
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Gazi
1926

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS: INSIGHTS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

YUSUF DEMİR

PhD DISSERTATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

GAZİ UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

MARCH 2016

TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren .....(….) ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

YAZARIN

Adı : Yusuf
Soyadı : Demir
Bölümü : İngilizce Öğretmenliği
İmza :
Teslim tarihi :

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı : Ana dili İngilizce olan ve ana dili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sözel düzeltici dönütleri: yabanci dil öğretmeni eğitimi için kavrayişlar

İngilizce Adı : Oral corrective feedback by native and non-native English teachers: insights for second language teacher education

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Yusuf Demir

İmza :

JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

Yusuf Demir tarafından hazırlanan "Oral Corrective Feedback by Native and Non-native English Teachers: Insights for Second Language Teacher Education" adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi ……
Başkan: Doç. Dr. Paşa Tevfik CEPHE
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi ……
Üye: Doç. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi ……
Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gülşen DEMİR
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Ufuk Üniversitesi ……
Üye: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Neslihan ÖZKAN
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Ufuk Üniversitesi ……

Tez Savunma Tarihi: …../…../…….

Bu tezin İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Unvan Ad Soyad
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü ……

To my beloved family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In addition to a great number of other individuals who supported me throughout this study, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to the following people without whose support it would have been impossible for me to complete this dissertation.

First of all, I am deeply grateful to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen. I have learnt a lot from him and would like to do so in the future. I owe a debt of gratitude to him for his expert guidance, mentorship, assistance and understanding. I knew that he was always there to guide me through with his insightful comments whenever I felt desperate.

I would also like to express my gratitude to my committee members, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı and Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Demir for their invaluable advice and guidance. I am also thankful for their professional and personal support and interest in my study.

I wish to thank Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mustafa Yavuz and Inst. Mehmet Koçyiğit for giving me valuable suggestions and easing my mind about statistical procedures. I also thank Inst. Tahsin Atçeken for selflessly helping me montage the online courses. My special thanks go to Prof. Dr. Roy Lyster for commenting generously on the content of a part of the online course.

I am greatly indebted to the anonymous teachers, students, and the other administrative and academic staff from different universities who helped me collect data in different steps of the study.

Last but not least, I must mention how self-denying my dear wife Gülden Kaysılı Demir was throughout this daunting process. Her endless support, patience and understanding mean a lot to me. Many thanks also go to my dear father Hasan Demir and my beloved mother Ayşe Demir. It is their encouragement, prayers and trust on me that have always kept me on the track.

Thank you all.

ANA DİLİ İNGİLİZCE OLAN VE ANA DİLİ İNGİLİZCE OLMAYAN İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN SÖZEL DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜTLERİ: YABANCI DİL ÖĞRETMENİ EĞİTİMİ İÇİN KAVRAYIŞLAR

(Doktora Tezi)

Yusuf Demir

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Şubat 2016

ÖZ

Bir karma yöntem araştırması (mixed-method study) olan bu tez çalışması, araştırma ve ürün aşaması olarak iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır. Araştırma aşaması, Türkiye bağlamında ana dili İngilizce olan ve ana dili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce okutmanlarının sözel düzeltici dönüt uygulamaları arasındaki farklılıkları incelemeyi ve bu öğretmenlerin dönüt uygulamalarını etkileyen kültürlerarası etmenleri ortaya koymayı amaçlamıştır. Bu amaçla, ilk olarak, bir özel ve iki devlet üniversitesinden ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan yedişer okutmanın dersleri gözlemlenerek toplamda 36 saatlik sınıf içi etkileşim ses kaydına alınmıştır. Veriler, frekans, yüzde ve anlamlılık değerlerini ortaya çıkarmak için SPSS programı ile analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca, sınıf gözlemlerinden sonra, sınıf içi sözel dönüt uygulamalarına etki eden kültürlerarası etmenleri ortaya koymak amacıyla her iki okutman grubuyla tamamlayıcı görüşmeler (follow-up interviews) yapılmıştır. Görüşmelerin analizinde içerik analizi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Sınıf içi gözlemlerin sonuçlarına göre: (1) yeniden biçimlendirme (recast) ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan okutmanlarca açık ara en çok tercih edilen dönüt türüdür, ardından yönlendirme (prompt) gelmektedir. Ki-kare test sonuçlarına göre, okutmanların ana dilinin İngilizce olması/olmaması durumu ile öğrencilere verilen yönlendirme, ve yeniden biçimlendirme miktarları arasında ayrı ayrı anlamlı ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Yeniden biçimlendirme daha çok ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlarca kullanılırken, yönlendirme daha çok ana dili İngilizce olmayan okutmanlarca verilmiştir. Açık düzeltme (explicit correction) her iki grup tarafından da nadiren kullanılmıştır. (2) Ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlar öğrencilerin sözel hatalarına karşı ana

dili İngilizce olmayanlara göre daha hoşgörülü davranmışlardır. (3) Okutmanların ana dilinin İngilizce olması/olmaması durumu ile dilbilgisel ve sözcüksel hataların düzeltilmesi arasında ayrı ayrı anlamlı ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Ana dili İngilizce olmayan okutmanlar sözcüksel ve dilbilgisel hataları ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlara göre bir hayli yüksek oranda düzeltmiştir. Fakat, ana dilin İngilizce olması/olmaması ile sesbilimsel hataların düzeltilmesi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki gözlenmemiştir. Yine de, ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlar sesbilimsel hataları ana dili İngilizce olmayanlardan kısmen daha fazla düzeltmiştir. Ayrıca, ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlar değilse de ana dili İngilizce olmayan okutmanlar, dönütlerini hata türlerine dağıtmada oldukça tutarlı bir eğilim göstermişlerdir. (4) Yeniden biçimlendirme, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan okutmanlarca bütün hata türlerini ve özellikle sesbilimsel hataları düzeltmede en çok kullanılan dönüt türü olmuştur. Üç hata türünün düzeltilmesinde de, oransal olarak, ana dili İngilizce olan okutmanlar ana dili İngilizce olmayanlardan daha çok yeniden biçimlendirme kullanırken, ana dili İngilizce olmayan okutmanlar ana dili İngilizce olanlardan daha çok yönlendirme kullanmıştır. Nitel bulgular ise, Hendrickson'un (1978) temel soruları (hatalar düzeltilmeli mi ve nasıl, ne zaman, kim tarafından ve hangi hatalar düzeltilmeli), öğretmen eğitimi ve mesleki deneyimin dönüt uygulamalarına olan etkisi ve Türk öğrencilerin öğrenme alışkanlıkları ve dönüt tercihlerine yönelik, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan okutmanların bazı benzer ve farklı yaklaşımlarını ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, okutmanların düzeltici dönüte dair belirttikleri tercihler ve inançlarla, gerçek dönüt uygulamaları arasındaki uyuşmalar ve uyuşmazlıklar da belirlenmiştir.

Ürün aşaması ise sözel düzeltici dönüt üzerine çevrimiçi bir ders (ONOCEF) tasarımını, bir devlet üniversitesindeki İngilizce öğretmenliği programı 3. Sınıf öğrencilerine ters-yüz sınıf (flipped classroom) yöntemiyle uygulanmasını ve bu öğretmen adaylarının dönüt verme yeterlikleri üzerine etkilerinin değerlendirilmesini içermektedir. Öğretmen adaylarının sözel düzeltici dönüt odaklı çevrimiçi derse olan ihtiyaçlarını ve böyle bir dersten yararlanma isteklerini ortaya koyan ihtiyaç analizine bağlı olarak hazırlanan ONOCEF, ters-yüz sınıf modeliyle 30 aday öğretmene uygulanmıştır. Bu model, öğrencilerin okul dışında ONOCEF içeriğini çevrimiçi ortamlarda izleyip ardından bu içeriği (dönüt uygulamaları) dönüşümlü olarak gerçek sınıf ortamında mikroöğretim etkinliklerinde yansıtmalarını içermektedir. Mikroöğretim etkinliklerinden sonra, akranlarının düzeltme tekniklerini değerlendirmek ve uyguladıkları ONOCEF içeriklerini tespit etmek için izleyici aday öğretmenlerden akran değerlendirme formu şeklinde yansıtma raporları toplanmıştır. Yansıtma raporlarından elde edilen bulgulara göre, akranları tarafından gözlemlendiği üzere, mikroöğretim yapan aday öğretmenler ONOCEF sayesinde etkili bir şekilde dönüt vermişler ve farklı dönüt yöntemlerini kullanabilmişlerdir. Ayrıca, toplanan yansıtma raporlarından anlaşıldığı gibi, akranlarını değerlendiren öğrenciler, akranlarının yaptıkları/yapmadıkları düzeltmeleri teşhis etmede, dönüt türlerini adlandırmada ve akranlarının dönütlerindeki bazı kusurları belirlemede başarılı olmuşlardır. Sonuç olarak, ONOCEF' in hizmet öncesi öğretmen adaylarının sözel düzeltici dönüt verme yeterliklerini geliştirmede kullanılabilecek etkili bir çevrimiçi araç olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Sözel düzeltici dönüt, Ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan İngilizce öğretmenleri, Kültürlerarası etkiler, Hizmet öncesi İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimi, Çevrimiçi ders, Ters-yüz sınıf

Sayfa Adedi : 203

Danışman : Doç. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS: INSIGHTS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

(PhD Dissertation)

Yusuf Demir

GAZİ UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

March 2016

ABSTRACT

Employing a mixed-method study design, this dissertation is twofold: research phase and product phase. The research phase aims to investigate the differences between oral corrective feedback (OCF) practices of native and non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs & NNESTs) in the Turkish EFL context and reveal the cross-cultural influences that affect their OCF practices. To this end, firstly, classroom-based observations were conducted with seven NESTs and seven NNESTs at one private and two state universities for a total of 36 hours of audio recordings. The quantitative data which originated from the observations were analyzed via SPSS program in order to display frequencies, percentages and significance values. In addition, following the classroom observations, follow-up interviews were held with the teachers to explore the cross-cultural dispositions and influences that affect their OCF practices. The interview data was then subject to content analysis. The findings of the classroom observations showed that (1) recast was by far the most preferred type of OCF by both the NESTs and NNESTs, followed by prompts. In addition, chi-square test results showed that there were significant relationships between native/non-native status and the provision of recast and prompt, separately. The NESTs employed recasts more than the NNESTs, whereas the NNESTs provided more prompts than the NESTs. There were rare instances of explicit correction from the NESTs and NNESTs. (2) The NESTs were more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs. (3) There were significant relationships between native/non-native status and the correction of grammatical and lexical errors, separately. The NNESTs corrected grammatical and lexical errors at a considerably higher rate than the NESTs. However, no significant relationship

was found between native/non-native status and the correction of phonological errors. Phonological errors received OCF from the NESTs at a slightly higher rate than the NNESTs. In addition, the NNESTs displayed a highly consistent distribution in their proportioning of OCF to error types, which was lacking in the NESTs. (4) Recast was the NESTs' and NNESTs' most preferred strategy to correct all types of error, especially in the case of phonological errors. In the correction of phonological, grammatical and lexical errors, proportionally, the NESTs used more recasts than the NNESTs, while the NNESTs resorted to prompts more than the NESTs. The qualitative findings demonstrated some similar and different dispositions between the NESTs and NNESTs in terms of Hendrickson's (1978) framing questions (whether, how, when, and which errors should be corrected, and by whom) as well as the effect of teacher training and teaching experience on their OCF practices, and their conceptions about Turkish EFL learners' learning habits and the way they like to be corrected. What is more, some matches and mismatches were identified between the teachers' stated beliefs and preferences, and their actual OCF practices.

The product phase involved the design of an online course on oral corrective feedback (ONOCEF), its implementation through flipped classroom and evaluation with the 3rd grade ELT student teachers at a state university to find out if it exerts any impact on their competences regarding OCF. Following the needs analysis which revealed the ELT student teachers' stated needs and willingness to benefit from an online OCF course, the ONOCEF was developed and administered to thirty of them with the flipped model, which required them to take the ONOCEF input outside the school in an online platform and in turn show the evidence (i.e. OCF practices) in their microteaching performances alternately in the formal classroom. After the microteachings, reflection papers were collected from the non-performing student teachers in order to evaluate their performing peers' OCF techniques and reveal the ONOCEF components in their microteachings with a peer evaluation form. Findings of the reflection papers showed that by means of the ONOCEF, the performing student teachers were able to provide OCF effectively and use different OCF strategies as observed by their non-performing peers. Moreover, in view of the reflection papers delivered, the non-performing student teachers were successful locating their performing peers' non/corrections, identifying the shortcomings that were few in number in their OCF practices and labelling the types of OCF. As a result, the ONOCEF proved to be an effective online tool to help pre-service ELT teachers promote their competences regarding OCF.

Key Words: Oral corrective feedback, Native and non-native English-speaking teachers, Cross-cultural influences, Pre-service English teacher education, Online course, Flipped classroom

Page Number : 203

Supervisor : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ÖZ.....vi

ABSTRACT.....viii

LIST OF TABLES.....xiv

LIST OF FIGURES.....xvi

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....xvii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....1

1.0 Introduction.....1

1.1 Statement of the Problem.....5

1.2 Purpose of the Study.....6

1.3 Importance of the Study.....7

1.4 Assumptions.....8

1.5 Limitations.....8

1.6 Definition of Some Key Concepts.....9

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....10

2.0 Introduction.....10

2.1 Error.....10

2.1.1 A Historical Background to Error.....10

2.1.2 The Significance of Errors.....14

2.1.3 Categorization of Errors in Linguistic Level.....15

2.2 Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF).....16

2.2.1 OCF: Definitions and Views.....16

2.2.2 Identifying Types of OCF.....18

2.2.2.1 Explicit Correction.....19

2.2.2.2 Recast.....19

2.2.2.3 Clarification Request**.....20**

2.2.2.4 Metalinguistic Feedback**.....20**

2.2.2.5 Elicitation**.....20**

2.2.2.6 Repetition**.....21**

2.2.2.7 Recently Acknowledged Taxonomies: Input-providing and Output-prompting OCF**.....21**

2.2.3 Uptake.....22

2.2.4 Repair.....23

2.2.5 Theoretical Accounts on the Role of OCF.....24

2.2.5.1 Cognitive-interactionist Perspectives**.....24**

2.2.5.1.1 The Interaction Hypothesis.....24

2.2.5.1.2 The Output Hypothesis.....25

2.2.5.1.3 The Noticing Hypothesis.....26

2.2.5.2 Sociocultural Theory**.....26**

2.2.5.3 Skill Acquisition Theory**.....27**

2.2.5.4 The Nativist Perspective**.....27**

2.2.6 Theoretical Perspectives on Different OCF Strategies.....28

2.2.7 OCF in ELT Methodology.....29

2.2.8 OCF for New Knowledge vs. OCF for Consolidation.....32

2.2.9 Previous Research on the Effectiveness of OCF and Different OCF Types.....32

2.2.10 Questions Addressed on Error Treatment.....36

2.2.10.1 Should Learners' Errors Be Corrected?**.....36**

2.2.10.2 How Should Errors Be Corrected?**.....39**

2.2.10.3 Which Errors Should Be Corrected? **.....42**

2.2.10.4 When Should Learners' Errors Be Corrected?**.....45**

2.2.10.5 Who Should Do the Correcting?**.....47**

2.3 Contemporary Issues in Second Language Teacher Education.....50

2.3.1 Major Models.....54

2.3.1.1 The Craft Model**.....54**

2.3.1.2 The Applied Science Model**.....54**

2.3.1.3 The Case Studies Model**.....55**

2.3.1.4 The Integrative Model**.....56**

2.3.1.5 The Reflective Model**.....56**

2.3.2 Online Courses in Pre-service Teacher Education.....58

2.3.3 Teaching Oral Correction in Second Language Teacher Education.....61

2.4 Native and Non-native English-speaking Teachers.....63

2.4.1 Differences in NESTs' and NNESTs' Teaching Behaviour.....65

2.4.2 Error Correction Patterns of NESTs and NNESTs.....68

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....72

3.0 Introduction.....72

3.1 Design of the Study.....72

3.1.1 Research Phase.....72

3.1.1.1 Classroom-based Research**.....72**

3.1.1.1.1 Classroom Observations.....73

3.1.1.1.2 Analysis of the Classroom Interaction Data.....76

3.1.1.1.3 Procedure for the Coding of the Interactions.....78

3.1.1.1.4 Coding Definitions.....79

3.1.1.2 Qualitative Method: Interview**.....83**

3.1.1.2.1 Analysis of the Follow-up Interviews.....85

3.1.2 Product Phase.....86

3.1.2.1 An Online Course on Oral Corrective Feedback (ONOCEF)**.....86**

3.1.2.1.1 Objectives of the ONOCEF.....87

3.1.2.1.2 The ONOCEF Learning Outcomes.....88

3.1.2.1.3 What the ONOCEF Includes.....88

3.1.2.1.4 What the ONOCEF Is Not.....91

3.1.2.2 Procedure for the Design, Implementation and Evaluation of the ONOCEF.....**91**

3.1.2.2.1 Stage I: Needs Analysis.....92

3.1.2.2.2 Stage II: Design.....94

3.1.2.2.3 Stage III: Developing the ONOCEF.....95

3.1.2.2.4 Stage IV-V: Implementation (Flipped Classroom) and Evaluation.....97

3.1.2.2.5 Analysis of the Reflection Papers.....99

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS.....**101**

4.0 Introduction.....**101**

4.1 Findings of the Classroom Observation Research.....**101**

4.2 Findings of the Follow-up Interviews.....**110**

4.3 Findings of the Reflection Papers.....**122**

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....**129**

5.0 Introduction.....**129**

5.1 Preferred OCF Types by NESTs and NNESTs.....**129**

5.2 Tolerance of Error.....**133**

5.3 The Use of OCF According to Error Types.....**135**

5.4 The Use of Different Types of OCF According to Error Types.....**137**

5.5 Cross-cultural Influences on Oral Error Correction.....**139**

5.6 The Effects of the ONOCEF on the ELT Student Teachers' Competences Regarding OCF.....**150**

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION.....**152**

6.0 Introduction.....**152**

6.1 Summary of the Study.....**152**

6.2 Implications for Practice.....**156**

6.3 Suggestions for Further Research.....**157**

REFERENCES.....**159**

APPENDICES.....**188**

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. *Configurations of Cognitive and Affective Feedback*.....17

Table 2. *Approaches of Language Teaching Methods to Error and Error Correction*.....31

Table 3. *Classification of Input-providing and Output-prompting OCF Based on Explicitness*.....39

Table 4. *The Interaction of Models and Knowledge in SLTE*.....56

Table 5. *Instances of OCF Episodes and a Set of Considerations for Discussion*.....63

Table 6. *Advantages of NESTs and NNESTs*.....67

Table 7. *Information about the Observed NESTs*.....75

Table 8. *Length of the NEST Observations*.....75

Table 9. *Information about the Observed NNESTs*.....76

Table 10. *Length of the NNEST Observations*.....76

Table 11. *Coded Examples of Errors and OCF Moves*.....81

Table 12. *Findings of the First Part of the NAS*.....93

Table 13. *Findings of the Second Part of the NAS*.....94

Table 14. *Content of the ONOCEF*.....96

Table 15. *Schedule of the Flipped Process*.....98

Table 16. *Distribution of OCF Types Provided by the NESTs and NNESTs*.....102

Table 17. *The Number and Percentage of OCF Moves by the NESTs and NNESTs per Error type*.....105

Table 18. *Results of Significance within Each Group*.....106

Table 19. *Results of Significance between N/NN Status and the Correction of Different Types of Error*.....106

Table 20. *Distribution of Errors Receiving OCF from the NESTs and NNESTs across OCF Types and Error types*.....109

Table 21. *Results of Significance between N/NN Status and the Provision of Different Types of OCF for Different Types of Error*.....110

Table 22. *Instances of OCF Types Provided in Turkish by the NNESTs*.....133

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Notions of error in related disciplines.....13

Figure 2. A model of interaction.....14

Figure 3. Immersion teachers' OCF preferences for different types of error and their effects on different linguistic targets.....45

Figure 4. Reflective model.....58

Figure 5. The adapted model of error treatment sequence.....77

Figure 6. An excerpt of classroom discourse from one of the observed classes.....90

Figure 7. Stages of the ADDIE Model.....91

Figure 8. Percentage distribution of OCF types preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs...102

Figure 9. Rate of error correction by the NESTs and NNESTs.....104

Figure 10. Rate of OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs per error type.....105

Figure 11. Percentage distribution of error types and OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs per error type.....107

Figure 12. Percentage distribution of the types of OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs across error types.....109

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLTE	Second Language Teacher Education
OCF	Oral Corrective Feedback
NAS	Needs Analysis Survey
NEST	Native English-speaking Teacher
NNEST	Non-native English-speaking Teacher
ONOCEF	Online Course on Oral Corrective Feedback
ST	Student Teacher
PST	Performing Student Teacher
NPST	Non-performing Student Teacher

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

There are a number of teacher-bound variables in English language teaching (ELT) contexts. Among these, teachers' native-nonnative (N/NN) English speaker status is perhaps the most controversial variable pertaining to them in the literature. Both native and non-native speaker teachers of English (NESTs and NNESTs) have distinct teaching characteristics which they bring to the ELT environment, as illustrated in a number of studies (e.g., Medgyes, 2001; Yi & Jian, 2009; Ulate, 2011). Of these characteristics reflected in formal classes, the way NESTs and NNESTs provide oral corrective feedback (OCF)—responses to learner utterances containing an error (Ellis, 2006)—to language learners is a major issue of concern in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field, yet to be discovered.

In the relevant literature, a plethora of studies have addressed OCF in terms of internal and external factors such as instructional contexts (e.g., Lyster & H. Mori, 2006; Y. Sheen, 2004), laboratory versus classroom settings (e.g., Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2005), the focus, target and types of OCF provided and the following uptake (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Y. Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004; Russell & Spada, 2006; Long, 2007; Sakurai, 2014), student and teacher cognition, stated preferences and perceptions toward OCF (e.g., Schulz, 2001; Yoshida, 2008; R. Mori, 2011; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), length of intervention (explored in meta-analyses by Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010), individual learner factors including age (e.g., Havranek, 2002; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003), proficiency level (e.g., Mackey & Philp, 1998; Mackey, 1999; Ammar & Spada, 2006), anxiety (e.g., Y. Sheen, 2006), and so forth. However, limited attention has been directed to the source or *provider* of OCF, and only a dearth of studies

investigated the individual differences of language instructors, and how these differences could potentially relate to their OCF provision in the foreign language classroom and their beliefs about it (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Of these individual differences, the study of NEST/NNEST variable as the source of OCF is restricted to the investigations of their perceived differences (e.g., Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Braine, 2004; Mahboob, 2004; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Tatar & Yıldız, 2010). While the differences between NESTs' and NNESTs' beliefs about L2 learning and teaching, and their students' and colleagues' perceptions towards them are important, there is a lack of empirical evidence demonstrating that these perceptions are correct or that NESTs and NNESTs actually differ in the classroom from what they are believed to do (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). With all these in mind, it is the primary purpose of this study to unravel the classroom OCF practices of NESTs and NNESTs, and investigate the cross-cultural influences that affect their provision and decisions of OCF.

OCF is the response to learner utterances containing a linguistic error (Ellis, 2009) which constitutes an essential part of form-focused instruction (Pawlak, 2014). Either consciously or subconsciously, language teachers employ different OCF strategies by relying on one particular theory or a set of theories and hypotheses together. First of all, cognitive theories cast an important role to OCF because it is viewed as facilitative of second language (L2) development especially when the learners' main focus is on meaning, commit errors and receive OCF which they recognize as corrective. This way, they receive information about linguistic forms as well as form-meaning mappings, which show them how a particular linguistic form realizes a particular meaning in context (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Within cognitive paradigm, for Schmidt (1994), "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning" (p. 17). It is OCF which serves as a stimulus for noticing by triggering learners to recognize the gap between their interlanguage and the target form, leading to subsequent grammatical restructuring (Kassa, 2011). In a similar vein, Output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) attributes several roles to output such as enabling learners to notice the gap in their interlanguage system, try out their hypotheses about language forms and structures, and achieve metalinguistic awareness. In this respect, these cognitive accounts are inextricably linked in terms of the roles they attribute to OCF. In addition to the cognitive accounts of OCF, Sociocultural theory (SCT) which views learning as taking place through participation in cultural and linguistic settings such as family or peer interaction and in institutional contexts like schooling and

social activities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007) also values OCF because it can help learners achieve self-regulation through self-correction and thus ultimately learn how to use a feature correctly without assistance (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011). However, in order for OCF to be effective within SCT framework, it must be graduated, contingent and dialogic (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). Skill acquisition theory (SAT) (Johnson, 1996) also mentions the possibility of the independent use of target language (TL) in a similar way, arguing that a gradual transition from effortful to more automatic use of the TL is brought about through practice and OCF in meaningful contexts (DeKeyser, 2007). As a result, these theoretical accounts are important because they serve as a road map for teachers in their OCF provision and preferences. Alongside the aforementioned theoretical accounts and NESTs' and NNESTs' implicit theories of learning and teaching, cross-cultural influences may also help to explain why their OCF preferences might differ, that is why these influences are worthy of investigation in terms of the comparison of teachers' N/NN status within the borders of the present study.

Theories and hypotheses related to OCF might also have a say about the OCF strategy that is most likely to lead to acquisition. However, as Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) state, it might not be necessary or possible to come up with the most effective OCF strategy, thinking that combining various OCF types would be more effective than making use of one single OCF type. At this point, we should not ignore the fact that OCF types are not the only determinants of the effectiveness of OCF. Lyster et al. (2013) mention a variety of other factors such as instructional contexts, learners' proficiency levels, metalinguistic knowledge, and age that affect 'the ultimate effectiveness of [O]CF' (Sato, 2011, p. 7). As daunting a task as deciding on the most effective OCF strategy is its classification, being a complex one and having 'definitional fuzziness' (Lyster & Saito, 2010). For example, OCF is categorized in terms of its timing (immediate or delayed), learner involvement (input-providing or output-prompting), and explicitness (explicit or implicit). However, possibly the most comprehensive classification of OCF, also the one adopted for the purposes of the present study, is illustrated in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) data-driven model of error treatment sequence, in which they distinguished six different types of OCF (explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition). Later on, Ranta and Lyster (2007) grouped these types of OCF under two basic categories, namely, *reformulation* (recast, explicit correction) and *prompts* (clarification request, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic clues).

Whether novice or experienced, ELT teachers' practices of the abovementioned OCF types may often be haphazard. As a case in point, it has been observed by the researcher that the next time they encounter an error in a student's utterance that belongs to the same category of the previous error (for example, a grammatical error), teachers are likely to adopt a completely different OCF strategy without any valid reason or rationale to do so. This haphazardness probably derives from the fact that "the neophyte L2 teacher finds so little in the research literature to help deal with the very practical issue of what to do when students make errors in classrooms that are intended to lead to communicative competence" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 38). And still, today, "there is a need for research on what information is being disseminated to students in teacher education programs about [oral] corrective feedback" (Russell, 2009, p. 29). In parallel, Russell asks the following questions: 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 OCF based on current research? At this point, Ellis (2009) proposes that the teacher educator should adopt three roles in teacher development with reference to OCF: 1) to instigate and guide debate on OCF, (2) to help teachers see how their ideas about OCF reflect their overall teaching philosophy and thus to assist them to review this critically, and (3) to encourage teachers to identify specific strategies for conducting OCF that accord with their revised philosophy.

The researcher believes that in pre-service ELT teacher education, it is necessary to provide student teachers (STs) with both the theory and practice of OCF so that they can make informed choices in response to students' erroneous utterances in a wide array of teaching situations as they start profession. This necessity derives from insufficient amount of procedural OCF input provided in some of the ELT programs in Turkey, in addition to the difficulties facing Turkish ELT STs in applying their campus-based learnings to school-based practical courses (Yeşilbursa, 2011). As a remedy for pre-service teacher education, therefore, the present study further aimed to design and implement an online course on oral corrective feedback (ONOCEF) on ELT STs in an attempt to combine the theory and practice of OCF by presenting the theoretical accounts of OCF, relevant findings of research on OCF, authentic instances of OCF from real classes, and several classroom implications. While doing so, no certain OCF strategy was specifically

prescribed, given that "the single best strategy may be a chimera" (Ellis, 2012, p. 263) and the effectiveness of OCF is likely to differ from one context to another.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Research on OCF has grown considerably over the last few decades (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Some of the research on OCF has been carried out in laboratory settings (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Leeman, 2003; McDonough, 2007) and a good number of studies picked immersion classes as research settings (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; H. Mori, 2002; Lyster & H. Mori, 2006; J. Lee, 2007; Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2009). What is more, studies of OCF "appear mainly to involve L2 English or L2 French in either Canada or the USA" (Dilans, 2015, p. 1), in addition to some others in New Zealand English as a Second Language (ESL) and Korea English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts (Dilans, 2015). Another downside may be that the number of written CF studies notably overwhelm OCF studies although "the theoretical significance of CF research is perhaps more evident in the case of oral CF studies" (Ellis, 2010a, p. 335). These gaps point to the obvious need to conduct more research on OCF outside the countries of the inner circle and in formal classroom settings, serving as a springboard for the present study. Another problem concerning the studies of OCF is that only very limited amount of research investigated the link between individual factors regarding ELT teachers such as their N/NN status, pre-service education, teaching experience and their provision of OCF in the foreign language classroom (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010), although the teacher is often the primary source of L2 input (Philp & Tognini, 2009). Bearing these gaps in the field in mind, the present study intends to reveal the differences between the teachers' OCF practices under N/NN identity by observing their classes, and examines the cross-cultural influences on their OCF provision with follow-up interviews in order to find out which background factors (educational background, teaching experience, cultural dispositions and so forth) might have shaped their OCF practices.

Another problem identified by the researcher is the gap between the types of knowledge (i.e. declarative and procedural knowledge) in some of the ELT programs in Turkey in terms of the provision of OCF, which could be bridged with the introduction of the ONOCEF in the research context. Tarone and Allwright (2005) contend that a body of declarative knowledge about the nature of language teaching and learning cannot turn a novice into an effective L2 teacher. They are also of the belief that the content of academic courses in second language teacher education (SLTE) is rather decontextualized, limiting

learning to teach to the formal academe. In this respect, it is important to blend the knowledge base with the inclusion of the social context of learning, i.e. classrooms because experiential knowledge and received knowledge together take the novice teacher to professional competence (Wallace, 1991). The resulting product of this study, the ONOCEF, therefore, does not confine itself to declaratively teaching the theory of OCF. The ONOCEF further provides ELT STs with procedural input, and its implementation involves flipped classroom which enables them to practise OCF through the microteachings in formal classes. The end process makes the STs' OCF performances subject to peer evaluation. This way, the ONOCEF (with the input, implementation and evaluation phases) creates opportunities for reflection by getting STs to act deliberately to devise new ways of teaching (Posner, 1989), think analytically about their peers' teaching practices (Bullock & Muschamp, 2004), and what else they could have done (Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981). Ultimately, the implementation of the ONOCEF makes the relationship between received knowledge and experiential knowledge reciprocal, not one-way (Wallace, 1991) because the trainee can reflect on the received knowledge in the light of the input received from the ONOCEF.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The high ecological validity (Ellis, 2010b) and centrality of classroom observations to the growth of a deeper understanding about the interaction between the teacher and students (Spada & Lightbown, 2009) is widely acknowledged by the researchers in the field. Despite the importance of observational investigation of the features in classroom interaction including OCF, such studies merit little attention, and research on OCF is restricted to the portrayal of beliefs and perceptions of students and teachers toward OCF. Equally important is to gain insight into the underlying reasons for the classroom practices of teachers with individual difference factors such as N/NN status, and reveal their implicit theories of learning and teaching, and more specifically of OCF. Therefore, the incentive behind the present study is to unravel the NESTs' and NNESTs' actual classroom OCF preferences in tertiary education English language schools with regards to previous educational background of those group of teachers, the cultural dispositions behind their instructional practices and how all those are enacted in actual classroom settings. Some of the possible differences between the NESTs and NNESTs may stem from the cultural polarizations in addition to their pre-service teacher education. In order to fill the gap

between declarative and procedural knowledge of OCF in the present SLTE context as well as lacking others and cater to the need for more training on OCF pedagogy (Adugo, 2014), the present study also seeks to offer the ONOCEF as a remedy. Alongside the types of knowledge mentioned above, the ONOCEF provides a flipped learning environment, which requires ELT STs to receive the ONOCEF input online outside the school and in return display the evidence of this input (i.e. OCF practices) in their microteachings in formal classes. In addition to fostering reflection-in-action (in their own microteaching) and reflection-on-action (by observing peers), the ONOCEF bridges the gap between theory (theoretical underpinnings of OCF) and practice (through authentic OCF instances and classroom implications derived from research findings), and received and experiential knowledge.

In line with these concerns and objectives, the following research questions will be investigated:

1. What are the types of OCF preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs in Turkey?
2. How tolerant are NESTs and NNESTs of errors?
3. Which errors are corrected more frequently by NESTs and NNESTs?
4. What types of learner errors lead to what types of OCF by NESTs and NNESTs ?
5. Are there any cross-cultural influences that affect OCF preferences of NESTs and NNESTs?
6. Does the proposed ONOCEF exert any impact on EFL student teachers' competences concerning OCF?

1.3 Importance of the Study

Classroom-based studies often target features in classroom interaction such as scaffolding, OCF, learner uptake, turn-taking, sequence organization, repair and so forth (İnan, 2012). These kind of studies are ecologically valid and highly valued by practitioners (Ellis, 2010b) because they are "most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of learners" (Spada & Lightbown, 2009, p. 159). Despite the widely-acknowledged importance of classroom-based research, it is really surprising and paradoxical to find that the differences in teaching behaviors of NESTs and NNESTs have been studied to a large extent only at perception level, i.e. as perceived by their colleagues and students. These studies often instantiated what was stated or thought rather than what

was actually practised. This being the case, the main significance of this study is that it has a classroom-based research design in essence, and the primary data comes from a large quantity of observations in natural classroom settings. In addition, the present study is probably one of the earliest with a focus on the role of teachers' N/NN identities in their OCF giving patterns. This study is considered important also in that it will provide insight into the understanding of cross-cultural influences such as teacher education, professional experience and cultural polarizations on teachers' OCF preferences. It is further hoped that the present study will pave the way for fruitful future studies of this neglected side of OCF research, especially in terms of its research design and objectives.

1.4 Assumptions

As the main data collection tool, classroom observations were conducted in twenty tertiary education English language classes. Broadly speaking, close to 400 Turkish EFL students from three different universities in Turkey were audio recorded together with their NESTs and NNESTs. It is mainly assumed that during the classroom observations, these students spoke artlessly and their instructors acted and performed just as in their usual unobserved teaching practices.

The second assumption of this study is that the NESTs and NNESTs sincerely and honestly responded to the interview questions. To verify this assumption, interviews were conducted in a cyclical manner in order to make it possible to revisit the similar issues. In addition, apart from the researcher's analysis and categorization, the qualitative data was crosschecked and categorized by an independent expert, resulting in a satisfying agreement on analyses and 90% similarity between the categories.

Lastly, it is assumed that the EFL STs frankly reported their reflections on their peers' microteaching performances, alongside providing consistent responses throughout the needs analysis.

1.5 Limitations

In this study, classroom observations were conducted not through video, but through audio recordings. This might have caused the researcher to miss certain bodily moves such as gestures, mimics and so forth, which could represent or accompany the observed teachers'

OCF. What is more, having observed a limited number of NESTs and NNESTs, the obtained findings cannot be enough in themselves to make universal generalizations.

Before setting out to design the ONOCEF, a needs analysis was carried out to 182 3rd grade STs attending the ELT programs at one private and two public universities in Turkey. They mostly scored that they need an online course on OCF and would consider benefiting from it. However, this specified instructional need cannot be generalized to all the pre-service EFL teachers in Turkey. In addition, the implementation of the ONOCEF is limited to the third grade EFL STs at one ELT Program at a public university. Therefore, their reflections do not represent those of pre-service teachers in other universities.

1.6 Definition of Some Key Concepts

Error (A functional definition):

A learner utterance which includes non-standard expressions and suffers lack of perfection in terms of pronunciation, grammar and lexis (Kamiya, 2014), irrespective of the presence or absence of teacher's reaction to the ill-formed utterance.

Oral corrective feedback:

Responses to learner utterances containing an error (Ellis, 2006).

Flipped classroom:

The reversed version of traditional classroom, in which content instruction is assigned to learners as homework, and practice & application is performed in the classroom (Lane-Kelso, 2015).

Uptake:

A learner utterance that immediately follows the teacher's OCF 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 (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Repair:

The correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a conceptual and theoretical framework for the study and includes a number of theoretical perspectives, approaches and research studies relevant to the concept of error, OCF, SLTE and NESTs/NNESTs. Close links among the aforementioned topics are also built under each section.

2.1 Error

This section examines the notion of error within the domains of linguistics and language pedagogy. First, it presents the approaches to the notion of error in a historical framework. Then, it examines the significance of errors to L2 learners and teachers in the course of interaction, followed by the categorization of errors in linguistic level.

2.1.1 A Historical Background to Error

As a linguistic and pedagogical construct, much effort has been made by linguists/psycholinguists, methodologists and SLA researchers in different developmental processes of foreign language teaching to provide insight into the notion of *error*. More than 70 years ago, Fries (1945) suggested that the most effective materials for learning a foreign language are those that are based on a scientific description of the TL and a parallel description of learners' first language (L1). This was in fact a seminal implication of Contrastive Analysis (CA), which viewed errors as a result of L1 interference and transfer of native language habits into L2 use. CA assumed that if certain elements of a TL differ greatly from the learner's native language, the learner is likely to encounter difficulties (Lado, 1957). Therefore, the linguist or teacher was assigned the role to identify the

similarities and differences between the learner's L1 and TL so that linguistic difficulties and potential errors in the TL could be eliminated, and language teaching syllabus would be prepared on that basis (Kassa, 2011). Yet, it was soon realized that CA had limited practical application in the classroom (Nemser, 1971), not all the errors were a result of L1 interference (Duskova, 1969), and potential difficulties predicted by CA did not turn out to be so in reality (Nickel, 1971). In addition, Error Analysis, an enterprise to validate the predictions of contrastive analysis by gathering and analyzing the speech and writing of L2 learners, gave way to studies whose results showed "an increasingly large 'residue' of errors that did not in fact seem to be caused by transfer as contrastive analysts had predicted" (Tarone, 2006, p. 748). Behaviorist paradigm, which also had close ties with CA, "at that time seemed to be completely negated by psychologists and linguists" (Rensburg, 1983, p. 64). Deeply rooted in behaviorism, Audiolingualism was also challenged, stressing error correction at all costs with the assumption that they lead to the formation of bad habits. This view was in opposition to Corder (1967) who emphasized the centrality of errors for L2 learners because by making errors, they try out their hypotheses about the language they are learning.

The field has undergone a transformation starting from 1970s up to the present with Interlanguage theory (Selinker, 1972), cognitive (Krashen, 1981) and social (Long, 1991) accounts of SLA on error correction and its influence on SLTE (Özmen & Aydın, 2015). To begin with, errors occupied a significant place in L2 learner's unique linguistic system which Selinker (1972) referred to as *Interlanguage*, and it was this system which sheltered the sources and repair of error. However, Krashen's naturalistic principles viewed errors as signs of naturalistic developmental processes specific only to acquisition, not learning, and in his view, error correction would help with the development of learned rules, which cannot lead to acquisition (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). What is more, The Natural approach, developed by Terrell (1977) in an attempt to incorporate the naturalistic principles put forward by Krashen into classroom instruction, also considered error correction "negative in terms of motivation, attitude and embarrassment" (p. 330), and viewed error correction as unnecessary and counterproductive (Han, 2002a). Chomsky's (1986) theory of Universal Grammar (UG), in parallel with his attribution of very little role to error correction in L1 acquisition, also "view the changes in the learner's interlanguge as the result of positive linguistic evidence only" (Méndez, Arguelles, & Castro, 2010, p. 257). Krashen's (1985) view that comprehensible input was the only necessary cause for

SLA, disregarding the role of purposeful intervention, was challenged by Swain's (1985) Output hypothesis and Long's (1996) Interaction hypothesis. While Swain argued that output is a prerequisite for L2 development because by producing output, learners notice the gap in their interlanguage system and achieve metalinguistic awareness, Long posited that L2 acquisition cannot be simply explained by nativist or environmentalist theories. Input is not enough per se, interaction is also required for language learning to take place. For Long, the negotiation of meaning as a result of a problem in communication leads to interactional modifications and these modifications make it possible for learners to get the necessary input from their interlocutors for L2 learning. From this perspective, the Interaction hypothesis leaves an opportunity for negative input to have a role in language learning (Lochtman, 2002). More recently, Truscott (1999) raised criticisms towards error correction. He contended that correction disturbs the ongoing communication and diverts the students' and teacher's attention from the essential communicative tasks. He also questions why a busy teacher should devote so much time and effort to mastering error correction which he thinks is most likely to be unsuccessful. Yet, thesedays, in the post-method era when language teaching methodologists tend to affirm the necessity of error correction (Ur, 1996), such criticisms might be a chimera if one considers the large number of studies (e.g., Han, 2002a; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Lyster et al., 2013) which found error correction and OCF to be useful and necessary in formal instruction. In the post-method era, the methodologists recognize the cognitive contribution OCF can make, while at the same time raising concerns about the potential affective damage it can do (Ellis, 2009).

Since the concept of error forms a research ground for several disciplines, it is necessary to come up with a localized understanding of it within the borders of this study. Therefore, it is important to understand how error is viewed by the related disciplines. For example, "the notion of 'error' in ELT appears to differ markedly from that of 'error' in linguistics/psycholinguistics" (N. Lee, 1990, p. 56). Modern psycholinguistic theories consider speech errors to reflect breakdowns in various components of the speech production process (Traxler, 2012). On the other hand, the field of ELT holds a pedagogical view on the concept of 'error'. As a case in point, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) targets the development of fluency and acceptable language use (Han, 2002a), which therefore holds a tolerant view of errors. Since the focus is on meaning rather than form within CLT framework, "the correction of grammatical errors is not of

primary importance" (Russell, 2009, p. 22). In Figure 1, N. Lee (1990) broadly delineates the notions of error in related disciplines.

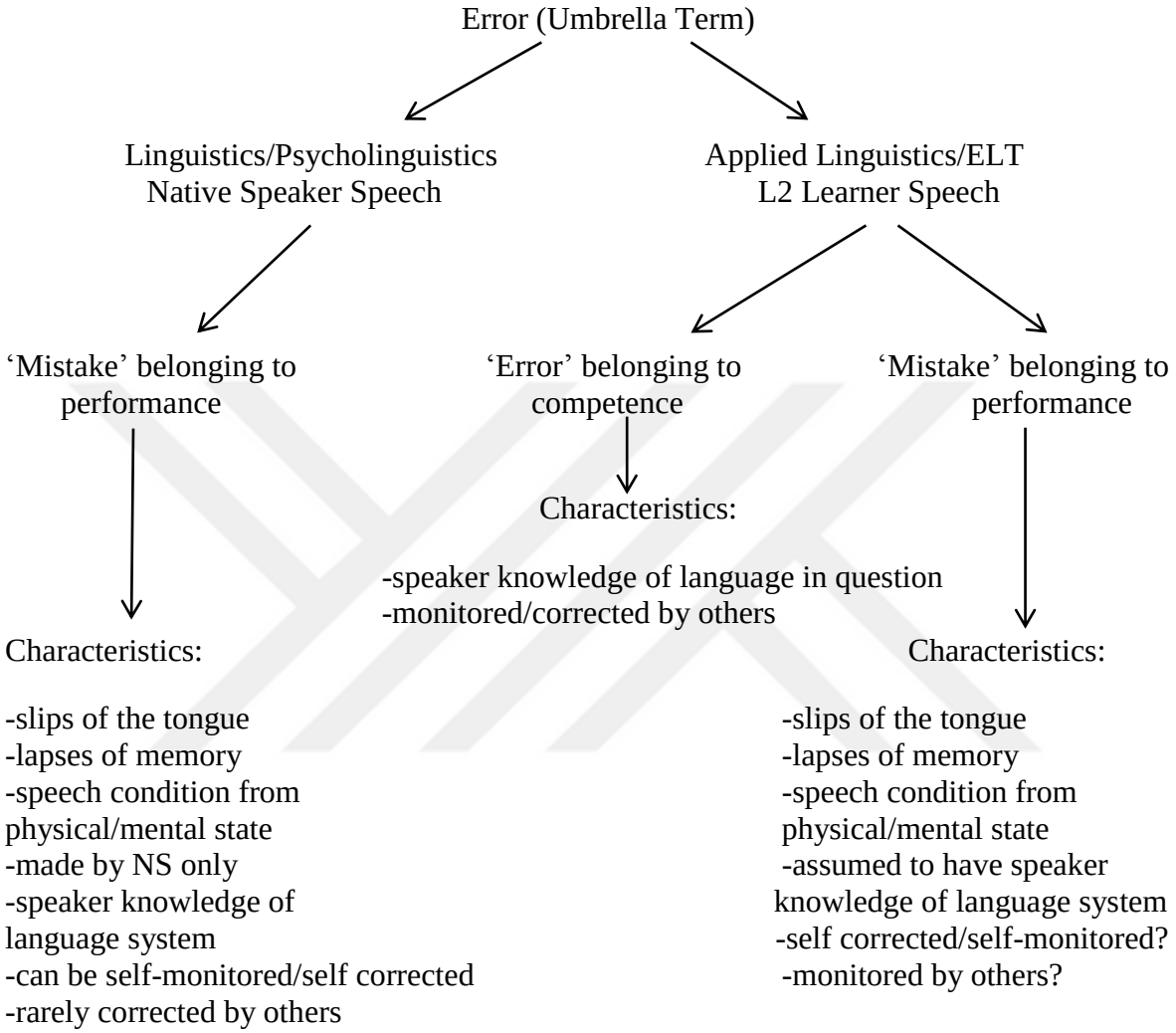


Figure 1. Notions of error in related disciplines (N. Lee, 1990)

As a classroom-based SLA research, this study adopts the notion of error in accordance with the view of Applied Linguistics/ELT field on error, which is a result of lack of competence in L2 and can be monitored and corrected by more proficient others. This study identified learners' speech errors on a certain basis while decoding the database of interaction between the teachers and their students. Therefore, for the purposes of the current study, the following definition of error was appropriated: any learner utterance which suffers lack of perfection in terms of pronunciation, grammar and lexis, irrespective of the presence or absence of teacher's reaction to the ill-formed utterance.

2.1.2 The Significance of Errors

It is the case that errors benefit both L2 learners and teachers in formal instruction. The making of errors is a device and strategy which the learner uses in order to learn (Corder, 1967). While this is undoubtedly true and applies to every L2 learner, it is necessary to view the concept in the course of interaction to better understand its place in interaction.

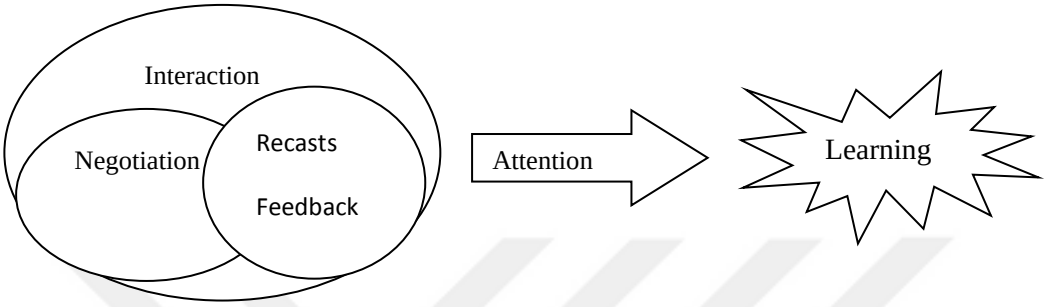


Figure 2. A model of interaction (Adapted from Gass & Selinker, 2008)

In this model of interaction, errors are the origin of different forms of negotiation. Negotiation, as a form of negative evidence (i.e. the information of what is not possible in TL) and as a way of providing OCF to errors, serves the function of initiating change because of its focus on incorrect forms (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Recast, as a tool for negotiation, provide learners with both negative and positive evidence (Long, 2007). Yet, given its implicit nature, many different ways of provision, and being weak in helping to locate the error (Chaudron, 1977), theoretical arguments fall into dispute regarding to what extent recast serves the function of making errors noticed. Rather, it is *prompts* that serve for the noticing (the gap) and triggering (testing hypotheses) functions by pushing learners to produce modified output, and therefore receives theoretical support from Output hypothesis. Having noticed the error in some way, the learner searches input. If not available by the teacher or peers around, then (s)he tries to produce modified output. As a result, OCF in negotiated interaction provides learners "with information about the success (or, more likely, lack of success) of their utterances and gives additional opportunities to focus on production or comprehension" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 329-330). However, this must be fulfilled in the mindfulness of attention (selective attention), which draws learners' attention on parts of their language that diverge from NS language through negotiation and other types of corrective interaction focus (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Consequently, as illustrated in Figure 2 above, in order for error to end up with learning, it

must be negotiated in a meaningful interaction, receive OCF for noticing or treatment, and then must be processed through conscious attention to ill forms.

In conclusion, in the light of the relevant links, it may be said that errors are helpful to learners because they provide evidence of the system of the language they are using, and a way learners have of trying out their hypotheses about the nature of language they are learning, and thus a device they use for learning (Corder, 1967). For teachers, errors serve as a scale informing them of the extent to which learning occurred and of what still remains to be taught. Errors also give teachers an idea about what other classroom activities to perform and what extra materials to bring to the classroom for the repair and prevention of reoccurences of errors. In a way, along with other evidences from the learner output, errors draw a road map for teachers in their decisions to set the duration of formal instruction, balance the focus on form and meaning and reserve the appropriate amount of practice (Zhu, 2010). For researchers, they provide a research ground to discover, identify and analyze errors and investigate further classroom applications to minimize them.

2.1.3 Categorization of Errors in Linguistic Level

A prominent categorization of error is made with reference to linguistic level: grammatical (morpho-syntactic), phonological, lexical and discourse errors (N. Lee, 1990; James, 1998). Communicative competence, the aspect of our competence that leads us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings within specific contexts (Hymes, 1972), comprises four types of competence, i.e. grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Grammatical (morpho-syntactic), phonological and lexical errors essentially result from lack of grammatical competence (sentence-level), which is "the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactical and phonological features of a language" (Savignon, 2002, p. 9). This competence enables speakers to use knowledge and skills necessary for understanding and expressing the literal meaning of utterances (Bagarić, 2007).

Since grammar of a language covers syntax (the way words combine to form sentences) and morphology (the form of words) (Huddleston, 1984), grammatical errors include non-target like use of syntactical and morphological features including determiners, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, pronouns, tenses, auxiliaries in addition to errors in pluralization, negation and question formation. N. Lee (1990) notes that morphosyntactic errors can impede overall intelligibility and may thus seriously affect

communication at the global level. Lexical errors also play an important role in L2 vocabulary acquisition and are among the most frequent errors, and therefore it is important to identify and remedy them, given their potential to pose problems in communication (Llach, 2005). James (1998) divides lexical errors into two groups: formal errors (misformations or distortions) and semantic errors (for example, collocational errors). As for phonological errors, they relate to errors in pronunciation which were shown in some cases to be a result of transfer from L1 to L2 in a number of studies (Ülkersoy, 2007). In addition, they are likely to affect intelligibility even more than morphosyntactic errors (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Lastly, lack of discourse competence which is one of the four components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) and the ability "to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances" (Brown, 2007, p. 219-220) often lead to discourse errors. Lack of discourse competence results in pragmalinguistic deviations which are often a result of intercultural influences, i.e. cultural differences related to what is appropriate social behaviour in certain settings (James, 1998).

2.2 Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF)

2.2.1 OCF: Definitions and Views

Feedback is a teacher act which is directed to inform students of the well-formedness or ill-formedness of the TL production (Nunan, 1991). In order to better understand its sub-sets, it is necessary to distinguish between positive feedback and negative feedback. Positive feedback is affirmative in intent. It may be oriented to the correctness of the content of a learner's utterance or linguistic accuracy. Nunan (1991) informs that positive feedback signals to learners that they have performed correctly and that it fosters motivation through praise by providing affective support to the learner. Negative feedback, on the other hand, has a corrective function and "signals, in one way or another, that the learner's utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). Han (2002a) provides a crude example of positive feedback and negative feedback below.

Positive feedback: Yes, that's correct.
Negative feedback: No, that's wrong. (p.6)

Vigil and Oller (1976) make a distinction between affective feedback and cognitive feedback and discuss how positive or negative feedback may have differential effects on

learning. They present different configurations between the two types of feedback as in Table 1.

Table 1

Configurations of Cognitive and Affective Feedback

Cognitive feedback	Affective feedback
+	-
+	+
-	-
-	+

(Vigil and Oller, 1976 as cited in Han 2002a)

They are of the belief that "the configuration made up of cognitive feedback being negative (-) and affective feedback positive (+) is most likely to stimulate change/development" (Vigil and Oller, 1976 as cited in Han 2002a, p. 6).

Corrective feedback is often used by SLA researchers synonymously with negative feedback. As Schachter (1991) specifies, L1 acquisition researchers tend to use the terms 'negative data' or 'negative evidence', whereas psychologists are inclined to use the term 'negative feedback' in lieu of the term 'corrective feedback'. It is apt to use corrective feedback hereafter to refer to negative data/evidence or negative feedback throughout the current research. Corrective feedback can be oral or written, but the present study will focus on OCF only. In Chaudron's (1977) own words, OCF is "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (p. 31). Oladejo (1993) makes a similar role casting for OCF: "[OCF] enables the learner to confirm, disconfirm, and where necessary modify the hypothetical, transitional rules of his interlanguage" (p. 72). Perhaps, the simplest, yet not the least functional definition is made by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006): "[Oral] corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain an error." (p. 340). The response, they state, can consist of (1) an indication that an error has been committed, (2) provision of the correct TL form, or (3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these.

OCF is a necessary condition for L2 learning (Bley-Vroman, 1986; White, 1991), and an essential component of explicit teaching (DeKeyser, 1994; Schmidt, 1994). In addition, "an increasing number of SLA studies show that [O]CF plays a role in L2 learners' interlanguage development" (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p. 266). Support for OCF comes not

only from SLA research but also from several theoretical underpinnings that will be discussed in detail in the following chapters.

For the purposes of the present research, it is pertinent to use the following definition of OCF: "Any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31), which encompasses in its entirety what Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggested as the types of OCF.

2.2.2 Identifying Types of OCF

As a matter of course, analyses of L2 classroom interaction elicit a number of ways teachers can correct learners' oral errors. Then, it is no surprise that "the earliest studies centering on [oral] corrective feedback focused on classifying, analyzing, and quantifying the different corrective moves observed in language classrooms and student reactions to these moves " (Lennane, 2007, p. 13).

An early study conducted by Fanselow (1977, p. 585) identified 16 different ways of oral error treatment. These are:

1. No treatment
2. Acceptance of response containing error
3. Setting the task again with no new information provided
4. Provision of correct response orally
5. Correct response is given orally by another student
6. Gives part of correct response or established cue in a different medium
7. Gives information about the incorrect utterance (such as provision of a rule)
8. Presents alternatives
9. Repeating of the incorrect utterance with rising intonation
10. Provision of indirect information
11. Stops a student from continuing without explicitly correcting it
12. Indicates no with a gesture
13. Says "no" or "uh-uh"
14. Gestures plus says "no" or "uh-uh"
15. Says "no" and repeats a student's incorrect utterance
16. Miscellaneous: student stops in mid-response and corrects self; teacher simply waits and student starts again without error.

In their classroom recordings of content-based French immersion classes, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six basic types of OCF used by teachers. These are: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. Actually, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) OCF categorization is in a way a condensed designation of the alternatives presented by Fanselow (1977). Though the two overlap to a large extent, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categorization is more practical in that it allows for a systematic grouping of teachers' corrective moves, thus serves better for research purposes.

In addition to the OCF strategies mentioned above, Ellis (2009) views paralinguistic signals as a feedback strategy, in which the teacher uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has committed an error.

L: Yesterday I *go* cinema (Error – grammatical)
T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past) (Feedback – Paralinguistic signal) example from Ellis, 2009, p. 9)

2.2.2.1 Explicit Correction

Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined explicit correction as the explicit provision of the correct form by the teacher. As the teacher presents the correct form, he or she openly indicates that what the student had uttered was incorrect (e.g., "Oh, you mean...", "You should say...").

(1) S: *Copying*. (Error – lexical)
(NN 3) – (day3) : It is not *copying*, but cheating. (OCF – explicit)

(2) S: "I *doed* my homework yesterday afternoon." (Error – grammatical)
T: "No, not *doed* – did." (OCF – explicit) (example from Othman, 2012, p. 73)

2.2.2.2 Recast

Long (1996) defines recasts as "utterances that rephrase a [learner's] utterance by changing one or more sentence components (subject, verb, or object) while still referring to its central meanings" (p. 434). They involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. Recasts took different names by different researchers, such as 'paraphrase' (Spada & Frohlich, 1995), 'repetition with change' and 'repetition with change and emphasis' (Chaudron, 1977).

(1) S : When I go to shop with mom, very *hot*. (Error – lexical)

(N 3) – (day3) : Okay, very hot-tempered. (OCF – recast)

(2) S: I have many *book*. (Error – grammatical)
T: Oh, you have many books. (OCF – recast) (example from Kartchava, 2006, p. 16)

2.2.2.3 Clarification Request

Clarification requests indicate to learner that his or her utterance is either linguistically deviant or the utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher. Clarification requests include phrases such as "Pardon me", "I am sorry?" etc.

(1) S: *Which the*… ? (Error – grammatical)
(NN 7) – (day6) : Which what? (OCF – clarification)

(2) S: *result* of something (Error – phonological)
T: What did you say? (OCF – clarification) (example from Suzuki, 2004, p. 9)

2.2.2.4 Metalinguistic Feedback

"Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 47).

(1) S:Yesterday, I *have been*.. (Error – grammatical)
(NN 1) – (day1) : You must use simple past. (OCF – metalinguistic)

(2) S: My *foots* are very cold. (Error – grammatical)
T: Do we add plural-s to irregular nouns? (OCF – metalinguistic) (example from Dilmaghani, 2014, p. 57)

2.2.2.5 Elicitation

Elicitation is targeted at eliciting the correct form from the student. Elicitation can be realized in a number of ways. Teachers either (1) get learners to complete their utterances by strategically pausing to allow students to *fill in the blank*, (2) direct questions to elicit correct forms, or (3) ask students to reformulate their utterances.

(1) S: Sometimes weather is *snow*. (Error – lexical)
(NN 2) – (day2) : Weather is… (OCF – elicitation)

(2) S: *Maloa*. (Error – pronunciation)
(N 5) – (day3) : Tell me Again? (OCF – elicitation)
S: Mauna Loa.

2.2.2.6 Repetition

In this OCF move, the teacher repeats, mostly in isolation, the student's erroneous utterance. Teacher's repetition is often accompanied by an adjusted intonation in order to highlight the error.

(1) S: When I don't understand what *garden* is in Japan, (Error – phonological)
T: [kuden]? (OCF – repetition) (example from Suzuki, 2004, p. 10)

(2) S: Da Vinci has different *theory*. (Error – grammatical)
(N 1) – (day6) : Da Vinci has different *theory*? [with stress] (OCF– repetition)

2.2.2.7 Recently Acknowledged Taxonomies: Input-providing and Output-prompting OCF

The early tendency to refer to single OCF types independently gave way to broad categorizations in time, partly because this would allow for a more tangible narration of their pedagogical positions and functions in classroom interaction. Ellis (2006) compressed Lyster and Ranta's (1997) six basic OCF strategies into two broad taxonomies under the labels of *input-providing* and *output-prompting* OCF. In a similar vein, Ranta and Lyster (2007) coined the terms *reformulation* and *prompts*, corresponding to Ellis's (2006) terms, respectively. Essentially, both efforts have adopted the same categorization for each OCF type, and exactly for the same grounds. Reformulation (input-providing OCF) includes recasts and explicit correction on the grounds that both provide learners with target reformulations of their nontarget output. Prompts (output-prompting OCF) include elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and teacher repetition. Prompts are different from reformulation in that "they withhold correct forms and instead provide clues to prompt students to retrieve correct forms from what they already know" (Ranta & Lyster, 2007, p. 152). Initially, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified recast as an OCF strategy leading to the *negotiation of meaning*, a move which is targeted at resolving communication breakdowns and working toward mutual comprehension (Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989); and output-prompting OCF types as the moves leading to

the *negotiation of form*, which occurs when the teacher indicates that there is a formal error, and the learner is left the opportunity to correct his or her own error. Yet, later on, Ranta and Lyster (2007) abandoned the term *negotiation of form* in order to avoid confusion with negotiation strategies comprising the negotiation of meaning, and instead used *prompts*.

In their recent taxonomy, Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) also make implicit and explicit distinction for input-providing and output-prompting OCF types. They regard prompts such as repetition and clarification request as implicit, and metalinguistic clues and elicitation as explicit OCF moves. However, in their view, recast can be implicit or explicit. They can be implicit when they have a conversational function and take the form of a confirmation check as a response to a failure to understand the learner's utterance; or they can be more explicit when they have a didactic function and target learner's erroneous utterance even if it has not caused a communication problem (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

2.2.3 Uptake

Previously, the term uptake was used in a more general sense. Slimani (1992) defined it as "what learners claim to have learned from a particular lesson" (p. 197). However, a pioneering definition specific to learner reactions to OCF was provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Uptake "refers to 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" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 49).

It may be assumed that when learners produce uptake in response to the OCF by the teacher, they have noticed the difference between their non-target utterances and correct forms. However, this may not always be the case. As Kassa (2011) notes, it may be nothing but a parrot-like response that only serves a discoursal function. Therefore, although uptake may be one way of showing which linguistic items learners have acquired or attended to following the OCF by the teacher, it may be misleading to consider uptake a certain measure of L2 acquisition in itself. As Mackey and Philp (1998) revealed, for example, students who did not uptake the teacher's correction acquired certain linguistic forms.

2.2.4 Repair

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study identified two forms of uptake: (1) uptake that results in *repair,* that is, successful correction of the erroneous utterance by the student in response to the OCF by the teacher, and (2) uptake which still contains an error, thus *needs-repair*. This means that while some students build successfully on the OCF by the teacher, others fail to do so.

Panova and Lyster (2002) inform that *repair* can take the following forms: self-repair, peer-repair of error, repetition or incorporation of OCF.

- self-repair: students self-correct their errors upon the OCF by the teacher.
- peer-repair: the correction of errors by peers in response to the OCF by the teacher.
- repetition: students repeat the correct form provided by the teacher.
- incorporation: students repeat the correct form provided by the teacher, then combine it into a longer utterance.

The *needs-repair* category includes six types of learner utterances.

-same error: students repeat the initial error in response to the OCF by the teacher.

-different error: students make a different error in response to OCF that target the initial error.

-partial repair: the initial error is partly corrected by the student.

-hesitation: students hesitate to respond to teachers' correction of the error.

-acknowledgement: students acknowledge their teachers' correction of their errors simply by saying 'Yes'.

-off-target: Students bypass the teacher's linguistic focus, without including any further errors.

Students' needs-repair moves often arise the need for an additional OCF, leading to the extension of error treatment sequences.

The following example is typical of an OCF episode, which includes error, OCF and uptake (repair) (optional).

(1) Student: I *eated* some cereal. (erroneous utterance)
Teacher: You what? You... (OCF-multiple, clarification + elicitation)
Student: I ate some cereal. (repair-self repair) (example from Lennane, 2007, p. 11)

2.2.5 Theoretical Accounts on the Role of OCF

There are several theoretical positions and disputes on the role of OCF in L2 acquisition. It is a negotiable issue in different theories of SLA; however, "SLA does not afford a unifying view of [O]CF" (Ellis, 2010b, p. 17).

2.2.5.1 Cognitive-interactionist Perspectives

Cognitive-interactionist theories argue that OCF makes a significant contribution to L2 acquisition. This is made possible "when the participants are focused primarily on meaning, commit errors and receive feedback that they recognize as corrective. In this way, learners receive information not just about linguistic form but also about form-meaning mappings" (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 595), which help them see how a particular linguistic form realizes a particular meaning in context. Below is an example of how form-meaning mapping is realized in a student-teacher interaction.

S1: *What* do you spend with your wife?
T: What?
S1: *What* do you spend your extra time with your wife?
T: Ah, how do you spend?
S2: How do you spend. (Ellis & Y. Sheen, 2006, p. 581)

The form-meaning mapping in the above conversation between the teacher and the students is explained by Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011, p. 595) as follows:

> Here Student 1 (S1) asks the teacher a question about how he spends time with his wife but erroneously uses "what" instead of "how." This elicits a request for clarification from the teacher (T), to which S1 responds by extending his original utterance but with the same error. T then recasts S1's utterance and this is uptaken by Student 2 (S2). In this way the learners are able to see that the meaning they wish to convey in this context requires the use of the linguistic form "how" not "what".

Ellis (2010b) addresses three main interactional-cognitive perspectives relevant to OCF: the Interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), the Output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) and the Noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1994).

2.2.5.1.1 The Interaction Hypothesis

Long's (1996) Interaction hypothesis posits that L2 acquisition cannot be simply explained by nativist or environmentalist theories. Input is not sufficient per se, both input and

interaction are required for language learning to take place. The negotiated interaction between the learner and the teacher facilitates L2 development. Long (1996) contends that "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor" makes connections among "input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (p. 451-452), and therefore paves the way for L2 learning. The negotiation of meaning as a result of a problem in communication leads to interactional modifications and these modifications make it possible for learners to get the necessary input from their interlocutors for L2 learning. For Lochtman (2002), since OCF by nature only occurs as embedded in interaction, the Interaction hypothesis leaves an opportunity for negative input to have a role in language learning. Moreover, Y. Sheen (2004) articulates the claims made by the proponents of the Interaction hypothesis that "implicit negative feedback, arising from negotiation for meaning, provides an opportunity for learners to attend to linguistic form" (p. 265).

2.2.5.1.2 The Output Hypothesis

In 1980s, the immersion programs, especially those in Canada, became prominent with their success. Krashen (1985) attributed the success of immersion programs to plenty of 'comprehensible input' received by children, the basic requirement for language acquisition in his view. Yet, Kassa (2011) argues that "a closer look at the immersion students revealed their speaking and writing skills were noticeably weaker", and "this finding triggered doubts about the validity of Krashen's (1985) Input hypothesis, especially about the claim that comprehensible input was the only necessary cause for [SLA]" (p. 26). This being the case, Swain (1985) proposed the Output hypothesis to further explain the reasons for language acquisition to take place. Swain's (1985) Output hypothesis emphasizes the role of output in L2 learning and she attributes several roles to output. By producing output, she asserts, learners notice the gap (between what they want to say and what they can actually say) in their interlanguage system, try out their hypotheses about language forms and structures, and achieve metalinguistic awareness. OCF is considered to be a trigger for raising such awareness.

2.2.5.1.3 The Noticing Hypothesis

According to Schmidt (1994), "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning" (p.17), which is the part of the input the learner notices. Schmidt acknowledges that both conscious and sub-conscious processes are involved in language learning. However, he asserts that consciousness-raising plays a vital role in language learning, by adding that conscious attention must be paid to input for L2 learning to continue. It is also important to note here that learners learn from their errors and they should also be made aware of the errors they commit. Unless they notice their errors, they may fail to notice the gap in their interlanguage system. From this point of view, along with the proponents of the Noticing hypothesis who already appreciate the effectiveness of OCF in drawing learners' attention to form (Ellis, 1994; Robinson, 1995), Kassa (2011) suggests that "[O]CF serves as a stimulus for noticing because such feedback triggers learners to recognize the gap between their interlanguage and the target form – which in turn leads to subsequent grammatical restructuring" (p. 25).

2.2.5.2 Sociocultural Theory

Associated with the work of Vygotsky, SCT includes different constructs. The fundamental concept of SCT is that the human mind is *mediated*, and we use symbolic tools or signs to mediate and regulate our relationships with others (Lantolf, 1994). One form of mediation is *regulation* through which children develop the capacity to regulate their own activity through linguistic means by engaging in mental and physical activities which are initially regulated by others. Ultimately, *self-regulation* is made possible through *internalization*, which is the process of changing an erstwhile external assistance to a new tool that is internally available to the individual (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Another important SCT construct is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is the distance between the actual developmental level and the level of potential development determined through adult guidance or more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978), or in more pedagogical terms, the difference between what a learner can do alone and what (s)he can do while working with an expert (Lantolf, 2000). SCT views language learning as dialogically based; that is, acquisition occurs *in* rather than *as a result of* interaction (Ellis, 2009). L2 acquisition is not an individual process, rather it occurs between the individual and other persons. From the SCT perspective, OCF is considered to contribute to learners' performing specific linguistic features with the help of a more expert other by *scaffolding*.

This assistance is provided within the learner's ZPD through the interactive dialogues. The ultimate goal of such assistance through OCF is to help "the learner to move from other-regulation in the [ZPD] to self-regulation, where the learner is finally able to use a linguistic feature correctly without assistance" (Ellis, 2010b, p. 17). Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) propose several guidelines regarding the effectiveness of OCF within SCT framework: (1) it must be graduated—no more help than is necessary should be provided at any single time; (2) it must be contingent—it must reflect actual need and be removed when the learner demonstrates an ability to function independently; and (3) it is dialogic—it involves dynamic assessment of a learner's ZPD.

2.2.5.3 Skill Acquisition Theory

SAT points to the entailment of a gradual transition from effortful to more automatic use of the TL, brought about through practice and OCF in meaningful contexts (DeKeyser, 2007). Lyster (2011) maintains that proponents of SAT advocate the use of instructional techniques that are oriented towards developing learners' automaticity in their use of TL. The role of practice in developing automaticity in TL use is heavily emphasized, as in DeKeyser's (2007) own words: "Skill acquisition theory first of all teaches us that considerable practice is required to automatize a skill" (p. 215). What is more, OCF is the other element that is attributed a major role in SAT by assisting "learners to proceduralize their declarative knowledge of the L2" (Ellis, 2010a, p. 336). The reason for attributing such a role not only to practice but also to OCF is that "the learner needs feedback on how well he or she is doing" (Ur, 1996, p. 243). In other words, the learner needs the information of how well he or she is practising the acquired language forms, which (s)he can reflect on in order to reach a greater level of automaticity.

2.2.5.4 The Nativist Perspective

Chomsky's (1975) Nativist theory added a new dimension to L1 acquisition by handling the issue from a congenital point of view. For the nativists, what makes language acquisition possible is Universal Grammar (UG), "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements of properties of all human languages" (p. 29), and moreover, human beings depend on a 'Language Acquisition Device (LAD)' to acquire languages. Through this device in their mind, people learn the rules of a language subconsciously as a result of

exposure to positive evidence. Accordingly, Lyddon (2007) states that UG theoreticians (e.g., Grimshaw & Pinker, 1989; Pinker, 1991) in general do not consider negative evidence to play any role in language acquisition. The reason for their allocating a very limited role to negative evidence is the idea that even though parents hardly provided OCF, their children managed to acquire their L1. As a reflection of UG theory to SLA, "UG advocates view the changes in the learners's interlanguge as the result of positive linguistic evidence only" (Méndez et al., 2010, p. 257). In addition, Leeman (2007) points out that some L2 researchers working within the UG paradigm have suggested that negative evidence is irrelevant for the acquisition of L2 syntax (e.g., Beck, Schwartz, & Eubank, 1995; Gregg, 1996).

2.2.6 Theoretical Perspectives on Different OCF Strategies

According to Ellis (2010a), SLA theories differ not only in the importance attached to OCF, but also in the type of OCF hypothesized needed for L2 acquisition. Moreover, Lyster and Saito (2010) comment that the comparison of different OCF types can make theoretical contribution to SLA because of the different types of input (positive or negative) they provide and the different types of processing they activate. While interactionist and skill-learning theories have come up with controversial hypotheses with regards to which OCF type, input-providing or output-pushing, best promotes L2 acquisition, SCT rejects the view adopted in cognitive accounts of OCF and manifests that there is no one single type of OCF that is the most effective for L2 learning (Ellis, 2010a). Instead, a SCT perspective emphasizes the provision of OCF types in accordance with learners' developmental level. Though SCT does not overtly favor any OCF strategy, Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) lay stress on the role of OCF in assisting learners to achieve self-regulation through self-correction in SCT account of OCF, which justifies the use of prompts for eliciting modified output and self-correction as further supported by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) who point out from a SCT view that learning involves moving away from other-repair toward more reliance on self-repair.

Long's Interaction hypothesis assigns a primary role to OCF in the form of recasts because "recasts are inherent to conversational interaction and serve to incite learners to notice the gap between their non-target output and target forms in the input…" (Lyster et al., 2013, p.10). What is more, Long (2007) maintains that recasts are useful in that they provide learners not only with the information of what is correct in the language (i.e. positive

evidence) but also with negative evidence which signals that there is an error. Recasts, in his view, do not interrupt the flow of communication thanks to their 'implicit and non-obtrusive delivery' (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 10).

On the other hand, Output hypothesis provides theoretical support to prompts because by pushing learners to produce modified output, prompts serve for the noticing (the gap) and triggering (testing hypotheses) functions of output. Moreover, as de Bot (1996, as cited in Lyster et al., 2013) argues, L2 learners benefit more from being pushed to retrieve TL forms than from merely hearing the forms in the input because retrieval and subsequent production can strengthen associations in memory. Prompts also receive direct theoretical support from SAT, due to the fact that they "provide learners with instances of negative evidence combined with cues leading to the retrieval of alternative forms, thus allowing for opportunities to practice emergent target forms in contexts of interaction" (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p. 270).

In closing, highlighting from a theoretical perspective is also made in terms of the timing of OCF. Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) inform that a key feature of cognitive theories is that OCF is provided on-line in what Doughty (2001) has called 'a window of opportunity' (i.e. at a time that the learner is cognitively primed to attend to the correction). For Doughty, a more or less immediate partaking in OCF should be assured if it is to activate the cognitive mechanisms that are responsible for acquisition. Since, "delayed [O]CF leads to focal attention on form resulting in explicit rather than implicit L2 knowledge" (Doughty, 2001 as cited in Ellis, 2009, p. 11).

2.2.7 OCF in ELT Methodology

The issue of error correction is widely dealt with in language teaching methodology. This part of the literature review will focus attention not only on the methods that employ OCF use, but also on those which do not favor OCF in instructional settings. To begin with, Audiolingual method, a prominent behaviorist teaching model, stressed error correction at all costs. Learners should be prevented from committing errors because they lead to the formation of bad habits. As Russell (2009) puts it: "Behaviorists… strove to avoid and overcome them [errors] by providing speedy examples of correct responses" (p. 21).

The Natural Approach, developed by Terrell (1977) in an attempt to incorporate the naturalistic principles put forward by Krashen into classroom instruction, involves a series

of views on error correction, arising from Krashen's several hypotheses. For example, according to the Acquisition/Learning hypothesis which suggests that "acquisition is the natural way, paralleling L1 development …, formal teaching is necessary for learning to occur, and correction of error helps with the development of learned rules" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 181). Such a way of learning, it is claimed, cannot lead to acquisition. In Natural Order hypothesis, it is suggested that certain grammatical structures are acquired before others in L1 acquisition, which may also be the case for SLA. This hypothesis claims that "errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not during learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their native language is" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 182). Last but not least, in the Affective Filter hypothesis, one of the other fundamental tenets of the Natural Approach, affective concerns are of primary importance in the language classroom and error correction is "negative in terms of motivation, attitude and embarrassment" (Terrell, 1977, p. 330). Eventually, Ranta and Lyster (2007) summarize Krashen's (2004) view on OCF in L2 pedagogy by noting that "the idea of a pedagogical intervention to help learners focus on form is incompatible with Krashen's theoretical model in which neither metalinguistic information nor output practice can influence the developing L2 system" (p. 147).

More recently, CLT is targeted at the development of fluency and acceptable language use (Han, 2002a). Within CLT, errors are tolerated and they are viewed as indicators of the development of communication skills. CLT favours meaning over form. Therefore, "the correction of grammatical errors is not of primary importance" (Russell, 2009, p. 22). When accuracy is assessed, it is always done in context (Omaggio- Hadley, 2001).

Table 2 provides a list of several language teaching methods, which more or less contributed to language pedagogy, accompanied by their perspectives on errors and error correction.

Table 2

Approaches of Language Teaching Methods to Error and Error Correction

Teaching Method	Viewpoints on error and error correction
Grammar Translation Method	Providing students with the correct answer is considered very important. If students make errors or do not know an answer, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer.
The Direct Method	The teacher, employing various techniques, tries to get students to self-correct whenever possible. Self-correction facilitates language learning.
The Silent Way	Errors are important and necessary to learning. They show the teacher where things are unclear.
Desuggestopedia	Errors are corrected gently, not in a direct, confrontational manner.
TPR	Correction should be carried out in an unobtrusive manner.
Task-based Language Teaching	The teacher supplies the correct target form by reformulating or recasting what the students have said.

(Compiled from Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011)

In the post-method era, language teaching methodologists are more likely to affirm the need for OCF (Ur, 1996), but they are "less inclined to be prescriptive about [it]" (Ellis, 2009, p. 4). They recognize the cognitive contribution OCF can make, while at the same time raising concerns about the potential affective damage it can do (Ellis, 2009). Ur (1996) concludes by saying that "there is certainly a place for correction" but "we should not over-estimate this contribution" (p. 243).

2.2.8 OCF for New Knowledge vs. OCF for Consolidation

Whether OCF is targeted at initiating the acquisition of completely new knowledge or OCF is for consolidating the already existing knowledge is a fresh debate initially triggered by Lyster et al. (2013). They raise objections to Long's (2007) claims that in providing OCF, acquisition of new knowledge is the primary goal and that OCF is not intended to automatize the retrieval of already existing knowledge. In response to such claims, Lyster et al. (2013) state that "…the ultimate goal of instruction is not to continuously present only new knowledge to students, without providing enough subsequent opportunities for assimilation and consolidation of that knowledge. In school-based learning, students need repeated opportunities to retrieve and restructure their knowledge of the target language" (p. 13). As Hattie and Timperley (2007) contribute, "feedback can only build on something; it is of little use when there is no initial learning or surface information" (p. 104). Lyster et al. consolidate their views by emphasizing that OCF can be used to revise target items and grammatical subsystems in such a way to vitalize the network of associations which could lead students to accurate production during communicative interaction. They further argue against the proponents of OCF-for-new-knowledge who assert that recasts are effective because they target forms that are yet unknown to learners (Goo & Mackey, 2013). At this point, Lyster et al. question how a recast can be provided on a form of which learners lack the knowledge. This challenge is also supported by Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) who state "recasts can be effective if the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature and is in a position to choose between linguistic alternatives" (p. 752). Lyster et al. (2013) put an end to this argument by remarking that "even if it were feasible to provide [O]CF following erroneous forms about which learners have no prior knowledge, such feedback (i.e. [O]CF requiring the integration of completely new information) would not be as effective as feedback triggering associations between existing knowledge structures" (p. 14).

2.2.9 Previous Research on the Effectiveness of OCF and Different OCF Types

The effectiveness of OCF and differential effects of OCF types have been investigated in a plethora of studies. While some of those studies centered on immersion settings, many others were carried out in second/foreign language classrooms. Laboratory or classroom settings were utilized depending researchers' concerns about controlling for the variables. With regards to the effectiveness of OCF, Lyster et al. (2013) suggest that OCF plays a

pivotal role in providing scaffolding to promote continuing L2 growth. In addition, Lyster and Saito (2010) note that "an increasing number of SLA studies show that [O]CF plays a role in L2 learners' interlanguage development" (p. 266). Further support on the effectiveness of OCF was lent by Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) with the manifestation of the evidence that OCF—in one form or another—can benefit acquisition.

Ellis (2010b) reminds that one way of resolving some of the conflicting findings in OCF research is to scrutinize the meta-analyses of experimental studies available in the literature. Thus, it would be a logical move to regard meta-analyses as useful and comprehensive sets of research findings which may enable SLA researchers and classroom practitioners to draw clear conclusions about the effectiveness of OCF. Basically, four featured meta-analyses of OCF are available published between 2006 and 2010 (Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010), and no other meta-analysis of OCF has appeared in the literature since then. Russell and Spada's (2006) meta-analysis indicated that OCF facilitates L2 acquisition with a large effect size of 1.16, but the limited number of studies in the meta-analysis made it impossible to find out which OCF types are more effective. The meta-analysis conducted by Mackey and Goo (2007) showed that OCF provided in interactions has a large effect size of 1.09 in delayed posttests. Moreover, Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis—focusing specifically on classroom settings, totaling 15 studies—also revealed that OCF had considerable and lasting effects on TL development. Lastly, Li's (2010) meta-analysis with a collection of 33 studies including published studies and PhD dissertations highlighted that OCF had a medium effect on L2 acquisition with an effect size of 0.64, and this effect was observed to be durable.

Despite the idea that "searching for the single 'best' strategy may be a chimera" (Ellis, 2012, p. 263) due to individual differences and contextual variables, the issue of which OCF type is more / the most effective has been investigated in a large number of studies. Comparisons centered largely around recasts versus prompts, though many other comparisons were made between and among different OCF types.

Lyster et al. (2013) feature some of the benefits of recasts such as their appropriateness for the communicative classroom discourse, keeping students' focus on meaning, providing scaffolding for learners' participation in interaction and not interrupting the flow of communication, as well as being salient, semantically transparent, immediate and convenient for making comparison (Mackey & Goo, 2007). In addition, Han's (2002b)

study revealed that intensive recasting helped to develop learner's noticing and their knowledge of grammatical features. On the other hand, Corder (1967) stated that "simple provision of the correct form may not always be the only, or indeed the most effective form of error correction since it bars the way to the learner testing alternative hypotheses" (p. 168). Another shortcoming of recasts is mentioned by Chaudron (1977) with the utterance that recasting, i.e. 'repetition with change' in his definition, is "especially weak in helping to locate the error" (p. 41). Making way for prompts, Lyster and Ranta (2013) suggest that good teaching should be accompanied by participatory demands on students, and one effective way of doing this is to push learners to modify their output. They further argue that the fact that prompts include more than one way of providing negative evidence while withholding positive evidence contributes to their effectiveness. Moreover, as Lyster (2004) claims, prompting serves to increase control over already-internalized forms, that is, it facilitates learners' transition from declarative to procedural knowledge.

Shanshan (2012) examined the effect of different OCF strategies on learners' uptake in a Chinese EFL context. The findings demonstrated that output-prompting OCF types elicited a lot more learner uptake than input-providing strategies. Safari (2013) investigated the relationship between an Iranian EFL teacher's OCF practices and low-intermediate EFL learners' uptaking in Iranian schools in Kuwait. The results revealed that elicitation and repetition led to considerably more learner uptake than recasting did. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) oft-cited study that was carried out in a French immersion setting also showed that recasts resulted in the lowest rate of uptake, whereas prompts elicited higher rates of uptake. Besides, all the prompts led to peer- and self-repair, which would be impossible for recast and explicit correction because they already provide correct forms. Lochtman (2002) analyzed the role of different OCF types in form-focused teaching in a German as a foreign language class in Belgium. Findings showed that both recast and explicit correction led to uptake almost 48% of the time, while this rate was 98% for both metalinguistic feedback and elicitations. Given the relationship between OCF types and rates of uptake as reflected in the studies reported above, however, it is important to note here that the immediate uptake of recasts doesn't equate to L2 learning (Long, 2007) and learners' responses to recasts may be 'red herrings' (Mackey & Philp, 1998, p. 338).

Comparisons of different OCF types focused not only on the scrutiny of their roles in eliciting learner uptake and repair, but also their effect on the acquisition of different linguistic targets. Rassaei and Moinzadeh (2011) examined the effects of recasts,

metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests on the acquisition of Wh- questions in an Iranian EFL context. Findings revealed that recasts and metalinguistic feedback had a significant impact on learners' performance on the post-test, while clarification requests did not. Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) analyzed the differential effects of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of grammatical gender by adult L2 learners of French in the context of dyadic interaction. Results revealed that both recast and prompt groups made considerable progress in their accuracy over time. Y. Yang and Lyster (2010) conducted a quasi-experimental study to compare the effects of recasts and prompts on the university-level Chinese EFL learners' use of regular and irregular English past tense. It was found out that prompts had larger effects than recasts on increasing accuracy in the use of regular past tense forms. However, prompts and recasts had similar effects on improving accuracy in the use of irregular past tense forms. Ammar and Spada (2006) compared the effects of prompts and recasts on the acquisition of possesive determiners by learners of different proficiency levels in an ESL setting in Canada. Though both recast and prompt groups largely benefited from the instructional interventions, prompts proved to be more effective than recasts. While high-proficiency learners benefited equally from both prompts and recasts, low-proficiency learners benefited from prompts a lot more than recasts. Y. Sheen (2007a) investigated the effects of recasts and metalinguistic explanations on the use of English articles by adult ESL learners. Findings made clear that the metalinguistic group outscored the recast group. Saito and Lyster (2012a) examined the effect of recasting in form-focused instruction on improving the pronunciation of /ɹ/ among Japanese learners of English. The findings obtained through listener judgments and acoustic analyses revealed that only those who received recasts during the tasks demonstrated gains both at a controlled-speech and spontaneous-speech level. Lastly, Dilans (2010) compared the effect of prompts and recasts on L2 vocabulary development in an ESL context in the United States. The findings revealed that recasts and prompts were equally beneficial in the short term and that prompts were slightly more advantageous in the long term. Yet, it was only the prompt group that demonstrated significant gains over time on all three dimensions of vocabulary development (i.e. 'partial-precise' knowledge, 'depth of knowledge' dimension, 'receptive-productive' dimension, as classified by Henriksen, 1999).

In conclusion, it would not be wrong to say that there are also incongruent comparative OCF studies whose results might be at odds with the majority of the related research on OCF. Therefore, no generalization can be made for classroom practitioners with one

hundred percent certainty and representation rate. However, Lyster et al. (2013) made a summary of the experimental classroom studies of OCF and they drew the conclusion that OCF is more effective than no OCF and that learners receiving prompts or explicit correction gain more benefits on some measures than those receiving recasts.

2.2.10 Questions Addressed on Error Treatment

In his seminal article *Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching: Recent Theory, Research, and Practice,* Hendrickson (1978) handles pivotal issues facing L2 teachers with respect to where to stand in reaction to learners' oral errors in classroom interaction. These issues are covered separately in the following questions.

2.4.1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2.4.2. How should errors be corrected?
2.4.3. Which errors should be corrected?
2.4.4. When should learners' errors be corrected?
2.4.5. Who should do the correcting?

These framing questions are investigated here under the chapter 'Oral corrective feedback', not 'Error' by virtue of the fact that they do not place specific focus on errors but pertain directly to L2 teachers' practical decisions regarding error correction, i.e. OCF provision.

2.2.10.1 Should Learners' Errors be Corrected?

Errors and error correction have long been a real matter of debate among SLA researchers and teacher trainers. Tenets for and against error correction have frequently been borrowed from language teaching methods and approaches. Separate views on error correction have specifically been focused within the frame of different theories, hypotheses and approaches in previous sections. Now, a brief historical overview could serve as an introduction to Hendrickson's (1978) first framing question regarding whether learner errors be corrected and may help to better understand the viewpoints on errors and error correction.

The history of language teaching methodology has witnessed several fluctuations in its effort to explain the place of errors. In the peroid of Audiolingualism which dominated 1950s, errors were metaphorically equated with 'sins' (Brooks, 1960) and learners' L1 habits were kept responsible for the errors in L2 learning. Thus, the best thing a linguist could do was to identify the similarities and differences between the learner's L1 and TL,

namely, contrastive analysis. So that, potential errors could be prevented while learning a foreign language. Accordingly, foreign language teaching materials and syllabus could be prepared in compliance with that basis. However, it didn't take linguists a long time to come to realize that contrastive analysis failed to embrace all the errors committed in the TL. Following the challenges against Audiolingualism, Nativist/Mentalist theories had a say based on Chomsky's (1986) 'Theory of Universal Grammar', and it was proposed that human beings place dependence on the 'Language Acquisition Device (LAD)' to acquire languages. It is this device leading subconsciously to learn the rules of a language, and native speakers of a language were able to produce ample speech even if they were exposed to limited language input. This view attributed very little role to error correction given that children acquire their L1 somehow. In addition, L2 errors were considered universal in nature regardless of how similar or different the learner's L1 and TL could be (Kassa, 2011). Another stance against error correction was heavily emphasized by Terrell (1977) and Krashen (1981, 1982). In Acquisition/Learning hypothesis, he suggested that error correction helps with the development of learned knowledge, not acquired knowledge. Moreover, Terrell (1977) believed that affective rather than cognitive factors are prominent in language classes and error correction may result in negative attitudes and motivational problems. Shortly, Natural Approach viewed error correction as unnecessary and counterproductive (Han, 2002a).

A more current criticism towards error correction was raised by Truscott (1999). He put forward a handful of reasons for the uselessness of error correction. In the first place, he claimed, correction disturbs the ongoing communication and diverts the students' and teacher's attention from the essential communicative tasks. Also, learners may avoid expressing themselves freely, thinking that their oral production might lead to correction. Besides, Truscott (1999) underlines the difficulty of tailoring corrections to the cognitive needs of individual students even in the case of most dedicated teachers, and he further questions why a busy teacher should devote so much time and effort to mastering error correction which he thinks is most likely to be unsuccessful.

However, today, in the post-method era when language teaching methodologists tend to affirm the necessity of error correction (Ur, 1996), such criticisms may sound harsh at times. There are many prominent SLA researchers and a growing number of studies (e.g., Han, 2002a; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Lyster, et al., 2013) that have come up with the result that error correction and OCF are useful and necessary,

particularly in instructed SLA settings. Of course, these researchers do not propose that all L2 errors should be corrected unexceptionally in every context all the time. (Which errors should be corrected will be analysed in the next sections separately). Rather, they offer an elaborate selection and practice for the treatment of errors. For example, according to Han (2002a), fine-tuning is central to the efficacy of OCF. He draws a delicate line between teacher's intention and student's interpretation, and between teacher's correction and student's readiness for it.

In order to address the point in question from an instructional perspective, it is necessary to touch upon the following language teaching modes proposed by Long (1991, 1996): focus on meaning, focus on forms (FonFS) and focus on form (FonF). Obviously, focus on meaning corresponds to meaning-focused instruction (MFI) which is based on the belief that language is a tool for communication rather than an object of study in itself and that the main focus should be on meaning and communication in L2 classes (Loewen, 2011). On the other hand, FonFS places emphasis on isolated linguistic structures without any communicative need and views language as an object to be studied. FonF, as Long (1991) explains, "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 45-46). While the presentation and practice of discrete components of language is a common example of FonFS, Loewen (2011) characterizes OCF as a common practice of FonF. He has reasonable grounds to do so because both FonF in general, and OCF more specifically as a FonF practice, focus on form temporarily and spontaneously in the course of interaction and communication in L2 settings. That's why the question of how legitimate FonF is in L2 instruction directly poses an answer to how important or necessary error correction, namely, OCF is. Some MFI proponents strongly reject FonF (Krashen, 1982, 1985, 1994; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Schwartz, 1993), thinking that there is too much emphasis on linguistic items and such a discrete attention on linguistic structures does not develop L2 learners' implicit knowledge. Also, Ellis (2006, as cited in Loewen, 2011) claims that no firm conclusion can be reached about the relative effectiveness of FonF and FonFS. However, a closer and more insightful look at FonF will reveal that it does not handle linguistic items separately in a regular progression. Rather, it puts temporal and spontaneous attention to linguistic forms during communicative or meaning-based activities. For this reason, R. Sheen (2003, 2005), for example, does not find FonF enough in itself and even goes further to justify the need for FonFS instruction. Moreover, as

Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis revealed, both FonF and FonFS resulted in gains for L2 learning. In addition, four meta-analyses (Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010) found medium-to-large effect sizes on the benefits of OCF for L2 acquisition. In conclusion, when all those are considered, it would not be an overstatement to verbalize that FonF, and more specifically OCF as a common FonF practice, if not indispensable, is "a legitimate option in the L2 classroom" (Loewen, 2011, p. 580)

2.2.10.2 How Should Errors Be Corrected?

The degree of explicitness and obtrusiveness has dominated the main discussions on how errors should be corrected, i.e. preferences for OCF. Two broad taxonomies exist in the case of OCF. These are, as introduced by Ranta and Lyster (2007), reformulation and prompts, which are respectively named by Ellis (2006) as input-providing and output-prompting OCF. In Table 3, Ellis (2009) provides a taxonomy of OCF strategies, classifying them in terms of explicitness and implicitness.

Table 3

Classification of Input-providing and Output-prompting OCF Based on Explicitness

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

Recast deserves specific attention thanks to its theoretical significance. With several reasons for being hotly-debated by SLA researchers, recasting enjoys a high pedagogical popularity among L2 teachers as an implicit OCF strategy. Recasting can take many different forms. For example, it may occur by itself or in combination with another OCF strategy (e.g. repetition + recast); it may be performed with rising intonation (i.e., as a confirmation check) or with falling intonation (i.e., as a statement); it may or may not include emphasis on the problematic form; it may be partial, reformulating only the erroneous part or the reformulation of all of learner's utterance; it may focus on correcting only one or more than one feature (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Y. Sheen, 2006; Ellis, 2009). The way recast is provided considerably affects its degree of noticeability. However, the

main reason for recasts to be considered implicit is that learners do not necessarily notice the modification provided with recasts. As highlighted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), it is really interesting that recasts are referred to as 'e´chos' in French even though they are not identical replications of the student's utterance; they are called echoes because learners may perceive them as such. Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) further the point and state that recasts can be conversational and implicit when they are in the form of a confirmation check as a response to a failure to understand the learner's utterance. Besides, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) transcripts of classroom interaction unfold a large number of teacher repetitions of learners' well-formed utterances; "teachers do this consistently so as to reinforce what students have said and to build further on students' statements" (p. 57). As a result, a great deal of ambiguity arises in these communicative classrooms as students are expected to sort out whether the teacher's intentions are concerned with form or meaning. Adding to these viewpoints, for example, a research by Egi (2007) revealed L2 learners' responses to recasts. Learners did not always perceive recasts as corrective (i.e., sometimes they interpreted them as responses to content), which means they often fail to realize they are being corrected. Last but not least, Philp (2003) proposes that learners' noticing of recasts may have been constrained by the following factors: limitations in working memory, unfamiliar input, multiple corrections, complex changes in the recast, learner level, processing biases of the learner, and grammatical forms in the recast that were beyond the learner's knowledge of grammar. As a result, it would not be wrong to suggest that recasts are very often perceived as noncorrective repetitions by L2 learners and they are not necessarily considered to have a corrective purpose especially when they are practised implicitly. Yet, as Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) exemplify, when recast is provided for didactic purposes in a more obtrusive manner and reformulates the learner's ill-formed utterance even though it has not caused a communication problem, it becomes more explicit.

On the other side of the taxonomy, prompts, especially elicitation and metalinguistic feedback, appears to be explicit OCF strategies. One reason prompts are considered explicit is that they lead to the negotiation of form and this cannot be perceived as a confirmation of the learner's message or as another way of saying the same thing. Prompts are especially effective in drawing learners' attention to nontarget output; they provide explicit cues for learners to self-repair or to modify their own output. Through prompting,

learners are deliberately made aware that their utterance is somewhat erroneous and they are automatically pushed to correct their own errors.

A number of classroom-based experimental studies revealed that implicit correction is, at best, partly effective in L2 development. More importantly, explicit types of OCF proved to have significant positive effects (Ellis et al., 2006; Y. Sheen, 2007a; Sauro 2009). Lyster (1998b) stated that for OCF to be effective (i.e., not ambiguous), relatively explicit signals are employed by teachers. Along these lines, Lightbown and Spada (1990) and Lightbown (1991) found that OCF moves that drew learners' attention to their errors were accompanied by explicit paralinguistic signals such as hand signals or dramatically raised eyebrows. L2 teachers' such efforts to make OCF more explicit is understandable because they believe that if learners are openly made cognisant of their errors, this will prevent them from committing similar potential errors. Yet, teachers fall into dispute at this point. The paradox is underlined by Chaudron (1988) as follows: "teachers must either interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction" which often takes the form of explicit intervention, "or let errors pass 'untreated' in order to further the communicative goals of classroom interaction" (p. 134). However, Lyster (1998b) suggested that this might be a false paradox. He noted that his previous classroom recordings did not locate examples of the communicative flow being truly broken irrespective of the type of OCF provided. Also, in their Counterbalance hypothesis, Lyster and H. Mori (2006) featured that using the OCF type that is opposite the communicative orientation of the classroom will momentarily shift learners' attention to the error correction. They advise teachers in highly form-focused classrooms to use recasts, and teachers in classrooms that are more meaning-focused to use prompts. This OCF practice, they state, would make it possible for OCF to be more explicit and noticeable, and would increase language awareness.

After all, one size does not fit all. For this reason, it is not easy to reach clear conclusions about how errors should be corrected, or which OCF type is the most preferable for a particular context. Learner variables and contextual factors clearly influence decisions regarding how correction should be made. That is why the idea of an overall best OCF strategy may be a phantasy. Still, Pawlak (2014) states: "the available empirical evidence is quite straightforward and testifies to the greater efficacy of the latter[explicit] in comparison with the former[implicit]" (p. 206). In addition, the answer to how errors should be corrected, to a certain degree, depends on the type of error to be treated.

Particular ways of correction and OCF types seem to be more appropriate to provide to some error types than others. This specification will be tackled in the next part.

2.2.10.3 Which Errors Should Be Corrected?

One major challenge facing L2 teachers in relation to error correction is to decide which errors to correct or ignore. In the first place, Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) remind that some methodologists suggest the correction of errors only, not mistakes because mistakes are conceived of as temporary breakdowns in L2 learners' performance. With reference to errors in particular, a distinction is often made between *global* and *local* errors (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). According to Brown (2001), local errors can sometimes be ignored while global errors by definition often need some sort of treatment, on account of the fact that they "are more likely to interfere with communication" and they "affect overall sentence organization while local errors… affect single elements in a sentence" (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 599). As a case in point, Brown (2001) reported a learner describing an old hotel in Europe who said "There is a *French widow* in every bedroom" (p. 290) instead of *French window*. This error in lexicon, it is stated, need not be treated because it does not significantly hinder communicating the message. In the same vein, Hendrickson (1978) believes that errors that interfere with meaning should be corrected more promptly and systematically than any other. Having said this, he warned that it may be difficult for NESTs to establish standard criteria for discerning communicative errors from noncommunicative errors because these teachers often have become accustomed to interpreting their own students' *Pidgin*. Hendrickson raised below a challenge for NNESTs, too.

> The problem of correcting student errors consistently according to their effect on the comprehensibility of students' messages, would be an ever greater dilemma for teachers who are nonnative speakers of the target language. Learners will anticipate or correct their errors according to the response they expect from the person who is listening to them or who is reading their work (p. 389).

Ultimately, Hendrickson is convinced that correcting one global error in a sentence is more effective in clarifying the intended message than correcting several local errors in the same sentence. Krashen (1982) also drew a distinction and suggested the provision of OCF only to features that are simple and portable (i.e. rules of thumb). Yet, in practice, it is not necessarily possible for L2 teachers to simply decide which errors are global or local, and which grammar rules are simple and portable for learners. Over and above these distinctions on which errors to correct, Ellis (2001) delineated *intensive* and *extensive*

focus-on-form (a congruent classification was also made by Y. Sheen (2007b) under the terms *focused* and *unfocused feedback*). In the former, OCF is targeted at a single form with a pre-planned focus (for example, confining the treatment to errors in the use of *if conditionals*), whereas the latter allows for the correction of a range of linguistic forms by placing an incidental focus.

Not less important is the correction of fossilized errors in L2 learners' speech. Fossilization is a process "in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 211). Errors in morphology, vocabulary usage, pronunciation may become fossilized in L2 learners' daily use of the TL, which are often observed not only in low-proficiency learners but also in native-like speakers of the TL. Hendrickson (1978) did not content himself with drawing L2 teachers' attention to their learners' fossilized errors on the ground that they are permanent, not transitional features of non-natives' speech and writing. He further suggested the correction of fossilized errors depending on their degree of incomprehensibility and unacceptability as judged by native speakers.

On top of the above considerations as to which errors should be prioritized, it is worth pointing out here that (1) "some linguistic items respond better to [oral] corrective feedback than others" (Pawlak, 2014, p. 125), and (2) some linguistic targets apparently respond better to certain OCF types than to others. In other words, it is possible—though makeshift and nonbinding due to varying contextual factors—to serve a reply to which errors benefit more from OCF and which errors should receive which OCF types. To begin with, Lyster et al. (2013) investigated several studies (e.g., Lyster, 1998a; Mackey et al., 2000; Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor, & Mackey, 2006; Kim & Han, 2007) and they concluded that L2 teachers and interlocutors are more inclined to provide OCF on grammatical than on other error types. Yet, there was an even more striking inference they came up with:

> These same studies, however, have also shown that learners generate more successful repair and accurate perceptions of [O]CF on lexical and phonological errors, revealing a mismatch between the types of errors that receive [O]CF and those that learners end up noticing and/or repairing. To the extent that noticing and/or successful repair may contribute to L2 development, this research suggests that [O]CF might be more facilitative of lexical and pronunciation development than of morphosyntactic development (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 21-22).

What's more, Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis showed that the effects of OCF were significantly larger for lexical than for grammatical development. According to

Mackey et al. (2000), one reason for L2 learners' receiving good payoff from OCF targeting lexical and phonological errors may be that misused lexical items and mispronunciation are more likely to impede the intelligibility than the ungrammaticalities in speech. This speculation was also justified through a research carried out by Isaacs and Trofimovich (2012). Their study revealed that a certain threshold of lexical richness and fluency is required for learners to be better-than-average comprehensible, whereas ungrammaticalities caused incomprehensibility only in the case of high-proficiency L2 learners.

Though under-researched, it seems to be the case that OCF in general works better for lexical and phonological errors than grammatical errors. Yet, a parallel issue is raised at this point. Which OCF types are more effective to provide in response to different error types? In a study pioneering this matter, through the audio recordings of classes in immersion settings, Lyster (1998a) determined that teachers opted for the negotiation of form (prompts) to correct lexical errors, and recasts to correct phonological and grammatical errors. He further revealed that the negotiation of form resulted in greater learner repair for grammatical and lexical errors, whereas recasts resulted in greater learner repair for phonological errors. Therefore, Lyster (1998a) suggests that teachers should draw on prompts in response to grammatical errors. He based this suggestion on the idea that learners benefit more from being pushed to produce output than being served readily with the correct form as in the case of recasting. Still, it is hard to generalize which OCF types go better with which error types. One important reason for failing to do so is that there is not sufficient spot-on research with such a specific focus. On the one hand, SLA researchers offer a wide array of classroom and laboratory studies on the effect of OCF in general, and more specifically different OCF types on particular linguistic targets (for example, the acquisition of /ɹ/, determiners, regular past tense, comparative forms, passive forms etc.). On the other hand, the relevant literature does not have a clear-cut say on which OCF types work better for which error types due to the lack of focused research. As a matter of fact, the prospect of drawing up such a broad specification may even be epistemologically problematic due to the fact that "[O]CF types are not the only variable affecting [O]CF effectiveness, as shown by the different levels of noticeability yielded by different studies; that is, learner factors such as instructional contexts, proficiency levels, metalinguistic knowledge, and age are all variables that influence 'the ultimate effectiveness of [O]CF'(Sato, 2011, p. 7)" (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 21).

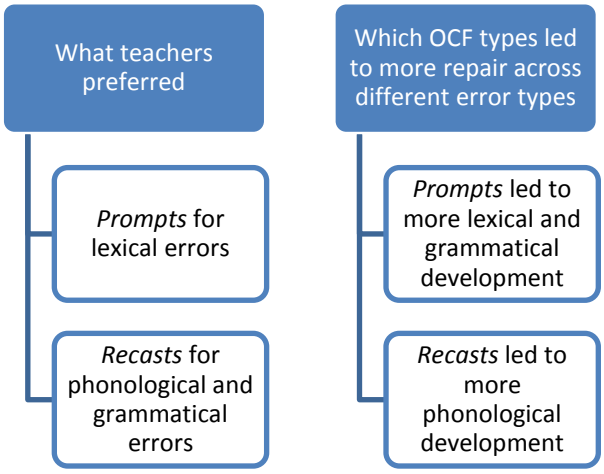


Figure 3. Immersion teachers' OCF preferences for different types of error and their effects on different linguistic targets (Lyster, 1998a)

2.2.10.4 When Should Learners' Errors Be Corrected?

In the case of treatment of errors in written work, teacher's response in the form of corrective feedback naturally occurs following the completion of the written product by the learner. This automatically makes feedback a delayed one, on account of the fact that the teacher needs to conduct a thorough review before feeding the learner back on his or her written work. However, when it comes to errors in learner speech, prima facie, the teacher has two options: he/she either provides immediate OCF right after the learner's ill-formed utterance, or he/she might delay the correction until the end of the activity, task or lesson. On the basis of the fact that things may be more complicated in practice than they might seem in the case of treatment of oral errors, Pawlak (2014) highlights a third alternative to the timing of OCF in response to oral errors, *postponed correction*, which implies that "… teachers may postpone the treatment for longer periods of time" (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 103).

A discrimination is often made by teacher trainers between fluency work and accuracy work. As might be expected, there is no consensus on the right timing of OCF, namely, when OCF should target the former, the latter, or both. Nevertheless, it is often the case that teacher trainers find an instant place for OCF in accuracy work, not in fluency work. Apparently, it is easier for immediate OCF in accuracy work to get a pedagogical foothold because "…it would make little sense to delay the correction when the learners need to know immediately whether the form they have used is correct or not so that they can confirm or modify their hypotheses, fine-tune their understanding of how a particular

structure works, and automatize fully correct rather than interlanguage forms" (Pawlak, 2014, p. 118). However, in fluency work, stances often come in opposite direction. For example, Hedge (2000, as cited in Ellis, 2009) informed that teacher guides accompanying coursebooks often recommend leaving the correction until the end of fluency activities. Similarly, Harmer (1983) believed that teachers should not interrupt the flow of communicative activities by making corrections. Another support comes from Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) who revealed L2 teachers' belief that correcting students during a communicative activity should not be foregrounded. In accordance with these notions, several delayed OCF implications are offered such as "recording an activity and then asking students to identify and correct their own errors or simply noting down errors as students perform an activity and going through these afterwards" (Hedge, 2000 as cited in Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 599). Another in-line delayed OCF practice is offered by Pawlak (2014), which involves acting as an observer on the part of the teacher during communicative activities such as discussions among students, noting down the errors and responding to them afterwards by highlighting the ill-formed utterances.

Although some teacher trainers suggest that OCF should be delayed in fluency activities and immediate correction should be provided only in accuracy work as stated above, some researchers still argue that immediate correction should be provided even in fluency activities. To illustrate, in order for OCF to result in change in a learner's L2 system, it must occur 'in a window of opportunity' and draw passing attention to form while the learner's primary focus is on meaning (Doughty, 2001). As Ellis (2009) notes, such an OCF practice would help the learner construct a form-meaning mapping, leading to true acquisition rather than the development of metalinguistic understanding. Doughty (2001) further claimed that if OCF is delayed, it serves as an isolated instructional practice and places an intentional focus on form, resulting in explicit rather than implicit L2 knowledge. Doughty looks right in her efforts to substantiate the effectiveness of immediate OCF in fluency work, seeing that it does not break the flow of communication as some studies have already shown (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001).

Eventually, should the need arise to compare the two options regarding the timing of OCF, we have no evidence that immediate OCF is more effective than delayed OCF or vice versa. Therefore, it is not possible to draw a general conclusion regarding the relative effectiveness of immediate and delayed OCF. Thus far, OCF studies have not showed specific interest in finding out whether immediate or delayed OCF is more effective for

particular linguistic targets or L2 development in general, aside from a Ph.D. dissertation investigating the effects of the timing of correction on learners' acquisition of grammatical features in an Iranian EFL context, having found no significant differences between the effects of delayed and immediate OCF (Varnosfadrani, 2006). Further scholarly investigations into this matter should inevitably take into account some important variables such as instructional targets, orientation of the course, learner characteristics and types of OCF provided.

2.2.10.5 Who Should Do the Correcting?

In response to a student's oral error during classroom interaction, a series of reactions may be given by different parties including, but possibly not limited to, the options below.

(1) The teacher can provide the correct form through recast or explicit correction. (teacher correction)
(2) The teacher can use one of the prompts to push the learner to self-correct. (self-correction)
(3) The teacher can use one of the prompts to push the learner to self-correct, but others (peers) may tend to correct before him/her. (peer correction)
(4) The teacher can invite other students to do the correcting if the owner of the erroneous utterance fails to self-correct. (peer correction)
(5) Other students (peers) can provide the correct form instantly without waiting for the teacher's reaction to a student's error. (unsolicited peer correction)

Given these possibilities, naturally, error correction can be realized by three different parties: by the teacher, peers, and the student himself/herself who made an erroneous utterance.

As opposed to Proactive FonF which gives attention to linguistic items identified as problematic although no immediate error has been produced (Loewen, 2011), Reactive FonF directs attention to form spasmodically in response to any errors produced by the student and it assigns a primary role to the teacher as the provider of OCF. Initially, the teacher's role as the privileged corrector often comes forward as a result of his or her developed sense of control and responsibility to take initiative in correcting learner errors. In addition, traditional teacher-centered classroom atmosphere can often lead learners to expect their teachers to react to errors in the TL as primary sources of information in the

class. What's more, Pawlak (2014) attributes teacher's primary role in error correction to a series of reasons. For example, teachers are responsible for ensuring high quality of learner output; their superior TL knowledge and training in teaching methodology, at least on paper, makes them best poised to cope with errors; and they need to redress the balance between the time allocated to error correction and to general flow of the lesson aimed at reaching curricular objectives.

Without any doubt, teacher correction is highly operational and helpful to students for L2 development. It is like scaffolds in a construction area and there is no need to question its instructional value. However, the OCF by the teacher may not always be the most effective pedagogical intervention for every learner and in all language classes. As Pawlak (2014) noted, problems in the OCF by the teacher such as its imprecision, inconsistency and failure to cater to learner needs, recent emphasis on learner-centeredness and learner autonomy, and the arguments put forward by interactionists have shifted focus to learner involvement in handling errors either in the form of self- or peer correction. Hence, Ellis (2009) informs, teachers are often suggested to give learners the opportunity to self-correct and, if that fails, to invite other students to do the correcting. Self- and peer correction may be more appropriate for certain learning situations with their exclusive functions.

Teachers can employ a range of strategies to push their learners to correct their own errors during fluency activities, discussions, communicative tasks or content-related question and answer sections. This can be achieved when the teacher provides OCF to learners in the form of output-prompting rather than input-providing OCF. For example, in response to a learner's utterance "They don't never watch soccer", (1) the teacher may send a clarification request such as 'what', (2) repeat the whole sentence with a stress on the erroneous part by saying "They don't never [with emphasis] watch soccer ?", (3) initiate an elicitation move by restarting the sentence with "They …?", (4) or provide metalinguistic clue by saying "we use *never* in positive sentence structures". In so doing, as a matter of course, learners are given the opportunity to modify their erroneous output on their own. This way, they enjoy testing their own hypotheses with regards to the L2 system they are discovering. On the other hand, self-correction brings its own shortcomings. At the outset, students highly expect their teachers to do the correction for them, therefore self-correction may often fail. Students might be of the idea that, sooner or later, the teacher would provide the correct form anyway. In addition, students can successfully correct their mistakes because mistakes are all about performance not competence, but when it comes to

linguistic errors, unless learners have the necessary linguistic knowledge, they cannot self-correct. Herein, they will need teacher assistance to fill the gap. Another drawback in self-correction might appear when learners misinterpret their teachers' prompting moves. They may not necessarily figure out whether the given prompt targets grammatical inaccuracies or content knowledge. In order to avoid such dilemma, in the utterances where content knowledge and linguistic errors coincide, teachers can provide prompting in the form of repetition with stress on the erroneous part only, or give metalinguistic information targeting the problematic part. Last but not least, Pawlak (2014) laments that self-correction is too time-consuming to be utilized in response to every single error. On the whole, however, self-correction is a useful pedagogical instrument run by language learners. Aside from allowing learners to enjoy self-correction and to test their assumptions of correct TL forms, it considerably fosters learner autonomy. If they feel more autonomous, they will be more confident TL users. In the long term, along with the achievement of other linguistic features, this may facilitate independent L2 use in authentic and unrehearsed situations.

Peer correction is another way of involving learners in oral error treatment. As in the OCF by the teacher and self-correction, it has some negatives and positives in practice. A number of studies have demonstrated that peer correction occurring during conversational interaction is conducive to L2 development. To exemplify, Adams (2007) investigated the effects of peer correction on different linguistic features during communicative tasks. He found that the learners made progress on the items which received peer correction. Likewise, Sato and Lyster (2012) found positive correlations between peer correction and L2 development scores. Regarding the pedagogical benefits of peer correction, for one thing, Lyster (1998b) argues for the noticeability of peer correction. He is of the idea that correct forms provided by peers are likely to be even more noticeable than recasts provided by teachers, especially because they follow the teacher's prompts that serve as negative evidence. For this reason, he notes, peer correction serves to disconfirm inaccurate forms more than recasts provided by teachers. Besides, Edge (1989) specified other benefits of peer correction such as involving learners more deeply in learning process, mitigating dependence on the teacher, getting them to learn from each other and promoting cooperation among students as well as helping the teacher better diagnose learners' problems.

In other respects, Pawlak (2014) questions what benefits could be yielded from frequent reliance on peer correction. He further mentions that peer correction has some shortcomings in common with self-correction, such as time-consumingness and learners' potential deficiencies in the TL, although Adams (2007) found that their correction is generally accurate. More importantly, a prominent concern among teacher trainers about peer correction is the potential affective damage it can cause. Learners may not always welcome correction by their peers and might feel discouraged, especially when it is conducted in a degrading and untactful manner. Not least important is learners' mistrust of each other's linguistic abilities, a case which springs especially when the OCF provider is a student with low or moderate success.

Some researchers underline the need for strategy training to make peer correction a more effective pedagogical move (see Lyster et al., 2013; Pawlak, 2014), and several studies have already shown that such training leads to positive outcomes (Fujii, Mackey, & Ziegler, 2011; Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Sato & Lyster, 2012). Pawlak (2014) mentioned some forms of this type of training; for example, awareness-raising activities, giving examples of output modifications, teaching expressions, inventing tasks which require negotiated interaction and so on. In addition to the option of strategy training, establishing a friendly and collaborative learning environment free from psychological barriers can also contribute to the effectiveness of peer correction. After all, Hendrickson (1978) comments, "it may well be that the specific effects on a learner's language proficiency in terms of who corrects his errors will depend upon when they are corrected, which ones are corrected, and especially how they are brought to the learner's attention" (p. 395).

2.3 Contemporary Issues in Second Language Teacher Education

SLTE which covers "the preparation, training and education of L2 teachers", (Wright, 2010, p. 260) is a somewhat neglected area in the professional literature despite its significance to L2 teaching (Wright, 2010). The knowledge base—the major building block of SLTE and general teacher education—is widely acknowledged as a central issue in guiding through teaching practice. According to Tedick (2005), the knowledge base is a broad construct and it "includes, for example, research and theory on teachers' knowledge and beliefs, teacher cognition, teacher learning in formal and informal contexts, teachers' ways of knowing, teacher socialization, reflective teaching, teacher identity, values and ethical dispositions, and the nature of disciplinary knowledge" (p. 1).

To the researcher's best knowledge, current issues on SLTE are based on the grounds of three main components: academic content knowledge offered in SLTE, classroom observation and practice, research on teacher and teacher as researcher. To start with, Freeman and Johnson (1998) mention two main weaknesses in SLTE programs. First, general teacher learning has widely been driven into the background. Second, they fail to include coverage of social context of schooling in the programs. While Tarone and Allwright (2005) are in a position which does not lend full support to the generalization of these failures, they raise voices for locating relevant shortcomings in SLTE programs. In the first place, they coined the term 'academic fallacy' to refer to the belief that a novice can turn into an effective L2 teacher simply by taking courses on language, learning and teaching, which may result in promoting a body of declarative knowledge about what language teaching and learning involve. A typical reflection of this might be the contention that a ST with a good knowledge of metalanguage and teaching methods can make an effective L2 teacher in the future. They further argue that the content of academic courses in SLTE appears to novice teachers to be irrelevant to the process of learning how to teach languages more effectively in authentic classes, no matter how relevant they might seem in principle and in the long term. In this respect, Tarone and Allwright (2005) suggest that the content of academic courses is rather decontextualized, and this decontextualization—limiting learning to teach to the formal academe—may lead novice teachers to anticipate that declarative knowledge of such content is not going to be likely to promote their knowledge of teaching. By extention, this may urge teacher trainers to question how well SLTE programs prepare L2 teachers to function in the sociocultural context in which they will work (Bartolome, 1994). For this reason, it is crucial to blend the knowledge base of STs with the inclusion of the social context of learning, i.e. classrooms. Taking into consideration that it is experiential knowledge as well as received knowledge that takes the novice teacher to professional competence (Wallace, 1991), and the view that "…seeing what to do is more important than understanding why it is done" (Wu, 1996, p. 20), the debate in question takes one to other sine qua non in SLTE: practicum. The basic premise in practicum is that "teachers will learn through experience of being in a classroom observing more experienced teachers and teaching themselves" (Borg, 2010, p. 87). Without any doubt, school experience and practicum are one of the most essential components of any teacher training programme (Seferoğlu, 2006). Correspondingly, a number of research questions in need of investigation arise regarding practicum as food for thought. For example, "What is it precisely that [STs] learn in practicum? Does observing

experienced teachers contribute? What roles do supervisors play in shaping teacher learning on the practicum? What forms of support promote teacher learning on the practicum?" (Borg, 2010, p. 87) and so forth.

Clark (1988) assumes that teachers have their own implicit theories regarding their students, the subject matter they teach, and how they should act. These implicit theories may not always comply with the educational philosophy found in lecture notes, but rather they are "eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalizations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases, and prejudices" (p. 6). These implicit theories have an important role in daily judgments made by teachers and they are not likely to be quickly and wholly replaced by formal lectures, discussion and evaluation methods offered in teacher education programs (Clark, 1988). This position, without marginalizing the role of academic course content offered in SLTE, seemingly takes classroom as the legal base for teachers to try out the practices of their implicit theories and examine their pedagogical value. In addition to their opposition to the 'academic fallacy' which holds the belief that taking academic course content of SLTE is enough in itself to be an effective teacher, Tarone and Allwright (2005) also challenge against 'the noninterface fallacy', a notion which rules out academic content and tries instead "to make the teacher learning situation identical to the target teaching situation" (p. 12), which they consider would be a dangerous learn-by-doing approach. This pure learn-by-doing approach points to another drawback: even if conducted with the guidance of a mentor, STs are unlikely to gain flexibility to cope with teaching contexts different from those in which they were previously apprenticed (Tarone and Allwright, 2005). In that case, it would be well-advised to remedy and eliminate the shortcomings that can be potentially encountered in social contexts of learning, i.e. in school experience and teaching practice, such as very limited hours of observation and teaching, observation of inadequate number of teachers, instructing language learners at only one proficiency level at simply one school setting and so on (Enginarlar, 1996).

It goes without saying that research on teacher is an integral constituent of the knowledge base. Alongside leading the way for the promotion of general teacher learning, Tarone and Allwright (2005) point out that "research is also needed specifically on second-language teacher learning" (p. 7). Richards and Nunan (1990) noted that there were very few empirical studies on SLTE before 1990s. The good news is that there has been a sharp increase in the amount of research on language teacher education since then (Borg, 2010).

Though progress has been made, Borg laments that the amount of research on SLTE is still modest and that there is lack of empirical output in those studies. SLTE studies which seem to be growing in number in recent years, as Arıkan (2006) mentioned, have been seriously investigating practitioners' personal-pedagogical knowledge and seeking to understand how methods work for teachers in foreign language teaching classrooms. Herein, Tarone and Allwright (2005) raise a caveat that it would be deeply damaging to depend on the contention that the only research context that really matters for language teacher learning is that of the actual second-language classroom. At this juncture, it is apt to highlight at least two considerations. First, the study of the L2 teacher alone must be viewed as complementary to the research in SLA classroom. Considering the teacher's primary role in the instructional process, there is further need to take into account teacher-related factors in the study of L2 teacher, such as their beliefs on language learning and teaching, teacher cognition and personality traits, psychological factors affecting readiness to teach, job satisfaction, change in their general teaching attitudes in time and so forth. One way this can be realized is longitudinal studies in a set of contexts. They are needed "in the language classroom, in hallways in conversations with colleagues, in university courses, in university practicum experiences; at professional conferences and at home reading professional publications" (Tarone & Allwright, 2005, p. 11), with an aim to examine;

> the various ways in which this teacher learning takes place: through imitation of mentor teachers, through observation of all kinds of second language (L2) classrooms, through challenges to one's system of beliefs about the way languages are learned encountered in academic classrooms and readings, through observation of second language learners in classroom contexts, through quiet reflection on one's own teaching (and learning) practice, and through discussions with colleagues and peers (p. 11).

Another consideration might be to encourage *teacher as researcher* or *teacher research* which is the "systematic intentional enquiry by teachers about their own school and classroom work" (Lytle & Cochran-Smith, 1990, p. 84). On the one hand, teacher research is likely to be fruitful, leading them to become autonomous, critical, and more effective practitioners. On the other hand, Borg (2010) believes that there is a huge gap between the claims made for the benefits of teacher research and the claims that are actually supported with empirical evidence. He lists some relevant issues regarding teacher research. For one thing, Borg complains that the notion of research in the minds of teachers may not always correspond to the research in a real sense. They often refer to research as statistical work involving questionnaires and loads of people, thus it needs to be handled more rigorously

and systematically (Borg, 2010). Moreover, he warns that the notions held by head teachers, administrators and teacher educators about research might be an obstacle in teacher research, too. He further notes that many academics do not find teacher research serious or important. Therefore, in order to undermine those prejudgments, practitioners and their learners must be provided with the empirical evidence of the benefits of teacher research.

2.3.1 Major Models

Wallace (1991) identifies three major models for SLTE that "are likely to be needed in all teacher development, but in different degrees, depending upon teacher experience and understanding" (Crandall, 2000, p. 37). In addition to the models offered by Wallace, this part reviews two others made available by Day (1993).

2.3.1.1 The Craft Model

The craft model, also known as apprentice-expert model, regards teaching as a 'craft'. By definition, it is imitative and based on apprentices' or novices' observations of those with more experience. Such a model is conservative and static because "it stays on gained knowledge and achievements, it does not provide benefaction with new knowledge" (Vučo, 2012, p. 93), implying very little or no change over time (Wallace, 1991). One possible strength—maybe a potential weakness—of craft model is that it overvalues experiential knowledge. If observed teachers are good practitioners, trainees may enjoy the benefits of appropriate pedagogical applications introduced to them, or the other way around. Yet, Wallace (1991) claims, the needs of teaching are impossible to be met by such procedures in a time of very rapid change.

2.3.1.2 The Applied Science Model

This model, also referred to as theory-to-practice model, derives its imperium from the achievements of empirical research, in which the findings of empirical studies and experimentation are transmitted to the trainee by the experts in related areas (Wallace, 1991). Today, this model still remains popular among teacher education programs. This tutoring model is one-way and trainees' knowledge of empirical science is limited to what is introduced to them by the experts. In cases when trainees have difficulty understanding

the findings of empirical science, they may have trouble applying them properly. This model was previously labelled under different terms such as 'technical rationality' (Schon, 1983) or 'rationalism' (Elliott, 1979), "according to which the trainee professional is expected to learn given theory derived from university-based research and study, and then take this into the classroom to apply it in practice" (Ur, 1992, p. 56). Ur (1992) mentions two sources of dissatisfaction with rationalist learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model. First, trainees feel that formal theoretical studies are relatively useless and do not contribute significantly to their practical knowledge. Second, it has been realized that experimental studies often yield inconclusive and contradictory findings with regards to trainees' practical questions.

2.3.1.3 The Case Studies Model

Articulated by Day (1993), this model involves discussing and analysing actual cases in the classroom. The typical practice of this model is to generalize particular actions into broader understandings of the related discipline. Day informs that this model has not been widely embraced in teacher education programs as in law and business schools in the United States. He does not find it surprising that this model was not heavily adopted in teacher education on the grounds that cases must be well-written, with "a beginning, a middle, and end" (Shulman, 1991, p. 251), including the teacher's thoughts and feelings of the account, which is not necessarily possible to document, accompanied by the difficulty distinguishing what is actually a case. Day furthers the argument of suitability by adding that while the case studies model exposes students to content knowledge, it is limited in that it falls short in treating pedagogic, pedagogic content and support knowledge.

In Table 4 below, Day (1993) specifies the interaction of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base and the three approaches to SLTE.

Table 4

The Interaction of Models and Knowledge in SLTE

	MODELS		
KNOWLEDGE	Apprentice-Expert	Rationalist	Case Studies
Pedagogic	yes	limited, if at all	limited
Content	yes	yes	yes
Pedagogic Content	yes	limited	limited
Support	no	yes	limited

(Day, 1993)

2.3.1.4 The Integrative Model

Day (1993) does not find any of these three approaches effective in itself to provide an adequate treatment of the knowledge base. From this point of view, he offers "the integrative model" to incorporate the strengths of the three models in order that trainees can attend to the four types of knowledge in the knowledge base and the variety of experiences and activities. Day underlines, however, simply exposing trainees to the four knowledge types through various activities and experiences does not guarantee that the four types of knowledge have been integrated. In order to achieve this, he suggests that a reflective practice component should be included in the program.

2.3.1.5 The Reflective Model

Among other models of teacher education, reflective approach is widely promoted in pre-service teacher education and it is granted a large place in the contemporary understanding of teacher training and teacher research (Özmen, 2010). To begin with a weak conception of *reflection* in the context of teacher education, reflective teaching is "the practice of thinking analytically about an experience or an activity" (Bullock & Muschamp, 2004, p. 32) and "a disposition to think about one's teaching practice, instead of passively following routinized procedures that one has established over the years" (Sze, 1999, p. 133). As these definitions make clear, mindfulness and open-mindedness are a prerequisite for reflective practice. In broader terms, reflection necessitates "helping teachers to think about what happened, why it happened, and what else they could have done to reach their goals"

(Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981, p. 553) in order to enable them "to act in deliberate and intentional ways, to devise new ways of teaching rather than being a slave to tradition, and to interpret new experiences from a fresh perspective" (Posner, 1989, p. 22).

Schon (1983) distinguishes between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. As an individual effort, reflection-in-action occurs in the course of teaching when "professionals are faced with a situation which they experience as unique or containing an element of surprise" (Griffiths, 2000, p. 542). On the other hand, reflection-on-action "is the type of reflection that teachers get involved in *posteriori* of the event. It is the most common type of reflection which is encouraged and practiced in universities or centers of higher education, and unlike reflection-in-action, which is an individual activity, reflection-on-action is normally exercised collectively and in groups" (Akbari, 2007, p. 194). Forming the link among reflection, knowledge and practice, at the outset, Wallace (1991) introduced the term 'received knowledge' to refer to the theory of SLTE which comprises methodological prescriptions, research findings, knowledge of the TL and so on. Wallace does not conceive of received knowledge as serving adequately alone to nurture competent language teachers and he places emphasis on 'experiential knowledge' which can provide the opportunity to reflect on the knowledge-in-action, i.e. the knowledge emerging from practice. With this in mind, Wallace (1991) proposed that "ways should be found of making the relationship [between received knowledge and experiential knowledge] reciprocal, not one-way, so that the trainee can reflect on the received knowledge in the light of classroom experience, and so that classroom experience can feed back into the received knowledge sessions" (p. 55). Usefulness of this reciprocity is further pronounced by Day (1993) as follows: "Incorporating reflective practice in an approach to [SLTE] offers the possibility of being integrative in that received knowledge provides the theoretical aspects for thinking about experiential knowledge, and experiential knowledge offers opportunities for trying out and testing received knowledge" (p. 11).

Wallace proposes a reflective model for teacher education, featuring the link between theory and practice.

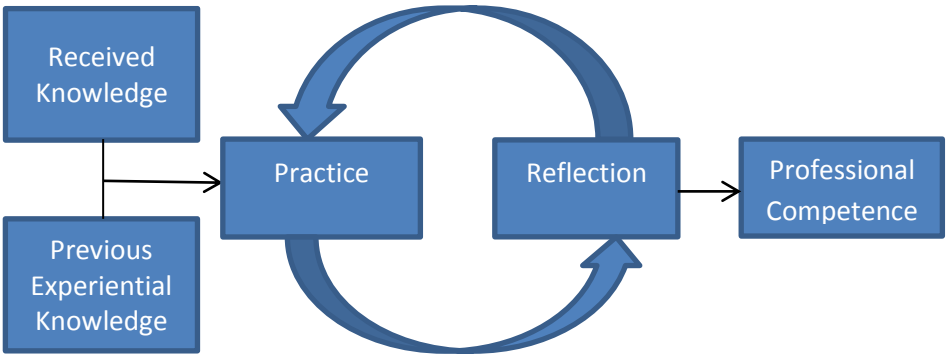


Figure 4. Reflective model proposed by Wallace (1991)

Wallace's (1991) 'applied science' model "treats theory and practice as if they were two separate entities" (Sze, 1999, p. 134) and casts a mediating role to the teacher trainer between the scientific knowledge and the trainee. However, in the reflective model, Wallace interconnects experiental knowledge and the theory in SLTE, i.e. received knowledge. Built on this interconnectedness, a successful realization of practice and reflection cycle then ultimately leads to 'professional competence' pursuant to the model.

Apart from the models mentioned thus far, two main frame models of teacher education can be distinguished in terms of organization: *the concurrent model* and *the consecutive model*. The former model that is also applied in the context of the present research, i.e. Turkey, offers professional teaching component in combination with the academic subjects, whereas the latter, a two-tier approach, offers the professional component upon the completion of the academic subject areas (Ünver, Bümen, & Başbay, 2010).

2.3.2 Online Courses in Pre-service Teacher Education

One corollary of the enhanced learning possibilities afforded by Information Communication Technology (ICT) is that conventional teaching methods become questioned as expectations change (Rienties, Brouwer, & Lygo-Baker, 2013). And also, the rapid pace of technological innovations, reinforced by the global fascination with the internet, has paved the way for the integration of web technologies into higher education institutions (King, 2002; Caner, Yüksel, & Keçik, 2013). Among the adaptations of technological advancemenets to instructional settings, 'distance learning' is a learning/teaching environment in which the learner and teacher are geographically separated (Moore & Thompson, 1997). Distance learning has common descriptors such as the separation of place/time between teacher, learner and communication through an artificial medium (media or technology) (Caywood & Duckett, 2003) and "offers learners

independence, flexibility and choice in how, when and where to study" (Falloon, 2011, p. 188). Online education is actually a variant of distance delivery which is the act of giving a course partially or totally through the Internet (Ko & Rossen, 2001). Online courses, also labelled as "web-facilitated, hybrid [online and face-to-face (f2f)], or totally virtual" (Blake, 2011, p. 19) courses, "may be placed along a cline from pure f2f to non f2f-delivery and are found in language learning and [second] language teacher education" (Banegas & Busleimán, 2014, p. 131). Not only do online web-enhanced learning resources, whether synchronous or asynchronous, offer the advantage of eluding time and place constraints (Caner et al., 2013), but also online teaching through the internet constructs a collaborative and learner-friendly framework for those across a wide geographical setting (Caywood & Duckett, 2003).

The literature offers a series of technological contributions in the field of teacher education such as specific synchronous or asynchronous online courses (Gakonga, 2012; Caner et al. 2013), blogs (Çakır, 2013), e-assessment (Hung, 2012) and so forth. Among these contributions, video-viewing has become a significant tool for the training of pre-service teachers and the continuity of teacher professional development, and has been increasingly capitalized on over the past 10 years all over the world (Gaudin & Chalies, 2015). By video viewing, generally, classroom videos are implied, though it may also be in the form of viewing online courses with theoretical or practical content. Not only the viewing of videos but also video-making is gaining popularity in teacher education thanks to the technology being more accessible, cheaper and user-friendly (Masats & Dooly, 2011).

> The implicit theory underlying traditional teacher education was based on a training model in which the university provides the theory, methods and skills; the schools provide the setting in which that knowledge is practiced; and the beginning teacher provides the individual effort to apply such knowledge. In this [theory-to-practice] model, propositional knowledge has formed the basis of university input (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998, p. 167).

A necessary contribution to this remark would be that the provision of experiential knowledge is a particular challenge in pre-service teacher education, and innovative holistic learning environments can help to fill the gap between theory and practice. Observing classroom video can help pre-service teachers transfer their university learning to their later classroom practice (Seidel, Blomberg, & Renkl, 2013). That's why video is cast an important role in bridging this theory-practice gap (Abell & Cennamo, 2004). In addition, considering both the role videos can have for the construction of theoretical

knowledge on the one hand and the potential challenges of their use in pre-service education on the other, it is reasonable to equip pre-service teacher education programs with contextualised video proposals integrated into curricula (Masats & Dooly, 2011).

Concerning the use of videos in SLTE, two recent online-driven applied studies step to the fore. The first one by Caner et al. (2013) evaluated the effectiveness of web component of a methodology course from the perspectives of Turkish ELT students. To this end, they redesigned f2f methodology course with an aim to provide an interactive web-enhanced course alongside f2f instruction. As a consequence, the STs displayed positive attitudes towards the integration of web-enhanced component into the methodology course. They viewed the web component positively in pedagogical, communicative and affective aspects. They further reported having found it effective, motivating and flexible in terms of time.

In the other study, Masats and Dooly (2011) implemented a four-pronged holistic approach to student-teachers in the TEFL course: *video-viewing* (to center STs' attention on certain topics and to form a ground for class discussion), *video-modelling* (to get them to focus their attention on target skills or behaviour), *video-coaching* (to lead to group discussion by using their own video-recorded activities) and *video-making* (as an innovative task). The purpose of their research was to guide STs towards professional development by placing them "in the role of both teacher and student for the co-construction of teaching knowledge and the acquisition of digital competences and media literacy" (p. 1151). Analysis of student-teachers' reactions to the video activities revealed that

> the STs [1] were positive about the experiences [in four stages of the video-use], and felt that they had [2] achieved higher critical awareness of their own teaching strategies, [3] increased their understanding of the underlying complexity of teaching in different situations, [4] had clearer ideas of how to design and plan project-based learning sequences and perhaps most importantly, [5] they felt certain that they would integrate different uses of video into their teaching (Masats & Dooly, 2011, p. 1160-1161).

In conclusion, online video cases make it possible for pre-service teachers to reflect on different classroom practices and in this way build further on their available master plan for future teaching. Through online videos, "preservice students can view complex, interactive situations and can begin to acquire pedagogical tools for situations in which there are no easy, clear-cut answers" (Bayram, 2012, p. 1010). STs, by viewing complex interactive situations, gain the opportunity to get a head start on teaching in exceptional cases. Equally important benefit of video-use in pre-service education may be that if STs

are made subject to live experiences of online instructional applications during their pre-service education, then they will be more likely to utilize those tools in their future teaching practices.

2.3.3 Teaching Oral Correction in Second Language Teacher Education

As one of the evergreen topics, "error correction has a long and controversial history in the fields of Second Language Education and [SLTE]" (Russell, 2009, p.21). Teachers, whether novice or experienced, make decisions regarding their classroom practices by relying on their "own sets of beliefs about teaching, formed in large part by their prior experiences of classrooms as learners and as trainee teachers, and with their own theories of action…" (Ellis, 2010b, p. 13). More specifically, teachers' beliefs about the practising of OCF emanate from (1) teacher preparation programs and in-service training; (2) the teacher's own teaching experience; and (3) the teacher's own language learning experiences (Schulz, 2001 as cited in Russell, 2009).

In reality, the way language teachers practise OCF during their classroom interaction with their students is often haphazard. As a case in point, it is very common that the next time they encounter an error in a student's utterance that belongs to the same category of the previous error (for example, a grammatical error), language teachers may employ a completely different OCF strategy without any valid reason or rationale to do so. This haphazardness probably derives from the fact that there is so little information in the OCF literature to help the novice L2 teacher make practical decisions in response to students' errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Also, imprecision may be observed in teachers' OCF practices; teachers use repetition both to indicate that an error has been committed and to reinforce a correct response (Lyster, 1998a). Further, Ellis (2009) mentions that teachers are likely to respond to particular errors intuitively rather than knowingly in accordance with some predetermined error-correction policy. Last but not least, teachers tend to show inconsistencies in their OCF practices with regards to Hendrickson's (1978) framing questions which were addressed distinctively in the previous chapters.

In consideration of these, needless to say, pre-service and in-service training programs need to take an active role in conveying the theoretical base and classroom practices of OCF, and in molding teachers' beliefs on the effectiveness of OCF. This transfer of ideas and skills can be actualized in a number of ways. To illustrate, in a context where "current research has switched from addressing whether [O]CF works to examining what kind

works best" (Ellis, 2009, p. 6), it is vitally important to apply OCF research findings to classroom instruction because "oral error correction is an area where research can inform and improve practice" (Russell, 2009, p. 30). An elaborate application of OCF research findings to classroom teaching through empirical evidence is evident in Lyster and Ranta's (2013) denotation who accentuate the need for the use of a variety of OCF moves in their pre- and in-service training courses and professional development workshops. Still, teachers need to be able to question the appropriateness of OCF research findings to their own instructional settings before the actual pedagogical transfer from the paper to the classroom.

Ellis (2009) believes that teacher trainers have often avoided prescribing or proscribing certain OCF strategies that language teachers should use. This is probably due to the fact that (1) they are indecisive about which strategies are the most effective, (2) error correction has a complex nature with different variables to practise, and (3) OCF research findings are mixed and conflicting in a broad and ranging literature. At this point, Russell (2009) highlights the pivotal role teacher education programs have in delivering to pre-service teachers the knowledge of how to correct errors and emphasizes the need for research on what information is being transferred in teacher education programs about OCF. In this respect, Russell (2009) raises the following questions:

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 OCF based on current research? (p. 29)

In a similar vein, Ellis (2009) features the roles that the teacher trainer should adopt for promoting language teachers' understanding of OCF:

(1) to instigate and guide debate on OCF,
(2) to help teachers see how their ideas about OCF reflect their overall teaching philosophy and thus to assist them to review this critically,
(3) to encourage teachers to identify specific strategies for conducting OCF that accord with their revised philosophy (p. 15).

To make these come true, Ellis (2009) suggests that teachers should initiate discussions on actual OCF examples based on some guidelines and he offers a handful of OCF episodes for discussion, whose aim is "to encourage critical reflection on the processes involved in

[O]CF and also to foster in teachers a preparedness to experiment by acting as researchers in their own classrooms" (p. 15).

Table 5

Instances of OCF Episodes and a Set of Considerations for Discussion

Discuss the following corrective feedback episodes.

How effective are the CF strategies employed by the teacher?
To help you answer this question consider the following:
1. whether teacher and student appear to have shared goals in each episode
2. whether the students show awareness they are being corrected
3. whether the teacher is able to adapt the CF strategies she employs to the needs of the students
4. whether the students uptake the correction and whether the teacher allows space for this to happen
5. whether the students appear anxious or negatively disposed to the correction.

When you have answered these questions, state how you would have handled each error and give the rationale for the strategy you have chosen.

(1) S: I have an ali[bi]
T: you have what?
S: an ali[bi]
T: an alib-? (.2.) An alib[ay]
S: ali [bay]
T: okay, listen, listen, alibi

(2) S: We <don't> catch, we can't
T: we didn't
S: didn't
T: we didn't catch it, we didn't keep it, we threw it back, Ah very good, so you didn't eat it?

(3) S: oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars
T: I pay? //
S2: okay let's go
T: I pay or I'LL pay? (.1.) // I will pay // I'll
S: I'll // I'll pay only 10 dollars.

(Ellis, 2009)

2.4 Native and Non-native English-speaking Teachers

Over the years, the terms *native* and *non-native* have been used to refer to speakers of a language (Ulate, 2011). Crystal (2003a) defines the *native speaker* as someone "for whom a particular language is a first language or mother tongue. The implication is that this native language, having been acquired naturally during childhood, is the one about which a speaker will have the most reliable intuitions, and whose judgments about the way the language is used can therefore be trusted" (p. 308). On the other hand, *non-native speakers*

are people "who at one point of their life, in addition to speaking a first language, have (consciously) learned an academically accepted form …" (Moussu, 2006, p. 10) as a second or foreign language, and can be judged by their linguistic competence (Olesova, 2013).

It is commonplace to hear recently that in today's globalized world, English is the 'fastest growing' (Mahboob, 2005) and a 'truly global' (Crystal, 2012) language, which makes it "the unrivaled lingua franca of the world" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 429). As a result of the globalized position of English as the most commonly accepted lingua franca in the world, today, the ratio of native speakers of English to non-native speakers is somewhere between 1:2 (Rajagopalan, 2004) and 1:3 (Crystal, 2003b). These ratios are at the same time a manifestation of English being no longer the privilege of native speakers. As Norton (1997) contributed, the English language "belongs to all the people who speak it, whether native or non-native, whether ESL or EFL, whether standard or nonstandard" (p. 427). A similar case applies to the number of teachers in the ELT profession. Medgyes (2001) informs that there are a lot more NNESTs in the world than NESTs with an ever-increasing number each day, eighty percent being non-native as stated by Canagarajah (1999). Conceptualization of the both terms, and a corresponding categorization of English teachers globally with such a labelling, however, can be problematic. As a case in point, the concepts of *NEST* and *NNEST* are politically incorrect and those who use them may be employing discriminatory language (Medgyes, 2001). In addition, Holliday (2005) lamented that the term *non-native teacher,* with a negative prefix 'non', may imply a disadvantage or deficit. Concerning the terms *native* and *non-native*, the power and identity of the latter is "further weakened by appearing *not native* to anything" (Holliday, 2005, p. 4). On top of that, despite the numerical supremacy of NNESTs, they have been treated as step-children and preference is given to NESTs regardless of the possibility of their being equally qualified native and nonnative speakers (Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004), and NNESTs are bestowed upon lower professional status than NESTs (Mahboob, 2010). Therefore, what Holliday (2005) calls 'native speakerism', which reflects the belief that NESTs represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of ELT methodology (Holliday, 2005), paves the way for "unprofessional favouritism in institutions, publishing houses, and government agencies" (Medgyes, 2001, p. 433), ultimately sparking off unfair employment practices.

2.4.1 Differences in NESTs' and NNESTs' Teaching Behaviour

It has recently been figured that the efforts in search for 'who is worth more' (Medgyes, 1992) are pointless because this distinction "attempts to establish a direct causal relationship between language proficiency and pedagogical practices" (Braine, 1999 as cited in Selvi, 2011, p. 188). Today, the tendency is rather towards encompassing the strengths and limitations of both teacher groups in various teaching settings. This reconceptualization of N/NN teacher status, not placing them on a better or worse continuum, "enables cooperation and collaboration that can foster more educationally, contextually, and socially appropriate English language learning opportunities" (Mahboob, 2010 as cited in Selvi, 2011, p. 188), leading on a macro level to "the establishment of a professional milieu that welcomes ethnic, racial, cultural, religious, and linguistic diversity" (Selvi, 2011, p. 188).

Although the increasing popularity of research into linguistic imperialism has not led to noticeable changes in English teaching and teacher education policy thus far (Jenkins, 2006), it seems to be the case that "the influence of the Chomskian (1986) notion of an *ideal native speaker* in TESOL" (Mahboob, 2005, p. 85) is on decline. The aforementioned contemporary approaches to NEST/NNEST dichotomy have recently established fairer grounds in developing viewpoints on the pedagogical practices of NESTs and NNESTs. By no means does this suggest that they are equal in several aspects including language proficiency, teaching behavior etc., but rather, it is about crediting both parties equally in the workplace, free from biases and prejudgments. Along the same lines, Medgyes (1994) stated that NESTs and NNESTs differ in their language proficiency, which is the reason for most of the differences in their teaching behavior, and further commented that they can be equally good teachers on their own terms.

The advantages of NESTs and NNESTs have amply been reflected in the literature. For example, Medgyes (1994) lists six characteristics peculiar to NNESTs:

1. NNESTs can serve as imitable models of the successful learner of English.
2. NNESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively.
3. NNESTs can provide learners with more information about the English language.
4. NNESTs are more able to anticipate language difficulties.
5. NNESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners.
6. Only NNESTs can benefit from sharing the learners' L1.

While these advantages seem to be yielded from NNESTs' L2 learning and teaching experiences and from sharing the same language and cultural background with their learners, NESTs bring advantages that are inherent to their native speaker status such as acquiring a good knowledge of contrastive linguistics before being qualified to teach their own language (Giauque, 1984), using more authentic language, being more fluent, and providing more cultural information (Medgyes, 1994).

Selvi (2014) featured that "with the emergence of the scholarship on NNEST as a bona fide area of inquiry as an extension of the professional movement in TESOL, researchers examined different facets of the issues pertinent to NESTs and NNESTs" (p. 586-587) and the increase in research endeavors as part of the NNEST movement highlighted the advantages and challenges facing NESTs and NNESTs. A big number of studies investigated NESTs and NNESTs' overall differences as perceived by teachers and students in the ESL/EFL context (e.g., Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Liu, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). As might be expected, these studies elicited inherent differences in knowledge base, linguistic command and teaching behaviour between NESTs and NNESTs. For example, Reves and Medgyes's (1994) study revealed that one major advantage of NESTs was perceived to be their superior English proficiency, while their non-native counterparts were considered to be preoccupied with formal aspects of English and to have lack of fluency, as well as being thought of having other shortcomings such as unauthentic and hesitant language use, adherence to translation, less provision of cultural knowledge and so forth. In Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999), though the majority of graduate TESOL students acknowledged that there are differences in classroom practices of NESTs and NNESTs, those differences were attributed to instructors' background rather than native language.

Selvi's (2014) extensive review of literature in Table 6 presents a thorough classification of the advantages of NESTs and NNESTs in L2 classes.

Table 6

Advantages of NESTs and NNESTs

Advantages of NESTs	Advantages of NNESTs
Procedural knowledge (Lasagabaster & Manuel Sierra, 2005)	Declarative knowledge (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1994)
Facility with the teaching of vocabulary and knowledge of idioms, colloqualisms, and slang (Lasagabaster & Manuel Sierra, 2005; Reves & Medgyes, 1994)	Successful in identifying areas of potential difficulty, thus fostering a better teacher-student rapport (Braine, 2004; Ellis, 2002; Maum, 2002; McNeill, 2005)
Speaks English clearly and fluently and possess *the original English accent* (Lasagabaster & Manuel Sierra, 2005)	Share and use students' L1, if/when possible(Mahboob, 2004; Medgyes, 1994; Tatar & Yıldız, 2010)
Thorough understanding of English language and culture	Teach reading and grammar more effectively (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Mahboob, 2004; McNeill, 2005; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999)
Teaching listening and speaking, and interaction in class (Pacek, 2005)	Provide appropriate learning strategies (Lasagabaster & Manuel Sierra, 2005; Mahboob, 2004)
No apparent language difficulties (Reves & Medgyes, 1994)	Provide a thorough exam preparation (Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999)
Provide linguistic authenticity (Barratt & Kontra, 2000) and *real language* (Medgyes, 1994)	Able to make cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparisons and contrasts thanks to their multilingual and multicultural experience (Ding, 2000; Hansen, 2004; J. Liu, 2001)
More relaxed attitudes towards grading and error correction (Barratt & Kontra, 2000)	Empathize with the learner since they are themselves L2 learners (McNeill, 2005; Tatar & Yıldız, 2010)
Not relying heavily on the coursebook (Benke & Medgyes, 2005)	Willingness to work hard (Mahboob, 2004)

(Selvi, 2014)

These compiled research findings, on the other hand, should not lead one to think that one advantage of either party is the disadvantage of the other. Rather, they should be seen as the featured aspects being more prominent in either group, not being totally absent in the other. Nor is the literature "conclusive about the advantages and challenges of these teacher populations" given that "these constructs are often quite complex, messy, and socially situated" (Selvi, 2014, p. 588).

After all, both NESTs and NNESTs have distinct characteristics which they bring to formal L2 settings, thereby allowing them to contribute in different ways to their students' L2 development. Rather than identify their shortcomings and compare their competences, it sounds like a worthwhile investment to engage both populations in "cooperative learning community and consider their development holistically" (Matsuda, 1997, p. 13). This premise is lent further support by Medgyes (2001, p. 441) who remarked that:

> within the framework of native/non-native division, the ideal NEST and the ideal NNEST arrive from different directions but eventually stand quite close to each other. Both groups of teachers serve equally useful purposes in their own ways. In an ideal school, therefore, there should be a good balance of NESTs and NNESTs, who complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses. Given a favorable mix, various forms of collaboration are possible, and learners can only gain from such cross-fertilization.

2.4.2 Error Correction Patterns of NESTs and NNESTs

A bird's-eye view on the literature reveals that the interlocutors in OCF studies on the source of OCF (i.e. feedback provider) in dyadic interactions outside the classroom were mostly non-teaching individuals. When the research on OCF was conducted in informal settings, OCF by the native-speaker was dwelled upon, and when conducted in formal L2 classes, the teacher was mainly the focus as the OCF provider (Russell & Spada, 2006). However, Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) lamented that "the lack of studies investigating instructor IDs that have the potential to affect their provision of feedback is a critical gap in SLA Research" (p. 35). Therefore, the investigation of native and non-native identities of L2 teachers as a major variable with reference to their OCF practices is quite a rewarding, yet equally neglected research field.

As have already been presented in the previous chapter, instructional behaviour of teachers with reference to NEST/NNEST variable was over-researched, coming under scrutiny mostly at perception level. While NESTs were generally characterized by more authentic language (Barratt & Kontra, 2000), fluent speech (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005), less commitment to coursebooks (Benke & Medgyes, 2005) and so forth, their non-native counterparts were perceived to be more willing to teach (Mahboob, 2004), more empathetic (Tatar & Yıldız, 2010) and better predictors of learning difficulties (Braine, 2004). "While differences in instructor perceptions and beliefs are important, just if and how these perceptions and beliefs influence actual instructor behavior, namely, feedback provision in the classroom, is particularly critical to SLA research" (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010, p. 37). Yet, the literature does not offer much in the way of identifying similarities and differences in OCF patterns and practices of NESTs and NNESTs in classroom interaction. Among the limited number of studies with such a concern, two of them investigated error-gravity perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs by evaluating learner errors in not oral but written work, indicating either that NESTs were more tolerant of errors than NNESTs (Sheorey, 1986) or the level of error tolerance was similar between NESTs and NNESTs (Porte, 1999).

Efforts for coming up with spot-on research on identifying similarities and differences in OCF patterns and practices of NESTs and NNESTs in formal L2 settings turned out to be like a search for a needle in a haystack, ultimately generating a handful of studies, with only few being dead-on, nonetheless. Plenty of studies investigated the differences in overall teaching behavior of NESTs and NNESTs as perceived by their colleagues and ESL/EFL students, whose shared by-product finding was that NESTs displayed more relaxed attitudes and were more tolerant of errors than NNESTs (Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Benke & Medgyes, 2005). In spite of not saying much about NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF practices, these perception studies shed light on where both populations stand in the eyes of students with reference to their tolerance of errors. However, they are not fully serving of the fundamental focus of this part of review of literature in the sense that (1) they have dwelled on general perceived teaching attitudes and touched upon OCF behavior only superficially, thus marginalizing the significance of the study of NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF practices as an independent SLA phenomenon and as a valuable teacher variable; (2) in those studies, the evidence came not from natural classroom interaction as the most authentic source of data, but rather from perceptions and reflections of the individuals. Along the same lines, in Üstünlüoğlu (2007) and Ngoc (2009), both conducted in EFL contexts with the purpose of eliciting learner perceptions on whether NESTs or NNESTs are more effective teachers in consideration of general teacher attitudes (for example, teaching speaking, balancing teaching modes, use of teaching materials, grading etc.), it was nebulously reported that NNESTs provide OCF more consistently and effectively than NESTs, yet it remains unanswered what led the NNESTs to be perceived more positively in this regard, why and how.

The studies mentioned thus far have not presented focused findings concerning the diversity of NESTs' and NNESTs' actual OCF strategies provided to learner errors in classroom interaction. Exemplary of genuine classroom interaction data, in an effort to examine the interactional patterns of NESTs and NNESTs, Yi and Jian (2009) conducted classroom observations in a Chinese EFL settings. Findings indicated that the NESTs relied heavily on positive feedback in the form of encouragement (e.g. well done, excellent), followed by acknowledgement (e.g. all right, OK), whereas the NNESTs resorted most to repetition of the well-formed utterances, followed by acknowledgement. As is evident, the primary focus of the feedback-related part of Yi and Jian's (2009) study

was on positive feedback rather than OCF. Still, it revealed that clarification request (e.g. Pardon?) as an OCF strategy, was the third most preferred move by the NNESTs as distinct from the NESTs. In another study, İnan (2012) compared the interaction patterns of one NEST and one NNEST in a Turkish EFL setting and another pair of NEST and NNEST in an American ESL setting through audio recordings. It was rather a small-scale study with a limited number of observed teachers and recorded class hours. İnan found that the NNESTs corrected 53 errors, while the NESTs corrected only 32 within eight class hours in total. By depicting an extract of conversation, she commented that the NESTs widely ignored grammatical errors and mainly focused on pronunciation errors. In a similar way, by holding on to a minor example depicting one of the NNESTs' OCF move in the form of recast, she further stated that the NNESTs' main OCF strategy was recast. However, these judgments have not been substantiated with numerical or statistical data, not leading one to make inferences.

In another small-scale study, Diaz (2009) investigated the scaffolding techniques of two NESTs and two NNESTs in a total of four hours of interaction with six-year-old children at an immersion-like setting teaching English from preschool onwards in Spain. Findings indicated that the NESTs are more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs as mentioned in many other studies. In addition, the most preferred OCF type by the NNESTs was elicitation, while it was *retell* for the NESTs, which Diaz (2009) defined as "the reformulation of a previous question or sentence, in the form of different questions or sentences" (p. 66). Significance tests also showed that there was no significant difference between the NESTs and NNESTs in the amount of recast (defined as *correction* by Diaz) and elicitation (*asking for completion*) provided, while significant differences were found in the use of both implicit negative evaluation (e.g. *Are you sure?* in response to an ill-formed learner utterance) and explicit negative evaluation (e.g. simply *No!* in response to an ill-formed learner utterance), with the NNESTs having a lot higher percentages in both than the NESTs.

More purposive findings come from two recent theses. In the first, Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) examined the factors affecting OCF provision in Spanish foreign language classrooms based on three variables: N/NN speaker status, SLA education and teaching experience. She video-recorded Spanish classes of a total of 60 instructors, a 50-minute lesson for each. Coding system in her study classified explicit correction, metalinguistic information and elicitation as *explicit feedback*, whereas *implicit feedback* included recasts,

confirmation checks, clarification requests, elaborations, and negotiations for meaning. Gurzynski-Weiss's dissertation has generated quite a lot of useful findings to potentially contribute to SLA. Its findings were sorted out here in an effort to elaborate only on in-class OCF practices of native and non-native teachers with respect to OCF amount, type and consistency. The relevant findings are as follows:

1) Contrary to the findings of the comparative (i.e. NESTs vs. NNESTs) naturally occuring OCF studies (Diaz, 2009; İnan, 2012) and the comparative research on learner and teacher perceptions towards general in-class behavior of NESTs and NNESTs (Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Benke & Medgyes, 2005), Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) revealed that the native teachers of Spanish (NTSs) were not more tolerant of errors than the non-native teachers of Spanish (NNTSs) as a foreign language. Correction rate was 74.7% for NTSs, and 50% for NNTSs, pointing to a statistically significant difference.

2) NTSs provided explicit feedback (overt correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation) significantly more than NNTSs.

3) NTSs were consistent (i.e., providing *x* type of OCF for *y* errors) in their provision of explicit feedback for lexical and grammatical errors.

4) NNTSs did not provide implicit or explicit feedback consistently for any type of error, and did not bother much to address grammatical and phonological errors.

In the other thesis in question, Dilmaghani (2014) compared fifteen NESTs' and fifteen NNESTs' OCF giving patterns by drawing from ninety-hour length audio & video recordings of intermediate-level Turkish EFL students in a private language institution. This study is important, and maybe unique in terms of focusing on authentic OCF patterns of NESTs and NNESTs in an EFL context, with such a long duration of recordings of classroom interaction. Dilmaghani coded the types of OCF based on Lyster & Ranta's (1997) taxonomy. He analyzed the findings by utilizing both descriptive and inferential statistics and reached the following major findings:

1) The NNESTs provided higher amounts of OCF than the NESTs.

2) The NESTs resorted to explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback more than the NNESTs.

3) However, the NNESTs used clarification request, recast and elicitation more than the NESTs.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodologies designed separately for research and product phases in the present study. The information about the data collection instruments and procedures, data analyses, settings and participants is further provided in addition to the construction stages experienced in the product phase.

3.1 Design of the Study

This study is twofold, consisting of Research Phase and Product Phase. They are explained below in detail in a logical and sequential order.

3.1.1 Research Phase

3.1.1.1 Classroom-based Research

The present study has chosen natural classroom settings as the primary source of data. The main advantage of classroom-based studies lies in the fact that they have high ecological validity and thus are treasured by practitioners (Ellis, 2010b). Moreover, they are "most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of learners" (Spada & Lightbown, 2009, p. 159). Classroom-based research may target features in classroom interaction such as scaffolding, OCF, learner uptake, turn-taking, sequence organization, repair and so on (İnan, 2012). Serving as a practical data collection instrument for forming a raw database of classroom interaction containing those features, classroom observation is an irreplaceable component of classroom-based research.

3.1.1.1.1 Classroom Observations

In this descriptive classroom-based SLA study which in the first place set out to identify the targeted interactional behaviours in student-teacher interaction, i.e. types of errors made by the L2 learners, and types of OCF provided by the NESTs and NNESTs in response to learner errors, structured classroom observations were conducted. If we consider that "data collected through systematic observation[s] focus on the frequency with which specific behaviors or types of behavior occur in the classroom" (Waxman, Tharp, & Hilberg, 2004, p. 2) and that they enable researchers to examine the interactional moves in formal instruction, observational research design is cut out for the purposes of the present study. In spite of the fact that classroom observations are positioned under the umbrella of qualitative research methodology because they are based upon observations of human behavior, McNulty (2007) highlights a difference between qualitative research and systematic classroom observational research. While "the role of the observer [in the former] is to interpret human behaviors in order to examine the emerging themes" (p. 33), the observer takes a passive role in the latter either as a passive coder with a set of pre-determined codes or as a post facto coder without being present in the class in due course of classroom recordings.

According to Waxman et al. (2004), being objective and reliable, systematic classroom observations have been carried out to develop a scientific basis to teaching, and they help understand effective teaching. Classroom observations enable STs to focus on specific teaching skills they have been taught in pedagogy courses (Waxman et al., 2004), while at the same time they contribute significantly to the improvement of in-service practitioners' teaching competence, especially when teachers observe their own practices and reflect on these practices (Wragg, 1999).

Systematic observations involve observing selected samples of teachers and their classrooms, and they are generally made by experienced observers who subsequently analyzes them by using pre-determined codings (Hammersley, 1986 as cited in McNulty, 2007). In the present study, the researcher observed 7 NESTs and 7 NNESTs in 20 EFL classrooms within a period of approximately 6 weeks, totaling 55 course hours which amounts to upwards of 36 hours of audio recordings. Audio recordings help to find out what happens in the classroom, allow choice of focus (teacher, students, or both), and can be re-listened and examined many times for capturing details of a lesson (Richards & Lockhart, 2007). Sony ICD-PX333 audio tape recorder was used for recording classes in

the present study. To collect interactional data through the audio recordings, in the first place, official permissions were received from the institutions, and the observed teachers were distributed informed consent forms (Appendix A). By collaborating with the observed teachers beforehand on a voluntary basis without telling them about the foci of the recordings and what the researcher is exactly seeking for in the recorded classroom interactions, the observer (i.e. the researcher) got into the class with the course teacher. This was followed by a brief explanation to the observed students, telling them that these recordings were for research purposes only and that they were expected to speak, act and interact naturally as they usually did in their other lessons. Before each time different classes were recorded, the researcher gave the same instructions to students. Then, as a usual practice, the observer placed the device somewhere appropriate in the middle of the class so that the interaction between the teacher and his/her students could be heard clearly and well understood. The researcher was not present in the class during the audio recordings to avoid any observer effect (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010) and ensure data naturality. Following the completion of each lesson, the researcher got back to the class and picked the audio recording device. This sequence was repeated many times until the last recording was performed.

Best suited for the purposes of the present study, classroom observations were utilized to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the types of OCF preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs in Turkey?
2. How tolerant are NESTs and NNESTs of errors?
3. Which errors are corrected more frequently by NESTs and NNESTs?
4. What types of learner errors lead to what types of OCF by NESTs and NNESTs ?

For the present study, a 36-hour long database of interaction was obtained from 20 EFL preparatory classes at one private university and two state universities in Turkey. The observed classes were homogeneous in terms of students' proficiency level, which was A2. Class sizes varied from 16 to 25 students. While the observed NESTs were teaching listening and speaking, their non-native counterparts taught integrated courses. The courses taught by both teacher groups were oriented towards improving learners' *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills* (BICS) (Cummins, 1979), defined by Brown (2007) as the communicative capacity which learners acquire so as to function in daily interpersonal changes, being context-embedded in face-to-face communication. The NESTs and often

the NNESTs were teaching in compliance with what Ellis (2001) referred to as *incidental FonF*, "which involves brief and spontaneous attention to language items during communicative activities" (Loewen, 2011, p. 577).

The observed NESTs were not employed in a tenure-track position. They were working contractually at a private university, teaching 4 hours of listening & speaking in each of their classes. The NESTs were co-teaching with the NNESTs, sharing responsibility for teaching the same student groups. The NESTs came from the United States, with English being their L1. Except for one, all the NESTs had *CELTA* (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults), a TEFL certification. The non-certified NEST had previous teaching experience in other parts of Turkey too, as a Fulbright Fellow as well as having attended to workshops and classes to observe teaching techniques. Table 7 provides information about the NESTs' age, gender, graduated department and teaching experience.

Table 7

Information about the Observed NESTs

NEST	Gender	Age	Department Graduated	Years of Teaching
N1	Male	26	History	2
N2	Female	27	Psychology	3
N3	Female	23	International Relations	1
N4	Female	25	Art History	2,5
N5	Female	42	Administration	2,5
N6	Female	24	Communication	1
N7	Male	29	ELT	4

Table 8 shows the length of total and per-NEST audio recordings.

Table 8

Length of the NEST Observations

NEST		Length of Observation
N1	:	164 minutes (4 class hours)
N2	:	200 minutes (5 class hours)
N3	:	127 minutes (3 class hours)
N4	:	181 minutes (4 class hours)
N5	:	213 minutes (5 class hours)
N6	:	288 minutes (7 class hours)
N7	:	37 minutes (1 class hour)

Total: 1210 minutes (20.16 hours) of audio recordings from 29 listening&speaking lessons taught by the NESTs

On the other hand, the observed NNESTs were permanent teaching staff members in public universities. As in the NESTs', their classes were observed based on convenience of the classes, teachers and course schedule on a voluntary basis. In the two public universities where observations were made, there were no employed NESTs. The NNESTs were working collaboratively, two to four of them being responsible for each class. Table 9 provides information about the NNESTs.

Table 9

Information about the Observed NNESTs

NEST	Gender	Age	Department Graduated	Years of Teaching
NN 1	Male	47	ELT	22
NN 2	Female	27	ELT	5
NN 3	Female	29	ELT	7
NN 4	Male	29	Linguistics	6
NN 5	Male	25	ELT	3
NN 6	Male	43	American Culture and Lit.	21
NN 7	Male	32	ELT	7,5

Table 10 below shows the length of total and per-NNEST audio recordings.

Table 10

Length of the NNEST Observations

NNEST	Length of Observation
NN 1 :	139 minutes (4 class hours)
NN 2 :	125 minutes (3 class hours)
NN 3 :	171 minutes (4 class hours)
NN 4 :	143 minutes (3 class hours)
NN 5 :	55 minutes (2 class hours)
NN 6 :	100 minutes (3 class hours)
NN 7 :	232 minutes (7 class hours)
Total: 965 minutes (16.08 hours) of audio recordings from 26 integrated lessons taught by the NNESTs	

3.1.1.1.2 Analysis of the Classroom Interaction Data

With reference to the analysis of qualitative data, two types of data were analysed. The first set of data stemmed from classroom discourse based on the collection of classroom interaction data through classroom recordings. The purpose of analyzing the interaction data is to categorize the errors and OCF moves in classroom discourse between the students and their teachers in line with the targeted behaviours and purposes of the present research. In this part of the study, Interaction analysis was applied to the whole data set.

"Interaction analysis uses some type of coding system to investigate the communication patterns that occur in a classroom" (McKay, 2006, p. 89). To this end, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model of error treatment sequence was utilized to code the interactional data. Adapting their model in accordance with the scope of the present research (Figure 5), the researcher designed a coding system (Appendix B) in order to detect the types of error made by students and OCF types provided by their teachers during classroom interactions.

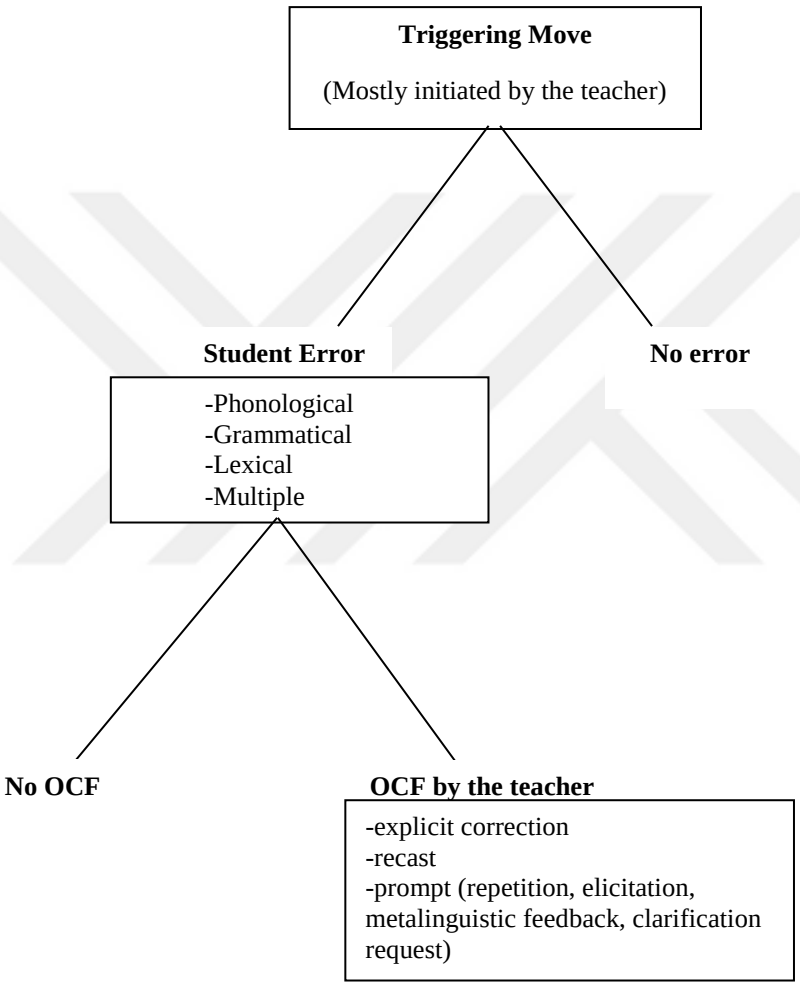


Figure 5: The adapted model of error treatment sequence (partially adapted from Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

In this analytical model, in the first place, a NEST or NNEST usually initiates the topic, discussion, dialogue etc. or asks students some questions about the content or whatever. However, it is not necessarily the teacher who triggers a conversation. This may also be fulfilled by students. Then, as a response, a student produces speech either unerringly or including at least one type of error. In the latter case, the teacher either ignores the error or provides OCF in the form of explicit correction, recast or prompt. This model comes to an

end at this point and does not proceed with if or how learners respond to the OCF by the teacher (i.e. uptake) because it falls outside of the boundaries of the current research.

The reason for utilizing Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model in the present study is that their model has been used in a wide array of language teaching and research contexts, although it was introduced to the literature through a study conducted in Canadian French immersion programs. Later on, several studies resorted to this model in ESL (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002) and EFL contexts (e.g., Lochtman, 2002; Suzuki, 2004; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Kassa, 2011; Zhang & Chatupote, 2014a). Moreover, the model was also drawn from in the Turkish EFL (e.g., Coşkun, 2010; Dilmaghani, 2014) which is also the context of the current research. Apart from the contextual validity suggested by the previous research, equally important reason for adopting this model is the systematicity and practicality it offers in the classification of errors and OCF moves. In earlier studies, for example, Fanselow (1977) identified 16 different ways of error treatment. Likewise, Chaudron's (1977) model included more than thirty different teacher reactions. As Kassa (2011) noted, " [Lyster and Ranta] have made it possible to better understand teachers' [oral] corrective feedback behavior by synthesizing earlier models, and, as a result, it is now possible to relate the teachers' behavior in this regard to language learning or acquisition" (p. 55).

3.1.1.1.3 Procedure for the Coding of the Interactions

Following the designing of the coding scheme, it was the time to set it in motion. Galton (1988) mentions three steps in observational research: a) recording the events, (b) coding events through the use of predetermined set of categories, and (c) analyzing the events. He further provides two alternatives in terms of the order of precedence: coding after audio/video recordings, or coding simultaneously with the events or behaviors occurring in the observed classroom. In the present study, coding was performed after finishing with the classroom recordings by using the coding scheme, not in the course of recordings.

The listening of a 36-hour long database of interaction and the isolated transcription of errors and OCF episodes in the database, an interconnected process, took the researcher approximately four months, having frequent pauses in the listenings each time an error (and a correction move if provided) occurred. After the coding process was completed by the researcher, an ELT postgraduate student was selected as a coder and trained on the coding system. He was introduced to the types of error L2 learners may commit, and

possible OCF types teachers may direct. Following the training, he was made to code randomly selected 60 OCF-containing episodes out of 558 (a subset of 11% of all the OCF episodes) by using the coding system previously designed by the researcher. It was seen that a 92% rate of intercoder agreement was reached. Then, an ELT professor was consulted to perform a thorough scrutiny of this coding throughout the whole database. He mingled the coding sheets and reviewed some of the OCF episodes. Some ambiguous cases were discussed until an agreement was arrived at. Following some constructive discussions on the coding system and question-and-answer session, he substantiated the accuracy of the codings.

Finally, analysis of the database generated numerical data. Quantification can enable researchers to generate hypotheses and verify the patterns that have been noticed (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Descriptive and inferential statistics were drawn from to report the observational research findings. Descriptive statistics were used to show the numbers, frequencies and percentage distributions. In addition, inferential statistical operations such as Chi-Square tests and logistic regression analysis were performed via SPSS 17.0 in the reporting of some of the findings. Since the obtained observational data were categorical (Bahar, Yener, & Gülaçtı, 2009), and the samples satisfy the standard binomial requirement (for example, OCF provided/not provided), Chi-Square tests of independence were conducted to test levels of significance. When sample sizes were small, Yates' correction was performed to prevent overestimation of statistical significance for small-scale data. Chi-Square test enables researchers to test for relationships between variables; however, it does not indicate the strength or direction of the relationship. Therefore, relative interpretations were made in company with the percentages of the groups. In addition, logistic regression analysis was run to explore relationships between variables because the dependent variable is binary, regressing for the probability of a categorical outcome.

3.1.1.1.4 Coding Definitions

In the coding of the interaction database, some considerations were specified, and the rationale motivating each decision is explained afterwards.

1. It was a prerequisite for coding the data to decide on what makes a word or utterance an erroneous one, and if so, which error category it needs to fall into, and which corrective move belongs to which family of OCF. At this juncture, Lyster's (1998a) specifications of

error groupings were considered. Errors in the use of determiners, prepositions, pronouns, noun/adjective agreements, and errors in tense, verb morphology, auxiliaries, subject/verb agreement, pluralization, negation, question formation, relativization and word order were considered grammatical errors. Lexical errors included inaccurate or inappropriate choices of lexical items such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives as well as nontarget derivations of nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives, involving incorrect use of prefixes and suffixes. When students mispronounced the words, whether alone or in a sentence, they were labelled as phonological errors. "Instances where students used [Turkish] when [English] would have been more appropriate and expected" (Lyster, 1998a, p. 279) were initially coded as unsolicited uses of L1. Then, however, unsolicited uses of L1 were categorized as lexical errors, due to the fact that learners switch to their L1 "because of their lack of lexical knowledge" (Yoshida, 2008, p. 82). This was also the case in Yoshida's own study. Lyster (1998a) coded multiple errors by taking into account the most prominent error type when no OCF was directed at them. When OCF was provided to multiple errors, he weighed the error type on which the teachers' OCF focused. Suzuki (2004) also categorized multiple errors based on the linguistic form targeted by the subsequent OCF. However, in his study, multiple errors were categorized individually independent of the other error types due to the fact that not all the multiple errors were conceived of as including errors in themselves, one being more prominent than the others. As for the types of OCF, they were labelled as recast, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification request, repetition and metalinguistic feedback as in Lyster and Ranta (1997). Afterwards, the six OCF types were reduced into three types by the researcher: recast, explicit correction, and prompts (elicitation, clarification request, repetition and metalinguistic feedback) considering that this taxonomy would allow for a more concrete and cumulative understanding of the research findings.

Table 11 provides examples of the types of error and OCF extracted from the database of interaction obtained from the classroom audio recordings.

Table 11

Coded Examples of Errors and OCF Moves

OCF Episode	*Error type*	*OCF type*
S: He *isn't* seen… T: Yes, he hasn't seen it very much.	Grammatical	Recast
S: *Ayasofya*. T: OK. It's called Hagia Sophia.	Phonological	Explicit Correction
S: Do you know *horse car*? T: What?	Lexical	Clarification Request (prompt)
S: Yes, she *has*. T: Not has, why? 'Last year'. In this case, we use simple past.	Grammatical	Metalinguistic Feedback (prompt)
S: I *don'ts* like drink *water*. T: I don't like….	Multiple (grammatical+phonological)	Elicitation (prompt)
S: Is *she* from Italy? T: She? (with emphasis)	Grammatical	Repetition (prompt)
S: because she got *divorced*. T: OK.	Phonological	No OCF

2. The omission of definite and indefinite articles (*a, an, the*) by the learners were not considered in the coding (e.g. *When I was [a] child...*). Since, given their very high frequency being repeated tens of times, these omissions were considered to be fossilized errors. However, in cases when they mismatched with nouns (as in the example *'a animal'*), they were coded as grammatical errors.

3. Mispronouncing of the frequently uttered words such as '*teacher*, *because*, *but*, *think*' were not included in error classification. The reason for so doing is that (1) they were mispronounced most of the time due to fossilization, and (2) teachers hardly provided correction to them, possibly thinking that they do not pose a barrier to intelligibility.

4. At times when students were made to read sentences or paragraphs in the book loudly, their pronunciation errors arising out of those read-alouds were kept out of consideration. This is because these errors did not emerge in the course of communicative activities such as tasks, discussions, pairwork, groupwork etc., but rather during reading aloud activities which by definition do not include interlocutors. In addition, it was seen that the observed teachers have not set certain standards in their minds regarding whether to correct these errors.

5. Classroom observations revealed very few instances of multiple feedback. In these rare cases, the dominant OCF type was considered for coding. (for example, repetition + metalinguistic feedback = metalinguistic feedback)

6. Translations provided to learners' unsolicited L1 use were coded as recasts because "translation clearly served the same function as a recast" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

7. Clarification requests were coded as OCF moves only when they followed learners' erroneous utterances. Those that were provided as a result of the teacher's misunderstanding of the learner's utterance or for the purposes of verification were not coded as OCF.

8. Though few in number, except recasting, all other OCF types were practised by the NNESTs in their learners' L1, i.e. in Turkish at least once. These correction moves were also included in coding the same way. For example, in response to a learner error, a NNEST's L1 utterance "bir daha söyle", meaning "say it again" was included in the category of elicitation. Likewise, another NNEST's repetition of a learner's misuse of past participle of drink by correcting "drink mi?", with the addition of an interrogative particle in Turkish to the verb was coded as repetition.

9. There were two OCF instances which included an observed teacher's repetition of his question upon students' misconceptions about the wh- questions. This was assumed to serve to elicit the correct answer from the students. Therefore, these moves were coded as elicitation, i.e. prompt in broad terms.

10. Another special case was that following a learner's failure to form a syntactically appropriate sentence, a NNEST responded as "söylemeye çalıştın" and its English equivalent "you tried to say" subsequently. Since it was oriented towards discussing the language, this move was labelled as metalinguistic feedback.

11. The observed teachers rarely opted for delaying the OCF moves until the end of conversational turns or tasks. Irrespective of their being delayed, they were coded in accordance with their types.

12. The student turns without apparent prominence or those that were not able to be perceived clearly by the researcher were kept out of the analysis.

3.1.1.2 Qualitative Method: Interview

Qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry which enables researchers to interpret what they see, hear, and understand. (Creswell, 2009). It aims to explain the cultural or personal meanings in the observed phenomena, and it is only the actual participants themselves who can bring the meanings and interpretations of their experiences and actions into the open (Dörnyei, 2007). In this sense, as an oft-used qualitative method of inquiry, interviews are well-suited for getting the story behind the experiences of participants. Interviews can make this possible by giving access to the context of people's behaviour (Seidman, 2006), providing in-depth information around the topic and serving as a follow-up to respondents' practices and experiences (McNamara, 1999). Given these virtues, interviews differ from questionnaires in that they allow for the flexibility of expanding on underlying motivations, beliefs and perceptions at a depth that questionnaires cannot offer (Richards, 2009). To this end, as a follow-up to the initially formulated observation-oriented research questions and as an extention of the results obtained from the classroom observations, semi-structured interviews were held with the NESTs and NNESTs following the classroom observations in order to make sense of their dispositions towards error correction and OCF provision in L2 classroom. With these purposes in mind, the following research question was developed:

Are there any cross-cultural influences that affect OCF preferences of the NESTs and NNESTs?

In the present study, the reason for conducting semi-structured interviews is that in this type of interview, the interviewer may deviate from the main guide and use different questions (Friedman, 2012), which then allows the interview to develop in unexpected directions and leads to the opening up of important new areas (Richards, 2009). Before doing the interviews, a convenient interview checklist (Valenzuela & Shrivastava, 2005) was utilized as a preparation for the interview (Appendix C). Necessary procedures were also followed during the interviews, such as verifying occasionally if the tape recorder is working (while interviewing the NESTs), making transitions among major topics, attempting to remain as neutral as possible and encouraging responses and so forth (Valenzuela & Shrivastava, 2005).

Following the opening part asking for information about the NESTs' and NNESTs' age, teaching experience and graduated department, the interview (Appendix D) included

questions aiming at eliciting answers concerning the NESTs' and NNESTs' conceptions of error correction in L2 classroom in general terms, error correction in their own contexts and the contribution of teacher training they went through to their OCF practices, if any, and so forth. Totaling 13 questions, the interview included questions developed exclusively by Lennane (2007) in order to examine the cross-cultural influences on OCF preferences of the NESTs and Taiwanese NNESTs as well as those raised by Hendrickson (1978) to form a basis for the field of error correction. Hendrickson's (1978) questions did not suffer any relevance issues because SLA researchers have been addressing them for almost forty years. Lennane's (2007) interview questions were also adopted with peace of mind, having served the same purposes as the present study in a formerly written PhD dissertation. These overseas borrowed questions were then adapted to the Turkish research context with small modifications (for example, the replacement of *Taiwanese learners of English* with *Turkish learners of English*). Next, the draft version of the interview questions were examined by an ELT professional in terms of suitability for the purposes of the current research, which led to minor modifications in the interview questions. Following the completion of minor modifications, the final version of the interview was applied to 7 NESTs and 7 NNESTs after having observed their classes. The interviewees were the same teachers whose classes were audio recorded, but for one NNEST who was substituted by another NNEST due to convenience. This substitution did not pose a problem for the purposes of the interviews on the grounds that the interviews were not based on retrospective concerns, such as seeking to evoke and elicit teachers' past teaching practices with stimulated recall protocols. Rather, they were simply targeted at exploring the cross-cultural influences on the NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF preferences.

Based on availability and convenience, interviews were held with the NESTs face to face, whereas the NNESTs submitted their answers by e-mail, not face to face due to scheduling constraints. Audio recorded face-to-face interviews with the NESTs lasted twenty-five minutes on average, varying from fifteen to thirty minutes for each NEST based on the extensibility of their responses. In order to make up for this extension gap in the NNESTs' written responses through e-mails, the interview questions were accompanied by originative expressions such as *please comment, you can make further explanations, why, if yes how, if not why not* etc. to elicit responses in more detail, so that longer stretches of explanations were obtained. During the interview recordings, in advance of the questions, the NESTs were provided with introductive information about the types of OCF and error,

timing options for correction and by whom OCF can be provided. Likewise, such information was placed into written interview questions distributed to the NNESTs through e-mail. In this way, both the NESTs and NNESTs were made to comment more fully by being more cognisant of the options regarding OCF.

3.1.1.2.1 Analysis of the Follow-up Interviews

The second type of qualitative data was derived from the interviews with the NESTs and NNESTs. The follow-up interviews were content analyzed qualitatively. The analysis of the interview data was oriented towards interpreting the textual data to find the dominant discourses in the NESTs' and NNESTs' conceptions regarding error correction, cross-cultural factors on their OCF practices, and their dispositions towards OCF in the Turkish EFL context. The procedure for the analysis is explained in detail below.

The recorded interviews with the NESTs were first transcribed, then juxtaposed with the written responses obtained from the NNESTs to enable a standard and systematic analysis. After the transcribing process, a three-stage coding approach was adopted to organise the data: open, axial and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The initial stage, open coding process, involves being open-minded about what the research is trying to find in the data. It is a procedure for labelling and developing categories of information (Khiat, 2010). The first stage was performed in the present study sentence-by-sentence through cyclical reading with a specific focus on the words of the interviewees. Following the reading of the NESTs' and NNESTs' interview transcripts over and over again by the researcher, a repository of open codes was generated. By and large, these generated codes were closely related to the interviewees' multi-dimensional dispositions towards error correction in different aspects, what they choose to do in class as a usual error correction practice, how Turkish EFL learners feel and respond to them and so forth. Every relevant code was noted for consideration. Following the cyclical readings and emergence of the initial codes, it was noticed by the researcher that theoretical saturation was provided (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), which is crucial "to help ensure that adequate information has been gathered to accurately reflect the perspectives of the study's participants" (Kolb, 2012, p. 85). This was understood as the analyses got deeper because some of the interviewees began to repeat themselves and touch upon the matters with similar viewpoints and utterances. In addition, the emergent codes were considered sufficient to lead to the development of well-grounded interpretations in the end and clearly portray the situation. In the next step of

open coding, an elaborate comparison of the codes, i.e. their classification in terms of similarity, enabled them to be translated into conceptual labels, and then to categories. In other words, in this process, chunks of data were linked to be representative of the same phenomena.

The second stage, axial coding is "a process of relating categories to their subcategories" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 123), with the information that subcategory here denotes a category which is related to—not a subclass of—a focal category (LaRossa, 2005). Development of main categories and subcategories is central to axial coding (Khiat, 2010). In this stage, the relationship of categories were explored and connections were made among the them. Selective coding, the final stage and a refining process, allowed for the determination of final categories to interpret the data, followed by the reporting of findings pursuant to the emergent categories.

Apart from the researcher, the data were further crosschecked and analyzed by an independent ELT expert to ensure interrater reliability and to identify to what extent they overlap. The whole qualitative set of data were categorized with a 90% similarity between the categorization of the researcher and that of the independent expert. In the light of constructive feedback received, minor modifications were made in the categories.

3.1.2 Product Phase

This phase includes developing ONOCEF for pre-service English teacher education, practising it on ELT STs to affirm its applicability in SLTE contexts, and making their performances subject to peer evaluation in the light of the emergent online tool. The ONOCEF is a series of online videos designed for pre-service EFL teachers. Using videos in pre-service teacher education can increase STs' ability to apply knowledge (Seidel et al., 2013).

3.1.2.1 An Online Course on Oral Corrective Feedback (ONOCEF)

The ONOCEF is a set of online videos designed to equip ELT STs with the theoretical background and practical knowledge of error correction and OCF provision in such a way to contribute to their OCF practices in their future classes that may include a number of variables and students with different proficiency levels. A good reason for designing such an OCF course is that "the neophyte second language L2 teacher finds so little in the

research literature to help deal with the very practical issue of what to do when students make errors in classrooms" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 38). The ONOCEF consists of four parts, covering Hendrickson's five framing questions relative to error correction. SLA research should attempt to answer Hendrickson's questions in order to help L2 practitioners make informed decisions about error correction (Russell, 2009).

3.1.2.1.1 Objectives of the ONOCEF

Before elaborating on the content and the procedure for the design of the ONOCEF, it is apt to mention what the ONOCEF is aimed at in general terms. The ONOCEF seeks to

- ✓ promote knowledge-based reasoning,
- ✓ build knowledge on what to do in real classes,
- ✓ build knowledge on how to interpret and reflect,
- ✓ bridge the gap between theory and practice,

as well as reaching more specific course objectives specified below:

- ❖ to acquaint ELT STs with error and OCF-related concepts and ideas,
- ❖ to boost STs' knowledge of different OCF strategies,
- ❖ to provide first-hand, creative examples of effective OCF strategies which STs can draw from as they start their professional career,
- ❖ to inform STs about the theoretical and hypothetical underpinnings of error correction and different OCF types,
- ❖ to highlight some essential research findings,
- ❖ and finally to help STs develop their own understanding of providing OCF effectively with regards to Hendrickson's (1978) seminal questions, which also comprise the units of the ONOCEF :
- ➢ Should learners' errors be corrected?
- ➢ How should learners' errors be corrected?
- ➢ Which errors should be corrected?
- ➢ When should learners' errors be corrected?
- ➢ Who should do the correcting?

Additionally, the ONOCEF was intended to serve as a content-rich online course that can also be utilized by teacher trainers as a part of face-to-face instruction in SLTE methodology courses in the form of blended learning. It can further provide a base for the

creation of a larger scale compulsory or elective course on corrective feedback to be added to the SLTE program.

3.1.2.1.2 The ONOCEF Learning Outcomes

After taking the online course, irrespective of when and where, it is assumed that STs will:

- have a grasp of the theory of OCF and the terminology of what they will actually be doing,
- come to an understanding of how, when, why and whether to provide correction as well as for which errors and by whom,
- understand which OCF strategies lead to more permanent language acquisition and work better for certain error types and proficiency levels through empirical evidence,
- adopt and internalize certain OCF practices for different teaching situations by copying examples of real OCF practices,
- not think twice while employing a wide repertoire of OCF strategies in their classes.

3.1.2.1.3 What the ONOCEF Includes

The ONOCEF casts the role of an audience to STs, basically resting on lecture mode, which they can reflect upon in their actual teaching. The ONOCEF includes a number of course elements which are exemplified separately below.

Theoretical and Hypothetical Underpinnings

Although the ONOCEF is primarily intended to assist ELT STs to make practical decisions regarding OCF, theoretical accounts and explanations are also provided. Throughout the course, relevant theories and assumptions are highlighted in order to provide a scientific base for actual classroom practices. Below are given exemplary excerpts taken from the course:

Excerpt 1:

> *Also, Lyster and H. Mori (2006), in their Counterbalance hypothesis, assert that using the OCF type that is opposite the communicative orientation of the classroom will momentarily shift learners' attention to the error correction. They advise teachers in highly form-focused*

classrooms to use recasts, and teachers in classrooms that are more meaning-focused to use prompts (Russell, 2009). *This OCF practice, they state, would allow for noticing OCF and language awareness.* (Part II)

Excerpt 2:

Doughty (2001), for example, argued that for OCF to result in change in a learner's L2 system, it needs to take place in a 'window of opportunity' and attract roaming attention to form while the learner's focal attention remains on meaning. In this way, OCF helps the learner to construct a form-meaning mapping, which is essential for true acquisition to occur (Ellis, 2009). (Part IV)

Suggestions and Classroom Implications

Suggestions and implications provided throughout the course are in fact what makes the ONOCEF more efficacious and meaningful in the eyes of STs in terms of being directly related to the practice of OCF.

Excerpt 1:

Integrate both OCF applications [focused and unfocused feedback] *in both accuracy and fluency work in your classes. For example, you can take a structure-of-the-day approach and focus on correcting article errors or the articulation of 'r' sound only, while engaging learners in conversations or speaking activities, as well as putting into action your common OCF practices.* (Part II)

Excerpt 2:

What about recasting phonological errors while students are engaged in reading activities? What do you think? Does it help pronunciation development? Is it marked and noticeable? How do they learners perceive it? Well, for example, you got one of your students to read a given paragraph and you noticed pronunciation errors in his or her reading. At this point, providing the correct pronunciation with a loud and deliberate tone of voice will definitely be perceived as a correction. Learners will be explicitly made aware that their pronouncing of words is erroneous. Learners will not think teachers' recasting of their erroneous pronunciation is an alternative for their mispronunciation. So, I can say, recasting learners' misprononciations is useful in the course of reading. (Part III)

Excerpt 3:

Reinforce the corrective purpose of OCF moves with paralinguistic signals. For example, while providing recast, you can use your hands or fingers to indicate that their nontarget output should include the past form. Or your repetition of learners' erroneous utterance as an OCF move may be accompanied by a surprised face and eyes wide open. Such signals make OCF moves more noticable. Also change your voice tone while providing OCF. Add stress for emphasis. Become somebody different temporarily while giving OCF. So that you can draw specific interest at that time, which also means grabbing interest in your OCF moves. (Part II)

Excerpt 4:

Make them learn from their own errors. Initially, make audio or video recordings of your classes. For the next lesson, get them to listen to the recordings and ask them at which points they committed errors and get them to correct these errors. If they fail to do so, provide the correct forms as well as alternative forms, if any. Another possible activity might be to ask them to edit the video that includes their linguistic errors. Ultimately, students, with edited videos for each, work out each other's errors collaboratively. (Part II)

Evidence from the Relevant Research

At the very beginning of the first video, STs were told that they can integrate the research findings to be introduced in the ONOCEF into their own future language classes, with the caveat that every class has its own variables and it is necessary to screen out the research findings before actually applying them in their classes.

Excerpt 1:

> *Lyster et al. (2013) investigated several studies and they concluded that teachers and interlocutors tend to provide more OCF on grammatical than on other error types. These studies have also shown that learners generate more successful repair and accurate perceptions of OCF on lexical and phonological errors…. So, Lyster and his friends inferred that OCF might be more facilitative of lexical and pronunciation development than of morphosyntactic development.* (Part III)

Research findings were also blended with some suggestions as in the following example.

> *Y. Sheen (2008) investigated the effects of language anxiety on the effectiveness of recasts. She found that low-anxiety learners receiving recasts significantly outperformed the high-anxiety group. Therefore, provide a warm and friendly atmosphere in language classes so that students do not feel anxious or discouraged by corrections. They will feel OK in time, thinking that such instructional interventions are expected and pedagogicalally necessary for their L2 development.* (Part I)

Authentic OCF Practices

Having been sprung from the classroom audio recordings collected for the research phase of the current study, several authentic OCF examples were also embedded in the ONOCEF. They were placed into the videos with a simulated picture of classroom environment and the transcription of what the observed teacher and her/his students were communicating at that time.

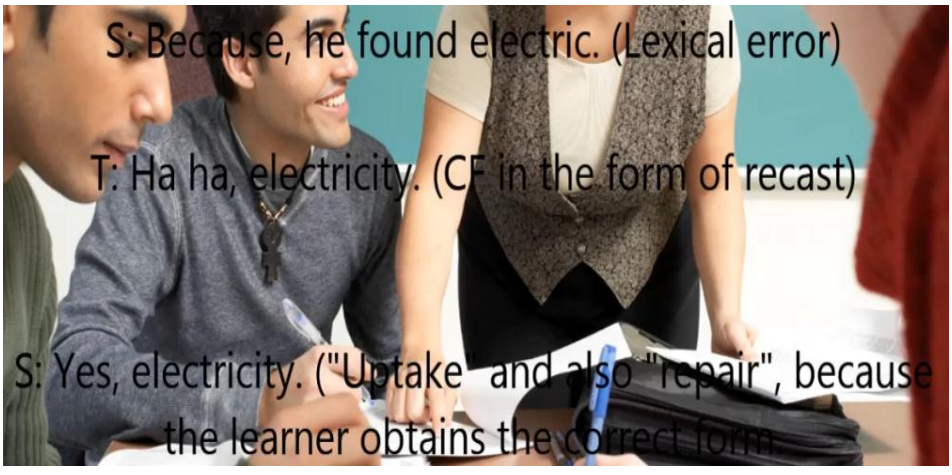


Figure 6. An excerpt of classroom discourse from one of the observed classes

The ONOCEF contained elements of Wallace's (1991) Craft Model, Applied Science Model and Reflective Model. Yet, it was basically grounded on Reflective Model if we consider that its evaluation process (to be detailed later) enables STs to think analytically about their peers' performances and reflect on the input of the ONOCEF, and thus serves to elicit peer feedback and reflection.

3.1.2.1.4 What the ONOCEF is not

In the first place, the aim of the ONOCEF is not *training*, but *development*. Though it serves to train STs in an effort to promote their knowledge and practice of error correction, the main rationale motivating the design of the ONOCEF was to help them generate ideas, consider new possibilities and build on their own pre-planned classroom practices, thereby paving the way for developing several tactics and strategies, alternative classroom scenarios, and the state of readiness of what to do in real classes.

If one considers that the single 'best' OCF strategy may be a chimera (Ellis, 2012), and there can be no single set of guidelines for providing OCF because individual and contextual variables directly influence whether, how and when OCF is effective (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011), and that it is not advisable to make generalizations about the benefits of any particular OCF type due to the broadness and nonuniformity of OCF research literature (Lyster & Ranta, 2013), the ONOCEF is not intended to be an e-prescription of what to do word-for-word in certain situations.

3.1.2.2 Procedure for the Design, Implementation and Evaluation of the ONOCEF

In the design, implementation and evaluation of the ONOCEF, The ADDIE Model for instructional system design was adopted. It is a five-step instructional design model commonly used to develop, implement and evaluate performance improvement services (Danks, 2011).



Figure 7. Stages of the ADDIE model

3.1.2.2.1 Stage I: Needs Analysis

"A needs analysis should be conducted at the start of any development effort to determine whether [1] training is required to fill a gap in professional knowledge and skills; and [2] e-learning is the best solution to deliver the training" (FAO, 2011, p. 21). In the first step of the ADDIE model, as the sampling of the universe which includes all the ELT programs in Turkish universities, a needs analysis survey (NAS) was carried out to 182 3rd grader ELT STs attending the ELT programs at one private and two public universities in Turkey. Items of the NAS were prepared based on the OCF application alternatives in the class and OCF-related challenges STs may potentially encounter in their future teaching. The NAS items were composed by the researcher as a result of extensive reading on oral correction bearing in mind what ELT STs would be in need of regarding OCF. One of the rational ways of testing content validity is to receive expert opinion (Büyüköztürk, 2012). Thus, these items were made subject to the reviews of two field experts. The resulting NAS developed out of the experts' feedback, followed by their approval of the final form which experienced minor modifications. This way, content validity was ensured for the instrument.

The purpose of the NAS was to find out (1) how good they feel they could be at performing OCF from different perspectives, and (2) if they think there is a need for a specific course on OCF in the current ELT teacher education program. Table 12 shows the findings of the first part of the NAS.

In the first part of the NAS, Cronbach's reliability was found to be 0.80. In general terms, findings obtained from the first part of the NAS revealed that the STs have moderate-to-high self-efficacy beliefs about their potential OCF operations.

Table 12

Findings of the First Part of the NAS

If you started teaching English, please mark how good you could be at …

	Low	*Moderate*	*High*	*Mean(out of 3) / Sd*
1. Identifying students' oral CF needs	8 (4.4%)	109 (59.9%)	65 (35.7%)	2.31 / .552
2. Choosing CF type depending on students' proficiency levels	10 (5.5%)	98 (53.8%)	74 (40.7%)	2.35 / .583
3. Being selective about the error type to be corrected	15 (8.2%)	96 (52.7%)	71 (39%)	2.31 / .616
4. Being selective about the CF type to be used	17 (9.3%)	94 (51.6%)	71 (39%)	2.30 / .631
5. Deciding on the right time to correct errors	13 (7.1%)	70 (38.5%)	99 (54.4%)	2.47 / .628
6. Deciding on the right time to tolerate errors	12 (6.6%)	76 (41.8%)	94 (51.6%)	2.45 / .618
7. Prompting students to self-repair	12 (6.6%)	81 (44.5%)	89 (48.9%)	2.42 / .615
8. Creating situations for peer-repair	14 (7.7%)	88 (48.4%)	80 (44%)	2.36 / .622
9. Deciding whether to correct errors	10 (5.5%)	91 (50%)	81 (44.5%)	2.39 / .591
10. Predicting the efficacy of CF to be provided	11 (6%)	119 (65.4%)	52 (28.6%)	2.23 / .545
11. Being able to choose from a variety of oral CF types	27 (14.8%)	109 (59.9%)	46 (25.3%)	2.10 / .626
12. Providing a wide range of CF for different error types	23 (12.6%)	95 (52.2%)	64 (35.2%)	2.23 / .655
13. Being able to personalize CF when necessary	21 (11.5%)	102 (56%)	59 (32.4%)	2.21 / .631
14. Deciding who will correct the errors (teacher, self-repair or peer-repair)	7 (3.8%)	79 (43.4%)	96 (52.7%)	2.49 / .573

(1=low, 2=moderate, 3=high) *Cronbach's Alpha Reliability: 0 .795*

Analysis of the second part of the NAS (Table 13) pointed to several shortcomings in different dimensions and did not decisively show that the STs have necessary information about what to do. For example, while a total of 85% of the STs (yes + partly) stated that they were informed of OCF types and 86% of the STs (yes + partly) felt that they were competent enough to provide OCF effectively, only 32% of them said *yes* (*partly* not included) when they were asked if they had a repertoire of OCF strategies to put into practice, and only 36% of them did so when they were asked if they received enough instruction on OCF. While the emergent data from this part of the NAS can be commented in different ways depending on what inference one tries to make, STs' responses to the last

two items straightforwardly revealed the need for an OCF-based course in their program and their willingness or approval for benefiting from an online OCF course. Close to four fifth of the STs approved that there is a need for a course on OCF in the ELT program (79.7%) and that they would consider benefiting from an online course to improve their skills and knowledge in providing OCF (78%). Eventually, this stated need led the researcher to set out to construct the ONOCEF.

Table 13

Findings of the Second Part of the NAS

	Yes	*No*	*Partly*
1. Are you informed of ELT terms and concepts such as "learner uptake, negative evidence, repair and incorporation" in oral corrective feedback?	60(33%)	46(25.3%)	76(41.8%)
2. Are you informed of oral corrective feedback types?	90(49.5%)	27(14.8%)	65(35.7%)
3. Does your program provide you with the necessary skills and knowledge concerning oral corrective feedback ?	71(39%)	41(22.5%)	70(38.5%)
4. Do you feel competent enough to provide oral corrective feedback effectively to your future students?	66(36.3%)	25(13.7%)	91(50%)
5. Have you got a repertoire of oral corrective feedback strategies in your mind to put into practice?	59(32.4%)	42(23.1%)	81(44.5%)
6. Do you think you have received enough instruction on oral corrective feedback?	66(36.3%)	36(19.8%)	80(44%)
7. Have you observed fine examples of oral corrective feedback in your methodology courses?	69(37.9%)	39(21.4%)	74(40.7%)
8. Would an online course help you develop your skills and knowledge on giving oral feedback?	67(36.8%)	48(26.4%)	67(36.8%)
9.Is there a need for a course on how to give oral corrective feedback in your ELT program?	*YES/* 145(79.7%)	*NO/* 37(20.3%)	
10. Would you consider benefiting from an online course offering you short videos to improve your skills and knowledge in providing feedback?	*YES/* 142(78%)	*NO/* 40(22%)	

3.1.2.2.2 Stage II: Design

The second stage of the ADDIE model, design phase includes formulating a set of learning objectives and "addresses how instructional goals and objectives shape instructional strategies" (Lohr, 1998, p. 441). This stage of the model was previously mentioned in the introductory part of the ONOCEF.

3.1.2.2.3 Stage III: Developing the ONOCEF

The development phase is in essence what one literally understands from the word *design*. In this phase, the e-learning content is built and the tools and processes used to develop the content are addressed.

Throughout the development of the ONOCEF, Ellis's (2010b) principles of designing a course in SLA for graduate programs were closely followed, some of which are given below:

1. The overall objective of the course should be to make contribution to teacher learning by helping them develop their own theory of how learners learn.
2. The topics covered in the course must be germane to teaching and pedagogically useful.
3. The course should include an experiential component. This way, the trainees can be induced to relate what they learn in the course to their own teaching experience.
4. Teacher trainers developing SLA courses for teachers need to make these courses subject to evaluation. So that the ideas that teachers found useful can be explored.

Development stage of the ONOCEF required a large amount of preliminary preparation. In the first place, a thorough review of the relevant literature was performed. On a selective basis, this review resulted in determining close to sixty resources as the corpus of the course including theses, books, book chapters, articles, proceedings and presentations. Following the thorough reading of the relevant sections of these materials, cyclical scanning was performed on them. The reading process for developing the ONOCEF was actually blended with the researchers' parallel readings for the current research. This process enabled the researcher to come up with plenty of memos and underlined hints to be placed into the course. Then, the resources were sorted in accordance with the separate issues to be covered in the course. For example, the part of a material with a focus on peer correction was reserved for the related course. Similarly, another part of the same material was segregated for another topic of the course. This categorization of the materials was followed by specifically dealing with each part of the course. Cogitating about what ELT STs would really need to hear, the texts for each course content were prepared separately in a logical order. Then it was the time for the researcher to appear before the camera. Initially, raw course videos were made by using Sony HVR-HD1000P video camera. Afterwards, these videos were montaged by adding small clips, tables, figures, pictures and so on. Microsoft Movie Maker program was utilized for montages. The whole process thus

far took the researcher approximately six months. Table 14 provides information about the specifications of each part of the ONOCEF.

Table 14

Content of the ONOCEF

Part I: Should learners' errors be corrected? *Issues Covered:* - Certain concepts (error, types of error, OCF and types of OCF, uptake, repair etc.) - Approaches to error correction - The role of error correction in L2 development - Considerations in giving OCF *Duration:* 29 minutes
Part II: How should errors be corrected? *Issues Covered:* - Different taxonomies (Reformulation and prompts, explicit and implicit OCF) - Pros and cons of different OCF types - Learner perceptions on different OCF types - Several ways of giving effective OCF *Duration:* 32 minutes
Part III: Which errors should be corrected? *Issues Covered:* - Errors revisited (Global and local errors, error vs. mistake etc.) - Prioritization of errors to be handled - Effective error type-OCF type matchings *Duration:* 27 minutes
Part IV: When should learner errors be corrected? Who should correct errors? *Issues Covered:* - The analytical process of error treatment (from the emergence of error to teacher's ultimate decision) - The timing of correction for different course orientations (immediate and delayed OCF) - Error correction by different agents (OCF by the teacher, self- and peer correction) *Duration:* 30 minutes

3.1.2.2.4 Stage IV-V: Implementation (Flipped Classroom) and Evaluation

Upon the development of the ONOCEF, the implementation and evaluation phases were carried into effect. These two phases were intertwined with each other, therefore they are explained together under one subheading.

The implementation phase of the ONOCEF included flipped classroom or flipped learning "in which students can watch instructional videos outside the classroom and can do the assignments and other engaging activities inside the classroom" (Başal, 2012, p. 8). This type of learning allows for a more effective use of class hours in formal instruction and seemingly creates opportunities for students to study individually outside the classroom.

The application of the flipped model started with the *outside* step. The subjects were 30 3rd grader ELT STs at a public university. Videos were uploaded to Google Drive by the researcher, a cloud storage platform, which allowed the STs to have access to and watch the videos upon the owner's permission. The STs' e-mail addresses were collected, and then they were granted access to the videos. For several reasons, the videos were not made available with online educational platforms such as WebCT, Edmodo and so on. While some of them did not offer enough storage capacity, others required licensing or lent themselves to synchronous applications. Being asynchronous, cloud storage served effectively for the online distribution of the ONOCEF.

The *inside* part of the flipped model was integrated into the *Teaching Language Skills* course in the ELT program. The class of 30 STs was arranged in pairs, totaling 15 pairs. Occupying three weeks of the semester in total, five pairs performed microteachings each week. Each performance lasted 20 to 25 minutes. The idea was that the STs were to watch the online course input outside the class, and then display the evidence (i.e. correction and OCF practices) in their microteaching performances (speaking microteachings) in the formal classroom. These speaking demos were based on a lesson plan (Appendix E) which included pre-, while- and post- stages. The demos were drawing on communicative tasks/activities and materials such as role cards, worksheets, posters and so forth. Throughout the microteachings, the performing student teachers (PSTs) took the role of an English teacher, while the non-performing student teachers (NPSTs) acted as English learners at the proficiency level proposed in the lesson plan. Each ST experienced the role of an English teacher once (therefore they became *PSTs*), and the role of an English learner

many times (therefore they became *NPSTs*). More or less, several phonological, lexical and sometimes grammatical errors occurred in the NPSTs' speech while engaging in the activities. Naturally, the errors made by the NPSTs represent the language proficiency they were acting out. In response, the PSTs were often seen to correct the NPSTs, though not necessarily.

Following the performances of each pair of PSTs, the NPSTs wrote reflection papers by utilizing a peer evaluation form about OCF (Appendix F) in order to evaluate the PSTs' correction techniques in the speaking microteachings based on the content of the ONOCEF. The reflection papers include items to elicit the NPSTs' responses with regards to what the PSTs were actually able to do in terms of corrective practice, what they fell short in, and what the NPSTs would do if they were performing.

The reason for utilizing peer reflection papers in the evaluation of the ONOCEF by the STs is that they would provide observational evidence of what was genuinely practised by their peers, contrary to a set of questions or items in a questionnaire or interview form which could not yield information beyond perceptual or affective level.

The data obtained from the reflection papers served to answer the following research question:

Does the proposed ONOCEF exert any impact on EFL student teachers' competences concerning OCF?

Though the subjects might have been taught previously about error correction in methodology courses in broad terms, the researcher assumes that any evidence of error correction and OCF practice that appears in their microteachings is a gain from the ONOCEF on the grounds that the STs have not taken any specific OCF-focused course before. The schedule of the implementation of the whole flipped model is shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Schedule of the Flipped Process

Before the first microteachings:	PART I-II uploaded	→	videos watched		
1st week:	1st microteachings completed	→	reflection papers collected		
Following the first microteachings:	PART III-IV uploaded	→	PART I-II-III-IV watched		
2nd week:	2nd microteachings completed	→	reflection papers collected	→	PART I-II-III-IV watched again
3rd week:	3rd microteachings completed	→	reflection papers collected		

The input (watching the ONOCEF), output (microteachings) and data collection (reflection papers) procedures realized a cyclical process. In this process, not all the parts (I-II-III-IV) were administered to the STs in one go. So that overloading of information was avoided and the STs were given time flexibility to assimilate new knowledge. After the flipped process ended, the ONOCEF Quiz (Appendix G) was delivered to the STs. The reason for giving out this quiz was to make sure that they watched the whole set of the ONOCEF course. They were told in advance that the scores of this quiz would comprise a 20% part of the total grading of the *Teaching Language Skills* course. The mean quiz score was 70.5 out of 100, which led the researcher to be satisfied that the course was mindfully taken by the STs.

3.1.2.2.5 Analysis of the Reflection Papers

Analysis of the peer reflections gathered through the reflection papers was conducted to reveal the ONOCEF components in the PSTs' microteachings. It served to find out which OCF strategies the PSTs were able to apply, and at which points they showed incompetencies regarding OCF in their performances. Of the three parcels of reflection papers collected successively, the second and third-party evaluations were picked for the analysis. Being the last two of the three-party peer reflections as can be seen in the schedule above, they were assumed to include more informed and experienced evaluations than the first-party reflections that were projected only through the viewing of PART I-II, not the whole set of the ONOCEF. Therefore, the second and third-party reflection papers were considered as the optimal documents to be analyzed. Of the 234 reflection papers collected, one third of them, amounting to 78, were randomly chosen as the sampling of all the second and third-party reflection papers.

The second and third-party reflection papers were subject to content analysis, which "describes a specific context within which a distinct type of data can be gathered and analyzed" (Suddaby, 2006, p. 636). In order to make an ideal description of this specific context which includes evaluating the PSTs' OCF practices in the eyes of the NPSTs based on the content of the ONOCEF, direct quotations were put to use as a way of reporting data in qualitative analysis. It was thought that the NPSTs' observational evaluation of the PSTs could best be portrayed this way in order to lead to crystal clear descriptions rather than make an interpretive summary of their observations. The subjects' own words were

elaborately selected to augment the vivid description of the qualitative set of data (Croker, 2009).

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the current study. The findings are presented separately in line with the contexts in which different types of data were collected.

4.1 Findings of the Classroom Observation Research

This part provides a quantitative account of the interactional data obtained from the audio recordings of the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes. In this part of the findings, each research question deals separately with a specific dimension of the NESTs' and NNESTs' classroom OCF practices. To begin with, the first research question addresses the types of OCF preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs in a 36-hour long recording of student-teacher interaction.

Research Question 1: What are the types of OCF preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs in Turkey?

Table 16 shows the NESTs' and NNESTs' preferences for different OCF types as well as the total number of each OCF move. Figure 8 graphically depicts the percentage distribution of OCF types preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs in the whole data set.

In this observational data set, the NESTs provided 332 (%59) OCF moves to learner errors, while the NNESTs directed OCF 226 (% 41) times, totaling 558 (%100) OCF moves. Of these OCF moves, as is evident in Table 16 and Figure 8, recast is by far the most preferred type of OCF by both the NESTs (89%, *n*=296) and NNESTs (73%, *n*=164). This preference amounts to 82% (*n*=460) of the total OCF moves by the two teacher groups.

This suggests that recasting is seemingly both the NESTs' and NNESTs' established way of correcting their learners' ill-formed utterances.

Besides, the NESTs and NNESTs displayed the same order of frequency in their uses of other OCF types. While prompt was their second most preferred OCF type (the NESTs, 9%, *n*=29; the NNESTs, 23%, *n*=53), it was explicit correction that both the NESTs and NNESTs resorted to the least (2%, *n*=7 and 4%, *n*=9, respectively). It may well be said that explicit correction hardly exists in the NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF repertoire. Taken together, explicit corrections and prompts provided by the two groups make up less than one fifth of the total amount of OCF by them (18%, *n*=98).

Table 16

Distribution of OCF Types Provided by the NESTs and NNESTs (In a Total of 20.16 Hours of NEST and 16.08 Hours of NNEST Classroom Recordings)

	NESTs (N=332)		*NNESTs (N=226)*		*Total (N=558)*	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Recast	296	89	164	73	460	82
Prompt	29	9	53	23	82	15
Explicit Correction	7	2	9	4	16	3

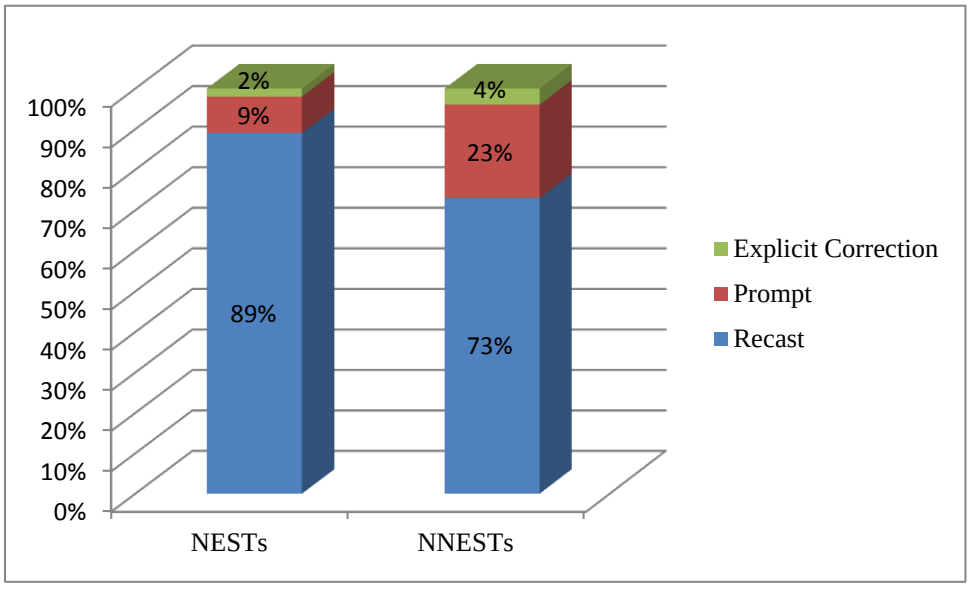


Figure 8. Percentage distribution of OCF types preferred by the NESTs and NNESTs

In order to find out if there is a significant relationship between N/NN status and the amount of different OCF types used, Chi-Square tests of independence were performed. Chi-Square tests revealed that there are statistically significant relationships between N/NN

status and (1) the amount of recast use (x^2=25.56, p<.01), and (2) the amount of prompt use (x^2=23.23, p<.01), separately. The NESTs employed more recasts than the NNESTs (*n*=296, 89% of all the OCF by the NESTs; and *n*=164, 73% of all the OCF by the NNESTs was recast), whereas the NNESTs used prompts more than the NESTs (*n*=29, 9% of all the OCF by the NESTs; and *n*=53, 23% of all the OCF by the NNESTs was prompt). Being limited in number, significance was not tested between N/NN status and the amount of explicit correction used.

Before the analysis of the observational data, it was considered that the NESTs and NNESTs might also differ in the amount of OCF they provide to learner errors. Therefore, at this point, effort was made to answer the following research question:

Research Question 2: How tolerant are NESTs and NNESTs of errors?

Figure 9 shows the total number of learner errors and teachers' OCF moves in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes separately. As can be seen in Figure 9, out of 602 learner errors in the NESTs' classes, 332 of them received OCF from the NESTs, while the NNESTs made 226 corrections to a total of 318 errors in their classes. The NNESTs corrected their learners' errors at a higher percentage than the NESTs (71.07% correction rate by the NNESTs, and 55.15% correction rate by the NESTs). This specific result indicates that the NESTs seem to be more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs in the present context.

In addition, a binary logistic regression analysis was performed to explore the potential relationship between N/NN status and the amount of OCF. The analysis indicated that N/NN status is significantly related to the percentage of errors addressed with OCF (p< .01).

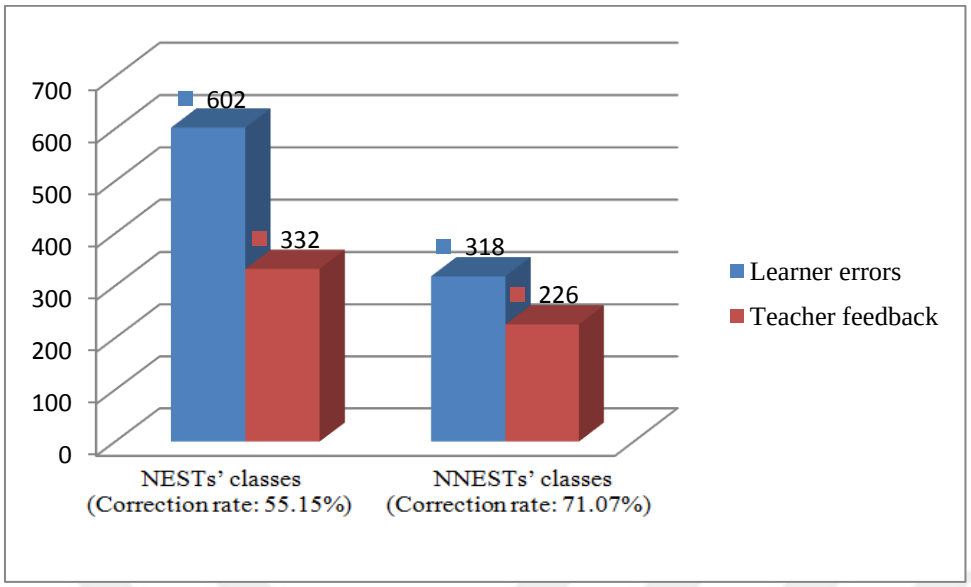


Figure 9. Rate of error correction by the NESTs and NNESTs (in a total of 20.16 hours of NEST and 16.08 hours of NNEST classroom recordings)

Given the different cultural backgrounds brought by the NESTs and NNESTs into the EFL settings, it was also expected that the NESTs and NNESTs may provide different amounts of OCF to different error types. To this end, the following research question was answered:

Research Question 3: Which errors are corrected more frequently by NESTs and NNESTs?

Table 17 shows the number of phonological, grammatical, lexical and multiple errors made by the learners and the number of OCF moves provided by the NESTs and NNESTs for each error type (the number of OCF to the specified error type / the number of learner errors made in the specified error type) as well as the NESTs' and NNESTs' correction rates for each error type. Figure 10 collectively portrays the rates at which each error type received OCF from the NESTs and NNESTs.

Table 17 and Figure 10 point to the similarities as well as some striking differences between the NESTs' and NNESTs' correction rates for different types of error. For example, the NESTs and NNESTs clearly drew apart from each other in handling grammatical errors (32% correction rate by the NESTs, and 70% by the NNESTs). Another distinct dissimilarity was observed with respect to the correction of lexical errors (67% correction rate by the NESTs, and 96% by the NNESTs). In addition, the NESTs corrected almost one half of the multiple errors (49%) and the NNESTs two thirds of them (67%). However, their correction rates for phonological errors were similar although it was a bit higher in favor of the NESTs (75% correction rate by the NESTs, and 67% by the NNESTs).

From a different viewpoint, the NESTs corrected phonological (75%) and lexical errors (67%) considerably more than grammatical errors (32%). On the other hand, the NNESTs corrected nearly all the lexical errors (96%), followed in a descending order by the correction of 70% of all the grammatical and 67% of all the phonological errors.

Table 17

The Number and Percentage of OCF Moves by the NESTs and NNESTs per Error Type (In a Total of 20.16 Hours of NEST and 16.08 Hours of NNEST Classroom Recordings)

	Phonological		Grammatical		Lexical		Multiple	
	NESTs	*/ NNESTs*	*NESTs*	*/ NNESTs*	*NESTs*	*/ NNESTs*	*NESTs*	*/ NNESTs*
f	184/247	74/111	77/238	114/162	52/78	26/27	19/39	12/18
%	75	67	32	70	67	96	49	67

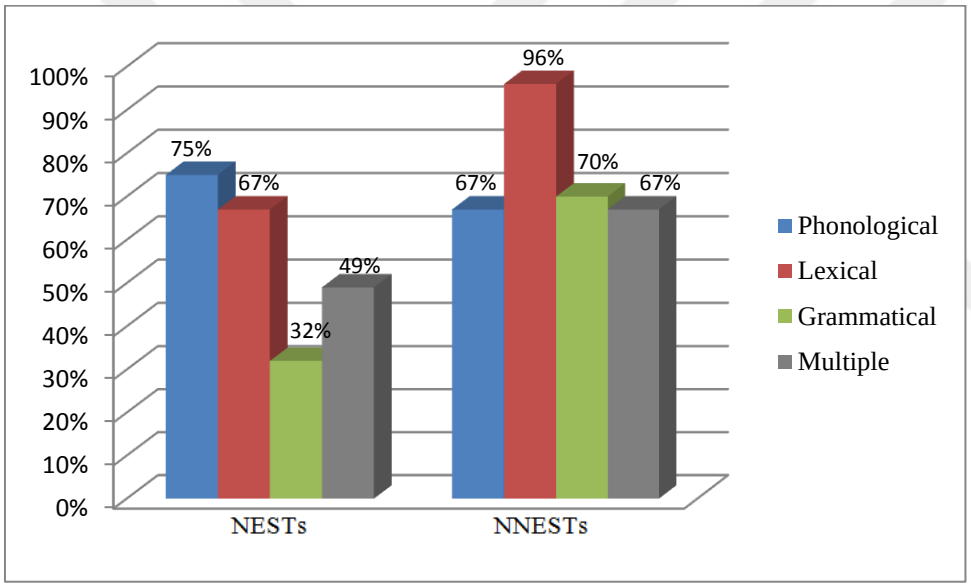


Figure 10. Rate of OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs per error type (in a total of 20.16 hours of NEST and 16.08 hours of NNEST classroom recordings)

In an effort to reveal if there are significant relationships between the error types and the amount of OCF by the NESTs and by the NNESTs separately, as well as between N/NN status and the amount of correction to different types of error, Chi-square tests were conducted within and between the NEST and NNEST categories.

Comparisons within each group (Table 18) showed that there are significant associations between error types and the amount of OCF by the NESTs. These significant associations were observed between (1) phonological-grammatical errors, (2) grammatical-lexical errors and the amount of OCF by the NESTs separately ($p<.01$ for both), whereas no

significant relationship was found between phonological-lexical errors and the amount of OCF by the NESTs ($p>.05$).

Significant relationships were also found between error types and the amount of OCF by the NNESTs. These significant relationships were between (1) phonological-lexical errors, (2) grammatical-lexical errors and the amount of OCF by the NNESTs separately ($p<.01$ for both), whereas there was not a significant relationship between phonological-grammatical errors and the amount of OCF by the NNESTs ($p>.05$).

Table 18

Results of Significance within Each Group

	Phono.- Gram.	Phono.- Lexical	Gram.- Lexical
OCF by the NESTs	$x^2= 86.60$, $p<.01$	$x^2= 1.82$, $p>.05$	$x^2= 28.63$, $p<.01$
OCF by the NNESTs	$x^2= 0.42$, $p>.05$	$x^2= 9.55$, $p<.01$	$x^2= 8.1$, $p<.01$

Chi-square tests (Table 19) also revealed that there was a significant relationship between N/NN status and the correction of (1) grammatical, and (2) lexical errors, separately ($p<.01$ for both). The NNESTs corrected grammatical and lexical errors at a higher rate than the NESTs (*n*=77, 32% correction rate of all the grammatical errors by the NESTs; and *n*=114, 70% correction rate of all the grammatical errors by the NNESTs. Also, *n*=52, 67% correction rate of all the lexical errors by the NESTs; and *n*=26, 96% correction rate of all the lexical errors by the NNESTs). However, no significant relationship was found between N/NN status and the correction of phonological errors ($p>.05$). The NESTs and NNESTs corrected phonological errors at a similar rate, the NESTs' being higher than the NNESTs', nonetheless (*n*=184, 75% correction rate of all the phonological errors by the NESTs; and *n*=74, 67% correction rate of all the phonological errors by the NNESTs).

Table 19

Results of Significance between N/NN Status and the Correction of Different Types of Error

	Phonological	Grammatical	Lexical
NESTs & NNESTs	$x^2= 2.33$, $p>.05$	$x^2= 55.83$, $p<.01$	$x^2=9.21$, $p<.01$

Figure 11 presents the percentage distribution of error types and OCF to each error type in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes separately. It is clearly understood from Figure 11 that phonological and grammatical errors together make up a great majority of the errors made

in both the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes (totaling 81% in the NESTs' classes, and 86% in the NNESTs' classes). However, there are salient differences between the NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the proportion of OCF they provided to different error types. To exemplify, in the NESTs' classes, while 40% of all the learner errors were grammatical, only 23% of the NESTs' total OCF moves targeted them. Moreover, phonological errors which account for 41% of all the errors, received 55% of all the OCF of the NESTs. On the other hand, the NNESTs displayed a highly consistent distribution in their proportioning of OCF to error types. In the NNESTs' classes, percentage distribution of error types and OCF per error type was pretty much the same. Grammatical errors that comprised 51% of all the errors received 50% of all the OCF of the NNESTs and phonological errors which were nearly one third of all the errors (35%) received 33% of all the OCF of the NNESTs.

By comparison, lexical and multiple errors, and OCF that followed them occupied a relatively small part of the entire database. In the NESTs' classes, lexical errors that comprised 13% of the total errors received 16% of all the OCF of the NESTs. In a similar manner, lexical errors, comprising 8% of all the errors in the NNESTs' classes, received 12% of all the OCF of the NNESTs.

Finally, the proportion of multiple errors, and OCF that targeted them was parallel in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes. 6% of the OCF of the NESTs, and 5% of the OCF of the NNESTs targeted multiple errors that comprised 6% of all the errors in both the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes.

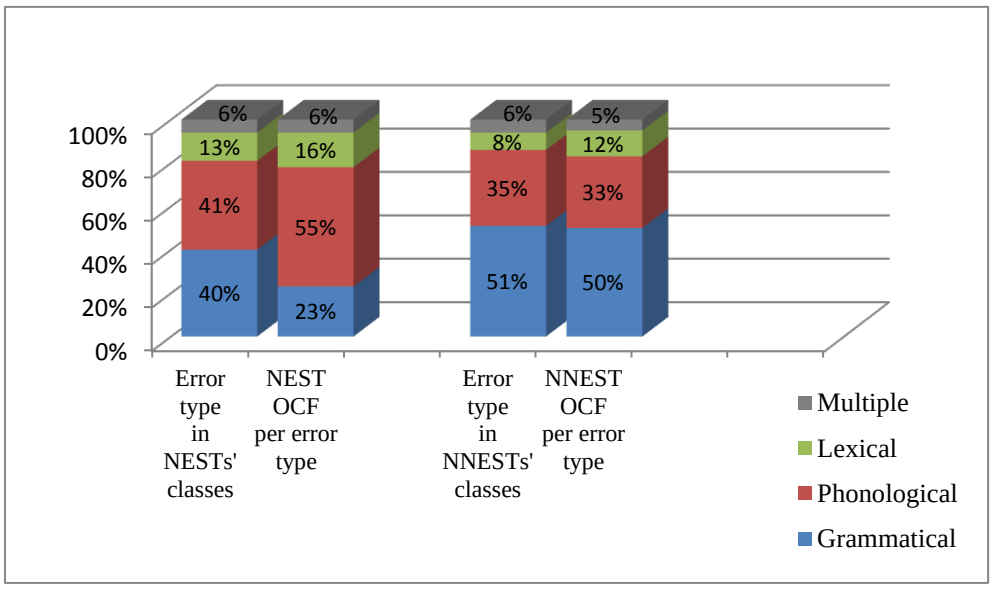


Figure 11. Percentage distribution of error types and OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs per error type (in a total of 20.16 hours of NEST and 16.08 hours of NNEST classroom recordings)

In an effort to make sense of the types of OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs that followed different types of error, the following research question was investigated:

Research Question 4: What types of learner errors lead to what types of OCF by NESTs and NNESTs ?

Table 20 and Figure 12 show the distribution of three types of OCF across different types of error in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes.

As can be understood from Table 20, in both the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes, nearly all the phonological errors were corrected with recasts (96% by the NESTs, and 93% by the NNESTs). As for grammatical errors, the NESTs opted for giving recasts to a great majority of them (87%), followed by prompts (13%). The NESTs used no explicit correction to correct grammatical errors. If not as much as the NESTs did, the NNESTs provided recasts to grammatical errors at a high rate (60%). This was followed by prompts (34%) and explicit correction (6%).

Recast was also the NESTs' and NNESTs' most preferred strategy to correct lexical errors (71% and 65%, respectively). They also resorted to prompts (21% by the NESTs and 31% by the NNESTs) and explicit correction (8% by the NESTs and 4% by the NNESTs) to treat lexical errors. Even in the small sample of the correction of multiple errors, they primarily used recasts (79% by the NESTs, and 84% by the NNESTs), followed by prompts (21% by the NESTs, and 16% by the NNESTs). Neither the NESTs nor the NNESTs used explicit correction to correct multiple errors.

To conclude, as portrayed in Figure 12, it is crystal clear that recast was the most prominent OCF strategy of both the NESTs and NNESTs to correct all types of error, especially in the case of correcting phonological errors. In addition, it was revealed that in their efforts to correct grammatical, lexical and phonological errors, the NESTs used proportionally more recasts than the NNESTs, while the NNESTs directed proportionally more prompts than the NESTs.

Table 20

Distribution of Errors Receiving OCF from the NESTs (N= 332) and NNESTs (N=226) across OCF Types and Error Types (In a Total of 20.16 Hours of NEST and 16.08 Hours of NNEST Classroom Recordings)

	Phonological NESTs (*n* = 184)		Phonological NNESTs (*n* = 74)		Grammatical NESTs (*n* = 77)		Grammatical NNESTs (*n* = 114)		Lexical NESTs (*n* = 52)		Lexical NNESTs (*n* = 26)		Multiple NESTs (*n* = 19)		Multiple NNESTs (*n* = 12)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Recast	177	96	69	93	67	87	68	60	37	71	17	65	15	79	10	84
Prompt	4	2	4	6	10	13	39	34	11	21	8	31	4	21	2	16
Explicit Correction	3	2	1	1	-	-	7	6	4	8	1	4	-	-	-	-

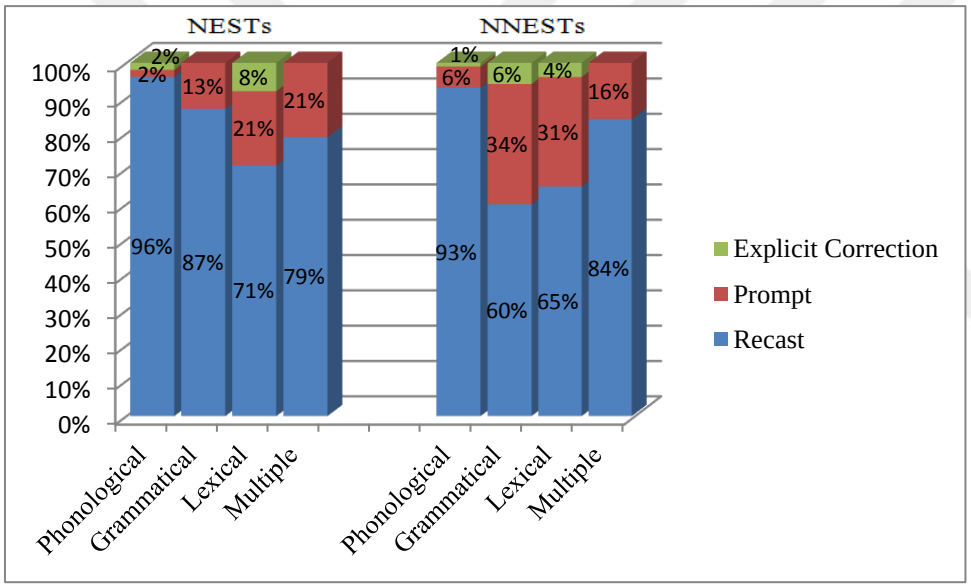


Figure 12. Percentage distribution of the types of OCF by the NESTs and NNESTs across error types (in a total of 20.16 hours of NEST and 16.08 hours of NNEST classroom recordings)

Besides, Chi-Square tests for the relationship between N/NN status and the provision of different types of OCF for different types of error yielded some significant and insignificant results (Table 21). The results indicated that there is not a significant relationship between N/NN status and the provision of recast for phonological errors ($p>.05$). 96% of all the phonological errors received recast from the NESTs (*n*=177), and 93% of all the phonological errors received recast from the NNESTs (*n*=69).

On the other hand, significant relationships were found between N/NN status and the provision of (1) recast and (2) prompt for grammatical errors, separately ($p<.01$ for both). 87% of all the grammatical errors received recast from the NESTs (*n*=67), and 60% of all

the grammatical errors received recast from the NNESTs (*n*=68). However, 13% of all the grammatical errors received prompt from the NESTs (*n*=10), and 34% of all the grammatical errors received prompt from the NNESTs (*n*=39).

Finally, there were not any significant relationships between N/NN status and the provision of (1) recast and (2) prompt for lexical errors, separately (p>.05 for both). 71% of all the lexical errors received recast from the NESTs (*n*=37), and 65% of all the lexical errors received recast from the NNESTs (*n*=17). In addition, 21% of all the lexical errors received prompt from the NESTs (*n*=11), and 31% of all the lexical errors received prompt from the NNESTs (*n*=8). Other possible comparisons were excluded from the analyses due to rarity.

Table 21

Results of Significance between N/NN Status and the Provision of Different Types of OCF for Different Types of Error

Phonological	Grammatical		Lexical	
Recast	Recast	Prompt*	Recast	Prompt*
x^2= 1.03, p>.05	x^2= 16.60, p<.01	x^2= 9.76, p<.01	x^2= 0.27, p>.05	x^2= 0.42, p>.05

*****Yates' chi-squared test was run due to small sample size.

4.2 Findings of the Follow-up Interviews

This part reports on the findings of the NEST & NNEST interviews which were held with the purpose of revealing their dispositions towards error correction and OCF provision in L2 classroom, i.e. the cross-cultural effects on their OCF preferences. In order to pose an answer to these issues of query, the following research question was elaborated on:

Research Question 5: Are there any cross-cultural influences that affect OCF preferences of NESTs and NNESTs?

The findings of the interviews are reflected below pursuant to the emergent categories. Pseudos were used throughout the reporting of the findings to ensure the teachers' anonymity.

Category 1: Teacher training and teaching experience: Their effects on teachers' attitudes toward error correction and OCF practices

The first emergent was to what extent or in what ways the observed teachers' teacher training and teaching experience affected their error correction practices, if any at all. To begin with, there was not a unity in the NNESTs' reflections on the effect of teacher

training on their error correction practices. Some of the NNESTs held the belief that their teacher training played an important role in shaping their attitudes toward error correction and teaching in general. They had the following to say:

Haluk: "- It [teacher training] gave me some strategy and methods, but as I observe myself and other teachers, it [error correction] is mostly about the character of the teacher and dynamics of the classroom. I mean if I hadn't learnt anything from the training, I would correct all the errors in a similar manner".

Özge: "- I believe that most of my behaviours and attitudes in the teaching process have been influenced by my teacher training".

Some other NNESTs attributed their attitudes about error correction to their teaching experience rather than teacher training.

Ercan: "- Certain aspects of teaching come with experience. Teaching is not 100% teachable. Some things are intuitive in teaching. My training didn't influence the way I correct errors. I still do it intuitively".

Sevil: "- Most probably [my teacher training has influenced the way I correct errors], but my experience was way more influential in such terms".

Moreover, one of the NNESTs mentioned other factors that contributed to his error correction practices. He noted that not only the courses he has taken, but also self-study and the conferences or seminars he attended have given shape to the way he corrects errors.

As for the NESTs, there was a consensus among them on the conception that attitudes about error correction are widely shaped through experience. Teaching experience was highlighted by the NESTs as a vital factor in shaping their correction patterns. They further emphasized the necessity of being familiar to students and getting to know about their characters, dispositions etc. in time. In response to a question asking if they had any special training with regard to how to correct errors, some of the NESTs voiced their opinions as follows:

Olivia: "- No, actually experience. You know, you see what the students need and you try to give it to them. Textbooks and some programs cannot really tell you that".

Judith: "- I just figured when I started teaching foreigners, then I figured what is best for them and that's how I did it. Through experience, not through any certification or training

because to me it has to do with the individual student. To me, it depends on the student and first becoming familiar with the student before doing that as well. So when I first started teaching in class and they are new to me, I am new to them, I kind of just wait until they become more relaxed with me and then only the confident students do I really correct immediately".

Lucas: "- I feel like through my experience, if you build strong relationship with the students, you can give as much feedback as you want".

The NESTs raised mixed reactions with regard to the effect of teacher training on their OCF practices. Their comments seemed to be in parallel with the classroom applications they went through or did not go through in teacher training process.

Rosemary: "- I think modeling after teachers that I have met and seen working in classroom, that certainly helped to develop my own style of teaching, and seen how they approach whether correcting people right away, you know joking the student to correct the student but keeping it right positive".

Lucas: "- I think it [teacher training] gave me an idea, a guideline how to do it. We know a lot of theory of giving feedback, like echoeing, and direct and indirect feedback. At least in the tactics that I would try [it contributed]. They weren't directly telling us to use feedback".

Some of the NESTs admitted that their teacher training did not practically contribute to their OCF-giving patterns, though they appreciated the role of teacher training in giving some theory and generating ideas on the issue of error correction in general. For example, in response to the question whether teacher training has influenced the way they correct errors, two of the NESTs made the following comments:

Andrew: "- I don't really think so. It [teacher training] was more about giving me structure how to teach, the theory. I think experience is one hundred times more effective than teacher training".

Laura: "- Not necessarily, how I correct them. It makes me think more about it, I mean".

In conclusion, both the NESTs and NNESTs laid strong emphasis on teaching experience. They were of the belief that error correction is an instructional tool which develops automatically in due course of time as one gains enough experience. However, both in the

NEST and NNEST groups, the teachers fell into dispute about the contribution of teacher training to their attitudes about error correction.

Category 2: The necessity and effectiveness of error correction

By and large, the NNESTs argue that errors should be corrected. However, it seemed to be the case that they did not imply a full-time necessity for error correction. They based their statements on informed underpinnings. When the NNESTs stated that errors should be corrected, they tended to justify their opinions with several reasons as follows:

Ufuk: "- They should be corrected so as not to lead to fossilization. But that does not necessarily mean that students should be deprived of error correction or feedback. Just necessary amount of error correction, in the right place at the right time, is enough".

Özge: "- Learners' errors should be corrected to give them an opportunity to learn from mistakes".

Ercan: "- Of course, they should be corrected. Errors are critical to learning as errors show where problems are and where learners need extra help".

Çağatay: "- To a certain limit, YES; should be corrected. To a certain limit because I wouldn't like to discourage them".

In addition, the NNESTs' beliefs about the effectiveness of error correction overlapped to a large extent with their perceptions toward the necessity of error correction. They mentioned different benefits of error correction such as enabling learners to gain self-awareness, letting them hear the correct form, preventing further misunderstandings as well as creating opportunities for learning, which make it an effective pedagogical intervention. Besides, the NNESTs reminded that errors need to be handled properly, and that the way errors are corrected determines to what extent error correction is conducive to L2 development.

As opposed to the large consensus reached among the NNESTs, the NESTs took different stances with regard to the necessity of error correction. It is also understood that the NESTs' being more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs, which has already been portrayed in the statistical analyses in the previous section of quantitative findings, is a good predictor of the NESTs' verbal comments on the necessity of error correction. For or against the necessity of error correction, each NEST explained several reasons and

conditions which would affect their decisions about error correction. None of them seemed to go after an unreserved approval of error correction.

Betsy: "- Yeah, of course they need to be corrected. It depends on the focus of the lesson. In just trying to communicate, we aren't going to be nagging them with every single error".

Carla: "- Yes. Sometimes if we are in a moment of conversation or if I forget, then I don't think it is a big deal. But all the time it should be corrected".

Judith: "- I don't like correcting immediately and sometimes not even at all because I'm just wanting them to speak and they have to keep speaking and hearing the proper way to speak, what they learn, not by me correcting them".

Andrew: "- It depends on the student".

It is commonly agreed by educationists that learners' affective states are vitally important to learning. Furthermore, Arnold (2011) features that affect is especially crucial when it comes to learning languages because our self image is more vulnerable when we do not have a good command of our vehicle for expression, which is language. In this regard, the NESTs expressed their hesitations about making corrections by taking account of learners' emotional states.

Olivia: "- I don't correct them all the time because, you know, then they get nervous and stop speaking. Usually I try not to because they don't want to continue later".

Rosemary: "- I believe so. Correction should be provided as much as possible. There is a moment where I always feel hesitant about the students' feelings. If I have to correct them all the time, 'no it's this, no it's this', so sometimes I hesitate and I will just let it go for a while".

Again, the NESTs were at odds with one another on their reflections on the effectiveness of error correction. Those for the effectiveness of error correction maintained the idea that error correction serves to inform learners about their errors, that's why it is an effective instrument. In addition, they held the belief that error correction also prevents learners from making potential errors. An example to this is provided below:

Rosemary: "*- I think so. They can't improve unless they know the error and they keep doing something wrong, like a common thing is 'he' and 'she', so they look at a picture of a woman and they say 'he', he is doing this, he is doing this. So, after a while, after a*

couple of times they are corrected like 'she' or use another pronoun, and they realize 'he!, oh I get it wrong', so I think it is very helpful".

On the other hand, some other NESTs questioned the effectiveness of error correction. In doing so, they underscored student-bound drawbacks.

Judith: "- I think it is seldom useful. I mean it is useful to an extent, but it depends on the individual because some students can't take criticism and they become very discouraged. They don't wanna speak anymore and I find it detrimental to correct".

Andrew: "- It can be effective. It is not always totally effective, because you hear the same mistakes over and over again even if you correct them. Sometimes it goes in one ear and out the other, students sometimes don't care".

Furthermore, one of the NESTs attributed the effectiveness of error correction to learners' proficiency level. He suggested that OCF is more beneficial in the later stages of language learning. Young learners, he thought, might have no idea why it is wrong, but as they proceed to higher levels such as intermediate, upper-intermediate, they have enough background and come to understand why they need particular structures and learn form-meaning mappings.

Category 3: Preferred way of correcting errors

It is apt to remind here that the descriptive analyses of the classroom interaction data pointed to both the NESTs' and NNESTs' tendency to use recasts to correct learner errors most of the time, followed by prompts. From this point forth, the majority of the NESTs also stated in the interviews that they frequently opt for recasts. Upon being familiarized with the concepts and namings used to define the types of OCF, the NESTs seemed to be a lot more promotive of recast as the label for what they often do. They had several reasons to do so. For example, one NEST mentioned that she prefers recasting and especially keeping them short, thinking that students will continue talking without a serious interruption. For the other NEST, prompts seem to be more pedagogical thanks to their eliciting function, but in reality, they may disrupt the conversation. For this reason, he said that he prefers explicit recasting. This way, the claim is that students can be made aware of their errors without disrupting the flow of the conversation. What's more, one of the NESTs explained the rationale behind her using single recast on the basis of its fuzziness and unobtrusiveness. She mentioned that by recasting, in a way, she tricks her students into hearing at the right way without making them feel that they are actually being corrected.

Besides, one NEST stated that she makes a combination of OCF types while correcting errors, but does not act selectively in this sense. She articulated that she uses whatever comes to her mind without any scientific base. Furthermore, another NEST noted that she would not prefer correcting explicitly, for fear that students might be discouraged by explicit corrections.

As regards the NNESTs, in the first place, a large number of them mainly linked the type of OCF they used to a number of factors. They stated that the way they correct errors depends on the task or activity, the type of error, students or the whole class. Next, they mentioned prompts for what they do concerning OCF, especially in the form of repetition and elicitation. They accentuated the need to give learners some hints to push them to correct their own errors. One NNEST explained why he favors repetition as follows:

Haluk: "- I mostly echo the error with a raising voice and with a "disturbed teacher face" and wait for the student to realize the error. I think making the students realize the mistakes on their own is the best way to make permanent changes".

Though not as much as prompts, recasting was also voiced as a popular way of correction among the NNESTs for several reasons. For example, one of the NNESTs seems to be satisfied with the so-called short-term effects of recasting. He uttered that through his first-hand experiences, students tend to correct their errors as soon as they hear the right form from the teacher. He also said that recasting does not overemphasize learner errors, thus leads to no discouragement.

To sum up, it is noteworthy that the NNESTs verbalized more varied types of correction than their native counterparts. Their stated OCF preferences encapsulated recast and different types of prompt as well as delayed and implicit OCF.

Category 4: Prioritized types of error for correction

It was emphasized by some of the NESTs and NNESTs that errors that seriously impede intelligibility and have potential to affect or change the meaning should be prioritized over minor and tolerable errors. Apart from this, the NESTs and NNESTs differed in their perspectives towards handling phonological, grammatical, lexical errors and L1 interference errors in terms of priority.

The NESTs arrived at a large consensus on the type of error to be prioritized for correction. Among the error types mentioned, by and large, the NESTs ranked phonological errors first. The main reason for their directing the most focused OCF on phonological errors was

stated to be its potential to affect the intelligibility most. The NESTs often remarked that they are trying hard to understand what their students are trying to say. They further expressed that they deal with phonological errors when students' utterances sound more different than actually is, not least because they take a word and often mix its pronunciation with another word.

The NESTs' statements were accompanied by several combinations and possibilities as in Olivia (*"- That stands out most to me can be any one of those. Pronunciation and vocabulary more than grammar because my goal is more on pronunciation and maybe vocabulary than on the grammar."*), Betsy (*"- Quite important for listening and speaking lessons, of course pronunciation. And I will correct grammar and vocabulary if it affects communication."*), and Andrew *("- I'd say pronunciation and vocabulary. Grammar isn't very important. Grammar comes after you practise. Grammar is something you can do later on, you can make an activity out of it")*.

On the other hand, in the general sense, the NNESTs hesitated to bring forward a particular type of error to be prioritized for correction. But rather, they seemed to agree to a large extent that all types of errors should be corrected. One of the NNESTs added that the teacher should also consider the focus of the lesson, students' level and aim of the task/activity to decide which errors should be corrected. Another NNEST remarked that priority should always be given to more strategic and fundamental errors. Lastly, a more common insight among the NNESTs was that irrespective of the type, as long as they are critical, errors should be corrected. However, if students can get their message through in spite of the inclusion of errors, they need not be corrected.

As a consequence, regarding the prioritization of error for correction, there is a point in which the NESTs and NNESTs seemed to concur: if an error poses a barrier to the intelligibility of a message, it certainly needs correcting. In the contrary case, errors can be ignored. For the NESTs, it is phonological errors that lead to this unintelligibility most often, whereas the NNESTs did not draw up such a specification.

Category 5: Determinants in the timing of error correction

The NESTs linked their timing of OCF to a number of factors such as concerns about sustainability of the communication and learner affect, and age groups. In the first place, three of the NESTs mentioned the negative effects of immediate OCF on learners' oral production. They stated that they avoid interrupting learners. Correction can be made after

a learner has finished speaking. They explained their suggestions and hesitations as follows:

Judith: "- I find that, you know from experience, when I first started correcting them, it kind of discouraged them from speaking so I stopped correcting immediately because it is detrimental to their self-confidence. Even when I am doing spoken assessment practice in class where it is important to tell them what they are doing wrong, I still wait till they are finished and I write down all oral errors, I tell them after they are finished".

Olivia: "- Usually, teachers are interrupting them because it is easier for us to remember, but it is not good for the student. We should wait for them to finish speaking and maybe not tell them before the class, but write it down and give it to them or talk to them after the class about your notes".

Andrew: "- If you keep giving them immediate feedback "no its incorrect, no its incorrect, no its incorrect, do it this way, do it this way, do it this way", they are not going to want to speak. The point of what we are doing is to get them to speak. If you keep on saying "no, no, no, no", then they won't want to talk, it will make the class less fun for them".

Some other NESTs were in favour of the idea of giving immediate OCF. One of them said that the timing of OCF depends on the task and if she is going to correct, she usually opts for correcting errors immediately. Other NEST insisted that she also corrects immediately because it is the best time right after a student says the word.

In addition, one of the NESTs considered learner age groups as a determinant in the timing of OCF. He claimed that older learners react better to on the spot OCF, while young learners might feel ashamed easily in the face of immediate OCF. Therefore, he maintains that implicit and delayed OCF is more effective for young learners, and that older learners value direct feedback to see their language develop immediately.

On the other side, the NNESTs attributed their timing of OCF to factors such as orientation of the course, task type, frequency of errors, affective concerns and retention.

Back to front, one NNEST argued that correction should not be made at the time of speaking or reading-aloud, in the belief that learners do not really listen to or understand the OCF given at that time and they only put them in the short-term memory at best.

Those that based their timing of OCF upon the orientation of the course, task type or learner affect gave the following circumstantial examples:

Haluk: "- If the topic taught gives importance to the usage of language, not the meaning necessarily (for example, a grammar topic or how to spell a word), I correct right after the student errs. Or, if the student is a shy kind of person that could be offended easily, I prefer to give feedback after he/she finishes talking, not immediately".

Sevil: "- During in-class discussions, I correct immediately. I wait for the task to end if it's a presentation or if the student is sensitive. I wait longer to talk to him/her individually".

Ercan: "- If the task at hand is a fluency task, correcting learners' errors should be postponed until the end of the task. If, on the other hand, it is an accuracy-based task, correction should take place right after the learner makes an error as it should be crystal clear to the learner where s/he is experiencing problems".

Moreover, one of the NNESTs specified that first-time errors can be corrected later on, but repeated errors must be corrected in the wink of an eye.

Two of the NNESTs who argued for immediate correction reminded that (1) while doing so, teachers should be careful not to interrupt and intimidate learners, and (2) immediate correction should be made especially in the case of lexical errors.

Category 6: Division of responsibilities for error correction

Regarding the allocation of responsibilities with regard to who should be involved in corrections, the NESTs gave weight to self-correction and the OCF by the teacher, and marginalised peer correction. Those that favored self-correction were of the belief that the student should be given a chance to correct himself/herself and that frequent teacher correction can discourage learners from speaking. Teachers can intervene when they fail to self-correct. Some others who spoke up for the OCF by the teacher underscored the trueness and trustworthiness it offers and potential lapses in peer and self-correction. In general, the NESTs felt that peer correction does not work especially in preparatory classes and it may be problematic in some aspects. They pointed out that students tend to tease each other and may not welcome correction by their classmates.

The NNESTs, however, seemed to value the OCF by the teacher and self-correction without marginalising the role of peer correction. They referred to the encouragement of peer and self-correction as well as a healthy mix of correction by all three options. They further voiced similar justifications as the NESTs for the OCF by the teacher and self-correction. The NNESTs also hold that self-correction requires students to have some basic

knowledge and that the teacher can step in when learners cannot correct themselves, serving as a *safety belt* that is always available.

Category 7: Conceptions about Turkish EFL learners: Their habits, emotional states, preferred amount and way of correction through the lens of the NESTs and NNESTs

To start with, the majority of the NESTs thought that Turkish EFL learners would like to be corrected by their teachers in a direct, explicit and constant manner. The NESTs mainly attributed their learners' perceived wish to be strictly corrected to their past pedagogical habits. As Olivia puts it: "- *Probably their teachers just told them the right answer and this is what they expect from me"*. One of the NESTs furthered learners' constant expectation for correction to such a point that *"- …even if they are communicating effectively, they constantly want correction"* (Betsy).

On top of this, Turkish students' dependence on teacher correction was also ascribed to Turkish education system by one of the NESTs. In fact, this comment was parallel with the NESTs' conceptions about the way their learners' previous teachers taught them in general education. Andrew asserted that Turkish classroom teachers are very strict and they like having tight control over their learners. As a reflection of this, he claims, direct feedback is delivered abundantly to learners.

Regarding whether Turkish learners are appreciative of or uncomfortable with being corrected, the NESTs made different comments. For example, two of the NESTs were of the belief that their learners might initially feel disturbed by corrections, but after a while, they can adapt to the class and teacher so that they eventually feel more comfortable with the way their teachers correct them. In addition, it was voiced by one of the NESTs that learners appreciate when they are told in class what error they made or that they made an error, whereas two other NESTs stated that learners might feel uneasy, embarrassed and discouraged by corrections. At this point, Judith highlighted a dilemma:

"- I think they prefer to be corrected immediately but they don't know this discourages them. I don't think they realize this discourages them from speaking".

Besides, one NEST speculated that Turkish EFL learners prefer reformulation because they are used to it. In addition, she claimed that those who like to be challenged and in the spotlight also prefer elicitation.

It was not only the NESTs who thought that Turkish students' current choices of being corrected were heavily affected by their past pedagogical experiences. A good number of

the NNESTs pointed out that students always expect their teachers to correct their errors as a result of traditional way of being taught. It was further underlined by the NNESTs that their learners are used to *spoonfeeding*, i.e. getting direct and explicit OCF, that's why they do not tend to find their own errors and correct them. At this juncture, one NNEST stated that students may prefer being recast so that they can directly reach the result. Other NNEST explained that actually students are not happy with this error correction process they go through and specified that only some idealist teachers provide opportunities for self- and peer correction.

Two of the NNESTs believed that preferences for being corrected depend also on personal dispositions. While one of them linked students' preferences directly to their learning styles or ways regardless of their nationality, the other NNEST made the following comment:

Haluk: "- As a learner, I'd prefer to find out things myself, of course with help. I think it is the same for the other learners. The help should come from a reliable source, like the teacher. Here I need to indicate that this would be true for 'learners' not all the students. The question of needs, motivation, goals, incentives etc. of the student determines the his/her choices. 'Am I a learner?' is the question the students should ask themselves".

The issue of whether Turkish students feel comfortable with error correction sparked different comments. Two NNESTs mentioned that students are not comfortable with error correction and that they are afraid of making errors. On the other hand, many other NNESTs believed that students are comfortable with error correction. However, they attributed this comfort to different factors. Some of the NNESTs claimed that unless it is their classmates who correct them, students always feel comfortable with error correction. On the other hand, one NNEST asserted that students' comfort cannot be established by teacher correction because no one likes to be looked down on before the eyes of their friends, that's why they would prefer peer and especially self-correction.

One NNEST based her students' comfort upon the rapport she built with them and made the following comment:

Sevil: "- I am different in terms of my teaching method. I like being a friend, a big sister for my students and it changes everything. As I share personal stuff or they come and cry with me etc., they feel more comfortable with me. I change everything, even my style of error correction. Sometimes, I burst into laughter with a funny pronunciation mistake, but

they don't feel humiliated. I know it. So, my students tell me the best way or their preference is the way I already do it".

As a conclusion, the NESTs and NNESTs consider Turkish EFL learners to bring their previous classroom habits to the current learning environment with them. They often labelled their students' previous learning experiences as traditional. From the teachers' perspectives, it seems to be the case that these emergent habits accustomed students to ready-made answers as well as direct and explicit OCF by the teacher, leading them to avoid attempting to correct their own errors.

4.3 Findings of the Reflection Papers

This part presents the findings of the reflection papers gathered from the NPSTs in an effort to reveal the ONOCEF components in the PSTs' microteachings. To this end, the following research question was addressed below:

Research Question 6: Does the proposed ONOCEF exert any impact on EFL student teachers' competences concerning OCF?

The answer to this research question was sought from the NPSTs' observational evaluations of the PSTs' OCF practices in speaking microteachings, i.e. peer evaluation.

Analysis of the reflection papers shed light on which OCF strategies the PSTs were able to apply, and at which points they showed incompetencies regarding OCF during their performances in the eyes of their peers. With these in mind, the reporting of the data obtained from the reflection papers included three basic categories based on the four items given in the reflection papers as shown below.

1. What was done (by the PSTs regarding error correction and OCF provision based on the ONOCEF as viewed and expressed by the NPSTs) was revealed by the first two items:

Item 1: My friend showed evidence of the input provided in the ONOCEF, some of which are:

Item 2: My friend applied the following OCF strategies in her/his performance:

2. What was not done (by the PSTs regarding error correction and OCF provision based on the ONOCEF as viewed and expressed by the NPSTs) was revealed by the third item:

Item 3: My friend fell short in applying the following OCF strategies in her/his performance:

3. What I would do (regarding error correction and OCF provision based on the ONOCEF, if I were performing in place of the PSTs) was revealed by the fourth item:
Item 4: If I were, I would correct the specific errors in this demo, as follows:

The NPSTs' reflections on the PSTs' OCF practices through these four items, for the most part, comprised short and spot-on sentences that were explanatory enough for each observed correction move, thereby prompting the researcher to report them in the form of direct quotations rather than make summative interpretations. It was also considered that such a way of reporting, for the present case of reflection papers, would help to display more explicit and tangible evidence of the NPSTs' observational evaluations of the PSTs.

What was done

Item 1: My friend showed evidence of the input provided in the ONOCEF, some of which are:

This item elicited detections whether corrections were provided, and if yes, how well and in what ways the corrections were performed by the PSTs. The PSTs provided corrections in their microteachings and the NPSTs put these moves into words in this item. Hence, this item served to determine bilaterally whether the PSTs were able to provide OCF, and whether the NPSTs were successful detecting the corrections made by the PSTs.

Item 2: My friend applied the following OCF strategies in her/his performance:

Along the same lines, in this item, the NPSTs tagged the errors corrected and the following OCF types provided by the PSTs. Therefore, the NPSTs' responses to these moves showed to what extent they were able to name the OCF moves as well as how successful the PSTs were applying the OCF strategies introduced in the ONOCEF.

Serving the same purpose of revealing what was done by the PSTs with reference to error correction based on the ONOCEF, findings of the Item I and II are reported jointly. When needed, pseudos were used throughout the direct quotations to ensure the STs' anonymity.

In the first place, it was seen that the NPSTs did not have difficulty locating the PSTs' OCF moves, whenever occurred. Nor did the PSTs in noticing and correcting the errors. Some examples are:

"- She corrected the pronunciation of 'auctioneer' during the fluency activity".
"- Oğuz corrected some errors, for example: 'busy, psychologist,goals' ".

"- Tuna and Oğuz used some methods of oral corrective feedback".

"- Seda and Gülsüm corrected the errors by using some methods of oral corrective feedback".

"- They haven't used any OCF strategies, there was no error so no correction".

"- They corrected the pronunciation of 'luxury' ".

"- The student mispronounced 'regularly', Merve corrected it".

"- Ayla corrected the pronunciation of 'birthday' ".

"- In Canan's part, there is no error because students didn't speak. Canan explained the vocabularies. Özgür corrected one word, 'scrawny' ".

In addition, the NPSTs also made subjective evaluations of their peers' error correction and OCF giving patterns. Some examples are given below:

"- Merve and Demet were good at using oral corrective feedback methods. They used some of them well".

"- Sevgi and Tülay didn't have trouble in correcting errors".

"- They used oral corrective feedback methods effectively".

"- My friends did some right corrections. They corrected errors rightly".

"- They told the correct forms of the errors gently and in a natural way".

"- Arzu and Selçuk were good at oral corrective feedback methods. They used some methods of feedback".

"- Ayla and Meltem used corrective feedback strategies perfectly".

"- They corrected the pronunciation of 'news' very well".

Over and above these, the NPSTs were successfully able to notice and label the OCF strategies used by the PSTs. These labellings also show that the PSTs have significantly used the large repertoire of OCF strategies introduced in the ONOCEF. Some examples are:

"- Gülsüm and Seda used recast and implicit correction".

"- Explicit correction in accuracy activity, recast in fluency activity".

"- Duygu corrected the pronunciation of 'penalty', she did recast. Gizem didn't hear the mistake so she didn't correct".

"- They used implicit and explicit corrective feedback strategies".

"- Arzu used recast. She didn't stop the conversation, corrected the errors after students finished the conversation".

"- Merve and Demet used repetition".

"- Özgür stopped the student and repeated the student's error. Then the student corrected his error".

"- Implicit strategies are applied. They don't stop the communication in the classroom".

"- Ayla corrected the pronunciation of 'birthday' explicitly".

"- They used recast. They don't let the mistake continue".

In addition to these examples in the reflection papers, the NPSTs tagged many other OCF moves and specified the errors corrected by the PSTs, not in the form of whole sentences, though. They either simply wrote down the OCF type used (e.g. elicitation, delayed, repetition etc.) under the item or used some symbols to match the OCF types with the erroneous words targeted (e.g. penalty, killer > recast, implicit=passport, recast → luxury → luxurious, and so on).

Taken together, the NPSTs provided a high response rate to the Items I and II that were oriented towards eliciting what the PSTs did in relation to error correction. Item I was filled in 72, and Item 2 in 71 of a total of 78 reflection papers, which amounts to a response rate of 92% and 91%, respectively. The missing percentages were determined to be a result of there being no error and OCF episode in a small number of microteachings, thus leading to no reflections. In conclusion, it can be commented that the PSTs were able to provide correction through several methods when the errors occurred, and the NPSTs noted them down. Whether the PSTs were at full strength in their efforts to correct errors or they showed some incompetencies will be dealt with below.

What was not done

Item 3: My friend fell short in applying the following OCF strategies in her/his performance:

This item sought to reveal the PSTs' shortcomings in the practice of error correction and OCF from the perspectives of the NPSTs. In some of the reflections, the PSTs were stated not to react to some errors due to some reasons. In addition, some of their OCF preferences were reported to be improper. Yet, in general, the NPSTs did not detect too many flaws in the PSTs' OCF practices. Only in 19 out of 78 reflection papers was this item filled in with the purpose of specifying imperfections (24% response rate). However, several of these

reflections were nothing but the recurrences by different NPSTs that targeted the shortcomings of the same correction moves. Some of the examples are:

"- Generally, they didn't use them because they were excited".
"- Gülsüm could have recast while one of the students made a phonological error".
"- In fluency activity, I think they shouldn't correct the errors directly".
"- They didn't correct 'crime' and 'cruel' ".
"- They didn't hear the error".
"- In the beginning of the presentation, Meltem didn't care about the students' errors so much".
"- They corrected only one word 'penalty', but students made more than one error".
"- They stopped the student in fluency activity. They should use delayed feedback because it is a fluency activity. It is not necessary to interrupt the speech". "Duygu and Gizem didn't focus on which student made an error and which error they made".
"- They should have used delayed feedback in fluency activity".

After all, the number and percentage of the negative reflections on the PSTs' OCF practices point only to an insignificant amount of shortcomings as elaborately determined by the NPSTs.

What I would do

Item 4: If I were, I would correct the specific errors in this demo, as follows:

As a response to this item, it was observed that the NPSTs not only expressed how they would react to some of the errors as different from the PSTs' actual OCF applications. They further explained some pedagogical attitudes they would exhibit in the class as well as voicing their approvals of the PSTs' OCF moves in the microteachings.

In 31 out of 78 reflection papers, the NPSTs considered the PSTs' OCF moves congruent with their own pedagogical beliefs about error correction. This item was simply filled in as a means of approving the PSTs' correction moves with sentences such as *"- I would do the same thing", "- I would correct like my friends", "- They used methods effectively, I would also do like them"*. In 12 of the reflection papers, this item was left blank either to show approval of what their friends did or because there was no error and correction episode, and thus nothing to reflect on.

On the other hand, in 35 of the reflection papers, this item was returned with the operational statements of *what I would do (unlike my friends)*, if they were in their performing peers' situation. 17 of these responses touched not upon the issues of error correction but upon different shortcomings including the activity types, the use of materials etc. in the course of targeting the sub/skills handled in the microteachings. For example:

"- If I were, I'd make an info-gap activity for accuracy".

"- Şenol and Zeki can prepare role card or flash card in accuracy activity".

"- They didn't observe the class carefully. If I were, I would observe more carefully".

"- If I were, I would use a higher tone of voice".

"- Arzu and Selçuk should manage the class for activity".

"- I wouldn't make them watch so much video (about the sub/skill practised in the microteaching) *because they can lose their attention after a while".*

"- If I were, I would debate for fluency activity".

"- I would let the students use the expressions or stick them on the board".

Only 18 of the *what I would do* responses (23% of all the responses to Item 4) had specific focus on the PSTs' error correction and OCF practices. As can be understood from the examples below, the NPSTs reported what else, how, and when to correct unlike the PSTs' actual OCF practices.

"- I would correct the pronunciation of some words, but after the activity finished".

"- I would correct with recast and elicitation".

"- In accuracy activity, I would correct the errors directly. In fluency activity, I would correct them indirectly. I would take notes about them, later I would correct them".

"- I wouldn't stop the student while she was speaking to correct the error. I would wait till her speaking finished, then I would make an error correction".

"- Crime and penalty, I would correct them".

"- I wouldn't use explicit correction in fluency activity"

"- I would correct with repetition or elicitation".

The number of *what I would do* responses that centered exclusively on the PSTs' error correction moves (n=18, 23% of all the responses to Item 4) did not occupy a significant place in the total answers. And what is more, this percentage was almost the same as the number and rate of response to Item 3 (n=19, 24%), which pointed only to a small number of imperfections specified in the PSTs' OCF moves. Eventually, the results of the

responses to Item 4 showed an overlap with those of Item 3. Taken together, these results suggest that the corrections and OCF moves by the PSTs have, to a large extent, been approved by the NPSTs.

In conclusion, findings obtained from the reflection papers showed that, by virtue of taking the ONOCEF:

the PSTs were able to
a) correct oral errors effectively,
b) employ different OCF strategies as perceived by the NPSTs;

and the NPSTs were able to
a) identify the PSTs' non/corrections successfully,
b) label the types of OCF,
c) reveal the shortcomings in the PSTs' OCF practices,
d) build ideationally on the PSTs' OCF practices.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, first, summary of the findings are presented in relation to each research question under separate titles. In addition, these findings are discussed in the light of the relevant research findings in the field. Part 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 include the summary and discussion of the findings of the classroom observations. Part 5.5 presents the summary and discussion of the findings of the NEST & NNEST interviews which examine the cross-cultural influences on their OCF preferences under the sub-headings representing the emergent themes. Finally, Part 5.6 features the summary and discussion of the findings of the reflection papers collected from the NPSTs to examine the effects of the ONOCEF on ELT student teachers' competences regarding OCF.

5.1 Preferred OCF Types by NESTs and NNESTs

The first major finding of the present study is that recast was the predominant OCF type used by the NESTs and NNESTs, amounting to more than four fifths of their total OCF moves (82%). In the OCF research literature, recast is considered to be "the most common feedback method in the classroom" (Loewen, 2013, p. 23). In addition to Brown's (2014) comprehensive synthesis of classroom OCF research which shows that recasts account for 57% of all OCF while prompts comprise 30%, the popularity of recasts was also reflected in a plethora of studies across different settings that collected data from either NESTs and NNESTs separately or both of them together (e.g., Lyster, 1998a; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Y. Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004; Kılınç, 2007; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Ajideh & Aghdam, 2012; Gholami & Mousavi, 2014; Roothooft, 2014; Zhang & Chatupote, 2014a). In the present study, the NESTs' and NNESTs' use of recast was followed by prompt (15%

of all OCF moves) and explicit correction (3% of all OCF moves). They hardly employed explicit correction. The NESTs and NNESTs were alike in the order they provided the types of OCF, although significant relationships were found between N/NN status and the amount of recast and prompt use, separately ($p<.01$ for both). Proportionally and numerically, the NESTs employed more recasts than the NNESTs (89% of all the OCF by the NESTs and 73% of all the OCF by the NNESTs was recast), whereas the NNESTs used prompts more than the NESTs (9% of all the OCF by the NESTs and 23% of all the OCF by the NNESTs was prompt). Considering that decisions regarding critical domains such as focus on form are addressed more directly than the more general ones by language teacher trainers (Yates & Muchiski, 2003) in SLTE programs, the NNESTs' clearly more use of prompts than the NESTs might to an extent be attributed to the four-year SLTE program they attended (5 out of 7 observed NNESTs graduated from ELT programs and the other two received pedagogical formation training, whereas the NESTs received only four weeks of intensive CELTA course). This is also supported by the fact that the majority of the prompts by the NNESTs were given by the teachers who mentioned having benefited from teacher training in the interviews. (See the related discussion: *Cross-cultural influences on oral error correction*).

As is evident from these findings as well as the other studies' mentioned above, recasting seems to enjoy a high pedagogical popularity among L2 teachers. However, simply providing the correct form, i.e. recasting, may not always be the only or the most effective form of error correction since it prevents learners from testing alternative hypotheses (Corder, 1967). What's more, "there is a point beyond which recasts are ineffective in changing stabilized interlanguages" (Nicholas et al., 2001, p. 752). Therefore, especially in cases where recasts could be perceived as the approval for learners' non-target forms and where learners have reached a developmental plateau in their use of the non-target forms, learners are more likely to benefit from prompts than recasts (Lyster et al., 2013).

These primary findings of the present study have some overlapping and divergent points with those of a recent local study by Dilmaghani (2014). His research findings showed that the NESTs resorted to explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback more than the NNESTs. On the other hand, the NNESTs used higher amounts of elicitation and clarification request than the NESTs. In the present study, elicitation and clarification requests were classified under the hypernym, prompt. Though not reported individually, in this study, during the analysis of the classroom interaction data, it was observed that the

NNESTs tended to use clarification request and elicitation more than the NESTs, consequentially making prompts more of a practice of the NNESTs than the NESTs. In addition, in Dilmaghani's (2014) study, the NNESTs employed significantly more recasts than the NESTs, which was in the opposite direction to the present research finding. Another study (Kırkgöz, Babanoğlu, & Ağçam, 2015) which investigated the OCF types provided only by Turkish EFL teachers (NNESTs) revealed that almost a half of all the OCF moves were explicit correction, followed by other OCF types in fragmented proportions. In contrast, findings of the present study showed that not only the NESTs but also the NNESTs used explicit correction only very rarely.

At a semi-immersion program in Spain, Diaz (2009) found that there were no significant differences between the NESTs and NNESTs in the amount of recast and elicitation they used, and that the most preferred OCF type by the Spanish NNESTs was elicitation, which was recast in the present study. Zhang and Chatupote (2014b) also conducted a comparative study in Thai EFL. Its findings are relatively more important to the present study in that both gathered observational data from two different purely EFL countries that are getting fewer day by day in the world. Their study revealed that it was prompt that the NESTs preferred the most, followed by recast and explicit correction, while recasting was the most preferred strategy by the NNESTs, followed by prompt and explicit correction. While the NNESTs used recasts more than the NESTs, the NESTs provided more prompts than the NNESTs to learners' oral errors. The latter finding is in total opposition to the case in the present study.

In conclusion, findings of the present study handled thus far, alongside the aforementioned others, show that no matter how similar or different contexts might be, teachers may provide different OCF types in different (order of) amounts regardless of their N/NN status. At this juncture, follow-up interviews may facilitate to understand the underlying reasons for such inconsistencies (See the related discussion: *Cross-cultural influences on oral error correction*).

As distinct from the labelled OCF types used by the NESTs and NNESTs, analysis of the interaction data yielded some OCF instances which were difficult to incorporate into a specific OCF category. In the example below, one of the NNESTs simply repeated his initial question upon hearing that the student misunderstood it due to lack of lexical knowledge.

T: - *How many times in a day?*

S: - *One hour.*

T: - *How many times in a day?*

This OCF move is different from teacher's repetition of students' erroneous utterances as in *repetition* as an OCF type. Yet, it apparently serves the same function of eliciting the correct form from the student by prompting him/her to reformulate the erroneous output. Hence, if we consider that teachers' use of questions to elicit correct forms (by excluding the use of yes/no questions) is labelled under *elicitation* as in "*How do we say X in French?*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48), then it would be legitimate to regard it as an elicitation move, i.e. prompt in broad terms, as well as the possibility to label it in accordance with how it achieved the eliciting function (by the teacher repeating her/his previous question), which would therefore be *iteration*, as distinct from *repetition*.

Another perplexing case emerged when one of the NNESTs formulated alternative questions that included both the erroneous and correct form as in the examples below:

Excerpt 1:

S: - *Sometimes school is bored.*

T: - *Is school bored or boring?*

S: - *Boring.*

Excerpt 2:

S: - *Home school children can't wait bus.*

T: - *Can't or don't have to?*

S: - *Don't have to.*

This OCF strategy can be considered explicit in nature because it clearly transforms the erroneous output to an alternative question and directs it to the student who made the initial error in an explicit manner. This specific OCF move is similar to explicit correction in that both include the correct form. Unlike explicit correction, however, it does not directly tell the student that what (s)he had said was incorrect as in "-*Oh, you mean, you should say*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46). This move also resembles clarification request in that it is in the form of question that includes a repetition of the error as in "-*What do you mean by X?*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). However, as opposed to the OCF move which is under debate, clarification requests do not include the correct form. Therefore, it does not seem

possible to mention this specific move as an instance of any available OCF type, which paves the way for labelling it as *alternative feedback* or *alternative question*.

Last but not least, the analysis of the classroom recordings also showed that the NNESTs provided all the types of OCF except recast in Turkish several times. This can, to some extent, be attributed to some of the NNESTs' frequent resort to Turkish in the course of L2 instruction (See the related discussion: *Tolerance of Error*).

Table 22 shows an example for each.

Table 22

Instances of OCF Types Provided in Turkish by the NNESTs

OCF type	Erroneous utterance	OCF by the NNEST
Elicitation	- *Sally [don't has] to …*	- *bir daha söyle* (say it again)
Explicit correction	- *Have you ever [drove] a bus?*	- *drove 2. hâli, 3. hâli driven.*
Clarification Request	- *I am going to [realize] a lot…*	- *Ne?* (What?)
Metalinguistic feedback	- *Has the book made…?*	-*Passive olacak.*(It must be passive)
Repetition	- *drink …*	- *drink mi?*(with an interrogative particle in Turkish)

5.2 Tolerance of Error

In the context of this study, it was revealed that the NESTs were more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs (55.15% correction rate by the NESTs, and 71.07% correction rate by the NNESTs). In addition, a significant relationship was found between N/NN status and the amount of OCF provided to learners' oral errors ($p<.01$). The findings of at least four local studies give support to the NNESTs' strict attitudes toward oral errors. İnan's (2012) and Dilmaghani's (2014) study revealed the same order of tolerance between the NESTs and NNESTs as in the present study, as well as Coşkun (2010) and Kırkgöz et al. (2015) in which the NNESTs demonstrated very limited tolerance to oral errors. Similarly, Zhang and Chatupote (2014a), in Thai EFL context, found that the NNESTs provided overwhelmingly more OCF than their native counterparts as in the present study. However, Boyno, Akıl, and Dolaş (2013) and Kılınç (2007) obtained results that were contradictory to the local tendency. The former found that the observed NEST corrected oral errors at a higher rate than the NNEST (38% correction rate by the NEST, whereas only 18% by the

NNEST). In the latter study, the NNESTs corrected only 24.5% of all the oral errors. Furthermore, in Gurzynski-Weiss (2010), it was observed that the native teachers of Spanish were not more tolerant of errors than their non-native counterparts. In addition, Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) revealed that the instructors with more teaching experience corrected a lot more than those with less experience. This also applies for the present study if we consider that all the observed NNESTs, except for one, were more experienced than the observed NESTs. All the NESTs in this study had less than 4 years of teaching experience, whereas the NNESTs' experience ranged between 3 and 22 years. One reason for more experienced teachers' more provision of OCF than less experienced ones might be that more experienced teachers may be more willing to deviate from their preplanned classroom activities to provide incidental focus on form (Mackey, Polio, & McDonough, 2004).

Although Truscott (1999) raises a harsh criticism to error correction in the belief that correction disturbs the ongoing communication, other researchers claim that OCF is more effective than no OCF (Lyster et al., 2013) and in one way or another, OCF can benefit L2 acquisition (Y. Sheen & Ellis, 2011). In line with these notions supporting OCF effectiveness, the NNESTs in the present study seem to have followed *the more, the better* approach in their efforts to correct oral errors. Additionally, there seems to be a match between the present NESTs' and NNESTs' actual OCF practices and teachers' and students' perceptions toward their OCF provision as revealed in other studies. Findings of plenty of perception studies on the differences in their teaching behavior (e.g., Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Benke & Medgyes, 2005) parallel the observed NESTs' more tolerant behaviors towards errors than the NNESTs in the present study. Moreover, the NNESTs' strict attitudes toward errors in this study seem to be in congruence with learners' strong wish to be corrected as reported in several studies (Oladejo, 1993; Peacock, 1998; Schulz, 2001; Katayama, 2007; Hamouda, 2011; Kavaliauskienė & Anusienė, 2012).

In the database of classroom interaction which projected that the number of oral errors and OCF moves were considerably higher in the NESTs' classes than the NNESTs', there was one error in every two and three minutes in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes, respectively. In a similar vein, there was one OCF move in every 3.65 and 4.27 minutes in the NESTs' and NNESTs' classes, respectively. Low occurrence of errors and the following potential OCF moves in the NNESTs' classes can be attributed to the less

amount of interaction in the TL in comparison to the NESTs' classes. One main reason for the less amount of interaction in the TL in the NNESTs' classes was that some of the NNESTs frequently resorted to the use of learners' L1, i.e. Turkish, during the lessons. Yet, this cannot be generalized to all the NNESTs because radical differences were observed among them in terms of their use of L1 in the classroom. There were also NNESTs who spoke English at 100% of the time and they even explained grammar in English by eliciting the rules through question and answer sections. In total, however, it was calculated that the NNESTs used Turkish in one eighth of the whole classroom recording, which amounts to approximately 120 minutes of L1 use. Some of the NNESTs used L1 to explain grammar, negotiate meaning, link the course and coursebook content with their real life experiences, preach on why students should listen to the teacher and become involved in the activities, give information about the formal tests and classroom attendance, and so forth. Some of them were also observed to frequently use word equivalents in L1 and sentence translation. The one who used L1 equivalents of words was seen to do that so as to facilitate learners' understanding of his speech (Now, we are going to combine, which is *birleştirmek*, some of the e-mails…) and further their reading comprehension. Other NNEST explained the activities/tasks in Turkish, translated reading and listening parts as well as getting learners to translate them, asked content questions in the coursebook in learners' L1. Grammar translation seemed to be his first resort in formal teaching. As a result of this, even though he asked questions in English, his learners tended to answer in Turkish. Then, their correct responses received Turkish positive feedback from their teacher (*güzel, doğru, harika* etc. meaning *good*, *right*, *great* and so on). Another reason for there being less T-S interaction in L2 in the NNESTs' classes may be that the students did not seem as eager to speak English with their NNESTs as their NESTs. That might be because the NNESTs were more inclined to talk about grammar, whereas the students seemed more willing to speak English when their teachers were NESTs and questions were directed by them. Taken together, all those factors might have led to less amount of interaction in the NNESTs' classes in the TL, and thus to fewer number of oral errors and expected instances of OCF.

5.3 The Use of OCF According to Error Types

This study revealed similar as well as different amounts of OCF provision for different error types between the NESTs and NNESTs. The NESTs corrected phonological errors

slightly more than the NNESTs (75% correction rate by the NESTs, and 67% by the NNESTs); however, no significant relationship was found between N/NN status and the amount of OCF to phonological errors ($p>.05$). On the other hand, the NNESTs corrected grammatical and lexical errors considerably more than the NESTs, which was affirmed by significant relationships between N/NN status and the correction of grammatical and lexical errors ($p<.01$ for both), separately (32% correction rate by the NESTs, and 70% by the NNESTs for grammatical errors, and 67% correction rate by the NESTs, and 96% by the NNESTs for lexical errors). A local study by Kılınç (2007) showed that although grammatical errors were the most occurring error type in the classes of the NNESTs, they were the least corrected (14%), whereas lexical errors were the most frequently corrected type of error (43.4%). In another local study (Boyno et al., 2013), however, one observed NEST corrected phonological, lexical and grammatical errors more than the observed NNEST. Again, surprisingly, in Taiwanese EFL context, the NESTs corrected more grammar than the NNESTs, and the NNESTs treated more phonological errors than the NESTs (C. Yang, 2010).

Regarding the portrayal of the situation within each teacher group, the NESTs corrected phonological and lexical errors at a high and similar rate, and considerably more than grammatical errors. On the other hand, the NNESTs corrected phonological and grammatical errors at a high and similar rate but considerably less than lexical errors. The relatively small number of lexical errors in the NNESTs' classes may be one reason their correction rate to this error type appeared high.

In this study, differences between the NESTs and NNESTs were also investigated in terms of their proportioning of OCF to different error types. In the NESTs' classes, there was an imbalance between the proportion of grammatical and phonological errors (the number of specified error type / total number of errors) and OCF (OCF that followed the specified error type / total number of OCF moves) that targeted them, separately. 40% of all the learner errors were grammatical, whereas only 23% of the NESTs' total OCF moves targeted them. Besides, phonological errors which accounted for 41% of all the errors, received 55% of all the OCF of the NESTs. On the other hand, the NNESTs were highly consistent in their proportioning of OCF to error types. In the NNESTs' classes, there was a complete equilibrium between the proportion of grammatical and phonological errors and OCF that targeted them. Grammatical errors that comprised 51% of all the errors received

50% of all the OCF of the NNESTs, and phonological errors which were almost one third of all the errors (35%) received 33% of all the OCF of the NNESTs.

These findings show that the NESTs and NNESTs differ in the amount of OCF they provided to different error types. Apparently, this is because they "vary in the criteria they use" (Ellis, 1994, p. 66). Regarding the judging criteria for errors, intelligibility and grammaticality are assumed to be at the so-called opposite ends of the continuum. In Hughes and Lascaratou (1982), for example, the NNESTs showed regard to the 'basic-ness' of the grammatical rules infringed, whereas non-teacher NSs relied heavily on the criterion of intelligibility and the NESTs on both, with more preference for intelligibility. Intelligibility is more likely to be affected by mispronunciation and wrong lexical choices than morphosyntactic errors (Mackey et al., 2000). In addition, as Isaacs and Trofimovich (2012) revealed, it was phonological and lexical errors which made L2 learners' impromptu speech unintelligible for NSs, whereas inaccurate grammar did not have a negative influence on the intelligibility of learners at low and intermediate level. This might be a good reason why the NESTs in the present study corrected phonological (by three fourths) and lexical errors (by two thirds) at a considerably higher rate than grammatical errors (by less than a third). The NNESTs, on the other hand, provided OCF to all the lexical errors with one exception and corrected two thirds of all the phonological errors, without having dispelled the stereotype that NNS judges seem to be especially hard on morphological errors (by more than two thirds) in comparison to NS judges (Ellis, 1994).

Furthermore, there is some evidence that OCF leads to more successful learner repair on phonological and lexical errors (Lyster, 1998a; Mackey et al., 2000; Carpenter et al., 2006; Kim & Han, 2007), and thus may be more conducive to lexical and pronunciation development than to morphosyntactic development (Lyster et al., 2013). In view of this, it can be inferred then that there are both matches and mismatches between the error types that receive OCF from the NESTs & NNESTs in the present study and the error types for which research shows OCF might be more effective.

5.4 The Use of Different Types of OCF According to Error Types

In this study, the NESTs and NNESTs corrected almost all the phonological errors by recasting (96% by the NESTs, and 93% by the NNESTs). No significant relationship was

found between N/NN status and the amount of recast for phonological errors ($p>.05$). The NESTs and NNESTs rarely used prompt and explicit correction to correct phonological errors. Again, a great majority of the OCF of the NESTs to grammatical errors was in the form of recast (87%), followed by prompts (13%). The NESTs used no explicit correction to correct grammatical errors. Proportionally, the NNESTs provided less recast (60%) and more prompt (34%) to grammatical errors than the NESTs did. Significant relationships were found between N/NN status and the provision of recast and prompt for grammatical errors, separately ($p<.01$ for both). Only a small portion of the OCF of the NNESTs to grammatical errors was explicit correction (6%). Also in the correction of lexical errors, recast was the most preferred OCF strategy by the NESTs and NNESTs (71% and 65%, respectively). Recast was followed by prompt (21% by the NESTs and 31% by the NNESTs) and explicit correction (8% by the NESTs and 4% by the NNESTs). There were not any significant relationships between N/NN status and the amount of recast and prompt for lexical errors, separately ($p>.05$ for both). Even in the small number of OCF moves to multiple errors, the NESTs and NNESTs primarily used recasts (79% by the NESTs and 84% by the NNESTs), followed by prompts (21% by the NESTs and 16% by the NNESTs).

As a consequence, in handling grammatical, lexical and phonological errors, proportionally, the NESTs employed recast more than the NNESTs, whereas the NNESTs used prompt more than the NESTs. Recast was obviously the most favored OCF strategy of the NESTs and NNESTs in correcting all types of error, particularly in the case of phonological errors. By contrast, a self-observational local study (Coşkun, 2010) by a NNEST showed that recast was the least preferred OCF type to correct phonological and grammatical errors, whereas prompt (in the form of repetition only) was the most common for both types of error. In addition, a study from overseas (C. Yang, 2010) found results which were both similar to and different from those of the present study: the NNESTs provided more recasts to phonological errors than the NESTs, while the NESTs used more recasts for grammatical errors than the NNESTs.

In the extension study of his observations of French immersion classes, Lyster (1998a) found that teachers tended to use recasts to correct grammatical and phonological errors and prompts for lexical errors. The same study also showed that teachers' prompts were more effective at eliciting immediate repair than recasts in the case of lexical and grammatical errors, but not in the case of phonological errors. Phonological errors

benefited from recasts quite a lot. Pronunciation-focused recasts can have a facilitative role in pronunciation development as some other studies have already shown in terms of different phonological targets (for example, the acquisition of /ɹ/, vowels) (Saito & Lyster, 2012a, 2012b). However, in leading to grammatical gains, the relative ineffectiveness of recasts in itself and in comparison to prompts, was revealed with reference to specific targets (for example, comparative -er, -ed and regular past tense forms, possessive determiners) in several studies (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Y. Yang & Lyster, 2010). In addition, in Dilans (2010), prompts proved to be slightly more advantageous than recasts in the long term lexical development and the prompt group was the only one that showed significant gains over time on different dimensions of vocabulary development.

When all the aforementioned findings are considered, it can be held that the observed NESTs and NNESTs in the present study are in the right direction in their decisions to provide consistent recast to phonological errors. On the other hand, their frequent resort to recasts and sparing use of prompts in correcting grammatical and lexical errors seem to be in contrast with the findings of the focused studies that are few in number. But still, it is noteworthy that the NNESTs, by prompting especially grammatical errors more than the NESTs, seem to have acted within pedagogical boundaries and more in line with those research findings than the NESTs. Yet, given the context-dependent nature of OCF, it turns out to be quite a complex and inconclusive task to reason what types of OCF are more effective for different types of error, and whether OCF types used in a particular setting are the most appropriate ones for different types of error made in that setting.

5.5 Cross-cultural Influences on Oral Error Correction

First, this part of discussion presents summary of the NEST & NNEST interview findings under each emergent category with a view to recapturing the cross-cultural influences on their classroom OCF practices. Moreover, some matches and mismatches were determined, thus reported, between the observed teachers' actual practices of OCF and their stated preferences, in addition to their stated beliefs which are the "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' " (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 244). This was achieved through the triangulation of observational classroom interaction

data and qualitative interview findings. Furthermore, the interview findings are discussed with reference to the relevant research.

The effect of teacher training and teaching experience

Two individual differences that might affect L2 teachers' use of incidental focus-on-form are their level of experience and teacher education (Mackey et al., 2004). In the same vein, this emergent category revealed to what extent or in what ways the observed NESTs' and NNESTs' teacher training and teaching experience affected their error correction practices. In spite of the fact that most of the NESTs had *CELTA* while the majority of the NNESTs were graduates of ELT programs, the two instructor groups did not differ in terms of their beliefs about the influence of teacher training they received on their practices of correcting oral errors. In neither instructor group was there a unity of reflections on the effect of teacher training on their error correction and OCF practices. Both the NESTs and NNESTs raised mixed reactions with regard to its effect on their OCF behaviour. Some of the NESTs and NNESTs held that their teacher training helped to shape their attitudes toward error correction, not least because it provided them with some theory and strategy of language teaching and OCF provision. These stated beliefs are in keeping with Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, and Nevgi (2007) who found that pedagogical training made teachers more cognisant of their approach to teaching and teaching methods. However, others did not seem to lend credence to the potential contribution teacher training could make to their OCF practices. It might then be the case that it will take some time for pedagogical input to have an effect on teachers' OCF practices (Kassa, 2011).

Rather, both instructor groups commonly suggested that it was essentially teaching experience that practically contributed to their OCF giving patterns. It is noteworthy here that not only the NNESTs whose teaching experience can go upwards of twenty years, but also the NESTs who are all novice with limited teaching experience appreciated the role of experience in general teaching and more specifically, in error correction. Both instructor groups' common viewpoint on the role of experience can probably best be summarized with the following remark by a NEST *"- It [teacher training] was more about giving me structure how to teach, the theory. I think experience is one hundred times more effective than teacher training"* (Andrew). Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) called attention to an interactive relation between pre-service teacher education and teaching experience and concluded that the impact of college (i.e. pre-service teacher education) is 'washed out' by the experience at school. This washout could also be one reason why the NESTs and

NNESTs in the present study put teaching experience in a position that is superior to teacher education in terms of its potential to contribute to their error correction and OCF practices.

The necessity and effectiveness of error correction

The NESTs did not seem to reach a consensus on the necessity of correcting learners' oral errors, nor on its effectiveness. They held different beliefs with regard to the necessity and effectiveness of error correction. When they stated errors need to be handled, these statements were accompanied by different conditions and factors such as focus of the lesson, the individual student, affective concerns, flow of the communication. When they were for the effectiveness of error correction, they uttered its benefits such as informing learners about their errors and preventing them from making potential errors. Yet, other NESTs questioned the effectiveness of error correction and emphasized student-bound drawbacks such as their failure to take criticism and become discouraged, thus leading to silence as well as their inability to learn from the received OCF and make the same error over and over again. Those NESTs' emphasis on the influence of student-related factors on the effectiveness of OCF is in line with the findings of Özmen and Aydın (2015) who revealed EFL STs' belief that learners' characters and attitudes toward the lesson are important factors affecting the efficiency of OCF.

Contrary to the NESTs, the NNESTs widely agreed that it is necessary and effective to correct learners' oral errors. As different from the NESTs who uttered conditions for correction, the NNESTs gave reasons why correction should be made. The NNESTs argued that correction prevents further misunderstandings and errors from being fossilized, gives learners an opportunity to learn from errors, enables them to gain self-awareness and hear the correct form. Considering these reflections from the NESTs and NNESTs, there seems to be a correspondence between their stated beliefs about the necessity of OCF and the amount of OCF they used in classroom teaching. The interviews revealed that the NESTs did not lean toward error correction as much as the NNESTs. Along the same lines, the classroom observation data showed that the NESTs provided OCF to errors at a lower rate than the NNESTs (71.07% correction rate by the NNESTs, and 55.15% correction rate by the NESTs). Such a correspondence seems to be lacking in some of the studies. For example, in Kartchava (2006), novice ESL teachers corrected fewer errors than they stated they would. Likewise, Kamiya (2014) revealed that one of the most experienced teachers in his study demonstrated incongruent behavior between teaching statements and actual

practice. On the other hand, as confirmed by both their stated beliefs and actual practices, the NNESTs' tendency to provide large amounts of OCF in the present study receives a great deal of support from the findings of some previous studies. To illustrate, a local study by Kırkgöz and Ağçam (2015) revealed the majority of the NNESTs' strong beliefs about the necessity of error correction, alongside others in Mexican EFL (Méndez & Cruz, 2012) and Spanish as a foreign language contexts (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010) with the same results irrespective of teachers' N/NN status. Teachers' belief that OCF is necessary receives further support from L2 learners. The vast majority of students from different research contexts also believed that errors need to be corrected (e.g., Schulz, 2001; Park, 2010; Othman, 2012; Renko, 2012; Fidan, 2015) in order to gain accuracy and fluency in the TL (Oladejo, 1993).

Moreover, the NNESTs in the current study were more experienced than the NESTs in addition to being less tolerant of errors than them, which was practically observed and also corroborated by the interview data. This position is congruent with Mackey et al.'s (2004) prediction that experienced teachers use more incidental focus-on-form techniques than inexperienced ones. This is because experienced teachers' practices are fostered not only by the relatively more information about form-focused instruction they received in pre-service programs but also by the ample opportunities to gain additional knowledge through professional development activities and their own classroom experience (Mackey et al., 2004). More experienced teachers' provision of significantly more OCF than inexperienced ones was also manifested statistically (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Last but not least, Rahimi and Zhang's (2015) interview data reinforced this tendency: as teachers become more experienced, these acquired experiences raise their awareness of the role of mediating factors such as error frequency and types, instructional focus, and task types in their cognitions about the necessity, timing and types of OCF.

Preferred way of correcting errors

The majority of the NESTs stated that they resort to recasts to correct learners' oral errors. They generally based their use of recasts on the supposition that they do not have the potential to disrupt the conversation. As for the NNESTs, they mainly linked their use of different OCF types to a number of factors such as the task/activity, the type of error, the individual student, just as in the large majority of instructors in Gurzynski-Weiss (2010). Next, the NNESTs mentioned having used prompts because they believed that it is important to give learners some hints to lead them to self-correct. Recast was also voiced

as a popular way of correction among the NNESTs, though not as much as prompts. Also noteworthy is that the NNESTs mentioned more varied OCF types than the NESTs as their OCF preferences including recast, different ways of prompting, delayed and implicit OCF. The NESTs' stated use of OCF types can be said to have a perfect match with their actual OCF preferences. Both in their statements and classroom practices, they favored recasts as their most preferred type of OCF. However, there seems to be a discrepancy between the NNESTs' stated use of different OCF types and actual OCF preferences. Although recast was the NNESTs' most preferred OCF type followed by prompts as in the NESTs in classroom teaching, their stated order of the use of OCF types was the other way around. The NESTs' and NNESTs' stated use of OCF types seem to be in contrast with Lennane (2007) in the sense that the Taiwanese NNESTs' stated behaviours favored simply the provision of correct answers (i.e. recasting), while the NESTs favored elicitations.

When the NESTs and NNESTs stated that they choose to recast learner errors, they grounded this on the following reasons: recasting enables to pursue the conversation without a serious interruption as also held by Long (2007), makes students aware of their errors without making them feel they are actually being corrected, and does not overemphasize errors, thus leads to no discouragement. However, in Yoshida (2008), teachers chose recasts because of time limitation and their knowledge of learners' cognitive styles. His interviewees were also selective about prompting and they prompted only when they thought their learners would be able to self-correct. One NEST in the present study, in addition, admitted the pedagogical role of prompts thanks to their eliciting function as well as believing that they would disrupt the conversation. That's why he stated he often prefers recasting instead. This stated controversy was also revealed by Roothooft (2014) in which some of the Spanish EFL teachers mainly used recasts for being less disruptive although they acknowledged the pedagogical potential of prompts. However, in the interaction database of the present study as well as the one in Lyster (1998b), no instances of prompts or other OCF types were observed to break the flow of communication in real terms. What is more, one NNEST also underscored the triggering function of prompts, stating that getting learners to notice their errors on their own this way serves the best to make permanent changes in the IL. This possible change would be likely to be realized by prompting if one considers that learning involves moving away from other-repair toward more reliance on self-repair (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), and prompts

provide this opportunity by giving clues to push students to retrieve correct forms from what they already know (Ranta & Lyster, 2007).

Concerning the OCF preference in terms of its explicitness, one of the NESTs mentioned that she would not prefer correcting explicitly, for fear that students might feel discouraged. The NESTs' almost no mention of explicit OCF types (for example, metalinguistic clues and elicitation as explicit ways of prompting as categorized by Y. Sheen and Ellis (2011) aside from explicit correction) was also corroborated by their actual classroom OCF practices as can be understood from the observational data. This was also the case in Dlangamandla (1996) and Kamiya (2014) in which ESL teachers' classroom practices were largely in congruence with their stated beliefs about OCF in this regard. In the interviews conducted in those two studies, the teachers accentuated the need for creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere. In parallel, they avoided using explicit correction in their classes lest their learners feel humiliated and their motivation be negatively affected.

Not least important is the fact that it may be detrimental to learning when teachers' and their students' dispositions are poles apart (Schulz, 2001). In the present study, as mentioned earlier, the NESTs' primary stated OCF preference was recast, while it was prompt for the NNESTs followed by recast. The NNESTs found it important to give learners some clues to lead them to self-correct although this was not observed in their actual performance that much, shadowed by clearly more use of recasts than prompts. Similar to the NNESTs in the present study, the Iranian NNESTs considered prompts to be the most effective, whereas prompts had the lowest percentage of occurrence alongside explicit correction in their actual teaching (Farrokhi, 2007). This is the seeming case on the part of teachers. Yet, in contrast to the teachers' OCF preferences in actual performance, L2 learners from different contexts preferred to be given some clues and hints to enable them to notice the error and self-correct (Oladejo, 1993; Katayama, 2007; Park, 2010). These learner preferences suggest that they would like to get an opportunity to modify their own ill-formed output by being pushed to think over their utterances.

Prioritized types of error for correction

It was agreed by the NESTs and NNESTs that errors which impede intelligibility require the most attention. However, the two groups differed in terms of their viewpoints on

prioritizing different types of error. For the most part, the NESTs remarked that they give priority to the correction of phonological errors, thinking that they are mainly responsible for unintelligibility. On the other hand, the NNESTs did not highlight a particular type of error to receive top priority. They rather labelled errors in need of special care as *critical*, *strategic* or *fundamental*. In a local study by Kırkgöz and Ağçam (2015), a balanced distribution was observed among the NNESTs in terms of their viewpoints on the necessity of correcting misformation errors and phonological errors. Similarly, a study in the Polish EFL (Tomczyk, 2013) showed that the majority of the NNESTs and their learners described grammatical and phonological errors as the most crucial ones to handle. In Gurzynski-Weiss (2010), irrespective of their N/NN status, teachers believed that morphosyntactic errors are the most important to treat, followed by lexical and phonological errors. The importance of correcting grammatical errors ranked first in the order of preference also by ESL learners in Singapore (Oladejo, 1993) and in Malaysia (Othman, 2012), followed by vocabulary and pronunciation errors. These preferences might be attributed to a number of contextual factors including curricular goals, linguistic foci, and so forth. For example, Othman (2012) explained that the focus of the English lessons in the context of his study was more on writing than other skills, that is why the students might have viewed the correction of the ungrammaticalities in their spoken errors as the most crucial, giving grammar a place in both writing and speaking.

Given the fact that the NNESTs in the present study corrected nearly all the lexical errors, they can be said to view them as more critical than other types of error though they did not verbalize this point during the interviews. This might also be due to the fact that they also give importance to meaning in their classes (Kılınç, 2007). However, this should not mean that other types of error are considered unimportant by the NNESTs because they corrected all other types of error at a high rate. As for the NESTs, their statements for the prioritization of phonological errors overlap with their correction of phonological errors at a higher rate than other types of error in their actual performances. This means the NESTs practically stand behind their view that phonological errors have the most potential to pose a barrier to intelligibility, and thus need more frequent treatment.

The timing of error correction

In the interviews, some of the NESTs expressed their preference for immediate OCF, stating that it is the best time right after a student says the word. On the other hand, some of the NESTs underscored the negative effects of immediate OCF on learners' oral production. They argued that correction can be delayed until the end of learner speech, especially because immediate OCF has the potential to discourage them from speaking. The following is an exemplary remark from one of the NESTs: *"- … it kind of discouraged them from speaking so I stopped correcting immediately because it is detrimental to their self-confidence"* (Judith). This stance is in congruence with the findings of a local study (Özmen & Aydın, 2015) in which EFL STs stated their preferences for delayed OCF so that students would not feel demotivated. Those EFL STs also felt that the timing of OCF depends to a large extent on the type/focus of the activity. They reported that if the focus was on fluency, they would use delayed OCF, but if the focus of the activity was on accuracy, they would give immediate OCF. The EFL STs' stated behaviours seem to be in good agreement with the statements of the NNESTs in the present study in that they also linked their timing of OCF to more or less the same factors such as task type, affective concerns and so forth. As an example, one NNEST said: *"- If the topic taught gives importance to the usage of language, not the meaning necessarily (for example, a grammar topic or how to spell a word), I correct right after the student errs. If the student is a shy kind of person that could be offended easily, I prefer to give feedback after he/she finishes talking, not immediately"* (Haluk). In addition to the potential negative influence immediate OCF might have on learners' motivation and self-confidence, Roothooft (2014) revealed the majority of Spanish EFL teachers' concerns that immediate OCF can also disrupt communication.

Some local studies came up with conflicting findings with regard to NNESTs' stated preferences for immediate and delayed OCF. To exemplify, in Kırkgöz and Ağçam (2015), 56% of the NNESTs favored immediate OCF, while 33% expressed their preference for delayed OCF. On the other hand, Ülgü, Sarı, and Griffiths (2013) found that the NNESTs were more in favor of giving delayed OCF than immediate OCF to oral errors. Moreover, the NESTs in the American ESL (Park, 2010) and the NNESTs in the Mexican EFL (Méndez & Cruz, 2012) also favored delaying OCF until the end of class time/learner talk. Yet, it remains unclear to what extent these teachers' statements overlap with their actual OCF practices in terms of the timing of OCF. In the present study, however, it was

observed that the NESTs and NNESTs did not resort to delayed OCF in their actual performance in real terms, except for a few cases. It can be argued then that these teachers' concerns about their students' affective states and the flow of communication did not seem to influence their actual decisions of the provision of immediate OCF.

Agents of error correction

The NESTs and NNESTs held similar beliefs with regard to who should be involved in correcting oral errors. For instance, both teacher groups valued the role of the OCF by the teacher and self-correction. The main reason for their favoring the OCF by the teacher was the trueness and trustworthiness offered by teacher intervention. Pawlak (2014) links this main role undertaken by teachers in error correction to a number of reasons such as teachers' feeling responsible for ensuring high quality of learner output, their superior TL knowledge and training in teaching methodology, and so forth. Yet, the OCF by the teacher may not necessarily be the most effective pedagogical tool for every situation given that it might be inconsistent and to no avail to cater to learner needs in addition to the recent emphasis on learner-centeredness and learner autonomy (Pawlak, 2014). Alongside the OCF by the teacher, the NESTs and NNESTs also highlighted the role of self-correction due to the fact that it serves to incite learners, and constant OCF by the teacher can discourage learners from speaking. They further argued that the teacher can step in when learners fail to modify their own output. However, the NESTs and NNESTs differed in their viewpoints on peer correction. While the NNESTs paid regard to the place of peer correction, the NESTs marginalised its role in the English classroom, thinking that students might consider it as an instrument for teasing their peers, and some students may not welcome the correction from their classmates. On the other hand, positive effects of peer correction on L2 development have already been demonstrated in a number of studies (e.g., Adams, 2007; Sato & Lyster, 2012) aside from its noticeability and serving as a negative evidence (Lyster, 1998b), and its potential to mitigate dependence on the teacher and promote cooperation among students (Edge, 1989). Over and above these, however, the NNESTs mentioned that self-correction requires students to have some basic knowledge in the TL, with the NESTs' caveat that there may be potential deficiencies in peer or self-correction. Such shortcomings of peer correction in common with self-correction are further voiced by Pawlak (2014) in addition to his inference that they might also be time-consuming. These drawbacks may also be the reasons why the NESTs and NNESTs of the

present study relied so heavily on their own OCF (OCF by the teacher) and did not tend to prompt learners to self-correct that much in their actual performance.

Consequently, self- and peer correction has an acknowledged importance among teaching methodologists (Ellis, 2009) as well as the OCF by the teacher. However, judging by the research in the field on teacher and learner preferences for the agent of correction, there seems to be a clear tendency toward placing the OCF by the teacher above self- and peer correction (Oladejo, 1993; Dlangamandla, 1996; Katayama, 2007; Park, 2010; Kavaliauskienė & Anusienė, 2012; Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Tomczyk, 2013; Kırkgöz & Ağçam, 2015). Yet, the specific effects on a learner's L2 proficiency in terms of the agent of correction "depend[s] upon when they are corrected, which ones are corrected, and especially how they are brought to the learner's attention" (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 395).

Conceptions about Turkish EFL learners: The lens of the NESTs and NNESTs

The NESTs' and NNESTs' reflections on Turkish EFL learners' learning habits, emotional states and preferences for OCF are summarized as follows:

1. Both the NESTs and NNESTs argued that Turkish EFL learners would mainly like to be corrected by their teachers, and in a direct and explicit manner. This point is lent partial support by a local study in which EFL learners agreed that they would like their teachers to provide frequent correction as well as preferring to be given opportunity to self-correct (Seferoğlu, 2008). On the other hand, the NESTs' and NNESTs' perceived preferences of their learners in the present study are in parallel with Dlangamandla (1996) in which students expressed a wish for their oral errors to be attended to explicitly in addition to the findings of a cross-cultural study by Lennane (2007) which demonstrated Taiwanese EFL and Quebecois ESL learners' clear preferences for explicit correction.

2. The NESTs and NNESTs attribute their perceptions towards the way their learners would like to be corrected to their past pedagogical habits and learning experiences as well as to the traditional way of teaching they were subject to. As an example, one NEST made the following comment on this issue:

"- Probably their teachers just told them the right answer and this is what they expect from me"(Olivia).

3. Concerning whether Turkish EFL learners feel comfortable with being corrected, neither the NESTs nor the NNESTs reached a consensus among themselves. In both of the groups,

there were those who were and were not for the idea that learners might feel disturbed by corrections.

Some highlights from the interviews with the NESTs are given below, which were specified not by the majority but by only one or some of them.

a) Students might initially feel disturbed by corrections, but after a while, they can adapt and eventually feel more comfortable with the way their teachers correct them.

b) Students appreciate it when they are told in class what error they made or that they made an error.

c) Students might feel embarrassed or discouraged by the correction. At this point, one NEST underlined a dilemma:

"- I think they prefer to be corrected immediately but they don't know this discourages them. I don't think they realize this discourages them from speaking" (Judith).

The issue also sparked different comments from the NNESTs without arriving at a consensus. Some features are given below:

a) Students are not comfortable with error correction and are afraid of making errors.

b) Students are comfortable with error correction especially when it is not their peers who correct them.

c) Students' psychological comfort cannot be established by the OCF by the teacher because they would not like to be looked down on in front of others, therefore they would prefer peer correction and especially self-correction.

d) It is important to build rapport with students in terms of providing correction. One of the NNESTs made the following comment in this sense:

"- ... I like being a friend, a big sister for my students and it changes everything. As I share personal stuff or they come and cry with me etc., they feel more comfortable with me. I change everything, even my style of error correction. Sometimes, I burst into laughter with a funny pronunciation mistake, but they don't feel humiliated. I know it. So, my students tell me the best way or their preference is the way I already do it" (Sevil).

It was evident from the interview findings that some of the NESTs and NNESTs in the present study often expressed their concerns about their students' emotional states in the face of correction of oral errors. Similar concerns among teachers were also raised in

different studies. For instance, OCF might interrupt students and provoke negative affective responses (Roothooft, 2014), it could be detrimental to learners' feelings especially when it is provided frequently (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Méndez & Cruz, 2012) and therefore "the risk of these face-threatening scenarios could prove more harmful than the benefits gained through error correction" (Lennane, 2007, p. 87). However, as opposed to teachers' tendency to view OCF as a tool with a potential to be harmful, research also shows that students are very positive toward the OCF by the teacher rather than feel negative (e.g., Othman, 2012) and they do not seem to worry about the potential negative effects of constant correction on their self-esteem and willingness to perform in the TL (e.g., Oladejo, 1993; Kavaliauskienė & Anusienė, 2012).

5.6 The Effects of the ONOCEF on the ELT Student Teachers' Competences Regarding OCF

The reflection papers collected from the NPSTs revealed the ONOCEF components in the PSTs' microteachings. The NPSTs' observational evaluations of the PSTs' OCF practices in speaking microteachings (i.e. peer evaluation) showed whether / which OCF strategies the PSTs were able to apply and at which points they showed incompetencies regarding OCF, as well as what they would do if they were in the PSTs' shoes. Findings of the reflection papers pointed to bilateral effects of the ONOCEF on the PSTs' and NPSTs' competences concerning OCF. By means of the ONOCEF, the PSTs were able to correct oral errors effectively and employ different OCF strategies as perceived by the NPSTs. In addition, as can be understood from the reflection papers they delivered, the NPSTs were able to identify the PSTs' non/corrections successfully, label the types of OCF, and reveal the shortcomings that were small in number in the PSTs' OCF practices. When all these are taken into consideration, as an instructional set of videos, the ONOCEF seems to have contributed to the STs' competences regarding OCF. However, in order to claim its effectiveness further, it might be necessary to diagnose its long-term effects by observing the STs' classroom OCF practices as they start teaching profession in a real sense.

Though not provided online as in the present study, Mackey et al. (2004) conducted a teacher education workshop and found that this training raised inexperienced teachers' awareness of focus-on-form techniques. In addition, two recent online-driven studies investigated the effectiveness of online course components in SLTE. Neither of these studies focused on teaching OCF to ELT STs, but rather, they focused on providing online

course contents as well as creating them. One of them evaluated the effectiveness of the web component of a methodology course through the lens of Turkish ELT students. For this purpose, Caner et al. (2013) redesigned f2f methodology course to provide an interactive web-enhanced course alongside f2f instruction. As a result, the STs showed positive attitudes toward the integration of web-enhanced component into the methodology course. Furthermore, they found the web component effective, motivating and useful for their teacher development. In the other study, Masats and Dooly (2011) implemented a four-pronged holistic approach to STs in the TEFL course consisting of *video-viewing*, *video-modelling*, *video-coaching* and *video-making* with a view to guiding STs toward professional development by placing them "in the role of both teacher and student for the co-construction of teaching knowledge and the acquisition of digital competences and media literacy" (p. 1151). Analysis of the student-teachers' reactions to the video activities made clear that they critically became aware of their own teaching strategies, promoted their understanding of the complexity of teaching in different situations, figured how to design and plan project-based learning sequences and felt sure that they would integrate different uses of video into their teaching.

In conclusion, it is recommended that "[STs] be provided with opportunities for acquiring theoretical understanding about [O]CF and translating it into classroom practice" (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015, p. 111). As an instructional tool, video has an important role in bridging the theory-practice gap (Abell & Cennamo, 2004). Therefore, it is essential to equip pre-service teacher education programs with contextualised video proposals integrated into curricula (Masats & Dooly, 2011). At this point, it is argued by the researcher that the ONOCEF offers a contextualised video content by providing (1) the theoretical and hypothetical underpinnings of OCF, (2) suggestions and classroom implications, (3) evidence from the relevant research, and (4) authentic OCF instances, all of which can contribute together to ELT STs' competences regarding OCF on their way to professional development.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.0 Introduction

This chapter will first present a summary (6.1) of the current study. Then, the implications for the practice (6.2) and the suggestions for further research (6.3) will be provided in the light of the major findings of the study.

6.1 Summary of the Study

The first incentive behind this study was to reveal the differences between the NESTs' and NNESTs' classroom OCF practices. More specifically, these differences were investigated in terms of (1) preferred OCF types, (2) tolerance of errors, (3) the amount of OCF based on different types of error, and (4) the use of types of OCF based on different types of error. To this end, upwards of 36 hours of classroom discourse was audio recorded in total. Then, the number and types of errors and OCF moves were tallied by using a coding scheme, which was followed by the statistical procedures to portray the differences.

The findings obtained from the analysis of the classroom observations are as follows:

(1) Recast is evidently the most preferred type of OCF by both the NESTs (89% of all the OCF by the NESTs, *n*=296) and the NNESTs (73% of all the OCF by the NNESTs, *n*=164), which together amount to 82% (*n*=460) of the total OCF moves by the two teacher groups. Prompts were (elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, repetition) their second most used OCF type (9% of all the OCF by the NESTs, *n*=29, and 23% of all the OCF by the NNESTs, *n*= 53). Explicit correction was rarely used by the NESTs and NNESTs (2%, *n*=7; and 4%, *n*=9, respectively). In addition, significant relationships were found between N/NN status and (a) the amount of recast use (x^2=25.56, p<.01), and (b) the amount of prompt use (x^2=23.23, p<.01), separately.

(2) The NESTs provided 332 OCF moves to a total of 602 learner errors, whereas the NNESTs made 226 corrections to a total of 318 errors in their own classes. In other words, the NNESTs provided OCF to their learners' errors at a higher percentage than the NESTs (71.07% correction rate by the NNESTs, and 55.15% correction rate by the NESTs). Moreover, it was found that N/NN status is significantly related to the percentage of errors addressed with OCF ($p < .01$). In the present context, therefore, the NESTs seem to be more tolerant of errors than the NNESTs.

(3) 32% of all the grammatical errors received OCF from the NESTs, while the NNESTs provided OCF to 70% of them. They also differed in terms of correcting lexical errors (67% correction rate by the NESTs, and 96% by the NNESTs). The NESTs provided OCF to almost one half of the multiple errors (49%), and the NNESTs to two thirds of them (67%). Lastly, they gave OCF to phonological errors at a similar rate (75% correction rate by the NESTs, and 67% by the NNESTs).

Furthermore, comparisons within and between the NEST and NNEST categories pointed to some significant and insignificant relationships. There were significant associations between the amount of OCF of the NESTs and (a) phonological-grammatical errors ($x^2 = 86.60$, $p<.01$), and (b) grammatical-lexical errors ($x^2 = 28.63$, $p<.01$) separately, whereas no significant relationship was found between phonological-lexical errors and the amount of OCF of the NESTs ($x^2 = 1.82$, $p>.05$). Significant relationships were also found between the amount of OCF of the NNESTs and (a) phonological-lexical errors ($x^2 = 9.55$, $p<.01$) and (b) grammatical-lexical errors ($x^2 = 8.1$, $p<.01$) separately, while there was not a significant relationship between phonological-grammatical errors and the amount of OCF of the NNEST ($x^2 = 0.42$, $p>.05$). Finally, there were significant relationships between N/NN status and the correction of (a) grammatical ($x^2 = 55.83$, $p<.01$), and (b) lexical errors ($x^2 = 9.21$, $p<.01$) separately, whereas no significant relationship was found between N/NN status and the correction of phonological errors ($x^2 = 2.33$, $p>.05$).

(4) The NESTs and NNESTs provided recast to nearly all the phonological errors (96% by the NESTs, and 93% by the NNESTs). The NESTs gave recast to a great majority of grammatical errors (87%), followed by prompts (13%). The NESTs provided no explicit corrections to grammatical errors. On the other hand, the NNESTs recast 60% of all the grammatical errors, followed by prompts (34%) and explicit correction (6%). In correcting lexical errors, the NESTs and NNESTs mainly used recast (71% and 65% of all the lexical errors, respectively). This was followed by prompts (21% by the NESTs, and 31% by the

NNESTs) and explicit correction (8% by the NESTs, and 4% by the NNESTs). What is more, it was found that there were significant relationships between N/NN status and the provision of (a) recast and (b) prompt for grammatical errors (x^2= 16.60, p<.01; x^2= 9.76, p<.01, respectively). On the other hand, there were not significant relationships between N/NN status and the provision of recast for phonological errors (x^2= 1.03, p>.05), nor between N/NN status and the provision of (a) recast and (b) prompt for lexical errors (x^2= 0.27, p>.05; x^2= 0.42, p>.05, respectively).

Secondly, this study also sought to explore the cross-cultural effects on the NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF preferences, and thus make sense of their dispositions towards error correction and OCF provision in EFL classes. Analysis of the data obtained for this purpose from the follow-up interviews revealed the following highlights:

- Both the NESTs and NNESTs accentuated the importance of teaching experience, thinking that attitudes toward error correction are shaped spontaneously in due course of time as one gains experience. However, concerning the effect of teacher training, both in the NEST and NNEST groups, teachers fell into dispute about its contribution to their practices of error correction.
- There was not a consensus among the NESTs regarding the necessity and effectiveness of error correction. They expressed their concerns about students' feelings and mentioned different reasons and conditions for (non)correction such as individual factors and focus of the lesson, in addition to stating the benefits of correction such as informing learners about their errors, and preventing them from making further errors. The NNESTs, on the other hand, argued that correction is a necessary and effective pedagogical tool. They stated that error correction helps to locate the problems, prevents errors from being fossilized, gives learners an opportunity to learn from errors, enables them to gain self-awareness, and so forth.
- The majority of the NESTs stated that they frequently use recast because it is a nondisturbing and unobtrusive way of correction and does not interrupt the communication. The NNESTs, however, linked their use of different OCF types to a number of factors including the task/activity, the type of error, students or the whole class. They further underlined the role of giving prompts in getting learners to self-correct. The NNESTs voiced more varied types of correction than the NESTs, and their stated OCF preferences included almost all types of error.

- The NESTs and NNESTs seemed to agree that if an error poses a barrier to the intelligibility of a message, it definitely needs to be corrected. The NESTs stated that they give top priority to phonological errors because they are mainly responsible for the unintelligibility of learner utterances. However, the NNESTs did not push forward a specific type of error to receive priority, but rather, they tagged errors in need of special treatment as *critical*, *strategic* or *fundamental*.
- Some of the NESTs mentioned the negative effects of immediate OCF on the sustainability of the communication and learners' oral production, while some others favored immediate OCF as the best time for correction. As for the NNESTs, they attributed their timing of OCF to factors such as the orientation of the course, task type, frequency of errors, affective concerns and probability of retention.
- Both the NESTs and NNESTs gave weight to the OCF by the teacher and self-correction. They favored the OCF by the teacher because it is correct and reliable; and self-correction because (1) it might serve to galvanize learners and (2) constant OCF by the teacher can be discouraging. While the NNESTs considered peer correction important, the NESTs marginalised its role in the English classroom for fear that students may tend to correct their peers for teasing them and that some students may not welcome the idea of being corrected by their classmates.
- In the eyes of the NESTs and NNESTs, Turkish EFL learners would prefer to be corrected mainly by their teachers in a direct and explicit way, given the factors such as their past pedagogical habits, learning experiences and traditional way of teaching they were subject to. While some of the interviewed teachers stated that their learners would welcome OCF, some others believed that students might feel embarrassed or discouraged by OCF.
- The NESTs' stated OCF preferences seem to match to a large extent with their actual practices. However, there were mismatches as well as matches between the NNESTs' stated OCF preferences and actual practices.

Finally, this study investigated whether the proposed ONOCEF exerts any impact on EFL STs' competences regarding OCF. The idea was to see the evidence (OCF practices) in their microteaching performances after having watched the ONOCEF components. To this end, reflection papers were collected from the NPSTs in order to find out their observational evaluations of the PSTs' OCF practices in the microteachings. Findings of

the reflection papers showed positive effects of the ONOCEF on both the PSTs' and NPSTs' competences regarding OCF. The PSTs were successful correcting oral errors effectively and using different OCF strategies as perceived by the NPSTs. Moreover, in consideration of the reflection papers they delivered, the NPSTs were effective at locating the PSTs' non/corrections, labelling the types of OCF, and identifying the shortcomings in the PSTs' OCF practices as well as offering in some cases how they would provide OCF if they were in the PSTs' situation. Consequently, as an online instructional tool, the ONOCEF seems to have helped to develop the EFL STs' competences concerning OCF.

6.2 Implications for Practice

Probably the most prominent implication of this dissertation can be proposed as the resulting ONOCEF. Emerging from the EFL STs' stated needs, the implementation of the ONOCEF in the present study included flipped learning. Its use in the present research context has proven its applicability as an online instructional tool in SLTE. The researcher suggests that pre-service ELT teacher education should be reinforced with the theoretical knowledge of OCF and the practical provision of it in classroom microteachings and teaching practices. What is more, short-term seminars and trainings (online or f2f) may help to acquaint in-service teachers with recent theories and advances in language teaching so that they can implement more informed OCF practices. Therefore, both in pre- and in-service ELT teacher training, teacher trainers can make use of the ONOCEF as a viable teaching tool. From this point forth, it may also be suggested that the effectiveness of f2f teaching can be enhanced by the integration of online courses into the SLTE program in the form of flipped or blended learning.

Further suggestions for practice can also be made to in-service teachers on the basis of the researcher's observations of teachers for the present study. Firstly, teachers should avoid hiding the corrective force of their OCF moves because OCF becomes more effective when it is explicit and noticeable as substantiated by several studies (Ellis et al., 2006; Y. Sheen, 2007a). Learners need to know they are being corrected at that moment so that they can learn more from the OCF directed. In addition, although the OCF by the teacher is widely considered helpful to L2 learners, it may not necessarily be an effective pedagogical intervention for every learner. There may be cases when OCF must be fine-tuned to the individual learner and thus may be more effective. Moreover, teachers should present opportunities for self-correction and create space following the corrective moves in

order that learners uptake the correction. What is more, with the expert guidance of teacher, self- and peer correction can be of service not only to self-confident but also to self-conscious students. Finally, the effectiveness of self- and peer correction can be increased through strategy training. This sort of training may include the ways of noticing their own, their teachers' and peers' utterances with errors and OCF moves.

It is also apt here to offer an implication to the researchers in the field based on the findings of this study: more research should be conducted specifically on the cross-cultural effects on and differences between the NESTs and NNESTs in terms of OCF provision in different contexts because the findings of this study only represent the present research context, precluding universal generalizations. A more global insight to be acquired from those prospective studies into the link between OCF and N/NN teacher identity might help to enrich OCF-specific trainings and seminars by combining the pedagogically useful OCF practices of teachers from different teaching cultures.

6.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The findings of the present study, coupled with the insights gained from the preparatory process, have generated a handful of important possibilities for further research. First, the resulting online product of this study, i.e. 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. 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, what would be the results like if the ONOCEF content was offered f2f is a conundrum in the mind of the researcher.

This study is one of the few number of studies that investigated the differences between the NESTs' and NNESTs' OCF practices. These cross-cultural differences can also be examined in different contexts, with learners of different proficieny levels, and with a greater number of observed teachers to help make more well-grounded interpretations and generalizations. What is more, there is a point that seems to remain uncharted in research on OCF. It would be a promising point of inquiry to investigate whose OCF moves (NESTs' or NNESTs') result in more student uptake and gains in terms of different linguistic targets.

A by-product finding of the present study is that non-native teachers can also give OCF in their learners' L1. OCF directed in L1 can be compared with the OCF in the TL in terms of learner/teacher preferences, pedagogical standpoints, the amount of student uptake they lead to, and their potential to result in the acquisition of specific linguistic targets. Lastly, potential merits of strategy training for enhancing the use and effectiveness of self- and peer correction among L2 learners might also be a worthwhile research investment.

REFERENCES

Abell, S. K., & Cennamo, K. S. (2004). Videocases in elementary science teacher preparation. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Using video in teacher education* (pp. 103-130). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Adams, R. (2007). Do second language learners benefit from interacting with each other? In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 29-51). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Adugo, J. D. D. M. (2014). Beliefs in learning to teach: EFL student teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication, 27*, 209.

Ahangari, S., & Amirzadeh, S. (2011). Exploring the teachers' use of spoken corrective feedback in teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels of proficiency. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29*, 1859-1868.

Ajideh, P., & Aghdam, E. F. (2012). English language teachers' corrective feedback types in relation to the learners' proficiency levels and their error types. *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies, 2*(8-9), 37-51.

Akbari, R. (2007). Reflections on reflection: A critical appraisal of reflective practices in L2 teacher education. *System, 35*, 192-207.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 465-483.

Allwright, R. L., & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(4), 543-574.

Arıkan, A. (2006). Postmethod condition and its implications for English language teacher education. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 2*, 1-11.

Arnold, J. (2011). Attention to affect in language learning. *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies, 22*(1), 11-22.

Arva, V., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Native and non-native teachers in the classroom. *System, 28*, 355-372.

Bagarić, V., & Djigunović, J. M. (2007). Defining communicative competence. *Metodika: Journal of Theory and Application of Teaching methodologies in Preschool, Primary, Secondary and Higher Education, 8*(14), 94-103.

Bahar, H. H., Yener, Ö., & Gülaçtı, F. (2009). An investigation on academic achievement and learning styles as to branches and gender from faculty of education students. *Ankara University, Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences, 42*(1), 69-86.

Banegas, D. L., & Busleimán, G. I. M. (2014). Motivating factors in online language teacher education in southern Argentina. *Computers & Education, 76*, 131-142.

Barratt, L., & Kontra, E. H. (2000). Native-English-speaking teachers in cultures other than their own. *TESOL Journal, 9*, 19-23.

Bartolome, L. I. (1994). Beyond the methods fetish: toward a humanizing pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review, 64*(2), 173-194.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated belief about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*, 243-272.

Başal, A. (2012). The use of flipped classroom in foreign language teaching. *Proceedings of the 3rd Black Sea ELT Conference*, 8-12.

Bayram, L. (2012). Use of online video cases in teacher training. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 47*, 1007-1011.

Beck, M., Schwartz, B. D., & Eubank, L. (1995). Data, evidence and rules. In L. Eubank, L. Selinker & M. S. Smith (Eds.), *The current state of interlanguage: Studies in honor of William E. Rutherford* (pp. 177-195). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Benke, E., & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behavior between native and nonnative speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Nonnative*

language teachers: Perceptions, challenges, and contributions to the profession (pp. 195-216). New York, NY: Springer.

Blake, R. J. (2011). Current trends in online language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31,* 19-35.

Bley-Vroman, R. (1986). Hypothesis testing in second-language acquisition theory. *Language Learning, 36,* 353-376.

Borg, S. (2010). Contemporary themes in language teacher education. *Foreign Languages in China, 7*(4), 84-89.

Boyno, M., Akıl, E., & Dolaş, F. (2013). Oral error treatment in EFL classes with native-like interactions. *Dicle Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 5*(9), 61-83.

Braine, G. (2004). The nonnative English speaking professionals' movement and its research foundation. In L. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and teaching from experience: Perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals* (pp. 9-25). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and language learning. Theory and Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Brown, D. (2014). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-23. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168814563200

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy.* New York: Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Bullock, K., & Muschamp, Y. (2004). Reflecting on pedagogy: Outcomes from a Beacon school network. *Teacher Development, 8,* 29-44.

Burt, M., & Kiparsky, C. (1972). *The gooficon: A repair manual for English.* Massachusetts: Newbury House, Rowley.

Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2012). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı.* Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayınları.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Interrogating the "native speaker fallacy": Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Nonnative educators in English language teaching* (pp. 77-92). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*, 1-47.

Caner, M., Yüksel, İ., & Keçik, İ. (2013). A new trend in teacher education: A web-enhanced methodology course. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70*, 1831 - 1838.

Carpenter, H., Jeon, S., MacGregor, D., & Mackey, A. (2006). Recasts as repetitions: Learners' interpretations of native speaker responses. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(2), 209-236.

Carroll, S., & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*, 357-386.

Caywood, K., & Duckett, J. (2003). Online vs. on-campus learning in teacher education. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 26*, 98-105.

Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. *Language Learning, 27*, 29-46.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Chomsky, N. (1975). *Reflections on language.* New York: Pantheon.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Barriers.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin and use.* New York: Praeger.

Clark, C. M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher preparation: Contributions of research on teacher thinking. *Educational Researcher, 17*(2), 5-12.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 5*, 161-169.

Corder, S. P. (1973). *Introducing Applied Linguistics.* New York: Penguin.

Corder, S. P. (1974). Error analysis. In J. Allen & S. P. Corder (Eds.), *The Edinburgh course in applied linguistics* (vol.3, pp. 122-154). London: Oxford University Press.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error analysis and interlanguage.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Coşkun, A. (2010). A classroom research study on oral error correction. *Humanizing Language Teaching Magazine, 12*(3), 1-12.

Crandall, J-A. (2000). Language teacher education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 20*, 34-55.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd Ed.). California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Croker, R. A. (2009). An introduction to qualitative research. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics* (pp. 3-24). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cruickshank, D., & Applegate, J. (1981). Reflective teaching as a strategy for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership, 38*(7), 553-554.

Crystal, D. (2003a). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (2nd ed). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2003b). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (2012). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Canto Classics.

Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimal age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism, 19*, 197-205.

Çakır, H. (2013). Use of blogs in pre-service teacher education to improve student engagement. *Computers and Education, 68,* 244-258.

Danks, S. (2011). The ADDIE Model: Designing, evaluating instructional coach effectiveness. *ASQ Primary and Secondary Education Brief, 4*(5).

Day, R. (1993). Models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education. *University of Hawaii Working Papers in ESL, 11*(2), 1-13.

DeKeyser, R. (1994). How implicit can adult second language learning be? *AILA Review, 11*, 83-96.

DeKeyser, R. M. (Ed.). (2007). *Practice in second language learning: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Diaz, N. R. (2009). A comparative study of native and non-native teachers' scaffolding techniques in SLA at an early age. *Estudios Ingleses de la Universidad Complutense, 17,* 57-73.

Dilans, G. (2010). Corrective feedback and L2 vocabulary development: Prompts and recasts in the adult ESL classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 66,* 787-815.

Dilans, G. (2015). Corrective feedback in L2 Latvian classrooms: Teacher perceptions versus the observed actualities of practice. *Language Teaching Research,* 1-19. http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1177/1362168815584454

Dilmaghani, A. (2014). *A comparative study of native speaker and non-native speaker teachers concerning their feedback giving patterns.* Master's Thesis, Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.

Ding, T. (2009). The comparative effectiveness of recasts and prompts in second language Classrooms. *Journal of Cambridge Studies, 7*(2), 83-97.

Dlangamandla, F. N. N. (1996). *A case study of a teacher's oral error treatment strategies in an English language classroom.* Master's Thesis, Rhodes University.

Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In P. Robinson (ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 206-257). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duskova, L. (1969). On sources of errors in foreign language. *IRAL*, *7*(1), 11-36.

Edge, J. (1989). *Mistakes and correction.* Harlow: Longman.

Egi, T. (2007). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The role of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 29*, 511-537.

Elliott, J. (1979). How do teachers learn? In D. Hopkins (Ed.). *In-service training and educational developments: an international survey* (pp. 138-145). Beckenham, Kent: Croom Helm.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instrucion. *Language Learning, 51*, (Suppl. 1), 1-46.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning, 51*, 281-318.

Ellis, R. (2006). Researching the effects of form-focussed instruction on L2 acquisition. *AILA Review, 19*, 18-41.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 339-368.

Ellis, R., & Sheen, Y. (2006). Re-examining the role of recasts in L2 acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 575-600.

Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language*

acquisition: A series of empirical studies (pp. 339-360). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal, 1*(1), 3-18.

Ellis, R. (2010a). A framework for investigating oral and written corrective feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*, 335-349. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990544

Ellis, R. (2010b). A principled approach to incorporating second language acquisition research into a teacher education programme. *Reflections on English Language Teaching, 9*(1), 1-17.

Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research and language pedagogy.* Oxford: Wiley Blackwell.

Enginarlar, H. (1996). Practicum in ELT: Problems and prospects. *Dil Dergisi, 43*, 92-99.

Falloon, G. (2011). Making the connection: Moore's theory of transactional distance and its relevance to the use of a virtual classroom in postgraduate online teacher education. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education, 43*(3), 187-209.

Fanselow, J. F. (1977). The treatment of errors in oral work. *Foreign Language Annals, 10*, 583-593.

Farrokhi, F. (2007). Teacher's stated beliefs about corrective feedback in relation to their practices in EFL classes. *Research on Foreign Languages journal of Faculty of Letters and Humanities, 49*, 91-131.

Fidan, D. (2015). Learners' preferences of oral corrective feedback: An example of Turkish as a foreign language learners. *Educational Research and Reviews, 10*(9), 1311-1317. http://dx.doi.org/10.5897/ERR2015.2162

Food and Agricultural Organization (2011). *E-learning methodologies: A guide for designing and developing e-learning courses.* Retrieved from http://www.fao.org/docrep/015/i2516e/i2516e.pdf

Freeman, D., & Johnson, D. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 397-418.

Friedman, D. A. (2012). How to collect and analyze qualitative data. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 180-200). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Fries, C. C. (1945). *Teaching and learning English as a second language.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Fujii, A., Mackey, A., & Ziegler, N. (2011). *Metacognitive instruction and learning through task-based interaction.* Paper presented at the 4th Biennial International Conference on Task-Based Language Teaching, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

Gakonga, J. (2012). *Collaboration or bust? An inquiry into the use of differing on-line models of delivery for a pre-service grammar course for English teachers*. Master's Thesis, University of Warwick.

Galton, M. (1988). Structured observation techniques. In J. P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement an international handbook* (pp. 474-478). Oxford: Pergamon.

Gass, S. M., Mackey, A., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2005). Task-based interactions in classrooms and laboratory settings. *Language Learning, 55*, 575-611.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (3rd Ed.). New York: Routledge/Taylor Francis.

Gaudin, C., & Chalies, S. (2015). Video viewing in teacher education and professional development: a literature review, *Educational Research Review, 16*, 41-67. http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.edurev.2015.06.001

Gholami, J., & Mousavi, K. (2014). Corrective feedback and the story of EFL teacher's experience, *Elt Voices – India, 4*(2), 183-199.

Giauque, G. (1984). *Purism versus pragmatism in foreign language teaching and acquisition.* ERIC Document Reproduction (Service No. 247 747). University of Northern Arizona.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Hawthorne, NY: Aldine.

Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 35*(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000708

Gregg, K. R. (1996). The logical and developmental problems of second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 49-81). San Diego: Academic Press.

Griffiths, V. (2000). The reflective dimension in teacher education. *International Journal of Educational Research, 33*, 539-555.

Grimshaw, J., & Pinker, S. (1989). Positive and negative evidence in language acquisition. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 12*, 341-342.

Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2010). *Factors influencing oral corrective feedback provision in the Spanish foreign language classroom: Investigating instructor native/nonnative speaker status, SLA education and teaching experience.* Doctoral Dissertation, Graduate School of Arts and Sciences of Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

Hamouda, A. (2011). A Study of students and teachers' preferences and attitudes towards correction of classroom written errors in Saudi EFL context. *English Language Teaching, 4*(3), 128-141.

Han, Z. (2002a). Rethinking the role of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *RELC Journal, 33*(1), 1-34.

Han, Z. (2002b). A study of the impact of recasts on tense consistency in L2 output. *TESOL Quarterly*, *36*, 543-572.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching.* London: Longman.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research 77*(1), 81-112.

Havranek, G. (2002). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3-4), 255-270.

Hendrickson, J. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research and practice. *Modern Language Journal, 62*, 387-398.

Henriksen, B. (1999). Three dimensions of vocabulary development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*, 303-317.

Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Huddleston, R. (1984). *Introduction to the grammar of English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hughes, A., & Lascaratou, C. (1982). Competing criteria for error gravity. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *36*(3), 175-182.

Hung, S. T. A. (2012). A washback study on e-portfolio assessment in an English as a foreign language teacher preparation program. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 25*(1), 21-36.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Baltimore, USA: Penguin Education, Penguin Books Ltd.

Isaacs, T., & Trofimovich, P. (2012). Deconstructing comprehensibility: Identifying the linguistic influences on listeners' L2 comprehensibility ratings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 34*(3), 475-505. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000150

İnan, B. (2012). A comparison of classroom interaction patterns of native and nonnative EFL teachers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 46*, 2419-2423.

James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: exploring error analysis.* London: Longman.

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*, 157-181.

Kamiya, N. (2014). The relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices of oral corrective feedback, *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1080/17501229.2014.939656

Kartchava, E. (2006). *Corrective feedback: Novice ESL teachers' beliefs and practices.* Master's Thesis, Concordia University, Montreal.

Kassa, A. A. (2011). *Oral corrective feedback: an exploratory case study of the interplay between teachers' beliefs, classroom practices, and rationales.* Doctoral Dissertation, Addis Ababa University School of Graduate Studies, Addis Ababa.

Katayama, A. (2007). Learners' perceptions toward oral error correction. *JALT 2006 Conference Proceedings*, 284-299.

Kavaliauskienė, G., & Anusienė, L. (2012). Case study: Learner attitudes towards the correction of mistakes. *Social Technologies, 2*(1), 88-101. Retrieved from http://www.mruni.eu/en/mokslo_darbai/st/apie_leidini/index.php

Khiat, H. (2010). A grounded theory approach: Conceptions of understanding in engineering mathematics learning. *The Qualitative Report, 15*(6), 1459 - 1488. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR15-6/khiat.pdf

Kılınç, E. (2007). *Use of corrective feedback in EFL classes.* Master's Thesis, Anadolu University Institute of Educational Sciences, Eskişehir.

Kırkgöz, Y., & Ağçam, R. (2015). Teachers' perceptions on corrective feedback in Turkish primary schools. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 192*, 574-581.

Kırkgöz, Y., Babanoğlu, M. P., & Ağçam, R. (2015). Corrective feedback in primary EFL classrooms in Turkey. *American International Journal of Social Science, 4*(3), 90-101.

Kim, J. H., & Han, Z-H. (2007). Recasts in communicative EFL classes: Do teacher intent and learner interpretation overlap? In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A series of empirical studies* (pp. 269-297). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

King, K. (2002). Identifying success in online teacher education and professional development. *Internet and Higher Education, 5*, 231-246.

Ko, S., & Rossen, S. (2001). *Teaching online: A practical guide.* Boston, MS: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Kolb, S. M. (2012). Grounded theory and the constant comparative method: Valid research strategies for educators. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies, 3*(1), 83-86.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New York: Pergamon Institute of English.

Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* London: Longman.

Krashen, S. (1994). The input hypothesis and its rivals. In N. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 45-77). London: Academic Press.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Lane-Kelso, M. (2015). The pedagogy of flipping in Oman. *Turkish Online Journal for Educational Technology, 14*(1), 143-150.

Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 418-420.

Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, J., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 201-224). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

LaRossa, R. (2005). Grounded theory methods and qualitative family research. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*, 837-857.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques & principles in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lasagabaster, D., & Manuel Sierra, J. (2005). What do students think about the pros and cons of having a native speaker teacher? In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Nonnative language*

teachers: Perceptions, challenges, and contributions to the profession (pp. 217-242). New York, NY: Springer.

Lee, J. (2007). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in English immersion classrooms at the primary level in Korea. *English Teaching, 62*(4), 311-334.

Lee, N. (1990). Notions of error and appropriate corrective treatment. *Hong Kong Papers in Linguistics and Language Teaching, 13*, 55-69.

Leeman, J. (2003). Recasts and L2 development: Beyond negative evidence. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*(1), 37-63.

Leeman, J. (2007). Feedback in L2 learning: responding to errors during practice. In R. DeKeyser (ed.), *Practice in a second language* (pp. 111-137). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lennane, B. M. (2007). *Cross-cultural influences on corrective feedback preferences in English language instruction.* Master's Thesis, McGill University, Montreal.

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 60*(2), 309-365. http://dx.doi.org/DOI:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*, 429-448.

Lightbown, P. M. (1991). What have we here? Some observations on the role of instruction in second language acquisition. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith & M. Swain (eds.), *Foreign/second language pedagogy research: A commemorative volume for Claus Færch* (pp. 197-212). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Liu, D. (1999). Training nonnative TESOL students: Challenges for TESOL teacher education in the West. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Nonnative educators in English language teaching* (pp. 197-210). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Llach, M. P. A. (2005). A critical review of the terminology and taxonomies used in the literature on lexical errors. *Miscelanea: A Journal of English and American Studies, 31,* 11-24.

Llurda, E., & Huguet, A. (2003). Self-awareness in NNS EFL primary and secondary school teachers. *Language Awareness, 13,* 220-235.

Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: how it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Educational research, 37*(3), 271-283.

Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *Modern Language Journal, 90,* 536-556.

Loewen, S. (2011). Focus on form. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol.2, pp. 576-592). London: Routledge.

Loewen, S. (2013). The role of feedback. In S. M. Gass, & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 24-40). New York: Routledge.

Lohr, L. (1998). *Using ADDIE to design a web-based training interface.* Paper presented at the SITE 98: Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference, Washington, DC.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition.* San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M. (2007). *Problems in SLA.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lyddon, P. A. (2007). *The efficacy of corrective feedback and target form enhancement in promoting acquisition of the À/AU/EN/AUX distinction in L2 French.* Doctoral Dissertation, The University Of Arizona Graduate College.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 37-66.

Lyster, R. (1998a). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning, 48*, 183-218.

Lyster, R. (1998b). Form in immersion classroom discourse: In or out of focus? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics/Revue Canadienne De Linguistique Appliquee, 1*(1-2), 53-82.

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 26*(3), 399-432.

Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(2), 269-300.

Lyster, R., & Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 59*(2), 453-498.

Lyster, R. & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2), 265-302. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990520

Lyster, R. (2011). Content-based second language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 611-630). New York: Routledge.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (2013). Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 167-184. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S027226311200071X

Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 1-40. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000365

Lytle, S. L., & Cochran-Smith, M. (1990). Learning from teacher research: A working typology. *Teachers College Record, 92*(1), 83-103.

Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 338-356.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development: An empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*(4), 557-587.

Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(4), 471-497.

Mackey, A., Oliver, R., & Leeman, J. (2003). Interactional input and the incorporation of feedback: An exploration of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS adults and child dyads. *Language Learning, 53*, 35-66.

Mackey, A., Polio, C., & McDonough, K. (2004). The relationship between experience, education, and teachers' use of incidental focus-on-form techniques. *Language Teaching Research, 8*, 301-327.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M . (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mahboob, A. (2004). Native or nonnative: What do the students think? In L. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and teaching from experience: Perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals* (pp. 121-147). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Mahboob, A., Uhrig, K., Newman, K. L., & Hartford, B. S. (2004). Children of a lesser English: Status of nonnative English speakers as college-level English as a second language teachers in the United States. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and teaching from experience: Perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals* (pp. 100-120). Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Mahboob, A. (2005). Beyond the native speaker in TESOL. In S. Zafar (Ed.), *Culture, context, and communication* (pp. 60-93). Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates: Center of Excellence for Applied Research and Training and the Military Language Institute.

Mahboob, A. (Ed.). (2010). *The NNEST lens: Nonnative English speakers in TESOL*. Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Masats, D., & Dooly, M. (2011). Rethinking the use of video in teacher education: a holistic approach. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(7), 1151-1162.

Matsuda, P. K. (1997). You can have your cake and eat it, too: A model of NS/NNS Teacher Collaboration. *TESOLIN, 16*(1), 12-13.

McDonough, K. (2007). Interactional feedback and the emergence of simple past activity verbs in L2 English. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 323-338). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching second language classrooms.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

McNamara, C. (1999). *General guidelines for conducting interviews*. Retrieved from http://208.42.83.77/evaluatn/intrview.htm.

McNulty, A. S. (2007). *A study of corrective feedback and uptake patterns as observed in four foreign language classrooms at selected mid-western public schools.* Doctoral Dissertation, University of Nebraska Graduate College, Nebraska.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46*, 340-349.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The nonnative teacher.* London: Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a nonnative speaker. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 429-442). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Méndez, E. H., Arguelles, L. G., & Castro, A. B. (2010). Oral corrective feedback: Some ways to go about it. *EFL Internacional, 33*(1), 254-270.

Méndez, E. H., & Cruz, R. M. (2012). Teachers' perceptions about oral corrective feedback and their practice in EFL classroom. *Profile, 14*(2), 63-75.

Moore, M. G., & Thompson, M. M. (1997). *The effects of distance learning* (Rev. ed.) (ACSDE Research Monograph No. 15). University Park: The Pennsylvania State University, American Center for the Study of Distance Education.

Mori, H. (2002). *Error treatment sequences in Japanese immersion classroom interactions at different grade levels.* Doctoral Dissertation, University of California.

Mori, R. (2011). Teacher cognition in corrective feedback in Japan. *System, 39*, 451-467.

Moussu, L. (2006). *Native and nonnative English-speaking English as a second language teachers: Student attitudes, teacher self-perceptions, and intensive English administrator beliefs and practices.* Doctoral Dissertation. Purdue University.

Nemser, W. (1971). Approximative systems of foreign language learners. *IRAL, 9*, 115-123.

Ngoc, L. V. C. (2009). *Teaching efficacy of native and non-native teachers of English in Vietnam: A triangulation of student and teacher perceptions.* Master's Thesis, Southern Illinois University Carbondale Graduate School.

Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning, 51*(4), 719-758.

Nickel, G. (1971). Problems of learners' difficulties in foreign language acquisition. *IRAL, 9*, 219-227.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50*, 417-528.

Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(3), 409-429.

Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology.* Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Oladejo, J. (1993). Error correction in ESL: Learners' preferences. *TESL Canada Journal, 10*, 71-89.

Olesova, L. (2013). *Feedback in online course for non-native English-speaking students.* Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Omaggio-Hadley, A. (2001). *Teaching Language in Context* (3rd ed.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Othman, W. M. (2012). *The Role of feedback in Malaysian ESL secondary school classrooms*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Tasmania.

Özmen, K. S. (2010). *Teaching as a performing art: Promoting nonverbal immediacy of English teacher trainees.* Doctoral Dissertation, Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.

Özmen, K. S., & Aydın, H. Ü. (2015). Examining student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback: Insights from a teacher education program in Turkey. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(12), 140-164. http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2015v40n12.10

Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*, 573-595.

Park, H. (2010). *Teachers' and learners' preferences for error correction.* Master's Thesis, California State University, Sacramento.

Pawlak, M. (2014). *Error Correction in the foreign language classroom: Reconsidering the issues*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

Peacock, M. (1998). Exploring the gap between teachers' and learners' beliefs about 'useful' activities for EFL. *International Journal Of Applied Linguistics, 8*(2), 233-250.

Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on "noticing the gap": Nonnative speakers' noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*(1), 99-126.

Philp, J., & Tognini, R. (2009). Language acquisition in foreign language contexts and the differential benefits of interaction. *IRAL, 47*, 245-266.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N., & Morgenthaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11*, 63-90.

Pinker, S. (1991). *Learnability and cognition: The acquisition of argument structure.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Porte, E. N. (1999). Where to draw the red line: Error toleration of native and non-native EFL faculty. *Foreign Language Annals, 32*(4), 426-434.

Posner, G. J. (1989). *Field experience: Methods of reflective teaching* (2nd Ed.). New York: Longman.

Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylänne, S., & Nevgi, A. (2007). The effect of pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(5), 557-571.

Rahimi, M., & Zhang, L. J. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication, *System, 55*, 111-122. http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.system.2015.09.006

Rajagopalan, K. (2004). The concept of 'World English' and its implication for ELT. *ELT Journal, 58*(2), 111-117.

Ranta, L., & Lyster, R. (2007). A cognitive approach to improving immersion students' oral language abilities: The Awareness-Practice-Feedback sequence. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 141-160). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rassaei, E., & Moinzadeh, A. (2011). Investigating the effects of three types of corrective feedback on the acquisition of English Wh-question forms by Iranian EFL learners. *English Language Teaching, 4*(2), 97-106.

Renko, K. (2012). *Finnish EFL learners' perceptions on errors, corrective feedback and foreign language anxiety*. Master's Thesis, University of Jyväskylä.

Rensburg, R. C. (1983). Contrastive analysis and its relevance to language teaching. *Literator 4*(2), 63-69.

Reves, T., & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An International Survey. *System, 22*(3), 353-367.

Richards, J. C., & Nunan, D. (Eds). (1990). *Second language teacher education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics and language teaching* (3rd ed.). Harlow, UK: Longman.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (2007). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, K. (2009). Interviews. In J. Heigham & R. A. Croker (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics* (pp. 182-199). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rienties, B., Brouwer, N., & Lygo-Baker, S. (2013). The effects of online professional development on higher education teachers' beliefs and intentions towards learning facilitation and technology. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 29,* 122-131. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.09.002

Robinson, P. (1995). Attention, memory, and the 'noticing' hypothesis. *Language Learning, 45,* 283-331.

Roothooft, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System, 46,* 65-79. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.07.012

Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. Norris & L. Ortega (eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133-162). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Russell, V. (2009). Corrective feedback, over a decade of research since Lyster and Ranta (1997): Where do we stand today? *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 6*(1), 21-31.

Safari, P. (2013). A descriptive study on corrective feedback and learners' uptake during interactions in a communicative EFL class. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3*(7), 1165-1175.

Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012a). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /ɹ/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning 62*(2), 595-633. http://dx.doi.org/DOI:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x

Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012b). Investigating the pedagogical potential of recasts for L2 vowel acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(2), 385-396.

Sakurai, S. (2014). Corrective feedback and student uptakes in English immersion classrooms in Japan: Is the Counter-balance hypothesis valid? *TESL-EJ , 18*(1), 1-27.

Samimy, K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). To be a native or nonnative speaker: Perceptions of "nonnative" students in a graduates TESOL program. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Nonnative educators in English language teaching* (pp. 127-144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Sato, M. (2011). Constitution of form-orientation: Contributions of context and explicit knowledge to learning from recasts. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 14*(1), 1-28.

Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2012). Raising language awareness in peer interaction: A cross-context, cross-method examination. *Language Awareness, 21*, 1-2, 157-179.

Sato, M., & Lyster, R. (2012). Peer interaction and corrective feedback for accuracy and fluency development: Monitoring, practice, and proceduralization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 34*(4), 591-626. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000356

Sauro, S. (2009). Computer-mediated corrective feedback and the development of L2 grammar. *Language Learning and Technology, 13*(1), 96-120.

Savignon, S. J. (Ed.). (2002). *Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Schachter, J. (1991). Corrective feedback in historical perspective. *Second Language Research, 7*(2), 89-102.

Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *AILA Review, 11*, 11-26.

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action.* New York: Basic Books Inc.

Schulz, R. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*, 244-258.

Schwartz, B. (1993). On explicit and negative data effecting and affecting competence and linguistic behavior. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*, 147-163.

Seferoğlu, G. (2006). Teacher candidates' reflections on some components of a pre-service English teacher education programme in Turkey. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 32*, 369- 378.

Seferoğlu, G. (2008). Insights from Turkish learners of English on the nature of corrective feedback in classroom interaction, *The New Educational Review, 16*(3-4),101-111.

Seidel, T., Blomberg, G., & Renkl, A. (2013). Instructional strategies for using video in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 34*, 56-65.

Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research* (3rd Ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10*, 209-231.

Selvi, A. F. (2011). The nonnative speaker teacher. *ELT Journal, 65*, 187-189. http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1093/elt/ccq092

Selvi, A. F. (2014). Myths and misconceptions about the non-native English speakers in TESOL (NNEST) movement. *TESOL Journal, 5*(3), 573-611.

Shanshan, X. (2012). An investigation into teachers' corrective feedback in Chinese EFL Classrooms. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics, 35*, 480-555.

Sheen, R. (2003). Focus-on-form-a myth in the making. *ELT Journal, 57,* 225-233.

Sheen, R. (2005). Focus on formS as a means of improving accurate oral production. In A. Housen & M. Pierrard (Eds.), *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 271-310). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research, 8,* 263-300.

Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research, 10,* 361-392.

Sheen, Y. (2007a). The effect of corrective feedback, language aptitude and learner attitudes on the acquisition of English articles. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 301-322). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sheen, Y. (2007b). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly, 41,* 255-283.

Sheen, Y. (2008). Recasts, language anxiety, modified output, and L2 learning. *Language Learning, 58*(4), 835-874.

Sheen, Y., & Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 593-610). London: Routledge.

Sheorey, R. (1986). Error perceptions of native-speaking and non-native speaking teachers of ESL. *ELT Journal, 40*(4), 306-312.

Shulman, J. H. (1991). Revealing the mysteries of teacher-written cases: Opening the black box. *Journal of Teacher Education, 42*(4), 250-262.

Slimani, A. (1992). Evaluation of classroom interaction. In C. Anderson & A. Beretta (Eds.), *Evaluating Second Language Education* (pp. 197-221). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Spada, N., & Frohlich, M. (1995). *The Communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme (COLT).* Sydney: The National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.

Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2009). Interaction in second/foreign language classrooms. In A. Mackey & C. Polio (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on interaction: Second language research in honor of Susan M. Gass* (pp. 157-174). London: Routledge.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Suddaby, R. (2006). What grounded theory is not. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*, 633- 642.

Suzuki, M. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 4*(2), 1-21.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Sze, P. (1999). Reflective teaching in second language teacher education: An overview. *Educational Research Journal, 14*(1), 131-155.

Tarone, E., & Allwright, R. (2005). Second language teacher learning and student second language learning: Shaping the knowledge base. In D. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education. International perspectives* (pp. 5-24). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Tatar, S., & Yıldız, S. (2010). Empowering nonnative-English speaking teachers in the classroom. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST lens: Nonnative English speakers in TESOL* (pp. 114-128). Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Tedick, D. (Ed.). (2005). *Second language teacher education: International perspectives.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Terrell, T. (1977). A natural approach to second language acquisition and learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 61*, 325-337.

Tomczyk, E. (2013). Perceptions of oral errors and their corrective feedback: Teachers vs. students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 4*, 924-931.

Traxler, M. (2012). *Introduction to Psycholinguistics: Understanding Language Science.* Chicester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 55*, 437-456.

Tsang, W. K. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: an analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *RELC Journal, 35,* 187-209.

Ulate, N. V. (2011). Insight towards native and non-native ELT educators. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & literature, 4*(1), 56-79.

Ur, P. (1992). Teacher learning. *ELT Journal, 46*, 56-61.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ülgü, S., Sarı, İ., & Griffiths, C. (2013). Error correction in language teaching: the teachers' perspective. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences, 6*(3), 229-241.

Ülkersoy, N. (2007). *Markedness differential hypothesis and the phonological errors of Turkish EFL learners.* Doctoral Dissertation. Çukurova University Institute of Social Sciences, Adana.

Ünver, G., Bümen, N. T., & Başbay, M. (2010). Yönetici, öğretim elemanı ve öğrencilere göre ortaöğretim alan öğretmenliği tezsiz yüksek lisans programının etkililiği. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 10*(3), 1757-1824.

Üstünlüoğlu, E. (2007). University students' perceptions of native and non-native teachers. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice, 13*(1), 63-79.

Valenzuela, D., & Shrivastava, P. (2005). *Interview as a method for qualitative research.* Retrieved from http://www.public.asu.edu/~kroel/www500/Interview%20Fri.pdf

Varnosfadrani, A. D. (2006). *A comparison of the effects of implicit/explicit and immediate/delayed corrective feedback on learners' performance in tailor-made tests.* Doctoral Dissertation, University of Auckland.

Vicente-Rasoamalala, L. (2009). *Teachers' reactions to foreign language learner output.* Doctoral Dissertation, Universitat de Barcelona.

Vigil, N. A., & Oller, J. W. (1976). Rule fossilization: A tentative model. *Language Learning, 26,* 281-295.

Vučo, J. J. (2012). *Current issues of foreign language teacher education – from theory to reality.* Retrieved from http://www.ffuis.edu.ba/media/publikacije/radovi/2012/03/19/07_Julijana_Vuco.pdf

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Waxman, H. C., Tharp, R. G., & Hilberg, R. S. (Eds.). (2004). *Observational research in U.S. classrooms: New approaches for understanding cultural and linguistic diversity.* Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

White, L. (1991). Adverb placement in second language acquisition: Some effects of positive and negative evidence in the classroom. *Second Language Research, 7,* 133-161.

Wideen, M., Mayer-Smith, J., & Moon, B. (1998). A critical analysis of the research on learning to teach: Making the case for an ecological perspective on inquiry. *Review of Educational Research, 68,* 130-178.

Wragg, E. C. (1999). *An introduction to classroom observation* (2nd Ed.). London and New York: Routledge.

Wright, T. (2010). Second language teacher education: Review of recent research on practice. *Language Teaching, 43,* 259-296.

Wu, X. (1996). Train ourselves first? *The Teacher Trainer, 10*(3), 20-22.

Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in*

Second Language Acquisition, 32(2), 235- 263. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990519

Yang, Y. C. (2010). *Recasts in the EFL classroom: A comparison of native and nonnative teachers.* Doctoral Dissertation, Graduate School of The University of Texas, Austin.

Yates, R., & Muchisky, D. (2003). On reconceptualizing teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*, 135-147.

Yeşilbursa, A. A. (2011). Reflection at the interface of theory and practice: An analysis of pre-service English language teachers' written reflections. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(3), 104-116.

Yi, Z., & Jian, W. (2009). A comparative study of Nest and Nnest classroom interaction in Chinese context. *CELEA Journal, 32*(2).

Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness, 17*(1), 78-93.

Zeichner, K., & Tabachnik, B. R. (1981). Are the effects of university teacher education washed out by school experience? *Journal of Teacher Education, 32*(3), 7-11.

Zhang, S., & Chatupote, M. (2014a). Feedback used in classrooms with native English and non-native English teachers. *International Journal of English Language Education, 2*(1), 241-258.

Zhang, S., & Chatupote, M. (2014b). Error treatment sequence in classrooms with native English and non-native English teachers. *Journal for the Study of English Linguistics, 2*(1), 1-18.

Zhu, H. (2010). An analysis of college students' attitudes towards error correction in EFL context. *English Language Teaching, 3*(4), 127-130.

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Informed Consent Form

Dear …..... ,

Thank you for agreeing to help us make audio recordings in your classes. The recordings will solely be used for academic purposes and at this point your participation is important. We assure that the audio recordings will NOT be used for any purpose other than academic research. Please be advised that participation in this process is strictly voluntary on your part.

Every attempt will be made to ensure your anonymity in the reporting of data to be collected during your classroom interactions. Personal information about you, your students and your institution will not be made public in any reporting of data.

If you have any questions about these audio recordings, or to learn more about the planned research in general, please contact us via e-mail: demir.ysf@hotmail.com

Please sign and date below indicating your agreement to participate in these classroom observations.

Thank you very much.

Name (signature): …… Date: ……..

Appendix B. Coding Sheet

(Page I)

VIDEO	ERROR TYPE	TEACHER FEEDBACK	STUDENT RESPONSE
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake
	L1 Phonological Grammatical Lexical	Recast - Explicit C.- Elicitation Repetition - Elicit. – Clarification R. Metalinguistic Feedback No Feedback - Unidentified	Repair (Self-Peer-Repetition-Incorporation) Needs R. (Acknowledgement, Different Error ,Same Error, Hesitation, Off Target, Partial Repair) No Uptake

(Page II)

REINFORCEMENT	MINUTE	FEEDBACK EPISODE	EXPLANATION

Appendix C. Interview Checklist

- ✓ Choose a setting with the least distraction.
- ✓ Explain the purpose of the interview.
- ✓ Address terms of confidentiality.
- ✓ Explain the format of the interview.
- ✓ Indicate how long the interview usually takes.
- ✓ Provide contact information of the interviewer.
- ✓ Allow interviewee to clarify any doubts about the interview.
- ✓ Prepare a method for recording data, e.g., take notes.

Appendix D. Follow-up Interview Questions

1. Did you have any special training regarding how to give feedback to English learners during your teacher training process before you began your professional teaching career? If yes, please explain the dimensions of it.

2. Should learners' errors be corrected?

3. When should learners' errors be corrected?

4. Which errors should be corrected?

5. How should errors be corrected?

6. Who should do the correcting?

7. How effective do you think correcting students' errors is, in terms of improving their English ability?

8. Do you think your teacher training has influenced the way you correct errors? Explain.

9. What method do you use most when correcting student errors in class and think is the most effective? Why?

10. Do you change the way you correct student errors depending on their level? If so, how. If not, why not?

11. Do you think it's better to just give students the correct answer or make them try and think about their errors and provide the corrected response themselves? Why?

12. Considering the traditional education system that the typical student goes through in Turkey, do you think students are comfortable with error correction and, if so, what method do you think they would be most accustomed to?

13. In your opinion, what form of error correction do you think Turkish language learners would prefer, and why?

Appendix E. A Sample Lesson Plan for Speaking Microteachings and Activity Worksheets

... UNIVERSITY,

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS II

SPEAKING PRESENTATION

NAME and SURNAME: .....

NUMBER: .....

CLASS: .....

INSTRUCTOR: .....

LESSON PLAN

Time: 25 minutes

Level: Intermediate

Age: 12-14

Materials: reading text, role cards

Subskills practiced: accuracy and fluency in speaking skills

Interaction: T/S, S/T, S/S

PRE STAGE

Duration: 5 min.

Skills: listening, speaking

Interaction: T/S

Grouping: whole class

Aims:

- To motivate students for the lesson
- To arouse curiosity among the students
- To involve students in a topic by drawing their attention
- To create a comfortable classroom atmosphere for speaking
- To make them have some predictions about topic

Steps:

1. Teacher greets the students.
2. She talks about her problem and she wants students to give some advice to her.
3. Ask some questions to students.
4. Let the students think about the questions and express their opinions.

WHILE STAGE

Duration: 10 min.

Skills: reading, speaking

Interaction: T/S, S/T

Grouping: pairs

Aims:

- To improve students' speaking skills
- To provide students understand the meanings of some expressions
- To provide them use the expressions in short dialogues.

SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

Steps:

1st Activity

1. Teacher wants students to look A part in the worksheet. There is a reading text and some phrases in it. Teacher wants them to find the correct phrases.
2. They are given 3 minutes.
3. They work in pairs and they try to understand the situation.
4. Check the students' understanding.
5. Walk around the class while they are doing the activity and monitor them.
6. Check their answers.

2nd Activity

1. Teacher distributes role cards to each student. There is a problem in each card. Teacher wants them to use phrases they have learnt.
2. They are given 5 minutes.
3. Students will then pair up with a new partner and repeat the process (give and receive advice) until everyone has spoken to five different people.
4. Finally when they have finished, the students choose the best piece of advice and comment on the reason why they think it is the best.

POST STAGE

Duration: 10 min.

Skills: writing, speaking

Interaction: T/S, S/T, S/S

Grouping: group of 5

Aims:

- To improve their writing capability in the target language
- To improve their speaking skills in the target language
- To have them discuss the topic in real life function of the target language

Steps:

1. In groups, students draw up lists of health advice based on the phrases. They can add their ideas here.
2. Teacher gives the groups large pieces of paper to write their advice as a poster. Also they can use colorful painting in their posters.
3. Finally, they display the posters on class noticeboard.

Hi Becky,

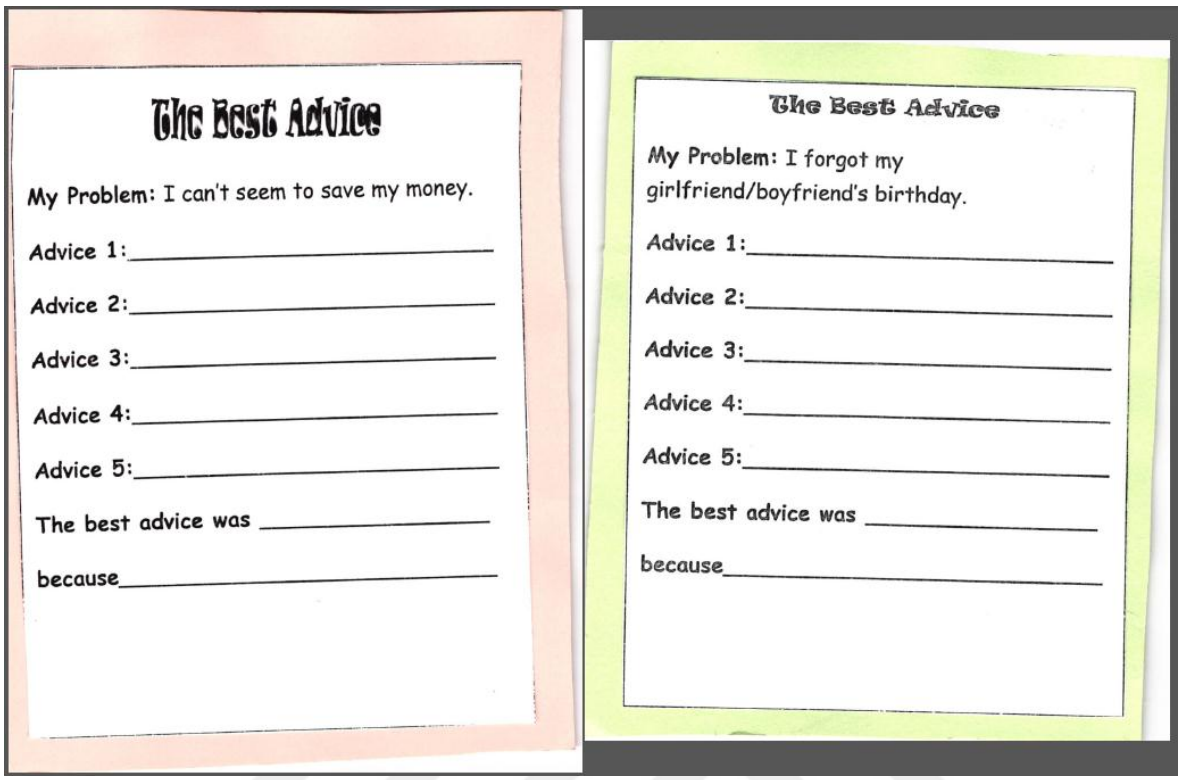
We're all so glad you're feeling better. In less than a month you'll be out of hospital and back with us in the classroom! You'll catch up in no time, but here are a few suggestions.

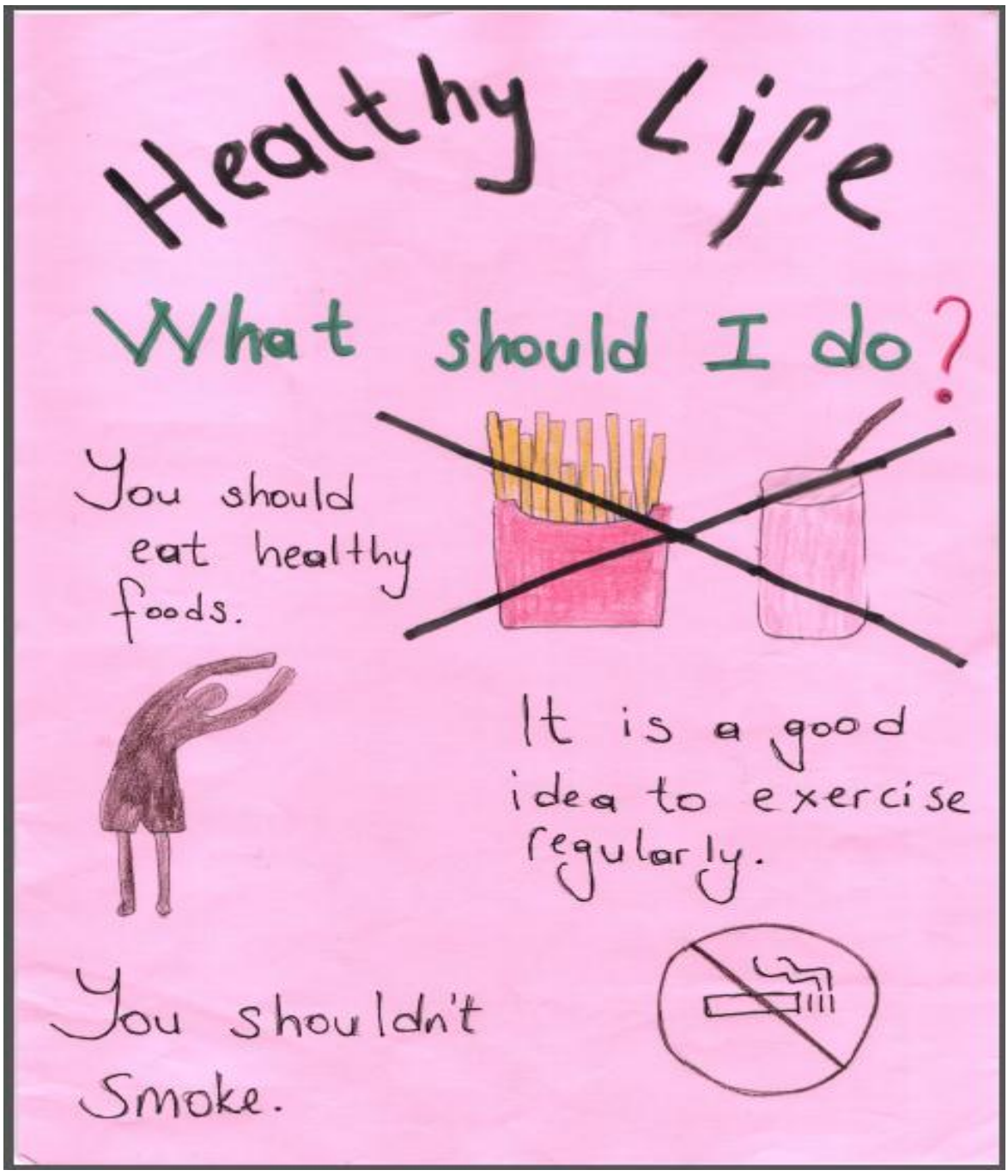
First of all, *why don't you/ you shouldn't* contact our form tutor and explain the problem? I'm sure she'll be sympathetic. *Also*, *I think you should/it isn't a good idea to* read Hamlet. Mrs. Dewar said the final exam is going to be on Shakespeare. Finally, *it's better not to/ I think you should* relax. At the end of the day, your health is the most important thing.

Good luck!

Sam

P.S. Ali, Karen, Gwen, Mark and Chris all send their love. We all miss you!


The Best Advice
My Problem: I can't seem to save my money.
Advice 1:
Advice 2:
Advice 3:
Advice 4:
Advice 5:
The best advice was
because
The Best Advice
My Problem: I forgot my girlfriend/boyfriend's birthday.
Advice 1:
Advice 2:
Advice 3:
Advice 4:
Advice 5:
The best advice was
because


Healthy Life
What should I do?
You should eat healthy foods.
It is a good idea to exercise regularly.
You shouldn't Smoke.

Appendix F. Peer Evaluation Form

A PEER EVALUATION FORM ABOUT ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

My friend showed evidence of the input provided in the Online Course on Oral Corrective Feedback (ONOCEF), some of which are:

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

My friend applied the following Oral Corrective Feedback strategies in her/his performance……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

My friend fell short in applying the following Oral Corrective Feedback strategies in her/his performance

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

If I were, I would correct the specific errors in this demo, as follows:

……
……
……
……
……
……

Appendix G. The ONOCEF Quiz

… UNIVERSITY

ELT Program

The ONOCEF QUIZ for Speaking Classes

Name & Surname:
Student No:

1- L2 learners' persistent errors in speech should receive top priority for correction, because

……
……

…….. (10 pts)

2- What may be the strengths and weaknesses of peer correction? Please comment. (10 pts)

……
……
……
……

3- All the types of CF promote L2 growth regardless of learners' proficiency level. However,

a) Recasts can be especially useful to learners with low L2 proficiency, because
……
……
(10 pts)

b) For learners with relatively high L2 proficiency, prompts should be favored over recasts,because……
……
……(10 pts)

4- ……and ……are perceived by students as implicit CF types, while ……and ……seem to be explicit CF strategies. (10 pts)

5- It is often suggested that local errors usually need no treatment, while global errors do. The reason for this might be that

……
……
……(10 pts)

6- Simply offer a possible solution how you would make recasts more noticeable. (10 pts)

……
……
……

7- Would you rely more on prompts or recasts to correct L2 learners' phonological errors, and why? (10 pts)

……
……
……

True* or *False (20 pts)

1- Mistakes are all about performance, while errors result from one's lack of linguistic competence. **(T/F)**

2- Recasting learners' errors leads to the negotiation of meaning, which is intended to resolve communication breakdowns and to work toward mutual comprehension. **(T/F)**

3- Explicit correction is an effective oral CF strategy, because it pushes learners to self-correct. **(T/F)**

4- Contextual variables are determining factors in making decisions regarding oral CF. **(T/F)**

5- Contrary to intensive CF, extensive CF is delivered in isolation, with a pre-planned focus on a certain linguistic form. **(T/F)**



GAZİ GELECEKTİR...