2

Tedick and Gortari's (1998, p.2) Descriptive Summary of Examples Used in Lyster & Ranta (1997)

Oral CF type	Definition	Example
Explicit correction	Clearly indicates that the student's utterance was not correct, the teacher provides the correct form.	S: […] *le coyote, le bison et la gr … groue.* [phonological error] '[…] the coyote, the bison and the cr … crane.' T: *Et la grue. On dit grue.* 'And the crane. We say crane.'
Recasts	Without direct indication that the student's utterance was not correct, the teacher implicitly reformulates the student's error.	S: *L'eau érable?* [grammatical error] [Maple sap?' T: *L'eau d'érable. C'est bien.* 'Maple sap. Good.'
Clarification requests	By using phrases like 'I don't understand' or 'Pardon me?' the teacher indicates that the message has not been understood or that the student's utterance had some kind of error, and that either a repetition or a reformulation is in order.	S: *Est-ce que, est-ce que je peux fait une carte sur le … pour mon petit frère sur le computer?* [multiple errors] 'Can, can I made a card on the … for my little brother on the computer?' T: *Pardon?* 'Pardon?'
Metalinguistic clues	Without providing the correct form, the teacher asks questions or provides information related to the construction of the student's utterance (for example, 'Do we say it like that?', 'That's not how you say it in French,' and 'Is it feminine?').	S: *Euhm, le, le éléphant. Le éléphant gronde.* [multiple errors] 'Uhm, the, the elephant. The elephant growls.' T: *Est-ce qu'on dit le éléphant?* 'Do we say the elephant?'
Elicitations	The teacher explicitly elicits the correct form from the student by asking questions (e.g. 'How do we say that in French?'), by pausing to give the student an opportunity to complete the teacher's utterance (e.g. 'It's a …') or by asking students to reformulate the utterance (e.g. 'Say that again.'). Elicitation questions require more than a yes or no response.	S: … *Ben y a un jet de parfum qui sent pas très bon* … [lexical error] '… Well, there's a stream of perfume that doesn't smell very nice …' T: *Alors un jet de parfum on va appeler ça un …?* 'So a stream of perfume, we'll call that a …?'
Repetition	The teacher repeats the student's error and modifies intonation to draw the student's attention to it.	S: *Le … le girafe?* [gender error] 'The … the giraffe?' T: *Le girafe?* 'The giraffe?'

flow of the conversation less, learners might fail to understand the corrective intent due to its complex nature (Victoria Russell, 2009; Tran, 2017). Besides that, recasts are ambiguous as they could be viewed by students as a different way of saying the same thing (Lyster, 1998, 2004; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000). Sheen (2007b) has demonstrated that recasts are not valuable if their corrective force is not recognized by learners. Moreover, when learners make erroneous utterances and teachers provide recasts, learners with some linguistic background might draw a conclusion out of the feedback given. However, it is still unknown how teachers could provide recasts on a language form learners have zero knowledge on (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013).

Another well-known taxonomy is that of Llinares & Lyster (2014) who grouped CF types into three as recasts, prompts and explicit correction. Prompts include clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations and repetition since those types prompt learners to discover their errors themselves. A considerable number of research studies has been conducted investigating whether recasts or prompts are more effective. According to Lyster (1998, 2004), output-prompting strategies are more efficient as they help learners to gain more control on the forms partially acquired whereas recasts are usually ambiguous. On the other hand, Lyster & Mori (2006) consider prompts and recasts as complementary moves which have “different purposes for different learners in different discourse contexts.” (p.273). They suggest that recasts should be used with complex structures as they are supportive in nature and scaffold learners with utterances they wish to make beyond their competence. In other words, recasts are language input for learners. Prompts, in contrast, aim to elicit output from learners. They further note that self-repair following prompts engages learners with deeply processing and reanalysing whereas uptake following recasts does not as it is simply the repetition of the same utterance. In reality, Yoshida (2008) demonstrates that teachers do not prefer to use prompts as they are concerned about learners’ failure to self-correct their

utterances. Also, although most of the time the participant teachers mention that self-correction and more explanation are much more effective, they have to use recasts due to time contraints and to have a good rapport with learners.

Implicit and explicit CF types are almost as favored as the taxonomy of Lyster & Ranta (1997) by researchers. Explicit feedback openly draws learners' attention on the erroneous part and thus makes learners aware of the negative evidence while implicit feedback does not inform the learner overtly about what is unacceptable in their utterances compared to the target language (Li, 2010). Sheen & Ellis (2011) group different CF types into explicit and implicit in terms of their nature, which can be examined below in Figure 3.

Figure 3

A Taxonomy of OCF Strategies (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p.594)

	Implicit	Explicit
Input-providing	• Conversational recasts (i.e., the correction consists of a reformulation of a student utterance in the attempt to resolve a communication problem; such recasts often take the form confirmation checks where the reformulation is followed by a question tag as in "Oh, so you were sick, were you?").	• Didactic recasts (i.e., the correction takes the form of a reformulation of a student utterance even though no communication problem has arisen). • Explicit correction only (i.e., the correction takes the form of a direct signal that an error has been committed and the correct form is supplied). • Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (i.e., in addition to signaling an error has been committed and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment).
Output-prompting	• Repetition (i.e., the learner's erroneous utterance is repeated without any intonational highlighting of the error). • Clarification requests (i.e., attention is drawn to a problem utterance by the speaker indicating he/she has not understood it).	• Metalinguistic clue (i.e., a brief metalinguistic statement aimed at eliciting a correction from the learner). • Elicitation (i.e., an attempt is made to verbally elicit the correct form from the learner by, for example, a prompting question). • Paralinguistic signal (i.e., an attempt is made to non-verbally elicit the correct form from the learner).

However, this implicitness and explicitness issue is open to discussion as there have been differing opinions on that. For instance, Li (2014) argued CF was explicit when it was

followed by a rule explanation, yet it was implicit when rules were not explained. However, Sarandi (2016) claims that the degree of implicitness depends on the proficiency level of learners. While a novice learner might find a linguistic form implicit, a more proficient learner might not find it implicit as they have previous knowledge on grammar.

Interactional feedback has also been the focus of many research studies; however, researchers have interpreted it differently. For instance, Lyster & Mori (2006) refer to prompts and recasts as interactional feedback since according to their observation, those two types of OCF are not used merely for correction by teachers, but also to keep the interaction in the classroom going. Similarly, Mackey & Gass (2006) refer to recast and elicitation as interactional feedback in their study. Nevertheless, Nassaji (2007) defined interactional feedback as implicit or explicit feedback generated through negotation and modification of the utterance to deal with a communication breakdown. Nassaji (2007) defined negotiation here as “interactional modifications that occur in conversational discourse to repair communication breakdowns” (p.513), which, as a matter of fact, refers to the same notion as negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning generally arises when teachers cannot understand learner utterances (Mackey et al., 2007). As Mackey et al. (2000) suggest, negotiation leads to more self-correction and is less ambiguous in the intent of correction than recasts. Earlier than that, however, Lyster (1998a) explained in Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) study they observed teachers using recasts and that leading to the lowest rate of uptake among other CF types. This is because teachers used recasts not just for correction, but also for the confirmation of the meaning conveyed by the students. That made it difficult for students to notice their errors and correct them as they might have thought the teacher’s correction was just a sign of confirmation or “another way of saying the same thing” (Lyster, 1998a, p.63). Thus, he called recasts and confirmation checks as negotiation srategies since both parties focused on meaning. Lyster expressed that he did not find negotiation of meaning strategies

effective for the development of accuracy. Therefore, he proposed ‘negotiation of form’ strategies involving elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition of errors, owing to the fact that those CF types fostered output through peer or self-correction rather than the provision of correct forms. According to Lyster, negotiation of form should be particularly used to deal with grammatical errors because they are the ones that cannot be easily noticed by learners, so those strategies will enable them to notice and give them the opportunity to self-correct. Lyster (1998a) also showed that teachers’ negotiation of form strategies did not have a negative impact on the communication flow after analyzing the transcripts of the four immersion classes in Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) study. Therefore, it was proved that negotiation of form strategies did not block the communication or lesson flow as opposed to some researchers claiming that teachers did not prefer those strategies due to communication breakdown. In comparison to recasts, Lyster (1998a) listed two reasons why negotiation of form strategies were less ambiguous. First, they were more explicit as they drew on language output. Second, it was not possible for students to consider those strategies as a confirmation of meaning. Therefore, negotiation of form strategies created a timely opportunity for learners to link form and function in L2 with mutual negotiation and without communication breakdown.

Regarding CF types, there is a bulk of research studies in the literature. Those could be divided into three main sets of studies: preferred CF type(s) of learners, teachers’ preferences and practices of CF types in the classroom and the effectiveness of different CF types.

The majority of the studies investigating learners’ preferred CF types demonstrates that learners prefer explicit correction more than the other CF types (Alan Brown, 2009; Azad, 2016; Ge, 2017; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016). Metalinguistic feedback, another type explicit in nature, was also found very effective by learners. Katayama (2007) revealed that the majority of learners preferred metalinguistic

feedback for grammatical errors followed by recasts. Yang (2016) also found out that learners preferred metalinguistic feedback for all types of errors. One of the participants in Yang's (2016) study explained the effectiveness of metalinguistic feedback as,

> ...in my mother tongue, these words are nearly used in the same way with similar meanings, yet it is not the case in Chinese. It would be good to understand their differences, if teachers could explain the rules to us. (Yang, 2016, p.82).

Yang (2016) found that repetition, elicitation and clarification requests were considered ineffective by learners as one of the participants summarized, "It can be worse if I say it again and the teacher seems still not to get it." (p.82). Some studies focused on the differences between two proficiency levels and examined the learners' preferences in both levels. For instance, Katayama (2007) found a significant difference between the preferences of beginners and more advanced learners on the type of CF. Learners studying Japanese for one semester favored paralinguistic signals more than the ones studying for five semesters or more. She explained that the reason behind this could be because beginners felt less comfortable with making errors than advanced learners so such an approach would be less threatening for them. Similarly, Alan Brown (2009) discovered that first year students preferred explicit types more than second year students. Furthermore, Genç (2014) revealed that lower level students favored Explicit Correction and Repetition whereas higher level students found Clarification Request, Implicit Treatment and Confirmation Checks more effective.

While learners mostly prefer explicit types, the studies investigating teachers' actual practices show that teachers prefer to use recasts most of the time (Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Dan Brown, 2016; Dilans, 2016; Ge, 2017) in order to save time and encourage slow learners to carry on speaking. On the other hand, it is not true to think that teachers prefer some certain CF types just because they favor those types. The studies confirm there are some factors

underlying those preferences. For instance, Dan Brown (2016) investigated the use of recasts further and revealed some interesting results. First, he found that teachers provided advanced students with more recasts than beginners as teachers usually viewed higher-level students more proficient in noticing and benefiting from recasts than lower-level students Also, he illustrated that adult learners received more recasts than high school students, which he thinks the level of education is a significant factor in CF. Moreover, Dan Brown (2016) found that 86% of the teachers who used recasts had no prior education in L2 teaching field whereas 8% of the teachers who provided prompts had no prior education, which demonstrates that academic background is another factor in the provision of CF types. One more interesting finding in Dan Brown's (2016) study is that teachers used almost 40% fewer recasts when they were not informed by researchers about the research focus. Finally, recasts were found more natural by particularly novice teachers. Dan Brown (2016) was not the only one investigating the role of teaching experience in the provision of CF types. Rahimi & Zhang (2015) also demonstrated that novice and experienced teachers had different preferences in terms of CF types. While novice teachers made use of recasts and clarification requests, experienced teachers utilized explicit correction and recasts more. They further found that experienced teachers believed different CF types were equally effective as one experienced teacher stated, "The effectiveness of CF types depends on the type of error, the type of learning task, and the student who makes the error." (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015, p.117). Nevertheless, the use of recasts, as some studies have proved, similarly depends on learners' linguistic capacity, contextual factors and task types. To illustrate, Lochtman (2002) demonstrated that during text comprehension activities recasts were used more often while in grammar exercises prompts were used more frequently. Yoshida (2008) found that Japanese teachers' preferred CF type in Australia was based on learners' capabilities and cognition. If they thought their learners had enough competency, they used metalinguistic feedback and

clarification requests whereas when they considered learners as less capable or reserved in social settings they used recasts. When that was the situation, recasts played an important role in creating a supportive learning environment. Simard and Jean (2011) showed that setting was an important factor in the use of different CF types. They recorded 60 hours of class time of English as a Second Language and French as a Second Language classes. They observed the teacher used recasts more often in the ESL class whereas the teacher in the FSL class used explicit correction more frequently.

As for the effectiveness of CF types, the studies reveal that explicit types are mostly more efficient in the accuracy of learner output. For instance, Sheen (2010b) conducted a quasi-experimental study to compare oral and written CF as well as discovering which type works better, recasts or metalinguistic feedback. The results showed that in both immediate post tests and delayed post tests written direct group outperformed oral recast and control groups. Similarly, written metalinguistic group outperformed oral metalinguistic and control groups. Also, Sheen applied an exit questionnaire after the delayed post tests to assess the awareness of the research focus. The findings demonstrated that the written metalinguistic group showed 52% of awareness followed by oral metalinguistic group with 35%. The written direct group exhibited 25% of awareness while oral recast group showed 0% of awareness, which means learners did not even understand they were being corrected. Sheen proved it one more time that learners fail to notice the corrective force of recasts. Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013) also summarized in their metaanalysis that learners gained more when they received prompts or explicit feedback than they did recasts. There are also those studies demonstrating that implicit types become more effective when they are made more explicit through the use of other means or other CF types. For instance, Nassaji (2007) investigated the relationship between the teachers’ use of elicitation and recast, and learner repair in dyadic interaction. The results revealed that both recast and elicitation led to a high rate of accuracy of output

when they were accompanied with intonation or verbal prompts making the CF types more explicit. Therefore, it was confirmed that salience and opportunities for self-correction were important in effective feedback. Although explicit types seem to be more effective in most studies, Li (2010, 2014) has proved through longer term studies that implicit types are more efficient in the long run and and have more enduring effects.

As indicated in the aforementoned paragraphs, many SLA researchers have tried to find out which CF type is more efficient than the others (Ellis, 2009). However, there is not one single CF type that works best and using a variety of CF types is more effective than using a single strategy (Ellis, 2009) as CF type itself is not the only variable leading to the effectiveness of CF; noticing the CF (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Michael Roberts, 1995), learner factors , instructional settings (Victoria Russell, 2009), age, proficiency levels, task and error types (Harmer, 2001) and a lot more factors (Jane Russell & Spada, 2006) have been proved to influence the effectiveness of CF. Teachers should make their CF decisions taking linguistic targets, students' age, their proficiency level, interactional contexts, curricular objectives and communicative orientation of the classroom into consideration (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013) claim that the most effective teachers are the ones who can orchestrate paying attention to learners' language abilities and their familiarity to content and accordingly provide CF which fits the best for that particular instructional setting. Similarly, Ellis (2010) points out the need for teachers to customize their CF strategies to individual learners as sociocultural theories propose. Ellis (2009) also suggests that teachers could start with implicit CF types to encourage learners to self-correct but if that does not work, they can try more explicit CF strategies. Likewise, Nassaji (2007) recommends providing CF types accompanied with extended features or prompts as they are more salient and thus more effective. Furthermore, Ur (1996) suggests that correction should be informative for learners about how they performed, well or poorly, and it could be

provided through explanation, teacher's reformulation or learner's elicitation but correction should definitely come together with why.

2.1.4. When should learner errors be corrected?. Learners could be provided with CF either right after the error is made, which is called immediate CF, or at a later time such as the end of an activity or the lesson, which is called delayed CF. This is the most common taxonomy referred to in many studies. Li (2013) called those strategies as online and offline CF, the former referring to immediate CF while the latter is used as delayed CF. Besides those, Ölmezer-Öztürk & Gökhan Öztürk (2016) described them in a greater detail and divided immediate CF into two different categories to make the difference in time clear. According to that taxonomy, there are three types regarding the timing of CF: immediate CF, delayed CF and post-delayed CF. While both immediate and delayed CF refer to the time after the error is made, immediate CF is provided before learners finish their utterances; however, delayed CF is given after learners finish their utterances. The provision of post-delayed CF occurs at a later time, namely at the end of the activity or the lesson.

There are some pros and cons of immediate and delayed CF. Immediate CF is beneficial for learners as they give immediate signals about what is problematic in learners' utterances which learners might self-correct or work on later. However, immediate CF moves interrupt the presentation of ideas freely and influence the topic continuation, which has the possibility of affecting the content of ideas. Also, it might lead to the distraction of other learners and the focus moves from message to form. If it is an accuracy-based lesson, it might be appropriate to use immediate CF but if it is not, delayed CF might be more effective. The biggest drawback is that learners might forget the particular errors being discussed when they receive delayed CF. Therefore, it is a better option for presentation classes. It is also beneficial when learners record their speech and wish to check for accuracy (Tran, 2017).

Although there is not much research specifically focusing on the timing of CF, the previous research shows that the majority of learners prefer immediate CF (Ananda et al., 2017; Azad, 2016; Ge, 2017). However, teachers are more cautious about using immediate CF. When the focus of the lesson is fluency, teachers prefer delayed CF but when the focus is on accuracy, then they use either immediate or delayed CF (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). Also, teaching experience might have an impact on the timing of CF as Rahimi & Zhang (2015) indicated that novice and experienced teachers' preferences differed. Experienced teachers preferred to provide CF as soon as students made errors whereas novice teachers preferred to wait until students finished speaking.

Regarding the effectiveness of immediate and delayed CF, it is not possible to come to any conclusion. It is claimed that immediate feedback has a negative impact on the flow of communication in the classroom but Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001) have proved the opposite. However, there is no research demonstrating that immediate feedback is more effective than delayed feedback (Ellis, 2009), which means both immediate and delayed correction can promote learning (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). It is agreed by most scholars that CF should be given immediately in accuracy-oriented activities (Ellis, 2009) while it is suggested to be provided at the end of fluency-oriented activities (Hedge, 2000). Another practical suggestion comes from Doughty (2001) who thinks CF should be provided in the "window of opportunity" pointing at the time when the learner's attention is still on the meaning if the aim is to create a change in the learner's interlanguage system.

2.1.5. Who should do the correcting?. There are three options with regards to who could provide CF: teachers, peers and the students themselves. Jane Russell & Spada (2006) note that the focus of CF research has traditionally been on the teacher or native speakers of the target language outside the classroom. This is due to the fact that L2 learners who are nonnative speakers of the target language are not viewed proficient enough to provide CF

since they do not have sufficient linguistic equipment (Schulz, 2001). The previous studies (Azad, 2016; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Katayama, 2007; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 2001; Genç, 2014) show that teachers are expected to "reinforce oral production through feedback" by students (Kartchava, 2016, p.34).

Although learners prefer teacher correction, self-correction is favored by teachers as it is considered face-saving and it activates learners throughout the CF process. For autonomous learning self-correction is important (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). It has many other advantages for learners, as well. First, when learners are encouraged to work on fixing their errors themselves, the outcome becomes more memorable for learners and could lead to actual learning (Bailey, 2005). Second, the research shows that self-correction helps further language development (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Third, encouraging learners to self-correct is more informative for both learners and teachers (Corder, 1967). Fourth, self-correction is particularly useful in building confidence due to the sense of achievement one will have (Yoshida, 2008). Last, it is more salient and noticeable for learners as the teacher waits for a response (Nassaji, 2007). Meanwhile, however, it has some disadvantages. For instance, learners can only correct their own errors if they have the adequate linguistic knowledge. Also, the sentence which needs to be self-corrected might contain an error other than a linguistic error (like a communicative one), so output-prompting CF might be confusing for learners. Besides, learners generally prefer teacher correction rather than self-correction as the research suggests (Ellis, 2009). They prefer to be provided with comments and cues by the teacher to be able to self-correct their errors (Oladejo, 1993). However, the previous research also shows that advanced learners have a more positive attitude towards elicitative types of CF and self-correction than beginner and intermediate-level learners (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013).

It is really difficult to make conclusions about peer-correction technique as the research findings and opinions differ, yet previous studies show that it is advantageous in many ways. First, learners have the opportunity to interact face-to-face. Second, teachers can observe learners' abilities. Also, cooperation between learners is fostered and they depend on teachers less. Like self-correction, peer correction is face-saving, too, since errors do not become a public affair and that helps learners to be more confident (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). Although peer CF may not always be accurate, it has the advantage of engaging both parties, CF receivers and CF providers, in the process through interaction. Furthermore, the findings show that peer correction benefits less-proficient language learners (Sippel & Jackson, 2015). On the other hand, teachers need to be careful about some issues concerning peer-feedback. In order for learners to provide peer CF, they must first notice the errors in their peer's utterances. Also, for peer CF to be successful, there needs to be a positive and collaborative classroom environment as, otherwise, peer CF on erroneous utterances might be "a socially unacceptable behaviour" (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p. 29) for both the receiver and provider. Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their classmates (Schulz, 2001) as they do not consider peers as authority (Jane Russell & Spada, 2006). For instance, one student commented that she would be fine if she was corrected by her close friends but being corrected by someone she just met would be unpleasant for her (Chenoweth et al., 1983). However, Katayama (2007) found that 63% of the learners wanted their mates to provide CF only in group-work activities as they thought it was beneficial for their learning. She also discovered that the learners studying Japanese for one semester had a more positive attitude towards peer correction than the ones studying for four semesters. As for the effectiveness of peer CF, there are not many studies conducted but Sippel & Jackson (2015) recently carried out a classroom study to investigate the impact of teacher OCF and peer OCF on the present perfect use in German. One of the experimental group with intermediate-level university

students received teacher OCF whereas the other experimental group was provided with peer OCF after receiving a training on how to provide CF for two days. The results demonstrated that both experimental groups benefited from OCF. However, through immediate and delayed post-tests, it was proved that the effects in peer OCF group outweighed the teacher OCF group in the long term.

As most would agree, teachers have a major role in correcting learners' errors, but it has been suggested that teachers should be less dominant in providing CF. Although it seems that teacher correction benefits many language learners, other types of correction that are self-correction and peer correction should be provided in class for those who do not find teacher correction very efficient (Hendrickson, 1978; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015). Another practical solution comes from Ellis (2009) who suggests that teachers should first encourage self-correction in their classes and then provide learners with teacher correction if the self-correction fails. However, he also mentions that this approach might take a lot of class time so it could be easier for teachers to basically provide the correction explicitly.

2.1.6. Which errors should be corrected?. The value attached to CF differs from one teacher to another. Up until now, teachers' preferences ranging from ignoring errors to correcting every single error have been observed in EFL pedagogy, which makes this issue controversial (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). The majority of researchers are of the opinion that for successful communication some errors should be ignored (Burt, 1975; Douglas Brown, 1994; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Tran, 2017) as overcorrection has the potential danger of decreasing self-confidence (Agudo, 2013; Hendrickson, 1978). The errors preventing listeners from comprehending the meaning should be the primary focus (Hendrickson, 1978; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Tran, 2017; Genç, 2014). As for learners' preferences, the findings differ. For instance, Katayama (2007) found that most learners wanted all of their errors to be corrected by teachers instead of selective correction because they thought it helped their learning, it

would avoid repeating the same errors and it would increase their awareness about their errors. The minority who disagreed with the correction of all errors wanted their teachers to ignore minor errors since correcting all errors might lead to discouragement and frustration. Katayama (2007) also found a significant difference between genders. Female learners wanted all of their errors to be corrected more than male learners. The researcher explained the reason for this as male learners might be more vulnerable to losing face than female learners. In contrast to those findings, Kartchava (2016) showed that students favored selective correction and they thought teachers should correct only the errors impeding communication. Similarly, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2005) revealed that learners wanted selective correction instead all-error correction as they wished to communicate freely. Chenoweth et al. (1983) also demonstrated that too much error correction made learners nervous. However, an interesting finding about learners' preferences comes from Oladejo (1993) where learners wanted a comprehensive correction with detailed explanations rather than a selective correction.

One serious problem in the provision of CF is the inconsistency in the teachers' classroom practices (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). That means whether teachers provide CF for the same error or how they do it differs from one student to the other. While they correct some, they might neglect others. A further analysis in Fanselow (1977) also showed that teachers showed inconsistency in treating the errors. While in one part of the lesson a particular linguistic item was treated, in the second part of the lesson it remained uncorrected. For this reason, various taxonomies have been proposed by researchers to prioritize which errors to correct. The first and the most well-known is that of Corder's (1967) who viewed errors and mistakes as two different phenomena. According to Corder (1967), mistakes occur as a consequence of ill performance and come up by chance as a result of poor physical conditions such as being tired or nervous, failure in memory and slips of tongue; thus, mistakes are not

systematic. Mistakes can be noticed immediately after they are made and can be easily corrected. However, errors are related to competence that need to be restructured in the interlanguage system and thus errors are systematic. James (1998) referred to error-mistake distinction, as well, focusing on the ability of learners to self-correct. According to that distinction, mistakes can be corrected by learners themselves while errors can not. As Li (2013) points out, it is difficult for teachers to understand the difference between learners' mistakes and their errors in the classroom environment, so the suggestion regarding the errors to be corrected rather than mistakes is "easier said than done" (p.197). Another classification which was proposed by Burt (1975) is known as global and local errors. She calls those errors hindering the message during communication as global errors and the ones involving the deviation of a single element as local errors. Global errors include the ones affecting the overall construction of sentences such as the word order and thus lead to the misunderstanding by the listener. Local errors, however, consist of one element in a sentence such as articles, auxiliary verbs and quantifiers, so they do not block communication flow but reflect an incorrect usage. Burt (1975) suggested that global errors rather than local errors should be the focus of teachers. She added that learners would find local errors more worthwhile to correct when they could successfully communicate. Finally, Harmer (2001) describes the role of CF during accuracy-oriented tasks and fluency-oriented tasks. He suggests that teachers should neglect the errors in fluency-based activities unless they impede comprehension or learners expect prompts from the teacher to be able to continue talking. In accuracy-based activities too much correction would be unpleasant for the students, too, so apparently he favors selective correction. In addition to those suggestions above, there are further practical tips for practitioners recommended by other researchers. There seems to be a general agreement among language educators that three types of errors should definitely be corrected: errors hindering meaning which leads to communication breakdown, errors that

would cause the listener to feel stigmatized and frequently made errors in learners' speech (Hendrickson, 1978). According to Ellis (2009), teachers should correct only the grammatical errors that students have persistent problems with. However, it has also been discovered that some teachers consider all errors as equally important (Vann, Meyer & Lorenz, 1984).

With regard to error types, the majority of learners consider grammatical errors as a top priority to be corrected (Azad, 2016; Oladejo, 1993) as grammatical errors are the most frequent ones and learners are aware that grammar is important (Katayama, 2007). On the other hand, as research shows, the CF provided for grammatical errors is recognized less than other error types by learners (Mackey et al., 2000) because, as Lyster (1998b) concluded, the access to grammatical rules and applying them require more complex cognitive processes than lexical items. Also, Mackey et al. (2000) explained that one's goal in communication is to understand the message rather than focus on language items. Therefore, it is natural for learners not to perceive grammatical errors accurately. In the light of those findings, Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013) suggest that CF might help the development of lexical items and pronunciation more than morphosyntactic items. Similarly, Fanselow (1977) thinks that it is not possible to prevent errors in grammar and pronunciation but the repetition of the same errors could be prevented.

2.1.7. The effectiveness of OCF. It has been theoretically proved that there is a role of CF in language learning (Kamiya, 2016, 2018; Long, 1991; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Oladejo, 1993; Roothooft, 2014; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006; Schulz, 2001; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Effective feedback has been described by Hattie & Timperley (2007) as "clear, purposeful, meaningful, and compatible with students' prior knowledge and to provide logical connections" (p.104). As Lyster (1998a) also concluded, the provision of clear CF might lead to language development over time whereas the lack of clear CF could have negative effects on language development in the long run ultimately leading to fossilized

errors. Similarly, Douglas Brown (1994) explains that too many negative feedback moves by teachers might cause learners to give up their attempts in producing language while too many positive feedback moves might lead to the reinforced repetition of the same errors. Douglas Brown's example clearly illustrates what the approach to error correction should be like as "fossilization may be the result of too many green lights when there should have been some yellow or red lights" (p.219). Language learners also seem to find CF effective as one of them states in Yang (2016), "If you do not know their differences, you probably would make the same mistakes again." (p.82). However, teachers have a more cautious approach towards this issue as one of the teachers in Rahimi & Zhang (2015) makes clear, "The effectiveness of CF types depends on the type of error, the type of learning task, and the student who makes the error." (p.117). Although CF is thought to be effective in language acquisition, it is also agreed that instruction is more appropriate than giving feedback, when students do not have the required knowledge (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

In order to measure the effectiveness of OCF, pre-tests, post-tests and uptake have become standard to track improvement (Kamiya, 2016; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006). Though there are studies using pre-test and post-test design, uptake has attracted more attention since it was introduced into the field. Uptake was originally defined by Lyster & Ranta (1997) 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). Before Lyster & Ranta (1997), Oliver (1995) explained this phenomenon as follows. When learners receive CF, they might have 4 options to act. They might respond to it, they might ignore it, they might have no chance to respond to it or they might just continue talking. Lyster & Ranta (1997) observed the uptake moves and proposed a more detailed illustration. With regards to that, uptake consists of two subcategories, repair and needs-repair. Repair occurs when learners reproduce their utterances correctly. Learners

might repair their utterances through repetition, incorporation, self-correction or peer-correction. Needs-repair refers to the incorrect utterances of learners who attempt to modify their utterances but cannot succeed. Learners' attempt can be recognized by simply a sign of acknowledgment like a "yes", learners' hesitation, the occurence of the same error or a different error, off-target repair or partial repair. As uptake covers all of those concepts, whether this is a valid measurement or not has been questioned (Mackey & Philp, 1998) because a simple "yes" is not sufficient to clarify whether the CF is effective or not. Therefore, although it might help learning, it alone does not "constitute an instance of learning" (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p.274). It is rather considered as "a potential learning opportunity" (Junqueira & Kim, 2013, p.184), the degree of student participation during CF process (Lyster, 1998a) and a facilitator for a form-function mapping in the interlanguage system (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). That is why, Mackey et al. (2000) referred to uptake in their study as the instances only when there was a modification in learners' utterances followed by CF. Despite that, they discovered some learners did not understand the CF accurately although they made modifications in their utterances. Nassaji (2007) and Ölmezer-Öztürk & Gökhan Öztürk (2016) also proved that learners' repetition of teachers' reformulation did not necessarily mean successful repair. This clearly shows that there are other factors influencing the realization of repair and generally ignored by researchers, which are discussed below.

The first and the most important factor in successful repair is learner beliefs. It is a general consensus that learners have a role in the provision of effective CF (Oladejo, 1993) since learning behaviors can be influenced by learner preferences and the mismatch between learner preferences and teacher behaviors might result in negative outcomes (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Also, discovering how learners perceive CF might help researchers to find out how they interpret the CF and benefit from it (Rassaei, 2015). Therefore, researching CF preferences is important and informative, which may lead to efficient teaching practice for

learners (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Oladejo, 1993; Yang, 2016). Nevertheless, there are still two main concerns about this issue. First, although learners' perceptions of CF have been researched, there is still not much knowledge about what underlies learners' perceptions and how accurate they are (Rassaei, 2015). And second, learners' opinions about and their preferences for CF strategies are usually neglected (Oladejo, 1993).

Second comes the individual factors having an impact on the effectiveness of CF such as individual characteristics of learners and affective factors (Agudo, 2013), readiness of learners and background knowledge on the subject (Sarandi, 2016; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), learners' proficiency levels (Yang, 2016), language aptitude, age, learning style, memory, motivation (Nassaji, 2007), personality, language anxiety (Ellis, 2010), noticing and understanding the CF moves (Ellis, 2010; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). For instance, Rassaei (2015) proved high-anxiety learners noticed fewer feedback moves than low-anxiety learners, so learners' language anxiety decreases the effectiveness of CF. Also, low-anxiety learners were proved to be less afraid of speaking and pleasing others than high-anxiety learners and focused more on interaction itself. Moreover, Mackey & Oliver (2002) found that CF helps children to develop their language faster than adults as in their study younger learners gained more with the provision of CF than adults. Many studies have neglected learner factors and focused, instead, on cognitive factors investigating the effects of certain CF strategies (Ellis, 2010; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Recently researchers have begun to seek for the relationship between individual factors and learning outcomes after receiving CF.

Another crucial factor in effective CF is contextual factors. Classroom interaction is certainly different from natural interaction in FL setting outside the class. It is a common argument that foreign language learning in classroom setting is less effective than natural foreign language setting (Lochtman, 2002), which makes CF even more important. Teachers and researchers have the awareness of how challenging and complex it is to provide efficient

CF for language learners in the classroom context (Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Teachers should create a supportive and a safe environment where everyone respects one another in order for CF to be effective (Dresser & Asato, 2014). Contextual factors could be macro factors such as the setting of the learning, for instance foreign language or second language classes, or micro factors like the design of the activity learners take part in when they are provided with CF (Ellis, 2010). Ellis (2010) proposed a term “engagement” to describe how learners react to CF. He further added that contextual variables together with individual factors as well as CF type have an impact on the way learners engage in CF. There are three perspectives to understand engagement. The first one is the cognitive perspective where learners’ attendance to CF is the focus. The second one is the behavioral perspective where whether and how learners uptake CF is the focus. The final one is the affective perspective where learners’ emotions when they respond to CF are the focus.

With no doubt, teacher, as the main provider of CF, is an important factor as Hattie & Timperley (2007) point out how CF is provided is important in its effectiveness. Sheen (2010b) suggests that the explicitness of CF has an impact on the effectiveness of CF. If CF is to facilitate acquisition, it must be provided considering the learners’ proficiency level and their capacity to understand the nature of it, in other words, the degree of implicitness and explicitness (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Being consistent about the types of errors to be corrected, approaching errors explicitly and longer teacher wait time could prevent some errors to reoccur (Fanselow, 1977).

There are other factors mentioned by different researchers in the provision of effective CF. Brandt (2008) lists some factors enhancing the effectiveness of CF. First of all, focused CF is more effective than unfocused CF. Second, it is more effective when CF is relevant and meaningful to learners. Third, it should be descriptive, not evaluative. Moreover, CF should include positive evidence and selective negative evidence. Finally, it should lead to learner

output and create interaction rather than topic continuation. Also, as Lyster & Sato (2013) claim, practice together with CF leads to more changes in one's interlanguage system than practice alone since practice in meaningful contexts integrated with CF could have positive impact on the pace of proceduralization and restructuring the production in the interlanguage system.

The previous studies prove that CF could be far more effective under certain circumstances. For instance, CF has the strongest effect on learners when they think their utterances are correct and when they do not expect to receive feedback. Also, CF is most powerful when there is a partial misterpretation rather than a complete lack of understanding (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Moreover, CF is more efficient in FL contexts than in SL contexts (Li, 2010). As Eun Jeong Lee (2016) points out, it is natural that the effectiveness of CF differs in ESL and EFL contexts as their purposes, processes and conditions are different. In EFL contexts, such as Korea, China, Japan and Turkey, learners have to study English due to academic or professional reasons. Therefore, a lot of students focus on vocabulary and grammar for long years but generally their practical skills, listening-speaking-writing, are prone to be weaker. Besides contextual differences, Li (2010) also found that studies carried out in laboratories proved to be more successful than classroom-based studies. However, lab-based studies do not show the reality of classrooms as they ignore most of the other factors affecting OCF in the classroom context. This is the reason why the effect size of CF in classroom context is lower (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Another finding by Li (2010) shows that CF is more effective in discrete-item practice than communicative activities. Li thinks this is because learners are provided with more intensive CF in discrete items and they are less distracted than communicative activities, which makes CF more noticeable and salient.

To sum up, the effectiveness of CF has been proved and accepted by many scholars. The further focus of researchers should be on what factors restrict its effectiveness (Li, 2010) and whether training and practice have a role in effective correction (Ferris, 1999).

2.1.8.Input hypothesis. Gass & Mackey (2015) defines input as “the language that a learner is exposed to in a communicative context (i.e., from reading or listening, or, in the case of sign language from visual language)” (p.181-182). Although Gass & Mackey use the term “learner”, Input Hypothesis was originally put forward by Krashen (1982) to describe the process of language acquisition, not language learning. Input Hypothesis claims that people can acquire the language that is “a little beyond” their current level (Krashen, 1982, p.22). Even though they do not understand the forms beyond their level, they can understand the message through the use of their general world knowledge, context knowledge and linguistic knowledge; thus, Input Hypothesis claims that people first acquire meaning and then structures. According to the Input Hypothesis, acquirers can start speaking only when they feel ready and when they start speaking, their utterances tend to include errors. Therefore, accuracy develops over time as acquirers are exposed to more input. When the principles of this hypothesis are taken into account, CF can be considered as a type of input for learners which they are exposed to in the classroom. As Krashen (1982) posits, learners can correct their errors over time as they hear more CF as input.

2.1.9. Noticing hypothesis. Noticing Hypothesis was originally proposed and later developed by Schmidt (1990, 2001, 2010). It has a crucial place in learning as it claims that input becomes intake only when it is noticed by learners consciously. Given that CF is a kind of input, it plays an important role in the provision of OCF. Mackey et al. (2000) defined noticing as “the detection and registration of stimuli in short-term memory.” (p.474). Noticing is “the first step in language building, not the end of the process” (Schmidt, 2001, p.41) and it is restricted by a significant number of factors (Schmidt, 1990). As a matter of fact,

perceiving a limited number of feedback moves is the optimal condition for learners. Otherwise, it would be overwhelming for learners to comprehend all the CF moves correctly (Mackey et al., 2000). Besides, noticing could be directed to relevant pieces of input when the task requires despite the restrictions.

It has been observed that being attentive leads to more noticing (Schmidt, 2010). Mackey et al. (2000) pointed out the nature and benefits of attention as "...language processing is like other kinds of processing: Humans are constantly exposed to and often overwhelmed by various sorts of external stimuli and are able, through attentional devices, to tune in to some stimuli and to tune out others." (p.474). Only the stimuli most strongly triggered together with the associated emotions could access consciousness among many other stimuli competing behind (Schmidt, 2001). In addition, studies in selective listening have demonstrated that one could be willing to address their attention to one piece of information while neglecting others (Schmidt, 1990). In the science of psychology, the characteristics of attention are clearly described. First, attention is limited and influenced by various factors. Second, it is selective. Third, one can partially control it. Fourth, it is the control mechanism whether or not a piece of information leads to consciousness. Finally, it is a requirement for action control and learning (Schmidt, 2001). Briefly, people tend to learn what they draw their attention on (Schmidt, 2010). Like attention, conscious, voluntary and intentional noticing also speeds up the learning process as it is easier for learners to pick up language units; similarly, learners going through involuntary attentional processes are also likely to learn a language because they develop automatic noticing; however, that might lead to a slow and unsuccessful learning (Schmidt, 2001).

Schmidt & Frota (1986) carried out a research study observing the conversational development of Schmidt as a SL learner in Portuguese for five months during his stay in Brazil. After the researchers analyzed the data, which came from journal entries and tape

recordings, they realized that Schmidt was not aware of the CF he had constantly received because he had not noticed it. Upon this finding they concluded that learners must "notice the gap" between their output and the input they are exposed to in order to correct their errors. Thus, it is suggested that for error correction learners must notice they made an error and they are being corrected upon that particular error. Also, attention must be addressed to the relevant learning target, in other words, focused errors must be the focus (Schmidt, 2001, 2010).

2.1.10. Output hypothesis. Output Hypothesis was proposed and described by Swain (1995, 2005). Back in 1995 output was defined by Swain as "the learner's best guess as to how something should be said or written." (p.132). However, later in 2005 she pointed out that there had been a change in the meaning of output as a product or outcome towards output as a process or action starting from 1980s. Therefore, she described the Output Hypothesis as a "part of the process of second language learning" (p.471).

Output Hypothesis facilitate second language learning in a number of ways. First, producing output in the target language, in other words pracitising the target language, improves fluency and thus it plays a crucial role in developing automaticity which requires less effort for language use (Gass & Mackey, 2015). Second, learner production triggers noticing since before learners produce language, they think about what they want to say and how they could express it in the target language. That could be something they know really well how to say in the target language, or what they paritally know or something they do not know. The attempt to produce the target language leads to the enhanced awareness of the gap between a learner's interlanguage and the target language and thus it helps to notice the gap. Therefore, focus on output might enable learners to be more responsible and active learners. Third, when learners reflect on their output, it leads to internalizing the linguistic knowledge. Finally, a learner can test the comprehensibility and accuracy of their utterances by producing

output. If their output is not comprehensible or accurate enough, they might receive feedback to reflect on their utterances and restructure their output. Learners use output to negotiate meaning about language forms, so they negotiate about form (Swain, 1995). Noticing the gap with a focus on the learners' own utterances makes the CF move more clear and effective.

2.1.11. Interaction hypothesis. Block (2001) refers to Interaction Hypothesis as Input-Interaction-Output Model (as cited in Ellis & Shintani, 2014) since Interaction Hypothesis takes variables such as exposure to input, learner output and feedback on learner's output into consideration (Gass & Mackey, 2015; Mackey & Gass, 2006).

Many studies have investigated how input and interaction influence learners' interlanguage systems to make the meaning more comprehensible. Mackey et al. (2000) claim that interaction helps learners to focus on language items which do not exist yet in their interlanguage and change could occur thanks to noticing the gap between their interlanguage system and the target language. Making changes in learners' interlanguage was observed to lead to more accuracy and complexity (Gass et al., 1998). Gass et al. (1998) note that what triggers learning is noticing the gap between learner's output and the target language input. This could best be done through negotiation of meaning followed by the explanation of the teacher through which learner's attention could be drawn on particular linguistic forms that might go unnoticed if it was not done so (Mackey et al., 2000). Enhanced input leads to the recognition of the difference in forms existing in learner's interlanguage and the target language. Negotiation occurs when there is a communication breakdown or the communication is on the edge of breaking down, which hinders meaning. When interlocutors negotiate, they ask one another for clarification to check meaning and they solve communication breakdowns by signals or reformulations. When learners and interlocutors negotiate to clarify their meaning, they increase the comprehensibility of input, they provide feedback on meaning and form, and they encourage learners for modified output, all of which

are facilitative in language learning. Studies have shown that negotiation is most useful for intermediate learners. It also makes useful input for beginner learners although it is not helpful for output (Pica, 1996).

2.1.12. Counterbalance hypothesis. Lyster & Mori (2006) compared the provision of OCF and uptake rates in the French-immersion classes in Canada (the transcriptions of Lyster & Ranta, 1997) to the Japanese-immersion classes in Japan (transcriptions of Mori, 2002). They found that although teachers in both contexts preferred to use recasts most frequently followed by prompts, recasts generally worked successfully in the repair of the utterances in the Japanese immersion classrooms whereas they did not in the French immersion classes as can be examined in Figure 4. The researchers concluded that more explicit form-focused instruction made the noticing of implicit OCF types possible whereas meaning-oriented

Figure 4

Frequency of Repair Moves After Each Feedback Type (p. 286)

	French immersion		Japanese immersion	
Repair context	*n*	%	*n*	%
After prompts	93	53%	28	23%
After recasts	66	38%	84	68%
After explicit correction	16	9%	12	10%

instruction required explicit OCF types to make the students to notice feedback (Victoria Russell, 2009). Thus, Lyster & Mori (2006) put forward Counterbalance Hypothesis and described it as follows:

> Instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given classroom setting will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional

feedback that are congruent with the pre dominant communicative orientation. (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p.294).

The research studies conducted by Sakurai (2014) and Lyster & Llinares (2014) in different teaching settings seem to be supporting this hypothesis for now.

2.2. Teachers' Beliefs and Practices about OCF

In contrast to the passive role of teacher in the past, Borg (2003) described teachers as "active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs" (p.81). For this reason, Borg (1999) noted that the teaching process could be comprehended through both describing teacher practices and understanding the underlying cognitions. In other words, "the teacher cannot be separated from the act of teaching" (Pang, 2017, p.176). Thus, in this section of the paper, previous studies with regards to teachers' beliefs and practices are going to be presented and the importance of teachers' beliefs as well as where they come from will be discussed in detail.

2.2.1. Definition and scope of teachers' beliefs. Since Hendrickson (1978) tried to answer the 5 main questions about error correction, teacher education programs have included CF in their curriculums and have attempted to epuip pre-service teachers with CF strategies in teacher education. However, "an effective pre-service education may not always result in effective realizations of the academic competencies, such as the strategies of OCF performed in an EFL classroom." (Özmen & Aydın, 2015, p.141). It is the affective, cognitive and social factors that shape pre-service teachers' concepts of learning, teaching and instructional pedagogies. Those are called 'teacher beliefs'. In a greater detail, Borg (2011) defined teacher beliefs as "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistent to change" (p.370-371). Teachers' beliefs have been investigated for a long time in the field of education.

However, it is practically not possible to find out the actual beliefs as it is impossible to directly observe teachers' beliefs. Thus, stated beliefs might differ from the actual beliefs since teachers unconsciously hold beliefs or they may hesitate to express some of them due to social reasons (Kamiya, 2016). Therefore, Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis (2004) defined stated beliefs as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable" (p.244). There is a broader term, teacher cognition, which covers teachers' beliefs. Mori (2011) defined teacher cognition as "an amalgam of what teachers know, believe and think, which has been traditionally described by constructs such as knowledge, belief, attitude, value, perception and rationale" (p.452). Teacher cognition refers to all mental processes of teachers, factors influencing teachers' conceptualizations and the way they are linked to teachers' practices, and rationales behind their decisions (Akbari & Dadvand, 2011). Teacher cognition helps to understand how a teacher views teaching and steers their actual classroom practices (Mori, 2011). Teacher cognitions have a strong impact on teacher practice but teacher cognitions do not necessarily show teachers' stated beliefs (Borg, 2003). The terms beliefs and knowledge are different and thus generally cause confusion. While knowledge depends on a truth condition accepted by a community of people, beliefs do not (Richardson, 1996). If the aim is to make a difference in classroom practices, teachers' cognition must definitely be taken into consideration as it is the teacher cognition playing an active role in allowing the changes to occur in the class or not (Mori, 2011). Teacher cognition about error correction should be taken into account in the way that teachers should be given an opportunity to reflect on their own practices and research findings, which should be the core of teacher development, as teachers are the ones applying research findings in the classroom, so research results must relate to the "reality of classroom life" (Mori, 2011, p.454).

2.2.2. Sources of teachers' beliefs. Many resources list three factors for where

teachers' beliefs come from: learners' previous experiences as language learners, pre-service teacher education programs and teaching experiences (Borg, 1999; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Richardson, 1996; Schulz, 2001). Borg (2003) notes that also contextual factors indirectly influence teachers' beliefs as they have a strong impact on teachers' classroom practices, which in the long run affect their beliefs depending on teaching experiences (please check Borg, 2003, p.82).

Among those three sources depicting where teachers' beliefs come from, previous learning experiences have proved to have the largest effect in making decisions (Borg, 2003; Florez & Basto, 2017; Kagan, 1992; Kennedy, 1997; Nguyen, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1996) because teachers' previous learning experiences seem to base the cognitions about teaching and learning with the teacher education programs building upon those cognitions, which even has an impact on their professional lives (Borg, 2003). As Kennedy (1997) pointed out,

> ...teachers learn their practice through an extended apprenticeship of observation. Unlike practitioners in virtually all other professions, teachers observe practitioners for 13 years before they even begin their formal preparation for their work. Many of their deepest beliefs about teaching and learning derive from this apprenticeship of observation. (Kennedy, 1997, p.9).

This is also reflected in the findings of Nguyen (2017) who demonstrated that teachers considered their own learning experiences as a resource and tool for professional development since one stated, "I always reflect on what and how I was taught those days and then relate that knowledge to my current teaching context" (p.248). Nguyen (2017) also found that the participant teachers' beliefs were particularly influenced by significant moments in their school lives as well as the images of both positive and negative teachers in their early school lives (Nguyen, 2017; Richardson, 1996). However, the opinions of novice teachers about their

students are usually wrong as they think their students have the same learning styles, interests, abilities and weaknesses as their own. Thus, it is obvious from the studies that novice teachers' experiences as language learners have a huge impact on their teaching (Kagan, 1992).

Concerning the second factor influencing teachers' beliefs, pre-service teacher education programs, also called as professional coursework by Borg (2003) and formal knowledge by Richardson (1996), have contoversial arguments. While some assume beliefs are mostly shaped during pre-service teacher education programs (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Özmen & Aydın, 2015), the majority are of the opinion that they have the least impact or they do not lead to a change in practice due to the lack of reflection (Kagan, 1992; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1996; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010).

Although there are not many studies, Rahimi & Zhang (2015) demonstrated that experienced teachers were more in favor of CF than novice teachers; therefore, teaching experience makes a difference in teachers' beliefs. Rahimi & Zhang (2015) showed that both novice and experienced teachers thought the provision of CF was teachers' responsibility but the basis they depended their ideas on differed. Novice teachers generally referred to their own learning experiences as one novice teacher stated,

> ...as students we expected our teachers to give us the correct form of our errors, so that we would improve our language proficiency. My classmates and I did not like lenient teachers who did not give us any CF. We did not like to keep talking during language classes without learning. Actually, it is the teachers' responsibility to give corrective feedback. (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015, p.115).

On the other hand, experienced teachers referred to their previous teaching experiences as the reason to provide CF just as the following experienced teacher expressed,

> By teaching different students with different proficiency levels, emotional and psychological status, and language learning aptitudes, I have come to the conclusion that students like to be corrected. Students like to be corrected in different ways, though. I do believe that CF works; students typically do not repeat the same errors in their following productions, but I take many factors into account in providing CF to increase the effectiveness of CF. (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015, p.115-116).

Rahimi & Zhang (2015) claim that as non-native EFL teachers gain more teaching experience, they find students' interlanguage development, indirectly CF, more important than novice teachers. As Kagan (1992) briefly summarized, it is not until novice teachers settle their image as a teacher they begin focusing on their students and their needs.

2.2.3. Why are teachers' beliefs important?. In teacher education, beliefs are considered to have an important role in teacher learning (Borg, 2011) as pre-service teachers' existing beliefs about learning and teaching influence how and what they are going to learn (Richardson, 1996). What a pre-service teacher will gain from a teacher education program and how they will interpret it depend on their previous learning experiences and their already formed beliefs (Kagan, 1992). Besides that, in order for a change to occur, first the beliefs are to change (Richardson, 1996) although it is rather controversial. While some think beliefs have a strong impact on behavior (Kamiya, 2016; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Pang, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1994; Roothooft, 2014), the others claim that actual practice cannot be measured by stated beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992). Briefly, attitudes and beliefs play a major role in gaining insight into how teachers think, how they apply their practices, change and learn to teach (Richardson, 1996).

2.2.4. Previous studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices. Although they are rather restricted in number, the research conducted on pre-service EFL teachers comes in two sets of studies. The first set of studies, rather limited, investigate pre-service

EFL teachers' practices of CF strategies whereas the majority of the studies examine the shift in teachers' beliefs over a certain period of time.

Regarding pre-service EFL teachers' practices, Özmen & Aydın (2015) provide valuable data about 98 pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs in the Turkish context. The data were collected through a simulation questionnaire with classroom situations that need OCF and one-on-one interviews. The results show great details about the pre-service teachers' preferences of OCF strategies. First, the participants preferred to correct repetitive errors instead of correcting every single error. Also, if the error caused ambiguity, they chose to correct it. Second, the majority of the participants preferred to use delayed correction stating that they did not want to demotivate their students by interrupting their sentences. One of the participants expressed that "I can use delayed correction in crowded classes because the duration of classes won't be enough if I correct mistakes of each student. Instead, I can take some notes and later I can talk about these mistakes with them." (p.149). Third, almost half of the participants considered pronunciation errors as the most common type of errors and they preferred to provide explicit correction for them while they used recasts for grammar errors and no correction for vocabulary errors. Another important issue influencing the pre-service teachers' preferences of OCF strategies was the students' proficiency levels. They preferred to correct the errors of low-proficient learners more than the learners with high proficiency. Besides, for lower proficiency learners pre-service teachers preferred to use implicit types of CF such as recasts and elicitation whereas they preferred explicit correction for higher proficiency learners. The results also proved that pre-service teachers were aware of the difference between an error and a mistake and preferred to use different strategies according to the type of the task, whether it was an accuracy or fluency-oriented task. For instance, most of the participants mentioned that they would prefer delayed correction in fluency-based activities. As for CF types, recasts were found to be the most frequently used CF type both in

accuracy- and fluency-oriented activities. Also, errors in accuracy-oriented activities were preferred to be corrected more than the ones in fluency-oriented activities.

There are more studies investigating pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and according to the findings the majority of their beliefs change due to the courses they are taking during their teacher education programs and teaching practice. As an instance, Demirbulak (2012) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate how the concepts about teaching changed during pre-service teacher education program and the first year of teaching. She concluded that as teachers gained more experience, they focused less on themselves and more on their teaching as one of the participants said during their first year of teaching, "the important thing is whether the learning objectives have been reached rather than how well I have presented it." (p.46). Florez & Basto (2017) also investigated 2 pre-service teachers' beliefs on their teaching through a questionnaire, journal entries and two semi-structured interviews. The results revealed that the reality of the classroom led to a change in pre-service teachers' beliefs. While 84% of their beliefs changed, only their belief about error correction did not change during the practicum. The researchers found that the participants thought student errors should always be corrected. This belief came from previous learning experiences as one of the participants wrote in one of her journal entries that she mispronounced a word for a few years as she had not been corrected by her teacher. Moreover, Cabaroglu & Jon Roberts (2000) showed that pre-existing beliefs could be flexible and might develop over time. They investigated whether the pre-existing beliefs of 20 pre-service teachers would change over a course period and found that only one participant's beliefs remained the same whereas the others changed gradually. Similarly, Mattheoudakis (2007) investigated 36 pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning. The results revealed a significant difference in their beliefs between their first year and fourth year. However, practicum did not seem to have a significant impact on teachers' beliefs. As for the provision of CF, pre-service teachers

thought beginner learners should always be provided with error correction in the first year of their study whereas they disagreed with that in their fourth year. Furthermore, Albaba (2017) demonstrated that pre-service teachers' beliefs changed after they started teaching. It was observed that pre-service teachers could not implement their teaching beliefs into practice due to a number of reasons and thus struggled in their first year of teaching. Those teachers encountered many political, cultural, social and historical barriers when they started profession. That finding illustrated how the surrounding community affected teaching decisions.

Adding to the abovementioned studies, some researchers examined the differences between novice and experienced teachers' beliefs. Those vary in their focus. For instance, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2005) carried out a study to investigate novice and experienced teachers' perceptions on error correction. The data were collected from 11 pre-service EFL and 10 in-service EFL teachers. They were shown a short excerpt from a teaching video in which there were erroneous sentences and some kinds of CF. They were asked to diagnose the error, classify it and express if the provision of CF was effective or not. The results revealed that experienced teachers detected more errors and suggested more ways to correct the errors than pre-service teachers; however, many more errors still went unnoticed by both parties. Also, pre-service teachers expected the teachers to provide more explanation and devote more time to error correction moves, which obviously reveals that it is not enough to provide correction only to help students repair their errors. In a similar vein, Polio et al. (2006) conducted a study to understand the interactional patterns of native speakers and non-native speakers. Data were collected from 11 pre-service non-native and 8 experienced native speakers of teachers through classroom observation and stimulated recall interviews. The results revealed that there was no significant difference in the number of recasts quantitatively but qualitative results showed that experienced teachers were more successful in driving

learner output, that is, learners produced more when interacting with experienced teachers. It was also found that experienced teachers were more concerned about student learning and comprehension as well as their problems. However, for pre-service teachers their own recognition, student emotions and lesson procedures were more important. About the provision of CF pre-service teachers were found to be more sensitive than experienced teachers because they thought correction could be perceived as criticism. As Richardson (1996) points out, changing pre-service teachers' beliefs is more difficult than in-service teachers' and this is due to the lack of experiential knowledge. Without testing their beliefs, pre-service teachers hold on to their previously formed beliefs.

2.2.5. Previous studies on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices about OCF. Due to the convenience in observability and comparability of beliefs and practices, in-service EFL/ESL teachers have been the focus of research more than pre-service teachers. The majority of the studies compare teachers' stated beliefs to their actual practices and teachers' beliefs/practices to learner preferences/beliefs. Those studies display a significant mismatch (Alan Brown, 2009; Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Basturkmen, 2012, Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dilans, 2016; Ge, 2017; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kamiya, 2016; Mackey et al., 2007; Roothooft, 2014; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 2001; Yoshida, 2008). Apart from those studies, some researchers investigated teachers' cognition regarding CF (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Mori, 2011), the impact of education on teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2011) and how the priorities of researchers and teachers about OCF strategies differ (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018).

Many researchers have tried to understand the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual classroom practices. However, all of those studies demonstrate a mismatch between the two and attempt to explain the reasons behind. First, Kamiya (2016) investigated 4 ESL teachers' beliefs and practices about OCF. The results revealed that the most

inexperienced teacher did not have any concrete beliefs about OCF whereas the other three more experienced teachers had differing beliefs. It was found that they did not consider OCF important and they had more prior issues to focus on. Although most of the stated beliefs were reflected in their classroom practices, there were some mismatches found. For instrance, Jim, an experienced teacher, contradicted himself in his stated beliefs. While he stated that he was "willing to give the correct answer and explain why, rather than go through a long asking process", he also mentioned that he was not "the kind of person who gives a lot of oral feedback" (p.213). His beliefs did not match his practices, either, as he was observed to provide OCF to 57% of the errors. Kamiya (2016) considers the mismatch between teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices as a natural phenomenon and even more of an opportunity instead of a shortcoming. He adds that teachers should be encouraged to be aware of the gap between their beliefs and practices and reflect on them. Another study is of Roothooft's (2014) who investigated 10 adult EFL teachers' beliefs and practices on the provision of OCF. She found that the participants ignored many errors although they stated the provision of OCF was important and they knew students wanted to be corrected. For example, one of the participant teachers stated she only corrected the errors blocking communication but she was observed to also correct the errors that did not lead to misunderstanding. The research also revealed that there was a mismatch about the type of OCF. The majority of teachers considered self-correction to be important but they mostly provided recasts (please see Roothooft, 2014, p.73 for a detailed analysis). The reasons why the teachers were hesitant to provide OCF were found to be their concern to break the communication flow and students' affective responses. For this reason, Roothooft (2014) concluded that teachers believed the provision of OCF could have a negative impact on students' motivation and confidence and immediate correction might break the communication flow. Similarly, the reflective journals in Vasquez & Harvey (2010) revealed

that participant teachers were concerned about the affective aspect of error correction, which was the face threatening perspective as one of the participants, Roxana, expressed it, “How to make error correction in speaking in the most polite way?” (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010, p.429). Dilans (2016) also carried out a research study to investigate the correlation between teachers’ beliefs and their actual classroom practices through a survey and classroom observation. As the results suggested while the teachers stated that they used all types of OCF almost equally, classroom observations proved that they used isolated recasts most frequently. In a similar vein, Basturkmen et al. (2004) revealed that there was an inconsistency between beliefs and actual practices as well as the type of CF. The findings depicted that 3 participant teachers used different OCF strategies although they worked in the same institution with the same proficiency level groups and used the same activity. That was because, as the researchers explained, the teachers had different styles and their beliefs were different. Also, the results revealed that although there were similarities in all the participant teachers’ beliefs about OCF strategies such as self-correction, there were a number of differences discovered like the favored type of OCF. A clear mismatch between their beliefs and practices was also revealed. For instance, they stated that errors only hindering meaning should be corrected, but there were instances where they provided CF when there was no breakdown in communication. Basturkmen et al. (2004) suggested that the mismatch between teachers’ beliefs and practices might be eradicated as they gained experiences of cases since their practice and underlining thories of their beliefs would be in line through experience. In a review consisting of 15 pieces of work including a doctoral thesis, journal articles and a book chapter about teachers’ beliefs and practices Basturkmen (2012) demonstrated that teachers could not apply their beliefs into their practices due to the situational contraints. Also, the degree teachers’ beliefs and practices matched showed variance from school to school and from class to class. However, it revealed that as teachers gained experience, their beliefs were more experientially

informed than novice teachers. The review also demonstrated that there was a correlation between teachers' planned practices and stated beliefs, which was not surprising since teachers would plan their activities along with their beliefs. Last, Junqueira & Kim (2013) investigated the relationship between a novice and an experienced teacher's beliefs, training backgrounds and their CF practices through observations, stimulated recalls and interviews. They found that although both teachers considered error correction to be ineffective, they provided learners with correction more than half of the time they made errors. Also in stimulated recall sessions, when they were shown the correction moves, they claimed to be dialoging with students rather than correcting them, which means they were not even aware that they were providing CF. When they were asked about their students' preferences, they expressed their own actual pratices as if those had been their students' preferences. As for the amount of CF and uptake rates the results were similar for both teachers. However, it was found that the experienced teacher fostered more learner interaction and used more variety of CF types than the novice teacher. On the other hand, it was proved that teachers' training and experience did not influence their beliefs on CF. It was their own experiences as language learners which influenced their beliefs about CF. Basturkmen et al. (2004) explained that the reason for the mismatch of teachers' beliefs and practices could be because they used different types of knowledge at the stage of planning, technical knowledge, and when they made immediate decisions in the classroom, practical knowledge. Mori (2011) pointed out that teachers wanted to improve their students' both linguistic competence and confidence, which is a paradox itself. Roothooft (2014) explained this might be the reason why teachers considered error correction to be important but did not address all of them. As many factors shape beliefs such as experience, context and teacher training (Borg, 2003), it is not easy to explain the mismatch between beliefs and practices (Roothooft, 2014).

The second set of studies that has attracted many researchers' attention investigates the relationship between teachers' beliefs/practices and learner preferences/beliefs. Those studies also reflect the mismatch between the two. Alan Brown (2009) investigated learner and teacher beliefs and to what extent they matched through a questionnaire. Almost 1600 students and 49 FL teachers took part in the study. The results revealed that there was a mismatch between students' and teachers' beliefs about the timing and type of OCF. While the students thought immediate error correction was an effective technique, the teachers did not. Additionally, about the type of OCF, a significant difference was found between the 1st year and 2nd year students. 2nd year students wished implicit correction more than 1st year students. Alan Brown (2009) commented on this situation by suggesting that novice language learners generally tend to prefer explicit correction. Macket et al. (2007) also conducted a study to find out teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions about OCF. With this purpose they recorded the lessons of two classes composing of 25 learners and they carried out a stimulated recall interview with 11 volunteers. The results demonstrated that teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions matched most when CF was provided for lexical components of language. Similarly, Schulz (2001) carried out an extensive research study to investigate learners' and teachers' perceptions on OCF focusing on cultural differences. 607 Colombian FL students, their 122 teachers, 824 American FL students and their 92 teachers participated in the study. A questionnaire was administered on grammar instruction and error correction. Interestingly, the results of the students in both cultures and the teachers in both cultures showed agreement whereas the results of the students and the teachers in the same culture demonstrated a great deal of discrepancies. Another researcher is Ge (2017) who investigated learners' beliefs and teachers' classroom practices on OCF. The results revealed that there was no correlation between learners' expectations and teachers' practices. Ge (2017) suggested that learner-centeredness should be taken as an ideal teaching pratice.

Roothooft and Breeze (2016) also tried to find out learners' and teachers' beliefs about OCF. 395 students and 46 teachers filled in questionnaires. The results revealed that most of the students always wanted their oral errors to be corrected while teachers had a positive attitude towards OCF but not all the time. The researchers displayed a complete mismatch between the preferences of the students and the teachers about the type of OCF that should be used. While students preferred more explicit types, teachers preferred implicit types more. In a different context from those, Al-Faki & Siddiek (2013) conducted a research study to investigate the learners' CF preferences and teachers' classroom practices. Data were collected from 326 teachers and 150 students through class observation and a questionnaire. They found that while the teachers used recasts most frequently, the students preferred metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction and repetition. The researchers explained the reason for frequently used feedback by teachers as they were concerned about time constraints, heavy curriculum and above-level tasks. Finally, Kaivanpanah, Alavi & Sepehrinia (2015) carried out a research study to investigate the differences between learners' and teachers' preferences of CF. 154 EFL learners with different proficiency levels and 25 EFL teachers completed a questionnaire. The results revealed that although learners felt positive about peer correction, the teachers did not tend to use peer correction in class. Also, the teachers were hesitant about the provision of CF due to affective reasons. Furthermore, immediate feedback received different reaction from students and teachers. Students preferred immediate feedback more than their teachers. Roothooft and Breeze (2016) provide two reasons for the mismatch between learners' and teachers' beliefs. First, it might be harmful for learners' motivation (also Schulz, 2001) and the second reason is teachers' reluctancy on the provision of OCF. Alan Brown (2009) highlights that teachers do not have to explain the rationale behind every single activity they are using to their students; however, learners' beliefs about effective teaching and teacher effectiveness might change if teachers provide a

short explanation about their techniques. Lasagabaster & Sierra, (2005) suggest that teachers miss the opportunity to utilize learners' existing strategies and previous linguistic knowledge.

The abovementioned studies indicate a comparison and try to comprehend the reasons behind the mismatches. A few researchers have attempted to gain insight into teacher cognition with regards to CF and teachers' in-class decisions. For instance, Mori (2011) conducted a study to find out about teacher cognition concerning CF. The data were collected through class observations, field notes and interviews from two participant teachers. The findings revealed that the teachers' provision or ignorance of CF and the ways they provided CF depended on such factors as the focus of instruction, time constraints, the frequency of errors and learner variables like their personality and proficiency level. It was also found that teachers' learning backgrounds and experiences played a vital role in their conceptualization of CF. Gurzynski-Weiss (2016) carried out a more detailed research study concerning this issue. She investigated teachers' in-class decisions regarding CF though a class observation and a stimulated recall. The results revealed two different categories. Some teachers made decisions according to "a systematic and ordered cognitive process" (p.255) taking various factors into consideration such as learner, contextual and instructor. However, the others made decisions automatically and learners' errors were not reflected on. Gurzynski-Weiss (2016) argued that there was an agreement among teachers that classroom decisions were complex and contextual. For a detailed analysis please check Gurzynski-Weiss (2016, p.265). Another detailed description about teachers' OCF preferences comes from Mendez & Cruz (2012) who analyzed teachers' perceptions and practices on OCF. Therefore, they interviewed 5 instructors and gave a questionnaire to 15 instructors. The results revealed that the majority of teachers agreed on the provision of CF to improve accuracy. Most of the teachers thought that their learners did not feel angry or intimidated by the provision of OCF. More than half of the teachers stated that the type of CF depended on the proficiency level of learners. Most of the

teachers believed that immediate correction after the learner finished their utterances were more useful. The results also revealed that most of the teachers did not favor explicit correction. They expressed that their students preferred teacher correction to peer correction as they considered teachers to be the authority and expert in class. With a different focus, Borg (2011) investigated the impact of DELTA course on 6 in-service teachers' beliefs. The results revealed that training had an impact on teachers' beliefs as one participant stated, "I think prior to doing the course, I hadn't really reflected a lot on what my beliefs were..." (p.373) and "the course teaches you to actually know what you believe about teaching" (p.373). Borg (2011) pointed out that teacher education helped teachers to strengthen their existing beliefs and elaborate on them, verbalize their beliefs and create a link between theory and their beliefs as well as implementing them into practice. Finally, an important research study, which should have been conducted much earlier, comes from Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh (2018) who compared teachers' concerns about OCF and researchers' orientation. In order to do so, they observed the lessons of 7 teachers and conducted interviews with them and 30 other teachers. The results reveal that teachers' concerns are different from the priorities of researchers. Teachers are concerned about creating a friendly and anxiety-free atmosphere for their students to communicate freely and encourage student engagement. Therefore, teachers focus on the affective aspects of CF. On the other hand, researchers generally take the cognitive aspect of CF into consideration and investigate about it. Therefore, the results of the research studies do not benefit teachers to get rid of their concerns.

2.3. Reflective Practice

Teachers always have to make decisions as part of the teaching process (Sharil & Majid, 2010). In doing so, teachers' practices are affected by many different social and environmental factors such as parents, principal's demands, society, and the accessibility to

resources (Borg, 2003). Therefore, teachers need professional development to assess and examine teaching and learning processes in their own setting and improve their strategies (Genç, 2012). However, "better teaching is not a gift conferred by professional development. It is gained and maintained through continual analysis and modification of one's own teaching practice." (Genç, 2012, p.86-87). Thus, making a few minutes for reflection every day could make a significant difference in effective teaching and learning experiences (Shoffner et al., 2010). Reflection as professional development has become prominent since 1990s as authors understood that there was no best working method in classes (Sze, 1999). Today reflection is the most important skill teachers are required to have just as Rosa (2005) displayed. Rosa (2005) investigated what characteristics an excellent teacher should have. The results reveal that the way to excellent teaching, among many other factors, goes through reflection just as one participant stated,

> A teacher of excellence is somebody who is not satisfied with what he/she has.. My concept of a good teacher is that he/she never ceases to grow, to develop himself/herself. So by continuously growing, students will grow with him or her. (Rosa, 2005, p.174)

2.3.1. Definition of reflection. Reflection is rather a complicated issue as many researchers have come up with various definitions including reflective teaching, reflective teacher and reflective thinking all of which, indeed, refer to the same concept (Bard, 2014; Josh Boyd & Steve Boyd, 2005; Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981; Demirbulak, 2012; Dewey, 1933; Farrell, 2012; Gün, 2010; Jay & Kerri Johnson, 2002; McGillick, 1993; Nguyen, 2017; Richard & Lockhart, 1994; Silcock, 1994; Stelter & Law, 2010; Stout, 1989; Sze, 1999; Szesztay, 2004; Valli, 1997; Yeşilbursa, 2011), so there is no consensus about one single definition. Reflection was first discussed by Dewey (1933) who defined it as "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light

of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p.9). More recently some researchers simply summarize it as the review of teaching (Josh Boyd & Steve Boyd, 2005; Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981; McGillick, 1993; Nguyen, 20117; Richard & Lockhart, 1994; Valli, 1997) while the others consider it as a deeper thinking about one's teaching (Bard, 2014; Demirbulak, 2012; Gün, 2010; Stout, 1989; Sze, 1999; Yeşilbursa, 2011). However, Szesztay (2004) claims teachers "sense or notice something about what is really going on ..., rather than think about it" (p.130). Therefore, she emphasizes that reflection includes intuition and observation. There are others who drew the attention on the assistance of others during the reflection process as carrying it out alone could be frustrating and against its nature (Bard, 2014; Loh et al., 2017). Jay & Kerri Johnson (2002), taking all those aspects of reflection into consideration, defines it as:

> ...a process, both individual and collaborative, involving experience and uncertainty. It is comprised of identifying questions and key elements of a matter that has emerged as significant, then taking one's thoughts into dialogue with oneself and with others. One evaluates insights gained from that process with reference to: 1) additional perspectives, 2) one's own values, experiences, and beliefs, and 3) the larger context within which the questions are raised. Through reflection, one reaches newfound clarity, on which one bases changes in action or disposition. New questions naturally arise, and the process spirals onward. (Jay & Kerri Johnson, 2002, p.76)

As Stout (1989) suggests, reflective teaching has two aspects, affective and behavioral. Affective aspect of reflection lies in careful and objective analysis skills of processes and practices whereas behavioral aspect is about taking action on a situation after the diagnosis. Those two aspects make reflective thinking difficult to teach and assess since for some teachers it is enough to observe whether their students are smiling. They conclude that their lesson is going well without taking the learning aspect into consideration (Bard, 2014). Thus,

effective reflection begins when teachers start examining whys instead of merely expressing whats (Sharil & Majid, 2010).

The components of reflection might help one to understand its nature better. First, the nature of reflection is ego-driven because it is done intentionally, deliberately and with a purpose. People are responsible for their actions because they first reflect on a situation alone. Second, reflection requires a restructing capability as it combines the past and present experiences to shed light on future actions. Third, the reflective thought or practice is effective when one transforms their perspectives (Silcock, 1994). Fourth, teachers need time to understand and implement different concepts, skills and practices in their classrooms, so reflection is time-consuming (Stout, 1989). Fifth, meaning-making is an experiential process (Stelter & Law, 2010). Sixth, reflection could be threatening for teachers as teachers and supervisors are not equals, which makes teachers hesitant because what two parties say is thought to be judged by the other. However, teachers should be respected and guided through the feedback session instead of being judged (Bard, 2014). Seventh, reflection is evidence based. Teachers are expected to reflect on the evidence about their teaching in their classroom and take action (Farrell, 2012). Finally, reflection is “a social activity” (Brandt, 2008, p.39) as one needs other people’s perspectives to be able to reflect.

There are also some stages in any reflective action. The first step towards reflective thinking is setting the problem (Jay & Kerri Johnson, 2002). After the identification of the problem, descriptive data should be collected. Following the data analysis, any significant differences should be sought for. And finally, several alternatives should be found to improve a situation (Maharsi, 2016). However, this is not an easy job. There are some prerequisites for reflection. The key requirement for reflective practice is developing awareness (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010) as one of the teachers made it obvious, “Until we are aware and see our weaknesses for ourselves, no amount of telling or pointing them out will help” (Brandt, 2008,

p.39). Freeman (1989) defined awareness as “the capacity to recognise and monitor the attention one has given or is giving something.” (p.8) and the primary step of increasing awareness is teachers’ understanding their own beliefs first (Freeman & Karen Johnson, 1998). The other requirements include the teacher’s experience to be reflected upon and a reason for reflection (Maharsi, 2016).

To wrap up, reflection is a multi-dimensional concept which has various understandings by researchers and it is difficult to implement. Teachers must have three main personal traits for reflective practice. First, they must be open-minded about different perspectives coming from various agents. Second, they must be responsible for the actions that reflective thinking would lead to. Third and the last, they must be wholehearted to make a difference in their teaching without fear or doubt about the critical evaluation of the event (Dewey, 1933).

2.3.1.1. Types of reflection. The most well-known and widely-used dichotomy is described by Farrell (2016) which has three types of reflection. The first one is reflection-in-action originated from Schön (1983) meaning how teachers reflect during their teaching. The second one is reflection-on-action, first proposed by Dewey (1933), referring to the reflective thought after teaching. The last one is reflection-for-action before teaching to take action in advance. While teachers make reflection-in-action, they take a step back and observe their teaching to make adjustments to meet the needs of learners. When a teacher reflects on action, they analyze the completed lesson. When teachers reflect for action, they go through their lesson plan beforehand and try to come up with any alternative options by foreseeing what is going to happen. Among those types, reflection-in-action is the most difficult one as it cannot be planned in advance like reflection-on-action and reflection-for-action. Reflection-in-action is closely related to knowing-in-action which was described by Szesztay (2004) as the immediate connection between knowing and doing. In the middle of teaching, teachers

encounter dilemmas and have to make on-the-spot decisions at that moment. That refers to reflection-in-action. Farrell (2012) clarifies it with a vivid example. It is like seeing somebody in the crowd and recognizing the face somehow but one cannot work out where or how they know that person. Farrell (2012) also described how reflection-in-action works. First the teacher needs to get a surprising answer or encounter an unexpected situation in class. Then, the teacher tries to understand why this unexpected situation has come up and the process of reflection starts.

Figure 5

Typology of Reflection: Dimensions and Guiding Questions (Jay & Kerri Johnson, 2002, p.77)

Dimension	Definition	Typical questions
Descriptive	Describe the matter for reflection	What is happening? Is this working, and for whom? For whom is it not working? How do I know? How am I feeling? What am I pleased and/or concerned about? What do I not understand? Does this relate to any of my stated goals, and to what extent are they being met?
Comparative	Reframe the matter for reflection in light of alternative views, others' perspectives, research, etc.	What are alternative views of what is happening? How do other people who are directly or indirectly involved describe and explain what's happening? What does the research contribute to an understanding of this matter? How can I improve what's not working? If there is a goal, what are some other ways of accomplishing it? How do other people accomplish this goal? For each perspective and alternative, who is served and who is not?
Critical	Having considered the implications of the matter, establish a renewed perspective	What are the implications of the matter when viewed from these alternative perspectives? Given these various alternatives, their implications, and my own morals and ethics, which is best for this particular matter? What is the deeper meaning of what is happening, in terms of public democratic purposes of schooling? What does this matter reveal about the moral and political dimension of schooling? How does this reflective process inform and renew my perspective?

Another less known typology was described by Jay & Kerri Johnson (2002), which could guide teachers to see which reflective stage they are. By answering the questions in the critical dimension, as can be examined in Figure 5, a teacher can start reflecting on their teaching practices.

2.3.1.2. Levels of reflection. There are three approaches describing different levels of

reflection. The perspective each approach takes varies in terms of its purpose.

The first one is the adaptation of the three positions of the mind in Neurolinguistic Programming into teaching context. Szesztay (2004) attempts to describe and understand reflection-in-action in the classroom setting. She explains that position 1 is the next teaching point teachers focus on while position 2 refers to the teachers' focus on how students respond and position 3 is the focus on the classroom events in general as a helicopter view. Those three positions together, Szesztay believes, mirror reflection-in-action. That approach might be useful for teachers as it guides teachers through what they should focus on and when.

Loh et al. (2017) also described four levels of reflection that are Pre-reflection, Surface reflection, Pedagogical reflection and Critical reflection level. The first level is where teachers cannot come up with any alternatives or adaptations although they know something is wrong. They cannot analyze what is going on in their classes. In the surface reflection level, teachers try to implement the tested methods or techniques in their classes. In the next level, pedagogical reflection, teachers attempt to combine their teaching methods with research and theories. Finally, the critical reflection level refers to the actual reflection where teachers focus on their contexts and students to come up with solutions. This approach displays the process towards critical thinking.

The last one is of Farrell's (2016) who thinks that reflecting on practice could be taught to pre-service teachers and he developed a framework for this purpose. This framework consists of 5 levels of reflection. The first level is philosophy, which forms the basis for teachers' behaviors although they cannot explain explicitly why they are doing it. At this level, finding out about pre-service teachers' experiences would help to understand the underlying beliefs of their practices. The second level is principles referring to teachers' opinions, beliefs and attitudes on how they conceptualize teaching. For instance, in his study one of the participant teachers mentioned that she knew she had to change some parts of her

teaching but in the end she would not change herself as a teacher due to some principles she had. The third level is theory which refers to the teachers' choices about how to teach particular skills. Farrell (2016) argues that most pre-service teacher education programs do not cover in their curriculums how to deal with dilemmas in the classroom but as these occur in a real teaching context, they are the concepts that should also be reflected on. The fourth is the practice level focusing on more visible behaviors of teachers and the impact of those behaviors. The final one is beyond practice that is the sociocultural aspect of teaching that a teacher is in. Pre-service teacher education programs could follow this framework to teach how to think reflectively.

2.3.2. The necessity of reflection for teaching. Reflection is essential for two main reasons. First, continuing teacher development is required to maintain and improve the quality of teachers (Borg, 2014; Maharsi, 2016) since it provides teachers with time to think about what happened during their teaching and a chance to see other practitioners (Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981). As Farrell (Pang, 2017) argues, since the concept of good teacher changes from culture to culture, it is difficult to list what a teacher is required to know. That makes reflection on teaching even more important. As there is no agreement on what techniques are most effective, a teacher must constantly reflect on their teaching to make it more effective for students because reflective practice in teaching leads to "better student learning and more efficient performance" (Akbari, 2007, p.204). Besides improved quality in teaching, reflective practice also helps teachers to gain control over their teaching. It helps them to make spontaneous decisions when they encounter dilemmas and conflicts in the class. Similarly, it enables teachers to be able to monitor and analyze the existing situation and work for better teaching environment (Loh et al., 2017). Second, reflective practice helps teachers to combine their previous beliefs and the new knowledge gained in teacher education programs (Freeman, 2002). This is particularly important since it is known that teacher beliefs are both powerful

(Freeman & Karen Johnson, 1998) and resistant to change (Karen Johnson, 1994), which makes the process more challenging (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). Although reflection is usually associated with in-service teachers' professional development, it is even more important for pre-service teacher education programs (Day, 1991) because it does not only enable them to create a link between theories and practices, but it also helps them choose the appropriate teaching materials and strategies among many others. Besides, it urges them to reflect on their own practices by observing others or learning from others (Maharsi, 2016). In addition to those, since teaching experiences are various, instance-based and context-based, teacher educators must not "only prepare teachers with subject and pedagogical content knowledge but also to be able to respond to an unknown reality which will vary from context to context and individual to individual" (Farrell, 2016, p.98). This can only be achieved through reflective practice.

2.3.3. Tools for reflection. There is a wide range of techniques for professional growth and reflection such as self-observation and peer-observation, reflective journals, action research, team teaching, interviews with students, written questionnaires, reading articles, cooperative / collaborative development, the teachers' group (teachers working in the same institution come together to discuss particular issues), teachers' associations like IATEFL to get the chance to attend conferences and present, the virtual community (on internet), university study, attending conferences and in-service courses (Genç, 2012; Harmer, 2001; Ur, 1996). A higher level of teacher development activities involve being a language learner to understand the learning process, caring about physical condition such as voice and fatigue, writing materials, writing items for national exams, setting up websites, running clubs and so forth (Harmer, 2001). Among those activities the most accessible and convenient ones are, without any doubt, self-observation and peer-observation, reading articles, keeping reflective journals, attending ELT seminars and carrying out action research.

It is for certain that teachers get ideas from their actual teaching practice (Kagan, 1992), yet they could also reflect on their own practices by analysing the data coming from other classroom contexts, as well, such as their colleagues' classes (Borg, 1998). Peer observation enables teachers to improve their decision-making skills as they come up with different solutions to the classroom situations they observe (Genç, 2012).

Another convenient professional development activity, attending ELT conferences, has also proved to draw many teachers' attention. Borg (2014) investigated the effects of ELT conferences and found that those conferences were useful for teachers in a number of ways. Some of the benefits discovered are as follows: teachers were more aware about other teaching contexts, they felt more motivated in teaching and also motivated to go to other conferences, they were more familiar with ELT trends and ELT resources. One of the participants in Borg (2014) stated,

> Yes, we have something new in our curriculum which is called literature time, and we were a little bit confused on how to teach that, it's only for enjoyment, are they reading sessions, how can we make them more interesting because our children are not reading here in my country, so once we attended one of the workshops that showed exactly how to motivate the children or the young learners to read and they gave us a story and we started reading and it was very enjoyable, all the audience we read all of the story within an hour and that was something really new and I came back and I tried it with my children. It really works. (Borg, 2014, p.39)

Another participant in Borg (2014) commented, "I found that I am not the only one who comes across certain obstacles, difficulties, ... , I am not the only one in the world facing such problems..." (p.41). Those examples clearly illustrate the benefits of ELT seminars and conferences.

Reading articles is another tool for reflection as Kamiya (2015) proves reading articles plays an indirect role in professional development of teachers. The participants in Kamiya's (2015) study expressed that reading articles was beneficial for them as the articles increased their awareness about CF. However, Kamiya (2015) also found that reading articles did not lead to a change in practice for all teachers. The reason for this could be, as Kamiya explains, CF might not be those teachers' priority but just a technique used in class. Besides that, teaching experience "plays a role in determining how much influence reading academic articles can have on the stated beliefs about CF among ESL teachers" (Kamiya, 2015, p.341). The findings of Rankin & Becker (2006) are also in line with Kamiya (2015). Rankin & Becker (2006) observed that knowledge gained from published research is not automatically implemented in practice. Rather, it is "processed and filtered through layers of experience and belief" and then implemented (Rankin & Becker, 2006, p.366).

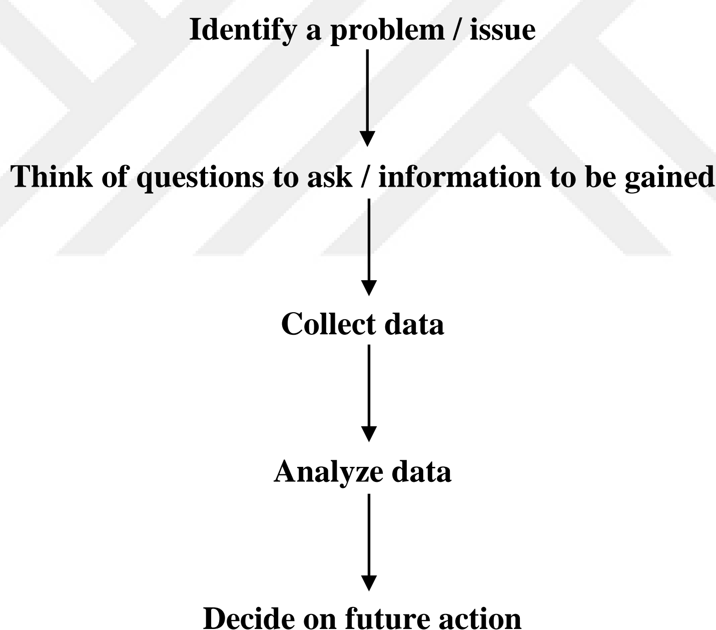
Reflective journals are another way for reflective thought. Through the use of journals reflective thought is made visible (Nguyen, 2017). Reflective journals enable teachers to examine their classroom experiences and integrate the reflective component into their practices. Besides that, as reflective journals help teachers to reflect critically on their teaching and question their existing beliefs, it ultimately leads to teacher autonomy (Genç, 2012). However, journal writing has been considered by teachers to be challenging as they are not provided any training or guided on how to write reflectively (Nguyen, 2017).

Research is usually associated with academics, scientists, numbers and experiments by teachers. However, teacher research, also named as action research, refers to a series of techniques to enable teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their practices and improve certain aspects of their teaching (Harmer, 2001). It also intends to understand a situation rather than provide evidence and teachers are at the heart of inquiry, being researchers themselves (Borg, 2006). As a matter of fact, teachers are as good as researchers since they

demonstrate valid and relevant findings with their classroom environment (Richardson, 1994). The benefits of action research are countless. First, through action research teachers become more confident and feel more control over their classes (Genç, 2012). Besides, it is commonsense that teachers' engagement in research would increase the quality of education (Borg, 2006) as teachers may conduct practical inquiry to gain insight into their setting. The result of the inquiry might lead to "a change in practice, or it may be an enhanced understanding" (Richardson, 1994, p.7). Moreover, the research conducted by teachers would be more useful as they get practical implications from their research (Richardson, 1994).

Figure 6

Action Research Cycle (Harmer, 2001, p.345)



Furthermore, action research studies are an important tool for reflection since they encourage teachers to examine their teaching with a critical perspective and make proper decisions about their professional moves (Arslan & Basaga, 2010). Harmer (2001) suggests five steps to follow while conducting action research, which can be examined in Figure 6. With a similar purpose, Bard (2014) also suggested a guide for teachers she also used for herself, which she

calls an action plan rather than action research since she says she involves her students into the inquiry, as well. The action plan looks like a vicious cycle with five steps: research, create an action plan, reflect with/without learners, identify the challenge and discuss with learners.

On the other hand, it is a reality that teacher research is the least favored activity in ELT (Borg, 2009). Teachers are not willing to conduct research as they might find formal research not relevant to their immediate needs and not practical in their settings (Richardson, 1994). In addition to that, teachers might have misconceptions about research or they might not have adequate skills and knowledge to conduct a research. Therefore, their awareness about the scope of reseach should be raised and they should be acknowledged about the stages of research (Borg, 2009). However, awareness alone is not adequate for a teacher to conduct research. The willing to do it, in other words, motivation is a necessary condition for teacher research. A teacher must also have knowledge and skills necessary to conduct research if the inquiry is intended to be sound. Besides those, when teachers choose themselves what to inquire about, it is more productive. As well as awareness and motivation, time is an important condition in teacher research, too, since however planned and organized one is, conducting research takes extra time. Finally, classroom is generally considered to be a place where teachers transmit knowledge rather than a source to be examined. If the findings of teacher research are valued by colleagues, head teacher and other authorities, teachers feel encouraged to conduct research. Teachers can start from inquiring their classroom situations and carry on with more professional activities at local level and even regional and national by submitting papers and presenting in conferences (Borg, 2006).

There are two recent studies examining teachers' reflective activities for professonal development, which depict the situation in Turkish context. Genç (2012) investigated the attitudes towards and behaviors of 85 Turkish EFL teachers' professional development through a questionnaire and a follow-up interview. She found that 35% of the teachers

conducted self- and peer observation and that was followed by reflective journals with 10% and action research with 5% only. None of the teachers took part in team-teaching before. Among many other reasons why they did not take part in professional development activities, the following were most common to the majority: lack of time, heavy workload, lack of knowledge about how to do it and professional development being too theoretical. Moreover, as for the resources they used for professional development, internet came the first used by all of the teachers. This was followed by seminars and conferences and finally by discussions with colleagues. Interesting enough student feedback was the least used source, which should be more paramount. The findings further revealed that the majority of the teachers felt they needed professional development on the ways to increase their students' motivation, how to handle large classes and new methodologies and practices among many other topics. Furthermore, it was found that teachers expected their teaching skills to improve, learn about recent studies and receive formal qualifications from professional development events. All in all, Genç (2012) concluded that the participant teachers were not completely aware of the ways to be reflective. Tok & Dolapçıoğlu (2013) also investigated reflective teaching practices of 328 primary school teachers. The data were collected through a questionnaire and an observation form. The questionnaire results revealed that the majority of teachers followed professional publications and discussed their practices with colleagues. They were found to use reflective diaries sometimes or never. The researchers explained that the teachers might not have an idea about how to use diaries or they might consider it as a waste of time as they found it boring.

2.3.4. Previous studies on reflective practices of OCF. A wide variety of studies have been conducted to investigate reflective activities using different tools with both pre-service and in-service EFL/ESL teachers.

The majority of the research studies carried out with pre-service teachers investigate whether there was a change in their understanding after self-observation, peer-observation or supervisor observation and after oral or written feedback following a microteaching period or a lesson during practicum. For that purpose, Evans et al. (2012) carried out a teach-assess-reflect (T-A-R) project in which participant pre-service teachers first taught their lessons that were videotaped, and then assessed their lessons using self-assessment and peer-assessment forms, and finally made reflections based on some guided questions and discussions with peers. This project seems to have worked in terms of pre-service teachers' reflective practices as they all had positive comments about the project such as collaboration with peers, meaningful reflection and awareness of effective practices. Evans et al. (2012) revealed that participant pre-service teachers benefited from peer feedback and they had a positive attitude towards peer reflection. Similarly, Maharsi (2016) carried out research to examine the impact of peer teaching observation. The participants, 12 pre-service EFL students, observed one another's lessons and wrote post-observation reflections. The results revealed that they found their peer's reflection valuable. Also, it was obvious that students reflected on their own practices while observing others just as one participant stated,

> But, the students find the topic quickly (unpredictable), so for improvement I should change the method. I change the way by asking them to stand up blocking each other and change the position. It's not really intresting way to group students. So, I must change the task by asking students to write topic of passage and the topic sentence. (Maharsi, 2016, p.97)

Yeşilbursa (2011) also carried out a research study to investigate the effects of written reflection following video-taped microteaching experience. The results demonstrated that reflecting on their own practices raised pre-service teachers' awareness significantly. The researcher suggested that teacher educators should allow pre-service teachers to reflect on

their practices as much as possible, even in earlier years of the program. She added that even the first year students could be asked to keep a diary to reflect on their previous learning experiences because some of the participants in that study mentioned their previous experiences in their diaries. With a closer inspection into the quality of self-reflection, Sharil & Majid (2010) investigated 3 pre-service ESL teachers' self-reflection processes during their practicum. The results revealed that although the participants reflected on their decisions, that reflection was superficial focusing their attention on whats rather than whys or hows. For instance, one of the participants reflected,

> I had planned a full lesson that they would enjoy if they followed what I said but I guess it didn't happen the way I expected it to be. Again, I had to change my whole lesson which made me quite frustrated and disappointed with the students. (Sharil & Majid, p.266)

Most of the reports failed to describe any alternative solutions for the problematic situations. Instead of the effects of self- and peer-observation, Yiğit et al. (2010) investigated the impact of reflective-based mentoring on the professional development of 12 pre-service teachers during their practicum. The participant pre-service teachers were provided with reflective comments about their lessons from their mentors and were then asked to make self-reflection on their own teaching. The results revealed that pre-service teachers benefited from those reflective comments. The contributions of reflective comments are valuable. The reflective comments increased the effectiveness of teaching by helping the pre-service teachers to notice the areas in need for development, the effectiveness of class management, self confidence and motivation, and they helped to reflect more to improve. Similar to those studies, Parra (2012) investigated the impact of reflective practice on 4 pre-service teachers during their practicum. The data were collected through reflective journals, interviews and classroom observations. The results showed that pre-service teachers modified their teaching by reflecting in action

and on action. However, it was discovered that pre-service teachers did not have the necessary knowledge, strategies and guidance to reflect on their teaching practices. The reseacher suggested that a special training program should be designed for pre-service teachers to become reflective practitioners. Different from the abovementioned studies, Sachs & Ho (2011) investigated the use of cases in EFL/ESL teacher education. Through the feedback of pre-service teachers the researchers found that cases could be useful for reflection to fill the gap between theory and practice.

In-service EFL/ESL teachers have even further been researched about the influences of reflective activities on their professional development. One of the most important studies providing us with valuable data is of Vasquez & Harvey's (2010) who carried out a case study in order to investigate whether there would be a change in the level of awareness in the participant teachers' beliefs and opinions about OCF strategies after conducting action research. The participants were 9 teachers enrolled for MA-TESL program. The researchers replicated Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study, which gave the participants a chance to reflect on their own practices. The results revealed that the participants had a more sophisticated perspective on CF than before the study was conducted. While three participant teachers mentioned the affective factors of OCF in the beginning of the semester, in their final reflection essay, they all focused on different aspects of OCF. One participant, Mina, proved that with those lines, "I used to believe that error correction can be discouraging, useless, and even detrimental during the communicative activities. However, I now think that I should consider developing systematic error correction strategies for the common student errors." (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010, p.429-430). The researchers pointed out that the results of their study did not change their pre-existing beliefs about the issue, yet it led to an enhanced understanding and a broader perspective of the teachers about OCF. The results of Vasquez & Harvey (2010) made obvious that teachers' beliefs about OCF changed after self-reflection.

More recently, Loh, Hong & Koh (2017) conducted a case study to investigate how reflection would influence the practices of an experienced teacher implementing a new curriculum. The analyses displayed the teacher's pedagogical change over two semesters. The participant teacher in Loh et al.'s (2017) study was very reluctant to change her teaching techniques as she prepared her students for written exams and she thought she had to use conventional techniques such as teaching grammar rules and handing out worksheets. She found the new curriculum by National Ministry of Education, which had a more communicative purpose to increase critical thinking, not applicable as her students had to prepare for an exam and she had too many worksheets to complete in class time. On the top of those implementing that new curriculum seemed meaningless. During the first couple of weeks in the meetings she remained quiet mostly not commenting on anything. Her lessons were regularly observed and she was given advice on how to integrate the new curriculum into her lessons. In the second semester she seemed much more enthusiastic about the new curriculum as she observed her students communicating more and enjoying the lessons more. She was observed to go through all the reflection levels. Finally she was at the level where she did not focus on materials but on students and their needs. As she stated, in order for change to occur "it is the teacher's perception that needs to be addressed" (p.8). With a more detailed analysis to identify the self-reflection process, Szesztay (2004) carried out a descriptive study and investigated how teachers reflected in the middle of the teaching. Therefore, she interviewed 7 teachers and observed their lessons. The analysis revealed that reflection-in-action meant "super ego watching, a pause in the act of teaching, feeling overwhelmed and getting perspective, and stepping back for teachers" (p.132). The researcher also further examined the causes triggering reflection-in-action and found that teachers reflected immediately when they observed students having difficulty in the task, when they encountered a new situation, when

they had a new grade level to teach and when they thought for the sake of every individual in the class. One of the teacher participants in Szesztay (2004) stated,

> I have been teaching for a few years, and I can sense that my interest in developing as a teacher is shifting in the direction of noticing 'feelings' that I pick up on in the class... I marvelled at the fact that I went through an entire teaching credential program without ever being encouraged to pay attention to the 'feelings I pick up' in the classroom...I now know that being able to observe the spoken and unspoken dynamic in the classroom, and to react to that feedback, is really at the heart of teaching. (Szesztay, 2004, p.135)

There are also some other studies examining the impact of short-term reflective education programs. For instance, Atay (2008) designed an INSET program to observe the effects on the professional development of 62 EFL teachers. The program lasted 6 weeks. In the first two weeks, the teachers' theoretical knowledge was updated and then some issues the participant teachers preferred to gain more knowledge about were discussed further. The last two weeks were spent on action research and the discussion of the results. The results revealed that the teacher found exchanging experiences with colleagues beneficial. Moreover, some teachers received their students' opinions about the course and started making changes, which showed the teachers started to reflect on their teaching. Atay (2008) concluded that research-oriented programs would be effective for teacher development contrary to the traditional INSET programs which teachers usually find unsatisfactory as the reflective component was missing. Similarly, Rankin & Becker (2006) investigated whether the behavior of CF use of a German teacher would change as a result of a pedagogy seminar and action research. The findings revealed that through discussion and research the CF behavior of the teacher showed a significant difference towards the end of the study. Likewise, Arslan & Basaga (2010) also observed whether reflective practice would lead to a change in four EFL teachers' teaching

practices. The participants were provided with a reflective development program which covered theoretical information about reflective teaching and some general issues in language teaching such as syllabus design and interaction in class, they were interviewed and then they were asked to carry out an action research. The results revealed that after the reflective program and action research, teachers focused on their teaching more critically. Their awareness on student motivation, planning, making adjustments, reflection-on-action and collaboration with colleagues were observed to increase. In the same way, Gün (2010) carried out a project which lasted for 8 weeks with 4 EFL teachers. During the project the participant teachers received input sessions where they were shown teaching contexts to discuss the techniques used whether they were effective and how they could be made more effective. Teachers were asked to prepare tasks and deliver in their lessons. After the feedback which came from many different sources like trainer, colleagues and learners, they were asked to do the same task again to discover the effects of reflective thought. According to the findings, teachers' watching their own lessons was the most beneficial source of feedback for reflection. The researcher mentioned that the study was effective because input sessions helped the teachers to gain a critical eye and they watched their own lessons knowing what to look for exactly. Therefore, this study proved that reflective thinking was crucial in combining theory with practice. With a different focus, Shoffner et al. (2010) investigated how 4 novice teachers survived in their first year of teaching and presented interesting findings. Their descriptive analyses about those 4 teachers' experiences demonstrate that simply equipping teachers with knowledge and skills during their pre-service education program is not sufficient for real teaching contexts. Teachers are usually prepared for optimal conditions but they should also be taught what they could do when they are in different settings or when they have lack of opportunities. For instance, as the researchers pointed out, it might be easy for teachers to use technology as they have been trained about it but it would

be difficult for them to deal with the lack of technology. Reflection plays the biggest role in cases like that. Finally, Borg (2009) conducted an extensive research study investigating how much of the research carried out reached the intended audience. He found that only 15% often read research out of 505 teachers. The reasons teachers put forward for not reading research were time constraints, no accessibility to books and journals, the assumption that research did not provide practical classroom advice, the difficulty of understanding research and no interest. Similarly a small proportion of the participants stated that they often did research because they found research useful for their professional development, that way they found better ways of teaching and they solved problems in their teaching, which were the three mostly stated reasons among others. As for the reasons why they did not carry out research were again time constraints, not having adequate information about how to conduct research and that their colleagues did not do research either, which were the three most stated among others. Borg (2009) found that more experienced and qualified teachers read research more often than those were less experienced and less qualified.

2.4. Pre-Service Teacher Education

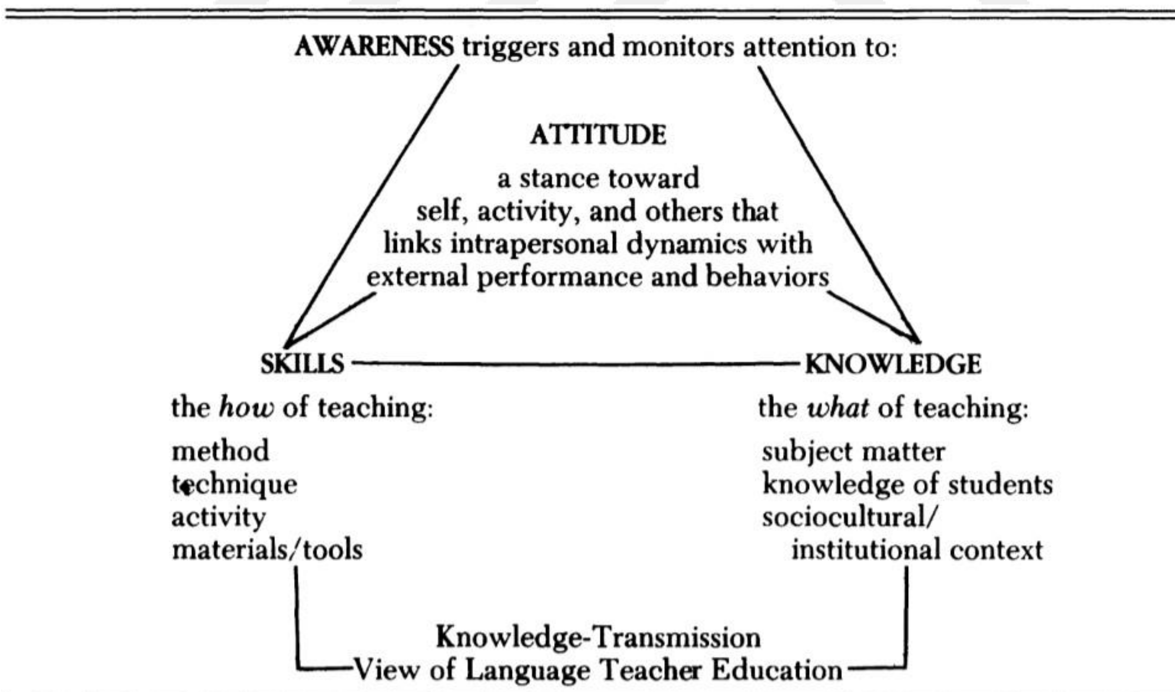
"Language teacher education serves to link what is known in the field with what is done in the classroom, and it does so through the individuals whom we educate as teachers." (Freeman, 1989, p.30). A good pre-service teacher education program is supposed to train individuals as reflective teachers who have a vast collection of educational, managerial and pedagogical knowledge and skills to choose from according to the setting, who can take initiatives to make proper decisions in the classroom for the situations coming up incidentally and who are well aware of how they can continue their professional development through using a combination of different reflective methods in teacher education. A considerable number of research studies conducted with both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers present valuable information by shedding light on the current situation and how the quality of

teacher education could be further improved. Different approaches to teacher education and previous studies carried out about this issue are presented and a collection of suggestions from various researchers is listed in this section.

2.4.1. Teacher training and teacher development. Teacher education is composed of teacher training and teacher development, both of which refer to two separate concepts (Freeman, 1989; McGillick, 1993). Training involves the transmission of discrete chunks of mostly knowledge and skills by a collaborator over a period of time and the consequences of which can be assessed while development refers to reaching the level of more effective teaching through the increase or change in the degree of awareness. For development, internal observing system should be activated. The collaborator helps one to draw their attention on particular aspects of teaching (Freeman, 1989).

Figure 7

Descriptive Model of Teaching: The Constituents (Freeman, 1989, p.36)

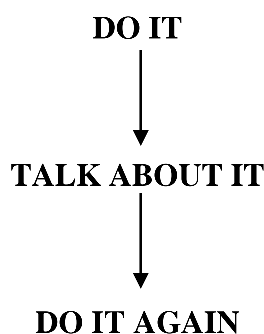


Teacher training simply refers to what is known as pre-service teacher education programs, which equip teachers with knowledge, skills and various teaching methods (Genç,

2010; Sharil & Majid, 2010). Up to now a wide variety of suggestions concerning the content of pre-service teacher education programs have been proposed. For instance, Freeman (1989) listed four constituents for language teaching: knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness, which can be examined in Figure 7. Knowledge consists of the subject matter, the information about students such as their learning background, their levels, their learning styles, and the teaching context. Skills refer to how teachers perform in the classroom. Skills involve giving instructions, providing error correction, classroom management, engaging students and so forth. Those make the knowledge base of a teacher. Attitude is "the stance one adopts toward oneself, the activity of teaching, and the learners one engages in the teaching/learning process" (Freeman, 1989, p.32). Attitudes can impact a teacher's strengths or weaknesses. Another component, awareness is "the capacity to recognise and monitor the attention one is giving or has given to something" (p.33). Awareness is superordinate as it helps one to analyze their knowledge, skills and attitudes consciously. Awareness is what encourages teachers to change and improve. Thus, it is important in teacher education process. Finally, Freeman (1989) suggests decision-making as the last constituent of the teaching process since teaching has continual shifts and a series of actions rather than being a stable process. Thus, decision-making handles this dynamism. While Freeman (1989) focuses on the transmission of certain constituents in language teaching, Mc Gillick (1993) draws the attention more on

Figure 8

The Formula to Encourage Experiential Learning (McGillick, 1993, p.3)



experiential learning, so he proposes a formula for this structure below (Figure 8). This formula is extremely important as McGillick, in a way, also encourages reflective thought by prompting pre-service teachers to talk about their experiences and apply the same procedures reflectively again. As Sharil & Majid (2010) suggest, during pre-service teacher education, teachers are equipped with necessary knowledge and skills to practice effective teaching strategies but the most important one always emphasized is reflective practice. Farrell (Pang, 2017) thinks that reflective practice is a skill one can learn. The problem why many pre-service teachers cannot reflect or make fake reflection is because teacher educators do not know themselves what reflection is and so cannot teach their students. The framework he developed in 2015 (that was introduced in 2.3.1.2) would benefit teacher educators to teach reflection. Teaching reflection is important since it activates pre-service teachers' knowledge and increases their awareness through different tools such as journals to provoke reflective thought (Maharsi, 2016). Through practicum courses in pre-service teacher education programs pre-service teachers are expected to improve both their technical skills such as the use of materials, transmission of content knowledge, student engagement and the invisible skills like reflecting on their practice and taking action (Stout, 1989). In other words, the primary target of practicum courses is to make pre-service teachers familiar to teaching in the real context, preparing them to experience their profession before they graduate (Merç, 2010). In order to make it an effective period, teacher educators should provide opportunities for reflective practice (Demirbulak, 2012). More concretely, quality feedback provision to pre-service teachers (Evans et al., 2012) and encouraging self-reflection are important during practicum. As Yeşilbursa (2011) points out, in Turkey pre-service teachers are supposed to write their reflections weekly during their practicum; however, it is not a standard for other courses in teacher education programs. While it is agreed that reflection should be at the core of practicum, Demirbulak (2012) lists a number of difficulties hindering reflection during

practicum in the Turkish context. First, the time is limited and there is too much workload. Also, lecturers, teachers and pre-service teachers are mostly unable to cooperate during the process. Therefore, most of the time pre-service teachers are not guided adequately. All of those factors cause the opportunities for reflection to be missed by pre-service teachers. Besides those, a pre-service teacher's classroom practice is also influenced by many variables such as the characteristics of students, principals' assumptions and expectations, the attitude of parents, accessibility to materials, attitudes of other teachers and the relationship between the pre-service and cooperating teacher, all of which means a pre-service teacher is in between many political and social dilemmas besides pedagogical ones (Kagan, 1992). Thus, it is doubtful if teachers are ready for profession after a short time of field experience (Stout, 1989) and with so many problems behind. For those reasons, reflective practices should be introduced in the early years of teacher education programs (Yeşilbursa, 2011). Methodology and practicum courses would be more useful if pre-service teachers had some experience to start reflecting on their teaching earlier (Demirbulak, 2012). In addition to the doubt regarding the effectiveness of practicum courses, there are other criticisms towards pre-service teacher education programs, as well. Akbulut (2007) claims that teacher education programs are criticised as they offer methods and techniques without taking the difficulties and challenges of the real classroom environment into consideration. He adds that teacher educators need to gain an insight about the challenges of real teaching contexts and provide a dynamic approach to teaching rather than just transmitting theoretical knowledge. That would help pre-service teachers to adjust to the classroom reality better in their first year of teaching. Similarly, Farrell (2016) asserts that as pre-service teachers do not receive sufficient preparation during their teacher development programs, they have difficulty in making in-class decisions in their first year of teaching. In-class decisions vary in their nature. A teacher might make minor decisions like where to stand in classroom as well as major decisions such as methodology.

Decisions also vary in their complexity, being planned or instant or being made consciously or unconsciously (Freeman, 1989). The problem is the planned aspects of teaching are generally included in the scope of the pre-service teacher education programs; however, the ones requiring instant teacher decisions such as error correction are usually neglected (Özmen & Aydın, 2015). As a consequence, novice teachers are usually “left to sink or swim” (Özmen & Aydın, 2015, p.104) in their first year of teaching. For those reasons, reflection should definitely be taught to teachers during their pre-service teacher education programs. When this is realized, teachers could continue their professional development as long as they teach and whether or not their pre-service teacher education programs have been of good quality since even a good quality of teacher education program cannot prepare teachers for everything and changes in methodologies or in setting might occur as time passes, all of which are not possible to be introduced during teacher training (Missoum, 2015).

While inexperienced teachers need to take training in the first place, in-service teachers should focus on development rather than training as they are required to learn how to reflect on their current practices by analyzing their classrooms and coping with the challenges through various possible solutions and ultimately making their teaching more effective (Genç, 2010). Teachers, particularly in their first year of teaching, encounter many challenges such as classroom management, too much paper work, designing learning activities, conducting those activities and meeting various standards. Transmission from school life to real classroom setting is difficult for most of the novice teachers. Only reflection can help them to overcome those challenges (Shoffner et al., 2010). As Kagan (1992) points out professional growth of the novice teachers has five stages. Those are “an increase in metacognition, the acquisition of knowledge about pupils, a shift in attention, the development of standard procedures, growth in problem solving skills” (p.156). As McGillick (1993) explains, the goal of teacher development is assessing teacher attitudes, knowledge and skills. Therefore, the first thing to

do is to raise awareness about the existing attitudes, knowledge and skills since "attitudes are frequently subliminal, skills often instinctive rather than conscious and knowledge, too, often internalised and hard to articulate" (p.4). Attitudes, knowledge and skills are required to be conscious before they can be modified and this could only be done through action rather than discussion (Borg, 1998). Recently Yook & Yong-Hun Lee (2016) have shown that in-service teachers benefit from participating in in-service teacher education programs presenting applicable ideas into practice and they learn a lot from the observation of other teachers' demonstrations during in-service teacher education programs.

Figure 9

Educating Strategies (Freeman, 1989, p.42)

	Teacher training: Process of direct intervention	Teacher development: Process of influence
Characteristics of aspects of teaching focused on	Generally accessible; can be mastered through specific courses of action	Idiosyncratic and individual; mature through constant attention, critique, and involvement of the teacher in his or her teaching
Constituent base	Knowledge and skills	Attitude and awareness
Focus	Initiated by collaborator; work carried out by teacher	Raised by collaborator, but work initiated by teacher
Criteria for assessing change	External; accessible to the collaborator	Internal; personal to teacher
Closure	Can be within a fixed time period, once criteria are satisfied	Is open-ended; work continues until teacher decides to stop

To sum up, the similarities and differences between teacher training and teacher development are presented by Freeman (1989) in Figure 9. The target of both strategies is a change in language teachers' awareness and practices. However, it should be noted that change involves some features. First, it does not always mean doing something in a different way. It might mean merely a shift in awareness. Second, it does not always occur immediately. It could be viewed over a period of time. Third, it is sometimes observable

while it is sometimes not. Last, some changes have an end but others are just a process (Freeman, 1989).

2.4.2. Models & approaches in teacher education. In order to understand what various teacher education models focus their attention on, different types of knowledge base should be examined first. Day (1991) presented four types of knowledge base teacher education programmes should deliver: content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge and support knowledge. Content knowledge refers to the subject matter, that is, what is going to be taught. Pedagogic knowledge consists of the techniques and strategies such as classroom management and decision making. Pedagogic content knowledge includes different methods and techniques to teach subject matter, that is, what the different ways to teach subject are. The last one, support knowledge, refers to a variety of disciplines influencing teaching such as sociolinguistics and SLA. Knowledge base comes from two different sources. First, it might stem from lectures, discussions and so forth, which is called acquired or received knowledge. And the second one is experiential knowledge coming from the actual classroom (Day, 1991). In other words, experiential knowledge refers to practical knowledge (Richardson, 1996).

There are four models which pre-service teacher education programs prefer how to deliver knowledge to their learners. These are appentice-expert model, the rationalist model, the case studies model and the integrative model. In apprentice-expert model, a novice teacher works with an experienced teacher to acquire experiential knowledge as they observe, teach and practice. Day mentions that this kind of method refers to content, pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge. The rationalist model, as Day mentioned, is the most widely applied model in American universities. It includes the transmitting of scientific knowledge to learners and in the end they are expected to implement this knowledge in their practice. It only refers to the received knowledge and leads to partial understanding leaving the practical

aspect of teaching out. Day points out that this model develops only content knowledge and support knowledge despite its wide-spread usage. The case studies model, as is clear by the name, consists of case studies to analyze and discuss. Although it is implemented in some departments such as law and medicine, it is not favored by teacher education programs as, Day explained, it refers to content knowledge but limited knowledge on the other knowledge types. Since all those three models lack a teaching component, Day put forward a new model which is the integrative model. The integrative model accomodates all four types of knowledge through various activities and experiences but, as Day put it, that is not adequate for learners to form knowledge base. Reflection is a must to complement the teacher education programs. Day posits that simply exposing learners to all types of knowledge does not necessarily mean that they are going to lead to self-criticism and deep insight into teaching. Learners have to be involved in those knowledge types through reflection in order to develop as professionals (Day, 1991).

2.4.3. Previous studies on pre-service teacher education programs. There are mainly two sets of studies about pre-service teacher education programs. While the first set of studies aims to discover the influences of practicum courses on teachers' beliefs and practices, the second type of research, in more general terms, targets the impact of pre-service teacher education programs on teachers' professional teaching practice. The majority of the participant teachers in those studies, unfortunately, do not find practicum courses of good quality or adequate and they think pre-service teacher education programs do not prepare them for the real teaching contexts. There are also some studies investigating whether education or short-term training sessions have an impact on teachers' beliefs and practices. Besides those studies, there is an interesting research study examining and describing pre-service EFL teachers' mindsets. Those studies are all presented below.

Merç (2010) carried out extensive research and investigated the problems 99 pre-service teachers encountered during their practicum. The data were collected through reflection papers. The results show that pre-service teachers encounter three categories of problems: the pre-active stage referring to planning and anxiety problems, the active stage where they encounter problems during teaching and the post-active stage involving problems rising up after the lesson. Merç (2010) found that during the pre-active stage anxiety seemed to be the biggest problem with 44%. Among other problems were preparation, material selection as well as information about students. Most of the problems proved to occur during the active stage. During the active stage the biggest problem was time management. Among many other problems the next two important ones were classroom management as the students knew they were not their actual teachers and giving instructions. Error correction / feedback was also found to be a problem for pre-service teachers. Student-based problems such as students' motivation and student participation were proved to be at a higher rate than cooperating teacher-based problems. However, cooperating teacher-based problems were listed as lack of cooperation, the absence of the cooperating teacher when they were expected to fill in an observation form evaluating the pre-service teachers, the interference and disruptive behavior of cooperating teachers and perception of the pre-service teachers' role. The study revealed that some problems such as giving instructions or anxiety eradicated over time. However, some remained to be a problem during the practicum. For instance, inadequate and careless preparation was a continual problem for pre-service teachers. Similarly, classroom management continued to be a problem. Merç (2010) concluded that most of the problems pre-service teachers faced were related to the reality shock and he suggested that there should be written guidelines on how to behave for pre-service teachers, cooperating teachers and teacher educators. In a similar vein, Mustafa Öztürk & Yıldırım (2012) investigated the practicum process of 15 novice teachers through interviews. The

results revealed that practicum courses were not effective in preparing teachers for the field. The problems novice teachers mentioned they encountered were heavy curriculum, unmotivated students and classroom management. The provision of CF was also one of the biggest concerns of novice teachers. Most of the novice teachers were found to deal with the stated problems by personal effort such as discussing with colleagues and attending seminars. Some institutions provided help for novice teachers such as orientation program, in-service training program, action research and participation in conferences. Most of the teachers found pre-service teacher education programs ineffective as they did not equip teachers with the strategies to cope with the difficulties in a real classroom environment. All the participants stated that they enountered fewer problems as they gained experience. Similarly, Yiğit et al. (2010) investigated the effectiveness of practicum courses. The findings showed that traditional feedback on pre-service teachers' lessons and the teaching conditions at schools did not seem to be working. Therefore, pre-service teachers should be provided with more reflective feedback and be given opportunities to reflect on their own teaching as well. Finally, Merç (2015) investigated what student-teachers thought about the assessment of performance in practicum. 117 student-teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire and 12 of them were interviewed. The results revealed that most of the participants were pleased with their scores but they found the assessment by teacher educators more effective than the cooperating teachers.

In comparison to the investigation of practicum courses, more studies were conducted on the effectiveness of pre-service teacher education programs. Kagan (1992), after the analysis of 40 learning-to-teach studies, found that the preexisting beliefs and previous experiences of pre-service teachers as learners were stable and inflexible. Pre-service teacher education programs had little or no impact in the change of those existing beliefs. Thus, for professional development, those beliefs should be addressed to modify and reconstruct. The

researcher claimed that even the pre-service teacher education programs which were designed to promote reflection failed to influence conceptual change as novice teachers entered the classroom with lack of knowledge about students. The results also showed that the classroom reality differed from the expectations of the novice teachers. Encountering mostly uninterested and unmotivated students made the novice teachers authoritarian. That made the design of their learning experiences distant from effective learning and made their goal managing the classroom due to restricted procedural knowledge. Until they set routine and automatic standards, they focused on their own behaviors rather than their students'. Kagan (1992) suggested that pre-service teacher education programs should equip pre-service teachers with procedural knowledge rather than theoretical knowledge. Also teacher educators should encourage pre-service teachers to reflect on their previous learning experiences so that they could create a self-image as a teacher. Moreover, pre-service teachers should spend more time with students to learn about their interests and problems. They could complete research projects together with the practicum. In addition to those, a pre-service teacher should be placed with an experienced teachers having opposing views to the novice, so that they could hold discussions. More recently, Yook & Yong-Hun Lee (2016) investigated 6 Korean in-service EFL teachers' opinions about the influence of their teacher education programs on their teaching practices through semi-structured interviews. The research revealed that most of the participants did not find pre-service teacher education programs very beneficial as there was a huge gap between the courses in the program and the realities of the classroom. One participant expressed his disappointment with those lines:

> I was really disappointed. I expected the teacher education program to be the kind of environment where I could learn practical methods I needed to know to become a good English teacher. However, the curriculum consisted largely of theory-oriented courses (first interview). What we learned in the teaching methods course was not

> practical. We just learned theories. The professor emphasized learner-centeredness, communication-oriented approaches and whatnot. But even the professor's teaching style was against what he lectured. It was a teacher-centered, long rambling about grand teaching theories and supposedly effective methods based on theories. He should have shown us how we could apply what he was talking about to our actual classroom teaching. (second interview) (Yook & Yong-Hun Lee, 2016, p.529)

The study further proved that only the in-service teacher education programs with practical ideas were found useful. Furthermore, they stated that the strongest impact changing their classroom practices was peer observation. Similarly, Youcef & Taoufik (2015) concluded from 108 pre-service teachers' comments that pre-service teacher education programs were not effective due to the lack of teaching practice. The study depicted that pre-service teachers knew theories but they did not know how to implement those theories into classroom practice as they just learned the theories only to pass the exams. A more thorough research was carried out by Demir (2015) who investigated the beliefs of pre-service EFL teachers and teacher trainers about a pre-service teacher education program. The results revealed that the pre-service teachers found the program unable to meet their needs and that it was not relevant to their needs. Teacher trainers considered the program outdated and suggested the increase in the number of skills courses and practicum courses. They also mentioned that the program did not effectively prepare pre-service teachers for real classroom setting. Furthermore, the program did nothing to improve pre-service teachers' linguistic skills. However, interestingly pre-service teachers found the program to be up-to-date while lecturers found it outdated. Also the pre-service teachers thought the program helped them to reflect on their previous experiences. While the pre-service teachers had positive attitudes towards some issues, the majority of the teacher trainers commented that the program needed to be revised to have some balance between theoretical knowledge and experiential knowledge offering more

opportunities for practice. Besides that, most of the teacher trainers thought the program failed to prepare pre-service teachers for socio-cultural context of teaching. Regarding the conventional methods still applied today, one of the teacher trainers stated,

> The teacher lectures, the student listens. Possibly due to the way they are brought up, students often expect their teachers to act as the primary sources of knowledge and they tend to adopt a passive role in the learning process. The monotony still exists. We should make students more active. (Demir, 2015, p.162)

Furthermore, Demir (2015) found that practicum courses did not provide appropriate conditions for pre-service teachers to gain experience but often resulted in demotivating teaching applications. The final study is a longitudinal case study conducted with 5 pre-service EFL teachers to investigate whether there would be any changes in the beliefs of teachers in their first year of teaching by Albaba (2017). The data were collected through interviews. Similar results to the aforementioned studies were evidenced. One participant expostulated with her university lecturers about the theoretical bombardment of teaching methods:

> Sometimes I am getting angry with my teachers, ‘why didn’t you say us something like ...’ because it’s so easy, I just go Youtube, TPR and lots of things, lots of teaching methods and how they are... They [teachers at the university] just tell us ‘OK, TPR, that’s TPR’ fr example, but not in practice. [...] For example for approaches and methods, I spent two years but in the theory maybe I know something, but just for my exam. After the exam I forget everything like all students. You know the psychology of a student. But in the practice I don’t know anything! (Albaba, 2017, p.148).

Likewise anothe participant referred to the ineffectiveness of practicum courses and stated:

> Pinar teacher did it this way. I mean, we ... Actually the class didn’t fully belong to us. I mean, we followed Pinar teacher’s routine. And we didn’t want to violate the pupils’

> rights since they were going to sit an exam including those texts. In order not to create an unusual order, we had to do in this way. If it was up to me, I would not ask them to translate because when I asked, you must have noticed – they made it straight away. It was simple, they understand. However, Pinar teacher said like that, we had to. (Albaba, 2017, p.149).

There are other studies, as well, focusing on the effects of short-term remedial training programs on teachers' beliefs or practices. For instance, Mackey et al. (2004) investigated whether the year of experience and teacher education had an impact on incidental focus on form decisions of teachers. The results revealed that experienced teachers made use of more incidental focus on form than less experienced teachers. Upon those results, they prepared a workshop about incidental focus on form techniques and presented it to four less experienced teachers. The findings revealed that the workshop increased the awareness of teachers about those strategies. Akbari & Dadvand (2011) also investigated whether formal teacher education made a difference in teachers' pedagogical thought units. The data were collected from 8 EFL teachers, 4 of whom had a BA and 4 had an MA degree, through video-recorded lessons and stimulated recall. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between teachers with an MA degree and those with a BA degree, with the former producing more pedagogical thoughts. The researchers explained that the courses they went through the MA program might have increased their pedagogical concerns discussing and covering various issues. Another alternative explanation could be the former group's more experience and the ability to articulate their thoughts more clearly than the latter. Furthermore, an interesting finding in Junqueira & Kim (2013) proved that there seemed to be a mismatch between the content of teacher education courses and the pedagogical implications drawn by pre-service teachers with no experience. The novice teacher, one of the two participants of this research, claimed that the ineffectiveness of CF was approved in her MA program.

However, when the researchers further investigated they found that she had taken a course related to focus-on-form techniques and the articles provided were the ones suggesting the use of CF, indeed. Having a different focus from the studies above, Irie et al. (2018) investigated 51 pre-service teachers' mindsets about teaching competences. The results revealed that pre-service teachers had growth mindset. In addition, the pre-service teachers thought the technical aspects of teaching could be learned whereas interpersonal skills were innate rather than learnable. The researchers explained that the reason why pre-service teachers might think interpersonal skills could not be learned might be because they did not exist in the curriculum; thus, the researchers suggested that pre-service teacher education programs should focus more on interpersonal aspect of teaching.

2.4.4. Suggestions to make pre-service teacher education programs more efficient. The majority of the research studies in different settings show that pre-service teacher education programs are not of good enough quality with regards to the failure the novice teachers' experiences during their first year of teaching. There are three main reasons for that discussed in the literature. First, "Whether any academic program of study can truly prepare someone to practice it (teaching) is perhaps a question that one dares not ask." (Kagan, 1992, p.164). Pre-service teachers are expected to gain various skills, which makes the achievement of those goals extremely difficult. They enter the faculty as students but are expected to turn into professionals and ultimately take control of a classroom full of children. At this point an important issue to consider is whether the preparation during faculty education is sufficient for real teaching contexts (Stout, 1989). Although methodology, research and applied linguistics courses contribute to the knowledge base of a teacher, those do not reflect teaching a language itself and so should not be viewed as the primary subject matter (Freeman, 1989; Yeşilbursa, 2011). Practicum courses are usually considered to create a link between theory and practice. However, they have proved to be not very effective due to

a wide variety of problems and also as Stout (1989) notes, practicum is not enough to apply everything pre-service teachers learn during their education program. Second, during pre-service teacher education programs, pre-service teachers are introduced different perspectives and contradictory opinions about learning and teaching. Since they do not have sufficient knowledge about the students and classroom procedures, with ideals in mind, they encounter many challenges and they are not prepared how to deal with those challenges such as, and mostly, classroom management. Therefore, novice teachers spend the first year of teaching learning classroom procedures, which is not presented during teacher education program. Thus, they either go through this process and they develop problem-solving skills with the growing archive of situations and experiences (Kagan, 1992), or they start doubting about their career decisions. This is due to the fact that most teacher education programs, interestingly, are not concerned about the teachers' practices of the theoretical knowledge offered in the first year of teaching (Farrell, 2016) and novice teachers do not receive emotional support (Shoffner et al., 2010). As one of the participants in Mustafa Öztürk & Yıldırım (2012) expresses, it is obvious how novice teachers need pedagogical knowledge:

> When I was ordered to go and teach for 21 hours a week to unmotivated elementary students, I felt as if somebody told me to jump into a deep pool without asking me whether I knew how to swim or not. At that time, I needed something such as life jacket to make me feel confident. (Mustafa Öztürk & Yıldırım, 2012, p.5-6)

As it is practically impossible to follow every single novice teacher after graduation for faculties, reflection seems to be the only way to help teachers survive in their first year of teaching. Nevertheless, if reflection is one of the skills teachers should have, implementing it into courses should begin before practicum (Stout, 1989). The research shows that in-service teachers "tend to react rather than reflect" (p.126) as they do not know how to reflect on their own practices effectively although they are suggested to do so (Gün, 2010). The last problem

case about this issue is the existing gap between practice and research in language teaching (Kamiya, 2015). Although both researchers and teachers are looking for practices which work best for students (Kamiya, 2015), reseach findings are not used in teacher education programmes, which shows that it is a waste of all rich information the research brought with a huge potential to boost teacher development (Borg, 1998).

When the problems about the provision of CF are specifically examined, the research displays that error correction is an issue teachers want to learn more about and it is confusing for both novice and experienced teachers to make decisions about how often, when and how to provide CF (Vasquez & Harvey, 2010) because their theoretical knowledge about the provision of CF is not adequate to change their beliefs (Junqueira & Payant, 2015). That is quite obvious in Kamiya's (2016) study, as one of the participants, Cecile, stated in the interview about OCF, "I don't know. I can't think of concrete teaching, nothing I have." (p.210) although she had two years of teaching experience and was pursuing an MA in TESOL. Similarly, Vasquez & Harvey (2010) found that in their reflective journals the participants mentioned that they did not have much knowledge about CF. One of the participants, Cleo, was a doctoral student and stated that she "knew very little about error correction" (p.428). Another participant, Amy, stated that she "did not know there were so many forms of error correction" (p.428). A novice teacher participant, Rachel, wrote in her journal that she found "research on this subject to be particularly intriguing and practical and she was surprised to read about the necessity of error correction" (p.428-429). She, also in her reflective essay after the research, wrote that "she had never thought about error correction" (p.429).

A considerable number of researchers have focused on this issue and come up with practical solutions to the aforementioned problems, which pre-service teacher education programs could make well use of. Concerning the provision of CF, first, pre-service teacher

education programs should help teachers gain theoretical knowledge about CF strategies (Lyster, 1998a; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Regarding theoretical knowledge, the content of pre-service teacher education programs has a significant importance. The three key questions below asked by Victoria Russell (2009) should be considered by faculties:

> 1) What information about error correction is included in teacher education programs?, 2)Who decides what information to disseminate to students?, 3) Is the information that is disseminated to students in teacher education programs on corrective feedback based on current research? (Victoria Russell, 2009, p.29)

Second, pre-service teacher education programs should offer hands-on practice about CF (Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Özmen & Aydın, 2015) as it has been proved that "one hands-on project is much more beneficial than reading a lot of research articles" (Vasquez & Harvey, p.436). Closely related to practice, pre-service teacher education programs should also teach reflection to pre-service teachers by offering opportunities to reflect on their practices (Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothooft, 2014;Vasquez & Harvey, 2010). That would help pre-service teachers to examine and discover their own beliefs about CF (Junqueira & Payant, 2015) and guide them to provide systematic feedback so that they can use more effective CF strategies (Mendez & Cruz, 2012).

Besides the research investigating the relationship between CF practices and teacher education programs, the studies examining teachers' beliefs and practices in more general terms, the effectiveness of practicum courses and teachers' reflective practices could well respond to the CF issues and might be useful in offering alternative solutions. First of all, a considerable number of studies show that the time allocated to practicum period is not adequate for pre-service teachers and pre-service teachers should be provided with more

opportunities to experience the theoretical knowledge (Akbulut, 2007; Florez & Basto, 2017; Mustafa Öztürk & Yıldırım, 2012; Richardson, 1996; York & Yong-Hun Lee, 2016). As Demirbulak (2012) explained, in the countries such as Netherlands and England, pre-service teachers are required to spend much more time in schools than Turkey. In addition to the inadequate time made for practicum, the findings of Demirbulak (2012) show that the participant teachers do not have an effective practicum period because some of the cooperating teachers give them other resposibilities like hall monitoring or preparing posters instead of lesson observation and teaching. The pre-service teachers think that this is a deliberate action by those cooperating teachers. Some cooperating teachers could also ask the student-teachers to deliver more lessons but give late notice so pre-service teachers do not have adequate time to prepare well. Another difficulty is that pre-service teachers are not allowed to change the seating or use a PPT in the lesson. One participant stated,

> The teaching practice had a negative impact on me. I realized none of the methods or approaches we studied were being used. There is a big chaos in the classrooms caused either by the teacher or the classroom setting, or the students. (Demirbulak, 2012, p.47)

This has a huge impact on the first year of teaching as another participant also points out the fact that in the first year of teaching teachers start to understand what teaching is like,

> While taking courses in teacher education everything seems to centre around the two hours of teaching that we will do per week. But now it is twenty-six hours of teaching per week and believe me there are a lot of individuals that hold you accountable for every action. So, we learn that teaching is a profession and we have to learn the rules of the politics of this profession. (Demirbulak, 2012, p.47).

For those reasons, the design of practicum courses should be revised first since they do not have much impact on the change of teachers' beliefs (Mattheoudakis, 2007). Second, pre-

service teacher education programs should offer the opportunity to experience and monitor efficient examples of classroom practice due to the lack of procedural knowledge they have (Jon Roberts, 1998). And last, in order for cooperating teachers to take on responsibility and do their jobs efficiently, teacher educators should guide the practicum period and cooperate with teachers at schools (Yiğit et al., 2010). Another important issue in pre-service teacher education is teaching reflection and reflective practices. Genç (2010) investigated the decision-making process and skills of 6 in-service EFL teachers in Turkey. The data were collected through journal entries. The teachers were also given a list of suggested research studies and were asked to read them. The results revealed that the participant teachers found it difficult to put their pre-service teacher education into practice; however, it was obvious that reflection enabled them to explore their practices in lesson planning, classroom management, assessment and so forth. The researcher suggested that it would be useful for those teachers short of different methods to gain knowledge about them as a starting point. However, when the development process is restricted to theoretical knowledge alone, it would be difficult for teachers to handle the realities of the classroom. This is because, as the researcher posits, teachers receive no training on autonomy and decision-making skills, both of which require reflective thinking. As Freeman (2002) expresses clearly:

> ...Teacher education must then serve two functions. It must teach the skills of reflectivity and it must provide the discourse and vocabulary that can serve participants in renaming their experience. We need to understand that articulation and reflection are reciprocal processes. One needs the words to talk about what one does and in using those words one can see it more clearly. (Freeman, 2002, p.11).

Many researchers have proved that self-reflection on and modification of past beliefs are important for successful teacher education (Borg, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; Kagan, 1992; Loh et al., 2017; Merç, 2010; Richardson, 1996) as that would enable pre-service teachers to

build materials offered in courses up on their beliefs rather than just accept them (Cabaroglu & Jon Roberts, 2000; Nguyen, 2017). It also improves the critical thinking as one of the participants in Arslan & Basaga (2010) mentioned,

> In fact, if I believe that there is no problem, I do not think back but after I learnt what reflective teaching and thinking is, I realized that I began to think about the lesson whether there is a problem or not. I mean I think back on the course in order to find ways to make it better for the next time. (Arslan & Basaga, 2010, p.17).

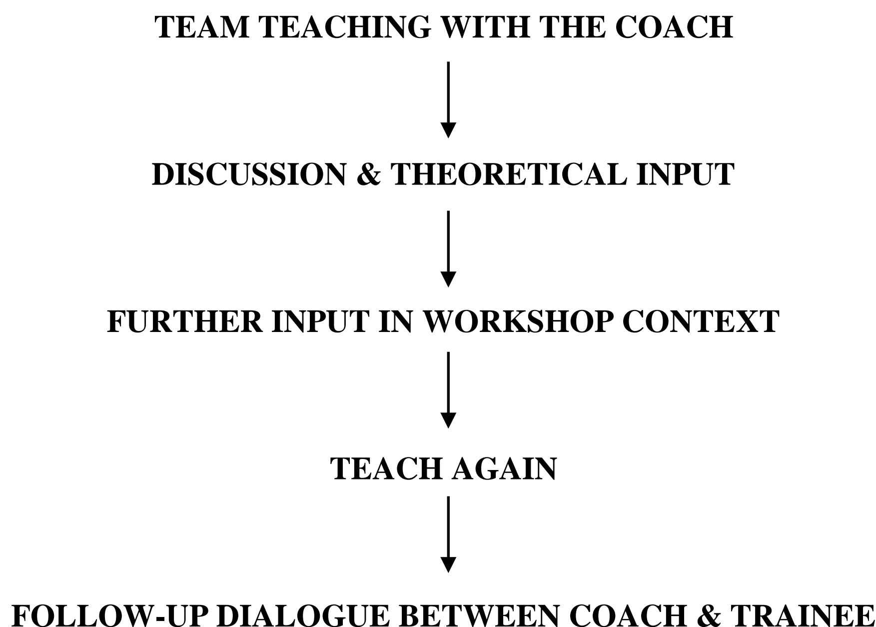
Therefore, reflection should definitely be taught rather than included in pre-service teacher education programs. In order to teach reflective thinking, it is suggested that reflection should be integrated into all the courses in teacher education programs no matter what type of knowledge it refers to (Day, 1991; Sze, 1999; Tok & Dolapçıoğlu, 2013). However, as Farrell (2016) points out, only discussing reflection is not adequate but it requires a course-length time to teach how reflective practice could be implemented into teaching during the first year experience, so pre-service teacher education programs should include the content enhancing teachers' concerns, awareness and knowledge for pedagogical issues (Arslan & Basaga, 2010; Atai & Shafiee, 2017). There is an undeniable fact that teachers cannot not be urged to reflect without guiding them how to do so (Farrell, 2016).

There are also other studies, limited in number, suggesting the need for redefining the outcomes of teacher education programs, new models for teacher education and the assessment of pre-service teacher education programs. To begin with, the definition of language teaching definitely has an impact on the way language teachers are educated. Thus, there are two aspects that need to be understood and identified first: what teacher education programs should cover and how a language should be taught (Freeman, 1989). Next, the quality of teachers are directly related to the effectiveness of teacher education programs (Yiğit et al., 2010). Demir (2015) suggests that the ministry of education and universities

should cooperate for more effective teaching practice courses. The program should be revised to meet pre-service teachers' pedagogical needs. Also to meet the linguistic needs of pre-service teachers, the preparatory programs with one-year intensive English classes should be made compulsory. More important than those, pre-service teacher education programs should take every individual student-teacher's need into consideration rather than merely focus on the curriculum (Youcef & Taoufik, 2015). Furthermore, McGillick (1993) highlights the need for better teacher development programmes and he proposes the model as Figure 10 shows. Finally, pre-service teacher education programs need to be paid even more attention than anything else as they are the first step towards professionalization and so its quality should continually be evaluated. In the evaluation process only the measurement of student teachers knowledge is not adequate. The evaluation of course materials, lecturers and curriculum must be carried out for effective programs (Demir, 2015).

Figure 10

Teacher Development Model (McGillick, 1993, p.7)



Chapter 3

Method

3.1. Research Design

A mixed methods design was used in the current research study to investigate the effects of a reflective training program on pre-service EFL teachers' awareness on OCF strategies. A mixed methods design is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures and analyses. There are three main advantages of using the mixed methods design as summarized by Dörnyei (2007). First, a mixed methods study can make use of the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative designs; thus, it is complementary by nature. Second, it allows the complex issues to be analyzed in a greater detail. Finally and most importantly, it helps researchers to triangulate their findings, which makes the results more valid.

The researcher preferred to use a mixed methods design in this study due to two primary reasons. In the first place, a thorough analysis is essential for discussing the effects of a training program as one needs to interpret the pictures both before and after the training in order to be able to compare the degree of change in the participants' awareness. The second reason is dependent on the nature of the research, the theoretical background of which requires both qualitative and quantitative characteristics of data. The theoretical purpose of the study, which is closely linked to the research questions, generally determines the research design (Schoonenboom & Burke Johnson, 2017; Turner et al., 2017). The first research question of the current study aims to discover what the participant teachers already know about OCF strategies. This question is exploratory in nature and thus requires qualitative data. The second research question addresses the degree of change in the participants' awareness on OCF strategies after a reflective training program is carried out; therefore, a multi-level

analysis is necessary here. For the comparison of the results, quantitative data are required to make interpretations and qualitative data are also crucial to focus further on the factors.

3.2. Participants

Table 1

Demographic Information about the Participants

Demographic Information about the Participants		
Gender	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Female	69	56,1
Male	52	42,3
Missing	2	1,6
Total	123	100
GPA		
2.00 – 2.50	28	22,8
2.50 – 3.00	55	44,7
3.00 – 3.50	33	26,8
3.50 – 4.00	7	5,7
Total	123	100
Teaching Experience		
Yes	52	42,3
No	71	57,7
Total	123	100
High School Background		
Anatolian Teacher Training High School	19	15,4
Anatolian High School	78	63,4
Other	23	18,7
Missing	3	2,4
Total	123	100
OCF Background		
Yes	31	25,2
No	92	74,8
Total	123	100

The data regarding the first research question were collected from 123 pre-service EFL teachers studying their second year in a state university during the Spring Semester of 2018 – 2019 Academic Year. Particularly sophomores were chosen to carry out this study as CF strategies have not yet been introduced except for one class named “Approaches in ELT” the participants took in the first semester. As can be examined in Table 1 above, the majority of the participants are female although two of them did not specify their gender. Almost half of the participants demonstrate average academic success. Even though most of the participants have no teaching experience at all, a considerable number of them have some sort of teaching experience varying from a month to three years. The majority of the students come from Anatolian High Schools, which shows that they have better educational background than most of the other students in Turkey. Finally, almost 75% of the participants claimed to have no background about OCF strategies although they had been introduced a little in the class called Approaches in ELT.

To answer the second research question the data were collected from only one class with 34 participants in total among those 2nd year students; thus, the reflective training program was implemented only to one class of participants and similarly the post-test results were received from that group.

3.3. Instruments

A pre- and post-test, two semi-structured interviews, reflective journals, self-reflection and peer reflection papers were utilized to gather data about pre-service EFL teachers’ stated beliefs and behaviors about OCF strategies.

A Situations for Oral Error Correction (SOEC) Simulation was adapted from Özmen & Aydın (2015) and used as both a pre-test and a post-test. The simulation used as the pre-test aimed to discover what the participants already knew about OCF strategies and the simulation used as the post-test, with fewer number of situations, sought whether there was any change in

the degree of the participants’ awareness on OCF strategies after the reflective training program. The original name of the instrument was Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation; however, as the current research focuses particularly and merely on OCF, the name of the tool was changed to SOEC. This tool consists of 20 different classroom situations a teacher might encounter in a real context. Each classroom situation involves a part of the teaching (such as warm-up or practice phases of a lesson) including one erroneous utterance of learners. The participants were asked to read each situation with the information given about learners’ age group and their proficiency levels, identify whether the error was grammatical, lexical or pronunciation, and write down why they would correct it and how they would do so. The original instrument consisted of 8 items with grammatical errors, 6 items with lexical errors and 6 items with phonological errors. Özmen & Aydın (2015) also asked their participants to identify whether the errors made were related to accuracy or fluency issues. Accuracy and Fluency components were taken out in the current study as it is not the focus of this research although they were taken into account in the data analysis by the researcher. Moreover, three experts were consulted for their opinions whether the classroom situations sounded natural and had the potential to be encountered in a real setting, whether the errors were the typical ones Turkish language learners would make and what type of error each was. According to the expert opinions, two items (6th and 17th) were written again due to the ambiguity in context. One of the items (16th) was modified because the error was found to be related to register, which is not provided as an option to choose for the participants. Two more items (1st and 14th) were found ambiguous as differing opinions related to the type of error arose, so those items were written again. In addition, as the verb “mispronounces” was found to be leading in two of the items (12th and 19th), the wording of those items was edited. Moreover, in the original instrument, ‘adolescence’ was a variable as the age group of students; however, there are two options in the current study, young learners and adults, since

adolescents are not a significant age group which would influence the results of this research. After the modifications and with the new items, like Özmen & Aydın (2015), out of 20 items, 8 include grammatical errors, 6 items have lexical errors and 6 items hold pronunciation errors. With the omission of 'adolescence', the learners in 10 items are assumed to be young learners and the other half is assumed to be adults to keep the balance between the two age groups. In the demography section, as the age of the participants is not a variable for our study, it was omitted. Nevertheless, in order to make a further analysis, demographic information related to teaching experience background and background about OCF strategies were added. The same instrument was also used as post-test; however, some slight changes were made on it. First, the number of the classroom situations was restricted to six to increase the participants' concentration on the situations. In order to receive more precise answers, options regarding the OCF types were written taking the pre-test answers as a base. Also additional questions were asked with regards to differences in age and proficiency levels.

Two semi-structured interviews were used to find out the participants' stated beliefs about OCF strategies. The first one was conducted before the reflective training program and the second one after the reflective training program. Nine of the participants volunteered to take part in the interviews. Interview questions were adapted from two different sources: Özmen & Aydın (2015) and Roothooft (2014). In total 19 questions were identified and one of them was written by the researcher. The wording in the other questions was edited as they were found by the experts either ambiguous or leading. All the questions were translated into Turkish and the interviews were conducted in Turkish for the participants to be able to express their opinions freely. All the questions, both English and Turkish translations, were double checked with three experts.

Reflective journals were used to gain further insight into how the participants reflected

on the reflective training program and microteaching sessions. Five guiding questions were written to prompt the participants to reflect.

Finally, self-reflection and peer-reflection papers were handed out to the participants after the microteaching sessions. Through those reflection papers the participants were encouraged to combine their theoretical knowledge with experiential knowledge and reflect on their own beliefs and practices by focusing on their own or their classmates' teaching.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures and Analysis

The data collection process lasted for five weeks as is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Data Collection Process

Data Collection Process	
2018 – 2019 Spring Semester	Stages of Research Project
Week 1	Pre-test + first interviews
Week 2	Reflective training program + reflective journals
Week 3	Microteaching sessions + self / peer reflection
Week 4	Microteaching sessions + self / peer reflection + reflective journals
Week 5	Post-test and second interviews

In the first week SOEC simulation was administered to all the participants. After the aim of the study was explained and the importance of the participants' contribution to the research was pointed out, the instructions for the simulation were clarified. The time allotted for the completion of the simulation was 30 minutes. However, it took up to 45 minutes for some participants to complete the simulation. Following the simulation the first semi-structured interviews were conducted with nine volunteers one-on-one. Each interview lasted maximum 25 minutes.

The reflective training program about OCF strategies was held during the second week with only one class with 34 students. A 110-minute long training program composed of two sessions was designed and delivered by the researcher. The content of the training program was prepared after the close examination of 77 different resources including book chapters, journal articles and conference proceedings. The findings were refined to the fundamental and basic knowledge which every EFL teacher should be familiar with and the participants were encouraged to reflect on the theoretical knowledge through peer and group discussions. The content of the reflective training program is as follows:

Session 1

1. Introduction (the importance of the provision of OCF)
2. Basic terminology (error vs. mistake, definition of OCF, components of OCF, uptake, no uptake – topic continuation, types of errors, global and local errors)
3. Should learner errors be corrected? (a brief historical background of CF, learners' preferences, reasons for ignoring errors, other factors such as age, proficiency level and focus of the activity)
4. Which errors should be corrected? (all-error correction and selective correction, errors and mistakes, global and local errors, fluency-oriented and accuracy-oriented tasks, learners' preferences)
5. How should errors be corrected? (taxonomy by Lyster & Ranta, 1997, implicit and explicit OCF types, taxonomy by Llinares & Lyster, 2014, learners' preferences, teachers' tendency, previous experimental studies regarding the effectiveness of OCF types)

Session 2

1. When should errors be corrected? (immediate, delayed and post-delayed OCF, learners' preferences)

2. Who should do the correcting? (self-correction, peer-correction and teacher correction)
3. The effectiveness of OCF (measurements)
4. Final remarks

During the third and fourth weeks of the program the participants planned and conducted 15-minute microteaching sessions with a focus on speaking. Upon the completion of each microteaching session, the teaching participants filled in the self-reflection papers and the non-teaching participants filled in the peer-reflection papers. During the second and fourth weeks all the participants were also encouraged to write their reflections on their reflective journals.

In the last week of the program the post-test was handed out only to the participants taking part in the reflective training program. Following the post-test, the second semi-structure interviews were conducted with the same volunteers. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for further analysis.

The questions in the SOEC simulation and interview questions were tested for validity and reliability through a pilot study carried out with 44 pre-service EFL teachers at the same institution. No changes were made as the results proved to be reliable and valid. In order to analyze the quantitative data, which were used to describe the demographical information about the participants and compare the pre-test to post-test results, SPSS 17 was used. The qualitative data, which involve how the participants preferred to provide OCF in the simulation, the interviews, reflection papers and reflective journals were analyzed through content analysis.

As for the coding of the data, the taxonomy by Lyster & Ranta (1997) was taken as a basis for OCF types. However, during the analysis of the data other types previously put forward by different researchers were also observed and thus coded. Those are Re-ask

(Yoshida, 2008) and Recast with Emphasis (Asari, 2012). An additional category of OCF, providing students with two different options, one of which is the correct sentence and the other is the repetition of the student's sentence, and asking them to choose which is correct, was used by a considerable number of participants, so it was also included in the study and called as "Options". It is simply used this way since it has not been mentioned in any of the studies, to the researcher's knowledge.

Regarding the timing of OCF the terms "online" and "offline" were used since in some open-ended answers in the survey the timing of OCF whether it was after the student's sentence or immediate before the student's sentence finished was not clear; thus, online OCF was used both for immediate OCF right after the student's error and after student's sentence whereas offline OCF referred to the one provided after the activity or at the end of the lesson. In the data analysis all the responses as well as non-responses were counted to show the whole picture; therefore, in the results there are three different codes for the cases where no responses were provided. No Correction refers to the participant's own preference of not correcting that particular error. Missing Data means the participants did not provide a response to a particular subcategory like OCF type but, for instance, provided who should correct the error and when. Finally, Left Blank refers to a completely blank space left unwritten by the participants.

Chapter 4

Results

The current study aims to find answers to two questions. First, it investigates what pre-service EFL teachers know about OCF strategies. Second, it examines the effects of a reflective training program about OCF strategies on pre-service EFL teachers' stated beliefs and stated behaviors. The results of both questions are presented in great detail under two separate headings.

4.1. What do Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers Know about OCF Strategies?

In order to respond to the first research question, pre-test results and the first semi-structure interview transcripts were analyzed. The findings are presented below.

In the SOEC classroom situations, the participants were first asked to find out what type of error it was made by the students. The SPSS analysis demonstrated that the errors in 13 items were diagnosed correctly by more than 90% of the participants as can be examined in Table 3. The participants were not as successful in the diagnosis of the error in the 7th item

Table 3

The Diagnosis of the Errors

The Diagnosis of the Errors										
Correct Error Type	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Frequency	118	123	120	114	105	120	57	113	102	117
Percentage	95,9	100	97,6	92,7	85,4	97,6	46,3	91,9	82,9	95,1
Missing	2	0	3	5	3	1	1	2	4	3
Total	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123
Correct Error Type	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Frequency	120	120	116	105	95	107	118	115	117	104
Percentage	97,6	97,6	94,3	85,4	77,2	87	95,9	93,5	95,1	84,6
Missing	3	3	3	14	13	11	3	6	5	7
Total	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123

only, which involved a lexical error but was selected to be a phonological error by most of the participants.

4.1.1. Should learners' errors be corrected?. The first issue teachers are concerned about regarding the use of OCF strategies is whether it should be provided or not. The pre-test results indicate that 83% of the participants corrected learners' oral errors while 9,3% did not provide OCF on learners' oral errors as is depicted in Table 4. The first interview findings

Table 4

The Frequency of the OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers

The Frequency of the OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers		
	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	2043	83
Not Provided	228	9,3
Left blank	189	7,7
Total	2460	100

also reveal that all the interviewees believe learners' oral errors should be corrected as it contributes to the accurate use of the target language and it makes learning more memorable.

Further analysis was made to find out whether different factors such as the age of learners, the proficiency level of learners and the task types have any influence on the pre-

Table 5

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups				
	Young Learners		Adults	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	1042	84,7	1001	81,4
Not Provided	116	9,4	112	9,1
Left blank	72	5,9	117	9,5
Total	1230	100	1230	100

service EFL teachers' decisions about providing OCF or not. The results reveal that pre-service teachers preferred to correct the majority of the errors no matter what the aforementioned factors are. That is obvious in Table 5, 6 and 7. In the interviews, however, only three participants commented on the amount of OCF in different proficiency levels. Two of them mentioned that they would provide more OCF for upper levels and less OCF for lower levels not to discourage students from learning as they have more time ahead to learn the correct uses. In contrast to this view, one participant stated that he would provide more OCF for lower levels as higher proficient students are competent enough to discover their own errors. Nevertheless, neither of those beliefs are reflected in Table 6 since the percentage of provided OCF is nearly the same in all proficiency levels.

Table 6

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	297	80,5	533	86,7	835	84,9	378	76,8
Not Provided	53	14,4	41	6,7	81	8,2	53	10,8
Left blank	19	5,1	41	6,7	68	6,9	61	12,4
Total	369	100	615	100	984	100	492	100

Table 7

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	588	79,7	1455	84,5
Not Provided	65	8,8	163	9,5
Left blank	85	11,5	104	6
Total	738	100	1722	100

4.1.2. Which errors should be corrected?. As Table 4 presents, the participants favor selective correction as they left 9,3% of the errors uncorrected. The interview results contribute to that finding, as well, since all the interviewees prefer selective correction rather than every single error to correct. As for which errors to be corrected, the majority of the interviewees think that the errors hindering meaning and being the focus of the lessons should be definitely corrected. Besides, they separate errors from mistakes ignoring the latter while they prefer to correct the former. Concerning the error types almost half of the interviewees stated that phonological errors must be corrected whereas one participant mentioned that phonological errors are the ones that should be noticed by learners themselves and self-corrected. Only one participant highlighted the importance of lexical errors; however, grammatical errors were controversial as three participants believe they should not be corrected immediately or at all while three other participants think grammatical errors are important and should be corrected with no doubt. Although the interview findings portray differing opinions, the pre-test results indicate no significant difference among error types. As Table 8 presents, the participants do not seem to prioritize any particular error type since the percentage of correction addressing grammatical, lexical and phonological errors is nearly the same.

Table 8

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components						
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	824	83,7	733	85,1	592	80,2
Not Provided	75	7,6	67	7,8	91	12,3
Left blank	85	8,6	61	7,1	55	7,5
Total	984	100	861	100	738	100

4.1.3. How should learners' oral errors be corrected? . The way pre-service teachers prefer to provide OCF has been analyzed in great detail by taking many different factors into consideration.

First, whether the use of OCF differed according to the task type was investigated. As is clear in Table 9, almost half of the participants preferred to use Explicit Correction both in accuracy- and fluency-oriented tasks. However, that was followed by Metalinguistic Feedback in accuracy-oriented activities while Recast received the second rank in fluency-oriented tasks.

Table 9

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Recast	73	9,9	241	14
Recast with emphasis	6	,8	48	2,8
Explicit correction	321	43,5	816	47,4
Metalinguistic feedback	91	12,3	117	6,8
Elicitation	1	,1	5	,3
Repetition	2	,3	10	,6
Clarification request	15	2	20	1,2
Re-ask	14	1,9	35	2
Options	21	2,8	37	2,1
No correction	64	8,7	162	9,4
Missing data	43	5,8	126	7,3
Left blank	87	11,8	105	6,1

Second, pre-service teachers' preferred OCF types addressing different language

components were examined. The results revealed that the majority of the errors regardless of their types were corrected through Explicit Correction. However, as Table 10 reveals, the participants preferred Explicit Correction most frequently for lexical errors while grammatical errors were corrected also via Metalinguistic Feedback and Recast, and phonological errors were handled using also Recast. Further analysis into the task types and individual error types presented more details about the OCF preferences of pre-service teachers. As is obvious in Table 11, the participants preferred to use Metalinguistic Feedback to address the grammatical errors in accuracy-oriented tasks more frequently while they used Explicit Correction more in fluency-oriented tasks. However, for lexical and phonological errors there seems to be no significant difference between the two task types as the participants preferred to use Explicit Correction most of the time, which can be studied on Table 12 and Table 13.

Table 10

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components						
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	126	12,8	57	6,6	145	19,6
Recast with emphasis	33	3,4	6	,7	15	2
Explicit correction	308	31,3	532	61,8	366	49,6
Metalinguistic feedback	190	19,3	19	2,2	6	,8
Elicitation	6	,6	0	0	0	0
Repetition	9	,9	2	,2	2	,3
Clarification request	18	1,8	8	,9	10	1,4
Re-ask	19	1,9	24	2,8	7	,9
Options	28	2,8	32	3,7	4	,5
No correction	75	7,6	66	7,7	90	12,2
Missing data	88	8,9	51	5,9	37	5
Left blank	84	8,5	64	7,4	56	7,6
Total	984	100	861	100	738	100

Table 11

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Grammatical Errors in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Grammatical Errors in Different Tasks

	Grammar			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	19	7,7	107	14,5
Recast with emphasis	4	1,6	29	3,9
Explicit correction	67	27,2	241	32,7
Metalinguistic feedback	83	33,7	107	14,5
Elicitation	1	,4	5	,7
Repetition	0	0	9	1,2
Clarification request	8	3,3	10	1,4
Re-ask	5	2	14	1,9
Options	9	3,7	19	2,6
No correction	16	6,5	59	8
Missing data	15	6,1	73	9,9
Left blank	19	7,7	65	8,8
Total	246	100	738	100

Table 12

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks

	Vocabulary			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	16	6,5	41	6,7
Recast with emphasis	1	,4	5	,8
Explicit correction	137	55,7	395	64,2
Metalinguistic feedback	5	2	14	2,3

Elicitation	0	0	0	0
Repetition	0	0	2	,3
Clarification request	3	1,2	5	,8
Re-ask	5	2	19	3,1
Options	11	4,5	21	3,4
No correction	18	7,3	48	7,8
Missing data	17	6,9	34	5,5
Left blank	33	13,4	31	5
Total	246	100	615	100

Table 13

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different Tasks

	Pronunciation			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	38	15,4	107	21,7
Recast with emphasis	1	,4	14	2,8
Explicit correction	117	47,6	249	50,6
Metalinguistic feedback	3	1,2	3	,6
Elicitation	0	0	0	0
Repetition	2	,8	0	0
Clarification request	4	1,6	6	1,2
Re-ask	4	1,6	3	,6
Options	1	,4	3	,6
No correction	30	12,2	60	12,2
Missing data	11	4,5	26	5,3
Left blank	35	14,2	21	4,3
Total	246	100	492	100

Third, the OCF behaviors of pre-service teachers in different proficiency levels were

investigated. The pre-test findings reveal that there is no significant difference among proficiency levels. The participants preferred to use Explicit Correction most frequently in all proficiency levels. That was followed by Recast in Elementary, Intermediate and Upper-intermediate but Metalinguistic Feedback in Pre-intermediate level, as is depicted in Table 14. The most probable reason for this might be the error types in Pre-intermediate level as the majority of the Pre-intermediate errors in the given situations are grammatical errors and it sounds natural when the pre-service teachers tend to use Metalinguistic Feedback more than any other type. Although the pre-test results show a standard use of Explicit Correction for most situations, the interviews reveal some differences in the preferences of OCF types. For instance, most of the interviewees were concerned about how their students would feel upon the provision of OCF, so they would be expected to use less Explicit Feedback while the pre-

Table 14

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
OCF Types	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recast	59	16	91	14,8	98	10	66	13,4
Recast with emphasis	16	4,3	10	1,6	26	2,6	2	,4
Explicit correction	166	45	222	36,1	528	53,7	221	44,9
Metalinguistic feedback	10	2,7	124	20,2	36	3,7	38	7,7
Elicitation	3	,8	2	,3	1	,1	0	0
Repetition	2	,5	3	,5	4	,4	3	,6
Clarification request	6	1,6	12	2	12	1,2	5	1
Re-ask	2	,5	10	1,6	31	3,2	6	1,2
Options	4	1,1	21	3,4	28	2,8	5	1
No correction	53	14,4	41	6,7	80	8,1	52	10,6
Missing data	29	7,9	38	6,2	69	7	33	6,7
Left blank	19	5,1	41	6,7	71	7,2	61	12,4
Total	369	100	615	100	984	100	492	100

test results show the opposite. Also, one interviewee mentioned that he preferred implicit types for lower levels as those need encouragement more since they have just started learning a language but the pre-test results reveal that only nearly 25% of the errors were corrected implicitly.

Regarding the preferred OCF types, finally pre-service teachers' preferences in different age groups were examined. The pre-test results displayed that the participants preferred to use Explicit Feedback in most of the cases regardless of the age groups. That was followed by Recast in both groups, which is apparent in Table 15. On the other hand, more than half of the interviewees focused on the age difference in the provision of OCF. Four interviewees stated that they would use implicit feedback types for young learners while they would prefer more explicit strategies for adults since young learners might feel humiliated in front of their friends and feel discouraged. In a complete contrast to that view, one participant

Table 15

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Age Groups

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Age Groups				
	Young Learners		Adults	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	170	13,8	144	11,7
Recast with emphasis	33	2,7	21	1,7
Explicit correction	567	46,1	570	46,3
Metalinguistic feedback	103	8,4	105	8,5
Elicitation	5	,4	1	,1
Repetition	2	,2	10	,8
Clarification request	20	1,6	15	1,2
Re-ask	16	1,3	33	2,7
Options	39	3,2	19	1,5
No correction	117	9,5	109	8,9

Missing data	86	7	83	6,7
Left blank	72	5,9	120	9,8
Total	1230	100	1230	100

mentioned that he would prefer implicit strategies for adults rather than young learners as adults can easily comprehend implied meaning but young learners need explicit and thorough explanation. Nevertheless, neither of those opinions are reflected in the pre-test results as the percentage of Explicit Correction in both age groups is almost the same.

All in all, it is clear from the detailed analysis above that the participants preferred Explicit Correction mostly in the majority of situations in the pre-test. However, the interview findings reveal that only one third of the participants believe Explicit Correction is useful.

4.1.4. When should learners' oral errors be corrected?. The preferred timing of OCF was also analyzed taking many different factors into consideration; however, the pre-test results show that the participants provided online OCF in both accuracy- and fluency-oriented tasks, to both young learners and adults, in all proficiency levels and to address all kinds of errors. Offline OCF was observed to be used at a really low rate as can be studied in Table 16, Table 17, Table 18 and Table 19.

Table 16

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	535	72,5	1270	73,8
Offline	42	5,7	158	9,2
No correction	65	8,8	162	9,4
Missing data	10	1,4	25	1,5
Left blank	86	11,7	106	6,2
Total	738	100	1721	100

Table 17

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups				
	Young Learners		Adults	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	950	77,2	855	69,6
Offline	76	6,2	124	10,1
No correction	114	9,3	113	9,2
Missing data	17	1,4	18	1,5
Left blank	73	5,9	119	9,7
Total	1230	100	1229	100

Table 18

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	257	69,6	502	81,6	746	75,9	300	61
Offline	36	9,8	25	4,1	69	7	70	14,2
No correction	53	14,4	40	6,5	80	8,1	54	11
Missing data	4	1,1	6	1	19	1,9	6	1,2
Left blank	19	5,1	42	6,8	69	7	62	12,6
Total	369	100	615	100	983	100	492	100

Table 19

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components						
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	762	77,5	671	77,9	473	64,1
Offline	50	5,1	44	5,1	108	14,6

No correction	74	7,5	67	7,8	91	12,3
Missing data	13	1,3	17	2	8	1,1
Left blank	84	8,5	62	7,2	58	7,9
Total	983	100	861	100	738	100

However, the frequency of online OCF in fluency-oriented tasks is particularly surprising since only one interviewee mentioned he preferred online correction in all cases. The others explained that they would use online OCF in accuracy-oriented tasks while they preferred offline OCF in fluency-oriented tasks not to have a negative impact on the communication flow. Similarly, the interviews indicate different findings from the pre-test results regarding the proficiency levels. Two participants mentioned that they would provide lower levels with offline OCF while they would provide upper levels with online OCF as students with higher proficiency level would expect teachers to correct their errors immediately whereas a teacher should wait until the students with lower proficiency level felt relaxed. Another interviewee displayed a completely contradicting opinion to that explaining beginner students cannot notice whether they made an error or not while students with higher proficiency could recognise their own errors and self-correct; therefore, students with lower proficiency should be provided online OCF whereas more proficient students could be given offline OCF. Finally, one interviewee thought that phonological and lexical errors should be corrected immediately but grammatical errors could be addressed at a later time. On the other hand, none of those beliefs are reflected in the pre-test results.

4.1.5. Who should do the correcting in class?. The pre-test results demonstrate that the participants prefer to correct the students' oral errors themselves as a teacher in both accuracy- and fluency-oriented tasks, in both young learner and adult classes, in all proficiency levels and to address all types of errors, as is clear in Table 20, Table 21, Table 22 and Table 23. In most cases that is followed by self-correction; however, the frequency is

relatively too low. It is apparent that peer correction was almost never used by the participants. On the other hand, those findings are surprising when they are compared to the results of the interviews as only three interviewees stated that they preferred teacher correction since teacher only is the source of knowledge. Four interviewees favored self-correction as they found it more memorable and relaxing for students and they believed that kind of correction would make students more autonomous. Moreover, two participants preferred peer correction upon being asked who should do the correction in their classes. More than half of the interviewees found peer correction a useful technique as they thought students could learn from each other and would also learn to listen to one another and respect more thanks to peer correction. One participant highlighted the importance of training the students on how to provide feedback and safe classroom atmosphere that should be created by the teacher. Only two interviewees found peer correction not useful as they thought students might feel offended or be mocked by their friends. All in all, none of those opinions are reflected in the pre-test results below.

Table 20

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	455	61,7	1170	67,9
Self correction	117	15,9	211	12,3
Peer correction	8	1,1	45	2,6
No correction	65	8,8	163	9,5
Missing data	8	1,1	26	1,5
Left blank	85	11,5	107	6,2
Total	738	100	1722	100

Table 21

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups				
	Young Learners		Adults	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	833	67,7	792	64,4
Self correction	170	13,8	158	12,8
Peer correction	23	1,9	30	2,4
No correction	116	9,4	112	9,1
Missing data	16	1,3	18	1,5
Left blank	72	5,9	120	9,8
Total	1230	100	1230	100

Table 22

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	248	67,2	408	66,3	656	66,7	313	63,6
Self correction	39	10,6	112	18,2	120	12,2	57	11,6
Peer correction	7	1,9	10	1,6	33	3,4	3	,6
No correction	53	14,4	41	6,7	82	8,3	52	10,6
Missing data	3	,8	3	,5	23	2,3	5	1
Left blank	19	5,1	41	6,7	70	7,1	62	12,6
Total	369	100	615	100	984	100	492	100

Table 23

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components

	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	592	60,2	605	70,3	517	70,1
Self correction	195	19,8	85	9,9	63	8,5
Peer correction	26	2,6	22	2,6	5	,7
No correction	73	7,4	70	8,1	90	12,2
Missing data	12	1,2	17	2	7	,9
Left blank	86	8,7	62	7,2	56	7,6
Total	984	100	861	100	738	100

4.1.6. Other Findings. In order to conduct a thorough analysis and gain a deeper insight into the issue, more questions apart from the aforementioned 5 main questions were also asked in the interview. The findings reveal that pre-service EFL teachers think individual characteristics of students are important in the provision of OCF and the majority stated they would take the individual differences of their students into consideration. For instance, they mentioned that they would provide shy students with implicit types of OCF or would correct their errors one-on-one after the class as OCF would be too intimidating for them in front of other students. Only two participants expressed they would not change their OCF strategies for each student as they think it is the students' responsibility to learn, so they should see OCF part of classroom routine. Besides that, all the interviewees stated that they would monitor their students' use of language at a later time to see whether they make the same error or not so that they could assess the effectiveness of the OCF provided.When asked about the feelings of the students about the provision of OCF, the majority of the participants expressed that students would not like to be corrected on any type of errors and they would feel bad about it as they were corrected in front of others. However, two participants highlighted the importance of the relationship between the teacher and students. They pointed out that if students liked the teacher they would not feel offended about the OCF provided. One participant expressed that students would not feel positive or negative about it because that

was a classroom routine they should be used to. Finally, more than half of the participants found the provision of OCF more difficult than written CF because OCF was an instant in-class decision that could not be planned beforehand, so a teacher had only a few minutes to assess the positive or negative outcomes of the OCF provided as it was difficult for a teacher to guess the reaction of every single student. In addition to that, a teacher wants their students to participate in the lessons. However, some students might feel offended and might not be active in the lessons any more after being provided with OCF. Furthermore, some participants highlighted the possibility of missing the oral errors made by students. On the other hand, three participants found OCF easier as they considered the provision of OCF as a teacher's responsibility and part of their job. They also viewed the teacher as the only resource of knowledge. The interviews revealed that the participant pre-service EFL teachers beliefs come from mainly their teacher education program, particularly from the "Approaches in ELT" course they took in the first semester. 3 participants mentioned their previous teaching experiences and only 2 participants spoke of their previous learning experiences or the teachers they admired.

4.2. What are the Effects of a Reflective Training Program on the Awareness of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' OCF Strategies?

The effects of a reflective training program including two reflective input sessions and two microteaching sessions on the awareness of 34 Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' OCF strategies were analyzed and interpreted through a post-test, post semi-structured interviews, self- and peer-reflection papers, and reflective journals. The results of each instrument are presented separately below.

4.2.1. Post-test results. The participants were given the same 6 classroom situations they had commented on in the pre-test; however, two variations for each situation regarding age group and proficiency level were added. Thus, in total they wrote their OCF preferences

for 18 different classroom situations. The findings are illustrated under separate titles for each OCF issue and compared with the pre-test results.

4.2.1.1. Should learners' errors be corrected?. The post-test results do not greatly differ from the pre-test results with regards to the amount of OCF the pre-service teachers provided. As is obvious in Table 24, they preferred to provide OCF in 83,7% of the classroom situations. Also, the amount of OCF is nearly the same both in accuracy-oriented (83,5%) and fluency-oriented activities (83,8%), as can be viewed in Table 25.

Table 24

The Frequency of OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers in Post-Test

The Frequency of OCF Provided by Pre-Service Teachers in Post-Test		
	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	497	83,7
Not Provided	86	14,5
Left blank	11	1,9
Total	594	100

Table 25

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	284	83,5	249	83,8
Not Provided	43	14,5	43	14,5
Left blank	6	2	5	1,7
Total	297	100	297	100

However, there are some slight nuances observed in the post-test results concerning the proficiency level and age of learners. Although the amount of OCF is almost the same as pre-test results in terms of the proficiency levels, the post-test results indicate that the participants

preferred to provide the least amount of OCF to Elementary students with 80% whereas they provided more OCF to Upper-intermediate students with 86,1%, as can be studied in Table 26. This is slightly different from the pre-test findings as there was no such a pattern in the pre-test results (please check Table 6). Similarly many more errors (19,4%) were ignored in Elementary level while fewer errors (10,9%) were left uncorrected in Upper-intermediate level. In a similar vein, there are some slight nuances in the amount of OCF in different

Table 26

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	132	80	86	86,9	137	83	142	86,1
Not Provided	32	19,4	12	12,1	24	14,5	18	10,9
Left blank	1	,6	1	1	4	2,4	5	3
Total	165	100	99	100	165	100	165	100

age groups. As Table 27 shows, the participants provided a little more OCF to adults (86,4%) than young learners (81,5%) whereas the amount of OCF provided to both groups in the pre-test was almost the same (young learners – 84,7 and adults – 81,4) and there was no pattern.

Table 27

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF in Different Age Groups in Post-Test				
	Young Learners		Adults	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	269	81,5	228	86,4
Not Provided	52	15,8	34	12,9
Left blank	9	2,7	2	,8
Total	330	100	264	100

4.2.1.2. Which errors should be corrected?. In regards to the participants' preferences of which errors to be corrected, the post-test findings show some kind of pattern compared to the pre-test results. As is obvious in Table 24, the 14,5% of the errors were ignored, which indicates that the participants prefer selective correction. However, that preference is more significant in the post-test results as the amount of the provision and ignorance of OCF in the pre-test results had a huge difference with the amount of provision being 83% and the ignored errors being 9,3%. As for the language components, the participants preferred to provide OCF to grammatical errors mostly (88,4%) followed by lexical errors (82,3%) and phonological errors (80,3%), which can be examined in Table 28. The participants preferred to ignore phonological errors most (17,2%). Those findings differ from the pre-test results since no pattern was observed in the pre-test results (please check Table 8).

Table 28

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Provision of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test						
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Provided	175	88,4	163	82,3	159	80,3
Not Provided	20	10,1	32	16,2	34	17,2
Left blank	3	1,5	3	1,5	5	2,5
Total	198	100	198	100	198	100

4.2.1.3. How should learners' oral errors be corrected?.The most significant differences between the pre-test and post-test results are observed in the participants' preferences of OCF types. While in the pre-test results the participants were found to favor Explicit Correction most, Table 29 portrays that they seem to find more implicit types, Options and Recast with emphasis, as useful as Explicit Correction. Moreover, their

preferences of OCF types in different tasks show great variance compared to the pre-test results. As is clear in Table 30, the participants preferred to use Recast with emphasis most in accuracy-oriented activities while they used Explicit Correction and Options in fluency-oriented activities. As for the OCF use on different language components, the pre-test results show that the participants used Explicit Correction for all types of errors. However, the post-test findings imply that the participants favor a wider variety of OCF types and prefer to handle different types of errors with different OCF types. As is apparent in Table 31, the participants used Recast with emphasis (25,3%) most frequently to handle grammatical errors

Table 29

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Post-Test		
OCF Types	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Recast	15	2,5
Recast with emphasis	97	16,3
Explicit correction	106	17,8
Metalinguistic feedback	55	9,3
Elicitation	21	3,5
Repetition	24	4
Clarification request	16	2,7
Re-ask	26	4,4
Options	105	17,7
No correction	85	14,3
Missing data	33	5,6
Left blank	11	1,9
Total	594	100

Table 30

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Tasks in Post-Test

OCF Types	Accuracy		Fluency	
	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Recast	8	2,7	7	2,4
Recast with emphasis	55	18,5	42	14,1
Explicit correction	50	16,8	56	18,9
Metalinguistic feedback	25	8,4	30	10,1
Elicitation	11	3,7	10	3,4
Repetition	16	5,4	8	2,7
Clarification request	7	2,4	9	3
Re-ask	8	2,7	18	6,1
Options	50	16,8	55	18,5
No correction	42	14,1	43	14,5
Missing data	19	6,4	14	4,7
Left blank	6	2	5	1,7
Total	297	100	297	100

Table 31

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Different Language Components in Post-Test

	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	5	2,5	1	,5	9	4,5
Recast with emphasis	50	25,3	13	6,6	34	17,2
Explicit correction	25	12,6	45	22,7	36	18,2
Metalinguistic feedback	19	9,6	21	10,6	15	7,6
Elicitation	16	8,1	4	2	1	,5
Repetition	12	6,1	7	3,5	5	2,5
Clarification request	9	4,5	2	1	5	2,5
Re-ask	4	2	2	1	20	10,1
Options	24	12,1	58	29,3	23	11,6

No correction	20	10,1	31	15,7	34	17,2
Missing data	11	5,6	11	5,6	11	5,6
Left blank	3	1,5	3	1,5	5	2,5
Total	198	100	198	100	198	100

whereas they used Options (29,3%) for lexical errors and Explicit Correction (18,2%) for phonological errors. After a closer analysis was made whether the preferences of OCF types differ according to task types to deal with each language component, no significant difference was found except for phonological errors. As is obvious in Table 32 and 33, the participants used Recast with emphasis to handle grammatical errors both in accuracy- and fluency-oriented activities, and they used Options for lexical errors in both task types. However, it is apparent on Table 34 that the participants favor Reast with emphasis more in accuracy-oriented activities to handle phonological errors while they prefer Explicit Correction in fluency-oriented activities.

Table 32

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Grammatical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Grammatical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test

	Grammar			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	2	2	3	3
Recast with emphasis	23	23,2	27	27,3
Explicit correction	13	13,1	12	12,1
Metalinguistic feedback	12	12,1	7	7,1
Elicitation	9	9,1	7	7,1
Repetition	8	8,1	4	4
Clarification request	4	4	5	5,1

Re-ask	2	2	2	2
Options	14	14,1	10	10,1
No correction	4	4	16	16,2
Missing data	7	7,1	4	4
Left blank	1	1	2	2
Total	99	100	99	100

Table 33

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Lexical Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test

	Vocabulary			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	1	1	0	0
Recast with emphasis	11	11,1	2	2
Explicit correction	22	22,2	23	23,2
Metalinguistic feedback	10	10,1	11	11,1
Elicitation	2	2	2	2
Repetition	4	4	3	3
Clarification request	0	0	2	2
Re-ask	1	1	1	1
Options	23	23,2	35	35,4
No correction	18	18,2	13	13,1
Missing data	5	5,1	6	6,1
Left blank	2	2	1	1
Total	99	100	99	100

Table 34

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types for Phonological Errors in Different

Tasks in Post-Test				
	Pronunciation			
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	5	5,1	4	4
Recast with emphasis	21	21,2	13	13,1
Explicit correction	15	15,2	21	21,2
Metalinguistic feedback	3	3	12	12,1
Elicitation	0	0	1	1
Repetition	4	4	1	1
Clarification request	3	3	2	2
Re-ask	5	5,1	15	15,2
Options	13	13,1	10	10,1
No correction	20	20,2	14	14,1
Missing data	7	7,1	4	4
Left blank	3	3	2	2
Total	99	100	99	100

As for the proficiency level and age of learners, the post-test results show a pattern compared to the pre-test results. The participants prefer to provide Explicit Correction for Elementary students and young learners; however, they favor more implicit types (Recast with emphasis and Options) for upper proficiency levels and adults. Those can be examined in Table 35 and 36.

Table 35

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
OCF Types	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Recast	2	1,2	3	3	3	1,8	7	4,2

Recast with emphasis	24	14,5	20	20,2	20	12,1	33	20
Explicit correction	35	21,2	12	12,1	33	20	26	15,8
Metalinguistic feedback	18	10,9	11	11,1	15	9,1	11	6,7
Elicitation	4	2,4	7	7,1	3	1,8	7	4,2
Repetition	3	1,8	7	7,1	5	3	9	5,5
Clarification request	6	3,6	5	5,1	1	,6	4	2,4
Re-ask	2	1,2	3	3	13	7,9	8	4,8
Options	34	20,6	13	13,1	36	21,8	22	13,3
No correction	32	19,4	12	12,1	23	13,9	18	10,9
Missing data	4	2,4	5	5,1	9	5,5	15	9,1
Left blank	1	,6	1	1	4	2,4	5	3
Total	165	100	99	100	165	100	165	100

Table 36

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Types in Different Age Groups in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Use in Different Age Groups in Post-Test				
	Young Learners		Adults	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Recast	8	2,4	7	2,7
Recast with emphasis	58	17,6	39	14,8
Explicit correction	62	18,8	44	16,7
Metalinguistic feedback	25	7,6	30	11,4
Elicitation	11	3,3	10	3,8
Repetition	16	4,8	8	3
Clarification request	7	2,1	9	3,4
Re-ask	9	2,7	17	6,4
Options	56	17	49	18,6
No correction	52	15,8	33	12,5
Missing data	17	5,2	16	6,1
Left blank	9	2,7	2	,8
Total	330	100	264	100

To sum up, it can be inferred from the post-test results that the reflective training program has increased the participants' awareness on other types of OCF. Also, it helped them to choose different strategies concerning the nature of tasks and learner differences such as the proficiency level and age of learners.

4.2.1.4. When should learners' oral errors be corrected?. Similar to the pre-test results, the post-test analysis has demonstrated that the participants preferred to provide online OCF in most of the cases, which can be examined in Table 37. They provided OCF at the end of the task or lesson 10,1% of the time and they ignored the 14,5% of the errors. As is clear in Table 38, the participants provided the same amount of OCF (69%) in both accuracy-oriented and fluency-oriented activities. As for the language components, they provided more online OCF for grammatical errors than lexical and phonological. Despite the low significance level, offline OCF was provided most for phonological errors while the grammatical errors were corrected more immediately, which is depicted in Table 39. Concerning the proficiency level and age of learners, no significant differences or patterns are viewed. The majority preferred to provide online OCF in most cases no matter what the proficiency level or age of learners is, as is obvious in Table 40 and 41.

Table 37

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Post-Test		
OCF Types	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Online	411	69,2
Offline	60	10,1
No correction	86	14,5
Missing data	26	4,4
Left blank	11	1,9
Total	594	100

Table 38

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Tasks in Post-Test				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	206	69,4	205	69
Offline	29	9,8	31	10,4
No correction	43	14,5	43	14,5
Missing data	13	4,4	13	4,4
Left blank	6	2	5	1,7
Total	297	100	297	100

Table 39

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF for Different Language Components in Post-Test						
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	153	77,3	133	67,2	125	63,1
Offline	12	6,1	22	11,1	26	13,1
No correction	20	10,1	32	16,2	34	17,2
Missing data	10	5,1	8	4	8	4
Left blank	3	1,5	3	1,5	5	2,5
Total	198	100	198	100	198	100

Table 40

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Age Groups in Post-Test				
	Young Learners		Adults	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)

Online	226	68,5	185	70,1
Offline	29	8,8	31	11,7
No correction	52	15,8	34	12,9
Missing data	14	4,2	12	4,5
Left blank	9	2,8	2	,8
Total	330	100	264	100

Table 41

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Timing of OCF in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
OCF Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Online	114	69,1	73	73,7	111	67,3	113	68,5
Offline	14	8,5	10	10,1	20	12,1	16	9,7
No correction	32	19,4	12	12,1	24	14,5	18	10,9
Missing data	4	2,4	3	3	6	3,6	13	7,9
Left blank	1	,6	1	1	4	2,4	5	3
Total	165	100	99	100	165	100	165	100

All in all, it can be inferred from the post-test results that the participants favor online OCF in most cases.

4.2.1.5. Who should do the correcting?. When the OCF providers are concerned, the post-test results indicate a huge difference from the pre-test results. While the participants provided OCF themselves as teachers most of the time before the reflective training program, the post-test findings, as Table 42 depicts, demonstrate that they again used teacher correction in 40,4% of all cases; however, in 37,7% of the time they also used self-correction, which had a very little percentage in the pre-test. Another similar result is observed in the OCF preferences of the participants in different task types. While the majority preferred teacher correction in accuracy-oriented activities, both teacher correction and self-correction were

Table 42

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Post-Test		
Types	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Teacher correction	240	40,4
Self correction	224	37,7
Peer correction	26	4,4
No correction	85	14,3
Missing data	8	1,3
Left blank	11	1,9
Total	594	100

among the participants' preferences in fluency-oriented activities, which is apparent in Table 43. In a similar vein, some slight differences in the preferences of the pre-service teachers are viewed for different types of errors. As can be examined in Table 44, the majority of the participants preferred teacher correction to handle grammatical (44,4%) and phonological errors (42,9) whereas they encouraged self-correction for lexical errors (46,5%). An interesting finding is that some of the participants used peer correction (10,1%) for

Table 43

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Tasks in Post-Test				
	Accuracy		Fluency	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	127	42,8	113	38
Self correction	109	36,7	115	38,7
Peer correction	8	2,7	18	6,1
No correction	42	14,1	43	14,5
Missing data	5	1,7	3	1
Left blank	6	2	5	1,7
Total	297	100	297	100

phonological errors which had only 0,7% in the pre-test. This is a high percentage compared to Table 42, 43, 45 and 46 as it seems that the participants do not favor peer correction.

Table 44

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences of OCF Providers for Different Language Components in Post-Test

	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	88	44,4	67	33,8	85	42,9
Self correction	83	41,9	92	46,5	49	24,7
Peer correction	4	2	2	1	20	10,1
No correction	20	10,1	31	15,7	34	17,2
Missing data	0	0	3	1,5	5	2,5
Left blank	3	1,5	3	1,5	5	2,5
Total	198	100	198	100	198	100

When the analysis about different age groups and OCF preferences is examined, it can be viewed that the majority of the participants preferred teacher correction with young learners while they used self-correction more with adults, as is clear in Table 45. As for the proficiency levels, although there are no significant differences between teacher correction and self-correction, the majority of the participants preferred self-correction for most cases in lower levels whereas they used teacher correction more in upper levels, which is shown in Table 46.

To sum up, it can be concluded from the analyses that the participants prefer to use teacher correction and self-correction; however, they do not seem to favor peer correction. These findings show that the reflective training program has had a role in the change of the participants' beliefs as teacher correction was extremely used in the pre-test.

Table 45

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Age Groups in Post-Test				
	Young Learners		Adults	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	139	42,1	101	38,3
Self correction	118	35,8	106	40,2
Peer correction	9	2,7	17	6,4
No correction	51	15,5	34	12,9
Missing data	4	1,2	4	1,5
Left blank	9	2,7	2	,8
Total	330	100	264	100

Table 46

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test

Pre-Service Teachers' Preferences for OCF Providers in Different Proficiency Levels in Post-Test								
	Elementary		Pre-int		Intermediate		Upper-int	
Types	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
Teacher correction	64	38,8	39	39,4	61	37	76	46,1
Self correction	66	40	43	43,4	60	36,4	55	33,3
Peer correction	2	1,2	3	3	13	7,9	8	4,8
No correction	31	18,8	12	12,1	24	14,5	18	10,9
Missing data	1	,6	1	1	3	1,8	3	1,8
Left blank	1	,6	1	1	4	2,4	5	3
Total	165	100	99	100	165	100	165	100

4.2.2. The semi-structured interview results. The post semi-structured interviews were carried out in the week following the post-test. The most significant difference from the first interviews is the fact that the interviewees seemed more self-confident about their

answers rather than being hesitant and they did not have a wait time after the questions were asked whereas they had long wait times and pauses in the first interviews.

The interview findings show that all the interviewees think oral errors should definitely be corrected because the accurate use of language is extremely imporant. They do not want the errors to turn into bad habits as they think it will be more difficult to correct them as learners go more proficient. Similarly, all the interviewees favor selective correction. Those findings are in line with the first interview results. As for the types of errors they would like to correct, global and local error distinction, error and mistake distinction, proficiency level and focus of the lesson were brought up as factors considered. Besides, two interviewees mentioned that grammatical errors should definitely be corrected. This finding is also the same as the first interview results; however, since in the first interview they did not know the errors types, they were not sure what minor and major errors meant for them. The post interviews indicate that the participants are certain about which errors they want to correct.

Another issue was about the OCF preferences in different task types. Similar to the first interview findings, the interviewees stated they would use online OCF in accuracy-oriented activities while they would use offline OCF or ignore some errors in fluency-oriented activities. About the age of learners, the interviewees are still not very certain about what they should do just like the first interview findings. They have differing opinions. For instance, three interviewees think that adults should be provided with implicit OCF and they should be encouraged to self-correct as adults have higher cognitive processes whereas young learners should be corrected by teachers and explicitly as they are not autonomous enough to make self-correction or notice implicit OCF. However, one participant thinks just the opposite as young learners might feel offended more than adults; therefore, they should be corrected implicitly. Two participants think age does not play any role in the provision of OCF but

proficiency level does. Finally, one participant is still not sure about it. Thus, it seems that this is an issue for pre-service teachers that can be discovered only by experience.

Another factor in the provision of OCF, learners' proficiency level, led to differing opinions of the interviewees. Two participants think that more proficient students should be provided with less correction while more correction should be done in lower levels. However, one participant thinks just the opposite. Three interviewees believe that in the beginning levels students should be corrected implicitly or their errors should be ignored while upper level students should be provided with explicit correction. Nevertheless, one participant thinks right the opposite. Besides, another participant suggested teacher correction for lower levels and self-corretion for upper levels. This finding is exactly the same as the first interview findings. On the other hand, one extremely significant difference between the first and second interview results is about how teachers should provide OCF. Although in the first interview the majority of the interviewees preferred only explicit or implicit types, the post interview findings indicate that they are all aware of the fact that various factors play an important role in the way they provide OCF such as the proficiency level and age of learners.

Another important decision teachers should make about OCF is who should provide it. Different from the first interview results, the post interview findings display that the majority of the interviewees definitely prefer teacher feedback as they find it more reliable. They mentioned that they would also use self-correction and peer correction but for minor errors and at certain times. Three interviewees think which strategy they will use depends on other factors such as the age of learners, their proficiency level, the error type and task type. As for peer correction, the interviewees do not tend to view it as a black and white issue as they did in the first interviews but rather they are inclined to set the proper conditions in the classroom for it and then they might use it. This finding is particularly important since they were observed not to have much opinion about this technique. The role individual differences play

in the provision of OCF is approved by many interviewees just like it was in the first interviews.

When it comes to the timing of OCF, the majority of the interviewees believe online OCF is more beneficial for students. Three interviewees mentioned the difference in the task types as they would provide online OCF in accuracy-oriented tasks while they would give offline OCF in fluency-oriented activities. One participant favors offline OCF more regardless the task types and one participant pointed out that he would provide online OCF for grammatical and lexical errors while he would correct the phonological errors at a later time. These findings are slightly different from the first interviews in the way that they were responded. In the first interviews, the participants were not pretty certain, so they tended to give answers that contradicted their own beliefs. In the second interviews they provided more certain answers.

Another significant difference in the change of the participants' beliefs is about the students' preferences for receiving feedback. While in the first interview the majority thought their students would not wish to be corrected, the post interview findings indicate that the majority believe their students want to be corrected on their oral errors and they their students would feel good upon their OCF as they would learn what is correct and so they would feel confident.

The final significant difference in the interviewees' beliefs is whether the provision of OCF is easy or difficult for them as a teacher. As a matter of fact, the answers they provided have not changed as similar to the first interviews the participants found the provision of OCF difficult. However, the explanations they made regarding why they found it difficult seem to have changed. While in the first interviews they looked from their students' perspectives more as their students' reactions caused fear for them, in the post interviews they mentioned the factors making the provision of OCF difficult such as individual learner differences, teachers'

preferred OCF strategies, age of learners, their proficiency level, their relationship with classmates, how they feel at the moment of feedback, time-consuming nature of OCF, other students' interference with the willingness of giving the correct answer and the fact that OCF is provided in public.

All in all, it can be inferred from the post interview findings that the pre-service teachers have gained a deeper understanding about the issue and they have their own preferences now.

4.2.3. The analyses of peer reflection and self-reflection papers. In order to reflect on the knowledge received and discussed in the input sessions, five of the participants were asked to prepare 15-minute microteaching sessions with a focus on speaking and the others were asked to pay attention to the provision of OCF strategies and write their reflections. After the content analysis of the peer reflection papers, five issues were identified to be brought up by the participants: pure observation, own correction style, peer-correction, fluency-oriented activities and teacher's manner.

It is apparent that self-reflection began with the detailed observation of the participants in the microteaching sessions. Many participants described the OCF moves and some even used terminology as it follows: "Global error, elicitation. Student: 'Can you talk me a book you like really?' Teacher: 'Can you?'"(Participant 5).

The third question in the peer reflection paper asked the participants what they would have done differently if they were their friends. Many participants responded to that question by reflecting on their own correction styles. Some participants did not favor the ignorance of the errors and suggested correcting them instead of ignoring as one participant stated, "I would try to pay attention to errors." (Participant 15). Similarly, some pre-service teachers did not find the OCF types used by their classmates very effective and mentioned they would use different OCF types. For example, Participant 3 expressed that he would use other strategies

like Recast or Offline OCF. While some participants thought they would ignore the errors that were corrected during the lesson or they would provide more correction, the others stated they would do the same as their friends. Although different opinions came up, it is obvious that they reflected on different OCF strategies.

Regarding peer correction, many participants did not like the idea of correcting one another particularly after one microteaching session where the teacher asked them to note down their friends' errors and provide OCF after the debate. It can be clearly inferred from those participants' comments: "I would not give responsibilities to students. I would choose different methods.", "Peer correction was not effective. Due to the fact that the teacher gave the whole responsibility to the students, it ended up with no participation.". Asking the students to find errors during a debate might have made their beliefs about peer correction negative as one would not write down errors instead of understanding the discussion and thinking about the debate issue. However, that clearly helped them reflect on how they would provide OCF in such tasks.

As each microteaching session lasted for 15 minutes, only one task was planned for the participants and thus those were all fluency-oriented. The majority of the participants made their comments about it and suggested providing OCF at the end of the task or ignoring the students' errors as Participant 11 summarized, "Like my friend, I would not correct any errors and I would not ask the other students to correct them because it is not an accuracy-based activity. Fluency and self-confidence is important.". Participant 2 also highlighted the importance of Offline OCF with those lines: "If I were my friend, I would have taken notes of students' errors and when they finish their debate, I would say their errors.". It is apparent that they are aware of different task types and they have different preferences for accuracy- and fluency-oriented activities, which contradicts the post-test findings.

Finally, some participants commented on the teachers' manners during the provision of OCF as obviously that was one of the most important issues they paid attention to. That can be inferred from the following participants' statements: "She was good. She corrected the students in a very gentle way.", "I think her voice was not so kind or gentle while she was speaking.", "I would have corrected errors in a gentle manner.".

Apart from the peer reflection papers, self-reflection papers were also handed out to the teaching participants and the analysis demonstrates that four out of five were not pleased with the OCF strategies they used during their lessons and they stated that they would have corrected the errors differently if they had conducted the same lesson again. One of the teacher participants was content with the way she provided OCF and mentioned that she would not do anything differently if she had another chance to conduct the same lesson.

To wrap up, the aim of the reflection papers was to encourage the participants to think over what they had observed and learnt up to that time including the input sessions. It is obvious from the participants' comments that they cleared up their opinions and beliefs about OCF strategies.

4.2.4. The analysis of reflective journals. Reflective journals were handed out to the participants in order to keep track of the reflection process. Some guided questions were provided for the participants to help them reflect on their beliefs. When content analysis was conducted, 6 major themes were found to be mentioned by the participants. These can be listed as what was new for them in the input sessions (as they had been introduced to this issue in their Approaches in ELT class a semester before), the effectiveness of the reflective training program, the decisions they made after each session, new ideas they need to think over more, the importance of reflection and lack of change in beliefs.

The first and mostly reflected issue is the knowledge the participants encountered in the input sessions for the first time. Many participants learnt the difference between an error

and a mistake. That led to a change in their beliefs just as Participant 6 stated, “I have come to the conclusion that I can ignore mistakes.”. Also, the majority of the participants mentioned that they did not know there were so many types of OCF they could use and they realized the importance of other factors in the way OCF should be provided. Participant 3 summarized that point as, “I learnt how to give feedback to young and adult learners. Implicit feedback was new.”. As for the degree of implicitness and explicitness of OCF, Participant 8 reflected, “I used to think that errors should be corrected implicitly but I have learnt that it is just the opposite.”. Besides those, the research findings of learner beliefs about OCF use were new for some participants as Participant 1 expressed, “I did not know that students prefer to be corrected.”. Finally, the timing and provider of OCF attracted many participants’ attention. Regarding the timing of OCF, the participants were asked to carry out a short experiment on how to provide and receive OCF right after their errors, after their sentences and at the end of the lesson. This little experiment seems to have worked as Participant 30 commented, “I have become aware of how students might feel after feedback because I felt what it is like myself.”. In addition to the timing, many learnt the advantages and disadvantages of teacher, self- and peer correction for the first time as Participant 24 described, “Today we talked about teacher correction, self-correction and peer correction. We decided that self-correction works better than the others because learning becomes memorable when the student pays effort to correct their own errors.”. Similarly, Participant 12 commented, “We have learnt the importance of peer correction and that teacher correction is not recommended much.”.

Reflections concerning the effectiveness of the reflective training program were the second mostly common issue in the journals. Except for one participant who stated, “I know those things so nothing is different for me.” (Participant 11), the others found the program effective as can be inferred from the excerpts below:

“I rearranged the knowledge about error correction in my brain and the subject is way clearer now than it was before in my mind.” – Participant 2

“I found the observation effective because I had a chance to observe a lot of examples (teachers’ correction). I learnt what I should do or not.” – Participant 13

“As a student I feel happy because all these are actually our general problems and trying to solving this made me happy.” – Participant 19

“I learnt that some of the strategies I use when I correct errors were not as effective as I thought.” – Participant 26

“Now I have concrete opinions about how to correct errors.” – Participant 29

“It was effective because we started to look for the errors and when we spotted them, we started to think about how to correct them.” – Participant 32

“I feel autonomous and more self-confident.” – Participant 33

Another common point in the majority of the journals is the fact that the participants made some decisions after the sessions and kept some as food for more thought. For instance, Participant 3 has decided when she will provide OCF as she mentioned, “I will not correct students immediately. I will wait for them to finish their sentences.”. Similarly, Participant 20 has noticed that each student can react the OCF provided differently as she pointed out,

> I’m not that kind of student who is fragile. So even when my teacher interrupts me to correct me, I don’t hate it and it’s actually easier to remember. But if I ever become a teacher, I would use delayed correction.

Moreover, some participants seem to have decided which errors to correct as Participant 14 highlighted, “I will not correct local errors, I will only correct global errors. And I will definitely not correct mistakes as the students can correct themselves.”. Last, many participants made their decisions about the provider of OCF they would make use of in their classes as Participant 5 put it, “My favorite correction is self-correction. Because it’s more

informative.". However, it is apparent that the participants did not only make their final decisions but they will also keep thinking and reflecting on OCF use more as those three excerpts indicate:

"After the observation today, I thought I should be more concerned about OCF." – Participant 9

"I will improve my teaching skills on how to encourage students to use self-correction and peer correction." – Participant 31

"I need to make my decision about which errors exactly I want to correct." – Participant 1

One of the most important issues that have come out as a result of this reflective training program is the fact that the pre-service teachers learnt how to reflect on their beliefs by continually reflecting on what they learnt or observed and by using different means. Many called this as a new technique of learning but that was the reflection itself, indeed. The process of reflection and how reflective thinking worked can be inferred from those participants who summarized it clearly:

"When the classroom atmosphere is interactive, one can learn better." – Participant 2

"I have learnt what we discussed today before. I mean I thought I learnt them. But actually I have realized that I did not learn them because I could not remember most of them. Today the way we learnt was different, at least different for me. Because up to now mostly lecturers have come to the classroom, they have lectured and gone, no activities have been done in the class." – Participant 16

"Now I'm thinking I must question my beliefs which I think was true." – Participant 22

"We are still suffering from the wrong teaching techniques applied when we were in primary school." – Participant 30

Finally, some comments demonstrate that there were no immediate changes in the participants' beliefs as Participant 6, for instance, stated that peer correction was not a good technique to use with young learners. Similarly, after the group discussions, Participant 17 wrote that some of his friends found peer correction effective but he still found it ineffective and an incorrect technique to use in the classroom.

Chapter 5

Discussions and Recommendations

The data about the two reseach questions asked to be discovered in the current research study were collected through pre-test and post-test, pre and post semi-structured interviews, journal entries, self- and peer-reflection forms. The findings of the two research questions will be discussed separately in the following sections.

5.1. What do Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers Know about OCF Strategies?

The data regarding the first research question were collected by the pre-test questionnaire handed out to 123 pre-service EFL teachers and the first semi-structured interviews conducted with 9 volunteers. While in general the pre-test results indicate that the participants have certain preferences about OCF strategies, the interview findings reveal that their beliefs about OCF strategies are not profoundly clear.

The type of errors is one of the most significant factors teachers consider in the decision of which OCF strategies to use. Although that was not the aim of the study, the participants were also asked to choose the error type in the pre-test classroom situations. The analysis has revealed that the participant pre-service teachers have diagnosed the majority of the errors correctly. Similarly, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) asked 11 pre-service and 10 in-service EFL teachers to find out the errors in the teaching videos and further aimed to receive the opinions of the participants about the feedback. However, they found that many errors went unnoticed by the pre-service teachers, which contradicts the results of this study.

CF has been proved by many research studies to be facilitative in language acqusition and language learning (Brandt, 2008; Ellis, 2010; Kamiya, 2016, 2018; Li, 2010; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Oladejo, 1993; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Roothooft, 2014; Jane Russell & Spada, 2006; Schulz, 2001). Despite the high probability of the lack of knowledge about that piece of knowledge, the majority of the participants provided OCF to

the classroom situations. That is contradictory to Lasagabaster & Sierra (2005) who found teachers were worried about providing OCF with students as they might lose face in front of the others. The analysis further revealed that the participant teachers provided OCF no matter what the age of learners and their proficiency levels. No significant difference was found in the frequency of OCF provided in accuracy-oriented and fluency-oriented activities. Those findings differ from Özmen & Aydın (2015) who found that the pre-service teachers corrected low-proficient students' errors more frequently than high-proficient students and they handled more errors in accuracy-oriented activities than fluency-oriented activities.

Both pre-test and interview results illustrate that the participant teachers favor selective correction rather than every single error to correct. This finding is in congruence with Özmen & Aydın (2015) while it contradicts Florez & Basto (2017) who have recently discovered that the participant pre-service teachers thought errors should always be corrected. However, they worked with only two pre-service teachers, so the results cannot be generalized. The current research has also shown that the participants seem to be aware of the difference between errors and mistakes as they preferred to ignore the mistakes. This is in line with what Özmen & Aydın (2015) found. The further analysis demonstrates that language components did not play any role in the provision of OCF. The pre-service teachers almost corrected the same number of errors no matter what their types are. However, they considered the errors being the foci of the lesson and hindering meaning important and preferred to correct them for certain.

Many studies have shown that teachers prefer to use Recast most of the time due to time contraints, heavy curriculum and safe classroom environment (Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Dan Brown, 2016; Dilans, 2016; Ge, 2017). Rahimi & Zhang (2015) also compared novice teachers to experienced teachers and found that novice teachers preferred Recast and Clarification Request whereas experienced teachers used Explicit Correction and Recast

more. The pre-test results, however, prove contradictory results to those studies as the majority of the participants preferred to use Explicit Correction in most situations without any concern about student factors. For instance, the participants provided Explicit Correction both in accuracy- and fluency-oriented activities, which differs from what Özmen & Aydın (2015) found. In a similar vein, Özmen & Aydın (2015) found that their participants used Recast for grammatical, Explicit Correction for phonological errors and did not prefer to correct lexical errors most of the time. Although the pre-service teachers in the current research also preferred Explicit Correction to deal with phonological errors, they similarly used Explicit correction for other error types, as well. The only difference was found in the OCF provided for grammatical errors through further analysis. It was revealed that the pre-service teachers preferred to use Metalinguistic Feedback more for the grammatical errors in accuracy-oriented activities, yet they used Explicit Correction in fluency-oriented activities. This finding is also different from Özmen & Aydın (2015). As for the OCF preferences in different proficiency levels, no significant difference was found. They used Explicit Correction in all levels. On the other hand, Özmen & Aydın (2015) showed that their participants preferred Recast for lower levels while they used Explicit Correction for upper levels. Such a pattern was not observed in the current research. Finally, the participants' OCF preferences depending on the age of learners proved variance in the pre-test and interview results. While the participants used Explicit Correction with both young learners and aduls, only one thirds of the interviewees favored Explicit Correction with both age groups. The majority preferred to use implicit types with young learners whereas they stated they would use Explicit types only with adult learners. All in all, it can be referred from the findings that the pre-service EFL teachers are not familiar with different OCF types and are not concerned about different variables as opposed to what many teacher guides suggest which is teachers should customize their CF strategies (Ellis, 2009, 2010) as the way teachers provide CF depends on the

learners' age, proficiency level, task type and error type (Harmer, 2001; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Ur, 1996).

With regards to the timing of OCF, teacher guides suggest that teachers should use Online CF in accuracy-oriented activities while they should prefer to provide CF at the end of the task or lesson in fluency-oriented activities (Ellis, 2009; Harmer, 2001). That has proved to be the most teachers' preference in a number of studies (Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Roothooft, 2014). However, although the majority of the interviewees stated that they would use Offline OCF in fluency-oriented activities not to place a bad impact on learners' confidence to speak freely, the pre-test proved surprising results with the majority of the participants' use of Online OCF in both types of tasks, in all proficiency levels, with both age groups and to handle all types of errors. No significant difference was found between different variables. A similar finding was found in the preferences of who should do the correcting in the class. Even though most of the interviewees found self-correction and peer-correction useful for learners, the pre-test results indicated that the majority of the participants preferred teacher correction no matter what the age of learners, their proficiency level, task types and different language components.

Other findings gathered from the interviews and the open-ended questions in the pre-test involves that the participants take individual differences into consideration in the provision of OCF. Most stated that they would provide shyer students with implicit types or one-on-one OCF as they did not want to discourage them. The same concern was also observed when they expressed they found OCF more difficult than the provision of written CF with the fear that their students might feel offended. This finding is concurrent with many other studies (Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Dan Brown, 2016; Dilans, 2016; Ge, 2017; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Victoria Russell, 2009; Yoshida, 2008). As for the effectiveness of their OCF, the participants viewed uptake as a "potential learning opportunity" (Junqueira & Kim, 2013,

p. 184) and looked for it after their provision of OCF. In addition to those, the research indicated that although some participant beliefs, such as the assumption that students would never want to be corrected or they would feel bad upon correction, came from previous learning experiences which have the largest effect in making decisions (Borg, 2003; Florez & Basto, 2017; Kagan, 1992; Kennedy, 1997; Nguyen, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1996), it was proved that the majority of their beliefs rooted in their pre-service teacher education program (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Özmen & Aydın, 2015) as most of them mentioned their courses helped them comment on the situations.

To sum up, the results of the first research question reveal that the pre-service teachers are not aware of different OCF strategies and do not seem to take any learner variables into consideration while providing OCF. The interview findings further indicate that there is also a mismatch between the participant pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and stated practices as has been confirmed by many other studies (Alan Brown, 2009; Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dilans, 2016; Ge, 2017; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kamiya, 2016; Mackey et al., 2007; Roothooft, 2014; Roothooft & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 2001; Yoshida, 2008).

5.2. What are the Effects of a Reflective Training Program on the Awareness of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers' OCF Strategies?

The data in regards to the second research question were collected from 34 of the participants who partook in the reflective training program through a post-test, post training semi-structured interviews, self- and peer reflection papers and reflective journals. Although there are some beliefs that have not changed since pre-test, the post-test and interview findings demonstrate a significant change in the majority of the participants' beliefs about OCF strategies. Moreover, self- and peer reflection papers as well as the participants' comments in reflective journals make this change obvious and observable.

As mentioned above, the post-test findings show that some of the participants' beliefs remain the same even after the reflective training program. To begin with, the participants view errors and error correction necessary in the learning process (Oladejo, 1993) for accurate use of the target language as some of the interviewees mentioned lack of feedback might lead to fossilized errors (Douglas Brown, 1994; Lyster, 1998a) and that would make the errors even more difficult to correct since they had become habits. Also, they favor selective correction which has already been found effective by some researchers before (Burt, 1975; Douglas Brown, 1994; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Tran, 2017). While leaving some of the errors uncorrected, the participants were observed to correct the majority of the errors; however, almost the same amount of OCF were provided for all proficiency levels, age groups, error types and task types. No significant pattern has been encountered in the pre-test and post-test results although different preferences of OCF strategies for differing factors were detected in the interviews. As for the timing of OCF, both pre training interview and post training interview findings indicate that almost all the interviewees would prefer to use online and/or offline OCF in accuracy-oriented activities whereas they would prefer only offline OCF in fluency-oriented activities, which contradicts pre-test and post-test results. However, they seem to be aware of the two different task types and know they should use different strategies for each as has been suggested by Harmer (2001). This finding is also congruent with the results of Mendez & Cruz (2012). However, to the researcher's assumption, the participants of this study might not have figured out which situations in the pre- and post-test were meant to be accuracy-oriented and which fluency-oriented activities. The pre- and post-test results further demonstrate that the participants did not only use online OCF most in different task types but they also used online OCF in the majority of the situations without considering any factors such as the proficiency level, age group and so on. Finally, the findings after the reflective training program did not indicate a difference in the amount of the participants'

OCF they should provide in different proficiency levels and age groups in the post-test results although the interviewees stated they would provide different amount of OCF for different proficiency levels and age groups. On the other hand, there are not any research studies about this issue proving which strategy would be more effective in terms of the amount of OCF such as whether more amount of OCF in upper levels would be more effective for students or not.

Although some beliefs remain to be the same, the post-test and post training interview findings clearly display a change in the most participants' beliefs about OCF strategies. The most significant change is observed in the type of OCF the participants would prefere to use. The pre-test results showed that the majority of the participants used Explicit Correction without taking any factors into consideration except for handling grammatical errors in accuracy-oriented activities where they preferred Metalinguistic Feedback. However, the reflective training program seems to have had an influence on the participants' beliefs about OCF types as the post-test and post training interview findings demonstrate that they used Options and Recast with emphasis as well as Explicit Correction in many situations and preferred different strategies by taking other variables into consideration. For instance, they used Explicit Correction most for lower levels while they used more implicit types for upper levels, which contradicts Özmen & Aydın (2015) who proved the opposite. However, it contributes to Dan Brown (2016) who proved the same results and further demonstrated that the teachers in that study preferred more implicit strategies for older learners, which also the current study has evidenced. Moreover, the current research has indicated that the participants preferred to use different OCF strategies in different tasks and for different error types. The interview results also contribute to this findings. The interviewees seemed to be aware of the importance of different factors and expressed their OCF preferences according to those differing factors. They also paid attention to individual differences, which is congruent with

Agudo (2013), and expressed the difficulty of providing OCF as there were many different factors that a teacher should consider. This finding first proves that CF is a rather complex issue (Ellis, 2009; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Mendez & Cruz, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Terriche, 2017). In addition to that, using a wide variety of CF types is considered to be more effective than the use of a single type and thus be suggested (Ellis, 2009, 2010; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Second, the participants in the current research have made their OCF as explicit as possible by using Recast with emphasis rather than Recast or they used Options through which they both gave the correct sentence as well as the student's wrong sentence. These tend to be better working strategies as they help learners to notice the gap between their wrong sentences and the correct uses as has been suggested before (Schmidt, 1990, 2001, 2010; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Nassaji (2007) has also found that the CF was more effective when the teachers made it more explicit with intonation and verbal prompts.

The second noteworthy change observed in the pre-teachers' preferences for OCF strategies is about the provider of OCF. While the pre-test results showed that teacher correction was preferred in the majority of the situations, the post-test findings indicate that the participants also preferred to use self-correction after the training program. Besides that, they preferred different strategies for different cases. For instance, they used teacher correction for grammatical and phonological errors while they preferred self-correction for lexical errors. Similarly, they made use of different strategies in accuracy- and fluency-oriented activities, in lower and upper levels, and with young learners and adults. In the post interviews some interviewees explained that they would prefer self-correction to make learners more autonomous (Mendez & Cruz, 2012) and make learning more memorable (Bailey, 2005). The participants did not seem to favor peer correction and only preferred to use it seldom for minor errors.

Another important consequence of the current research proves to be the fact that the participants got more certain about which errors to correct and even some participants referred to the terminology. The majority preferred to correct errors and global errors rather than mistakes and local errors as has already been suggested by Corder (1967), Burt (1975) and Hendrickson (1978). This finding is also in line with Özmen & Aydın (2015).

The last significant change was found in the participants' perceptions of learners' preferences. The pre training interview findings illustrated that the majority of the participants thought their students would prefer no correction basing that assumption on their previous learning experiences as learners. However, the post training interviews have indicated that the participants got a more sophisticated view about that as they expressed their students would want to receive OCF since they would be careful and non-intrusive about the provision of OCF and their students would feel happy and more confident for using the target language more accurately. They also added that their students would be grateful for their teachers for their help. This finding clearly shows that the reflective training program was particularly useful in the participants' having a deeper understanding into the issue just as Vasquez & Harvey (2010) have proved. Also, it contradicts what Kagan (1992) pointed out that novice teachers tended to have wrong perceptions about their students as they would have similar interests, abilities and preferences as themselves; however, this finding shows that the participants are aware of individual differences and would act accordingly.

The results of the current study apparently portray that beliefs can be shaped during pre-service teacher education (Cabaroglu & Jon Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Özmen & Aydın, 2015). Therefore, it proves the opposite of what some studies found (Kagan, 1992; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1996; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010) that the pre-service teacher education has no effect on teachers' beliefs. However, this finding is the consequence of self- and peer reflection processes. Self- and peer reflection papers after each micro

teaching session encouraged the pre-service teachers to reflect on their own beliefs by commenting on their classmates' OCF strategies. It further helped them to understand and evaluate whether a strategy worked well or if it did not work well, the reflection papers triggered them to think where and under which circumstances that particular strategy would be more efficient. Peer observation has proved to be a useful technique by Genç (2012) and Evans et al. (2012) as the observers can come up with alternative solutions and develop their decision-making skills as well as becoming more conscious about the issue. Reflective journals also contributed considerably to the reflective thinking process as they gave the participants an opportunity to comment on what they learnt, to be able to see their theoretical knowledge in pratice, to be able to prefer their own strategies and make their own decisions and to be able to think about this issue more deeply during the time lying ahead of them. Reflection is a component in teacher education that cannot be left out as reflective practice has proved to enable teachers to take control over their teaching process and through their fostered observation abilities thanks to reflection they can handle the problematic situations better by making more appropriate decisions (Loh, Hong & Koh, 2017). The reflective journal and peer reflection papers have proved that the pre-service teachers got a deeper understanding into the issue and they focused more on other issues rather than themselves just as Vasuqez & Harvey (2010) found. These findings contribute to all the studies proving that the teachers' awareness was raised after some sort of training or reflective pactice (Arslan & Basaga, 2010; Atay, 2008; Demir & Özmen, 2018; Gün, 2010; Loh et al., 2017; Mackey et al., 2004; Parra, 2012; Rankin & Becker, 2006; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010).

The current research study further illustrates that Farrell's (2016) framework designed for teaching reflection to pre-service teachers seems to operate well. Similar to the steps in his framework, in this research, the participants were first asked about their beliefs on OCF strategies through pre-test and first interviews. Those instruments showed that the participants

were not sure about their beliefs. Then, through the input sessions, they conceptualized which errors were important for them and what strategies they could use under different circumstances. After reconstruction of beliefs, through micro teaching sessions they tried whether what they believed worked well or not. Finally, they made their decisions about OCF strategies. Although that was not one of the purposes of the current study, it is possible to describe the change in the pre-service teachers' beliefs about OCF strategies through the use of Farrell's (2016) framework.

5.3. Recommendations

The current research has proved one more time the importance of reflective thinking and reflective practices in pre-service teacher education. As teaching is a job which has to be performed, the skills development is far more important than the received knowledge and teaching skills could only be developed by reflective practices. Therefore, there are many opportunities through which pre-service teachers' teaching skills could be improved. First of all, research findings about learners' preferences and perceptions should definitely be used teacher education programs (Borg, 1998) since that is one of the most frequent problems novice teachers encounter when they start teaching. Also, pre-service teachers should be offered extra practical courses with a focus on the issues about which instant-decisions have to be made in the classroom. Moreover, as Yeşilbursa (2011) also pointed out, pre-service teachers should be encouraged to start reflective practices as early as their first year of study. Self-reflection on their previous learning experiences could be the starting point. Furthermore, special practical courses with hands-on projects should be offered to teach pre-service teachers how to reflect (Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Parra, 2012) as reflection is the only skill they will continually be using once they start teaching.

5.4. Conclusion

The current research study aimed to discover what second year pre-service teachers know about OCF strategies and the effects of a reflective training program about OCF strategies on pre-service EFL teachers' awareness. The data were collected through a wide variety of instruments involving both quantitative and qualitative information. The results proved that pre-service teachers did not have certain opinions about OCF strategies in the beginning; however, the reflective training program helped the pre-service teachers to become more aware of OCF strategies and different factors influencing the use of those strategies. Through reflection some of their decisions were immediately made and some of the knowledge they gained became food for thought in the future. All in all, it could be concluded that the reflective training program increased pre-service EFL teachers' awareness about OCF strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Pre-Test

Situations for Oral Error Correction (SOEC) Simulation

A. Introduction

The SOEC Simulation aims to identify how and why language teachers correct L2 learners' oral errors. SOEC Simulation consists of 20 situations that English language teachers may encounter in any language teaching context. Each of these situations involves an erroneous utterance or an oral text including an error.

B. Instructions

1. Erroneous utterances or sentences including an error in the situations are written **in bold.**
2. Above each situation, age and level variables of the classroom are provided.
3. Some options (the language components) about the nature of the errors are given for each situation on the right. You are asked to identify those by circling the language component.
4. There is a space provided below each situation. In this part, you are asked to explain how and why you would correct the error(s).

C. Demography

- *Gender:* F ( ), M ( )
- *GPA (Please provide the overall score):* 2.00-2.50 ( )
  2.50-3.00 ( )
  3.00-3.50 ( )
  3.50-4.00 ( )
- *High School Background:* Anatolian Teacher Training High School ( )
  Anatolian High School ( )
  Other (Please specify): ___________________
- *Teaching Experience:* Yes ( ) ___________ month(s) / year(s)
  No ( )
- *Any Background about Oral Corrective Feedback Strategies? Yes ( ), No ( )*

If your answer is yes, please explain: ________________________________

____

____

<table>
<tr><td>Read the situations below with the following questions in mind:

1. What kind of error is that? (Circle the language component or activity type in the boxes given on the right. You can circle more than one item where applicable).

2. How and why would you correct the mistake(s). (Please write down your response to the space provided below each situation.)</td><td>Grammar</td><td>Vocabulary</td><td>Pronunciation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: young learner   Level: elementary
1. You are doing a warm-up activity with your class, asking them about their grandparents. One of your students says, “My grandmother seventy-three years old.”</td><td>GR</td><td>VO</td><td>PR</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: young learner   Level: pre-intermediate
2. You have asked your students what their favourite colours are. One of your students says “yellow” by stressing both “l”s instead of pronouncing it with one “l”.</td><td>GR</td><td>VO</td><td>PR</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: adults   Level: intermediate
3. Your class is doing an information gap activity in pairs in your speaking class. As you walk around the class and listen to them, you hear that most students cannot pronounce the words ‘really’ and ‘grateful’ correctly.</td><td>GR</td><td>VO</td><td>PR</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: adults   Level: intermediate
4. Your class is working in pairs doing a speaking activity. One student is asking the other to go out for the evening. The student says “I want go to a Chinese restaurant”.</td><td>GR</td><td>VO</td><td>PR</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
</table>

Age: adults **Level:** intermediate **5.** You are doing a speaking activity. You give them some pictures to make up a story. In one of the pictures, there is a thief. While one of your students tells his story, he always says **"There is a man who steals belongings of other"** instead of the word "thief".	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** elementary **6.** Your class is working in pairs. While you are walking around the class, you hear that one of your students uses the word **"sugar"** for "candy".	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** intermediate **7.** Your class is working in groups, discussing the magic events you've talked about. One of your students says **"angle"** intending "angel".	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** intermediate **8.** Your class is working in pairs. One of your students says to his partner **"Can I lend your pen?"** meaning "Can I borrow your pen?".	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** intermediate **9.** You want your students to ask questions about you in turn. One of the students says **"What age are you?"**.	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: adults **Level:** pre-intermediate **10.** Your class is working in groups, creating a typical day at their ideal school. A learner says **"I liking Maths and English best".**	GR	VO	PR
How and Why to Correct it?			

Age: young learner **Level:** pre-intermediate	GR	VO	PR
11. You have revised simple past tense. Then, you want them to work in pairs and ask questions to each other. One of the students asks her partner **"When did you went to the market?".**			
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate	GR	VO	PR
12. Your students are doing a role-play activity in your drama class. One of your students says **"occur"** by using an "ü" sound instead of /əˈkɜː/**.**			
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** intermediate	GR	VO	PR
13. You give some situations to your students and want them to say how they feel. One of your students says **"I feel excited"** meaning "I feel anxious".			
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate	GR	VO	PR
14. You have just focused on changes in meaning of a question tag depending on how you say it. Then, you give your students a dialogue and want them to read it aloud paying attention to its meaning and use rising/falling intonation correctly. One of the students use rising intonation while he is supposed to use falling intonation.			
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate	GR	VO	PR
15. You want your students to describe one of their classmates and the others to find out who she/he is. One of your students says **"Despite of he speaks seldom, he says meaningful words".**			
How and Why to Correct it?			
Age: young learner **Level:** pre-intermediate	GR	VO	PR

<table>
<tr><td>16. You have just introduced “his” and “hers” for the first time. You have collected some items belonging to your class on your desk. You ask, picking up some keys “Whose pencils are these?” A student answers, pointing at the owner of the pencils “They’re him.”</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4" align="center">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: young learners Level: elementary</td><td rowspan="2">GR</td><td rowspan="2">VO</td><td rowspan="2">PR</td></tr>
<tr><td>17. Your students are working on a project in pairs and making their dream houses. When they finish drawing and coloring, you ask them to write the parts of the houses on their pictures. While they are talking to one another about the parts of their houses, one of your students says “This is dining room.” pronouncing dining as /di:ning/.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4" align="center">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: adults Level: pre-intermediate</td><td rowspan="2">GR</td><td rowspan="2">VO</td><td rowspan="2">PR</td></tr>
<tr><td>18. You are talking about birthdays and gifts. One of your students talks about her last birthday and she says, “I was at home, the door bell rang and I delivered a package.” meaning she received a package.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4" align="center">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: adults Level: upper-intermediate</td><td rowspan="2">GR</td><td rowspan="2">VO</td><td rowspan="2">PR</td></tr>
<tr><td>19. You and your students have talked about General American Pronunciation and Received Pronunciation. You want them to prepare a short talk and be careful while they are talking. While they are talking, you realized that most of your students pronounce initial and medial /r/ sound wrong.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4" align="center">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Age: adults Level: intermediate</td><td rowspan="2">GR</td><td rowspan="2">VO</td><td rowspan="2">PR</td></tr>
<tr><td>20. You have focused on some vocabulary items. Then, you give a story to your students. In the story, there are some blank parts that the students fill in using the words they’ve just learned while they are telling the story. One of them cannot use the word “mood” correctly and says “The streets were very crowded and had a holiday mood.”.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4" align="center">How and Why to Correct it?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
</table>

Appendix 2: Ön Değerlendirme

Sözlü Hata Düzeltme Simulasyonu İçin Sınıf Durumları

A. Giriş

Sözlü hata düzeltme simulasyonu öğretmenlerin yabancı dildeki öğrenci hatalarını nasıl ve neden düzelttiklerini belirlemeyi hedeflemektedir. Bu simulasyon, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin herhangi bir dil sınıfında karşılaşabileceği 20 adet durumdan oluşmaktadır. Bu durumların her biri hatalı bir cümle ya da içerisinde hata olan sözlü bir metin içermektedir.

B. Yönergeler

5. Sınıf durumlarındaki hatalı ifadeler ya da cümleler **koyu renk** yazılmıştır**.**

2. Her bir durum için yaş ve seviye değişkenleri verilmiştir.

3. Hatanın türünü belirlemek için sınıf durumlarının yanında seçenekler verilmiştir. Buradan doğru seçeneğe karar vererek daire içine alabilirsiniz.

4. Her bir durumun altında boşluk bırakılmıştır. Bu bölümde öğrenci hatalarını neden ve nasıl değiştireceğinizi açıklamanız beklenmektedir.

C. Demografi

- *Cinsiyet:* K ( ), E ( )
- *Genel Not Ortalaması:* 2.00-2.50 ( )
2.50-3.00 ( )
3.00-3.50 ( )
3.50-4.00 ( )
- *Lise Türü:* Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi ( )
Anadolu Lisesi ( )
Diğer (Lütfen Belirtiniz): ___________________
- *Deneyim:* Evet ( ) ___________ ay / yıl
Hayır ( )
- *Sözlü hata düzeltme stratejileriyle ilgili daha önce eğitim aldınız mı?*
Evet ( ), Hayır ( )

Cevabınız evetse lütfen belirtiniz: ___________________________________

____

____

<table>
<tr><td>Sınıf durumlarını aşağıdaki soruları göz önünde bulundurarak inceleyiniz:

1. Belirtilen ne tür bir hatadır? (Sağ bölümde bulunan alanlardan birini daire içine alınız.)
2. Nasıl ve neden bu hatayı düzeltirdiniz? (Lütfen cevabınızı durumların altında yer alan boşluğa yazınız.)</td><td>Dilbildigis</td><td>Kelime</td><td>Telaffuz</td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar Seviye: başlangıç
1. Öğrencilerinizle büyük anne büyük babaları ile ilgili bir ısınma aktivitesi yapıyorsunuz. Bir tane öğrenciniz şöyle diyor, “My grandmother seventy-three years old. (Babaannem/Anneannem 73 yaşındadır.)”</td><td>D</td><td>K</td><td>T</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar Seviye: alt orta
2. Öğrencilerinize en sevdikleri renklerin neler olduğunu sordunuz. Öğrencilerinizden bir tanesi “yellow (sarı)” dedi ama bu kelimeyi tek “l” ile telaffuz etmek yerine iki “l”nin de üzerine basa basa söyledi.</td><td>D</td><td>K</td><td>T</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: yetişkinler Seviye: orta
3. Öğrencileriniz konuşma dersinde ikili gruplar şeklinde bilgi doldurma aktivitesi yapıyorlar. Siz sınıfta dolaşıp onları dinlerken pek çok öğrencinizin “really (gerçekten)” ve “grateful (minnettar)” kelimelerini doğru telaffuz edemediklerini duyuyorsunuz.</td><td>D</td><td>K</td><td>T</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: yetişkinler Seviye: orta
4. Öğrencileriniz ikili gruplar şeklinde bir konuşma aktivitesi yapıyor. Bir öğrenci diğerine akşam dışarı çıkmayı teklif ediyor. Öğrenci şöyle söylüyor: “I want go to a Chinese restaurant (Bir Çin restoranına gitmek istiyorum)”.</td><td>D</td><td>K</td><td>T</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: yetişkinler Seviye: orta
5. Bir konuşma aktivitesi yapıyorsunuz. Öğrencilere hikaye haline getirmeleri için bazı resimler vermişsiniz. Resimlerin birinde bir hırsız var. Öğrencilerinizden biri hikayeyi anlatırken “thief (hırsız)” kelimesini kullanmak yerine sürekli “There is a man who steals belongings of other (Başkalarının eşyalarını çalan bir adam var)” diyor.</td><td>D</td><td>K</td><td>T</td></tr>
</table>

Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?

<table>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar   Seviye: başlangıç</td><td rowspan="2">D</td><td rowspan="2">K</td><td rowspan="2">T</td></tr>
<tr><td>6. Sınıfınız ikili gruplar şeklinde çalışıyor. Siz sınıfta dolaşıken öğrencilerinizden birinin “sugar (şeker)” kelimesi yerine “candy (şekerleme)” dediğini duyuyorsunuz.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar   Seviye: orta</td><td rowspan="2">D</td><td rowspan="2">K</td><td rowspan="2">T</td></tr>
<tr><td>7. Öğrencileriniz daha önce konuştuğunuz gizemli olaylar hakkında gruplar şeklinde tartışıyorlar. Öğrencilerinizden biri “angel (melek)” kelimesini kastederek “angle (açı)” diyor.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar   Seviye: orta</td><td rowspan="2">D</td><td rowspan="2">K</td><td rowspan="2">T</td></tr>
<tr><td>8. Öğrencileriniz ikili gruplar şeklinde çalışıyorlar. Bir tanesi yanındaki partnerine “Can I borrow your pen? (Kalemini ödünç alabilir miyim?)” demek yerine “Can I lend your pen? (Kalemini ödünç verebilir miyim?)” diyor.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: çocuklar   Seviye: orta</td><td rowspan="2">D</td><td rowspan="2">K</td><td rowspan="2">T</td></tr>
<tr><td>9. Öğrencilerinizin size sırayla sizin hakkınızda sorular sormasını istediniz. Bir tanesi şöyle sordu: “What age are you? (Kaç yaşındasın?)”.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
<tr><td>Yaş grubu: yetişkinler   Seviye: alt orta</td><td rowspan="2">D</td><td rowspan="2">K</td><td rowspan="2">T</td></tr>
<tr><td>10. Öğrencileriniz gruplar şeklinde hayallerindeki okulda rutin bir günlerini aktarmak üzerine çalışıyorlar. Bir öğrenci şöyle söylüyor: “I liking Maths and English best (Ben en çok matematik ve ingilizce derslerini seviyorum.)”.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4"></td></tr>
</table>

Yaş grubu: çocuklar **Seviye:** alt orta			
11. Geçmiş zamanı tekrar ettniz. Sonra, öğrencilerinizin ikili gruplar şeklinde çalışıp birbirlerine soru sormalarını istediniz. Öğrencilerden biri partnerine şöyle soruyor: **“When did you went to the market? (Pazara ne zaman gittin?)”.**	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler **Seviye:** üst orta			
12. Öğrencileriniz drama dersinde bir rol yapma aktivitesi üzerine çalışıyor. Öğrencilerinizden biri **“occur (meydana gelmek)”** kelimesini /əˈkɜː/ demek yerine “ü” sesi kullanarak telaffuz ediyor.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: çocuklar **Seviye:** orta			
13. Öğrencilerinize bazı durumlar verdiniz ve onlardan bu durumlarda nasıl hissettiklerini söylemelerini istediniz. Öğrencilerinizden biri “I feel anxious (endişeli hissediyorum)” demek yerine **“I feel excited (heyecanlı hissediyorum)”** dedi.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler **Seviye:** üst orta			
14. Az önce soru eklentilerinde söyleme şeklinize bağlı olarak anlamın nasıl değişeceğine odaklandınız. Sonra öğrencilerinize bir diyalog veriyorsunuz ve anlamı ile yükselen / alçalan ses tonunu göz önünde bulundurarak okumalarını istiyorsunuz. Öğrencilerinizden biri ses tonunu alçaltması gerekirken yükseltiyor.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler **Seviye:** üst orta			
15. Öğrencilerinizden sınıf arkadaşlarından birini tasvir etmesini, diğerlerinin de bu kişiyi bulmasını istediniz. Öğrencilerinizden biri şöyle söylüyor: **“Despite of he speaks seldom, he says meaningful words (Nadir konuşmasına rağmen mantıklı konuşur)”.**	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: çocuklar — Seviye: alt orta			
16. İlk defa "his (onunki)" ve "hers (onunki)" konusuna giriş yaptınız. Masanızın üzerine sınıfa ait olan bazı eşyalar topladınız. Birkaç anahtarı elinize alarak soruyorsunuz: "Whose pencils are these? (Bunlar kimin kalemleri?)" Bir öğrenci kalemlerin sahibini işaret ederek **"They're him. (Onlar onun.)"** diyor.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: çocuklar — Seviye: başlangıç			
17. Öğrencileriniz ikili gruplar halinde bir proje üzerine çalışıyor ve hayallerindeki evi yapıyorlar. Çizmeyi ve boyamayı tamamladıklarında onlardan evlerinin bölümlerini yazmalarını istiyorsunuz. Birbirleriyle evlerin bölümleri hakkında konuşurken öğrencilerinizden biri "dining (yemek)" kelimesini /di:ning/ şeklinde telaffuz ederek "This is dining room. (Bu yemek odası.)" diyor.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler — Seviye: alt orta			
18. Doğum günleri ve hediyeler hakkında konuşuyorsunuz. Öğrencilerinizden biri geçmiş doğum gününü anlatıyor ve bir paket aldığını kastederek **"I was at home, the door bell rang and I delivered a package. (Evdeydim, kapı zili çaldı ve bir paket dağıttım.)"** diyor.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler — Seviye: üst orta			
19. Öğrencilerinizle genel Amerikan telaffuzu ve İngiliz telaffuzu üzerine konuştunuz. Onlardan kısa bir konuşma hazırlamalarını ve konuşurken telaffuza dikkat etmelerini istediniz. Konuşurken pek çok öğrencinizin baştaki ve ortadaki /r/ sesini yanlış telaffuz ettiğini fark ettiniz.	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Yaş grubu: yetişkinler — Seviye: orta			
20. Bazı kelimeler çalıştınız. Sonra, öğrencilerinize bir hikaye veriyorsunuz. Hikayeyi anlatırken öğrencilerin daha önce çalıştığınız kelimelerle dolduracakları bazı boşluklar var. Bir tanesi "mood (mod)" kelimesini doğru kullanamıyor ve şöyle söylüyor: **"The streets were very crowded and had a holiday mood. (Sokaklar çok kalabalıktı ve tatil modu vardı.)".**	D	K	T
Nasıl ve Neden Düzeltirdiniz?			

Appendix 3: Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Interview Questions

1. When doing speaking activities in class, do you think a teacher should give students feedback on their oral language mistakes?

2. If he/she shouldn't, what is the reason for this?

3. How does oral error correction contribute to L2 learning?

4. Do you think learners' oral errors should be corrected? Why / Why not?

5. Do you think it is necessary to give feedback on all of your students' mistakes? If not, what type of mistakes do you think you should focus on? Why?

6. Do you think the focus of an activity (fluency – accuracy) makes a difference in oral error correction? How?

7. Do you think the levels of L2 learners (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced) make a difference in oral error correction? How?

8. Do you think the age of L2 learners (young learners, adults) makes a difference in oral error correction? How?

9. How should oral errors be corrected?

10. Do you think students notice when a teacher implicitly corrects their oral errors? Why / Why not?

11. Who should do the correction in class? (self-correction, peer correction, teacher correction)

12. How often should a teacher use peer correction (letting the students correct each other)? What do you think about this technique?

13. Do you think that a teacher should take individual differences/learners' variables into account? Why? How?

14. When do you think a teacher should give feedback on oral language mistakes? During the speech , after the speech or at the end of the lesson? Why?

15. How can you tell whether your error treatment is effective for learners to acquire the correct information? (How to judge the effectiveness of your error correction?)

16. Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes? Why / Why not?

17. How do you think your students feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?

18. Do you find it easy or difficult to give your students feedback on oral language mistakes? Why?

19. Which do you think is easier: giving feedback on oral errors or on written errors? Why do you think so?

Appendix 4: Yarı Yapılandırılmış Mülakat Soruları

Mülakat Soruları

1. Sizce sınıfta konuşma aktiviteleri yapılırken öğretmen öğrencilerin sözlü hatalarını düzeltmeli midir?
2. Eğer düzeltmemesi gerektiğini düşünüyorsanız bunun sebebi nedir?
3. Sözlü hataların düzeltilmesi yabancı dil öğrenimine nasıl katkı sağlar?
4. Sizce öğrencilerin sözlü hataları düzeltilmeli midir? Neden?
5. Sizce öğrencilerin tüm hatalarını düzeltmek gerekli midir? Gerekli olmadığını düşünüyorsanız sizce ne tür hatalar düzeltilmelidir? Neden?
6. Sizce aktivitenin odak noktası (yani akıcılık ya da doğruluk) sözlü hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmen açısından bir fark yaratır mı? Nasıl?
7. Sizce öğrencilerin dil seviyeleri (başlangıç, alt orta, orta, üst, ileri) sözlü hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmen açısından bir fark yaratır mı? Nasıl?
8. Sizce öğrencilerin yaşı sözlü hataların düzeltilmesinde öğretmen açısından bir fark yaratır mı? Nasıl?
9. Sözlü hatalar nasıl düzeltilmelidir?
10. Sizce öğrenciler, sözlü hataları öğretmenleri tarafından dolaylı olarak düzeltildiğinde bunu fark ederler mi? Neden?
11. Sınıfta hatalar kimin tarafından düzeltilmelidir? (öğrencinin kendisi tarafından mı, sınıf arkadaşları tarafından mı, öğretmen tarafından mı)
12. Bir öğretmen ne sıklıkla akran düzeltmesine başvurmalıdır? Bu teknikle ilgili ne düşünüyorsunuz?
13. Sizce bir öğretmen sözlü hataların düzeltilmesinde bireysel farklılıkları göz önünde bulundurmalı mıdır? Neden? Nasıl?
14. Sizce bir öğretmen öğrencilerin sözlü hatalarını ne zaman düzeltmelidir? Konuşma esnasında mı, konuşmanın bitiminde mi, ders sonunda mı? Neden?
15. Öğrencilerin hatalarıyla ilgili verdiğiniz geri bildirimin, öğrencilerin doğru bilgiyi edinebilmesi açısından etkili olup olmadığını nasıl anlarsınız? (Yani hataların düzeltilmesi ile ilgili verdiğiniz geri bildirimin etkili olup olmadığını nasıl ölçersiniz?)
16. Sizce öğrencileriniz sözlü hatalarının düzeltilmesini ister mi? Neden?
17. Sizce öğrencileriniz sözlü hatalarını düzelttiğinizde ne hissetmektedir?
18. Öğrencilerinizin sözlü hatalarını düzeltmek sizin için kolay mıdır, zor mudur? Neden?
19. Sizce hangisi daha kolaydır: sözlü hataları düzeltmek mi, yazılı hataları düzeltmek mi? Neden bu şekilde düşünüyorsunuz?

Appendix 5: Peer Reflection Papers

Your name: ____________________ **Who did you observe: ___________________**

Please answer the questions below considering your classmate's lesson.

A: What OCF strategies did your friend apply in her/his performance?

____
____
____

B: What OCF strategies did your friend *NOT* apply in her/his performance?

____
____
____

C: If I were my friend, I would have done those differently:

____
____
____

D: Please choose the true statement about the lesson you observed:

My friend corrected all of the errors in that lesson. ☐

My friend corrected most of the errors in that lesson. ☐

My friend corrected some of the errors in that lesson. ☐

My friend corrected none of the errors in that lesson. ☐

Appendix 6: Self-Reflection Paper

SELF REFLECTION PAPER

Your name: _______________________________ Date: __________________

Please complete the sentences below considering your performance.

A: I applied the following OCF strategies in my performance:

____

____

____

B: I fell short in applying the following OCF strategies in my performance:

____

____

____

Because

____

____

C: If I conducted the same lesson again, I would have done those differently:

____

____

____

D: Please choose the true statement about your lesson:

I corrected all of the errors in that lesson. ☐

I corrected most of the errors in that lesson. ☐

I corrected some of the errors in that lesson. ☐

I corrected none of the errors in that lesson. ☐

Appendix 7: Reflective Journal Template

BURSA ULUDAG UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEPARTMENT

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

MY REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

____

A. Introduction

This reflective journal aims to find out about your opinions on the reflective training program and how it contributes to your practical knowledge as a teacher. Every single remark you make here is precious for the current study. For this reason, we would kindly ask you to be open with us. We assure you that your identity will be kept confidential.

On the next page you can find the guiding questions that will help you to give your opinions about the reflective training program. Please make sure **you write the date on the top of the page** and check the related questions according to the week of the program. You can write your opinions either in English or in Turkish.

We would like to thank you for your cooperation and contribution to our research study. Your kind assistance is greatly appreciated.

Week 1

1. What did you learn from the training session today? What was new?
2. What did you learn from the discussions with your friends today?
3. Did you find the training session effective?
   If your answer is yes, how?
   If your answer is no, why not?
4. After the training session today, what do you think you are going to be doing differently in your teaching? Why?
5. Please write more if you would like to add anything about the training session.

Weeks 2 & 3

1. What did you learn from the lessons you observed today? What was new? What was interesting?
2. How did you feel as a student?
3. Did you find the observation effective?
   If your answer is yes, how?
   If your answer is no, why not?
4. After the observation today, what do you think you are going to be doing differently in your teaching? Why?
5. Please write more if you would like to add anything about your observation.

Appendix 8: Post-Test

Your Name: ______________________

Age: Young Learners	**Level:** Pre-Intermediate
1. You have revised simple past tense. Then, you want them to work in pairs and ask questions to each other. One of the students asks her partner **"When did you went to the market?".**	

1.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. When did you go to the market.
b. When did you ***GO*** to the market.
c. It is "when did you go" because we have "did" there.
d. This is a question in Simple Past Tense. In Simple Past questions we use V1.
e. When did you?
f. When did you went to the market?
g. I didn't quite catch that. Could you repeat that please?
h. When did you went or when did you go?
i. "I went to the market yesterday." What is the question for this answer? (You ask this question to everybody in the classroom)
j. ____

1.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

1.3. What would you do if the students were adults?

____.

1.4. What would you do if the students were at Upper-Intermediate level?

____.

Age: Young Learners	**Level:** Elementary
2. You are doing a warm-up activity with your class, asking them about their grandparents. One of your students says, **"My grandmother seventy-three years old."**	

2.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. My grandmother is seventy-three years old.
b. My grandmother ***IS*** seventy-three years old.
c. It is "my grandmother is" because we use am, is, are while we talk about age.
d. There is no verb in this sentence. You need to use a verb.
e. My gandmother?
f. My grandmother seventy-three years old?
g. I missed that. Could you repeat please?
h. My grandmother seventy-three or My grandmother is seventy-three?
i. How old is her grandmother? (to everybody in the class)
j. ____

2.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

2.3. What would you do if the students were adults?

____.

2.4. What would you do if the students were at Upper-Intermediate level?

____.

Age: Young Learners	**Level:** Intermediate
3. You have just revised the adjectives to express emotions. You give some situations to your students and want them to say how they feel. One of your students says **"I feel excited"** meaning "I feel anxious".	

3.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. I feel anxious.
b. I feel ***ANXIOUS***.
c. You feel "anxious" because the feeling "excited" expresses a positive emotion.
d. You don't feel really well when you come across with this situation. You need to use an adjective that shows your emotion is a little bit negative.
e. You feel?
f. You feel excited?
g. Could you say that again please?
h. Excited or Anxious?
i. How does your friend feel? (to everybody in the class)
j. ____

3.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

3.3. What would you do if the students were adults?

____.

3.4. What would you do if the students were at Beginner level?

____.

Age: Young Learners	**Level:** Elementary
4. Your class is working in pairs. While you are walking around the class, you hear that one of your students uses the word **"sugar"** for "candy".	

4.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. Candy.
b. ***CANDY***.
c. You should say "candy" because look, this is sugar (you show a picture).
d. Sugar is a general word and the word you want to say is also made of sugar.
e. You like?
f. You like sugar?
g. Could you say that again please?
h. Sugar or Candy?
i. What does your friend like? (to everybody in the class)
j. ____

4.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

4.3. What would you do if the students were adults?

____.

4.4. What would you do if the students were at Intermediate level?

____.

Age: Adults	**Level:** Intermediate
5. Your class is doing an information gap activity in pairs in your speaking class. As you walk around the class and listen to them, you hear that most students cannot pronounce the words **'really'** and **'grateful'** correctly.	

5.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. As soon as you hear them, you say "really" and "grateful".
b. As soon as you hear them, you say "***REALLY***" and "***GRATEFUL***".
c. You shout out "really" and "grateful" and ask your students to repear after you.
d. We pronounce "A" as /ei/, so how do you need to pronounce "grateful"?
e. You are?
f. You are /reli/ /gratful/?
g. I didn't quite catch that. Could you repeat that please?
h. You are /rɪə.li/ /greɪt.fᵊl/ or /reli/ /gratful/?
i. How do we pronounce these words? (to everybody in the class)
j. ____

5.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

5.3. What would you do if the students were young learners?

____.

5.4. What would you do if the students were at Advanced level?

____.

Age: Adults	**Level:** Upper-Intermediate
6. You have just focused on changes in meaning of a question tag depending on how you say it. Then, you give your students a dialogue and want them to read it aloud paying attention to its meaning and use rising/falling intonation correctly. One of the students says **"you can't hear me, can you?"** with a rising intonation while he is supposed to use falling intonation.	

6.1. ☐ **I wouldn't correct it because ____.**

☐ **I would correct it because ____.**

a. You can't hear me, can you? (with a falling intonation)
b. You can't hear me, ***CAN YOU***? (with a falling intonation).
c. You need to say "you can't hear me, can you?" with a falling intonation because this is not a real question.
d. This is not a real question, so how do you need to say it?
e. You can't hear me?
f. You can't hear me, can you (rising intonation)?
g. I didn't quite catch that. Could you say that again please?
h. You can't hear me, can you (rising intonation) or can you (falling intonation)?
i. How do we ask this question? (to everybody in the clasroom)
j. ____

6.2. I would correct this error: ☐ *immediately* ☐ *at the end of the task / lesson*

6.3. What would you do if the students were young learners?

____.

6.4. What would you do if the students were at Pre-Intermediate level?

____.

Öz Geçmiş

Doğum Yeri ve Yılı	: Kocaeli - 1987		
Öğr. Gördüğü Kurumlar	**: Başlama Yılı**	**Bitirme Yılı**	**Kurum Adı**
Lise	2001	2005	Cahit Elginkan Anadolu Lisesi
Lisans	2005	2009	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Yüksek Lisans	2015	2019	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Bildiği Yabancı Diller ve Düzeyi	: İngilizce – İleri, Almanca – Ön Orta		

Çalıştığı Kurumlar	**: Başlama ve Ayrılma Tarihleri**	**Kurum Adı**
	1. 2005	Dilkofen Dil Okulları
	2. 2008 – 2016	UKLAACADEMY Dil Okulları
	3. 2016 – 2018	Özel Çakır İlkokulu

Yurt Dışı Görevleri : -

Kullandığı Burslar : -

Aldığı Ödüller : -

Üye Olduğu Bilimsel ve Mesleki Topluluklar : -

Editör veya Yayın Kurulu Üyeliği : -

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31.05.2019
Özlem CENGİZ

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

TEZ ÇOĞALTMA VE ELEKTRONİK YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Yazar Adı Soyadı	Özlem CENGİZ
Tez Adı	Yansıtıcı Bir Eğitim Programının Türk İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Sözlü Geri Bildirim Stratejileri Üzerine Olan Etkileri
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans
Tez Danışman(lar)ı	Prof. Dr. Zübeyde Sinem GENÇ
Çoğaltma (Fotokopi Çekim) İzni	☒ Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum ☐ Tezimin sadece içindekiler, özet, kaynakça ve içeriğinin % 10 bölümünün fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum ☐ Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin vermiyorum
Yayımlama İzni	☒ Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin veriyorum ☐ Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasının ertelenmesini istiyorum 1 yıl ☐ 2 yıl ☐ 3 yıl ☐ ☐ Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin vermiyorum

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

Tarih: 12.06.2019

İmza: