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PEER INTERACTION AND PEER FEEDBACK: INCREASING OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPING COMPETENCE IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE FORMS

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AKRAN ETKİLEŞİMİ VE AKRAN DÖNÜTÜ: HEDEF DİL YAPILARINA AİT YETİYİ GELİŞTİRMEDE OLANAKLARI ARTTIRMA

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ÖZ

Betimsel ve yarı-deneysel desenleri benimseyen bu doktora tezi, akran etkileşiminin ve akran düzeltici geri bildiriminin, hedef dil gramer yapılarına ilişkin yetiyi geliştirmede nasıl bir potansiyele sahip olduklarını araştırmayı hedeflemiştir. Bu amacı gerçekleştirmek için, bu çalışma, ikili iletişimsel aktiviteler sırasında, öğrencilerin hem akranlarıyla iletişim kurma hem de birbirlerine sözel düzeltici dönüt vermeleri için eğitilmeleri üzerine tasarlanmıştır. Çalışmaya üç İngilizce hazırlık sınıfının öğrencileri (sayı=85) dahil edilmiştir ve sınıflar sırasıyla akran etkileşimi (PI), akran etkileşimi+yeniden biçimlendirme (PI+Recast) ve akran etkileşimi+metadilbilimsel geri bildirim (PI+MF) gruplarına atanmıştır. Öğrencilerin eğitiminde modelleme, alıştırma yapma ve bağlam içinde kullanma adımları benimsenmiştir. Akran etkileşimi (PI) grubunda öğrencilere sadece iletişimsel aktiviteleri ikili gruplar halinde nasıl uygulayacakları gösterilmiştir. Akran etkileşimi+yeniden biçimlendirme grubundaki öğrencilere akranlarına yeniden biçimlendirme yoluyla dönüt sağlamaları hususunda eğitim verilirken, akran etkileşimi+metadilbilimsel geri bildirim grubundaki öğrencilere akranlarına metadilbilimsel geri bildirim sağlama konusunda eğitim verilmiştir. Çalışma öğrencilerin

geçmiş zaman (simple past tense) yapısının algıya ve üretmeye dayalı bilgisini geliştirmeye odaklandığından, çalışmadaki her bir gruba geçmiş zaman yapısını kullanmayı gerekli kılan iletişimsel aktiviteler verilmiştir. Çalışmanın betimsel analiz kısmında, a) geri dönüt gruplarındaki öğrencilerin birbirlerine hedef (başarılı) şekilde dönüt sağlayıp sağlamadıklarını, b) akran etkileşimi grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin eğitim almamalarına rağmen birbirlerine dönüt verip vermediklerini, c) öğrencilerin doğru şekilde aldıkları dönüt sonucunda yanlışlarını düzeltip düzeltmediklerini görmek amacıyla her bir gruptaki öğrenci sesleri ikili iletişimsel aktiviteleri tamamlarken kayıt altına alınmıştır. İletişimsel aktiviteler esnasında verilen dönüt (feedback) ve dönüte verilen yanıt (uptake) türlerinin frekans ve yüzdelerini belirlemek amacıyla toplamda 21 saatlik ses kayıtları transkript edilmiştir. Genel bulgular akran etkileşimi grubunda kullanılan hedef-düzey dönüt oranının, geri dönüt eğitimi alan akran etkileşimi+yeniden biçimlendirme ve akran etkileşimi+metadilbilimsel geri bildirim gruplarında kullanılan hedef-düzey dönüt oranına göre çok düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna ek olarak, öğrenci-öğrenci etkileşimi sırasında çok nadir sayıda hedef niteliğinde olmayan (başarısız) dönüt belirlenmiştir. Bununla birlikte, geri dönüte yanıt oranına ilişkin bulgular hedef niteliğinde olan birçok dönütün öğrencilerin hatalarını düzeltmesi ile (target-like uptake) sonuçlandığını göstermiştir. Uygulamanın geçmiş zaman yapısının (simple past tense) algıya ve üretmeye dayalı bilgisine etkisini değerlendirmek için, gruplara ön, son ve geciktirilmiş son testler uygulamıştır. Algıya dayalı bilgiyi ölçmek için dilbilgisel yargı testleri ve hedef yapının doğru kullanımını ölçmek için yazılı üretim testleri kullanılmıştır. Son test dilbilgisel yargı testlerinin sonuçlarına göre gruplar arasında algıya dayalı kazanımlarda önemli bir farklılık görülmemiştir. Bununla birlikte, dilbilgisel yargı testine ait geciktirilmiş son test sonuçları her iki dönüt grubunun da akran etkileşim grubundan daha iyi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar, geri dönüt gruplarının uzun dönemde hedef yapıya ilişkin algısal kazanımlarının akran etkileşimi grubuna göre daha iyi olduğunu göstermiştir. Yazılı üretim son test sonuçları ise sadece akran etkileşimi+metadilbilimsel dönüt grubunun, akran etkileşimi grubundan daha iyi olduğunu göstermiştir. Geciktirilmiş yazılı son test sonuçları her iki dönüt grubunun da akran etkileşimi grubundan daha iyi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, sonuçlar her iki dönüt grubu arasında herhangi önemli bir farklılık göstermemiştir. Bulgular akran geri dönütünün akran etkileşimine entegre edilmesinin hedef yapı kazanımlarını özellikle uzun vadede olumlu yönde etkileyeceğini ortaya koymuştur. Çalışmanın son adımı olarak, uygulamanın etkililiği hakkında daha detaylı bir bilgiye sahip olmak ve öğrencilerin akran etkileşimi ve akran düzeltici geribildirimi ile ilgili algılarını anlayabilmek için yarı-yapılandırılmış yazılı görüşme tekniği uygulanmıştır. Yazılı görüşme verilerinin analizinde içerik analizi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar çoğu öğrencinin akran etkileşimine ve akran dönütüne karşı düşüncelerinin olumlu olduğunu göstermiştir. Çoğu öğrenci uygulamanın gramer, kelime ve benzeri alanlarda ikinci dil bilgilerine katkıda bulunduğunu belirtmiştir. Bulgular hedef niteliğinde akran geri dönütünün öğrencilerin hatalarını fark etmesine ve hedef yapıları daha doğru kullanmasına yardımcı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgular ışığında, bazı pedagojik çıkarımlar ve gelecekteki çalışmalara yönelik öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Akran etkileşimi, sözlü akran düzeltici dönütü, ikinci dil gramerinde yetkinlik, düzeltici dönüte verilen yanıt

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ABSTRACT

Employing both descriptive and quasi-experimental designs, this dissertation aimed to investigate peer interaction and peer corrective feedback to see their potential for developing learners' competence in target language grammar forms. To achieve this purpose, the study was designed to train learners both to interact with their peers and to give oral corrective feedback to each other while performing communicative activities in pairs. The students (n=85) of three English preparatory classes were involved in the study and the classes were assigned to the peer interaction (PI) group, the peer interaction+recast (PI+Recast) group or the peer interaction+metalinguistic feedback (PI+MF) group, respectively. To train learners, modeling, practice, and use-in-context phases were adopted in the study. The learners in the PI group were only presented with how to carry out communicative activities with their peers in pairs. While the learners in the PI+Recast group were trained to provide recasts to their peers, the learners in the PI+MF group were trained to give metalinguistic feedback to each other. As

the study focused on improving the receptive and productive knowledge of the simple past tense, each group was provided with communicative activities which required the use of it. As a part of the descriptive design, the learners in each group were audio recorded while they were doing the communicative activities in pairs to see a) whether the learners in peer feedback groups (PI+Recast and PI+MF) were able to provide each other with target-like (successful) feedback, b) whether the learners in the PI group gave feedback to each other although they were not trained to do so, c) whether learners could produce target-like uptake (successful repair) in response to the target-like peer feedback they received. A total of 21 hours of audio recordings were transcribed in order to display frequencies and percentages of errors related to the simple past tense, corrective feedback and uptake types in the interactional patterns of the groups. General findings revealed that the rate of target-like feedback in the PI group was very low when compared to the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups, which had training on providing feedback. In addition to this, rare instances of non-target-like (unsuccessful) feedback were identified in learner-learner interactions. Furthermore, the findings in relation to uptake rates showed that most of the target-like peer feedback resulted in target-like uptake. To evaluate the effects of the implementation on the receptive and productive knowledge of the simple past tense, pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests were administered to the groups. Grammaticality judgment tests (GJTs) and written production tasks were employed to measure receptive knowledge and accurate use of the target structure, respectively. The findings revealed no significant differences at the post GJT, which showed that no groups were superior to others in terms of short-term receptive knowledge gains. However, delayed GJT results indicated that both peer feedback groups outperformed the PI group. This showed that long-term gains in receptive knowledge of the target form were better in the feedback groups in comparison to the PI group. As for the findings of the post-test in written production tasks, it was found that only the PI+MF group was superior to the PI group. Also, the delayed post-test results of the writing task showed that both the PI+Recast group and the PI+MF group outperformed the PI group. Additionally, the results did not indicate any significant difference between the two feedback groups. The findings suggest that the integration of peer corrective feedback into peer interaction seems to be more effective for facilitating the acquisition of the target structure especially in the longer term. As a final phase of the study, a semi-structured written interview was conducted to gain deeper insights about the effectiveness of the implementation, and the learners' perceptions about peer interaction and peer corrective feedback. After that, the written interview data were subjected to content analysis. The results demonstrated that most of the learners had positive beliefs about peer interaction and peer feedback. Many of them indicated that the intervention contributed to their L2 knowledge in various domains such as grammar, vocabulary and so on. The findings reveal that target-like peer feedback can help learners both notice their errors and use the target forms more accurately. In light of the findings, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research were offered.

Key Words : Peer interaction, oral peer corrective feedback, competence in L2 grammar, uptake

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
FFI	Form Focused Instruction
NNS	Non-native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
CF	Corrective Feedback
PI	Peer Interaction
PF	Peer Feedback
PCF	Peer Corrective Feedback
MF	Metalinguistic Feedback
GJT	Grammaticality Judgment Test

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter starts with the general background for the study. Then, it presents the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, importance of the study, assumptions and limitations, respectively. Finally, this chapter provides the definitions of some key concepts related to the study.

1.2 Background for the study

Second language learners are exposed to two input types during their language learning process and they are called: 1) positive evidence, and 2) negative evidence (Long, 1996). Positive evidence is defined by Gass and Mackey (2007, p. 177) as "the language that a learner is exposed to (i.e., from reading or listening, or, in the case of sign language from visual language)". As for negative evidence, this input type refers to "direct or indirect information about what is ungrammatical" (Long, 1996, p. 413). In other words, negative evidence is the input type that raises a learner's awareness in terms of the fact that his/her utterance does not correspond to the norms of the target language (Gass, Behney, & Plonsky, 2013; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Drawing upon these definitions, it can be said that negative evidence functions just like an "exclamation mark (!)" to highlight the deviant form in the utterance and trigger the learner's attention to the problematic part. Negative evidence is also used alongside terms such as "corrective feedback" and "negative feedback" (Gass, 1997; Saxton, 2000; Schachter, 1991).

The distinction between the input types as "positive evidence" and "negative evidence" brings to mind controversial questions such as "Is language input (positive evidence) alone sufficient for second language learning?" and "Are language input (positive evidence) and corrective feedback (negative evidence) both necessary for second language learning to take place?"

To this day, numerous questions similar to the aforementioned ones have been asked and varying ideas have been proposed by the researchers. To begin, pioneer of the Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1991) underlines the importance of "comprehensible input" by stating: "Only comprehensible input is consistently effective in increasing proficiency; more skill-building, more correction, and more output do not consistently result in greater proficiency" (p. 410). He also posits that "clear gains and even high levels of proficiency can take place without output, skill building, error correction, and comprehensible output" (p. 411).

Contrary to the above claims, Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis, while affirming the crucial role of input for language learning, underlines that both "output"—in other words, using language in written and spoken modes—and "negative evidence" have fundamental roles in improving L2 learning. Swain believes that input alone is not sufficient to facilitate second language learning. In her study, Swain underlined the problems of French immersion students who were exposed to comprehensible input for six or seven years, but still lacked production skills in the target language. These students had limited experience in terms of practicing language outside the classroom. Despite exposure to large amounts of target-language input, both the learners' written and spoken production included errors with particular respect to grammar and syntax. Swain attributed this to the lack of practice (producing language) in the classroom environment and insufficient negative input. Swain (1995) emphasized the significance of "output" in L2 learning setting as in the following:

> …output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output, thus, would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology (p.128).

Through output, the learner pays attention to form in order to ensure that the message she/he intends to convey has the appropriate grammar and structure. Furthermore, as the learners produce language, they get the chance to receive feedback to their inappropriate utterances, which help them to modify their output (Nassaji, 2015). All in all, Swain (1985) holds the

opinion that output has an indispensable role in promoting L2 proficiency, and she also proposes negative evidence to facilitate L2 development.

In addition to Swain's aforementioned ideas, some researchers prefer to explain the effectiveness of *interaction* and *corrective feedback* on language learning from different perspectives. Some of the studies handled the issues from the sociocultural framework (e.g. Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Foster & Ohta, 2005; Nassaji &Swain, 2000; Ohta, 2000; Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) others looked at interaction and corrective feedback from the framework of the interaction hypothesis (e.g. Gass, 1997; Gass et al., 2013; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996, 2007) and some others addressed the issues from the window of skill acquisition theories (e.g. Anderson, 2005; DeKeyser, 2007; Leeman, 2007, Lyster & Sato, 2013; Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Many researchers, who adopted sociocultural theory in their study, focused on interaction and feedback by considering the zone of proximal development and scaffolding. Philp, Adams and Iwashita (2014) explain, "Studies based on sociocultural perspectives investigate how learners assist each other through scaffolding and building knowledge together" (p.25). For instance, Storch (2002), Swain and Lapkin (1998), Ohta (2001), and Donato (1994) showed the occurrence of scaffolding in interactions of the students who have similar levels of knowledge related to the target language. Some other researchers like Nassaji and Swain (2000) indicated that corrective feedback can be more beneficial when it is supplied within the learner's zone of proximal development.

Researchers like Gass (1997), Gass et al. (2013), Long (1996, 2007), and Gass and Mackey (2007) emphasize the benefits of feedback from the framework of interactional approach. The positive role of interaction and feedback in L2 learning is explained by Gass and Mackey (2007) as follows:

> Interaction facilitates the process of acquiring a second language as it provides opportunities to receive modified input and to receive feedback, both explicitly and implicitly, which in turn may draw learners' attention to problematic aspects of their interlanguage and push them to produce modified output (pp. 193-194).

This excerpt underlines crucial components of interaction: modified input, feedback, modified output. Drawing on this explanation, it can be said that with the help of the feedback they get during interaction, learners get the chance to see the hole between their interlanguage and the target language form, which in turn helps them to improve their proficiency in L2.

Long (1996) highlights the effects of negative feedback during the interaction by stating "Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts" (p. 414). As through feedback learners realize the gaps in their interlanguage, then it can be said that it has a noticing function which can linked to the Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1990, 2001) with a claim that the prerequisite condition for learning to take place is to attend to and notice the L2 input. In other words, Schmidt (2012, p. 27) holds the idea that "people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to", which is also supported by the findings of some empirical studies (e.g. Rosa & Leow, 2004; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999). It is also noteworthy to point out that some studies (e.g. Mackey, 2006) indicate that corrective feedback may trigger noticing of the target language structures. Gass et al. (2013) explain the role of interaction and feedback on noticing the target language form by stating that "it is through interaction (e.g., negotiation, recasts) that a learner's attention is focused on a specific part of the language, particularly on mismatches between target language forms and learner-language forms" (p. 383). In a similar vein, Sato and Ballinger (2016) explain the function of feedback in noticing as in the following:

> When learners are given corrective feedback, their attention temporarily shifts to the formal aspects of language while maintaining the main focus on delivering the intended message. Second, feedback may provide learners with an opportunity to produce meaningful output as they attempt to, consciously or unconsciously, correct the original L2 error. This process of noticing the gap between what the learner knows and what he or she can actually say arguably benefits L2 learning (p.10).

There are also researchers who explain the effectiveness of interaction and feedback on facilitating L2 learning by linking them to Skill Acquisition Theories. For instance, Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) model (see 1983, 1993), covering two types of knowledge as "declarative" and "procedural", points to the importance of practice and feedback in learning (Anderson, 2005; Leeman, 2007, Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Nassaji (2015, p.67) defines declarative knowledge as "knowledge about language" and procedural knowledge as "knowledge of how to use language". McLaughlin and Heredia (1996) state that "Procedural knowledge is thought to be acquired through extensive practice and feedback and, once learned, is more easily activated in memory than declarative knowledge" (p.218). Considering all of the ideas that have been put forward by the researchers so far, it can be said that the core

components of interaction—sorted by Gass et al. (2013) as "input, output and feedback"—have an undeniably significant role in L2 learning. As an indication of growing interest in the aforementioned issues, the second language acquisition (SLA) literature has witnessed many research studies with a specific focus on the concepts of "interaction" and "feedback". Therefore, in the literature it is possible to see studies that handled interaction and feedback from different perspectives. For instance, some studies adopted a descriptive design and analyzed learner-learner interactions and reported whether students could use feedback or not (without any training) during peer interaction (e.g. Bruton & Samuda, 1980) or others compared whether the NNS-NNS dyads and NNS-NS dyads' interactions were similar or not (Garcia-Mayo & Pica, 2000; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003) yet others extended the focus and searched for the effectiveness of interactions on L2 development by including either NNS-NNS interactions (e.g. Adams, 2007) or NS-NNS interactions (e.g. Mackey, 1999). In addition to these studies, there are many experimental studies that centered upon the effects of teacher-led oral corrective feedback on L2 grammar development (e.g. Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Guchte, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Bimmel, 2015; Yang & Lyster, 2010). However, the number of empirical studies (e.g. Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017) that searched the impacts of both *peer interaction* and *oral peer corrective feedback* with a specific respect to second language grammar development is not very satisfying. Given this, more experimental research studies are needed with specific focus on peer interaction and peer corrective feedback.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p.1) stated that, "Grammar is fundamental to language. Without grammar, language does not exist." Additionally, Canale (1983) specified grammatical competence as one of the main components of communicative competence. Therefore, as grammatical competence composes one of the cornerstones of communicative competence, the role of grammar in language learning cannot be underestimated. However, the problem identified by some researchers is that despite much exposure to grammar instruction, second language learners have difficulty producing grammatically correct utterances like that of native speakers of the target language (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Loewen, 2014; Swain, 1985).

Similarly, Brown (2007) underscored the fact that both oral and written productions of L2 learners contain numerous grammar-related errors. Likewise, the researcher of this study observed that most of the time English learners in Turkey have difficulty producing grammatically error-free sentences in their writing and speaking. Another problem is that English learners in Turkey do not have enough opportunities outside of the class to practice the grammar structures they learn. One of the main complaints of English learners in Turkey is that despite having knowledge of grammar, they cannot adequately reflect this knowledge in their speaking or writing production. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) suggested that in order to improve learners' communicative competence and help them produce both accurate and fluent language, integrating grammar in meaning-focused instruction is essential. Considering this suggestion and the problems in Turkey as a foreign language-learning context, creating a classroom environment where learners can use the grammar structures they have been taught in communicative ways seems to be very crucial. It seems vital to allocate more time to communicative tasks that require learners to practice the grammar in a classroom setting.

To increase the opportunities for practicing the target language more frequently, communicative tasks that incorporate learner-learner interactions need to be integrated into lessons. According to Philp, Walter and Basturkmen (2010, p.261), peer interaction "complements teacher-fronted interaction by providing a context for practice and meaningful use of the target language and greater opportunity for individual production." During the meaning-focused interactions that take place between teachers and learners, teachers can draw students' attention to language forms and can provide corrective feedback to the learners' inaccurate productions (Sippel, 2017). However, as Sato and Lyster (2012, pp. 597-598) noted, students' attention during peer interaction "rarely goes to linguistic form, and they do not indicate grammatical problems to one another unless they are provided with such guidance from the task." According to Sato and Lyster (2012), one of the notable drawbacks of learner-learner interactions is the lack of attention to language-related structures and the lack of feedback provided by learners to their peers. Similarly, Adams, Nuevo and Egi (2011) underlined that during peer interaction to complete communicative tasks, learners may focus on conveying meaning and may not be careful about the accuracy of their utterances. According to Adams et al. (2011), the possible remedy for this problem may be to draw learners' attention to the target forms so that peer

interaction can lead to the acquisition of these structures. Harmer (2007) believes that if students get assistance and feedback from one another in a supportive environment, this can be very useful to their learning as they study collaboratively. However, as mentioned before, students need training to focus on their inaccurate grammatical uses and to give corrective feedback to each other (Sato & Lyster, 2012).

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The main aim of this research study was to compare the effectiveness of peer interaction alone and peer interaction in combination with oral peer corrective feedback to facilitate the acquisition of the target grammar structure, namely, the simple past tense. The sub-aims of the study were to:

a) analyze the learner-learner interactional patterns in order to see whether the students could provide each other with target-like (successful) corrective feedback or not and whether they could produce uptake in response to the target-like feedback they received,

b) compare the effects of peer interaction alone and peer interaction combined with oral peer feedback on the receptive and productive knowledge of the target grammar structure,

c) gain deeper insights into student perceptions of peer interaction and peer feedback.

To realize these aims, three groups were included in the study as follows: 1) Peer Interaction (PI) group, 2) Peer Interaction+Recast (PI+Recast) Group, 3) Peer Interaction+Metalinguistic Feedback (PI+MF) Group. While the students in the PI group received only peer interaction training, the students in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups were also provided with feedback training. The students in PI+Recast group received training on how to provide recasts, and the students in PI+MF group were trained how to provide metalinguistic feedback to their peers' errors related to the target grammar forms.

In line with the goals of the study, the following seven research questions were investigated:

1. Do the students in the PI group provide each other with feedback for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what types of feedback do they provide? What is the distribution of feedback types?

2. Do the students in the PI+Recast provide each other with recasts for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what is the distribution of recasts? Do the students in this group provide each other with other types of feedback? If they do, what is the distribution of other feedback types?
3. Do the students in the PI+MF group provide each other with MF for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what is the distribution of MF? Do the students in this group provide each other with other types of feedback? If they do, what is the distribution of other feedback types?
4. Do the students in the PI group, the PI+Recast and the PI+MF group produce uptake as a result of the target-like feedback they receive? What is the distribution of uptake types?
5. What are the effects of the PI, the PI+Recast and the PI+MF on the receptive knowledge of the target grammar structure?
6. What are the effects of the PI, the PI+Recast and the PI+MF on the productive knowledge of the target grammar structure?
7. How do learners perceive peer interaction and peer feedback? What are their reflections about the implementation?

1.5 Importance of the Study

Most research studies (e.g. Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Ishida, 2004; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2010) focused on the effects of different corrective feedback types that were supplied by teachers on L2 learning. Put differently, there are numerous research studies related to the effects of teacher corrective feedback in the second language learning field. Contrary to this, the number of studies that searched for the effects of "peer corrective feedback" on L2 learning (e.g. Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) is few in comparison, as is also the case in Turkey. In addition to this, Adams et al. (2011, p. 46) highlighted one of the most important shortcomings regarding the research on PF by stating: "Early studies on feedback in learner-learner interaction sought to determine whether learners provided each other with corrective

feedback." That is to say, most of the studies related to PCF were descriptive in nature (e.g. Bruton & Samuda, 1980; Gass & Varonis, 1989). This points to the lack of experimental research related to peer corrective feedback. There are only a few studies that focus on learner training to provide feedback to each other and the effects of peer feedback on second language learning. Furthermore, the number of studies (e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Sheen, 2004, 2006) related to the term uptake in response to corrective feedback is very limited. There is a need for studies that consider the learner uptake rates in response to peer feedback rather than teacher feedback. Additionally, learners' perceptions need to be investigated to learn the positive and negative sides of peer interaction and peer feedback in detail. Furthermore, the problems mentioned in the statement of the problem section call for the necessity of further studies related to the effects of PI and PCF on facilitating L2 grammar learning.

Considering these issues, this study contributes to the language learning and teaching fields through a variety of important aspects. First of all, this study fills a significant gap by combining both descriptive and quasi-experimental methods to gain deeper insights into peer interaction and peer feedback. Second, this study is crucial as it is one of the rare studies in the literature that focuses on training learners as feedback providers for each other with a specific focus on oral corrective feedback. Additionally, this study is important as it incorporates training in two different types of feedback, namely recasts and MF. By training learners as recast and MF providers, this study offers considerable insights into the effectiveness of input-providing (recast) and output-prompting (MF) feedback types within the framework of peer feedback. This study is also significant because of the fact that it studies learner uptake within the scope of peer feedback rather than teacher feedback. Furthermore, this study makes significant contributions to the field by comparing the effectiveness of PI alone and PI in combination with PF on facilitating the acquisition of previously taught grammar forms rather than totally new grammar structures for learners. In so doing, it presents the ways of increasing opportunities for gaining more control over the previously learned linguistic forms. Furthermore, one of the most notable contributions of this study is that it reveals students' perceptions regarding learner-learner interaction and learners' feedback to each other rather than teacher-learner interaction and teacher feedback to learners. These components, when

taken together, can provide new and valuable insights into peer interaction, peer feedback and learner uptake.

1.6 Assumptions

In this study, students were audio-recorded during their communication in pairs. Therefore, it was assumed that students would act naturally during their conversations with each other. Another assumption was that students in all the groups would successfully complete the communicative activities by using the target grammar forms and that students in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF group would provide each other with the target feedback types when they identified errors related to the target grammar structure. The final assumption of this study was that students would honestly answer the written interview questions regarding their perceptions of the implementation process.

1.7 Limitations

There were some inevitable limitations of this study. First, the number of participants was limited, which may affect the universal generalizability of the results. The second limitation of this study was that only two feedback types—recasts and MF—were used in the training of the learners. Also, feedback training was based on target grammar errors, and other language-related domains like vocabulary and phonology were not included in this study. Additionally, this study limited its scope to accuracy measures rather than fluency measures.

1.8 Definition of Some Key Concepts

Output: "The activity of producing the target language" (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000, p. 240).

Interaction: "Conversations that learners participate in" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 178).

Peer Interaction: "Any communicative activity carried out between learners, where there is minimal or no participation from the teacher" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 3).

Corrective Feedback: "Responses to learner utterances that contain an error" (Ellis et al., 2006, p. 340).

Peer (Corrective) Feedback: Peer feedback, within the scope of this study, refers to the corrective feedback provided by learners to their peers' grammar related errors.

Uptake: "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 & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). In this study, uptake refers to the reaction (i.e. successful or unsuccessful response) of a student to his/her peer's corrective feedback.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter first presents detailed information about interaction and noticing hypothesis in relation to corrective feedback. Then, it provides comprehensive information on corrective feedback, different types of corrective feedback and uptake, respectively. After that, it gives information about the place of corrective feedback in form-focused instruction (FFI). Additionally, detailed information about peer interaction and peer feedback is provided, which is followed by learners' perceptions of them. Finally, this chapter is concluded after underlining the previous research studies.

2.2 Long's Interaction Hypothesis

Interaction approach, which puts a special emphasis on input and interaction, was initially proposed by Long (1981). Mackey and Philp (1998) put forward that Hatch's (1978) study about the role of conversation on the improvement of grammar, and Krashen's input hypothesis (1985) emphasizing the indispensable role of comprehensible input for L2 acquisition, led to the emergence of Long's interaction hypothesis (1981, 1983, 1985, 1996). As input and interaction were the underlined terms in this hypothesis, Long (1981) defined them as follows: "Input refers to the linguistic forms used; by interaction is meant the functions served by those forms, such as expansion, repetition, and clarification" (p. 259). Additionally, Ellis (1991a, p. 4) underlined the following two items that interaction hypothesis embraces for SLA:

1. Comprehensible input is necessary for L2 acquisition.

2. Modifications to the interactional structure of conversations which take place in the process of negotiating a communication problem help to make input comprehensible to an L2 learner.

Considering these two items, it can be stated that although being of the same opinion as Krashen's input hypothesis on the crucial role of comprehensible input for SLA, Long's interaction hypothesis "rejected it by positing that the best way to ensure the provision of comprehensible input is through discourse modifications in response to interlocutor need rather than a priori linguistic modifications" (Pawlak, 2014, p. 53). Put differently, by drawing upon Krashen's (1983) Input Hypothesis, which claimed the sufficiency of comprehensible input for L2 acquisition, Long (1996) highlighted that input becomes more comprehensible during the interaction of the interlocutors. He also stated that dyadic interactions cover negotiation, which leads to boosted comprehension and learning of the new forms. Language related-items such as vocabulary and grammar forms can be learned through the negotiation of the interlocutors during the interaction (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

In the revised version of interaction hypothesis (1996), corrective feedback that emerges during interaction was underlined as a beneficial factor in facilitating L2 learning through some processes, like raising learners' awareness about language forms and their relation to the meaning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Mackey, 1999; Randall, 2007). Also, Gass and Mackey (2007, p. 176) stated that, "the interaction approach attempts to account for learning through the learner's exposure to language, production of language, and feedback on that production." McDonough (2005, p. 80) identified the core components of interaction as "input features (e.g. negative feedback), internal learner capacities (e.g. attention) and language output." As negative feedback over the course of interaction enlightens learners about their inaccurate utterances and triggers them to revise what they said before and modify their production, it has a potential for promoting target language learning (Gass, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996).

Initially, Long's (1981) interaction hypothesis was based upon the interaction between native speakers and non-native speakers. Later in his study with Porter (1985), they also reported the positive aspects of the NNS-NNS interactions. According to the results of the reviewed

research on NNS-NNS interactions, Long and Porter (1985) mainly found that a) Peer interactions open doors for learners to practice language to the greater amounts when compared to teacher-fronted classes and NS-NNS interactions. They also experience more various language features while interacting with their peers in comparison to teacher-fronted classes. b) Learners' accuracy level in production of language is equal as in learner-teacher and learner-NNS dyads. c) Learners provide each other with more correction and negotiation of meaning during their interaction when compared to teacher-dominant classes. Some researchers like Philp et al. (2014) indicated their concerns related to the applicability of interaction approach in learner-learner interactions and some others (e.g. Kanno, 1999) questioned whether learners can provide target-like feedback to their peers during their conversation. Long before these concerns were addressed, Gass and Varonis (1989) reported in their study that learners participating in peer interactions could provide feedback to each other. Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos and Linnell (1996) compared NS-learner interactions with NNS-NNS interactions and found out that, although there were similarities between the two dyads (NS-NNS and NNS-NNS), the amount of feedback and modified input was higher in NS-NNS dyads than NNS-NNS interaction. In addition to these, later many empirical research studies were conducted on the effects of learner-learner interactions in relation to L2 learning. For instance, Adams et al. (2011) investigated the learner-learner interaction to find out how learners provided each other with recasts and explicit feedback and to see the effects of feedback on the acquisition of simple past tense and locatives. They did not find satisfying evidence related to the benefits of peer recasts during peer interactions and second language learning, and found negative influence of explicit peer feedback. Therefore, they commented that the role and the effects of feedback that emerges during peer interactions may be different from the one that occurs in NS-learner interactions. Contrary to this, McDonough (2004), who searched the interactional patterns of the learners with their peers found the beneficial roles of negative feedback for the learning of the L2 target forms. Furthermore, some researchers like Sato and Lyster (2012), Sippel and Jackson (2015), Sippel (2017) and Chu (2013) indicated that NNS-NNS dyadic interactions can be beneficial for L2 development when learners are trained to provide their peers with feedback. All in all, Gass and Mackey (2007, p. 176) claimed that interaction hypothesis is "moving toward the status of a theory in the sense that it also attempts to explain why interaction and learning can be linked, using cognitive concepts

derived from psychology, such as noticing, working memory, and attention." By considering the amount of the empirical studies in the SLA field, Gass and Mackey (2007) emphasized the general consensus on the positive link between learners' interaction and their learning.

2.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt (1990, 2001, 2012), in his Noticing Hypothesis, underlined the crucial role of noticing and attention for L2 acquisition. He (2012) emphasized that input cannot turn into intake without attending to and noticing the language-related forms. From this viewpoint, Long's interaction hypothesis (1996) also highlighted the necessity of noticing that takes place during the interaction of interlocutors (Jordan, 2004; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Pawlak, 2014). The positive link between feedback, noticing, and L2 learning was underlined by many of the researchers. For instance, Long (1996) stated that negative feedback received during negotiation of meaning may promote SLA as it raises learners' awareness about the language-related forms in the course of interaction. Through interaction, a learner can get both modified input and explicit and implicit types of feedback, and so this may lead them to modify their output as they see the contrasts between their own production and target-like forms (Gass & Mackey, 2007). The attention-drawing role of feedback during interaction may be likened to the stars, which shine brighter than the others do in the star cluster. When we look at the dark sky filled with stars, our attention is automatically drawn to the brighter ones, which look different from the others. Similar to this attention-drawing feature of more luminous stars, corrective feedback that occurs during interaction can direct interlocutors' attention to their incorrect productions.

The role of noticing and corrective feedback in second language learning has been the focus of many researchers in the field (e.g. Mackey, 2006; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Miller, 2003; Philp, 2003; Sakai, 2004). For instance, Mackey (2006) investigated whether noticing of feedback in the course of interactions could facilitate L2 learning. At the end of the study, she reported a positive relationship between noticing and improvement of target language question forms. Additionally, Miller (2003) conducted a meta-analysis study and

highlighted that oral corrective feedback was successful in directing learners to notice their errors.

As corrective feedback leads to "noticing, selective attention and cognitive comparison", on these reasonable grounds, it needs to be incorporated into the teaching context (Pawlak, 2014, p.53). In brief, corrective feedback contributes to L2 learning by increasing the awareness of the target language forms (Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2007) and by unlocking the doors for learners to discover the differences between their interlanguage and the forms of the second language they try to learn (Gass & Houck, 1999; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996; Reinders, 2010).

2.4 Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback was clearly defined by Ellis et al. (2006) as "responses to learner utterances that contain an error" (p. 340). According to Russell and Spada (2006), corrective feedback is "any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form" (p. 134). That is to say, it is a way to inform learners of their inaccurate production of the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). As for Brown (2007), although it is not the only way to contribute to second language learners' achievements, the importance of providing learners with feedback cannot be underestimated. According to Gass et al. (2013), feedback, with its variety of types from the implicit to the explicit, is a significant wellspring of information for students as it enlightens them about their failure or achievement in terms of their use of the language. It also offers learners a chance to think over their "production" and "comprehension" (p. 359). The role of corrective feedback in language learning has been an issue of concern for a lot of researchers. For instance, many years ago, Hendrickson (1978) raised five crucial questions respectively a) Should learners' errors be corrected? b) When should learners' errors be corrected? c) Which errors should be corrected? d) How should errors be corrected? e) Who should do the correcting? which are still on the agenda and still waiting for satisfactory answers. The SLA literature has witnessed endless discussions and controversial ideas regarding the role and efficiency of corrective feedback in L2 learning (e.g. Ferris, 1999; Long, 2007; Lyddon, 2011; Lyster, 2007; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2007).

While some researchers (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Ellis, 2006; Ferris, 1999; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Lyster & Ranta; 1997; Lyster et al., 1999; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004) advocate that corrective feedback is beneficial for the acquisition of the second language, some others (e.g. Lyddon, 2011; Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2007) reject this. For instance, Truscott, in his oft-cited studies, defended the ineffectiveness of both oral (Truscott, 1999) and written corrective feedback (Truscott, 1996, 2007). He put forward that oral corrective feedback on students' grammar errors does not facilitate the accurate use of the forms while speaking, and therefore he proposed that teachers not use oral corrective feedback for grammar (Truscott,1999). As a response to Truscott's (1999) claims about oral grammar correction, Lyster et al. (1999) outlined their disagreement with Truscott on the issue of not providing feedback to errors. They also emphasized the growing data as an indication of the effectiveness of feedback. In addition, some meta-analyses yielded positive results regarding the role of feedback in SLA (e.g. Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). For instance, the meta-analysis conducted by Russell and Spada (2006) researched the correlation between corrective feedback and improvement of grammar knowledge in the target language. Contrary to Truscott's aforementioned claims, they found positive effects for both oral and written corrective feedback on facilitating L2 grammar. Furthermore, Lyster and Saito (2010), in their meta-analysis study, included 15 classroom-based studies to gain deeper insights into the effectiveness of CF on promoting second language learning. The results revealed that CF had considerable and long-term effects on the improvement of target language learning.

Even though there are numerous studies that indicate the effectiveness of corrective feedback, there are still controversies about which feedback type to use, how to correct learners' errors, or which errors to correct. The fact that there is no consensus about what the best way to handle learners' errors is makes the situation more complicated (Brown, 2007). Therefore, in the literature, it is possible to see studies with different foci and perspectives in relation to corrective feedback. For instance, there are studies (e.g. Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor, & Mackey, 2006; Dilans, 2010; Erlam & Loewen, 2010; Loewen & Nabei, 2007) which researched the effectiveness of different feedback types on different language components such as lexis, phonology, nouns, questions, noun-adjective agreement, and vocabulary.

Moreover, some others (e.g. Algarawi, 2010; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2010; Yang & Lyster, 2010) devoted their attention to different types of corrective feedback with specific reference to their impacts on the learning of the grammar structures such as simple past tense, comparative –er, articles, dative verbs, possessive determiners and so on. For example, Ellis et al. (2006) compared the effects of recasts (implicit feedback) and metalinguistic explanations (explicit feedback) on the acquisition of past tense –ed. Three groups were randomly assigned as 1) recast group (n= 12), 2) metalinguistic explanation group (n=12), and 3) a control group (n=10). During the implementation period, students were given either recasts or metalinguistic explanations for their errors in the use of the target structure. The researchers put into use pre-, post- and delayed post-tests to measure the influence of the interventions. These tests were composed of an oral imitation test, a grammaticality judgment test, and a metalinguistic knowledge test. Oral imitation test was used to assess implicit knowledge and the last two tests were used to measure the explicit knowledge of the participants. The post-tests were administered on the second day of instruction and the delayed post-tests were given 12 days later. The post-test results indicated the superiority of explicit feedback over implicit feedback. That is to say, metalinguistic feedback was found to be superior over recasts in regards to the acquisition of the target language structure. In another experimentally designed study, Loewen and Nabei (2007) compared the effectiveness of recasts, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests on question formation. The post-test results of the timed grammaticality judgment tests showed that feedback groups outperformed the control group that did not receive any feedback; however, the findings did not indicate any significant differences in terms of the effects of the feedback types. Put differently, results showed no superiority of one feedback type over another. In addition to the studies mentioned so far, Yang and Lyster (2010) designed a quasi-experimental research study to compare the effects of prompts and recasts on the use of the past simple tense (both regular and irregular forms). 72 Chinese university students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) participated in the study and three groups were included in the study as follows: 1) prompt group 2) recast group, and 3) control group. Two dictogloss tasks, a question-and-answer activity, a picture-cued narrative activity were used during the treatment period as form-focused production activities. During these activities, learners' errors were provided with either recasts in the recast group or prompts in

the prompt group. As for the control group, feedback was only given on content and no feedback was given to learners' simple past tense errors. Pre-, post- and delayed post-tests were applied to measure both the written and oral production of simple past tense. The study found prompts to be superior to recasts in promoting the accurate use of the regular past tense forms. The effects of both prompts and recasts were found to be similar in promoting the accurate use of the irregular past tense forms. In another quasi-experimental study, Ammar and Spada (2006) compared the effects of prompts and recasts on the learning of third person possessive determiners by ESL learners. The findings showed that both the recast and prompt groups' gains were higher than the control group. However, the prompt group's performance was better than the recast group in terms of both written and oral post-tests. One important thing to note is that Ammar and Spada also reported that the proficiency of learners was one of the variables that determined the effectiveness of recasts and prompts. The positive effects of prompts and recasts were same for high-proficiency students whereas prompts had more impact than recasts for the low proficiency students. Teachers provided corrective feedback in these studies. That is to say, these studies focused on teacher corrective feedback rather than peer corrective feedback. Although the SLA literature abounds with studies focusing on corrective feedback flowing from teachers to learners and the effects of this flow on L2 learning, the number of studies that go to the heart of peer corrective feedback and its impacts on L2 learning is not very satisfactory. Therefore, this gap needs to be compensated with new studies.

2.5 Types of Corrective Feedback

Researchers identified and classified corrective feedback types by considering different dimensions. To begin with, Lyster and Ranta (1997) analyzed teacher-student interactions and reported six different corrective feedback types as "explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition." Later, Ranta and Lyster (2007) collapsed these feedback types under two main headings with "reformulations" which include recasts and explicit correction, and "prompts" which cover elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition. The main distinction between the two types is that the first one provides the correction directly as a response to the learner's deviant utterance, and

the second one leads and triggers learners to think on and self-correct their own errors (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). In addition to this, Adams et al. (2011, p. 44) contributed to the field by giving the "taxonomy of corrective feedback" as follows:

Input/Output Dimension	Feedback	Example of NS feedback to a NNS error	Explicit/Implicit Dimension
		(John goed to school)	
Input-providing	Explicit Correction	No, it's goed-went.	More explicit ↕
	Recast	John went to school.	More implicit
Output-prompting	Metalinguistic Feedback	-ed is for past tense of regular verbs, and "go" is an irregular verb	More explicit ↕
	Elicitation	John…?	
	Repetition	John goed to school?	
	Clarification request	Pardon?	More implicit

Figure 1. Taxonomy of corrective feedback. Adams et al. (2011). Explicit and implicit feedback, modified output, and SLA: Does explicit and implicit feedback promote learning and learner-learner interactions? *The Modern Language Journal, 95,* 42-63.

As seen in the figure, Adams et al. (2011) categorized feedback types as "input-providing" and "output-prompting" and from "more explicit" to "more implicit". As noted earlier, in the input-providing feedback type (e.g. recasts), learners are given the accurate form directly after they commit an error. Contrary to this, in output-prompting feedback types (e.g. elicitations), learners are encouraged and prompted to self-correct their errors (Pawlak, 2014; Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Additionally, Adams et al. categorized feedback types according to their degree of implicitness or explicitness. Although explicit feedback types (e.g. explicit feedback) point to the occurrence of errors overtly, this is not the case for the implicit feedback types (e.g. clarification request) (Ellis et al., 2006). The following parts explain each aforementioned feedback types in detail.

2.5.1 Explicit Correction

This type of correction contains the "explicit provision of the correct form" and the teacher uses expressions such as "Oh, you mean" or "You should say" while supplying the students with the correct form of the utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.46). Lightbown and Spada (2006, p. 126) exemplified this as follows:

Student: The dog run fastly.

Teacher: 'Fasdy' doesn't exist. 'Fast' does not take -ly. That's why I picked 'quickly'.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p. 78) provided the following example for explicit correction:

Student: He has catch a cold.

Teacher: Not catch, caught.

Student: Oh, ok.

2.5.2 Recasts

Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined recasts as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (p.46). Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) summarized some researchers' definitions of recasts and stated that recasts are "utterances that repeat a learner's incorrect utterance, making only the changes necessary to produce a correct utterance, without changing the meaning" (pp.732-733). The degree of noticeability of recasts can vary according to the context that they are used in as Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated:

> Recasts are generally implicit in that they are not introduced by phrases such as "You mean," "Use this word," and "You should say." However, some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. (p.47)

Ellis et al. (2006, p. 353) give the following example of a recast:

Learner: …they saw and follow follow follow him

Researcher: Followed

Learner: Followed him and attacked him.

Oliver and Mackey (2003, p. 519) exemplified recasts as follows:

Student: Why did you fell down?

Teacher: Why did you fall down?

Student: Fall down, yes.

2.5.3 Clarification Requests

This feedback type involves expressions such as “Pardon me” and “What do you mean by X?” to indicate the existence of a problem in terms of “comprehensibility or accuracy, or both” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Lightbown and Spada (2006, p. 126) gave the following example of a clarification request:

Teacher: How often do you wash the dishes?

Student: Fourteen.

Teacher: Excuse me. (Clarification request)

Student: Fourteen.

Teacher: Fourteen what? (Clarification request)

Student: Fourteen for a week.

Teacher: Fourteen times a week? (Recast)

Student: Yes. Lunch and dinner.

2.5.4 Metalinguistic Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 47) stated that “Metalinguistic feedback contains comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.” Also, they indicated that metalinguistic comments direct students’ attention to the existence of errors through the following expressions: “Can you find your error?”, “No, not X”, or “No” (p.47). Additionally, they explained metalinguistic information and metalinguistic questions as follows:

> Metalinguistic information generally provides either some grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error (e.g., It's masculine") or a word definition in the case of lexical errors. Metalinguistic questions also point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student (e.g., "Is it feminine"?) (p.47).

Additionally, Nassaji and Fotos (2011) explained MF as follows:

> Metalinguistic feedback refers to feedback that provides the learner with metalinguistic comments (i.e. comments about language) in the form of a statement or a question about the correctness of an utterance. This feedback may either simply involve metalinguistic hints or clues about the location or the nature of the error (e.g., "Can you correct the verb?" or "You need an adverb.") or it may include metalinguistic explanation in conjunction with correction (p. 77).

Ellis et al. (2006, p. 353) provided the example below to show the nature of the metalinguistic feedback:

Learner: He kiss her.

Researcher: Kiss- you need past tense.

Learner: He kissed.

Another example for MF came from Lightbown and Spada (2006, p. 127):

Student: We look at the people yesterday.

Teacher: What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?

Student: e-d

Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p. 77) provided the following example for MF:

Student: I see him in the office yesterday.

Teacher: You need a past tense. (Metalinguistic clue)

2.5.5 Elicitation

Teachers follow this technique for the elicitation of target-like (accurate) use of the linguistic form from the student directly. Teachers do this with no fewer than three techniques. First, the teacher pauses intentionally to trigger learners to complete the missing parts of his/her own utterance (e.g. He washed the…). Second, the teacher, in order to get the correct form from the learners, poses questions such as, "How do we say X in French?" Third, the teacher sometimes

asks learners for the reformulation of what they uttered (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48). Elicitation can be exemplified as in the following:

Student: My father cleans the plate.

Teacher: Excuse me, *he cleans the???*

Student: Plates?

(Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 127)

Nassaji and Fotos (2011) gave the example for elicitation as follows:

Student: She easily catched the girl.

Teacher: She catched the girl? I'm sorry, say that again.

2.5.6 Repetition

With this feedback type, the teacher repeats the student's incorrect utterance and this process is mostly accompanied by teachers' rising intonation to emphasize the occurrence of an error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The example of repetition is presented below:

Student: He's in the bathroom.

Teacher: *Bathroom?* Bedroom. He's in the bedroom.

(Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 127)

2.6 Metalinguistic Feedback and Recasts

The current study focuses on two feedback types, namely recasts and MF, and for this reason comparing their features under a separate title helps to gain more insights into them. The studies in the literature differentiate between MF and recasts from different perspectives. First, MF and recasts are defined within the framework of explicit and implicit feedback types respectively (e.g. Ellis, 2015; Lyster et al., 2013). Although there is a general acceptance of recasts as being an implicit feedback type, there are some debates as to its' degree of implicitness (see Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006). Some researchers (e.g. Ellis &

Sheen, 2006; Nassaji, 2015; Sheen, 2004, 2006) underline that different factors can lead recasts to be more explicit. Nassaji (2015) explains:

> …although recasts can be relatively considered an implicit type of feedback, the degree of implicitness of recasts can greatly vary depending on a number of factors, including its mode, length, the number of corrections, the context, the nature of the error targeted, etc. (p.58).

Some other researchers (e.g. Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Nassaji, 2015), by pointing to the length of recasts, emphasize that recasts, when used in shorter forms, are more effective to draw learners attention to the forms as they are more explicit in comparison to long recasts. Some studies (e.g. Nassaji, 2009) also highlight the superiority of explicit types of recasts (e.g. combined with more stress and rising intonation) over the implicit ones (e.g. direct reformulation without any emphasis). These comments are in line with the fact that no matter how implicit recasts are, there is an occurrence of explicit learning when they are identified by the learners as a form of corrective feedback (DeKeyser, 2017). As for MF, this type of feedback is different from recasts as it emphasizes the occurrence of errors more directly and triggers learners to self-repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nassaji, 2015). Also, some researchers (e.g. Ellis et al., 2006) state that MF appears to be more effective than recasts in terms of raising their awareness about the difference between their erroneous utterance and the target like form. Second, the difference between the two feedback types was also explained through their input-providing and output-prompting nature. While recasts were defined as an input-providing feedback type, MF was defined as an output-prompting one (e.g. Adams et al., 2011; Ellis, 2008; Ellis, 2015; Long, 2007). Pawlak (2014) explains that input-providing feedback (i.e. recasts) provides learners with both positive and negative evidence. He also states that output-prompting type of feedback (i.e. MF) includes negative evidence and requires learners to produce uptake in response to the feedback. Considering the different features of these two feedback types, researchers designed studies which compared the effectiveness of them on the acquisition of different linguistic structures. For instance, Sheen (2007) investigated the role of MF and recasts on the learning of English articles. In her study, MF combined with direct correction proved to be more effective than recasts. Additionally, Ellis et al. (2006) compared the effectiveness of MF and recasts on the acquisition of the regular past tense of English. Similar to Sheen's findings, MF was found to be more effective than recasts. Additionally, Ellis (2007) researched the roles of MF and recasts for the learning

of two different grammar structures, namely, regular past tense and comparative –er. The findings revealed that MF was more effective than recasts in facilitating target structure learning. Contrary to this, Loewen and Nabei (2007) did not find any significant difference between the effects of MF and recasts on the acquisition of English question formation. Another study was conducted by Goo (2012) who investigated the effects of MF and recasts on the acquisition of English that-trace filter. The results revealed that the effects of the two feedback types were nearly equal. The controversial results of different studies call for more research on the effectiveness of these two feedback types.

Another noteworthy issue is that the majority of the studies in the literature include designs in which recasts and MF were provided by teachers. However, this current study compares these two feedback types using peer feedback. As recasts and MF were provided to students by their peers rather than their teachers, this gave students an opportunity to evaluate their role in L2 learning from a different angle. Although there are different factors that affect the implicitness of recasts, this study, like Sato and Lyster's (2012), addresses recasts as an input-providing feedback type rather than an implicit feedback type. The reason behind this is the fact that the learners in this study were given training, and so no matter how implicit feedback type recasts are, it is thought that they became explicit for this study's participants. Moreover, this study addresses MF as an output-prompting feedback type as it triggers learners to self-correct their errors. That is to say, the effectiveness of these two feedback types was not compared on the continuum of implicitness or explicitness but rather to their input-providing and output-prompting nature.

2.7 Uptake in Corrective Feedback

One of the important components of this current research is the term "uptake." Uptake was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as follows:

> 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 (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher's specific linguistic focus may not be) (p.49).

Similarly, Loewen (2004, p. 154) defined uptake as "a student's response to the provision of information (generally by the teacher) about a linguistic form that the student has produced incorrectly." In their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 49) coded uptake in two ways:

a) uptake that results in *repair* of the error on which the feedback focused

b) uptake that results in an utterance that still *needs repair*.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001, p. 299) distinguished the terms as "successful" and "unsuccessful" uptake. When a learner produced an accurate form of the target structure after receiving feedback, this was called as successful uptake. When a learner could not correct his/her incorrect production or did not show any intention to correct their sentence after receiving feedback, it was called an unsuccessful uptake (Ellis et al. 2001). Panova and Lyster (2002, p. 578) made inferences based on observational research in classrooms on feedback and uptake, and formed nine items. The three of these items are listed below:

- Learner repair immediately following feedback can be either repetition or learner-generated repair, depending on the type of feedback used.

- In comparison with other feedback types, recasts do not promote immediate learner repair, which, in the case of recasts, involves repetition.

- The corrective techniques of clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition of error correlate more positively with learner uptake and immediate repair, and, in these cases, the repair is learner generated.

In recent years a growing body of research (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004, 2005; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Smith, 2005) has shown increasing interest in uptake in the field of SLA. Most of the studies focus on the relationship between uptake rates and corrective feedback types. For instance, Panova and Lyster (2002) designed a study to see what kinds of feedback for errors teachers use and what the rate of uptake is produced in response to feedback. With this purpose, they analyzed 10 hours of interactional patterns of teachers with adult ESL learners. The researchers reported that teachers opted to mostly use recasts and translation. Therefore, the other feedback types which trigger learners to self-correct their own errors were not encountered much during the analysis. While the uptake rate for clarification requests, elicitation, repetition was 100%, and

71% for metalinguistic feedback, the uptake rate was 40% for recasts, 33% for explicit correction and 21% for translation. The percentages of repairs in relation to feedback types were respectively: recasts (13%), translation (4%), explicit correction (0%), repetition (83%), elicitation (73%), metalinguistic feedback (29%), and clarification requests (23%). The total number of uptakes and repaired utterances were reported to be low. The researchers indicated that recasts and translations directly give the correct version, and so they do not trigger the learners to self-repair. However, the learners are stimulated to produce target-like uptake by metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification request as they hold the correct version and prompt students to self-correct.

Additionally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigated feedback types and uptake rates in their study, and with this purpose in mind, they looked at 18.3 hours of interactions between teachers and students. One of their goals was to find out the relation between various feedback types and uptake. They identified six different feedback types respectively—*explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition*. One of the crucial findings of their study was that elicitation and metalinguistic feedback led to more learner repair—in other words, production of target-like uptake—when compared to other feedback types. Although recasts were the most commonly used type of feedback by teachers, they were found to be the least successful feedback type to result in uptake containing repaired utterances.

Some other studies investigated uptake by also taking into account the educational context. For example, Sheen (2004) researched how feedback and uptake varied from one instructional context to another. The main focus of the study was on the instructional settings of Canadian immersion, Canada's ESL, New Zealand's ESL and Korea's EFL. The findings showed that the most preferred type of feedback by teachers was recasts in all four contexts. Moreover, the frequency of uptake and uptake in repair that were given as a response to the recasts was higher in New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL classes when compared to Canadian settings. Noteworthy in their study was that "the extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake and repair may be greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient, as with reduced/partial recasts, and where students are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning" (p. 263). Put differently, the degree of explicitness in recasts affects the rate of

uptake. As for Ellis et al. (2001), they transcribed 12 hours of meaning focused ESL lessons in New Zealand to analyze uptake instances in focus-on-form episodes (FFEs) and they found high rates of uptake which were reported to be generally successful (74.1%). When both student and teacher initiated FFEs were taken into account, the former one led to more uptakes that are successful. They also pointed to the instructional setting as one of the variables that may affect the rate of uptake. Furthermore, Loewen (2004) considered uptake from different variables by conducting a research study to analyze patterns of uptake in ESL classes based on meaning focused instruction in L2 classes. Obtained results indicated that "uptake occurred in these classes and that characteristics such as complexity, timing, and type of feedback influenced both the production of uptake and the successfulness of it" (p.153).

A possible positive relationship between learners' target-like uptake and L2 acquisition is another issue that triggers researchers' curiosity (see Ellis et al; 2001; Loewen, 2004, 2005; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Ohta, 2000; Smith, 2005). To begin, Lyster (1998), by referring to the studies of Pica, Holliday, Lewis and Morgenthaler (1989) and Swain (1993, 1995), stated that successful uptake could be facilitative for L2 acquisition "by drawing learners' attention to form during communicative interaction in ways that allowed them to re-analyze and modify their non-target output as they tested new hypotheses about the target language" (p.191). Furthermore, Schmidt (1990, 2001), in his Noticing Hypothesis, highlighted the importance of noticing for L2 learning to take place. Loewen (2004), by emphasizing this main tenet of the Noticing Hypothesis, stated that uptake may be seen as evidence of noticing the target language structure. Nevertheless, he also added that the absence of uptake does not indicate the absence of noticing. Lightbown (1998) explained the link between uptake, noticing and acquisition by stating "a reformulated utterance from the learner gives some reason to believe that the mismatch between learner utterance and target utterance has been noticed, a step at least toward acquisition" (p.193). Furthermore, Egi (2010) by using stimulated recalls, reported that when learners produced target-like uptake in response to recasts they received, they also indicated that they realized the hole between their interlanguage and target language forms. Remembering the important role of noticing in L2 acquisition, it was suggested that the findings may offer insights about the relationship between the uptake and L2 acquisition.

These kind of discussions have led some researchers to research uptake's effectiveness on L2 acquisition. For instance, Smith (2005), by adopting a pre-, post- and delayed post-test design, questioned whether there was a relationship between ESL learners' uptake and target L2 vocabulary acquisition by analyzing learner-learner interactions through CMC (computer mediated communication). The findings indicated no relationship between the acquisition of target vocabulary items and uptake that both resulted in "repair" and "needs repair". However, Loewen (2005) provided valuable insights related to the possible benefits of uptake in L2 acquisition by analyzing incidental focus on form episodes. At the end of the study, production of target-like uptake by students predicted learners' accurate answer rates to the test items. Nevertheless, more research studies that look at learner uptake from different perspectives need to be conducted.

Considering the aforementioned discussions and studies, this current study intends to add to the literature by focusing on uptake rates in relation to peer feedback. In most uptake studies, uptake was handled as a kind of reaction given as a response to the teacher's feedback. This study considers the term uptake as a learner's reaction immediately following his/her peer's feedback not the teacher's. As the study's aim is to descriptively report the occurrence of uptake in learner-learner interactional patterns, the relationship between uptake and L2 acquisition is beyond the scope of this study. Considering some studies (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta; 1997), students' uptake is categorized as "target-like uptake (successful)", "non-target-like uptake (unsuccessful)" and "no uptake". Target-like uptake refers to the correct production of the forms after receiving target-like peer feedback. Non-target-like uptake refers to learners' incorrect production (e.g. committing the same or a different error) in response to target-like peer feedback. And lastly, no-uptake is defined as no production after receiving target-like peer feedback and continuing with the task. The degrees of uptake are used to see the uptake rates alone as well as the uptake rates in relation to different feedback types in learner-learner interactional patterns. This study also attempts to find out whether learners who are provided with peer feedback are able to make use of it.

2.8 Form Focused Instruction and Corrective Feedback

Ellis (2001, pp. 1-2) defined FFI as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form." Another definition came from Spada (1997) who defined the concept as "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly. This can include the direct teaching of language (e.g., through grammatical rules) and/or reactions to learners' errors (e.g., corrective feedback)" (p. 73). Underlining that FFI calls for learners' special attention to language related structures and so functions as an umbrella term for concepts like focus-on-form/forms, Ellis (2001, p. 17) classifies FFI into three main types as the table below shows:

Table 1

Types of Form-focused Instruction

Type of FFI	Primary Focus	Distribution
1. Focus-on-forms	Form	Intensive
2. Planned focus-on-form	Meaning	Intensive
3. Incidental focus-on-form	Meaning	Extensive

Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning, 51*(1), 1-46.

Focus-on-forms refers to focusing on previously determined language forms intensely (Ellis, 2001). Also, according to Doughty and Williams (1998), focus-on-forms "always entails isolation or extraction of linguistic features from context or from communicative activity" (p. 3). As for focus-on-form, Long (1991) underscored that it "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (pp. 45-46). Ellis (2001) classified "focus-on-form" into two types: "planned focus-on-form" and "incidental focus-on-form". In planned focus on form, learners' attention becomes more focused because one language structure that is determined prior to the class is touched upon many times during the intensive classroom interaction. On the other hand, incidental focus-on-form does not focus on only one linguistic form but various language-related forms which are not pre-selected. In incidental focus on form, learners' attention is drawn to the forms as they occur spontaneously (Ellis, 2001).

Yang and Lyster (2010) stated that in FFI learners meet the target language structures either through communicative tasks in which the target structures are inserted or through meaningful interaction. Yang and Lyster (2010), by drawing upon some other studies (e.g. Harley & Swain, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990), stated the problems of L2 learners who were given a great amount of language input but could not produce target-like grammar in their utterances. Therefore, considering the studies of Day and Shapson (2001) and Lyster (2004b), they suggested that using communicative tasks which incorporate target forms of the language may be helpful to improve accurate grammar use. According to Loewen (2014), interactions that are solely based on meaning can be beneficial in improving fluency; however, if these interactions do not draw learners' attention to accurate language forms, then they may not improve accuracy. Therefore, to inform learners of their inaccurate uses of the target forms, the communicative interactions in FFI can include corrective feedback as a "reactive focus-on-form" type which may come either in implicit or explicit form (Ellis, 2001, p. 23). As corrective feedback is one of the components of FFI (Ellis, 2001; Spada, 1997), interactional feedback can be helpful in raising learners' awareness of target language grammar structures during meaning focused activities (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Also, proponents of FFI suggest that feedback that is provided to learners' non-target like utterances not only raises their awareness about the hole in their interlanguage but also leads them to attend more to the target linguistic structures (Trendak, 2014). The beneficial effects of corrective feedback that is embedded in FFI have also been reported in various studies (e.g. Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Lyster, 2004a). In most of these studies, corrective feedback was provided by teachers during classroom interaction with a specific focus on the target form. This current study included pre-designed communicative activities which required the use of the target grammar structure during learner-learner interactions and investigated the effects of corrective feedback given by learners to their peers' errors regarding the target grammar forms.

2.9 Peer Interaction and Peer Corrective Feedback

Interaction in its most general and simplest form "refers to the conversations that learners participate in" (Gass and Mackey, 2007, p.178), and peer interaction is defined as "any communicative activity carried out between learners, where there is minimal or no

participation from the teacher. This can include cooperative and collaborative learning, peer tutoring, and other forms of help from peers" (Philp et al., 2014, p.3). In a similar vein, Foster and Ohta (2005) point to the learners' encouraging and supportive attitude to their peers while doing interactive activities together. Learner-learner interaction, being different from learner-native speaker or learner-teacher interaction (Sato & Ballinger, 2016), creates an atmosphere in which L2 learners gather to learn together (Philp et al., 2014). These evaluations underline the effective role of peer interactions in creating a collaborative learning context in which each learner contributes to the learning of the others. In addition to this, different researchers evaluate the benefits of peer interaction from different angles. For instance, Harmer (2007) and Philp et al. (2010) indicate that through peer interaction, each student in class gets the chance to express their own ideas by using the language and practicing what has been learned many times. The opportunity to practice language, when considered within the framework of skill acquisition theories, may lead declarative knowledge to turn into procedural knowledge (Devos, 2016; McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996). Furthermore, through peer interaction, time allocated for individual talk becomes greater and the learners get the opportunity to become more autonomous as the teacher's intervention is decreased when they are involved in pair work (Harmer, 2007). Also, Harmer (2007, p.165) reminds readers of the quotation that "two heads are better than one" which emphasizes that learners can learn better by working together rather than working alone. Philp et al. (2014, p. 20) itemize the ways through which learners discover and experience the language during their interaction as they:

a) try to express what they know;

b) revise the language form they know in response to difficulties;

c) revise by referring to their collective knowledge about the language;

d) practice and appropriate the formulaic language learned in class for communication.

It is also noteworthy to add that when learners interact with each other they get the chance to "modify their output, focus on their interlanguage grammar, notice the gaps in their language system, and create more complex target-like forms" (Morris, 2002, p.395). Moreover, peer interventions have complementary and compensatory functions for classes in which the interaction is teacher-fronted (Philp et al., 2010).

Another point that is noteworthy in relation to peer interaction is peer corrective feedback. Considering the fact that students mostly desire to be given feedback to their errors (Brown, 2007; Schulz, 1996), peer feedback occurring during learners' interactions can help learners to be informed about their accurate and inaccurate productions in the target language (Gass & Mackey, 2007). To put it another way, it can be said that peer interactions open doors for learners to get the chance to receive feedback for their non-target-like uses. In this regard, learners may take advantage of interactions with their peers by being both feedback receivers and providers (Adams et al., 2011; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015).

It is important to note here that although teacher CF has been investigated in detail through both experimental and non-experimental studies, the studies on peer CF have generally been descriptive in nature (Lyster et al., 2013). In the literature, there are numerous studies which researched the effectiveness of oral CF provided by teachers on learners' second language development (e.g. Ammar & Spada, 2006; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Dilans, 2010; Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Goo, 2012; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster, 2004a; Mackey, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010); however, the number of studies that investigated the role of oral PCF on the improvement of L2 (e.g. Adams, 2007; Chu 2013; Sato and Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) is not very satisfying. Put differently, research related to the use of corrective feedback has been generally confined to the analysis of teacher-student interactions which creates the perception that error correction is the responsibility of teachers (Ohta, 2000). Likewise, Yoshida (2008a) states that there are very few studies that look at the role of corrective feedback from the viewpoint of learner-learner interactions when compared to studies which handle the topic of teacher-learner interactions. Given this fact, more comprehensive studies, especially experimental ones, need to be conducted on peer corrective feedback (PCF).

Most PI and PF studies typically focused on whether learners could provide each other with feedback or produce modified output, though some of them compared NS-learner dyads with learner-learner dyads to analyze interactional patterns and find similarities and differences between them. Many of these studies concluded that learners were able to provide corrective feedback to each other's errors during their interaction (see Bruton & Samuda, 1980; Garcia-Mayo & Pica, 2000; Gass &Varonis, 1989; Mackey et al., 2003). With the emergence of the interaction hypothesis and sociocultural theory, the question of whether learner-learner

interaction promotes second language learning or not has generated interest among SLA researchers (Devos, 2016). Therefore, with this curiosity in mind, some researchers like McDonough (2004) and Adams (2007) investigated the effects of peer interaction and feedback on the learning of certain linguistic features. These two researchers stressed the positive effects of PCF on facilitating target language form learning. Despite all of these studies, the SLA field lacks experimental studies related to the effects of peer interaction and peer feedback on target language learning. Moreover, the number of studies (e.g. Chu 2013; Sato and Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) that incorporates training learners to provide oral corrective feedback to each other in the course of interaction is very limited. As these concepts demand more comprehensive studies, this current study incorporates both descriptive and quasi-experimental designs to find out more about peer interaction and peer feedback.

2.10 Learners' Perceptions on Peer Interaction and Peer Feedback

The number of studies considering the perceptions of teachers and learners with respect to error correction in both EFL and SLA contexts is not very satisfying (Schulz, 1996). On this basis, researchers like Plonsky and Mills (2006) point to the need for studies related to the beliefs of learners about issues such as error correction, pair work, etc. Considering this, studies which center on learners' beliefs about error correction is focused on in this section. Various studies (e.g. Bang, 1999; Brown, 2009; Casciani & Rapallino, 1991) highlight learners' beliefs about the necessity of error correction for their learning. According Schulz's (1996) findings, using a survey of learners (n= 824) related to explicit grammar instruction and corrective feedback in foreign language settings, ninety percent of learners wanted to be given corrections for the errors that they committed during their oral production. Similarly, in another study conducted in 2001, Schulz reported Colombian EFL students' positive attitudes toward grammar correction. According to Brown's (2009) survey results, students show positive tendencies towards grammar instruction and correction and also believe that effective teachers are those who give immediate corrective feedback to students' speaking errors. In a similar vein, Oladejo (1993) looked at ESL students' attitudes towards error correction from the perspective of Hendrickson's (1978) oft-quoted questions: "Should learners' errors be corrected?, When should learners' errors be corrected?, Which errors should be corrected?,

How should errors be corrected?, Who should do the correcting?" Survey findings revealed that most students wished to get correction in response to their errors. One of the survey items was that "Constant error correction can cause frustration and discourage the learner from using the language" and for this item 80% of students showed their disagreement. This is further evidence of students' positive attitudes towards error correction. Additionally, more than 96% of students wanted to receive error correction on their grammar related errors. As for the frequency of correction for grammatical errors, most students preferred to "always" receive corrections. Furthermore, the majority of students preferred their grammar errors to be corrected by their teachers. On this survey, students were also asked to choose among five correction techniques. The item "error+cues for self correction" was preferred by the majority of students. In other words, most of the students wanted to get some clues regarding their errors and then self-correct their own errors.

A variety of studies have revealed that learners have positive perceptions of the role of error correction (Loewen et al., 2009). However, there are only a few studies which focus on learners' perceptions in regards to "peer interaction" and "peer feedback". For instance, Chenoweth, Day, Chun and Luppescu (1983) gave a questionnaire to English language learners (n= 418) to get their ideas about the error correction they received from their native English speaking peers. Learners had generally positive perceptions of the error correction they received. Learners thought that error correction was vital because it was helpful in fostering their English speaking abilities. The findings of the interviews conducted by Philp et al. (2010, p.275) at the end of peer interactions also yielded valuable insights. Learners not only felt more relaxed during pair or group work, but they also felt less anxious and less worried about making errors while communicating with their peers instead of with their teacher. Despite these positive effects, most learners reported being unwilling to provide feedback to their peers' errors because of their concerns about issues like their "self-efficacy" or "L2 proficiency".

Yoshida (2008a) analyzed the transcribed interactions of three university-level learners of Japanese and used observation technique and stimulated recall interviews to clearly understand leaners' perceptions related to PCF. The findings showed that learners realized the gap between their own production and target-like forms after peer correction; however,

learners could not always properly understand their peers' corrections even though they sometimes produced uptake in response to the feedback they received. It was also noted that there was a correlation between the level of satisfaction and whether students felt they benefitted from peer interaction and feedback. That is to say, when learners were dissatisfied with their roles (e.g. being a novice or expert in pair work) in interactions with their peers, interaction and feedback were not very beneficial to them. For instance, one of the students expressed her anger with her partner's overcorrection, and therefore she indicated that she could not learn very well with her partner.

Another study on learners' reflection about peer interaction was undertaken by Tulung (2008) who reported the positive perceptions of students related to peer interaction in her study. First, students indicated that peer interaction gave them courage to express themselves and increased their self-confidence while speaking. Second, they felt safe as there was a collaborative atmosphere in which they helped each other. Third, they reported that peer interaction contributed to their learning.

Furthermore, Sato (2013) carried out a study to find out the beliefs of L2 learners about peer interaction and PCF by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. He wondered whether the implementation would have an effect on the learners' beliefs. With this question in mind, he included four groups in his study. Two of them were trained to provide feedback to each other during their interactions. The third group was given peer interaction training and participated only in peer interaction tasks, and the last group acted as a control. As the researcher's purpose was to see the effects of the intervention on the beliefs of students, he delivered questionnaires to the learners prior to and after the implementation period and interviewed randomly chosen learners. The results indicated that students had positive beliefs about peer interaction and peer feedback at the beginning of the study and their beliefs in terms of seeing their peers as reliable learning resources were strengthened by the implementation adopted in the study. Additionally, the findings indicated that the students who had CF training had an increased sense of confidence and desire to correct one another's errors. Moreover, Chu (2013) considered learners' attitudes toward peer feedback in his study which centered on the effect of peer feedback in developing speaking performance. After getting students' views about peer feedback, she concluded that students could provide

feedback to their classmates during their interactions and that they generally showed eagerness to provide their peers with feedback.

Sippel (2017) compared the effectiveness of peer interaction, peer interaction accompanied by FFI, and peer interaction accompanied by both form FFI and PCF. Sippel used semi-structured interviews to get students' ideas about peer interaction and peer feedback. Sippel noted that students' reflections on the aforementioned issues were mostly positive and most of them thought that taking part in an interaction with their peers was enjoyable and more relaxed than teacher-learner interactions. This study also found that peer interaction gave students more opportunities to practice the language when compared to teacher-fronted classes. Most of the students stated that their partners' errors did not affect their learning negatively. Moreover, students not only wanted their errors to be corrected but also said that both providing and receiving feedback was helpful for their learning. However, a small number of students indicated their discomfort about being paired with a classmate whose proficiency level was higher than their own. Additionally, one student in the PI group complained about the lack of error correction during peer interaction. Another student mentioned being reluctant to speak as he was an introverted person. The study also noted that the relationship between learners was one of the factors that affected the amount of peer feedback during interaction. For instance, one student indicated that she provided more correction when her partner was a person she knew well, but did not give much feedback to the peer that she did not know well. Considering all of these reports by different studies, this study conducted interviews with members of each group to understand their perceptions of peer interaction and peer feedback in order to enrich the literature on these issues.

2.11 Previous Research on Peer Interaction and Peer Corrective Feedback

This section provides a detailed overview of the studies related to peer interaction and peer feedback. As has been mentioned previously, work on corrective feedback has been primarily focused on teacher-learner interactions (Lyster et al., 2013; Ohta, 2000; Yoshida, 2008b). The number of studies that center on PCF during learner-learner interactions is not adequate enough (Ohta, 2000, Yoshida, 2008a) and, as underlined by Lyster et al. (2013), most of these

studies are descriptive in nature (e.g. whether students can provide each other with corrective feedback during communicative tasks). For instance, Gass and Varonis (1989) studied the learner-learner interactional patterns of 20 Japanese students who were learning English. They reported that learners noticed accurate and inaccurate language uses during their interactions with their peers and they could give corrective feedback to one another. Likewise, Bruton and Samuda (1980) recorded adult learners' interactions and indicated that students were capable of providing feedback to each other despite not being trained by their teachers in feedback provision. However, the study highlighted that not every incorrect language use was corrected by the learners. The study also noted that picking up their interlocutors' incorrect uses in the course of interaction and incorporating them into their own utterances were seldomly encountered situations.

In an extended study, Garcia-Mayo and Pica (2000) compared learner-learner interactions and native speaker-learner interactions in communicative tasks. The participants were advanced EFL learners. When their interactional patterns were analyzed, it was seen that there were not any significant differences between the two groups' interactional patterns. The study also reported that, although not occurring frequently, learners were able to provide each other with modified input and corrective feedback during their communication. They concluded by stating that "advanced EFL learners appear to be a suitable resource to each other's L2 learning" (p.278). Similarly, Mackey et al. (2003) looked at the interactional patterns of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS dyads by including both adults and children in their study. They especially focused on the analysis of feedback and modified output. They reported that at least 30% of errors received target-like feedback in all dyads and much of this feedback resulted in modified output. When the dyads of adults (NS-NNS and NNS-NNS) were considered, it was seen that NS adults offered more corrective feedback than NNS adult learners. Contrary to this, in the child dyads (NS-NNS and NNS-NNS), no considerable difference was found in terms of the amount of feedback provided by NSs and NNSs. Mackey et al. did not investigate the effects of corrective feedback on the improvement of L2; however, they stated that their findings supported the ideas of some previous researchers (e.g. Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Swain, 1995) who asserted the possible positive impacts of feedback during interaction.

There are also studies which have investigated whether learner-learner interactions can promote target language form learning. For instance, McDonough (2004) wondered whether pair and group interactions could help learners improve their use of the target language structure "conditional clauses". Communicative tasks used in the study required learners to produce conditional clauses and their interactions were audio-recorded. While analyzing the transcribed data, the researchers focused on language features (e.g. negative feedback, modified output) that were believed to promote L2 learning. To measure whether there was improvement in the use of conditional clauses, pre- post-, and delayed post-tests were administered to the learners. The findings revealed that more exposure to negative feedback and production of modified output during interactions increased learners' accurate use of the target language form. Additionally, learners' attitudes towards the implementation was investigated and it was noted that learners' perception regarding the benefits of the pair and group activities was not positive.

Although they are very few in number, some studies investigated the effects of peer feedback during peer interaction on the learning of L2. For instance, Adams et al. (2011) researched the effects of recasts and explicit feedback in learner-learner interactions on the learning of two grammatical structures: the simple past tense and locatives. They tried to find out whether there is a correlation between the amount of feedback and target form learning. Therefore, they used pre-, post- and delayed post-test design in their study. These tests were composed of oral tests and untimed GJTs to measure the gains respectively in productive and explicit knowledge. The study did not present adequate evidence to show a correlation among recasts, learners' modified responses and learning of the target linguistic structures. The researchers also found a negative correlation between the learning of the past tense and explicit feedback. In other words, there was no adequate sign to show that recasts and explicit feedback improved the past tense learning. The authors only found a significant positive correlation between recasts and delayed oral test scores related to the use of locatives. The authors commented that "feedback may not play as important a role in learner-learner interaction as it plays in NS-learner interactions" (p. 56). Another issue that they pointed out was that there were instances where inaccurate feedback was provided. The study also underlined that the

students were not trained to provide feedback to each other. Therefore, the researchers argued that this may have led some of the students to focus on meaning rather than accuracy.

A few researchers (e.g. Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017), wondered whether training learners to give feedback to each other could have positive effects on target language learning. Therefore, they incorporated learner training in their studies to teach learners how to provide corrective feedback to each other's errors during their interactions. To begin with, Sato and Lyster (2012) conducted a quasi-experimental study with university-level English learners in Japan. These researchers wanted to see the effects of peer interaction and corrective feedback on the development of a second language. With this aim in mind, they developed four groups. The first two groups were assigned to be corrective feedback groups. One group was given training on how to provide prompts and the other one was taught how to provide recasts to their peers' errors. The third group was the peer-interaction only group and the last one was the control group. The peer interaction group participated in information-exchange activities with their pairs and did not receive any feedback training. Modeling, practice, and use in context phases were put into use in order to teach the corrective feedback groups how to provide feedback to their peers. 1.5 hours per week was devoted to the study over 10 weeks. In order to see whether there was an improvement in L2 learning or not, they used two tasks. The first task was given both at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The second task was only administered at the end of the semester. Task 1 required students to describe different sets of pictures for the pre and post-tests. Task 2 was a decision making task and employed at the end of the semester only. At the end of the study, the researchers reported improvement for the corrective feedback groups in terms of both accuracy and fluency measures. However, the peer-interaction-only group was better than the control group in terms of only fluency measures. Another important finding of the study was that peer interaction promoted proceduralization. Additionally, corrective feedback training gave learners more control of both their own production and their peers'.

Moreover, Chu (2013) carried out a study to find out the effects of peer feedback on the speaking skills of 7th and 8th grade high school EFL learners in Taiwan. With this purpose, students were taught different feedback types as categorized by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and were asked to use the feedback type they preferred during communication activities with their

peers. The study employed a pre- and post-test design, and did not include any control groups. Learners' performance was tested through an information gap task and a picture based task which were evaluated according to both analytic and holistic scoring procedures. The information gap task findings indicate that both groups of learners showed improvement from pre- to post-test. As for the picture-based task, 7th year students' gain scores increased from pre- to post -test in terms of the holistic scores not the analytic ones. In addition to this, for 8th year students, no significant improvement was reported considering the results of the picture-based task. Chu reported that learners' speaking skill was facilitated as the post-test results showed. Nevertheless, the source of the improvement in speaking was not clear: Was it because of PI or PF? After the analysis of peer interactions, Chu identified seven types of peer feedback such as translation, confirmation, completion, explicit indication, explanation and recasts. Chu stated that the most commonly used feedback types by the students were explicit correction and translation.

Sippel and Jackson (2015) compared the effects of oral teacher feedback and oral peer feedback on the learning of the German present perfect tense. There were three groups in their study: 1) teacher feedback group, 2) peer feedback group 3) control group. While the first group received teacher feedback for their errors related to the use of the German present perfect tense, the second group received feedback from their peers. In other words, the students in this group were trained on how to provide feedback to each other. An oral task and an untimed GJT were conducted as pre-, post-, and delayed post-test. The findings indicated that both teacher and peer feedback facilitated the accurate use of the target grammar structure. However, the positive effects of peer feedback were bigger than that of the teacher feedback. The researchers underlined that peer feedback was effective in drawing learners' attention to the target linguistic structures and this process had a facilitative role in their learning as they acted as both providers and receivers of feedback. They highlighted the beneficial role of peer feedback as a pedagogical instrument in L2 classes.

Sippel (2017) investigated the effects of FFI and peer feedback on facilitating the learning of target grammar form and vocabulary (German present perfect tense and German nouns) respectively. Three groups were included in the study: the peer interaction group (PI), the peer interaction and form-focused instruction group (PI FFI) and lastly the peer interaction, form

focused instruction, and peer corrective feedback (PI FFI CF) group. The last two groups received FFI and the students in PI FFI CF were trained to provide feedback for their peers' errors related to the target structure. A pre-test and two post-tests were administered to determine the effects of the intervention. The general findings revealed that when PI was accompanied by FFI, it was very beneficial for promoting target form learning. Also, when PI FFI was combined with peer feedback, it was found to be more effective.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by introducing the research design of the study, then it provides detailed information about the participants. Next, it explains the reasons behind choosing the target grammar structure of the study. After that, the data collection procedure, instructional materials, and instruments for data collection are underlined, respectively. Finally, it gives comprehensive information about the process of scoring and analyzing testing instruments and coding and analyzing interactional data.

3.2 Research Design

This study employed both quasi-experimental and descriptive research designs. There were three groups which received different implementations. First, the quasi-experimental part of the study intended to compare the effects of the three different intervention types on promoting the learning of the target grammar forms. It was called quasi-experimental design because in quasi-experimental studies, like in the current study, the assignment of the participants to the groups is not at random (Check & Schutt, 2011). It may also be referred to as between-groups design study. Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 146) explained this as: "Many second language research studies involve a comparison between two or more groups. This is known as between-groups design." In order to measure the effects of the intervention on receptive and productive knowledge of the target forms, pre-, post-, and delayed post-measures were administered.

Second, the descriptive part of the study covered the transcription of the recordings of the students' communicative interactions with their peers in pairs. In doing so, it was intended to see whether the students could provide each other with corrective feedback and produce uptake after receiving target-like PCF to their target grammar errors. Therefore, the transcribed data were quantified and presented in frequency and percentage tables. Finally, semi-structured written interviews were conducted to gain deeper insights in terms of the intervention. These semi-structured written interviews included a list of questions that was prepared in advance. It was thought that getting students' ideas would be very useful to understand the strong and weak parts of learner-learner interactions and peer feedback.

3.3 Participants

This study was conducted at Necmettin Erbakan University School of Foreign Languages in Turkey. Participants were in the first-year preparatory program who were native speakers of Turkish and learning English as a foreign language. The students were among those who needed to attend a one-year compulsory preparatory school education program (25 hours per week) before starting classes in their subject areas. Three classes were involved in the study and prior to the study a consent form, which contained information about the study, was given to each student. Additionally, the researcher informed the students orally about the general procedures of the study. After this step, these three groups were administered the Cambridge English Key English Test for Schools: Sample Test 1 (2014) in order to see whether these three groups were similar to each other at the beginning of the study. Although the sample test covered 4 skills, participants in this study took only two parts of the test (i.e. reading and writing parts) due to time constraints. This test included 56 items and a total 1 hour and 10 minutes were allocated to the students to complete the test. The last part of the test (question 56) was composed of a 5-point writing question. The total points that a student could get from the test was 60. In order to see whether the test was reliable for that sample or not, it was first piloted to other preparatory class students (n= 87) from a similar sample. After collecting the piloted tests, Cronbach Alpha was calculated and found to be .881, which showed that the test was highly reliable. After the completion of the reliability analysis, the test was applied to the aforementioned three groups of students (n= 96). After the analysis of the results, outliers were

excluded from the study. There were 28 students in the PI group, 29 students in the PI+Recast group, and 28 students in the PI+MF group. That is to say, there were 85 students total. Again reliability analysis of the Cambridge key English test was calculated for those three groups' (n= 85) test results and Cronbach alpha was found to be .894. This again proved the high reliability of the test. The table below shows the descriptive statistics of the groups' Cambridge key English test (2014) results:

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics (Cambridge Key English Test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std
PI	28	27.36	10.004
PI+Recast	29	28.41	9.225
PI+MF	28	32.04	11.381

Based on the obtained results from Levene Statistic, it was seen that the variances were homogenous (p= .148>0.05). One-way Anova was run to see whether the groups were similar at the beginning. The table below shows the One-way Anova results of the Cambridge key English test of the groups:

Table 3

One-way Anova Results

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between groups	337.879	2	168.939	1.614	.205
Within groups	8582.427	82	104.664		
Total	8920.306	84			

The results of the analysis showed that the groups were similar prior to the study (p=.205>0.05). In addition to this, pre-test results of the receptive and productive measures of the study (see Chapter 4) supported the findings of the One-way Anova test results by showing that the groups were similar to each other at the beginning of the study.

Additionally, in order to gain more insights about the participants, students were given a background information form (Appendix A), which showed that participants had different majors including aircraft engineering, international relations, or aviation management. They

were composed of 55 male and 30 female students and their ages ranged from 17 to 23, with the majority being 18 or 19. The mean age of all students was 18.6 years. Most of the students (n= 51) graduated from Anatolian high schools and the rest of them graduated from a variety of high schools (e.g. private high schools, colleges). The length of the time that the students received English education was approximately the same for many of the students and the average number of years of formal English instruction was 8.62 years. The students indicated that they neither had lived in an English speaking country nor had been abroad to learn English. As mentioned earlier in the research design section, the classes were arbitrarily assigned to one of the three implementations as follows: 1) PI group, 2) PI+Recast group, 3) PI+ MF group. The participants started their education with an A2 level English course book. The researcher was one of the instructors for all three of the intervention classes and the implementation was carried out by the researcher in all of the groups. The study included learners who had prior knowledge of the target linguistic structure for a variety of reasons. First, it was intended to ensure that the students could communicate and do the given tasks with their peers by using the target grammar structure. Another purpose was to see the students' levels regarding the receptive and productive knowledge of the target structure. It was also intended to see whether the students had any problems in producing the target grammar structure even after they had been taught it. The most important reason for including learners with prior knowledge of the target forms was to find out whether peer interaction or peer interaction combined with peer feedback could take students a step further in terms of both reception and production of the target grammar form.

3.4 Target Linguistic Structure

The current study selected the simple past tense as a focus for a number of important reasons, with many problems related to the use of simple past tense being addressed by many researchers in their studies (e.g. Adams et al., 2011; Benati, 2005; Ellis et al., 2006; Hawkins & Liszka, 2003; Yang & Lyster, 2010). The simple past tense is one of the most problematic grammar structures for L2 learners to master no matter what their L1 is (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014). Despite the fact that learners are introduced to past tense at very early stages of their language education, learners' lack of complete control over the use of the simple past tense

even at higher levels has been underscored by many researchers (e.g. Adams et al., 2011; Ellis et al. 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010). Additionally, it is underlined by some researchers that although learners are good in terms of declarative knowledge of the target forms, this is not the case when procedural knowledge is taken into account (Han, 2002). Common problems for learners with the simple past tense are described below:

- Replacement of past tense forms with simple present forms (Ellis et al., 2006; Coelho, 2004; Collins, 2009).

e.g.: I see him last night. (Coelho, 2004, p.73)

- Inaccurate use of was, were (Collins, 2009)

e.g.: They was late. (Collins, 2009)

- Overgeneralization: Using regular past marking (-ed) for irregular verb inflection (Coelho, 2004; Collins, 2009)

e.g.: I forgetted to do my homework. (Coelho, 2004, p. 73)

- Using the second form of the main verb in the negative and interrogative past sentences (Collins, 2009)

e.g.: When did he went to the store? (Collins, 2009)

Taking into account all of these items, this study decided to focus on the simple past tense including both regular and irregular verb use with a specific reference to accuracy. Like in some other research studies (e.g. Adams et al., 2011; Ellis et al., 2006; Sato & Lyster, 2012), the learners who were already familiar with the target forms participated in the study. Rather than evaluating the effects of the intervention on a totally new L2 form, it was planned to see whether the intervention could increase the opportunity for learners to have more control over the target grammar form both in receptive and productive terms.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The current study's data were collected in the fall term of the 2016-2017 academic year. As previously mentioned, there were three groups in this study: 1) PI group, 2) PI+Recast group,

3) PI+MF group. As noted earlier, a background information form and Cambridge Key English test were administered to the groups at the beginning of the study. After these steps were completed, the implementation process started as presented in the figure below:

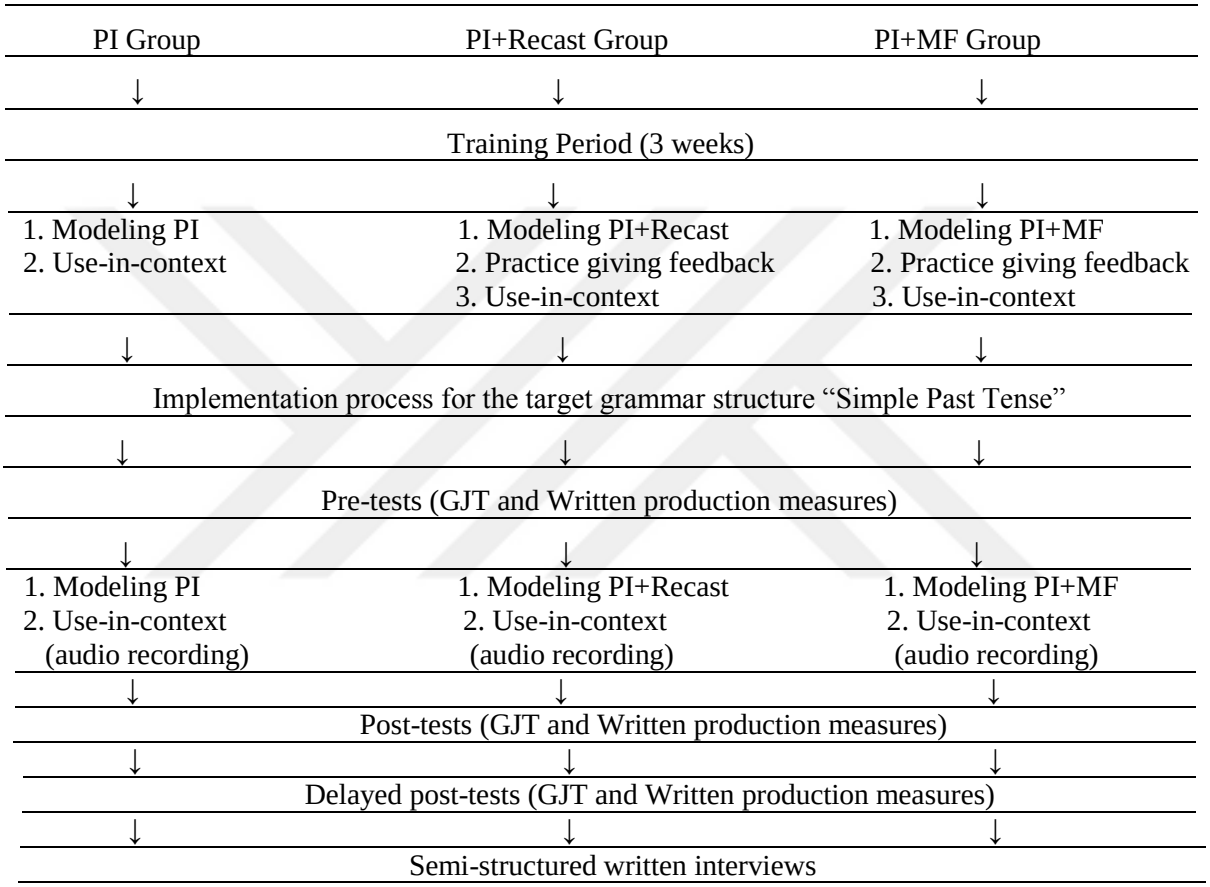


Figure 2. Implementation process of the study

The researcher was inspired by Sato's (2011) study while determining the steps to be used in the training period. Sato based his study on CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) Instructional Framework, which was offered by Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robins (1999). As stated by Sato, this instructional design covers the components of Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Extension. Considering these phases of strategy training, Sato adopted the following three steps in his dissertation: Modeling, Practice and Use-in-Context. The current study's researcher decided to follow these phases with some minor differences as will be explained in the next sections.

During the training period of PI and PF, three grammar structures "simple present tense, have got/has got, there is/there are" were studied to help students get used to interacting with their peers and providing feedback to each other's target grammar errors. The reason to choose the aforementioned grammar structures was to follow the contents of the course book and go in accordance with the preparatory school schedule. The steps of the training were applied each week after it was ensured that one of the earlier-mentioned grammar structures had been taught. During the three-week training period, all of the phases (modeling, practicing and use-in-context) were put into use for the feedback groups; however, only the modeling and use-in-context parts were implemented for the PI group.

After the three-week training period with other grammar structures was completed, the implementation process continued with the target grammar structure (simple past tense). Before administering pre-tests to the groups, it was ensured that the target structure had been taught to all of the groups through the course book and its supplementary materials (e.g. workbook). The aim was to see whether the receptive and productive knowledge of the previously learned linguistic forms could be facilitated through the implementation. In other words, it was determined to find out whether students were able to gain more control over the already learned grammar structures through PI and PF. Other colleagues who taught sections of classes in each group, were asked not to do any activities and not to give any instruction or tests related to the past tense until the end of the implementation, and they all agreed. Each group was given pre-tests (both grammaticality judgment tests and written tasks) one day before the implementation process for the "simple past tense" grammar structure started. At the start (first week) of the intervention, as a first step, the modeling part was applied which took about 15 minutes. In the modeling section, the researcher and a volunteer student from each class presented mini dialogues to exemplify PI and PF. For the PI group, the dialogue did not include any errors or feedback related to the simple past tense. As for the PI+MF group, the same dialogue included simple past tense errors and learners were presented with how to give MF to the past tense errors. Also, in the PI+Recast group, this modeling of the dialogue included the use of recasts that were provided to the simple past tense errors. After the modeling part was completed, students were randomly matched in pairs in each group. The practice phase was excluded because it was observed that students got used to the feedback

provision after a three-week training period. Therefore, it was thought that modeling would be enough for students, which was directly followed by the use-in-context part. Prior to delivering the activities to the pairs, the students in the feedback groups were reminded to provide their partners' simple past tense errors with the feedback type that they were taught, and the students in the PI group were only requested to complete the activities by using the simple past tense. Then, the two communicative activities, the "question-and-answer activity" and "picture-cued narrative activity," were respectively given to the pairs in the groups. The following week, the groups were provided with "storytelling" and "telling stories about memory" activities. Students' communication in pairs during each task was audio-recorded to be analyzed later. After the completion of the tasks, immediate post-tests (GJTs and writing tasks) were administered to the students. Then, students took their delayed post-tests (GJTs and writing tasks) 12 days later. One week after the administration of the delayed post-tests, semi-structured written interviews were conducted in each group in order to get students' positive and negative reflections in relation to the intervention. The study was completed in nine weeks. The phases of the whole implementation process are explained in a more detailed way in the following sections.

3.5.1 Modeling Phase

Each week the teacher and a volunteer student from each class modeled peer interaction and peer feedback through mini role-plays in front of the whole class. These mini role-plays included the dialogues related to the use of the target grammar structure of the week. For instance, the first grammar form of the implementation period was the simple present tense. Considering this, the researcher prepared a dialogue about a person's lifestyle and included questions to fill an empty grid. For the grammar structure have/has, the dialogue was about the description of a picture of three children. As for the grammar structure there is/there are, there was a picture of a room and the dialogue was based on the description of the room. The teacher and a volunteer student practiced the dialogues prior to the lesson. For the PI group, this dialogue did not include any errors or feedback. The students in the PI group not only saw how to use the target form in the task but also they were shown how to work in pairs (see also Kim, 2013). However, for the feedback groups this dialogue was composed of both errors and

target feedback types. The volunteer student was requested to pay attention to the error and feedback parts, which were highlighted. During the role-play, the student committed errors in the use of the target grammar structure and the teacher provided feedback. This feedback type changed according to the group. For instance, for the PI+MF group, the teacher gave MF to the student. The researcher explained the nature of MF to the students to teach them how to give MF to their interlocutors' grammar errors during the activities. The students' attention was drawn to the fact that MF was used to indicate the occurrence of an error while withholding the correct form. As for the PI+Recast group, during their dialogues the teacher gave recasts to the student. The intention was to highlight that recasts were the feedback types used in providing the correct form without directly explaining the nature of the error. During the dialogues, sometimes target-like uptake to the corrections was produced to show how one could modify his/her utterance with the help of feedback. But the focus was on how to provide feedback to the errors rather than on uptake. Therefore, uptake was not highlighted or explained to the students. As for the PI group, similar dialogues were used and performed with a volunteer student in front of the whole class. Those dialogues did not include any errors or feedback. The dialogues aimed to show how students could complete communicative activities through communicating with each other and using the target structure. During the modeling phase, students were asked to pay attention to the dialogues between the student and the teacher. Moreover, after each dialogue was completed, the teacher, through PowerPoint presentation, highlighted the parts of the dialogue that included both errors and target feedback types (see also Sippel, 2017). With this, the learners got the chance to see how to provide feedback to the errors one more time. The modeling phase was allocated 10 or 15 minutes for four weeks, which was also performed for the target structure, the simple past tense. During the modeling of the simple past tense, the list of some verbs (e.g. give, try, return, spend, leave etc.) and key words (e.g project, home, toys etc.) were shown on the PowerPoint screen. The activity required the use of these verbs and keywords to answer the teacher's questions. The mini dialogue was rehearsed by the teacher and one of the students previously and the student was requested to stress the parts that included past tense errors. The teacher responded to simple past tense errors with either recasts or MF according to the group. The dialogue was only used in the PI group to show how to perform an activity and work in pairs. The following

excerpts show how recasts and MF were provided as a response to past tense errors in the modeling phase.

Table 4

Modeling Part: Excerpts from the Dialogues (Simple Past Tense)

Recast	
e.g.(1) T: What did you do yesterday? S: Well, I try to finish the project at school. T: tried S: Sorry, tried.	*e.g.(2)* T: Why were the children so happy? S: Because we gived them lots of toys. T: Gave S: OK
e.g.(3) T: Why was your mother angry with you? S: Well, I didn't returned home until midnight. T: didn't return S: didn't return	*e.g. (4)* T: When did you leave home? S: I leave home at 10:00 a.m. T: I left S: Sorry, left.
Metalinguistic feedback	
e.g. (1) T: What did you do yesterday? S: Well, I try to finish the project at school. T: Please use simple past tense. S: Sorry, tried.	*e.g. (2)* T: Why were the children so happy? S: Because we gived them lots of toys. T: Don't add –ed. Give is an irregular verb. S: OK
e.g. (3) T: Why was your mother angry with you? S: Well, because I didn't returned home until midnight. T: Don't use past form of the verb in past tense negative. S: didn't return	*e.g. (4)* T: When did you leave home? S: I leave home at 10:00 a.m. T: Please use simple past tense. S: Leaved T: Leave is an irregular verb. Don't use –ed. S: Sorry, left.

Although recasts are implicit and MF are more explicit in nature, this modeling phase made both CF types explicit as students were provided with feedback training. As also underlined by Sato and Lyster (2012), these feedback types were distinguished by considering their input-providing and output-prompting nature. At the end of the modeling phase, the practice phase was followed, as explained in the next section.

3.5.2 Practice Phase

This section of the implementation included practicing how to provide the target feedback type. Including only the feedback groups, this phase took about 10 or 15 minutes each week and it was applied for three consecutive weeks. While the students in the PI+MF group

practiced giving MF to the errors, the students in the PI+Recast group practiced giving recasts. The practice part aimed to show the feedback process to the whole class one more time. For this reason, the teacher, in relation to the target structure, presented mini talks in which some errors related to the target type were inserted. That is to say, these mini talks covered both correct and incorrect uses of the target grammar structure of the week. The mini talk for the grammar structure have got/has got included a text about a person and his/her possessions. As for the grammar structure there is/there are, the mini talks were composed of the description of a house. The mini talk for the simple present tense included the description of some people. While the teacher was presenting the mini talks, she asked the class to correct her errors regarding the target structure. Sometimes the students either forgot or did not recognize the errors so the teacher emphasized those parts and directed them to provide the target feedback (either recast or MF), which changed according to the group. The purpose of this part was to draw students' attention more to giving feedback so that the whole class got the opportunity to see how to provide feedback in detail again.

3.5.3 Use-in-Context Phase

In this phase, students were provided with more natural and more authentic communicative tasks to complete with their peers. The tasks were intended to be designed in a way that triggered students to use the target structures in more meaningful contexts. Prior to each activity, the students in both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups were asked to provide their peers' errors with the feedback type they were taught. Contrary to this, the students in the PI group were only asked to complete the communicative tasks with their peers by using the target form. In other words, the students in the PI group were not instructed to provide feedback to each other. There were at least two activities for each grammar topic to ensure that students could have enough opportunity to get used to PI and PF. This phase was allocated 35 or 45 minutes as the time span for the completion of some communicative activities related to different grammar structure varied. The communicative tasks used for each grammar structure are explained below.

3.6 Use-in-Context Tasks

As stated previously, communicative tasks were the focus of the use-in-context part, which required the use of the target grammar forms. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) proposed three important ways of inserting the target grammar form in a task, which were *task-naturalness, task-utility, and task-essentialness* respectively. They explained them as follows:

> In task-naturalness, a grammatical construction may arise naturally during the performance of a particular task, but the task can often be performed perfectly well, even quite easily, without it. In the case of task utility, it is possible to complete a task without the structure, but with the structure the task becomes easier. The most extreme demand a task can place on a structure is essentialness: the task cannot be successfully performed unless the structure is used (p.132).

Drawing upon this and given the fact that tasks can be designed to draw learners' attention to specific language forms (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993; Révész, 2009; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007; Skehan & Foster, 2001), this research tried to prepare the tasks considering task-essentialness. That is to say, learners took part in interactive tasks that pushed them to use the target grammatical structures.

First, for the grammar structure "have got/has got", an information gap activity and a question-and-answer activity were used. Information gap activities are included in many research studies as communicative activities (e.g. Mackey, 1999; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Mackey & Philp, 1998; McDonough, 2005), and in this study they were used to practice peer interaction and peer feedback. To begin, students completed a two-way information gap activity. In two-way information gap tasks, each learner has missing information related to the task, and therefore, they need to share the information they have to complete that missing part (Nunan, 1989). In the activity, each student was given a chart that showed different people's possessions. However, in each chart there were some missing parts that could only be filled by exchanging information. Students tried to determine what each person had or did not have by asking questions to each other (e.g. Student A: Has Lily got glasses? Student B: No, she hasn't.) After that, a question-and-answer activity was delivered to the students. There were two versions of this activity for each student. At the beginning of this activity, students asked questions to each other about what their partners had in their rooms (e.g. Student A: Have you got an iron in your room? Student B: No, I haven't.) and took notes. After that, they changed their partners and reported what they learned about their previous partner's possessions (e.g. İrem has got a mirror in her room but she hasn't got a book case.)

Second, a spot-the-difference and a question-and-answer activity were prepared for the grammar structure there is/ there are. The spot-the-difference task, also preferred by some other studies (e.g. Mackey, 1999; McDonough, 2005), was thought to be useful as it included visual items. Student pairs were provided with two pictures of a room with some differences and then students tried to identify the differences by asking questions (e.g. Is there…..? Are there…..? How many ……?) to one another. After completing this activity, students were provided with a question-and-answer activity. The activity required each learner to choose a place (a town/city/village/in your country or a holiday place) that s/he knew well. They were also provided with keywords on a table (e.g. cheap restaurant, bazaar, university) to be used while asking questions (e.g. Student A: Are there any museums in this town?) to their partners to get information about the place.

Third, three communicative tasks (e.g. a guessing activity, an information gap activity, a question-and-answer activity) were used for the simple present tense grammar structure. At the beginning, a guessing activity was given to each pair. Two versions of this activity were prepared in the first person singular (e.g. I work in a restaurant or cafe; I don't wash the dishes; I don't cook.) In this activity, one of the students gave information about a job by using the simple present tense in the third person singular (e.g. he works in a restaurant or cafe; he doesn't wash the dishes; he doesn't cook.) and the other one tried to guess the job. Then, they changed their roles and completed the activity. The second activity was a two-way information gap activity about a person's daily activities. Students pooled information to fill the chart. The last activity was a question-and-answer activity. Students were given a set of questions (e.g. Do you often buy new clothes?, What kind of clothes do you usually wear?, Where do you usually buy clothes?) in the simple present tense and then they asked these questions to each other. After completing the activity, they changed their roles and reported what they had learned to other students in the third person singular.

All of the activities were prepared by the researcher by getting help from a variety of resources (Appendix B) and consulting some experts in the English language teaching (ELT) field. Additionally, the activities were also piloted to some students of the preparatory school from a similar sample. Considering all of the suggestions and feedback from the students, some parts of the activities were revised and changed. Each of the activities was composed of two

versions so the students got the opportunity to use them in context many times and got familiar with how to provide feedback to each other's errors. While doing all of these activities, the students in the feedback groups were asked to provide each other with the feedback type that they were taught. The peer interaction group only completed the activities without any intervention.

3.7 Use-in-Context Tasks for the Target Form: Simple Past Tense

All of the following communicative tasks were designed by the researcher to elicit the use of the simple past tense by using various resources (Appendix B) and getting expert ideas in the field. The activities were sequenced from more controlled (e.g. question-and-answer activity) to more free (telling stories about memory activity). Students were organized randomly in pairs to create a collaborative atmosphere. According to Swain (2000), collaborative tasks, playing a beneficial role for the learning of the target language grammar, trigger learners to think about language and focus on meaning. Additionally, Colina and García-Mayo (2007) stated that many studies reached a consensus on the important role of collaborative tasks to raise students' awareness about the target language structure and think over the target language. The activities were also designed as a planned focus on form communicative activities, which centered on eliciting the pre-determined target grammar structure. Prior to each activity, students in the PI+MF group were reminded to provide MF to simple past tense errors of their interlocutors. As for the PI+Recast group, students were asked to give recasts to their peers' simple past tense errors. However, pairs in the PI group only completed the given activities without any intervention. While doing the activities, the pairs' voices were recorded to analyze the interactional patterns. The following sub-titles explain each of the communicative tasks in detail.

3.7.1 Question-and-Answer Activity

Different forms of the question-and-answer activities were used by researchers (e.g. Yang and Lyster, 2010) for triggering learners to produce answers by using the past tense. In the study, this activity (Appendix C) was used as a warm up to elicit past tense use by including both

regular and irregular verbs. Two versions of this activity were created for each student working in pairs. The first question-and-answer task was composed of 16 questions about the last holiday the student had (e.g. Where did you go on your last holiday?, Where did you stay?, Did you buy anything?). One of the students asked and the other one answered and after completing the first task, students changed their roles. The second task covered 18 questions about the last birthday party the student had (e.g. Who did you invite to your party?, What did your friends bring for you?, How did you feel?). Students were directed to use all of the questions that they were provided previously; however, they were also permitted to add other questions that they wanted to ask according to the flow of communication.

3.7.2 Picture-cued Narrative Activity

Picture-cued narrative activities are commonly used by researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Han, 2002; Yang and Lyster, 2010) with a specific focus on the past tense. Similarly, this task (Appendix D) required learners to create a story in the simple past tense by using the pictures given as clues. In this activity, students were provided with both regular and irregular verbs and some keywords that were included under each picture. An introduction sentence about the first picture of each story was given as an example to make the activity more understandable for students. There was a picture sequence and the students were asked to compose a story in the simple past tense by using the verbs and keywords. Additionally, they were informed that they were free to use other verbs and words in addition to the given ones while composing the stories. They were also given both connectors and conjunctions to make their story more coherent. There were two versions for both students in each group. One of the activities was about "two siblings' camping adventure" which was composed of 22 pictures. The other one was about the "adventure of a poor family" which covered 23 pictures. Each student was given 5 minutes to look at the pictures and get familiar with the story. After that, each of them told their story in the simple past tense to their interlocutor and then asked 6 pre-prepared questions about the story (e. g. Where did Jack and Mary go for holiday?, What kind of activities did they do there?, Where did John work? What did he do to earn money?) to their partner to check whether s/he listened to and understood the story. Some of the pictures

also required learners to make negative sentences, and so the students got the opportunity to produce simple past tense sentences in a variety of forms.

3.7.3 Storytelling Activity

Klaassen (2015) emphasizes that it sounds very natural when stories are told in simple past tense. Considering this, in this activity (Appendix E), students were required to make up a story with the verbs they were given by using the simple past tense. Two versions of the task were prepared with different story introductions and verb lists. The introduction part of the stories were as follows:

First story: *It was a beautiful sunny Sunday. Helen wanted to go outside so she ……..*

Second story: *It was a cold winter night and very dark. Clara was at home. She was very hungry and wanted to eat something. She…….*

Students were asked to tell their narrative stories in the simple past tense using the given 12 verbs—both regular and irregular. They were also allowed to use different verbs in addition to the ones given if needed. As making up a story triggers learners' creativity, it was thought that it would be more enjoyable for them.

3.7.4 Telling Stories about Memory Activity

In this activity, students were asked to tell one of their memories in the simple past tense. The instruction was as follows:

Talk about an important day in your life. It may be about a good or a bad day. Please tell your memory in past simple tense and try to use variety of verbs while telling your memory.

Rather than giving a predetermined verb list, students were free to use whatever verbs they wanted to as it was their own story. This activity was chosen because it would be more beneficial and more authentic for learners to tell their own memories. It was also thought that this activity could be helpful for using the past tense more freely.

3.8 Testing Instruments

There were two testing materials in this study to measure different types of knowledge: Grammaticality judgment test and a writing task. They were applied as pre-, post- and delayed post-test to see whether the intervention led any improvement in the learners' knowledge of simple past tense.

3.8.1 Grammaticality Judgment Tests (GJTs)

In order to measure learners' simple past tense receptive knowledge, as some researchers like Izumi (2002) did, grammaticality judgment tests (Appendix F) were used. As this study included learners who had prior knowledge of simple past tense, the pre-GJT had an important role to present the state of participants' receptive knowledge at the beginning of the study. There are many researchers who used GJT in their study as an assessment tool (e.g. Adams et al., 2011; DeKeyser, 2000; Ellis et al., 2006; Izumi, 2002; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Russell, 2014; Toth, 2006), which inspired the current study's researcher to develop GJTs as the measure of receptive knowledge. Mandell (1999) highlighted the reliability of GJTs in assessing students' competence about target language forms. GJTs help us to find out whether learners can differentiate between the grammatical and ungrammatical structures of the target language (Ellis, 1991b; Gass, 1994; Rimmer, 2006). On these bases, GJTs were prepared to find out whether students could decide whether the items related to simple past tense were incorrect or not. These tests were also included to measure learners' receptive knowledge regarding the target form at the onset and at the end of the intervention and to see whether there was an improvement or not. Before preparing the tests, students' common errors related to simple past tense use were determined through an analysis of students' classroom assignments (e.g. writing) during the pilot study. Additionally, some research studies, (e.g. Adams et al., 2011) which give valuable insights about the problems that learners experience regarding the simple past tense, were taken into consideration and were listed. Also, some researchers (e.g. Coelho, 2004; Collins, 2009) highlighted the common errors of learners with the use of the simple past tense, and so their ideas were also taken into account. During the preparation of the test items, some course books and dictionaries were examined to choose

verbs and compose sentences that were appropriate to the students' learning levels. In addition to this, the ideas of the experienced teachers, experts and native speakers about the test items were taken into account. After the first versions of the tests were completed, they were administered to 4 native speakers of English as a part of the piloting. In light of their suggestions, some of the items were revised and rewritten. There were two versions of the GJT. While pre- and post-GJTs were composed of the same items, the delayed GJT consisted of different items. All of the GJTs covered the use of the simple past affirmative, negative and interrogative structures. Both regular and irregular verbs were included in the items. The tests consisted of 28 items covering the following items:

a) 7 incorrect items about regular simple past tense form

b) 7 incorrect items about irregular simple past tense form

c) 7 correct use of both regular and irregular simple past forms

d) 7 distractors including both correct and incorrect sentences

Distractor sentences were related to the grammar topics with which the students were familiar. Distractors were created by examining the common errors that students committed during classroom activities. As the pre- and post-GJT had the same test items, the order of the questions in the post-test was altered to ensure reliability. Students were asked to judge each item on the test in terms of grammaticality. After these steps, the GJTs were piloted with students who were from a similar population of English preparatory classes. Pre and delayed GJTs were administered respectively to 152 and 117 students. Like other researchers (e.g. DeKeyser, 2000), the reliability of the GJTs was measured through the Kuder–Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20). The KR-20 reliability coefficient of both the pre- and delayed post-GJT was found to be .835 and .816 respectively, which proved the high reliability of the tests. Later these tests were administered to the target groups of the study as pre-, post- and delayed-tests. There was no time limit and students were asked to judge whether the sentences were correct or not and then they were asked to correct the sentences that they judged as incorrect.

3.8.2 Written Production Task

The intervention's effects on the productive knowledge of the target form were assessed through written production tasks (Appendix G). Owing to the time constraints, it was not possible for this study to conduct a speaking test for each individual learner. Therefore, writing tasks, as another measure of productive knowledge, were decided to be more applicable and appropriate. Different types of written production tasks have been used by some other researchers (e.g. Algarawi, 2010; Dilans, 2010; Goo, 2012; Lyster, 2004a; Sheen, 2010; Yang & Lyster, 2010) as a measure to find the effects of teacher corrective feedback on the learning of the target forms. In this study, the main purpose of the writing task was to assess whether students' interactions through communicative tasks and their feedback to each other helped them improve their accurate use of the simple past tense in their written production. Rather than fluency, this study attempted to measure the effectiveness of the intervention with a specific reference to accuracy. The term accuracy, in its simplest form, was defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002) as the learners' competency in generating sentences with accurate grammar. According to Ruiz de Mendoza Ibáñez and Augustín Llach (2016, p.180), "Grammar accuracy is not to be sacrificed to fluency. Both are necessary and accuracy is not simply a matter of grammatical (i.e. formal) competence but it extends to meaning-making ability at all levels." Accuracy in this study means the correct use of the simple past tense in different forms (e.g. in positive, negative sentences) including both regular and irregular verbs. In other words, accuracy here refers to the error-free use of the simple past tense in written production. Accuracy measures have a significant role in assessing students' improvement in the target language's grammar (Kim, Nam, & Lee, 2016). To measure accuracy in simple past tense use, narrative tasks were preferred to encourage learners to write their stories by using the simple past tense. As the last three activities (e.g. picture-cued narrative activity) were based on telling stories, it was thought that the narrative writing task would be appropriate as an accuracy measure. Two versions of the written production task were developed and administered as pre-, post- and delayed post-tests. The same topic was chosen for the pre- and post-writing tasks. It was thought that if the students were familiar with the topic, they could write more effective and lengthier paragraphs. Therefore, the story of Cinderella was chosen for the pre- and post-writing tasks. However, students were not

forced to rely on the real story. They were free to use their imaginations and write as much as they could to compose the story. For the delayed writing task, a different topic entitled "The Story of Dave's Life" was included, that would encourage learners to use their imaginations and to tell the story in the target form. The first versions of the writing tasks were piloted with other preparatory class students from a similar population. During the piloting phase, students asked the meaning of some verbs to the researcher. The researcher noted the verbs students asked about most frequently. Then, the researcher put these verbs into the real writing task as prompts because it was clear that students were not able to write long paragraphs or use a variety of verbs when they did not know the meaning of some verbs.

Therefore, the specified verbs during the pilot study were listed. After the verbs were determined, the tests were piloted again to another class of preparatory students (n=28) to see if there were any problems. Another purpose of the pilot test was to see whether the tasks necessitated the use of the simple past tense or not. To ensure this, a few simple past sentences were given as the introductory part of the stories. It was seen that the learners in the pilot study used simple past tense to finish the target stories.

Based on the feedback that was received through pilot studies, the tasks were revised once again. 36 different verbs that were determined to be helpful during the pilot study were given to the students to be used in their writing. The choice of the verbs was based on the feedback that was obtained from the students' questions and the students' errors during the pilot study. While pre- and post-test covered the same 18 verbs, the delayed post-test included the remaining 18 verbs. The participants were given the writing task as a pre-, post-, and delayed post-test. On the basis of the feedback obtained from the pilot studies, 45 minutes were given to the students to complete their writing task and they were asked to write as much as they could. The students were not allowed to use any dictionaries or resources, or consult their friends. Additionally, the first few sentences in the introduction of the writing tasks were designed to make the use of the simple past tense necessary to complete the story. The papers' scores were not based solely on the use of the given verbs because they were provided to students as a prompt to write as many sentences as possible. Nevertheless, written instructions were given to them to use all of the verbs so that they could produce as many sentence as possible. Also, while writing the stories, students were free to use other verbs in addition to

the provided ones. They were also asked to make negative sentences with the verbs that were indicated with "not" in the parentheses. The purpose here was to promote the use of the past tense in various forms. Besides this, students were provided with connectors (e.g. then, after that, finally) to use in their story to ensure that they could tell the events of the story in sequence and to make their writing more comprehensible and coherent. The researcher gave the essential instructions prior to each testing section.

3.9 Semi-structured Written Interview

The main purpose of conducting an interview was to understand and gain more insights into participants' perceptions and reflections related to the overall implementation with a specific focus on the effects of peer interaction and peer feedback. To pursue this aim, a semi-structured written interview was prepared by the researcher, as some researchers did in their studies (e.g. Yang & Lyster, 2010). As the groups had different treatments, the number of questions for the PI and the PI+PF groups changed. Therefore, the researcher created 2 open-ended questions for the PI group and 4 open-ended questions for the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups. As the students in the PI group were only instructed to do communicative tasks, the questions were only related to the peer interaction, communicative activities and their effects on learners' grammar knowledge. The questions for the PI group were as follows:

1. What do you think about completing communicative activities (e.g. picture-cued narrative activity, question and answer activity, etc.) with your peers? Are there any positive or negative sides to do the activities in this way? Please explain.

2. What are your thoughts about the effects of peer interaction (doing communicative activities "e.g. picture-cued narrative activity, question and answer activity" with your peer) on your English grammar knowledge? Please explain.

As the PF groups were trained on how to provide feedback to their peers' grammar errors during communicative tasks, the questions related to receiving and providing feedback and the problems encountered in terms of providing feedback were added to the list. The questions for the PF groups were as follows:

Peer Interaction

1. What do you think about completing communicative activities (e.g. picture-cued narrative activity, question and answer activity, etc.) with your peers? Are there any positive or negative sides to do the activities in this way? Please explain.

Receiving Feedback

2. What are your positive or negative thoughts about feedback that your peer provided to your grammar errors during the activities? What do you think about the effects of receiving feedback on your grammar knowledge? Please explain.

Providing Feedback

3. What are your thoughts about the effects of providing feedback to your peer's grammar errors? Was it beneficial or not? Please explain.

4. Did you have any problems in correcting your peer's grammar error when you recognized it? What kind of solutions did you find to the problems you encountered? Please explain.

The interview questions were written in Turkish to help the students express their opinions more effectively. They were administered to 42 students in the PF groups (PI+Recast group: n= 20 and PI+MF group: n=22), and 25 students in the PI group one week after the intervention ended. A total of 67 students participated in the interviews. The data obtained from the written interviews were analyzed through content analysis and then were coded and grouped under major themes.

3.10 Scoring and Analysis Procedure of the Data

The following sections primarily explain the procedures adopted in the scoring and analysis of GJTs and writing tasks. Then, these sections give information about the analysis of interview and interactional data respectively.

3.10.1 Scoring of GJTs

The highest score that could be obtained from each GJT was 21. Similar to the steps that some researcher (e.g. Adams et al., 2011) adopted in their studies, this study's researcher followed

the scoring procedures below for GJTs:

a) Students were given 1 point if they judged the correct grammatical item as correct.

b) Students were given zero points if they identified correct grammatical items as incorrect.

c) Students got zero points if they indicated ungrammatical items as correct.

d) Students were awarded 1 point provided that they indicated ungrammatical items as incorrect and wrote the correct version.

After the first scoring of all the GJTs (n=171) was completed by the researcher, a second rater scored 10% of the tests and no disagreement was found between the raters.

3.10.2 Scoring of the Writing Tasks

To score the writing tasks, the researcher developed a scoring rubric by considering the previously mentioned problems of learners in using the simple past tense and different resources (e.g. Coelho, 2004; Collins, 2009) on the use of the target structure. Also, the researcher was inspired by previous studies (e.g. Yang, 2008), which also used a scoring rubric related to the accurate use of the target structure. The last version of the scoring rubric (Appendix H) was completed based on the feedback received from the researcher's thesis supervisor and committee members. As noted earlier, scoring of the written tasks was based on accuracy. Accuracy, in this study, means the ability to generate correct simple past tense sentences in the past tense context, which covers the use of both regular and irregular verbs in a correct way in the simple past tense affirmative, negative and interrogative forms. Another crucial issue was to assess accuracy within the framework of appropriateness in the meaning-based context. For instance, some students used the past tense in quotations (see the item 11 in appendix H) which required the use of the present tense. These kinds of inappropriate uses were accepted as non-target like, in other words inaccurate, uses of the past tense.

Steps in the scoring procedure of the writing task were similar to those adopted in some other studies (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Fazio, 2001; Patanasorn, 2010; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). As a first step, the researcher counted the total number of correct and incorrect uses of the simple past tense forms including both

regular past tense (–ed) and irregular past tense forms. An important point is that scoring of the papers was not solely based on the use of the verbs provided as a list in the writing tasks because these verb lists were only given to the students to encourage them to produce more sentences. On the other hand, the use of other verbs to form simple past tense sentences was also included in the scoring.

However, if a student, in attempting to form a simple past tense sentence, conjugated a verb incorrectly which was not studied during the implementation period, this use was excluded from the scoring (see the item 1 appendix H). Also, each correct and incorrect use of the same verb was counted once (see the item 5 appendix H) because some students used a verb more than once and avoided using other verbs to form simple past tense sentences in their writing. As correct or incorrect use of the same verbs repeatedly does not show the increase or decrease in the accuracy of the use of past tense, they were counted only once. After the total number of accurate uses of the simple past tense was calculated, this total was divided by all of the uses of the simple past tense in the text. Then, the results were multiplied by 100 to make the interpretation of the results easier. That is to say, to measure accuracy, the researcher followed the formula below:

(Total number of error-free uses of simple past tense / all simple past tense uses)x100

Oropeza (2015) explained another reason to use this kind of measurement by stating: "On some occasions some students wrote very little and thus committed fewer errors. Those who wrote lengthier essays may have committed more errors" (p. 56). Therefore, the aforementioned formula was thought to be the appropriate way to assess accuracy because of the variation in text lengths.

During the scoring procedure, the researcher and her supervisor came together at specific intervals to study and discuss the scoring of the written tasks. After the researcher completed the scoring of all the papers (n=171), 12% of the randomly selected written tasks were given to another rater who was also an English instructor and was pursuing a master's degree in the ELT field. She was provided with the scoring rubric to follow. Also, the researcher showed her how to do the scoring using one of the written tasks in order to ensure that she understood the steps to scoring properly. After the second rater finished scoring, an agreement percentage

was calculated and it was found to be 98%. The researcher and the second rater gathered together to identify the disagreements and to negotiate the scoring of each paper until a full agreement was reached.

3.10.3 Analysis of the Interview Data

The qualitative data obtained from the written interviews were analyzed using content analysis which was defined by Patton (1987, p. 149) as "identifying coherent and important examples, themes, and patterns in the data". Creswell (2009, p.185) explained the steps of data analysis in the qualitative data as follows:

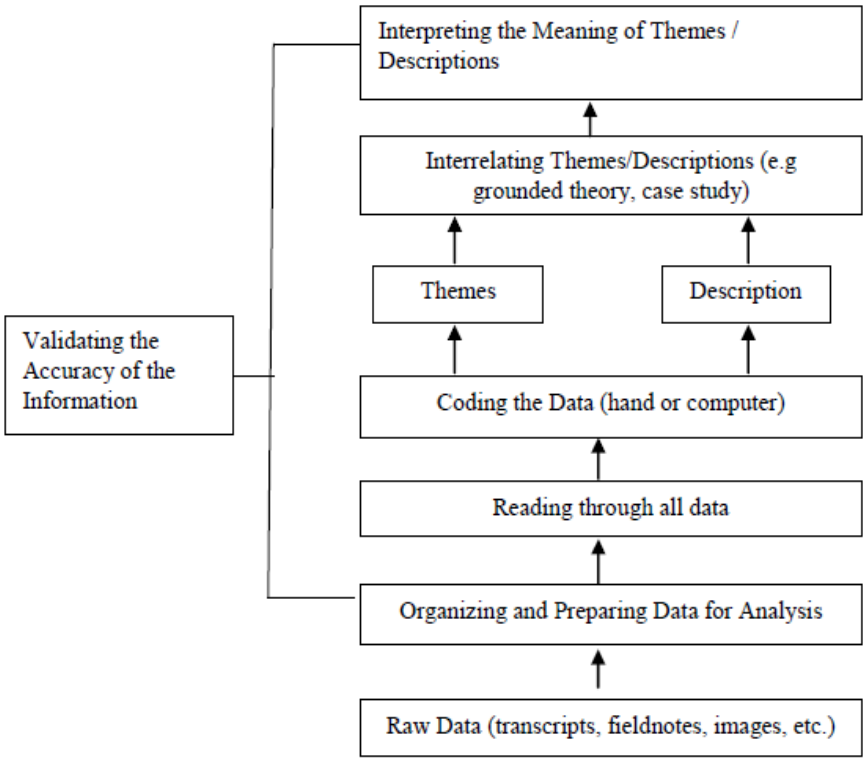


Figure 3. Data analysis in qualitative research. Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Based on these steps, the researcher began by labeling each paper as Student 1 (S1), Student 2 (S2), etc., to make the analysis process easier and more controlled. Dörnyei (2007) underscores coding as the first step of the qualitative data analysis. The coding process, as

stated by Creswell (2012, p. 243), refers "to make sense out of text data, divide it into text or image segments, label the segments with codes, examine codes for overlap and redundancy, and collapse these codes into broad themes." Considering this, the researcher started coding by highlighting the meaningful and important words and phrases. After the identification and categorization of the similar emergent codes, they were grouped by main overarching themes, some of which also included sub-themes. To ensure inter-coder reliability, seven randomly selected interview papers were also coded by another expert in the ELT field. The analysis of the qualitative data by the two raters resulted in 90% similarity. Then, both coders came together again to negotiate the emergent codes and themes of the whole data until reaching a full agreement. After a detailed discussion, minor changes were made on the basis of the expert's suggestions and feedback. There were in total five major themes, some of which consisted of sub-themes, and these sub-themes included some categories of codes. A great deal of effort was put in to make sure that each major and sub-theme represented the responses of the different participants who wanted to convey the same message. Moreover, in order to present more detailed information related to the perceptions, the number (n) of occurrences of each emergent codes was written in brackets during the reporting process. For instance, if 8 students addressed to the same code, it was indicated as (n=8). In addition to this, some of the student quotes were presented to exemplify the emergent themes.

3.10.4 Coding and Analysis of the Interactional Data

The aim of analyzing the interactional data was to identify the errors related to the use of simple past tense and the rates of PCF and learner uptake. There were four activities that were designed to trigger the use of the simple past tense. In the PI group, twenty-eight students took part in the activities; however, one of the activities of a student was excluded from the analysis because of the technical problems with the recordings. Out of twenty-nine students in the PI+Recast group, twenty-eight of them took part in all of the activities; however, one of the students did not participate in the last two activities. In addition, one of the dialogues of a student could not be analyzed because of the problems with audio recordings. As for the PI+MF group, in total, there were twenty-eight students with twenty-five of them having participated in all of the activities and three students only having participated in the first two

activities. In addition to this, despite participating in all of the activities, either one or two dialogues of the six students could not be included in the analysis in the PI+MF group because of the technical problems with the recordings. A total of 1262 minutes (21 hours) of audio recordings of learner-learner interactions were transcribed by the researcher. Prosodic features (e.g. pauses, laughter) were not transcribed because the central focus was on simple past tense errors, feedback provided on simple past tense errors and uptake rates. Before analyzing the interactional data, a coding guideline was developed by consulting the ideas of the thesis supervisor and the committee members. Additionally, problems which were identified by some researchers (Ellis et al., 2006; Coelho, 2004; Collins, 2009) related to the use of the target structure were also considered. As the focus of the study was on simple past tense, the following items were taken into account while identifying the errors related to the target form:

1. Each error related to the use of simple past tense was counted separately and these errors were:

- using base forms of the verbs in obligatory past context (e.g. I play tennis yesterday.)
- overgeneralization while inflecting irregular verbs (e.g. I gived her some flowers.)
- using verb "be" incorrectly (e.g. She were at home.)
- using verbs in their past forms in negative and interrogative sentences (e.g. They didn't went to the hotel.)
- missing a verb in a past simple sentence (e.g. He at home yesterday.)

2. If a student immediately self-corrected his/her own past tense error, this was accepted as target-like (correct) use.

3. Pronunciation mistakes were ignored. However, when corrective feedback was provided for pronunciation mistakes related to the past form of the verbs, these kind of cases were included in the analysis, as they raised students' awareness related to the use of the target form.

4. Use of other past tenses (e.g. past continuous, past perfect) and passive structures was kept out of the analysis.

5. Use of modal verbs (e.g. must, should, would, might) was excluded from the analysis. Use of *could* was included in the analysis when it meant "able to".

6. Use of present simple tense to describe habits, general truths, etc. was excluded from the analysis (e.g. I like Nevşehir).

7. Unintelligible and ambiguous parts were excluded from the analysis.

While coding the data, great care was taken to highlight the instances of errors related to the use of the simple past tense. All other types of errors (e.g. lexical errors, misuses of articles, etc.) were ignored and excluded from the analysis. After the errors were identified, corrective feedback types (e.g. recasts, metalinguistic feedback, etc.) given to the misuses of the target form were determined. Corrective feedback provided to the past-tense errors was further coded as target-like and non-target-like feedback. Although the focus of the study was on recasts and MF, the use of other feedback types was also coded to gain deeper insight into the learners' interaction. Additionally, though being very few in number, some students used their L1 while providing their peers with feedback, these instances were also included in the analysis. Furthermore, the instances of uptake were also coded as target-like and non-target-like. All of the data about each individual were written in a coding scheme (see Appendix I). The completion of the transcription and the coding process of the interactional data took the researcher over three months. After this, the 10% of the coding was crosschecked by another colleague in the ELT field and some ambiguous parts were discussed until a full agreement was reached. After all of these processes were completed, quantification was applied to the coded data in order to present the findings numerically. Mackey and Gass (2005, p.182) stated that "quantification can play a role in both the generation of hypotheses and the verification of patterns that have been noticed…" Considering this, descriptive analyses were carried out to illustrate the frequencies and percentages of errors, corrective feedback and uptake distribution in each group.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is composed of three main sections. First, it starts with presenting the findings of the interactional data analysis. Second, it provides the findings related to both receptive and productive measures. Finally, this chapter gives the results of the follow-up written interviews.

4.2 Findings of the Interactional Data Analysis

The following section explains and exemplifies the PCF and learner uptake that took place during students' communicative interactions. After that, the distribution of PCF in each group is provided, and the occurrence of requests for peer feedback (RfPF) is explained in a separate section. Finally, the distribution of learner uptake as a response to PCF in each group is presented.

4.2.1 Instances of Peer Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake

By coding CF types in the interactional data, seven types of CF were identified in learner-learner dialogues. They are as follows: metalinguistic feedback, metalinguistic feedback combined with direct correction, recast, explicit feedback, direct question, repetition, and clarification. As the focus of the study was on errors in the simple past tense including both regular and irregular forms, the types of PCF provided to simple past tense errors during

learner-learner interactions were specified. Additionally, uptake that was produced as a response to target-like PCF was classified as "target-like" and "non-target-like" uptake. If a student produced the correct structure in response to the target-like PCF, it was coded as target-like uptake (successful uptake). On the contrary, if a student's production was incorrect after receiving target-like PCF, it was coded as non-target-like uptake (unsuccessful uptake). Sometimes, students did not produce any uptake even if they received target-like PCF and these instances were coded as "no uptake". The instances of past tense errors, types of PCF and uptake are exemplified below. To ensure confidentiality, students' names are not given here, and therefore the dialogues between students are presented here as Student 1 (S1) and Student 2 (S2).

1. Metalinguistic feedback (MF): The following excerpts from each group exemplify how students provided each other with MF.

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping story):

S1: They saw the old man and they tell the story.

S2: You should use second form in the simple past tense. *(MF)*

S1: OK. They told the story to old man and… *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family story):

S1: Because he is very poor.

S2: No. You use past tense, simple past tense. *(MF)*

S1: He was very poor. *(Target-like uptake)*

S2: Yes.

Excerpt 3 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Where did you stay?

S2: I am stayed my near the family.

S1: We don't use "am" past simple. *(MF)*

S2: Thank you. I stayed with my family. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 4 (PI+MF group, Telling Stories about Memory Activity):

S1: We went to beach and we swam and there is a sunny weather.

S2: You must use past tense. *(MF)*

S1: Yes. There was a sunny weather. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 5 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Who did you go with? With your family or with your friends?

S2: I go to Erciyes with my friends.

S1: go is an irregular verbs. *(MF)*

S2: Oh, sorry. I went to Erciyes with my friends. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 6 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Where did you stay?

S2: I stay in a hotel.

S1: We should use simple past tense. *(MF)*

S2: I stayed in hotel. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 7 (PI+MF group, Storytelling Activity):

S1: She weared her clothes and began to…

S2: No, weared is false. Wear is irregular verb so… *(MF)*

S1: wore.

S2: wore yes.

S1: Sorry. She wore her clothes and began to prepare a fruit salad for her grandpa.

(Target-like uptake)

Excerpt 8 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: What did your mother do?

S2: My mother make cake.

S1: That answer is false because we use second state, because that verb is irregular verbs. *(MF)*

S2: My mother made cake. *(Target-like uptake)*

Although the students in the PI+MF group tried to provide MF in English as shown above, the students in the PI and PI+Recast groups used their L1 (Turkish) most of the time while giving MF. This may be because of the fact that they did not receive MF training, and so they found it difficult to make metalinguistic explanation in L2 (English) as the following examples show:

Excerpt 9 (PI group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping):

S1: They didn't brang.

S2: Hayır, birinci hali (No, the first form of the verb). *(MF)*

S1: They didn't bring camping stove. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 10 (PI+Recast group, Storytelling activity):

S1: She save

S2: Ama past simple (but past simple) *(MF)*

S1: She saved me. *(Target-like uptake)*

2. Metalinguistic feedback with correction: Metalinguistic comments can sometimes be combined with direct correction as stated by Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p.77) who provided the following example:

Student: He catch the fish.

Teacher: Caught is the past tense. *(MF with correction)*

Like this example, this current study detected the instances of MF with correction in learner-learner interactions as the following excerpts show:

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Storytelling activity):

S1: So she prepared and weared the…

S2: wear simple past version is "wore". You can use this way. *(MF with correction)*

S1: wore. And she wore clothes. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: What did you do after the party?

S2: I am sleeping.

S1: We don't use "am" at past tense. *(MF)*

S2: I sleeped. (with a stress on –ed)

S1: No sleep-ed. Sleep second state is "slept". We should use "slept". *(MF with correction)*

S2: Yes. I slept. *(Target-like uptake)*

3. Recast: Use of recasts was found in all the groups and they are exemplified below.

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Did you have any problems?

S2: No, I haven't any problems.

S1: No, I didn't. *(Recast)*

S2: No, I didn't. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping):

S1: Where did they stay?

S2: They stay in the forest.

S1: stayed. *(Recast)*

S2: stayed in the forest. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 3 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Where did you go on your last holiday?

S2: we were went to

S1: we went to *(Recast)*

S2: we went to… *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 4 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1:What did your friends bring for you?

S2: My friends brang

S1: brought *(Recast)*

S2: brought different gifts for me. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 5 (PI+Recast group, Storytelling activity):

S1: So, she decided to go outside. First, she wear…

S2: wore *(Recast)*

S1: wore t-shirt and trousers. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 6 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Did you buy anything?

S2: No, I don't buy.

S1: I didn't *(Recast)*

S2: I didn't buy *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 7 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Where did you visit?

S2: I am visited.

S1: I visited. *(Recast)*

S2: I visited Bodrum castle and…*(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 8 (PI+Recast group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family):

S1: But they don't had a money

S2: didn't have *(Recast)*

S1: they didn't have a money. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 9 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: Did you buy anything?

S2: I haven't buy

S1: I didn't *(Recast)*

S2: I didn't buy anything. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 10 (PI+Recast group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping):

S1: They began walking in a forest. They didn't took…

S2: take *(Recast)*

S1: They didn't take a torch. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 11 (PI group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family):

S1: One day they want new house.

S2: they wanted *(Recast)*

S1: they wanted new house. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 12 (PI group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: Did you dance?

S2: no we wasn't, we weren't dance.

S1: I didn't *(Recast)*

S2: I didn't dance. *(Target-like uptake)*

4. Explicit feedback: Despite not being trained, some students provided explicit feedback to their peers' errors.

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: What did your mother do?

S2: She make a cake.

S1: We don't use "make". We use "made". *(Explicit feedback)*

S2: Yes. She made a cake. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+Recast group, Telling Stories about Memory Activity):

S1: We was went to seaside and…

S2: was yok direk söyle (tell without "was"). We went to seaside. *(Explicit feedback)*

S1: We went to seaside. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 3 (PI group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family):

S1: Police catched thief

S2: catched değil caught (It is not "catched", "caught") *(Explicit feedback)*

S1: caught thief. *(Target-like uptake)*

5. Direct questions: Sometimes learners reacted to their peers' errors by asking questions directly. This type of feedback was called "direct question" feedback in this study.

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family):

S1: What happened at the end of the story? Did the police catch the thief?

S2: At the end of the story, Mary and John became happy. Police catch the thief.

S1: caught or catch? *(Direct question)*

S2: caught caught sorry. *(Target-like uptake)*

S1: No problem.

Excerpt 2 (PI+Recast group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping):

S1: Old man shows the right way and …

S2: showed değil mi? (Isn't it "showed"?) *(Direct question)*

S1: Sorry. The old man showed right way to Mary and Jack. *(Target-like uptake)*

6. Repetition: Students rarely used repetition as a feedback type but the following dialogue exemplifies how it was used.

Excerpt (PI+MF group, Telling Stories about Memory Activity):

S1: My friend and I decided to went go away from city center.

S2: went go away? *(Repetition)*

S1: decided to go away from the city center. *(Target-like uptake)*

7. Clarification request: The examples below demonstrate how clarification requests were used by the students.

Excerpt 1 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: What did you wear?

S2: I wear t-shirt.

S1: What? *(Clarification request)*

S2: I wore t-shirt. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: What did your father do?

S2: No made. Don't made.

S1: I don't understand you. What did your father do? *(Clarification request)*

S2: He didn't do nothing. *(Target-like uptake)*

S1: Yes.

The aforementioned examples are more focused on the types of CF. The following excerpts exemplify the nature of target-like, non-target-like and no uptake in the students' interactions in a more detailed way.

Excerpt 1 (PI+Recast group, Question-and-answer activity: Birthday):

S1: Did you take many photos?

S2: No. I not taked. I wasn't taked.

S1: didn't take *(Recast)*

S2: I wasn't take. *(Non-target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family):

S1: He don’t had a money.

S2: That is false because that is past simple tense not present simple tense. We use did. *(MF)*

S1: he didn’t had. *(Non-target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 3 (PI+MF group, Telling Stories about Memory Activity):

S1: We were very funny. Then, we go out.

S2: Went out. We went out. *(Recast)*

S1: Then, a car crashed my friends. *(No uptake, topic continuation)*

Excerpt 4 (PI+Recast group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Camping):

S1: They didn’t took …

S2: Take *(Recast)*

S1: They didn’t take a torch. *(Target-like uptake)*

Excerpt 5 (PI+MF group, Question and answer activity: Birthday):

S1: What did you do after the party?

S2: I was came home.

S1: We don’t use “came” and” was” together. *(MF)*

S2: I came was. *(Non-target-like uptake)*

S1: No. *(MF)*

S2: I came home. *(Target-like uptake)*

4.2.2 Distribution of Peer Corrective Feedback in the Groups

During the intervention period, one of the groups was trained to give recasts, and the other one was trained to provide their peers’ errors with MF. However, in addition to these feedback types, the students in these groups, as exemplified in the previous section, also used some other CF types. Furthermore, although the students in the PI group were not given any

feedback training, some of them provided feedback to their peers' target grammar errors. To clarify the picture, the following table presents the distribution of the total number of errors related to the use of the simple past tense, all types of target-like PCF and non-target-like PCF in all of the groups. Additionally, figure 4 shows the percentage rate of PCF provided to simple past tense errors in the groups.

Table 5

Distribution of Past Tense Errors, Target-like and Non-target-like PCF in Each Group

Groups	Target-like PCF f (%)	Non-target-like PCF f (%)	Number of errors f
PI group	39 (7%)	5 (11%)	542
PI+Recast group (all types of CF included)	185 (36%)	15 (8%)	513
PI+MF group (all types of CF included)	184 (41%)	11 (6%)	444

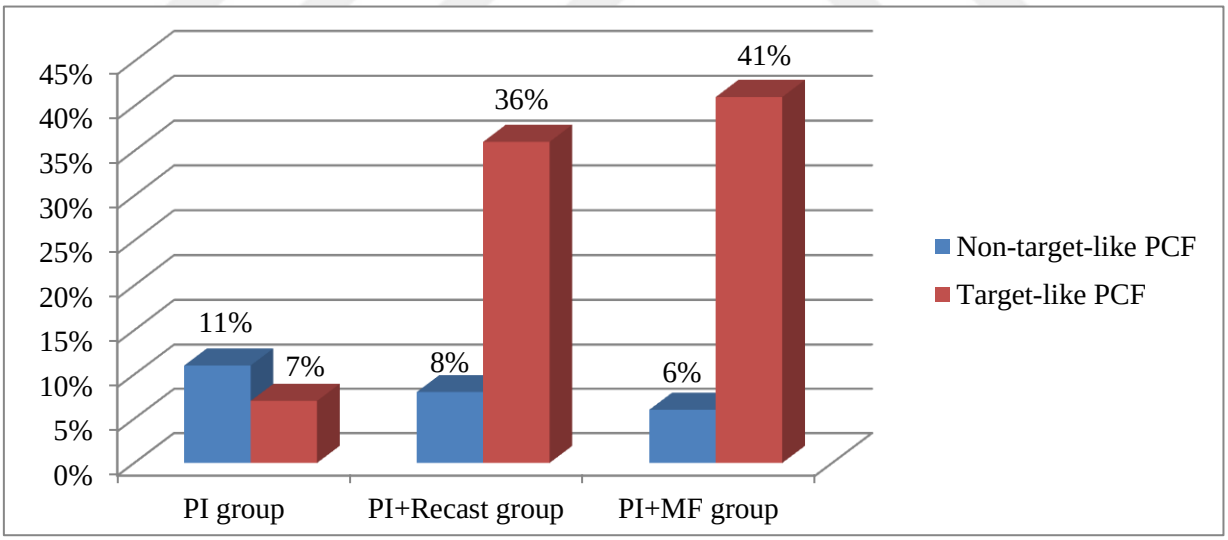


Figure 4. Percentage distribution of PCF provided to simple past errors in the groups

As noted earlier, the students in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups also used other CF types during their interactions. Therefore, the table and figure above cover the total number of all CF types used by the three groups. The total number of errors in the PI group was 542, the number of target-like PCF provided to the simple past tense errors was only 39 (7%), and the number of non-target-like feedback was 5 (11%). As for the PI+Recast group, the number of

errors was 513, and the total number of target-like and non-target-like PCF was 185 (36%) and 15 (8%) respectively. The total number of errors related to the simple past tense in the PI+MF group was 444, the number of target-like PCF was 184 (41%), and the number of non-target like PCF was 11 (6%) in total. It is clear that the rate of target-like PCF provided to simple past tense errors in the PI+MF and the PI+Recast groups was superior to the one provided in the PI group. This was an expected result as the PI+MF and the PI+Recast groups received feedback training. These findings provide a general picture in terms of the total number of errors and the PCF in each group. The detailed analysis of the CF types distributed in each group is given in the following sections.

4.2.3 Distribution of PCF in PI Group

Research question 1: *Do the students in the PI group provide each other with feedback for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what types of feedback do they provide? What is the distribution of feedback types?*

Out of twenty-eight students in the PI group, only twelve of them received feedback on only a small number of errors. Out of twelve, only one of them received PCF ten times and the other eleven got PCF at least one and at most six times. The other sixteen students were not provided with any PCF for their errors during their use of the target structure. In other words, more than half of the students did not receive any CF to their simple past tense errors. This is to be expected as this group did not get any CF training. The following table shows the total number of simple past errors and the PF in this group.

Table 6

Distribution of Past Tense Errors and CF in the PI Group

Total number of errors	Number of errors that received CF
f	f (%)
542	39 (7%)

As expected, only 39 (7%) of simple past tense errors (n=542) received PCF in this group. There were a few instances of feedback and the types of CF given to past tense errors are presented below.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentage of Each CF Type in the PI Group

CF types in PI Group	Total number of each CF type f (%)
Recast	24 (62%)
Explicit feedback	8 (21%)
MF	2 (5%)
MF with correction	3 (8%)
Repetition	1 (3%)
Direct Question	1 (3%)
Total	39 (100%)

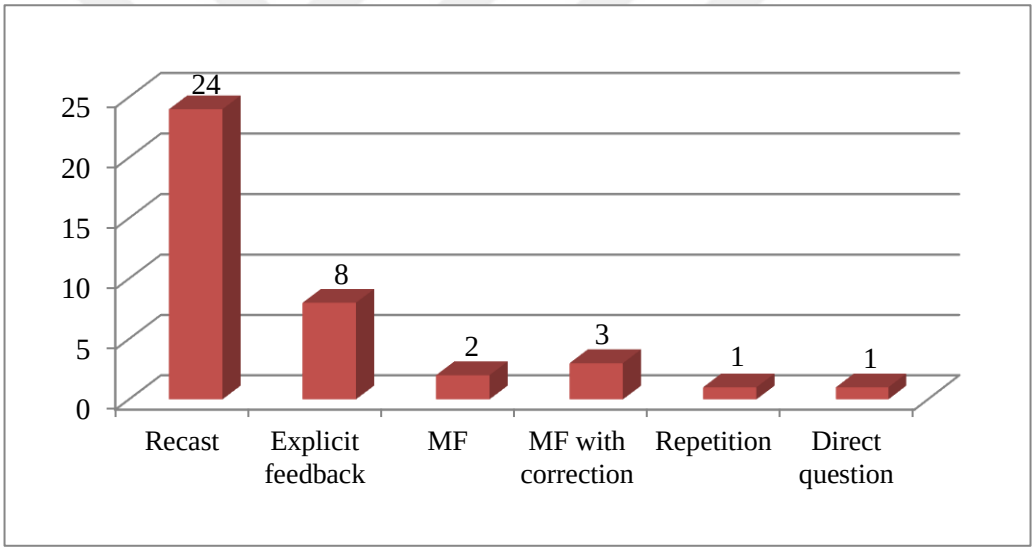


Figure 5. Frequency of each CF type in the PI group

Feedback occurred in the PI group only 39 times and the results demonstrate that the most frequently used feedback type in the PI group was recast (n=24; 62%). This was followed by explicit feedback (n=8; 21%). The other feedback types were MF (n=2; 5%), MF with correction (n=3; 8%), repetition (n=1; 3%) and direct question (n=1; 3%) respectively.

4.2.4 Distribution of PCF in PI+Recast Group

Research question 2: *Do the students in PI+Recast provide each other with recasts for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what is the distribution of recasts? Do the students in this*

group provide each other with other types of feedback? If they do, what is the distribution of other feedback types?

Analysis of interactional data shows that two out of twenty-nine students in this group did not get any CF for their simple past tense errors. One of the students received direct questions as feedback but did not receive any recasts. The rest of them used recasts and other CF types during their communication with each other. The PCF rate ranged between 5% to 82%. To find an answer to the above-mentioned research question, the total number of past tense errors that received either recasts or other types of CF was identified. The following table shows the distribution of recasts and other feedback types that were provided by students in the PI+Recast group.

Table 8

Distribution of Past Tense Errors, Recast and Other CF Types in the PI+Recast Group

Total number of errors	Errors that received recasts	Errors that received other CF types	Total number of CF to errors
f	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
513	153 (30%)	32 (6%)	185 (36%)

Out of 185 CF in this group, 153 of them consisted of recasts and 32 of them covered other CF types. The total number of errors while using the target grammar structure was 513, which received 153 (30%) recasts and 32 (6%) other CF types in total. The table and figure below report the distribution of recast and other types of CF in the PI+Recast group.

Table 9

Frequency and Percentage of Each CF Type in the PI+Recast Group

CF types in PI+Recast Group	Total number of each CF type f (%)
Recast	153 (83%)
Explicit feedback	18 (10%)
MF	5 (3%)
MF with correction	5 (3%)
Direct questions	3 (2%)
Clarification request	1 (1%)
Total	185 (100%)

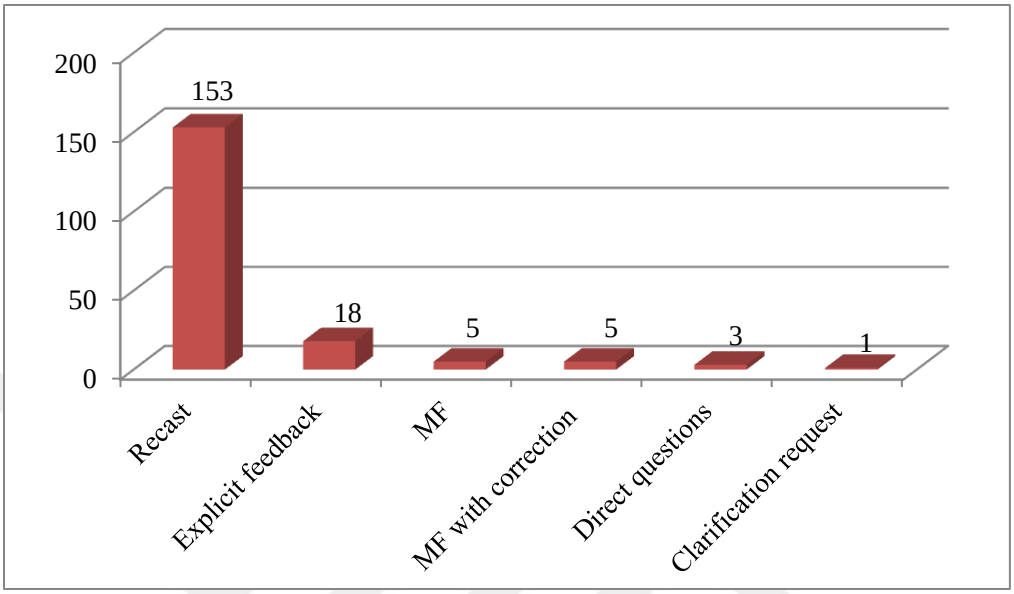


Figure 6. Frequency of each CF type in the PI+Recast group

The descriptive results indicate that recasts composed the biggest part with a rate of 153 (83%) in comparison to other feedback types. The other CF types were used at much lower rates as follows: explicit feedback (18; 10%), MF (5; 3%), MF with correction (5; 3%), direct questions (3; 2%) and clarification request (1; 1%). The findings point to the fact that some students not only provided recasts to each other but also used other types of feedback even though they were not trained to use them.

4.2.5 Distribution of PCF in PI+MF group

Research question 3: *Do the students in the PI+MF group provide each other with MF for their simple past tense errors? If they do, what is the distribution of MF? Do the students in this group provide each other with other types of feedback? If they do, what is the distribution of other feedback types?*

Out of twenty-eight students in the PI+MF group, five of them did not receive any PCF for their errors related to the target structure during the communicative tasks. In addition, one of the students only got recasts and explicit feedback from his peer rather than MF. The rest of them received MF and other feedback types to different degrees ranging between 13% to 92%.

The table below shows the total number of simple past tense errors and the total number of MF and other types of CF given to the target structure errors in the PI+MF group.

Table 10

Distribution of Past Tense Errors, MF and Other CF Types in the PI+MF Group

Total number of errors	Errors that received MF and MF with correction	Errors that received other CF types	Total number of CF to errors
f	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
444	121 (27%)	63 (14%)	184 (41%)

As the table shows, students made a total of 444 past tense errors during the communicative tasks. Out of 184 pieces of feedback, 121 and 63 of them were composed of MF and other feedback types respectively. Errors were provided with 121 (27%) MF and 63 (14%) other CF types. The following table and figure display the distribution of MF and other CF types that were provided by students to their peers' simple past tense errors in the PI+MF group. As MF was sometimes combined with correction, it is shown separately in the table.

Table 11

Frequency and Percentage of Each CF Type in the PI+MF Group

CF types in PI+MF Group	Total rate of each feedback type f (%)
MF	102 (55%)
MF with correction	19 (10%)
Recast	46 (25%)
Explicit feedback	9 (5%)
Direct questions	5 (3%)
Repetition	2 (1%)
Clarification request	1 (1%)
Total	184 (100%)

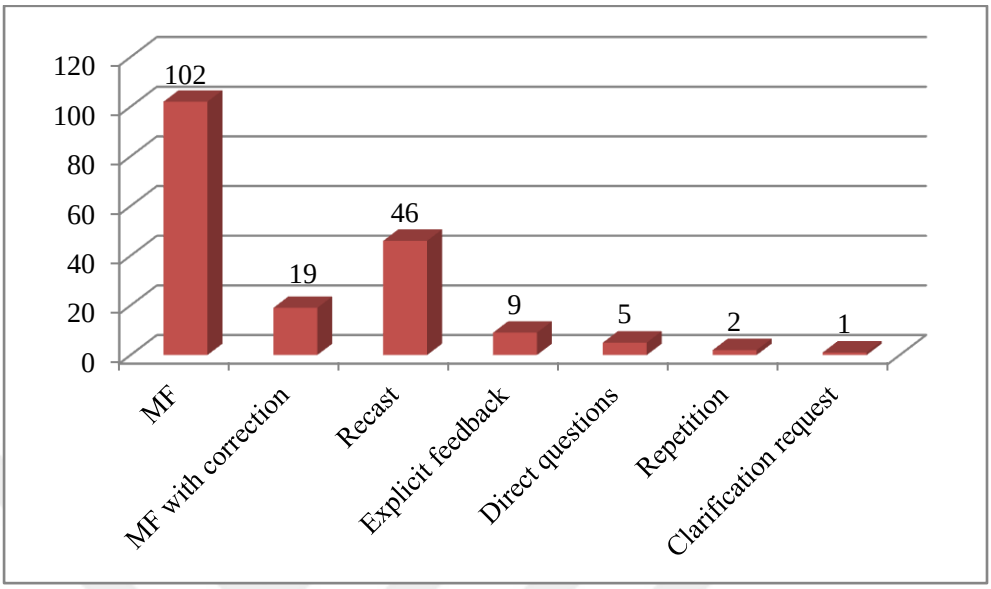


Figure 7. Frequency of each CF type in the PI+MF group

As illustrated above, 102 (55%) instances of MF and 19 (10%) instances of MF with correction were identified in learner-learner interactions. Considering this result, the total occurrence of MF in the PI+MF group was 121 in total. Although the students in this group were given instruction only about how to provide MF to each other, they also used other CF types during their interaction. Findings revealed a considerable number of recasts with 46 (25%) in this group. Other CF types occurred at lower rates as follows: explicit feedback 9 (5%), direct questions 5 (3%), repetition 2 (1%), and clarification request 1 (1%). As is clear, recast was the most commonly used CF type after MF in this group.

4.2.6 Request for Peer Feedback

On some occasions, students asked their peers to provide help when they had difficulties in the use of the simple past tense or when they had problems in composing simple past tense sentences. A similar case occurred in Foster and Ohta's (2005) work where they stated that "one of the ways learners obtained assistance was simply to ask for it, and when they did so they generally received a helpful answer" (p. 421). These researchers called this "explicit request for assistance" in their study (p. 422). This current study calls this process "request for peer feedback" (RfPF). The following excerpts exemplify the RfPF in learner-learner interactions:

Excerpt 1 (PI+MF group, Picture-cued narrative activity: Family story):

S1: One day they won a lottery. They sell sell… Do you know its past simple version? *(RfPF)*

S2: sold. *(Target-like answer)*

S1: sold. They sold old house and ….

Excerpt 2 (PI+MF group, Question-and-answer activity: Holiday):

S1: I… "swim" in past tense? *(RfPF)*

S2: swam. *(Target-like answer)*

S1: swam in sea.

Sometimes, the students had difficulties in expressing the past sentences and they asked for help by using their L1 (Turkish) as follows:

Excerpt 3 (PI+Recast group, Telling Stories about Memory Activity):

S1: Arkadaşlarımla beraberdim? *(RfPF)*

S2: I was… *(Target-like answer)*

S1: I was… beraber? *(RfPF)*

S2: with my friends. *(Target-like answer)*

S1: with my friends.

The following table and figure present the frequency and percentage of RfPF related to the use of simple past tense and types of answers being provided in the groups.

Table 12

Frequency of RfPF and Types of Answers in Groups

Groups	Total number of RfPF f	Target-like answers f (%)	Non-target-like answers f (%)	No answer f (%)
PI group	34	27 (79%)	5 (15%)	2 (6%)
PI+Recast group	37	35 (95%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
PI+MF group	23	22 (96%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)

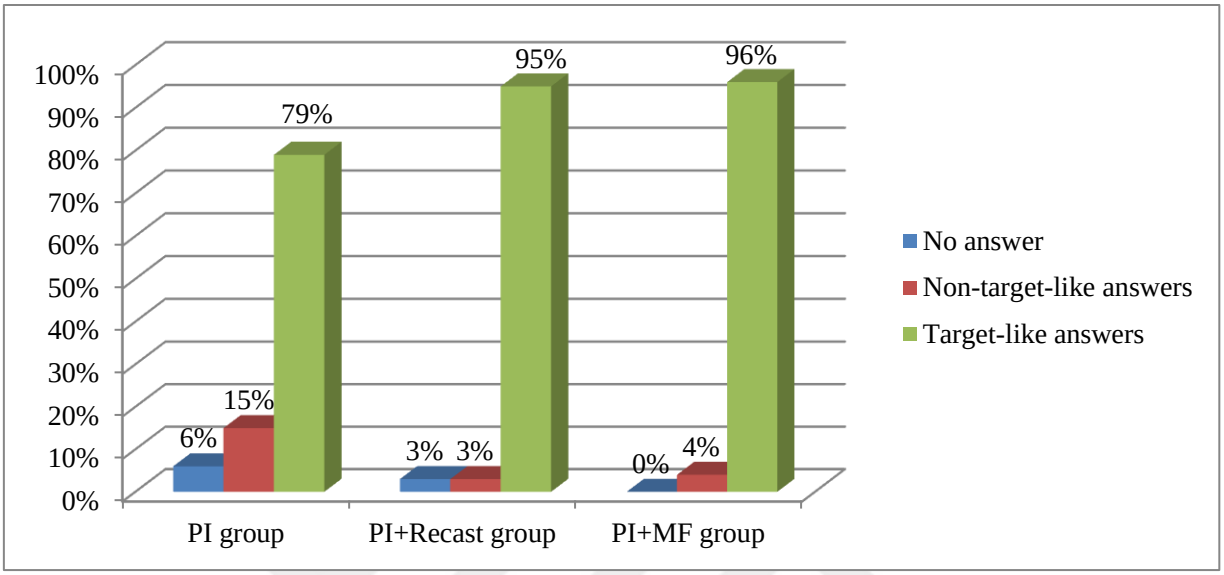


Figure 8. Percentage rate of "types of answers" given as a result of RfPF in groups

RfPF occurred 34 times in the PI group, and 27 (79%) of them resulted in target-like answers, 5 (15%) of them received non-target-like answers, and 2 (6%) of them were not given any answers. The students in the PI+Recast group requested feedback 37 times in total, which led to 35 (95%) target-like offers of feedback, 1 (3%) non-target-like offer and 1 (3%) no offer of feedback. As for the PI+MF group, PF was requested 23 times, and 22 (96%) and only one (4%) of them received target-like and non-target-like answers respectively. These findings indicate that most of the RfPF in each group were provided with target-like feedback.

4.2.7 Distribution of Learner Uptake in Groups

Research question 4: *Do the students in the PI group, the PI+Recast group and the PI+MF group produce uptake as a result of the target-like feedback they receive? What is the distribution of uptake types?*

The following table and figure, including the uptake rates in each group, enable us to see the whole picture of the uptake distribution as a result of target-like CF. For the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups, other CF types that were used by students were also included in the table and figure.

Table 13

Total Number of Uptakes Distributed by Each Group

Groups	Target-like uptake f (%)	Non-target-like uptake f (%)	No uptake f (%)	PCF f
PI Group	33 (85%)	1 (3%)	5 (13%)	39
PI+Recast group (all types of CF included)	169 (91%)	9 (5%)	7 (4%)	185
PI+MF group (all types of CF included)	160 (87%)	13 (7%)	11 (6%)	184

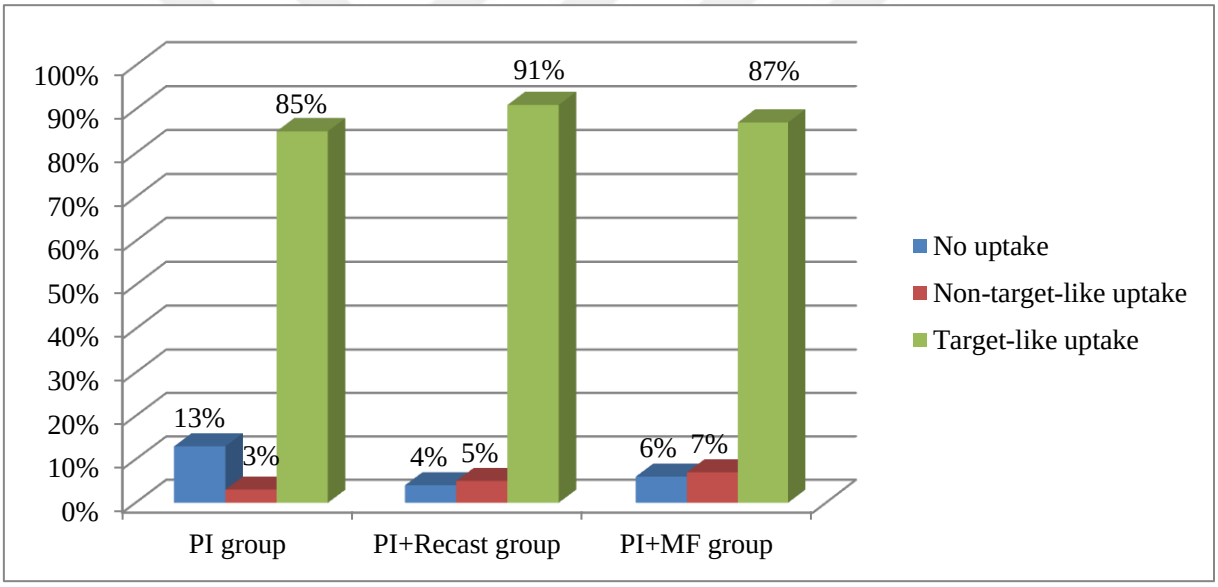


Figure 9. Percentage rate of uptake distributed by each group

As displayed above, the distribution of uptake in the PI group was as follows: 33 (85%) target-like uptake, 1 (3%) non-target-like uptake, and 5 (13%) no uptake. As for the PI+Recast group, frequency of target-like, non-target-like and no uptake was 169 (91%), 9 (5%) and 7(4%) respectively. In the PI+MF group, out of 184 PCF, 160 (87%), 13 (7%) and 11 (6%) of them resulted in target-like, non-target-like and no uptake, respectively. To analyze the parts of this picture in detail, uptake rates were identified and analyzed separately for each group. The table and figure below illustrate the distribution of the number of uptakes given to different feedback types in the PI group.

Table 14

Frequency and Percentages of Uptake According to CF Types in the PI Group

CF types	Target-like uptake f (%)	Non-target-like uptake f (%)	No uptake f (%)
Recast (n=24)	22 (92%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
Explicit Feedback (n= 8)	8 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
MF (n= 2)	1 (50%)	0 (0%)	1 (50%)
MF with correction (n= 3)	2 (67%)	0 (0%)	1 (33%)
Repetition (n=1)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
Direct question (n=1)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
Total (n=39)	33 (85%)	1 (3%)	5 (13%)

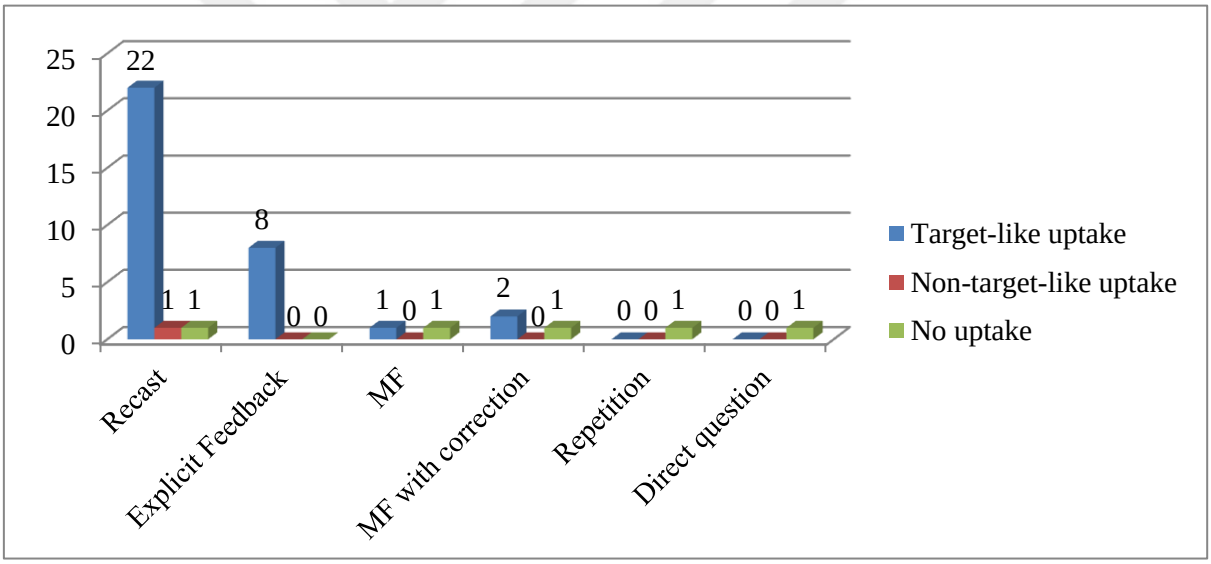


Figure 10. Frequency of uptake according to CF types in the PI group

Although the feedback number was very low in the PI group, most of the CF received target-like uptake. For instance, 22 (92%) of recasts led to target-like uptake. Only two of them resulted in either non-target-like uptake or no uptake. All of the explicit feedback received target-like uptake (8; 100%). 1 out of 2 MF and 2 out of 3 MF with correction resulted in target-like uptake. Repetition and direct questions did not yield any uptake. In brief, a total of 33 (85%) target-like uptakes were produced as a response to 39 target-like CF.

There were also instances of uptake in the PI+Recast group. The following table and figure give the distribution of uptakes given to different feedback types in the PI+Recast group.

Table 15

Frequency and Percentage of Uptake Rates According to CF Types in the PI+Recast Group

CF types	Target-like uptake f (%)	Non-target-like uptake f (%)	No uptake f (%)
Recast (n=153)	142 (93%)	7 (5%)	4 (3%)
Explicit feedback (n= 18)	14 (78%)	2 (11%)	2 (11%)
MF (n= 5)	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
MF with correction (n= 5)	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Direct question (n=3)	2 (67%)	0 (0%)	1 (33%)
Clarification request (n=1)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total (n=185)	169 (91%)	9 (5%)	7 (4%)

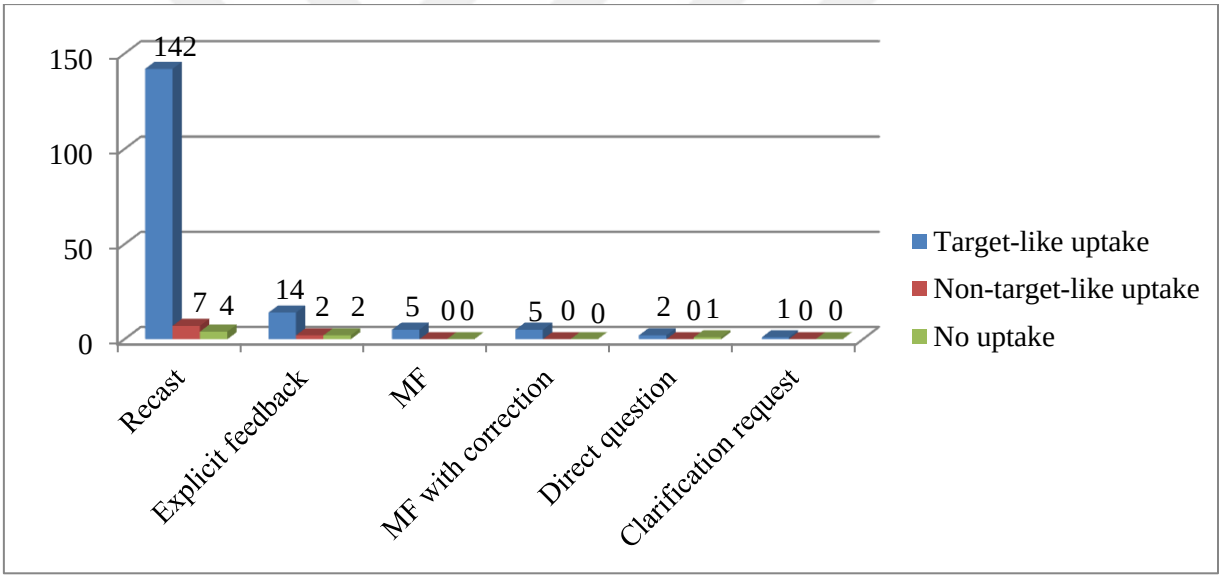


Figure 11. Frequency of uptake according to CF types in the PI+Recast group

A total number of 142 (93%) target-like uptakes, 7 (5%) non-target-like uptakes were produced as a result of recasts (n=153). Recasts led to no uptake in only 4(3%) cases. Additionally, 14 (78%) target-like, 2 (11%) non-target-like and 2 (11%) no uptakes were identified as a result of explicit feedback (n=18). MF and MF with correction elicited 100% target-like uptake. Direct question occurred 3 times and 2 (67%) of them elicited target-like uptake and the no-uptake rate was 1 (33%). Clarification requests were used only once, which resulted in target-like uptake. To sum up, out of 185 target-like pieces of feedback, 169 (91%) of them led the students to produce target-like uptake.

Rates of uptake types in relation to the different CF in the PI+MF group are presented below.

Table 16

Frequency and Percentage of Uptake According to CF Types in the PI+MF Group

CF types	Target-like uptake f (%)	Non-target-like uptake f (%)	No uptake f (%)
MF (n= 102)	85 (83%)	10 (10%)	7 (7%)
MF with correction (n= 19)	19 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Recast (n= 46)	42 (91%)	1 (2%)	3 (7%)
Explicit feedback (n=9)	7 (78%)	1 (11%)	1 (11%)
Direct Question (n=5)	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Repetition (n=2)	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	0 (0%)
Clarification request (n=1)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total (n=184)	160 (87%)	13 (7%)	11 (6%)

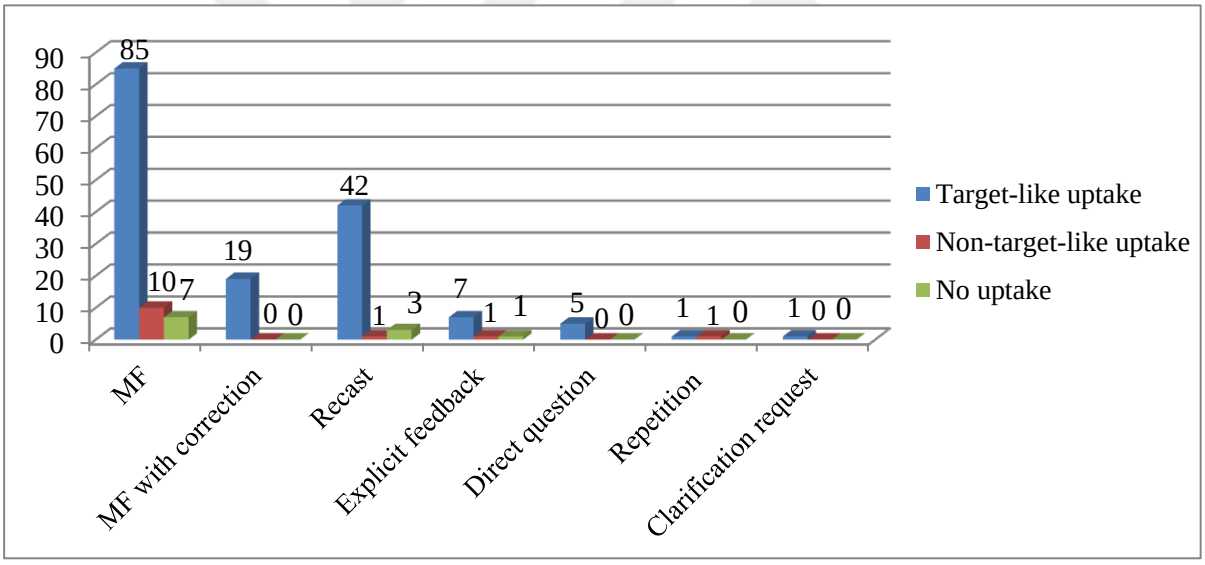


Figure 12. Frequency of uptake according to CF types in the PI+MF group

As illustrated in the table and figure above, MF (n=102) received 85 (83%) target-like uptakes, 10 (10%) non-target-like uptakes and 7 (7%) times resulted in no-uptake. As for MF with correction, it also yielded positive results by leading to 100% target-like uptake. 42 (91%) of the recasts led to target-like uptake. The non-target-like and no uptake rates for the recasts were 1 (2%) and 3 (7%) respectively. Out of 9 cases of explicit feedback, 7 (78%) of them resulted in target-like uptake and the other two were in the category of non-target-like and no uptake. Direct questions occurred 5 times and they all elicited target-like uptake. Repetition was used 2 times which elicited 1 target-like and 1 non-target-like uptake. Clarification

requests were used only once which led to a target-like uptake. These findings show that the total rate of target-like uptakes (160; 87%) produced as a result of target-like PCF (n=184) was very high in the PI+MF group. It is also important to note here that the high rate of target-like uptakes as a reaction to MF, direct question and clarification requests can also be shown as evidence of the students' ability to correct their own errors.

4.3 Findings of the Receptive and Productive Measures

The data obtained from the results of GJTs (pre-, post-, and delayed) and writing tasks (pre-, post-, and delayed) were analyzed through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 22.0. As some students in each group did not attend all of the tests (GJTs and Writing Tasks), statistical analyses were based on the test results of those students who participated in all of the three tests and activities. The number of students who were included in the statistical analyses were respectively 23 for the PI group, 18 for the PI+Recast group and 16 for the PI+MF group. To assess the data, descriptive statistics such as the means and standard deviations were used. To see whether the dependent variables were normally distributed, a normality analysis was performed by means of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk tests. The findings revealed that the variables did not show a normal distribution ($p<0.05$). For this reason, non-parametric analysis methods were employed in this study. To compare continuous quantitative variables between groups, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used, which was followed by the Mann-Whitney U test to identify differences through pairwise comparisons (see Büyüköztürk, 2011; Can, 2017; Larson-Hall, 2010; Phakiti, 2014). Additionally, differences between the repeated measures within each group were analyzed through Friedman and post-hoc Wilcoxon signed-rank tests (see Can, 2017; Phakiti, 2014). Findings were evaluated within 95% confidence interval using the 5% significance level. $p\leq 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. As stated by Mackey and Gass (2005), effect size refers to the "measure that gives an indication of the strength of one's findings" (p. 282). Therefore, effect sizes for the Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon Tests were calculated by using the formula "r= Z/ sqrt (N)", which was suggested by Pallant (2010), Larson-Hall (2010) and Phakiti (2014). The resulting effect sizes, as proposed by some researchers (e.g. Pallant, 2010; Phakiti, 2014), were interpreted by considering Cohen's criteria (1988, 1992) in which small,

medium and large effect sizes were indicated by the values .10, .30 and .50, respectively. The following sections cover the statistical findings related to the receptive and productive measures.

4.3.1 Findings of the GJTs

Research question 5: What are the effects of the PI, the PI+Recast and the PI+MF on the receptive knowledge of the target grammar structure?

Table 17 below shows the descriptive results (mean, standard deviation) of the groups' pre-, post-, and delayed post-GJTs.

Table 17

Results of Descriptive Statistics for the Groups' GJTs

	PI group (n=23)		PI+Recast group (n=18)		PI+MF group (n=16)	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
pre-GJT	17.130	2.668	16.833	4.515	16.813	3.816
post-GJT	17.304	2.930	17.667	3.896	18.438	2.780
delayed-GJT	14.652	2.757	16.111	3.740	17.875	2.419

This table demonstrates that GJT mean scores of all the groups increased from pre- to post-tests. When the pre- and delayed post-GJT mean scores are considered, though there was a decrease in the mean scores from pre- to delayed post-GJT in the PI and the PI+Recast groups, the mean score of the PI+MF group from pre- to delayed post-GJT showed an increase. The pre-test mean scores also indicate that learners were already familiar with the target grammar structure simple past tense.

In all of the groups, the same participants were measured three times through pre-, post-, and delayed post-test. To compare and see the changes between the aforementioned tests within each group, the Friedman test was applied. The table below gives the Friedman test results of each group regarding GJTs.

Table 18

Friedman Test Results of GJT

	Pre-GJT	Post-GJT	Delayed GJT	df	X^2	p	Difference
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank				
PI group (n=23)	2.24	2.39	1.37	2	15.494	0.000	1,2>3
PI+Recast group (n=18)	2.03	2.39	1.58	2	6.492	0.039	2>1,3
PI+MF group (n=16)	1.63	2.41	1.97	2	5.414	0.067	

For the PI group, the Friedman test results showed a statistically significant difference among the measures (x^2= 15.494, p= 0.000<0.05). Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was applied to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between pre- and post-GJT scores, and it was found that the difference between the scores was not statistically significant (Z= -0.610, p= 0.542>0.05, r= 0.09). The Wilcoxon test was also applied to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of the post and delayed GJTs. The results indicated a statistically significant difference between them (Z= -3.547, p= 0.000<0.05, r= 0.52). The gain score in the post-GJT was higher than the delayed GJT gain score. Also, there was a statistically significant difference between pre- and delayed post-GJT scores (Z= -2.921, p= 0.003<0.05, r= 0.43). Gain scores of pre-GJT was higher than that of delayed GJT.

According to the Friedman test results conducted for the PI+Recast group, a statistically significant difference was found among the measures (x^2= 6.492, p= 0.039<0.05). Therefore, the Wilcoxon test was used to test differences. The results demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between pre-GJT and post-GJT scores (Z= -2.218, p= 0.027<0.05, r= 0.37). There was an increase from pre-test to post-test. Also, a statistically significant difference was found between the scores of the post- and delayed GJT scores (Z= -2.450, p= 0.014<0.05, r= 0.40). The post-GJT scores were higher than that of the delayed GJT scores. Contrary to this, there was not a statistically significant difference between the scores of pre- and delayed- GJT results (Z= -1.359, p= 0.174>0.05, r= 0.23). As for the PI+MF group, Friedman test results did not reveal any significant differences among the measures (x^2= 5.414, p= 0.067>0.05).

In order to compare the pre-, post- and delayed-GJT results of the three groups, and see whether there are any statistically significant differences between them, the Kruskal Wallis test was run.

Table 19

Kruskal Wallis Test Results for GJTs

	PI group (n=23)	PI+Recast group (n=18)	PI+MF group (n=16)	df	X^2	p	Difference
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank				
pre-GJT	28.07	30.44	28.72	2	0.217	0.897	
post-GJT	24.87	30.78	32.94	2	2.601	0.272	
delayed-GJT	20.85	30.92	38.56	2	11.224	0.004	2 > 1 3 > 1

According to the findings obtained from the Kruskal Wallis Test analysis, there were not any statistically significant differences between the groups' pre-GJT scores (x^2= 0.217, p= 0.897>0.05), which shows the statistical baseline for these groups, indicating the similar levels of knowledge related to the target structure before the training period. Likewise, the findings revealed no significant intergroup differences in the post-GJT scores of the groups (x^2= 2.601, p= 0.272>0.05). Contrary to this, statistically significant differences were found among the groups in terms of delayed GJT results (x^2= 11.224, p= 0.004<0.05). On this basis, post-hoc Mann Whitney U tests were performed for multiple pairwise comparisons. The results showed a statistically significant difference between the PI+Recast and the PI groups' delayed GJT scores with a medium effect size (U= 133.000, Z= - 1.957, p ≤0.050, r= .31) and the PI+MF and the PI groups' delayed GJT scores with a large effect size (U=70.500, Z= -3.257, p= 0.001, r= 0.52). The delayed GJT scores of both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups were higher than that of the PI group. Results did not yield any statistically significant difference between the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups' delayed GJT scores (U= 104.500, Z= -1.374, p= 0.169, r= 0.24).

4.3.2 Findings of the Writing Tasks

Research Question 6: What are the effects of the PI, the PI+Recast and the PI+MF on the productive knowledge of the target grammar structure?

The following table presents the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) for the groups' pre-, post- and delayed-writing tasks.

Table 20

Results of Descriptive Statistics for the Groups' Writing Tasks

	PI group (n=23)		PI+Recast group (n=18)		PI+MF group (n=16)	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
Writing pre-test	60.393	18.979	63.855	22.292	68.742	12.229
Writing post-test	71.216	13.473	75.745	18.011	83.678	8.603
Writing delayed-test	73.688	16.742	85.059	15.929	86.443	9.664

As the table shows, the pre-, post-, and delayed-writing task mean scores of all the groups increased from pre- to post-writing tasks and post- to delayed-writing tasks.

For the within group analysis of the writing task results, the Friedman test was used and the findings are presented in the following table.

Table 21

Friedman Test Results for the Writing Tasks

	Pre-writing task	Post-writing task	Delayed-writing task	df	X^2	p	Difference
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank				
PI group (n=23)	1.39	2.26	2.35	2	12.870	0.002	1<2,3
PI+Recast group (n=18)	1.22	2.00	2.78	2	21.778	0.000	1<2; 1,2<3
PI+MF group (n=16)	1.06	2.28	2.66	2	22.571	0.000	1<2,3

As shown in the table, the Friedman test results revealed a statistically significant difference in the PI group's test results (x^2= 2.870, p= 0.002<0.05). The Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was conducted to see what the difference resulted from. A statistically significant difference was found between the writing pre- and post-tasks (Z= -3.406, p= 0.001<0.05, r= 0.50) and the

pre- and delayed-writing tasks (Z= -3.194, p= 0.001<0.05, r= 0.47). The gain scores for the post and delayed writing tasks were bigger than that of the pre-writing task. Contrary to this, there was not a significant difference between the writing post- and delayed-tasks (Z= -1.125, p= 0.260>0.05, r= 0.17).

As for the PI+Recast group, the Friedman test results indicated a statistically significant difference (x^2= 21.778, p= 0.000<0.05). The Wilcoxon test was applied and it indicated that the difference between the pre- and post-writing task was statistically significant (Z= -3.201, p= 0.001<0.05, r= 0.53). The pre-writing task scores were lower than the post-writing task scores. Also, there was a statistically significant difference between the writing post and delayed task scores (Z= -3.092, p= 0.002<0.05, r= 0.52) and the writing pre- and delayed task scores (Z= -3.724, p= 0.000<0.05, r= 0.62). The gain scores in writing delayed task were bigger than that of writing pre- and post-task.

According to the Friedman test results, a statistically significant difference was found between the measures in the PI+MF group (x^2= 22.571, p= 0.000<0.05). The Wilcoxon test was run and there was a statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-writing tasks (Z= -3.464, p= 0.001<0.05, r= 0.61) and the pre- and delayed-writing task (Z= -3.516, p= 0.000<0.05, r= 0.62). The scores in the post and delayed writing tasks were higher than the pre-writing task scores. However, there was not a significant difference between the writing post- and delayed post-tasks (Z= -1.420, p= 0.156, r= 0.25).

In order to compare the three groups' pre-, post- and delayed-writing task results, and see whether there are any statistically significant differences between them, the Kruskal Wallis test was run. The following table presents the findings of the Kruskal Wallis test.

Table 22

Kruskal Wallis Test Results for Writing Tasks

	PI group (n=23)	PI+Recast group (n=18)	PI+MF group (n=16)	df	X^2	p	Difference
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank				
Pre-writing task	25.74	29.61	33.00	2	1.842	0.398	
Post-writing task	22.57	29.25	37.97	2	8.136	0.017	3 > 1
Delayed-writing task	21.37	35.31	32.88	2	8.334	0.016	2 > 1 3 > 1

The Kruskal Wallis test results indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference among the three groups' pre-writing task results (x^2= 1.842, p= 0.398>0.05), which showed that the three groups were statistically similar prior to the intervention. Contrary to this, statistically significant differences were found in respect to the writing post-task (x^2= 8.136, p= 0.017<0.05) and the writing delayed-task results of the groups (x^2= 8.334, p= 0.016<0.05). In order to determine where the difference stems from, post-hoc Mann Whitney U tests were carried out. Considering the writing post-task scores, a statistically significant difference was observed between the PI+MF group and the PI group with a close-to-large effect size (U= 83.500, Z= -2.870, p= 0.004, r= 0.46). The writing post-task scores of the PI+MF group were statistically higher than the writing post-task scores of the PI group. Contrary to this, there were not any statistically significant differences between the post-writing task scores of the PI and the PI+Recast groups (U= 159.500, Z= -1.248, p= 0.212, r= 0.19) and the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups (U= 101.000, Z= -1.484, p= 0.138, r= 0.25).

Intergroup comparisons of the delayed writing tasks revealed statistically significant differences between the PI+Recast and the PI groups with a medium effect size (U= 118.500, Z= -2.326, p= 0.020, r= 0.35) and the PI+MF and the PI groups with an effect size between medium and large (U= 97.000, Z= -2.484, p= 0.013, r= 0.40). The comparison of the delayed writing scores of the PI+Recast and the PI+MF did not show any statistically significant differences (U= 119.000, Z= -0.863, p= 0.388, r= 0.15). The findings indicate the superiority of both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups over the PI group in terms of the writing delayed task scores.

4.4 Findings of the Follow-up Written Interviews

Research question 7: *How do learners perceive peer interaction and peer feedback? What are their reflections about the implementation?*

Using content analysis, five major themes emerged, some of which were composed of sub-themes as in the following:

1. Positive reflections on PI through communicative activities

    - Language-related factors

- Non-language factors

2. Negative reflections on PI and activities

3. Positive reflections on PF

- Helpful for learning

- Helpful for errors and accuracy

4. Problems related to PF

5. Solutions to the problems

As noted earlier, the frequency of the identified codes related to each sub-theme was indicated with numbers in brackets. It is important to remember that the number of occurrences are not confined to the intervention activity on the simple past tense, and so they represent students' perceptions and responses related to the whole implementation, not just what occurred during the tasks related to the simple past tense.

1. Positive reflections on PI through communicative activities

This theme covers positive reflections of students on completing communicative activities through PI. Including the responses of the participants from the three groups, this theme is composed of two sub-themes as: a) Language-related factors, b) Non-language factors. Most of the students had positive thoughts about performing communicative activities through PI. A total of 148 affirmative comments were elicited from the analysis related to PI. The following sections present the findings regarding both language-related factors and non-language factors.

a) Language-related factors: Students mostly thought that PI contributed to their learning in different ways. Fifteen students stated that interacting through communicative tasks made a positive contribution to their English proficiency. Some of them highlighted that not only their grammar (n=19) and vocabulary knowledge (n=10) improved but also there was an improvement in their speaking ability (n=16). Six students underlined that PI had positive effects on their pronunciation. Some students (n=4) also stated that the activities gave them the chance to practice and repeat what they had learned previously. Additionally, learner interactions were stated to be helpful for better, permanent learning by some students (n=13).

The following excerpts exemplify participants' ideas from each group regarding the above-mentioned sub-theme:

PI+MF group (S12): "Through these activities, we improve our English proficiency."

PI group (S11): "I think that activities improve my grammar knowledge."

PI+Recast (S4): "My speaking ability improves through these activities."

PI group (S24): "I think that these activities are beneficial. They are very important for both vocabulary and grammar."

PI+MF group (S17): "The activities were generally beneficial. I see that my friends have improved their speaking skill and grammar knowledge."

PI group (S25): "The activities that we do with our peers are really beneficial because we not only repeat what we learned but also improve our speaking ability."

PI group (S1): "I think activities improve my pronunciation of words."

PI group (S5): "These activities provide us to use the vocabulary and grammar we learned during our speaking, so what we learned becomes permanent."

b) Non-language factors: Students also identified how interacting through communicative tasks contributed to their learning in other, non-language ways. For instance, some students (n=13) reported that that they helped each other when they had difficulty, which shows that PI created a supportive classroom environment for students. Affective factors such as feeling less embarrassed and improving self-confidence were also highlighted among the positive effects of PI (n=7). Furthermore, seven students who indicated that tasks through PI were very entertaining for them. Also, five of the students stressed that interaction through communicative activities was more effective for their learning than course books. As they were natural and impromptu, they were very effective according to some students (n=3). The excerpts below exemplify the afore-mentioned perceptions respectively as follows:

PI group (S21): "When I can't do, my friend helps me."

PI+Recast (S17): "Doing communicative activities with our friends made positive effects on me. I felt more relaxed and understood better."

PI group (S21): “The positive side of the activities is that I can talk with my partner, not on my own. This gives me self-confidence.”

PI+Recast group (S1): “I think it is very good. They are entertaining and didactic”

PI group (S5): “I think that these activities are more beneficial than course books.”

PI+MF group (S13): “Activities were good. They are beneficial. It is not good to depend only on course books because we get bored during the lesson.”

PI+MF group (S8): “My opinion is that as these activities are natural, they are effective and successful.”

The above reported sub-themes included the three groups’ views about completing communicative tasks through PI. Although the students in the PI group were not provided with feedback training, there were instances of the terms *error, feedback and noticing* in students’ interview data. Therefore, these instances are presented separately to get more insight about students’ ideas in the PI group. Contrary to the students in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups, which were instructed on CF, the students in the PI group were only asked to perform communicative activities with their peers. Despite not getting feedback training, fourteen students stated that they gave feedback to each other during communicative tasks. There were six students who reported that the PI tasks helped them to notice their errors. Some other students (n=7) underlined that they began to produce more correct sentences. The following excerpts illustrate students’ extra reflections in the PI group.

PI group (S22): “I can correct my partner’s errors or s/he can correct mine.”

PI group (S11): “I have learned to produce more correct sentences.”

PI group (S23): “I notice my errors during or after the activities, and so I hardly make the same errors again.”

In addition to these findings, one student in the PI+Recast group and two students in the PI group indicated that PI tasks helped them to see their own shortcomings.

2. Negative reflections on PI and activities

This theme involves students’ negative perceptions about performing communicative tasks

through PI. The number of students that reflected negatively on the activities and PI was very small. Some students in each group shared problems that they encountered during the implementation of the activities. For instance, some students (n=5) from the three groups indicated that they sometimes got bored. A student from the PI group (S15) stated that: "Activities are very good for learning and improving English proficiency but frequent repetition of them can be boring after a while. I think that the activities should continue but their frequency should be decreased." As a part of the training period, students completed more than two activities each week because the activities were composed of two versions. Considering the statement above, it might be better to ask students' ideas about the frequency of the activities. During the activities, students in each group were randomly matched in pairs and two students in the PI group indicated their concerns about the peers they collaborated with. For instance, one of them (S9) reported that, "the positive side of the activities is that they really improve our English. As for the negative side, we are not very comfortable during our communication as our partner is not our close friend." Again, in the PI group, three students indicated that the activities did not improve their grammar. One of the students (S20) in the PI+Recast group reported that the activities were beneficial; however, there were times when his/her partner could not be helpful. One of the students (S15) reported that the question and answer activity was very difficult for him/her.

3. Positive reflections on PF

The third major theme that emerged from the content analysis was positive reflections on PF. Only two groups (PI+Recast and PI+MF) received questions related to feedback as the PI group did not receive any training about providing feedback. 75 positive responses from the following categories were reported for the use of feedback during the communicative tasks. The following sub-themes were identified according to the responses of the students from the two feedback groups.

a) Helpful for learning: It was stated by some students (n=12) that feedback led to better and permanent learning. Seven students highlighted the benefits of feedback to their grammar knowledge. Three of the students stated that their speaking skill improved after receiving feedback. Two students expressed that both they and their partners (both interlocutors) learned through providing feedback. One of the students said that s/he learned how to correct others

and two of the students indicated that they improved themselves by providing feedback. The excerpts below exemplify these perceptions:

PI+MF group (S6): "It was beneficial. Learning the correct version after making an error leads to more permanent learning."

PI+Recast group (S8): "I think our grammar knowledge has improved."

PI+MF group (S3): "It is beneficial. It helps both interlocutors to reinforce what was learned."

b) Helpful for errors and accuracy: Some of the students (n=16) indicated that their total number of errors decreased with the help of feedback. 13 students stated that feedback helped them notice their errors. In addition to this, some students (n=11) underlined that feedback helped them to correct their errors. Some of them (n=8) indicated that through feedback they became more careful (e.g. while listening or speaking, or after each mistake). The following excerpts exemplify these reflections:

PI+MF group (S1): "Feedback is very beneficial both for ourselves and our friend because we see our errors and correct them. This decreases our number of errors."

PI+Recast group (S14): "Feedback helps me notice and correct my error."

PI+MF group (S8): "It was very beneficial as we had the chance to correct our grammar errors immediately."

PI+MF group (S14): "Feedback that my friend gave helped me become more careful and see my weaknesses."

PI+Recast Group (S13): "In order to provide feedback to my partner's errors, I listened to him/her more carefully…"

4. Problems related to PF

This theme presents the problems and negative reflections of the students in relation to PF. As the feedback groups (PI+Recast and PI+MF) received feedback instruction, their responses were collected under this title. Although most of the students expressed positive opinions about providing and receiving feedback, some students highlighted the problems they encountered during this process. Some students (n=6) indicated that either they or their

partners could not provide feedback every time. One of the students in the PI+MF group explained this situation as follows:

PI+MF group (S2): “Although I could not correct every error of my partner, I learned to focus on the speech of my partner.”

Some of others (n=4) indicated that they had difficulty in noticing their peers’ errors. The following excerpts exemplify this:

PI+Recast (S1): “Sometimes I cannot notice these errors; however, I always correct the errors that I notice.”

PI+Recast (S16): “There are times when we don’t notice the errors; however, this is not a problem as we pay attention most of the time.”

There were a few students (n=4) who had problems in terms of providing feedback as they were not sure about what was correct. For instance, one of the students expressed this problem as follows:

PI+Recast (S7): “While correcting some of the errors with great ease, I hesitated in correcting some others.”

Only 4 students indicated that receiving feedback did not contribute to their learning. One of them wrote as follows:

PI+MF (S5): “I don’t think my friend’s feedback is beneficial for me because we generally focus on the topic that we talk on and forget about grammar.”

Only one student reported that s/he was annoyed when interrupted while talking as the following excerpt shows:

PI+Recast (S19): “Although it was sometimes annoying to be interrupted while talking, it was a really good activity.”

Another student indicated that it was difficult to explain the error and correct version in English. There were six students who reported that at the beginning they had difficulties in providing their peers with feedback but they got used to it and learned how to give feedback in time.

5. Solutions to the problems

Students who encountered problems in terms of providing feedback explained the solutions they found. They were categorized as follows:

- asking the teacher
- getting help from friends
- using Turkish sometimes
- using other ways to solve the problem

Some students stated that when they had difficulty in correcting errors, they asked the teacher (n=3) or they got help from their partners or other friends (n=6).

PI+Recast (S14): "I sometimes had problems. I sometimes asked them either to my friend or to my teacher."

PI+MF (S21): "I wanted help from my friend when I encountered any problems."

PI+Recast (S10): "I didn't have many problems. When I had, we overcame this by correcting the error together. We found the correct version by asking another friend who knew the correct version."

Some students (n=3) indicated that they used Turkish when they could not explain the error in English. One of the students explained it as follows:

PI+MF (S13): "I had problems but I understood how to correct errors. When I couldn't correct, I tried to explain in Turkish."

Eight students identified other solutions (e.g. making brief explanations, using mimics and gestures, looking at dictionary) to the problems they encountered while correcting their peers. The following excerpts demonstrate this:

PI+MF (S20): "I used mimics and gestures."

PI+Recast (S13): "There were times when I didn't know and couldn't correct. I solved this problem in time by looking at the dictionary or getting help from other resources."

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion in light of the research questions and findings. First of all, the descriptive findings related to the interactional patterns (e.g. PCF and uptake distribution) will be underlined. Next, the effectiveness of the implementation on receptive and productive knowledge of the target form will be discussed. The final part will center on the discussion of the learners' beliefs about PI and PF.

5.2 Distribution of Peer Corrective Feedback in the Groups

The first three research questions asked whether students could provide each other with CF or not. The main purpose of the analysis of the feedback patterns in learner-learner interactions was to find out whether the feedback training was effective for the feedback groups. Second, it was used to identify whether the students in the PI group, who were not given feedback training, provided feedback to their peers' errors related to the target grammar form. The results, as expected, show that the occurrence of feedback was higher in the PF groups in comparison to the PI group. The low distribution of feedback in the PI group is indicative of the fact that this group did not receive feedback training. Based on these findings, it can be said that feedback training was helpful in raising students' awareness about the target grammar forms and errors they produced. This is in line with the findings of Sato and Lyster (2012) who highlighted the positive relationship between CF training and increased language awareness. According to their findings, students who were taught how to give CF to one

another were more attentive to language forms during communicative tasks. Similarly, when the frequency of feedback in all the groups is considered in this current study, it can be said that students in the PF groups were more focused on their peers' errors than the ones in the PI group as expected.

There are also other important issues that deserve to be addressed. For instance, the students in the PF groups were trained to give only one type of feedback; however, some students were observed using other CF types during their communication with their peers. The most frequently used feedback type was MF (n=121) in the PI+MF group. Nevertheless, some students incorporated other CF types into their communication as follows: recasts (n=46), explicit feedback (n=9), direct question (n=5), repetition (n=2) and clarification (n=1). As for the PI+Recast group, in addition to recasts (n=153), other preferred CF types were explicit feedback (n=18), MF (n=5), MF with correction (n=5), direct question (n=3), and clarification request (n=1), respectively. The notable thing here is that the occurrence of other feedback types was not very high; however, the frequency of recasts (n=46) in the PI+MF group cannot be ignored. Also, even in the PI group, which did not receive feedback training, recasts were the most frequently used feedback type among all others (n=24). The number of occurrences can be explained by the fact that providing recasts is easy for learners (Sato & Lyster, 2012), and so they sometimes preferred to correct errors through recasts instead of MF. This supports the findings of Sato and Lyster (2012) who found that recasts were the most frequently used corrective feedback type by the learners when compared to the prompts. This was also the case in some teacher feedback studies (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002, Suzuki, 2004; Yoshida, 2008b) which found that teachers mostly preferred recasts rather than MF while correcting learners' errors. On the other hand, it is clear that training can be useful in making students effective MF providers as MF had the highest percentage in the PI+MF group, which cannot be underestimated. These findings are also crucial as they prove how learners can be effective MF and recast providers after receiving short-term training.

As for the PI group, there was a low frequency of feedback occurrences (n=39) and as mentioned before, the most commonly used feedback type was recasts (n=24, 62%) in this group as it was in Morris's study (2002) which searched the learners' interactional patterns. However, this contrasts with McDonough's (2004) study which presented clarification

requests (82%) as the most commonly used feedback in learner-learner interactions. There were no instances of clarification requests in this current study's PI group. Additionally, in McDonough's study there were no instances of MF and repetition although this present study witnessed their occurrence in the PI group. These contradictory findings may be indicative of the fact that the feedback type used by the learners may depend on the target language structure. While the target structure in Mcdonough's study was conditional clauses, this current study focused on the simple past tense. On this basis, it can be said that the existence and amount of feedback may be different in different learning contexts and may vary according to different L2 forms unless learners are trained and directed to use specific feedback types.

As noted earlier, there were only a few students (n=12) in the PI group who provided a small amount of feedback to their partner's simple past tense errors despite not being trained to do so. This finding underscores the necessity of corrective feedback training as more than half of the students (16 out of 28) did not receive any feedback for their errors. As for the low frequency of feedback in the PI group, it can be said that learners may have avoided giving feedback to each other because of the following reasons: 1) They did not know how to correct their peers' errors (Sato & Lyster, 2012), 2) As they were not directed to give feedback, they may have ignored their peers' errors even if they noticed them. Taken together, these reasons call for the necessity of feedback training (Bruton & Samuda, 1980) as this training can foster students' awareness of each other's errors (see Sato & Lyster, 2012, Sippel, 2017).

The benefits of PI and PF become more apparent when the total occurrences of target-like PCF (n=408) in the 21 hours of this study is compared with the occurence of teacher feedback of different durations in other studies. For instance, the total number of pieces of teacher corrective feedback given in 21 hours in Suzuki's (2004) study was 129. The number of feedback provided to students' errors by teachers in 7 hours was T1 (n=26), T2 (n=31), T3 (n=72), respectively. Moreover, Yoshida's (2008b) analysis of 30 hours of classroom interaction between teachers and learners showed that the total number of pieces of teacher feedback was 92. Fu and Nassaji (2016) found that teacher feedback occurred 194 times during 10 hours of classroom interaction between teachers and learners. In light of these results, it can be said that the opportunity to produce more language and to meet more CF can

be increased through learner-learner interactions and feedback training. Therefore, PI and PF can have a complementary function of the interaction between teacher and learners.

In the current study, out of 439 feedback instances, the number of target-like feedback was 408 (93%), and the number of non-target-like feedback was 31 (7%). As such, one might question the efficacy of PF as there were a few instances of non-target-like PF. Though the occurrence of a few instances of non-target-like feedback, the gain scores of the feedback groups in the receptive and productive measures and the students' comments, which will be discussed in detail in the next sections, show the positive effects of the PF. In relation to this issue, Sippel and Jackson (2015) addressed a very crucial point. They raised the question about why PF had equal or more positive effects in comparison to teacher feedback on target language grammar form learning. One of the noteworthy things that they stressed was that "while the learners in the teacher feedback group benefited primarily from the high quality and quantity of feedback, the learners in peer feedback group may have benefitted from additional factors, including self-corrections and group discussions about linguistic forms" (p.700). They also added that contrary to the passive roles learners adopt while receiving teacher feedback, they play active roles in peer interaction by being both feedback receivers and providers (see also Adams et al., 2011; Sato & Lyster, 2012). For instance, the learners in Adams et al.'s (2011), though not trained to give feedback to each other, provided their peers with target-like feedback 266 (67%) times. In a similar vein, the findings of the present study show that learners tried to do something both for their own and their peers' learning, and took active roles in the learning process by providing and receiving feedback. Also, it was seen that learners were sensitive to their peers' problems in the use of the target form. When they were asked for help, most of the time they tried to provide their peers with the correct form as it was seen in the results of the RfPF. Therefore, despite the occurrence of some non-target-like feedback, their active engagement in the interactive tasks and their collaborative work took them a step further.

All in all, the distribution of feedback in each group confirms that feedback training for the two groups was helpful as it directed students' attention more to the target form when compared to the PI group. It is also important to remember that students may not be able to give CF to all of the errors of their peers during communicative activities. The noteworthy

thing here is to raise students' awareness about the importance and necessity of providing CF. As the students in the feedback training groups responded to their peers' errors with more corrections than the ones in the PI group, this can be offered as evidence of the fact that training learners can be a useful way to contribute to their sense of responsibility for each other's learning. These findings are consistent with previous research (e.g. Garcia-Mayo & Pica, 2000; Jackson & Sippel, 2015 Ohta, 2000; Sato & Lyster, 2012) in that students supported each other's learning.

5.3 Distribution of Learner Uptake in the Groups

The fourth research question was included to see the reactions of the students to the target-like CF provided by their peers. The focus of this study was not on examining whether there was a relationship between learner uptake and learning of L2 forms or not. However, the possible beneficial role of uptake in L2 learning (Ellis et al., 2001) and the presence of studies which found (e.g. Loewen, 2005; Williams, 2001) a positive correlation between uptake and L2 learning highlight the necessity of analyzing the term "uptake" in detail from different perspectives. Considering that, the study tried to fill in some missing parts of the puzzle by descriptively analyzing uptake in learner-learner interactions rather than teacher-learner interactions. In other words, this study attempts to contribute to the field by presenting the learner uptake rates in response to peer feedback not teacher's feedback.

First of all, the findings of this present study reveal a high rate of target-like (successful) uptake occurrence in learner-learner interactions (PI group=85%; PI+Recast group=91%; PI+MF group=87%). Considering the potential role of uptake in indicating that noticing has occurred (Loewen, 2004), it can be said that the high percentage of learner uptake in this study may be a sign of the fact that learners noticed their errors through the CF provided by their peers. Thus, one might wonder whether these groups produced high rates of uptake because they were given feedback training. However, during feedback training sessions the focus was on providing feedback not producing uptake. Also, the students in the PI group did not receive feedback training, but the students who received feedback produced target-like uptake 85% of the time. This shows that learners were not oblivious of their peers' feedback as they mostly

noticed their errors and tried to produce the correct forms as a result of the PF they received. Although the feedback groups and the PI group significantly differed in their rates of feedback, the uptake rates were high in all of the groups. However, the important role of feedback training here should not be ignored as uptake is produced in response to the feedback. The higher rates of feedback in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups in comparison to the PI group is because they received feedback training and gave more CF, and so the learners in those groups had more opportunities to produce uptake.

The current study reported that the amount of target-like (successful) uptake was higher than that of the non-target-like (unsuccessful) uptake in all groups. With this finding, it supports the results of some teacher feedback studies (e.g. Loewen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004) which found that the rate of successful uptake (repair of the erroneous production) as a response to teacher feedback was higher than unsuccessful uptake. However, the current study is not in line with the findings of some other studies (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) which reported a very low amount of successful learner uptake in response to teacher feedback. The result of this current study is that target-like uptake in learner-learner interactions occurred at higher percentages in each group. In Morris's (2005) study, which examined young learners' interactions during the completion of a jigsaw task, it was found that learner repair reached more than 60% as a result of the feedback they received from their peers. These results show that target-like uptake can be produced as a response to PF as was the case in some of the teacher feedback studies.

Another point that deserves to be touched upon is the distribution of uptake in relation to feedback types. This study found a considerable amount of successful uptake as a response to both recasts and MF. However, this was not the case in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study which analyzed uptake as a response to teacher feedback. These researchers found that recasts, despite being the most commonly used feedback type by teachers, resulted in the least amount of target-like uptake, that is to say, learner repair. Also, Lyster (1998) reported that negotiation of form generated more target-like uptake (61%) of grammatical structures when compared to recasts (34%). Furthermore, the findings of the present study are not in agreement with those studies (e.g. Lochtman, 2002; Sheen, 2004) that reported that recasts were less effective in generating learner uptake than MF.

Additionally, the findings of the current study also yield conflicting results with some studies focusing on learner-learner interactions. For instance, Morris (2002) analyzed NNS-NNS dyads studying together on a jigsaw task and reported very small amount of learner repair (22%). However, both the feedback (PI+Recast and PI+MF) and the PI groups in this study produced a considerable amount of successful uptake as presented in the tables in the findings section. Morris (2002) highlighted the inefficiency of recasts in leading learner repair when compared to negotiation moves. Furthermore, Morris (2005) reported that recasts, in comparison to negotiations (including MF, clarification requests and so on), were not successful enough in leading learners to repair their erroneous production. Contrary to these findings, most of the recasts in this study elicited a high amount of target-like uptake as was the case in Ellis et al.'s study (2001). The considerable success of recasts in relation to uptake in this study may be explained by what Sheen (2004, p.263) stated: "the extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake and repair may be greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient, as with reduced/partial recasts, and where students are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning." Likewise, in this study, the focus was on a pre-determined grammar structure and the recasts provided to the errors by learners were mostly partial in nature. Another crucial point is that the current study's nature made both feedback types, especially recasts, more explicit by feedback training. The main discrimination between the two types were through their input-providing and output-prompting nature as was the case in Sato and Lyster's (2012) research. Therefore, all these factors when combined with students who expected feedback as a result of the training they received may have led to the higher number of target-like uptake occurrences in response to recasts.

As for MF, this present study showed that MF and MF with correction also led to a very high rate of target-like uptake in learner-learner interactions; however, this rate was not very satisfactory in teacher-learner interactions in some other studies (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002). The high rate of successful uptake after receiving MF needs to be highlighted because MF triggers learners to self-repair their errors rather than having the correct form directly provided as in the case of recasts. This study presents a high rate of successful uptake as a result of MF and this is very important for showing the ability of learners to self-repair errors. In addition to

recasts and MF, there were also instances of less frequently used feedback types (e.g. clarification requests, explicit feedback, repetition and direct question) which resulted in different degrees of uptake in the groups. As they are very limited in number when compared to recasts and MF, it is difficult to make reasonable inferences about the uptake rate they generate in learner-learner interactions.

As most of the target-like PCF led to target-like learner uptake, it is also crucial to look at the term learner uptake within the framework of the output hypothesis. The function of CF in directing learners to produce uptake is reminiscent of the positive link between L2 learning and the term "pushed output" in Swain's (1985, 1995) output hypothesis. Triggering learners to look over their production as a reaction to the feedback they receive may be beneficial for their learning as they get one more chance to rethink, modify and reproduce what they said previously. More clearly, pushing learners to produce uptake may contribute to their accuracy in their production.

All in all, the target feedback types, namely recasts and MF, in this current study resulted in a considerable amount of uptake in learner-learner interactions. Although during feedback training sessions uptake was not focused on, most of the learners produced uptake as a result of the feedback they received. This rate is very high when compared to the target-like uptake (repair) rates in teacher-learner interactions considered in previous studies (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002). The high rate of uptake in peer interactions may be explained with the considerations below:

1. As the time allocated for individual production was greater in learner-learner interaction context compared to that in teacher-learner interaction, students may have gotten more opportunities to produce more uptake while communicating with their peers.

2. Students may have felt more relaxed and had low levels of anxiety while communicating with their peers, and so they may have felt more courageous to produce uptake.

3. As the learners in the PI+MF and the PI+Recast groups got feedback training, they were ready to receive feedback for their erroneous productions, and so they may have wanted to show that they realized the feedback and reacted accordingly.

4. The study focused on a pre-determined structure. As students focused only on that grammar structure, they were more attentive to the corrections related to those structures, which may have led to more student uptake.

5. The students may have offered their peers more opportunities to reformulate their erroneous utterances rather than preferring topic continuation.

These inferences may help to better understand the reasons behind the high rate of learner uptake in learner-learner interactions. Additionally, the high rate of uptake also indicates that students trusted their peers' ability to give target-like CF, and so they tried to repair their erroneous utterances most of the time after PCF. Despite being very few in number, there were instances of non-target-like uptake and no uptake, which may have resulted from students' lack of attention or focus on topic continuation.

To sum up, considering the large number of studies focusing on learner uptake within the scope of teacher-learner interactions, the findings of this current study contributed to the field by presenting the uptake rates in learner-learner interactions. Revealing the learner uptake in learner-learner interactions as opposed to teacher-learner interactions was beneficial in providing deeper insights into the learners' reactions to the PF. Drawing upon the current and previous studies' results, it can said that the nature and quantity of uptake may change according to some variables such as feedback types, the target structure in focus, the interlocutors of the interaction (e.g. teacher-learner or learner-learner interactions). However, the role of feedback training should not be ignored as it may cause learners to be more attentive to feedback, which in turn may lead them to successfully repair their grammar errors (produce target-like uptake).

5.4 The Effects of the Intervention on Receptive and Productive Knowledge

The results of the pre-tests revealed that the students were familiar with the target structure at the beginning of the study. There was not a statistically significant difference between the groups' pre- and post-GJT results. Contrary to this, both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups performed better than the PI group in the delayed GJTs. When the results of the written productive tasks were considered, no significant difference was found between the groups'

pre-test results. However, the pairwise comparison of the post writing tasks indicated that only the PI+MF outperformed the PI group. Comparisons of the delayed writing task results showed that both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups demonstrated statistically significant increases when compared to the PI group. The findings related to both GJTs and written productive tasks showed that the PI group did not show any superiority over the two feedback groups. Another important issue is that no statistically significant difference was found between the two feedback groups in any of the measures. It is also important to note that both feedback groups were proven to be more successful for receptive and productive knowledge in the long-run as the delayed test results revealed. In addition, it is noteworthy that the effect size findings showed that the PI+MF was slightly better than the PI+Recast group. In light of these findings, it can be said that peer interaction when combined with peer feedback may contribute to receptive knowledge and accurate use of the target grammar structure. Drawing upon these findings, it can be said that integration of PF into PI activities was helpful to draw students' attention to the target language form. This is in line with Sato and Lyster's (2012) study which stressed that students who received feedback during peer interactions were able to attend to both form and meaning.

On this basis, the results may be seen as support for the claims of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 2001, 2012) which argues that learning target forms is promoted through noticing them. The role of feedback in this "noticing" process was underlined by some researchers (e.g. Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey, 2006; Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2007) who stated that there is a possible positive relationship between corrective feedback, noticing and L2 development. Therefore, the CF that the learners received and provided during their interactions may have helped them notice and differentiate between the grammatical and ungrammatical structures more easily and pay more attention to the production of the target forms. From this perspective, this study is in line with previous research (Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) which revealed that the noticing of target language forms can be triggered as students act as both feedback providers and feedback receivers during their interactions with others. Although the students in the PI group had the opportunity to practice the target grammar forms repeatedly through communicative tasks, the results indicate that PI was not as effective as the combination of PI and PF for facilitating the

development of the target structure knowledge (see also Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017). These findings are in line with the findings of some previous studies (e.g. Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015). For instance, Sato and Lyster's (2012) study compared the effects of PI and PF on facilitating L2 learning considering both accuracy and fluency measures. Their findings revealed that while PI alone was not found to be effective on the accurate use of grammar, PI when accompanied by PCF had positive effects on promoting grammatical accuracy. It was also stated that PCF enabled learners to gain more control over the use of the language. As the current study focused on assessing the effects of treatment from the framework of accuracy, the results provide support for Sato and Lyster's (2012) findings which underscore that corrective feedback is beneficial for the accurate use of the target grammar structure. Furthermore, Sippel and Jackson (2015), comparing teacher and peer feedback on the improvement of target grammar structure learning, found that both teacher and peer feedback facilitated accurate use of the target grammar structure. However, it was emphasized that the effects of PF were bigger than that of teacher feedback. They concluded by suggesting that learning various grammatical structures can be facilitated through PF.

It is also possible to state that the post written task findings can be shown as evidence of the superiority of MF as there was a statistically significant difference between the PI+MF and the PI groups' writing post-test results. This was not the case for the PI+Recast group. That is to say, MF was proven to be effective, considering both short- and long-terms, for the accurate use of the target grammar structure in written production. It showed more consistent gains, which may be linked to the triggering function of MF to self-correct by withholding the correct version (see Yang & Lyster, 2010). Therefore, it can be said that awareness of the students in PI+MF was raised more by encouraging and directing them to self-correct. On this basis, this study is consistent with past research studies (e.g. Ellis et al., 2006) which found that MF was more effective than recasts for the acquisition of target language forms. As noted earlier, the superiority of MF can be attributed to its more salient features and leading function for self-correction (see Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004a; Yang & Lyster, 2010). One might think that the students in both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF group also used some other feedback types, and so these feedback types may have also affected the results. We cannot

claim that other feedback types did not contribute to the process at all; however, their rates were not very high when compared to the rates of the target feedback types, namely MF and recast. The main point here is that MF was the most frequently used feedback type in the PI+MF group and recast was the most commonly used feedback type in the PI+Recast group. In other words, students were more focused on the feedback type on which they were trained. On this basis, we can say that the effects of MF in the PI+MF group and recasts in the PI+Recast group were bigger in comparison to the other feedback types. It is also important to make another point here. Some teacher feedback studies (e.g. Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, 2007; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2010) which compared the effectiveness of recasts and MF reported the superiority of MF over recasts. This current study compared recast and MF from the framework of peer feedback. Although there were not any statistically significant differences between PI+Recast and PI+MF groups in any of the measures, it was only the PI+MF group which showed superiority over the PI in the post written task. As for the delayed post-test measures, both the PI+MF and the PI+Recast group showed better performance than the PI group. These findings are consistent with the meta-analysis findings of Mackey and Goo (2007) who pointed to the long-term effects of corrective feedback on grammar. Taken together, these results indicate the efficacy of PCF when specifically the long-term gains are considered, and so these findings can be shown as support for the preceding studies (Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jakson, 2015, Sippel, 2017) which found that PCF was helpful for facilitating the learning of language-related items.

Although intergroup analysis indicated the superiority of feedback groups over the PI group, this does not mean that PI alone does not contribute to learning. On the contrary, within group analysis of written tasks revealed that there was an increase in the gain scores of the PI group. This may be due to the positive role of interaction that provides opportunity for learners to practice the target forms repeatedly. Also, although the amount of CF was very small in the PI group, it may have been helpful for the learners who received and provided it. This is in line with what McDonough (2004) found in her study. While analyzing the interaction of the learners who were not given corrective feedback training, McDonough (2004) found that the existence of negative feedback during learners' interaction was beneficial for improving the learning of target linguistic structures.

The study also supports the suggestions of previous PCF studies (e.g. Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) which indicate that practicing language forms in combination with corrective feedback is more beneficial than mere existence of practice. This case was also featured in teacher corrective feedback studies that found that integrating corrective feedback into meaning-based activities is more beneficial when compared to activities that lack corrective feedback (e.g. Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al. 2006; Lyster, 2004a; Yang & Lyster, 2010). All in all, this study supports the findings of past studies which underline the positive effects of oral PCF on promoting the learning of L2 forms and suggests that oral PCF can be helpful for facilitating both receptive and productive knowledge of L2 grammar structures.

5.5 Learners' Perceptions about Peer Interaction and Peer Feedback

The findings of the content analysis revealed that most of the students in all the groups had positive perceptions towards PI, which is in line with the results of previous research studies (e.g. Philp et al., 2010; Sato, 2013; Sippel, 2017; Tulung, 2008). As indicated by the students, completing communicative tasks with their peers had benefits for both language-related (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, etc.) and non-language related factors (e.g. self-confidence). Like the students in Sippel's (2017) and Sato's (2013) studies, the students of this current study believed that PI promoted their L2 learning. Although the tasks were designed to focus on promoting the acquisition of specific grammar structures, other language related forms (e.g. vocabulary) were also reported to be improved as the students expressed. Some students reported that PI tasks facilitated not only their L2 grammar knowledge but also their vocabulary and pronunciation. Another thing that was underscored by students was that PI improved their L2 speaking abilities as was the case in Sato's (2013), Chu's (2013) and McDonough's (2004) studies. These findings are in line with Swain's (1985, 1995) output hypothesis, which highlights the importance of both written and spoken production in second language learning.

From the perspective of non-language influences, this current study supports the findings of the previous research conducted by Tulung (2008), Sato (2013) and Sippel (2017) in that

developing self-confidence and creating a supportive and safe learning atmosphere were among the beneficial side effects of learner-learner interactions. The contribution of PI in composing a positive learning environment has been underlined by many researchers so far (e.g. Foster & Ohta, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Philp et al., 2014). In both Sippel's (2017) and in Sato's (2013) study it was reported that students felt more relaxed while communicating with their peers than communicating with their teachers. Additionally, students of this present study highlighted that they got help from each other during interactional tasks, as was also underlined by Storch (2002). This mutual support may decrease students' burden, stress and anxiety during the completion of tasks. For instance, one of the students (PI group-S21) expressed that studying with his/her classmate gave him/her self-confidence. In addition, some students thought that completing communicative tasks with their peers made the lessons more entertaining as was the case in Sippel's study (2017). It was also stated by some of them that PI through communicative tasks sounded more natural and was more effective than course books.

Only a few students underlined the negative aspects of completing communicative tasks through PI. For instance, during communicative activities, students were matched randomly and this caused displeasure for two students in PI group when they were paired with the classmates that they did not like or did not feel close to. That is to say, social proximity between learners may be one of the factors that affects the quality of learner-learner communicative interactions. A similar problem was also addressed in the studies of Sato (2013), Sippel (2017) and Yoshida (2008a). Sato and Sippel pointed out that how much one benefits from PI is correlated with the learners' perceptions about the classmates they work with for the completion of the communicative tasks. In Sippel's study some learners wanted to work with the classmates they knew well. According to Yoshida (2008a), the role of a student in PI is one of the factors that determines student satisfaction. She posits that as long as students are dissatisfied with their roles in PI, it cannot be wholly beneficial for their learning. Therefore, there should be a collaborative support between learners in order to get a maximum benefit from their communicative interactions. Another negative factor that was indicated by only five students was that they sometimes got bored during the communicative tasks. One of them explained the reason as the frequency of the tasks and advised that activities should

continue but their frequencies should be decreased. On this basis, it seems to be important to get students' input about the number of the tasks as well. Only three students from the PI group indicated that the PI tasks were not helpful for their grammar knowledge, which was also reported by the learners in McDonough's (2004) study. This may be because the students in this group were not given any feedback training to focus on the errors of specific grammar structures. Instead of this, they were only asked to complete the tasks by using the target grammar forms. Therefore, lack of feedback may have caused them to think that they could not improve their grammar knowledge. Although negative experiences were very few in number, each individual's problems and ideas should be taken into account to compensate for the weaknesses of PI and PF and to get more successful results.

As indicated by some researchers (e.g. Brown, 2009; Brown, 2007; Chu, 2013; Katayama, 2007; Sato, 2013; Schulz, 1996, 2001), most learners desire to be provided with corrective feedback for their errors. Therefore, it is worth noting that in this current study it was found that most of the students in the PF groups had positive attitudes toward PCF as was the case in some previous studies (e.g. Chu, 2013; Roskams, 1999; Sato, 2013; Sippel, 2017). A vast majority of the students in this study stated that PF contributed to their learning. They also thought that PF was beneficial for improving their L2 grammar, while only a few students claimed the opposite. This result is in line with the previous research (e.g. Brown, 2009; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996) which found that learners preferred to be supplied with corrective feedback for their grammar errors. What also deserves to be pointed out is that although students in the PI group were not trained to provide their peers with corrective feedback, some students stated that they noticed errors and provided each other with CF during communicative tasks. Some of the students in the PF groups underlined that PF led them to notice their errors and be more careful while producing their utterances. In other words, those who received peer feedback tried to produce more correct sentences related to the target form, and those who provided feedback tried to be more careful not only while listening to their peers but also while producing their own utterances. They reported that the feedback they received from their peers decreased their number of errors. On this basis, it can be said that these findings support the claims of Schmidt's (1990, 2001, 2012) noticing hypothesis which underscores the importance of noticing for learning to take place. Therefore, it can be

said that PCF, by triggering the noticing of the target language forms, helps L2 learning (Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2007). The relationship between PF and noticing was also touched upon by Sato (2013) and Sippel (2017). They reported that students who were instructed on how to give feedback to each other were more successful in noticing errors when compared to those who did not receive feedback instruction. Similarly, the current study found that the frequency of feedback in the PF groups was higher than that of the PI group. Considering this, it can be said that training learners to provide feedback was helpful for increasing their awareness about each other's errors. This is in line with what McDonough (2015) found, stating: "students' collaborative task interaction is positively impacted when instructors provide information about the benefits of task interaction for L2 learning and give them *concrete strategies for providing peer feedback"* (p. 236).

Another important contribution of learners' communicative interaction with each other was said to be the advantage of practicing the previously learned L2 forms many times. Furthermore, some students emphasized that both PI and PF were beneficial for making learning permanent. Taken together, these findings may suggest that PI and PF have positive effects on turning declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. That is to say, practice and feedback that occur during peer interaction tasks can be helpful for the automatization of the use of the target grammar forms. This is reminiscent of the quotation by McLaughlin and Heredia (1996) who stressed that "Procedural knowledge is thought to be acquired through extensive practice and feedback and, once learned, is more easily activated in memory than declarative knowledge" (p. 218). As the time allocated for each student to practice the linguistic items during PI is greater when compared to teacher-fronted classroom settings (Harmer, 2007), this creates opportunities for students to use the linguistic items plenty of times. For this reason, this may lead to the automatization of the use of the L2 forms.

The number of students who reported negative aspects of PF is very low when compared to those who emphasized its positive aspects. No matter how few they are, those giving negative opinions cannot be ignored as they can provide valuable insights into the nature of PI and PF. Some students, though few in number, stated that they sometimes could not either recognize errors or were not sure about the correct use, and so they were not able to provide their peers with corrective feedback. Additionally, there were four students who reported that they did not

benefit from PF. This may be because some students were not very pleased to work with some of their classmates and for this reason they may not have had a sense of belonging. Therefore, the potentiality of getting maximum benefit from the interaction and feedback may have been decreased as it was the case in Yoshida's (2008a) study. As noted earlier in the findings section, there were very few students who were not provided with feedback in the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups. Analysis of the interactional patterns showed that some of those students committed very few errors and therefore, their errors may have gone unnoticed during communicative interactions. Additionally, the factors such as feeling less proficient in the target language and lack of "self-efficacy" may have caused reluctancy and avoidance among students to provide their peers with corrective feedback (see also Chu, 2013; Philp et al., 2010). None of the other students, but one indicated that error correction was sometimes annoying as it interrupted his/her utterance. This finding is consistent with Oladejo's (1993) findings as the majority of the students (80%) in his study did not agree with the survey item "Constant error correction can cause frustration and discourage the learner from using the language". Likewise, the students in Sato's study conveyed that corrective feedback that they received from their peers did not hinder the communication flow.

Students who had problems while providing feedback to their peers followed different paths to overcome these problems (e.g asking another friend, trying to find the correct version together, looking at dictionaries, etc.). This shows that students did not ignore their peers' errors that occurred during their communication with each other. Even if they did not know the correct version of a statement and could not correct it, they considered other ways of finding and learning the correct version. On this basis, students' active role in PI and in providing CF can be correlated to learner autonomy which was defined by Benson (2011) as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p.58). Adding to this definition, Rosalia and Llosa (2009) stated that autonomy is also learners' assisting each other's learning through collaborative study. Considering these definitions, it is clear that students took responsibility and active roles both for their own learning and for their peers' learning during interactive activities. This finding supports the claims that learner autonomy can be facilitated through PI (Philp et al., 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016) and PF (Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006; K. Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Philp et al. (2014) highlighted that PI "may promote learner autonomy and encourage

learners to rely on their own resources to correct one another and modify output" (p.54). Likewise, in this study, when they were not able to correct their peers' errors, some of the students used either dictionaries, or mimicry and gestures, or consulted other classmates, or used their mother tongue to explain the error and correct L2 form. That is to say, having a strong sense of responsibility, learners tried to do something both for their own and their peers' learning. This is also evident in the findings of Sato and Lyster (2012) who pointed to the autonomous behaviors of the learners who were provided with feedback training.

All in all, the students' general attitude, regardless of the groups they were assigned to, was positive towards completing communicative tasks with their peers and most of them indicated that PI contributed to their learning. In addition to this, the majority of the students in the PF groups held positive beliefs regarding PCF and its' benefits for their learning. Besides this, some of the findings of this current study show support for the claims of the noticing hypothesis and skill acquisition theories as mentioned earlier. The negative perceptions, though less widely shared than the positive perceptions, can provide deeper insights into the weaknesses of PI and PF. Therefore, identification of problems and weaknesses of the process can be used as a basis for finding suitable remedies.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter first provides a summary of the study. After that, on the basis of the findings, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research are provided.

6.2 Summary of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to find out the effects of PI and PI combined with PCF on facilitating receptive and productive knowledge of the target grammar form, namely the simple past tense. Its' secondary aim was to present learner-learner interactional patterns with a specific focus on PCF provided on the target grammar errors and learner uptake as a response to PCF. Another important goal was to gain detailed insights into the learners' beliefs about PI and PCF. In order to realize these aims, this study adopted both descriptive and quasi-experimental designs, and used both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Drawing upon Sato's (2011) modeling, practice and use-in-context phases, two groups were trained on how to give feedback to the errors that their peers produced related to the target grammar structure. With this purpose in mind, two classes were randomly assigned to feedback groups as follows: PI+Recast or PI+MF. The other group was the PI group which was trained on how to work in pairs by using the target linguistic forms in communicative tasks. Important to note here is that the study included participants who had prior knowledge

of the target structure because it was determined to see whether the intervention could improve students' abilities and increase their control over the target form.

The first phase of the study was to reveal the nature of learner-learner interactions in both the PF and the PI groups. More specifically, the following items were investigated:

a) the rate of CF in the PI group

b) the rate of recast and other used CF types in the PI+Recast group

c) the rate of MF and other used CF types in the PI+MF group

d) the rate of uptake in each group

To that end, a total of 21 hours of audio-recorded learner-learner interactions were transcribed. After that, the number of errors in relation to the simple past tense, and the number of PCF and learner uptakes in each group was tallied. The occurrence of errors related to the simple past tense as well as different types of CF and uptake were presented in tables by using frequencies and percentages. The items below summarize the findings obtained from the analysis of the peer interactions:

1) *Findings for the PI group:* Although this group was not trained on providing feedback, sometimes instances of CF were found during learner-learner interactions. The total amount of successful PF was lower in this group when compared to the feedback groups. Out of 542 simple past tense errors, only 39 (7%) of them received target-like CF. The number of non-target-like PF was only 5. The results indicate that the most frequently used feedback type in the PI group was recast (n=24; 62%), which was followed by explicit feedback (n=8; 21%). The other CF types provided by learners were MF (n=2; 5%), MF with correction (n=3; 8%), repetition (n=1; 3%) and direct question (n=1; 3%) respectively.

2) Findings for the PI+Recast group: There were totally 513 simple past tense errors in this group and 185 (36%) of them were provided with successful PCF. Not surprisingly, recasts (n=153; 83%) were the most frequently used feedback type in this group. As was the case in the PI+MF group, other corrective feedback types were also used by the students but at much lower rates as follows: explicit feedback (n=18; 10%), MF (n=5; 3%), MF with correction (n=5; 3%), direct questions (n=3; 2%) and clarification request (n=1; 1%).

3) Findings for the PI+MF group: In this group, the total number of errors was 444, and 184 (41%) of them were provided with target-like PCF. The number of non-target-like CF was only 11 (6%). As expected, the most commonly used feedback type was MF (n=102; 55%) in this group. Additionally, MF was used by combining it with direct correction (n=19; 10%). It was detected that learners also preferred using other feedback types although they were only given MF training. These feedback types were respectively as follows: recasts (n=46; 25%), explicit feedback (n=9; 5%), direct questions (n=5; 3%), repetition (n=2; 1%), clarification request (n=1; 1%). Recasts were the most frequently used feedback type in this group following MF.

4) Findings for the uptake rates: In the PI group, there were 39 total target-like feedback which resulted in 33 (85%) target-like uptake, 1 (3%) non-target-like uptake and 5 (13%) no uptake. As for the PI+Recast group, the total number of target-like feedback was 185 which elicited the following uptake rates: target-like uptake 169 (91%), non-target-like uptake 9 (5%) and no uptake 7 (4%). In this group, the focus was on recast which occurred 153 times in total. The rate of uptake as a result of recasts was as follows: 142 (93%) target-like uptake, 7 (5%) non-target-like uptake, 4 (3%) no uptake. In the PI+MF group, the total number of target-like corrective feedback was 184 and 160 (87%) of them resulted in target-like uptake and 13 (7%) of them led to non-target-like uptake. The rate of no uptake was 11 (6%). As the focus of this group was on providing MF, the distribution of uptake as a result of MF (n=102) was, respectively, 85 (83%) target-like, 10 (10%) no-target like, 7 (7%) no uptake.

The second phase of the study was to analyze the effects of the intervention on promoting receptive and productive knowledge of the target grammar form (simple past tense). GJTs and written production tasks were used as measures of receptive and productive knowledge respectively. The following items summarize the effects of the implementation:

1) The pre- and post-GJTs yielded no significant differences among the groups. However, it was found that the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups statistically performed better than the PI group in the delayed-GJT. While the effect size for the difference between PI and PI+Recast group was medium, the effect size for the difference between PI and PI+MF was large.

2) There were not any statistically significant differences between the groups' pre-written tasks. When the results of the post-written task were considered, the only difference found was between the PI+MF group and the PI group. The PI+MF group statistically outperformed the PI group on the post-written task with a close to large effect size. Regarding results of the delayed-written tasks, it was seen that both the PI+Recast and the PI+MF groups had statistically significant higher scores than the PI group. While the strength of the difference between PI and PI+Recast group was medium, it was between medium and large for the difference between PI and PI+MF groups.

The third phase of the study analyzed students' perceptions about the implementation through semi-structured written interviews. The following highlights were identified as a result of content analysis:

1) Regardless of their group, most of the students had positive opinions about completing communicative activities through PI.

2) Most of the students thought that PI and PCF contributed to their learning.

3) There were a few negative reflections in relation to PI and PCF. In addition to this, some students explained the things they did when they had problems providing feedback.

4) It was also highlighted that PCF was beneficial for accurate production of the target linguistic forms.

Drawing upon the findings of the current study, the following sections provide some pedagogical implications and suggestions.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications

The current study shows that the control over the target linguistic forms can be maximized through the integration of PF into PI. PCF when combined with PI is helpful in both promoting learners' receptive knowledge and facilitating their accurate production of the target grammar structure. On this basis, integration of PF into the language teaching syllabus can lead to better learning the language forms. In this study, the combination of PF and PI yielded better results than the application of PI alone. However, this does not mean that PI

alone is ineffective in facilitating learning (see also Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017). PI alone can also facilitate learning because within group analyses showed that post- and delayed-written tasks in the PI group proved to be better than pre-written tasks in that group. The value of PI can be best understood when considering how teacher-fronted lessons and crowded classes limit opportunities to practice the target language forms. The time allocated for the use of the target form can be increased through PI. Nevertheless, as also stated by other researchers (e.g. Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel, 2017), the effectiveness of PI can be enhanced by combining it with strategies (e.g. corrective feedback) that raise learners' awareness about the target linguistic forms and help them learn better. These interactions can boost learners' confidence and develop their ability to express their ideas in the target language. Furthermore, this study shows that learners can be effective feedback providers to each other when they are trained to do so because this study identified that target-like feedback in the PI group occurred at a much lower rate than that of the feedback groups. Therefore, raising learners' awareness through feedback training seems to be very important. As also underlined by Sippel (2017), PF seems to be more beneficial when the focus of each communicative task is on one specific structure because asking learners to correct every variety of linguistic errors in one task may be very difficult for them to handle. Drawing students' attention to a specific language form and training them to provide feedback on that form can make the process more manageable for them.

Another issue of paramount importance is the learners' ideas about the intervention. As learners are at the centre of the learning and teaching process, their thoughts, needs and wishes need to be considered. On this basis, the interview data, which was centered on getting learners' ideas, indicated that most of the learners were pleased with working collaboratively with their peers and they mostly tried to help their peers when they had any difficulties during communicative tasks. Furthermore, the majority of them thought that PI and PF helped them notice and correct their errors and contributed to their learning. In this study, most of the target-like PF resulted in successful learner uptake, which may point to the fact that learners noticed their errors and trusted their peers' ability to correct their errors. Put differently, high rates of successful uptake may show that the majority of learners saw their peers as trustworthy learning resources, and so responded to their feedback.

The main focus of this study was on recasts and MF as a feedback type. The effectiveness of MF on both written post- and delayed-post measures may be attributed to its output-prompting nature. In other words, learners were triggered to self-repair their errors through MF, which was also apparent in the high uptake rates (n=85, 83%). This self-repair may have led learners to be more careful in their written production. Additionally, the PI+Recast group also performed better than the PI group in all delayed post-test measures. The efficiency of recasts can also be seen in the amount of uptake (n=142, 93%) they resulted in. These findings suggest that training learners as MF and recast providers can facilitate their learning of the target language forms. Therefore, they can be preferred by teachers as target feedback types while training learners as feedback providers.

One might think that the instances of non-target-like PF may be detrimental to the learning of the target forms. In this study, the number of non-target-like pieces of feedback in each group was very low in comparison to the target-like ones. Also, the overall findings yielded positive results regarding PF. Nevertheless, to remedy this problem the evaluation part can be integrated into the process. This study followed modeling, practice and use-in-context phases of Sato's (2011) study. The evaluation part, as a complementary step, can be added to these phases. After the learners complete each communicative task with their peers, they can evaluate the process with their teachers. They may talk about the problematic parts with their teachers or give a brief report to their teachers about the errors they corrected and the parts where they experienced difficulties. This kind of evaluation process may help learners overcome the problems they face during interactive tasks.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The current study's findings yield considerable insights into peer interaction, oral corrective feedback provided by learners, and learner uptake as a reaction to target-like PF. Nevertheless, there is still a need for future research studies which address these concepts from different frameworks to contribute to the conclusions reached in this and other previous studies. It is a clear fact that the number of PCF studies in the literature is very small when compared to the studies related to teacher corrective feedback. What is more, there are only a few studies (e.g.

Chu, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012 Sippel, 2017) with a specific focus on training learners as feedback providers for each other. Therefore, the number of studies on PF training needs to be amplified to gain better understanding of its' role in language learning. This current study investigated the effectiveness of PI and PF on only one grammar structure, namely the simple past tense. Taking this into consideration, studies in the future can investigate the effects of PI and PCF on different linguistic targets. Moreover, the participants in this study were university-level students, further research can include different age groups to see the impacts of PI and PF. Another important point is that this study measured receptive and productive knowledge through GJTs and written narrative tasks, respectively. To contribute to the process of making well-grounded generalizations, further research can also be conducted with a variety of measures to assess the effectiveness of PI and PF. As the measures of this study specifically focused on accuracy, future studies can also evaluate the effects of PI and PF through fluency measures.

Furthermore, there are a very limited number of studies in relation to learner perceptions about PI and PF. For this reason, further studies can also address this issue in depth by using multiple quantitative and qualitative measures. Another area that deserves extensive research is learner uptake as a response to target-like peer feedback. The present study is one of a very few studies that descriptively considered whether learners could produce uptake after receiving target-like feedback from their peers. Future studies can investigate whether there is a correlation between the rate of uptake as a result of PF and learning of specific target language forms.

Additionally, the main feedback types in this study were recasts and MF. Further research can also include other feedback types such as clarification requests, elicitation, repetition, and explicit feedback to train learners as feedback providers for each other. Furthermore, in this study learners were trained on pre-determined feedback types by the researcher. Other studies can first provide learners with brief information about each feedback type to get their ideas about which feedback type they prefer to use during their interactions and then these studies can compare the effectiveness of teacher preferred and learner preferred feedback types in learner-learner interactions. This study followed modeling, practice and use-in-context phases to train learners as corrective feedback providers to their peers. Other research studies might

also study different ways to increase the effectiveness of PF and how they can shape the training process by considering the learners' needs and wishes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Background Information Form

Background Information Form

Name/Surname: _____ Class: _____

1. Major: _____

2. Age: _____

3. Gender: Female ( ) Male ( )

4. Please choose the high school type you graduated from.

- Anatolian High School ( )
- Science High School ( )
- Private High School ( )
- Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School ( )
- Anatolian Imam Hatip High School ( )
- College ( )
- Others (please write): _____

5. When did you start learning English? How long have you been learning English?

_____

6. Have you ever lived in an English speaking country?

Yes ( ) No ( )

If your answer is "yes", how long did you live? _____

7. Have you ever been abroad to learn English?

Yes ( ) No ( )

If your answer is "yes", how long did you stay? _____

Appendix B. Resources Used in Developing Instructional Instruments

Anderson, P. (2015). *Empower elementary workbook*. UK: Cambridge University.

Dellar, H.,& Walkley, A. (2011). *Outcomes elementary student's book*. UK: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Doff, A., Thaine, C., Puchta, H., Stranks, J., & Lewis-Jones, P. (2015). *Empower A2 elementary student's book*. UK: Cambridge University.

Eales, F., & Oakes, S. (2011). *Speakout elementary students' book*. England: Pearson Education.

Hughes, J., Stephenson, H., & Dummet, P. (2014). *Life elementary student's book*. UK: National Geographic Learning.

Köksal, D. (ed.) (2008). *Campus life teacher's book A1*. Ankara: Nobel.

Mitchell, H. Q. (2005). *To the top 1 student's book*. USA: MM.

Redston, C., & Cunningham, G. (2005). *face2face (elementary student's book)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Soars, L., & Soars, J. (2000). *New headway English course elementary student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Strange, D., & Hall, D. (2000). *Pacesetter starter student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Strange, D., & Hall, D. (2000). *Pacesetter elementary student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University.

Online resources:

https://en.islcollective.com/

http://www.goodluckielts.com/IELTS-speaking-topics.html

http://www.teacherjoe.us/englishconversation.html

Appendix C. Question and Answer Activities (1 and 2)

Question and Answer Activity 1

Student A: You ask the following questions to your partner about his/her last holiday. You are also free to ask extra questions in addition to the ones given below.

Student B: You answer the questions.

1. Where did you go on your last holiday?
2. When did you go?
3. How did you go there? By car, by bus or by train?
4. What did you take with you?
5. Who did you go with? With your family or with your friends?
6. Where did you stay?
7. What did you do there?
8. What did you wear?
9. What did you eat there?
10. What did you drink?
11. Where did you visit?
12. What did you see there?
13. Did you buy anything?
14. How long did you stay there?
15. Did you have any problems?
16. Did you enjoy your holiday?

Question and Answer Activity 2

Student B: You ask the following questions to your partner about his/her last birthday. You are also free to ask extra questions in addition to the ones given below.

Student A: You answer the questions.

1. When did you have your birthday party?
2. Where did you have it?
3. Who did you invite to your party?
4. What did your mother do?
5. What did your sister or brother do? Did she or he help?
6. What did your father do?
7. What did you wear?
8. What did you eat?
9. What did you drink?
10. Did you take many photos?
11. Did you dance?
12. What did your friends bring for you?
13. What did your parents buy for you?
14. Did you like your presents?
15. Did you play any games?
16. What time did the party finish?
17. What did you do after the party?
18. How did you feel?

Appendix D. Picture-cued Narrative Activities (1 and 2)

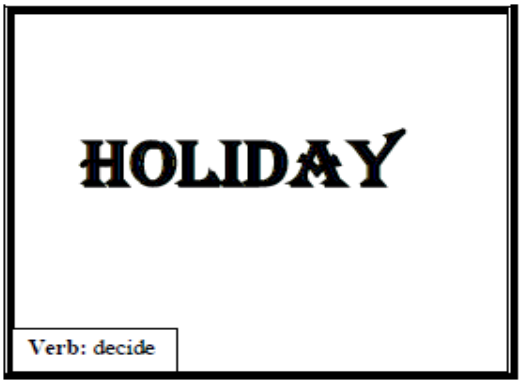
PICTURE-CUED STORY ACTIVITY 1

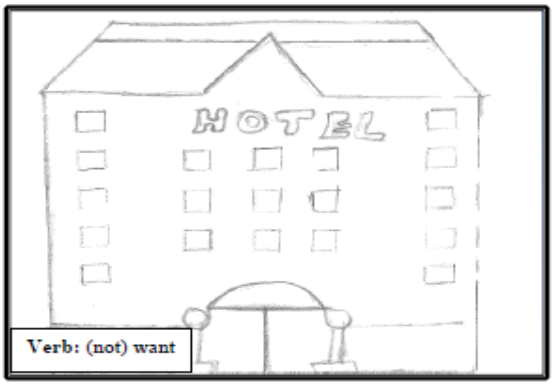
Student A: Look at the following pictures and compose a story by using the verbs and keywords. Use simple past tense to tell the story. The first sentence is given for you as an introduction. While telling the story, you are free to use extra verbs and words in addition to the given ones. After finishing your story, ask your partner the attached questions.

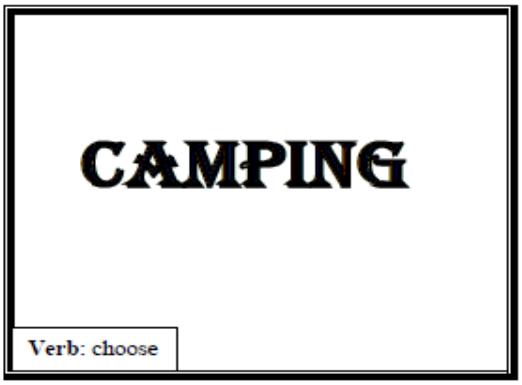
Don't forget to use connectors: "one day, first, next, then, after that, finally, etc."

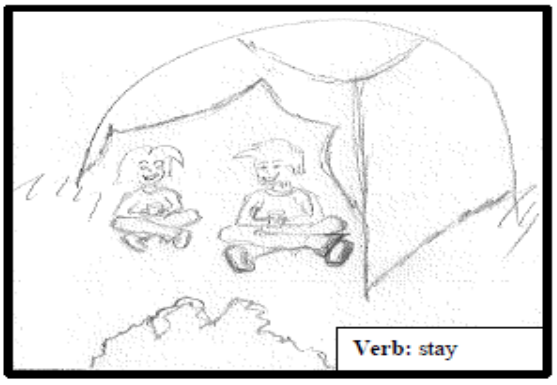
Don't forget to use conjuntions: "and, or, but, so, because, etc."

Last summer Jack and his sister Mary decided to go on a holiday. They .....

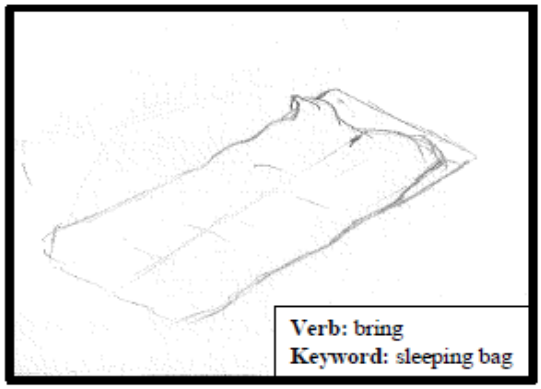


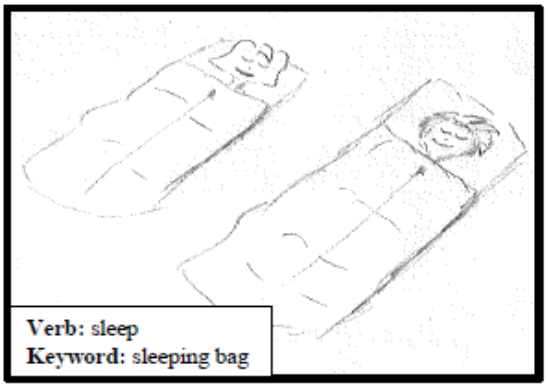


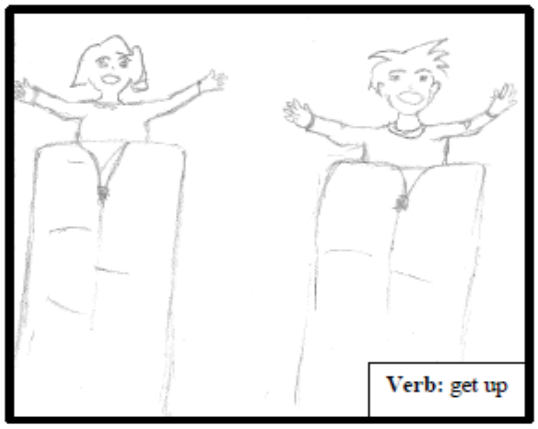


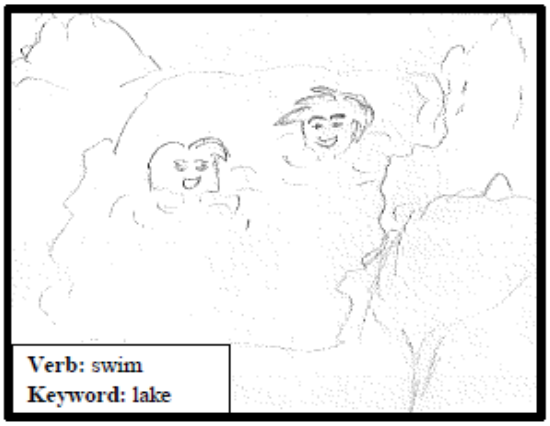


1

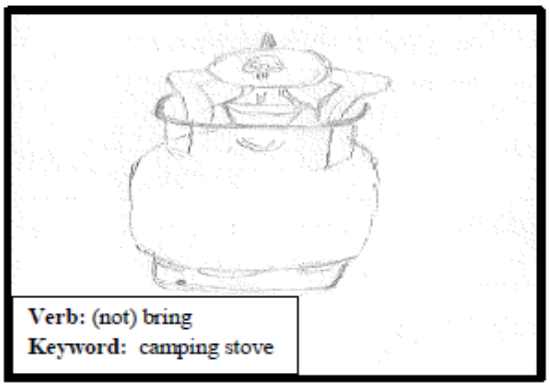

Verb: bring
Keyword: sleeping bag


Verb: sleep
Keyword: sleeping bag

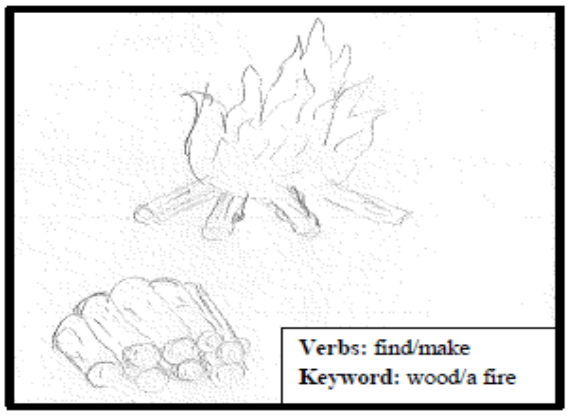

Verb: get up


Verb: swim
Keyword: lake

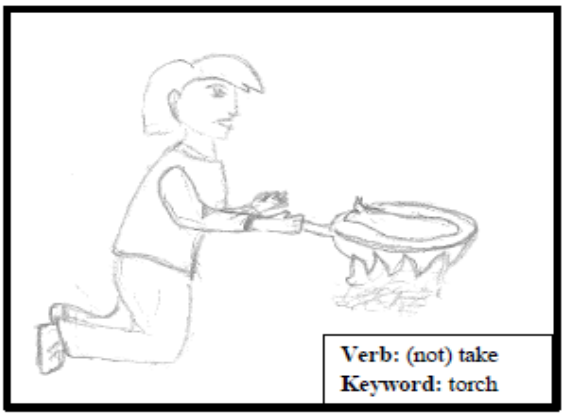

Verb: Catch


Verb: (not) bring
Keyword: camping stove

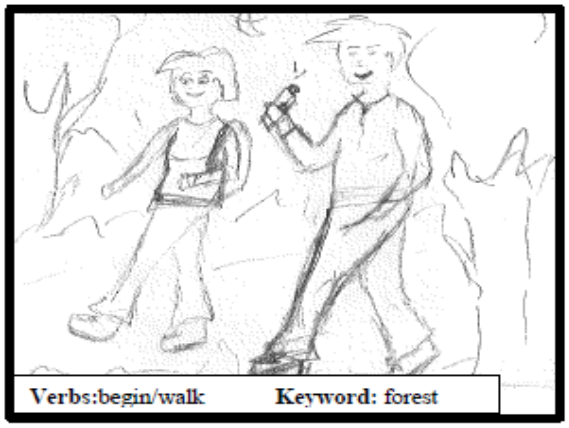
2



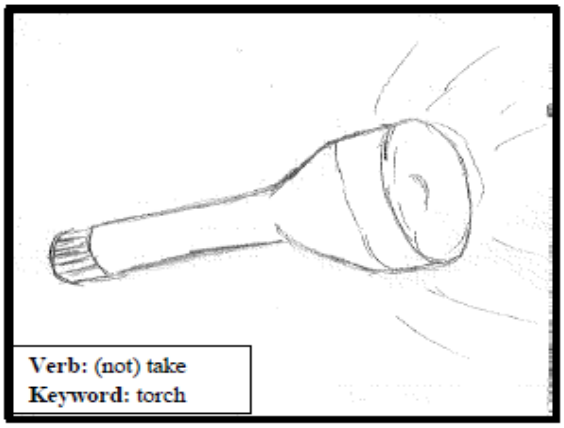
Verbs: find/make
Keyword: wood/a fire



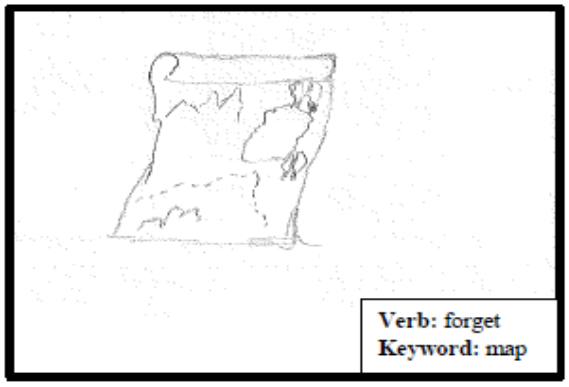
Verb: (not) take
Keyword: torch



Verbs:begin/walk **Keyword:** forest



Verb: (not) take
Keyword: torch



Verb: forget
Keyword: map



Verb: get lost

3


Verb: sit Keyword: rock
Verb: cry
Verb: see
Keyword: old man
STORY
Verb: tell
Verb: show
Keyword: way
THE END
Verbs: find/feel

4

QUESTIONS

Ask the following questions about the story to your partner.

1. Where did Jack and Mary go for holiday?

2. Where did they stay?

3. What did they eat?

4. What kind of activities did they do there?

5. Did they have any problems? Can you explain?

6. What happened at the end of the story?

PICTURE-CUED STORY ACTIVITY 2

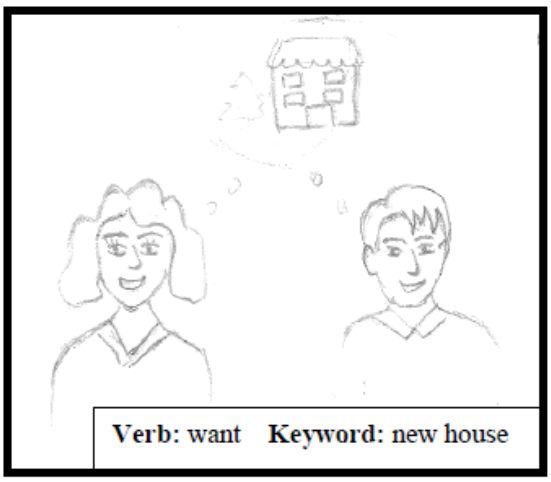
Student B: Look at the following pictures and compose a story by using the verbs and keywords. Use simple past tense to tell the story. The first sentence is given for you as an introduction. While telling the story, you are free to use extra verbs and words in addition to the given ones. After finishing your story, ask your partner the attached questions.

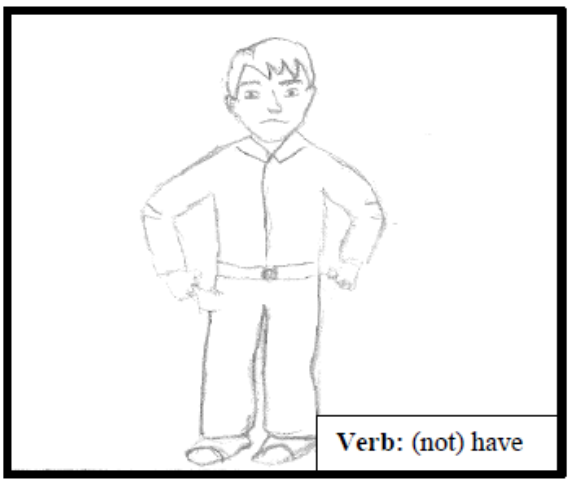
Don't forget to use connectors: "one day, first, next, then, after that, finally, etc."

Don't forget to use conjuntions: "and, or, but, so, because, etc."

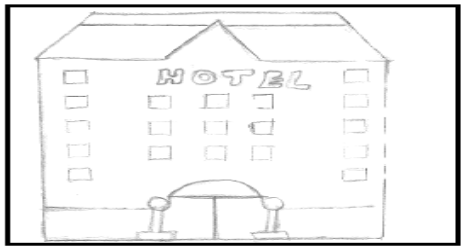
John lived in a small old house with his wife Mary and two children. One day .....

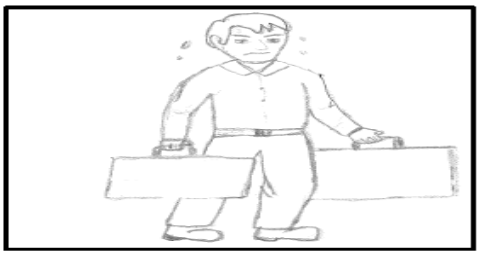






JOHN

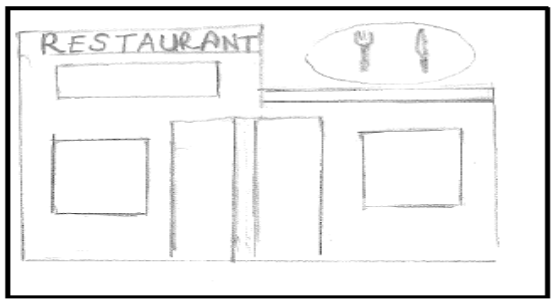


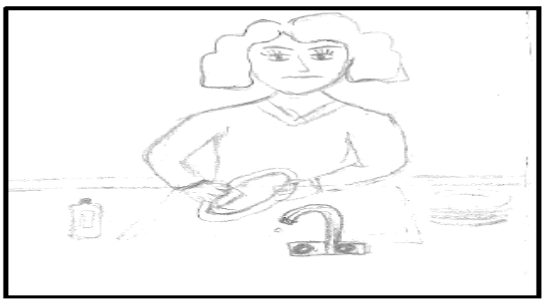




Verbs: work/carry/ clean

John's wife MARY





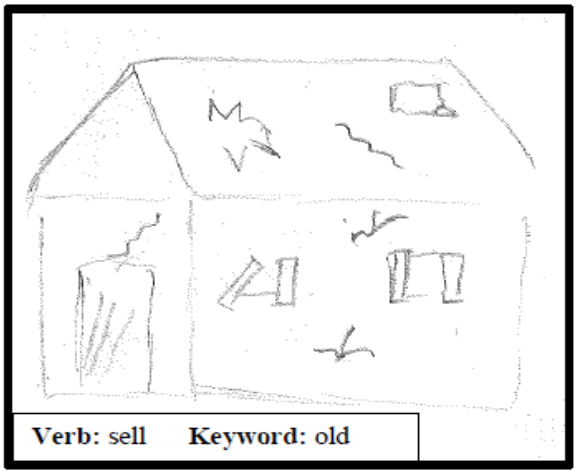
Verbs: work/prepare/wash

NOT ENOUGH MONEY

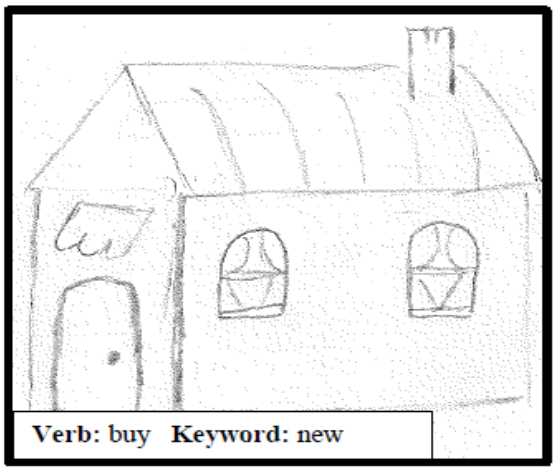
Verb: (not) earn

LOTTERY

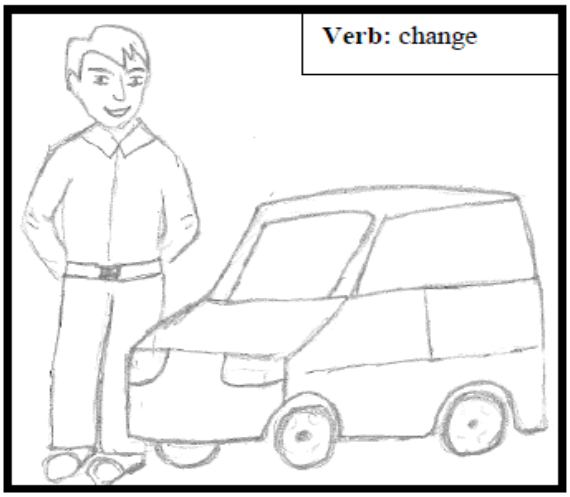
Verb: win



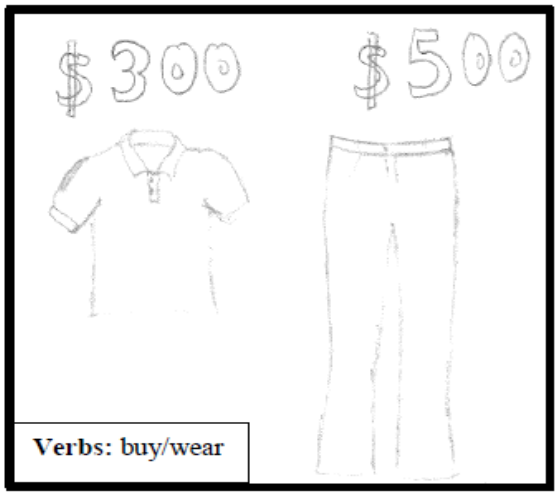
Verb: sell **Keyword:** old



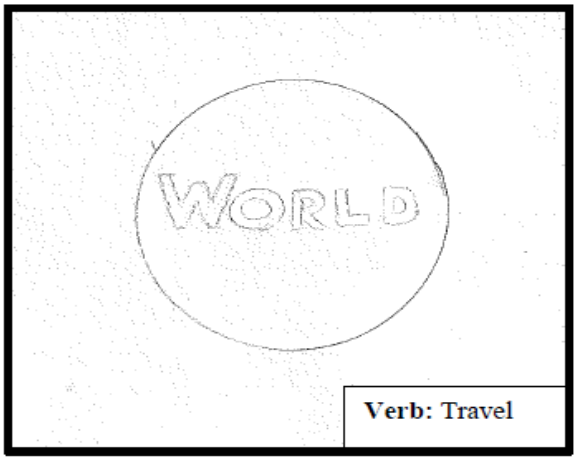
Verb: buy **Keyword:** new



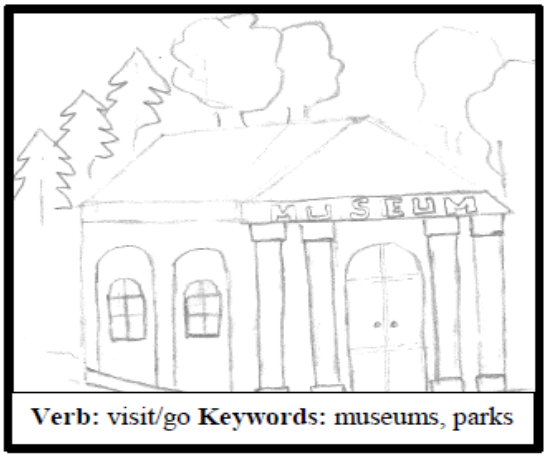
Verb: change



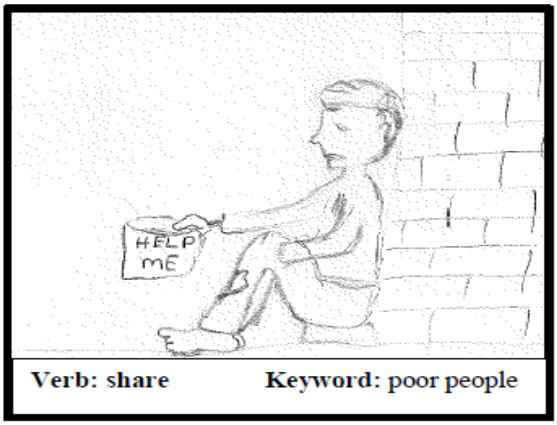
Verbs: buy/wear



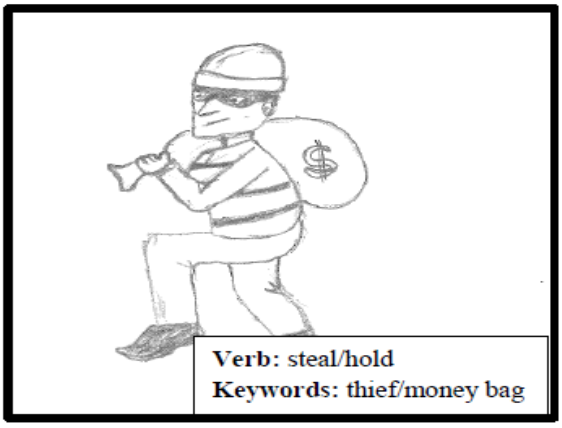
Verb: Travel



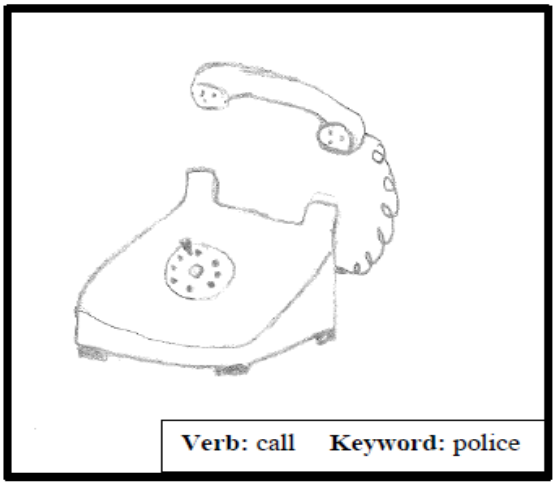
Verb: visit/go **Keywords:** museums, parks



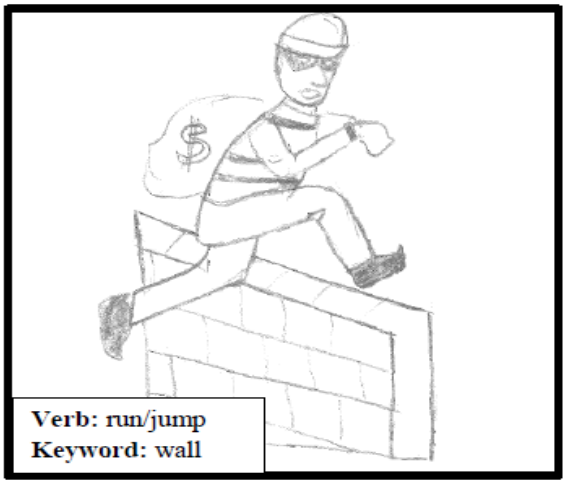
Verb: share **Keyword:** poor people



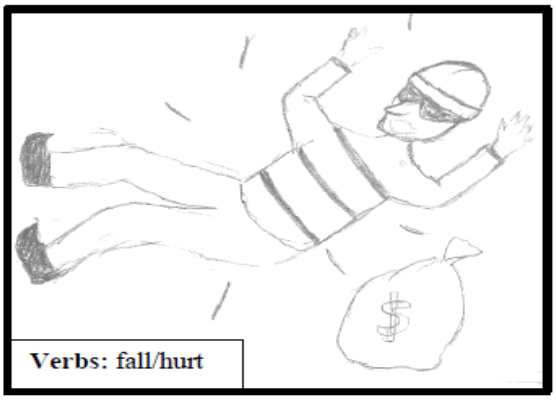
Verb: steal/hold
Keywords: thief/money bag



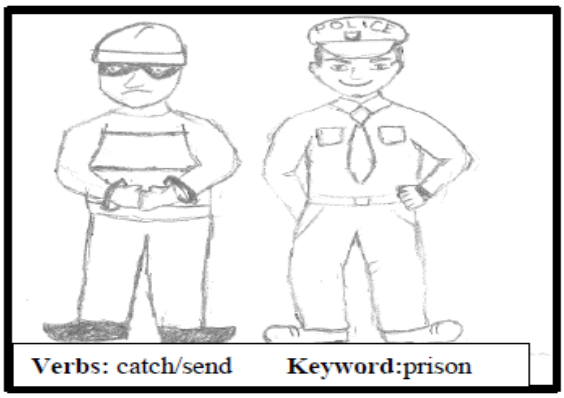
Verb: call **Keyword:** police



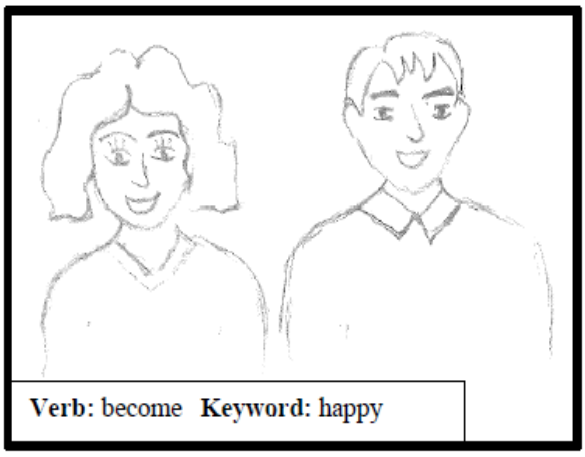
Verb: run/jump
Keyword: wall



Verbs: fall/hurt



Verbs: catch/send **Keyword:**prison



Verb: become **Keyword:** happy

QUESTIONS

Ask the following questions about the story to your partner.

1. Where did John work? What did he do to earn money?
2. Where did John's wife work? What did she do to earn money?
3. Did they win the lottery?
4. What did they do with the money?
5. What did the thief do?
6. What happened at the end of the story? Did the police catch the thief?

Appendix E. Storytelling Activities (1 and 2)

Storytelling Activity 1

Student A: Please make up a story by using the verbs in the box below. The first few sentences of the story are given for you. Please continue the story by using simple past tense. If you need, you may also use different verbs to tell your story. Try to make at least 12 sentences.

Verb List

begin ,decide, wear, prepare, bring, take, sit, feel, send, give, visit, play

It was a beautiful sunny Sunday. Helen wanted to go outside so she ……..

Storytelling Activity 2

Student B: Please make up a story by using the verbs in the box below. The first few sentences of the story are given for you. Please continue the story by using simple past tense. If you need, you may also use different verbs to tell your story. Try to make at least 12 sentences.

Verb List

choose, forget, leave, catch, lose, shout, enter, fall, close, hurt, call, hold

It was a cold winter night and very dark. Clara was at home. She was very hungry and wanted to eat something. She ……

Appendix F. Grammaticality Judgment Tests

Grammaticality Judgment Test (Pre-test)

Student Name/Surname: **Student Number/Class:**

Please read the following sentences and decide whether they are "correct" or "incorrect." Underline or circle the option you choose. If you think the sentence is "incorrect", underline the incorrect part and write the correct version. (Aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyunuz ve doğru olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümleler için "correct" kısmını yuvarlak içine alınız. Yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümleler için "incorrect" kısmını yuvarlak içine alınız ve cümlede yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüz kısmın altını çizip düzeltiniz.)

Example: The books is on the table. correct / **incorrect**
are
The books are on the table.

1. These are her new bags and their colors are very beautiful. correct / incorrect

   _____

2. We saw many different places in İstanbul last year. correct / incorrect

   _____

3. Last Monday my sister cleaned the rooms and I wash the dishes. correct / incorrect

   _____

4. My father is a businessman and he travels usually to other countries. correct / incorrect

   _____

5. Alice didn't knew some of the questions in the exam yesterday. correct / incorrect

   _____

6. The boy stayed in a small cheap hotel last winter. correct / incorrect

   _____

7. The man talked to the workers three weeks ago. correct / incorrect

   _____

8. My sister puted her books in a small bag last night. correct / incorrect

   _____

9. There are much traffic today and I am late for school. correct / incorrect

   _____

10. My father sold his computer for 1000 dollars. correct / incorrect

    _____

11. Did you watched the football match yesterday evening? correct / incorrect

12. My brother spended all of his money on the holiday last summer. correct / incorrect

_____

13. Does the library open at 8:00 o'clock every morning? correct / incorrect

_____

14. My brother studied very much and finish his homework yesterday. correct / incorrect

_____

15. My father didn't worked last weekend. correct / incorrect

_____

16. The students wrote a letter to the director two days ago. correct / incorrect

_____

17. This restaurant is very expensive but the food is great here. correct / incorrect

_____

18. Mary and her brother readed three story books last weekend. correct / incorrect

_____

19. The little baby didn't sleep yesterday morning. correct / incorrect

_____

20. My grandmother cook a delicious meal for us last week. correct / incorrect

_____

21. Can your father to speak any languages? correct / incorrect

_____

22. Did the little girl won the gold medal in 2005? correct / incorrect

_____

23. Last Tuesday I walk to the school with my friends. correct / incorrect

_____

24. The old man gaved some money to poor people last month. correct / incorrect

_____

25. Edward don't wear jeans at school but he wears trousers and a tie. correct / incorrect

_____

26. Did your mother visited the old museum last week? correct / incorrect

_____

27. Last Friday my mother went to the city centre and she buyed some clothes. correct / incorrect

_____

28. The children helped me to carry the bags last night. correct / incorrect

_____

Grammaticality Judgment Test (Delayed Post-test)

Student Name/Surname: _____ **Student Class:** _____

Please read the following sentences and decide whether they are "correct" or "incorrect." Underline or circle the option you choose. If you think the sentence is "incorrect", underline the incorrect part and write the correct version. (Aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyunuz ve doğru olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümleler için "correct" kısmını yuvarlak içine alınız. Yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümleler için "incorrect" kısmını yuvarlak içine alınız ve cümlede yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüz kısmın altını çizip düzeltiniz.)

Example: The books is on the table. correct / **incorrect**
are
The books are on the table.

1. This restaurant is open 6 days a week and it has about 2000 customers. correct / incorrect
   _____
2. She didn't take her credit card last weekend so she couldn't buy anything. correct / incorrect
   _____
3. The tour guide showed the big museum to the tourists two days ago. correct / incorrect
   _____
4. Did you spoke to the manager at the last meeting? correct / incorrect
   _____
5. There aren't any bus to the city centre at this time of the day. correct / incorrect
   _____
6. My brother and my cousin travel all over Italy three years ago. correct / incorrect
   _____
7. Jane didn't liked her neighbours so she moved to another apartment two weeks ago. correct / incorrect
   _____
8. My cousin often spends her money on expensive clothes and computer games. correct / incorrect
   _____
9. Someone stoled my bag when I was in a shopping centre last month. correct / incorrect
   _____
10. Last year my father was very ill and he need to stay in the hospital for 3 months. correct / incorrect
    _____
11. Did your colleagues called the director after the meeting yesterday? correct / incorrect
    _____

12. He became a father when he was thirty years old. correct / incorrect

_____

13. The train arrived at the station three hours ago. correct / incorrect

_____

14. There are some butter in the fridge so you don't have to go to the supermarket. correct / incorrect

_____

15. Yesterday the small cat walked on the roof and then it jump to the top of a tree. correct / incorrect

_____

16. My sister decided to be a doctor when she was 16 years old. correct / incorrect

_____

17. He hited the ball with his head and scored his team's first goal in 2002. correct / incorrect

_____

18. Lots of people visit the old town because they can see many different things there. correct / incorrect

_____

19. I was very busy with office work so I didn't met my friends on Monday. correct /incorrect

_____

20. The children were very happy last night because their grandfather telled them about his childhood. correct / incorrect

_____

21. Last night the thief couldn't open the door so he breaked the window. correct / incorrect

_____

22. John doesn't has to make a reservation because the hotel seems totally empty. correct / incorrect

_____

23. The students thought all day long yesterday but they couldn't solve the problem. correct/incorrect

_____

24. Did you checked your answers after the exam yesterday? correct / incorrect

_____

25. My mother is walking to work today because the weather is sunny. correct / incorrect

_____

26. Last night the little girl cuted her birthday cake and opened her presents happily. correct / incorrect

_____

27. I had an exam this morning so I got up early. correct / incorrect

_____

28. Yesterday we were at a dinner party with our friends and we enjoy it very much. correct / incorrect

_____

Appendix G. Written Production Tasks

Writing Task: Story of Cinderella (Pre-test)

Student Name-Surname: _____ **Student Number/Class:** _____

Duration: 45 minutes

- Write the story of Cinderella by using the **SIMPLE PAST TENSE**.

- Don't forget to use **connectors**: "one day, first, next, then, after that, finally…"

- You may use the following **keywords**: "prince, stepmother, stepsisters, fairy, castle, pumpkin, coach, glass shoe, magic wand, ball"

- Use **ALL OF THE VERBS** in the box below and make **simple past tense sentences**. Make negative sentences with the underlined verbs. The first few sentences are written for you.

At the beginning of the story	In the middle of the story	At the end of the story
prepare carry sit hurt *(not) share* feel	invite wear *(not) have* catch bring send	choose hold forget leave fall try

CINDERELLA

A long time ago, there was a beautiful young girl. Her name was Cinderella. Cinderella lived with her stepmother and two stepsisters. _____

_____
_____
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_____

Writing Task: The Story of Dave's Life (Delayed Post-test)

Student Name-Surname: _____ **Student Number/Class:** _____

Duration: 45 minutes

- Complete the following story by using the **SIMPLE PAST TENSE.**

- Don't forget to use **connectors**: **"one day, first, next, then, after that, finally…"**

- Use **ALL OF THE VERBS** in the box below and make **simple past tense sentences**. Make negative sentences with the underlined verbs. The first few sentences are written for you.

At the beginning of the story	**In the middle of the story**	**At the end of the story**
begin *(not) know* enter work hear take	see win sell change give spend	put run follow find lose *(not) return*

The Story of Dave's Life

Long ago, there was a young boy called Dave. He lived in a small village with his old mother. Dave was a shop assistant in a small cake shop but he could not earn very much. He wanted to be very, very rich.

Appendix H. Scoring Rubric for the Writing Tasks

Scoring Rubric for the Writing Tasks

The following items will be considered during the scoring process of the writing tasks.

1. Incorrect past tense use of both regular and irregular verbs (e.g. brang, holt, weared, spont, spended, forgetted, etc.) is counted as non-target like. However,

- minor spelling mistakes (e.g. brough, tryed, forgat, etc.) are accepted as target-like use.

- correct use of uninflected verbs (e.g. hurt, put, etc.) are accepted as target-like only if the preceding and subsequent sentences include the correct simple past tense use. Otherwise, they are excluded from the analysis.

- incorrect conjugation of the verbs (e.g. flied) that are not studied during the implementation period are excluded from the analysis.

2. Using the verbs in their base form (e.g. hold, invite, want, look, sit, etc.) in past tense context is counted as non-target-like.

3. Incorrect simple past negative uses (e.g. weren't help, didn't has, etc.) are counted as non-target-like.

4. Missing a verb in a simple past context is accepted as non-target like use (e.g. Prince and Cinderella very happy).

5. Every correct and incorrect uses of the same verb in past tense context are coded as one-time frequency. For instance,

- If a learner uses the verb "prepare" correctly in past tense context more than once, it is counted once.

- If a learner incorrectly uses "falled instead of fell" in past tense context more than once, it is counted once.

6. Negative and positive uses of verb ***be*** (both correct and incorrect) with different subjects (e.g. she was, she wasn't, they were, it was, he is, they are) are counted separately. When the subject is same, it is coded as one-time frequency.

7. Unintelligible parts (even the students used the correct past form of the verbs) are excluded from the analysis (e.g. He died the person).

8. Use of past continuous, past perfect and passive structures are excluded from the analysis (e.g. They were invited a ball).

9. Sentences that require passive and causative structures are excluded from the analysis (e.g. A big ball organized, Cinderella didn't invite party).

10. Use of modal verbs (e.g. must, should, would, might) and will, both correct and incorrect uses, are excluded from the analysis. Use of ***could*** is included in the analysis when it means "able to" (e.g. They couldn't earn much money).

11. Incorrect use of the simple past tense in quotes is counted as non-target like (e.g. He spoke: "soldiers found this girl").

12. If the learners are not sure about the use of the simple past tense, count them as non-target like. For example:

* Stepmother and stepsisters are didn't love her.

* He wants to found him.

* Cinderella was looked like very beautiful.

Appendix I: Interactional Data Coding Scheme

Group:

Student Name:

Errors related to the use of the simple past tense	Received target-like CF and CF types	Received non-target like CF	Target-like uptake	Non-target like uptake	No uptake



GAZİ GELECEKTİR…