ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE EDUCATION INSTITUTE

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS

MA THESIS

Ayşe Nur

KAPCI

Istanbul

September-2022

ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE EDUCATION INSTITUTE
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS

MA THESIS

Ayşe Nur KAPCI

Supervisor
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hidayet SARANDİ

Istanbul
September-2022

This study has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an MA Degree in English Language and Literature.

Chairperson of jury ….……

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hidayet SARANDİ

Member of jury ….…….

Asst. Prof. Dr. Abdül Kasım VARLI

Member of jury ….…….

Asst. Prof. Dr. Mehdi SOLHİ

Approval by

……..

Doç. Dr. Erhan İÇENER

Director, Graduate Education Institute

DECLARATION OF SCIENTIFIC ETHICS AND ORIGINALITY

This is to certify that this MA thesis titled **"Oral Corrective Feedback in Higher Education: The Relationship between Beliefs and Practices of English Language Instructors"** is my own work, and I have acted according to scientific ethics and academic rules while producing it. I have collected and used all information and data according to scientific ethics and guidelines on thesis writing of Sabahattin Zaim University. I have fully referenced, in both the text and bibliography, all direct and indirect quotations and all sources I have used in this work.

Ayşe Nur KAPCI

Istanbul, September 2022

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Hidayet Sarandi as he continuously guided me with his invaluable knowledge, experience, and advice throughout the study. He gave me full support and never left my ever-lasting questions unanswered. Without his help, I would not have achieved this study.

Secondly, I would like to present my thanks to my valuable professors, Asst. Prof. Abdül Kasım Varlı, Assoc. Prof. Emrah Görgülü and Prof. Ali Güneş as they warmheartedly taught me so many things and contributed to my thesis study.

I feel profoundly grateful to my dear husband M. Salih, and my dear lovely little son, Ali Kerem. I want to sincerely thank them for their endless patience, extensive support, and self-sacrifice during the intensive course and thesis writing processes. Without their understanding, I could not have succeeded in gaining this degree.

I also would like to extend my specific thanks to dear Assoc. Prof. Mesut Kuleli since he greatly assisted my study during the data collection process and patiently replied to all my questions. Also, my dear colleague and vice-principal, Asst. Prof. Emre Alarslan spared time for me while I was analyzing the data and contributed to my study with his academic experience, for all of which I express my sincere thanks to him.

My special thanks indeed go to my beloved family; my mother and father, who devotedly raised my siblings and me with endless love and fully supported us for all our education, so I owe them all my success. Again, my special thanks are to my mother-in-law and father-in-law because they stood by me physically and mentally throughout my thesis, as they always do. I cannot forget my dear sisters' and brother's psychological support and implicit trust in me, which made me feel stronger to complete my study, so I highly appreciate them.

Last but not least, my thanks are to my friends, Asst. Prof. Reyhan Sarıçiçek for inspiring me to take up academic studies and for her warm friendship, Burcu Alarslan for her interest and mentally support in high gear of my thesis, Şule Kara and Latife Göger Sayır for their eternal friendship and emotional support, Ayça Aksoy Çelebi for her precious remarks and suggestions on my study.

Ayşe Nur KAPCI

İstanbul, September 2022

ABSTRACT

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS

Ayşe Nur KAPCI

M. A., Department of English Language Teaching
Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hidayet SARANDİ
September-2022, Page: 134

Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) has a facilitative role in language learning, according to many studies. The central feedback provider in class is the teacher, which evinces the significance of teachers' beliefs on the notion. This study aimed to discover EFL instructors' beliefs about CF effectiveness, the CF types they prefer, the frequency and timing of OCF, and the error types they specifically respond to. It also investigated the relationship between their beliefs and practices of OCF through matches and mismatches between them. The present study employed mixed methods, and the data collection consisted of two stages. In the first stage, the questionnaire, supplying qualitative and quantitative data, was administered to 51 instructors. In the second stage, the same task was also administered to six participants, who contended to participate in the observational study. This stage involved classroom observations, in which their recorded classes were observed online for three periods, each of which lasted 45 minutes. All errors and OCF moves, with those ignored, were typed out. Findings showed that instructors believe in CF effectiveness. The study found a highly significant correlation between beliefs and practices about recasts. Recasts have been the prevailing type regarding instructors' practices confirming beliefs, and in this context, a highly significant correlation between beliefs and practices was found. For CF timing, instructors preferred immediate feedback more than delayed, but they stated to provide the two almost equally by a narrow gap. In practice, they responded to almost all errors immediately displaying the most salient mismatch in the study.

Keywords: Errors, Oral Corrective Feedback, Teachers' Beliefs, Classroom Practices, Mismatches.

ÖZET

YÜKSEK ÖĞRETİMDE SÖZEL DÜZELTİCİ GERİBİLDİRİM: İNGİLİZ DİLİ ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ İNANÇ VE UYGULAMALARI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Ayşe Nur KAPCI

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Hidayet SARANDİ
Eylül-2022, 134 sayfa

Bu araştırmada, sözel düzeltici geribildirimin dil öğretiminde kolaylaştırıcı bir rolü olduğu ve sınıftaki temel geribildirim sağlayıcıları öğretmenler olduğu için öğretmen inançlarının öğrenme sürecinde oldukça önemli olduğu varsayılır. Araştırmanın amacı, İngiliz dili öğretim elemanlarının sözel düzeltici geribildirim hakkındaki inançlarını ve bu konudaki inançlarıyla, sınıf içi sözlü iletişimler esnasında sağladıkları gerçek geribildirimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi keşfetmektir. Araştırmada karma yöntem kullanılmış olup veri toplama süreci iki aşamadan oluşmuştur. İlk aşamada, sözel düzeltici geribildirimle ilgili inançları ölçmek amacıyla 51 öğretim elemanına bir anket uygulanmıştır. Aynı anket gözlem yapılacak öğretim elemanlarına ayrıca uygulanmıştır. İkinci aşamada, altı öğretim elemanının kayıtlı çevrimiçi dersleri 45 dakikalık üç ders saati boyunca gözlenmiş ve geribildirim sağladıkları veya göz ardı ettikleri tüm hatalar yazıya dökülmüştür. Çalışma, öğretim elemanlarının düzeltici geribildirimin etkililiğine inandığını ve bu konudaki inanç ve uygulamaları arasında yalnızca bir değişken için anlamlı ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Sözel düzeltici geribildirim türlerinden yeniden biçimlendirme hem inanç hem uygulamalar açısından en rağbet gören tür olmuştur ve bu kapsamda, inançlar ve uygulamalar arasında anlamlı ve çok önemli bir korelasyon bulunmuştur. Geribildirimin zamanlaması açısından, anında geribildirim daha fazla tercih edilse de katılımcılar anında ve gecikmeli geribildirimlerin az farkla sağladıklarını ifade etmiştir. Ancak, uygulamada hemen hemen tüm hatalara anında bildirim vermiş olmaları, inanç ve uygulama arasındaki en göze çarpan uyumsuzluk olarak saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Hatalar, Sözel Düzeltici Geribildirim, Öğretmen İnançları, Sınıf İçi Uygulamaları, Uyumsuzluklar.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER IV

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CF : Corrective Feedback

OCF : Oral Corrective Feedback

ESL : English as a Second Language

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

SLA : Second Language Acquisition

ELT : English Language Teaching

ELL : English Language and Literature

L2 : The Second Language

IL : Interlanguage

IH : Interaction Hypothesis

SCT : Sociocultural Theory

SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

Corrective feedback is one of the teaching strategies implemented alongside an array of strategies incorporated into classroom environments (Valeo, 2021:147). The significance of corrective feedback (CF) is commonly approved in the field of foreign language learning (FLL) research “because learning a language is essentially a process of eliminating errors and assimilating correct linguistic information" (Li, 2018:34). It entails the notion to be the focus of interest in many studies for a long while for its effectiveness, frequency and timing of CF moves, handling of CF types, and teachers’ and learners’ perceptions of the concept.

There has been an extant development in conventional viewpoints on error correction since the 1960s, when some notable researchers like Brooks considered errors as “sins” that learners needed to avoid (Hendrickson, 1978:387). The view has changed considerably well in the process of time and has come to the point that necessitates accepting "errors as a natural phenomenon integral to the process of learning a second language" (Ibid: 388). Additionally, the concept of error correction was embraced regarding “feedback” and perennially replaced with corrective feedback upon the rise of information-processing theories of mind (Carroll et al. 1992:173). The term has also been flagged up as negative feedback in many related studies in recent years.

A wide range of studies and meta-analyses on the notion has certified the positive impact of corrective feedback on developing a second language (L2). Over and above, study findings often keep pace with that learners usually prefer to receive CF during their performance (Ellis, 2014:257), underscoring the requirement of CF moves when needed. On the other hand, learners’ preferences may not overlap teachers’ preferences which fundamentally vary from teacher to teacher depending on teaching methodologies and beliefs on corrective feedback. This is because teachers seem to be the central authority in choosing the timeliest feedback type for students’ L2 learning process. Therefore, teachers’ perception of the concept is considered to have a determining role in their feedback moves during their teaching process. Nevertheless, their actual practices of CF in their classes may not be the same as their beliefs which appears to be one of the specific issues on which researchers dissent because of the

divergent research results. As one of the controversial phenomena in the area, corrective feedback is deemed significant for its role in language learning.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The focus of the present study is oral corrective feedback (OCF), which mainly language teachers provide their students during communicative activities in the language teaching process as a mode of CF. However, it is one of the issues on which scholars have distinctive comments in their studies. OCF proves itself undoubtedly beneficial for noticing target samples in the input and reinforcing ever-developing L2 knowledge and skills during classroom interactions (Lyster et al., 2013:5); howbeit, the greatness of that benefit is substantially flexible because of several factors. Too many oral CF acts, for instance, are rated as disruptive and even demotivating for the continuation of communication (Harmer, 2007:144). Teachers also usually have idiosyncratic beliefs about CF-related issues, such as whether providing learners with CF hinders the flow of communication during conversations or when and how to appeal to it during their teaching. Accordingly, the disparity in teachers' sense of the concept seems to lead to a gap in how they put CF into practice. Russell (2009:21) associates this case with the fact that the methodological standpoint of teachers generally specifies which errors to correct or ignore and how to correct them, which accounts for the current CF varieties in every classroom. Learners with different linguistic needs, CF preferences, or affective behaviors are on the other side of the coin. Moreover, different linguistic targets of language classes like speaking or writing matter to the utmost in how to provide learners with feedback, requiring teachers to take notice of these variations. Practicing feedback strategies in classes varies to the factors mentioned above, causing the study findings to differ and sometimes even beclouding generalizability.

Borg (2011:370) defines beliefs as "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change". Teachers' cognitions, in other words, beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts, are essential for their being possible tokens of OCF provisions. In various educational contexts, beliefs happen to be a core element in teaching and a significant center for research (Ibid:371). This is the primary reason for exploring teachers' beliefs in this study.

Additionally, several studies disclose that teachers' beliefs do not always match their classroom practices. It shows the possibility of beliefs' ineffectiveness in practices and some teachers' unawareness of their practices for some reasons. However, the current studies showing the relationship between beliefs and practices are limited in number, proving the need for further studies related to the matter. OCF for interactional purposes in foreign language classrooms, thus, should be elaborated to shed light on the current divergence concerning the concept. This study explores teachers' beliefs and practices for these reasons.

This thesis agrees that oral corrective feedback has a facilitative role in language teaching by allowing learners to notice and fix their errors thanks to the feedback they receive mainly from their teachers during in-class conversations. By extension, it also argues that teachers are often the primary feedback providers besides peers or learners correcting themselves, and their beliefs are highly significant in language learning. The study underlines this significance and draws attention to the differences between their beliefs and actual practices in class. Unlike old-time views, errors are considered supernormal in the learning process at present; students are likely to learn from their corrected mistakes since educationists frequently speculate feedback moves to be catchy and, hence, permanent. Due to similar reasons, this study investigates the English language instructors' beliefs and general perception of oral CF versus their actual feedback moves in the classroom.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The study explores English language instructors' beliefs about oral corrective feedback and congruences/incongruences between their beliefs and fundamental corrective feedback practices. More specifically, this study aims to uncover English instructors' beliefs on how, when, and how often to employ OCF moves, which CF types to use, and what kind of errors to correct during their conversational teaching classes. It explores whether their stated beliefs about CF and actual classroom practices match each other and on which specific issues they contradict if any mismatches appear. To underline its importance in the language teaching process, oral corrective feedback in Turkish higher education needs further study. Accordingly, this study aims to present English instructors' general perception of the issue and raise their awareness of OCF during fluency-oriented activities, specifically in higher education.

1.3. Significance of the Study

There is a limited number of studies concerning teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF in Turkey. Furthermore, the general focus of the extant studies related to the notion is not usually on higher education institutions which may be counted as a deficiency in defining EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors' CF awareness regarding adult learners at universities. Unlike many studies, this thesis focused on English instructors' CF practices in higher education institutions and signifies their perception of oral corrective feedback that they provide to adult learners. Moreover, as for the research methods, while a clear majority of the researchers preferred identical research tools to uncover teachers' beliefs, such as surveys or interviews, classroom observations accompanying a questionnaire supported both quantitative and qualitative data in this study. The questionnaire was administered to 51 instructors to explore teachers' general perception of CF and beliefs about their practices of OCF. Six instructors whose classes was observed took the same questionnaire separately to compare their beliefs with their in-class OCF practices. That is one strength of the study for improving upon the current studies, in most of which only the participants of the observational analysis were asked for their beliefs. As the observational process typically require much more time, the participants of these kinds of studies are relatively limited in number compared to this one.

Should there be any discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices, that kind of awareness will be beneficial for the instructors enabling them to go through their corrective feedback moves and possibly change them to improve their teaching efficiency. Thus, this thesis seeks to reveal their beliefs with actual practices by observing their classes, which may be cast as another strength. For all these reasons, it will play a notable role in raising teachers' awareness of OCF and contribute to the area by dint of its purpose, research design, and setting.

1.4. Organization of the Study

The study consists of six chapters. The first chapter, Introduction, presents an introduction, statement of the problem, purpose, significance, organization of the study, and definition of key terms. The second chapter, Literature Review, summarizes the related literature with the titles of corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback, the role and effectiveness of CF in L2 learning, CF types and effectiveness, and

language teachers' beliefs and practices. The third chapter is the Methodology, including subtitles of introduction, research design, research questions, setting and participants, data collection, and data analysis. The fourth chapter, Results, includes findings for the research questions, instructors' general perception of CF effectiveness and students' CF expectations, instructors' beliefs about OCF, six instructors' beliefs about OCF, six instructors' actual practices of OCF, individual CF practices of the six participants, and lastly, findings on the relationship between instructors' beliefs and practices. The fifth chapter comprises Discussion on the study results under the titles, remarks on instructors' general perception of CF effectiveness and students' CF expectations, the instructors' beliefs about OCF, the six instructors' beliefs, the instructors' actual practices of OCF, and the relationship between beliefs and practices. The overall study is ultimately elucidated with a summary, pedagogical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research in the sixth chapter, titled Conclusion.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): "Someone who learns English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities for use outside the classroom, in a country in which English does not play an important role in internal communication (China, Japan, and Korea, for example), is said to be learning English as a foreign language" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): "A nonconscious process of rule internalization resulting from exposure to comprehensible input when the learner's attention is on meaning rather than form ... in L2 context" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

Corrective Feedback (CF): "The feedback that follows an incorrect response … in both natural and instructional settings" (Sheen, 2011:1).

Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF): "One type of focus-on-form technique when it targets learner errors that arise when the learners' primary focus is on understanding messages within a communicative activity" (Sheen, 2011:1).

Teachers' Beliefs: "Statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done, should be the case,' and 'is preferable" (Basturkmen et al., 2004:244).

Uptake: "The extent to which learners responded to CF" (Basturkmen & Fu, 2021:375).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback, embodying the concept of error correction (Chaudron, 1986: 44), is an overemphasized phenomenon in the SLA research on the ground of having a prominent role in the language teaching process through ‘its effectiveness in promoting learning’ (Ellis & Shintani, 2014: 274). CF comprises 'an interface issue' by assembling language teachers' and researchers' concerns under the same roof (Ellis, 2017:1); thus, both have been interested in the concept with a vengeance for the duration, prevalently rating it as a sine qua non.

Corrective feedback can be broadly defined as “responses to the errors that learners commit in their production or comprehension of a second language” (Li, 2018: 34). Ellis and Shintani (2014:249) enlighten that CF arms learners with negative evidence; in other words, it points out that what the learner has uttered or written clashes with target language norms. “It occurs in reactive form-focused episodes consisting of a trigger, the feedback move, and (optionally) uptake” (Ibid). In her related study, Sheen (2004:264) uses the expression ‘corrective feedback’ as a hypernym to embrace implicit and explicit negative feedback that comes off in usual conversational and instructional environments, which is often the case among various CF researchers. During CF processes, "some specific information is provided on aspects of the learner's performance: by explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or by elicitation of these from the learner” (Ur, 1999:110). By dint of these repeated responses from either their teacher or a native speaker, learners can detect their erroneous output and get the chance to reorganize it correctly during interactions, which may help them to improve their linguistic skills in the long run. Besides, CF is also significant for effective language teaching. Teachers can assess their students’ performance in point of their errors or uptakes, “the extent to which learners responded to CF” (Basturkmen & Fu, 2021:375), and express the reasons for their common failures to students, which also probably help them realize and correct them, which may lead to a good language learning.

As for its different equivalents in the field, corrective feedback is also referred by 'negative evidence', which has recently inclined to take the place of "feedback" as the

favored term in the area, broadly given positive evidence, in another saying, input (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:115). Positive evidence is the feedback composed of exemplifying what learners hear or read due to communication by its very nature; on the contrary, negative evidence is the one they get upon making errors (Ibid). Speaking of the notion of input, another related term, the negative input enhancement, is also fundamentally feedback because the teacher points an erroneous utterance out to the students to indicate their statement does not match target norms, as in the case of CF (Ibid:128). Additionally, since input enhancement and focus on form require putting emphasis on form and meaning in the input, they are associated with each other (Ibid). Long (1991, as cited in Ellis, 2015:2) describes the focus on form as follows: "Focus on form … overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they rise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication". The procurement of CF upon students' incorrect expressions in due course of communicative activities is one of the prevalent instances that delineates this description of the focus on form (Loewen, 2011:577). Lightbown and Spada (1990) conducted a study and examined the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback supplied in the teaching programs hinging on the communicative language teaching (CLT). According to the study findings, predominantly meaning-based education presumably best brings out the accuracy, fluency, and fundamental conversational skills when teachers supply guidance employing conformable form-focused activities and correction (Lightbown & Spada,1990:443). Corrective feedback is affiliated with focus on form beyond question as both set sight on either meaning or communication during teaching.

Despite all, the OCF is somewhat controversial considering what CF types work better with certain error types, when to provide learners with a feedback move, or how much CF to provide in the course of communicative tasks. Researchers seeking answers to these questions often produced different findings in their studies. Russell and Spada (2006:135) get clear on that fogginess in their meta-analysis as follows: "The different findings across descriptive and experimental studies may be related to either explicit or implicit nature of the CF type, the extent to which type is dependent on context (i.e., laboratories versus classrooms), and the intensive or extensive nature of the CF." Russell and Spada (Ibid:139) explain that studies refer to different questions, pay regard to diverse strategies of CF, target distinct populations, and make use of various

research methods, which result in acquiring additional findings. Based on this, researchers need to augment further studies on the notion to generalize overall findings truthfully. Oral and written corrective feedback could be clarified as remarkably distinctive CF modes given during either oral or written classroom tasks. As oral CF is the pith of the matter, this study does not touch on written corrective feedback but focuses on the feedback that is provided pending speaking activities.

2.2. Oral Corrective Feedback

Oral corrective feedback is a "focus-on-form technique when it targets learner errors that arise when the learners' primary focus is on understanding messages within a communicative activity" (Sheen, 2011:1). "The key component of oral CF is that it provides learners with negative evidence and does so by alerting them to what is not possible in the target language – indicating what is unacceptable or erroneous" (Oliver & Adams, 2021:190). There is a skeptical approach toward OCF by researchers and language teachers querying pros and cons with the worry of crippling communication fluency. Allen et al. (1990, as cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997:41) lay stress on this dilemma that students may have less chance to connect form with function when teachers do not correct their errors; but the flow of communication may be hindered when they do that. Thence, how to provide feedback during communicative activities is substantial to answer. Harmer (2007:142) sheds light on this matter and renders that while deciding on how to respond to student outputs, teachers need to consider the class level, the activity, the type of error made, and the specific student who is making that error.

Therein lies the rub that fluency is a crucial factor in communicative activities, and CF is partially considered an impediment when provided during communication intervening learners. A specific part of language educators or researchers stands up for recording students' errors and correcting them at the end of their conversations; this is what the researchers call delayed corrective feedback. Harmer (2007:143), an example of this, is with the idea that correcting errors after the oral activity would be much better instead of intervening with students so as not to hinder the flow of communication. On the other hand, "there are times during communicative activities when teachers may want to offer correction or suggest alternatives because the students' communication is at risk, or because this might be just the right moment to draw the students' attention to a problem" (Ibid). Harmer (Ibid:146) proposes teachers

be gentle when correcting during fluency works by not stopping the overall activity and not persisting students on correctly uttering their erroneous statements to go on the conversation. Simply put, it is up to teachers who have the prime role in providing CF to appeal these moves immediately or afterward, subject to the types of mistakes and their levels of need.

Neither teachers nor researchers have surrendered to debate the matter due to different study findings in the area of SLA. Several researchers (e.g., Li, 2018; Ur, 1999) bring forward the idea that if teaching has a communicative purpose, appealing to too many CF moves in language use would not be so much appropriate. In the meantime, Lyster and Ranta (1997:41) point out a Grade 8 immersion teacher in a study written in the French language by Lyster (1994) and describe him in English thus and so: Without hindering the fluency of communication, the teacher managed to cater for feedback to students so as to make their output more even and flawless through negotiation in the classroom discourse. Another study by Ammar and Spada (2006:562) testifies that learners who took part in communicative activities within which CF was embedded benefitted more than those who took part in ones without CF. These studies unambiguously dig up that oral corrective feedback does not impede the flow of communication. As a matter of fact, it is essential for the language learning process in terms of providing learners with correct uses of language forms, lexis, or phonetics, and herewith contributing to the pellucidity of the communication under the condition that teachers tread a fine line between correcting learner errors that lead to changes in meaning and simultaneously providing continuance of the contact.

2.3. The Role and Effectiveness of CF in L2 Learning

Given that teachers are often cast as the leading feedback provider in the classroom, it is apparent that “CF plays a pivotal role in the kind of scaffolding that teachers need to provide to individual learners to promote continuing L2 growth” (Lyster et al.,2013:1). And consequently, it turns out to be a complementary teaching element since the effects of corrective feedback are not often immediately discernable; rather, they appear later (Chen & Liu, 2021:33). Under the circumstances, educationists agree that the impacts of CF on L2 learners crop out in substance over the long haul during their learning process and help them improve their language skills sooner or later.

Concerning counter-views on the concept, some researchers have questioned the necessity of corrective feedback like Krashen (1982:74), who regards the error correction as “a serious mistake” and alleges that it does not work in the acquisition process since acquisition takes place as learners deduce the meaning of input, not as they come up with output and focus on form with reference to ‘the input hypothesis’ (Krashen, 1982:117). Krashen's opposition is consistent with his input hypothesis, which proposes that output emerges out of comprehensible input. On the flipside, Swain and Lapkin (1998:321) elucidate, based upon ‘the output hypotheses,' that "learning does not happen outside performance; it occurs *in* performance," mediately underpinning the requirement of corrective feedback acting on learners' performance. Truscott (1999, as cited in Russell & Spada, 2006:153), one of the most famous opponents of the CF effectiveness, argues that the feedback given during oral tasks does not have any positive impact on learners’ skills to speak with proper grammar and calls teachers for utterly desisting from providing oral CF for that reason. Nonetheless, Russell and Spada (2006:153) almost disproved that thesis, expounding that the groups secured with CF brought forth medium or large effect sizes in seven studies that focused on OCF in their meta-analysis. They also found that three supplementary studies on OCF, measuring up for their research, elicited medium and large effect sizes of CF since the date Truscott (1999) wrote the words above.

Despite the dissenters such as Krashen (1982) and Truscott (1999), the outnumbering studies and meta-analyses eminently support the effectiveness and the assisting role of CF in language acquisition (e.g., Russell & Spada, 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster &Saito 2010; Ellis, 2009; Griffiths, 2006; Basturkmen & Fu, 2021; Carroll & Swain, 1993). For example, Lyster and Saito (2010:271) meta-analyzed 15 quasi-experimental classroom studies of CF to seek its effectiveness by panning in on its pedagogical effectuality. According to the results of the meta-analysis, 43 d values were appointed for the between-group contrasts, associated with a 0.74 (SD = 0.47) mean effect size and confidence intervals (CIs) above zero (0.58–0.90), which bears out the considerable effectiveness of CF in language teaching with medium-to-large effects (Ibid:281). On top of that, the experimental classroom studies conducted on corrective feedback demonstrated that providing oral CF was considerably more influential than providing no CF (Lyster et al., 2013:20). Another study by Carroll and Swain (1993) sought the effects of both implicit and explicit negative feedback on learning of linguistic

generalizations in their empirical study. It resulted in the effectiveness of negative feedback since the whole groups of treatment provided with the feedback items outperformed the comparison group who received no feedback; besides, they found that both explicit and implicit types of feedback redound to L2 learning. Several other studies by Swain keynoted the effectiveness of corrective feedback in general (e.g., Carroll et al. 1992). These findings point out that providing learners with feedback leads them to amend their erroneous utterances, presumably producing more correct outputs next time. In the opposite case, unless teachers appeal to CF when needed during their teaching, not only may students miss out on the labor-saving potency of these moves, but also their errors may be fossilized. And this deficiency may threaten their language learning process in the long term.

Researchers often reflect on some factors for CF moves to be effective in other respects. For example, learner variables like developmental readiness, language aptitude, learners' reaction to correction, motivation, and personality affect learners' recipience of CF and, accordingly, the effectiveness of the feedback moves (Ellis&Sheen,2006:591). Long (1977:292) approves of the efficacy of CF on L2 growth with a moderate approach. He clarifies other factors that teachers' feedback practices will not be so effective if there is inconsistency, instability, or a lack of clarity in the feedback move, which can even induce confusion in learners' minds. Hence, it is better to lay weight on the fact that teachers need to employ those acts steadily and transparently to reinforce their efficacy while providing learners with CF. The amount of CF seems to be another substantial factor for the feedback moves to be effective. The better part of researchers seeking the effectiveness of CF moves provided during oral tasks is in line with not correcting every single error of learners but the ones inhibiting the flow of communication. Taking into account the communicative approach, for example, Ur (1999:111) states that as the chief goal is to take and deliver important messages, overall errors of learners are not required to be corrected. The errors distracting the meaning should be centered instead of usage errors (Ibid). On the other side, several researchers have pointed out that providing learners with inadequate corrective feedback may decrease CF's effectiveness (Li, 2018:46). Li (2018:46) also inserts that if teachers supply excessive feedback during meaning-primary communicative tasks, learners' concerns will move from meaning to form, probably resulting in a disorder in the meaning-primary tenet. How much feedback to provide

learners is vital for determining their effectiveness rate. As fathomed out, the effectiveness of corrective feedback is pellucid even though there is a consensus on a couple of factors' existence in influencing its rate, such as teachers' preferences for CF strategies, time to provide learners with feedback moves, learner variables, or amount of CF moves to provide.

2.3.1. Hendrickson's Five Questions

Hendrickson (1978:389) brings forward five essential questions which are well established and exploited by many researchers in the pedagogic literature and responds to each one by referring to previous studies. These questions are as below:

1. *Should learner errors be corrected?*
2. *If so, when should learner errors be corrected?*
3. *Which learner errors should be corrected?*
4. *How should learner errors be corrected?*
5. *Who should correct learner errors?*

Hendrickson (Ibid:396) summarizes the answers as follows under the studies at that time:

1. *Should learner errors be corrected?*

Feedback on learners' errors to correct their own oral or written statements helps them improve their linguistic competence more than not giving any feedback.

2. *When should learner errors be corrected?*

It turns out that there is no joint concurrence among teachers or language methodologists on whether to instantly provide learners with CF upon their errors or later on. Most teachers agree that correcting every little mistake may be malignant for language learning. The classroom should have a promotive atmosphere where learners can be on firm ground and freely interact with their opinions and emotions. If teachers correct each of their oral or written errors, this may spark off their experiencing anxiety or timidity.

3. *Which learner errors should be corrected?*

Some errors are considered to have superior precedence for correction over others, like those severely cripple communication, those stigmatizing the learners from the native speakers' perspective (i.e., overt grammatical errors), and the ones learners often

generate. Intending to constitute a pecking order of error correction, researchers establish methods for categorizing and codifying specific types of errors.

4. How should learner errors be corrected?

That teachers already appeal to a broad array of techniques to correct learner errors regarding the literature is known. A number of empirical studies point out that explicit types of CF are unavailing; nevertheless, there is no experimental proof to underpin whether types of error correction substantially decrease learner errors. The question of how teachers provide learners with corrective feedback in practice has long been a shared research interest. Further studies on the notion will help establish new methods for an effective and efficient error correction.

5. Who should correct learner errors?

Apart from teachers' correcting their students' errors, peer correction or self-correction through teacher scaffolding may save time and effort, particularly when teacher correction does not help every student or classroom, approved by several empirical research.

Many scholars tried to find answers to these five questions in their studies, as Hendrickson (1978) did, who could only handle the ones in the given article that researchers had written before this one. Therefore, novel studies appear to enlighten the problems much more through distinguishing findings as the language teaching methods have shown an alternation in time. Yet, Hendrickson's most known five questions are still quoted in many studies as they underpin the CF research. Corrective feedback is a research subject having a high potential for progress in the light of new studies and paving the way for a more impressive language learning process.

2.3.2. The Cognitive Perspective

According to cognitive theory, language acquisition is an information system development by which language learners need to profit sooner or later for not only speaking but also comprehending (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:101). When viewing the concept from a cognitive perspective, several notable SLA theories spring to mind beyond question while seeking the usefulness of CF. The Interaction Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis, and the Skill Acquisition Theory are handled in this section in terms of their association with the provision of oral corrective feedback in the L2 learning process.

2.3.2.1. Interaction Hypothesis

In the first place, Long's Interaction Hypothesis (IH), in which the stress is on the function of negotiated interaction between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) or between two NNSs in the process of second language development (Gass, 2003:234), supports the prime role corrective feedback plays in L2 learning. According to the Interaction Hypothesis, comprehensible input is supplied to learners, and consequently, the negotiation brings along second language learning (Swain & Lapkin, 1998:320). Long (1996, as cited in Mitchell et al.,2019:216) alleges that the implication of CF strategies in meaningful second language interaction procures negative evidence that the learner may benefit. Quoted so many times in related studies, Long (1996, as cited in ibid:212) words on the relevant hypothesis as follows:

> It is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during '*negotiation for meaning'*. 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.

This updated IH model emphasizes the potential influence of negative evidence on L2 learning regarding aspects of L2 structure, procurable from the input that the learner takes (Ibid). Further, learners find out their erroneous utterance or L2 structure through negative evidence and typically become aware of it by force of CF moves in return for their non-target-like output in the second language (Li, 2010:310). These expressions by Long (1996), Mitchell et al. (2019), and Li (2010) can be epitomized by this means that learners provided with negative feedback move, while negotiating for meaning, get the chance to smooth their L2 learning process, which can be pegged down as a sign of the CF effectiveness from the point of interactionists.

2.3.2.2. Output Hypothesis

Being partially in a similar line with IH but as different as night and day from the input hypothesis, Swain's "…output hypothesis claims that the act of producing language (speaking or writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of

second language learning" (Swain, 2005:471). Swain (1985, as cited in Swain, 2005:472-3) identifies the relevant hypothesis as follows:

> … the meaning of 'negotiating meaning' needs to be extended beyond the usual sense of simply 'getting one's message across'… Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not solely conveyed but is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately. Being "pushed" in output… is a concept parallel to that of the i+1 of comprehensible output. Indeed, one might call this the 'comprehensible output' hypothesis.

Since the input per se provided to learners turns out to be inadequate for them to convey their deliberate words in a fluent and correct manner, language educators need to open the door for learners to interact, not only subjecting them to the comprehensible input but also ensuring them to have many chances to generate output (Pannell et al. 2017:139). Learners may be pushed by an effort to create a remark in L2 which makes them conscious of gaps and failures in their target language knowledge; they can directly bend their minds, negotiate and check up on their current problems through this effort, and they can certainly test out these emergent L2 structures with it (Mitchell et al., 2009:223). Thereby, negative feedback that learners receive in due course of negotiating meaning may pave the way for them to acquire vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation, and morphology (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:78). Swain's claim is not that output is the unique basis for acquiring L2; conversely, it supports that output may spearhead learners' acquisition by enabling them to notice mistakes in their interlanguage (IL) competencies (Izumi et al., 1999:423). Thus, this noticing is presumed to encourage learners to produce choices, pursue their knowledge, evaluate these choices, apply their current knowledge to foreknown contexts or emergent ones, and later take advantage of resultant knowledge (Ibid:423-4). As evident from the mentions above, the output that learners produce helps them improve their L2; accordingly, the more teachers expose learners to generate output, the better students learn the target language and deliver their messages flowingly during interactions. Moreover, providing negative feedback to learners by their interlocutors lends assistance to improving their L2 knowledge.

In one of his studies, McDonough (2005) aimed to identify whether negative feedback and modified output generated in consideration of negative feedback substantially

predict question formation in English as a second language. McDonough (Ibid:94) concluded that the unique substantial predictor was the generation of modified output that comprises developing advanced question structures; furthermore, clarification requests as a type of negative feedback may implicitly allow learners to alter their output when they form questions. This study caters for empirical aid for Swain's output hypothesis and boosts assertions for interconnection between modified output and question formation in ESL (English as a second language) (Ibid). McDonough also highlights that appealing to negative feedback and producing modified output opens the door to learning facilities when learners check their former statements and revise them upon the negative feedback they receive (Ibid:79). McDonough's stated study has provided evidence for the effectiveness of negative feedback and modified output.

2.3.2.3. Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis claims that the "learners must attend to and notice linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to if those forms are to become intake for learning" (Schmidt, 2010:724). Schmidt and Frota (1986:311) illuminate their related hypothesis with an expression that they consider as the critical factor; awareness might feature in L2 learning; unintended forms and those the learner generates versus intended forms and those that emerge in the input. Schmidt and Frota (1986) clarify the issue as indicated below:

> We have proposed that the process of noticing the gap may be the crucial point at which affective variables, individual differences, conscious awareness, and "paying attention" enter into the language learning process. We have proposed that negative input, in the form of overt correction by native speakers in conversation, also exists and can potentially have salutary effects on the learner's ability to notice the gap (p. 316).

As fathomed out, if learners do not produce output and notice the linguistic structures that their teachers present, the efficacy of the learning process will decrease, as is expected. Learners need to deliberatively understand and notice these structures so as to be able to acquire them. The tenet of notice-the-gap beats a path to encompass a function for correction and teaching, as a whole, in an L2 learning theory that is integrated (Schmidt & Frota,1986:312). It shows the relationship between learners' noticing the input and their L2 development.

Furthermore, the output is agreed to function as a promoter of the noticing process of not only learners' interlanguage but also the pertinent characteristics in the input (Izumi et al. 1999: 423). Interaction is agreed to be a tremendous booster for learners to generate output and actively attend to the acquisition process. In this context, Mackey (2006:208) denotes that inasmuch as oral CF can conduce to divert learner's interest towards an incompatibility between the target input and the particular IL of the learner, negotiated interaction is asserted to matter in its usefulness in SLA. Additionally, Swain and Suzuki (2008:559) highlight the significance of noticing by stating that it is a prerequisite for learners to notice the target forms provided through CF so that they can fix their statements with errors on their own, by replacing these forms. As is evident, viewing the noticing hypothesis, corrective feedback is indispensable; at the same time, noticing feedback moves provided by a teacher or a native speaker is vital for these moves to be much more effective in learners' acquisition process.

Mackey (2006) conducted a study to discover the relationships between learners' noticing of second language structures during in-class interplays and their subsequent L2 development, with 28 ESL learners enrolled in an intensive language program at the university level and two ESL instructors. In the study, there was the experimental group and the control group. The former consisted of learners exposed to form-focused interactional feedback during classroom activities, whereas the latter group consisted of learners who were not provided with interactional feedback, unlike the former group. Yet, both groups got the same input or output and had an equal chance of hearing and generating linguistic structures. As for the result, high degrees of noticing question forms were signaled by the reports from twelve of fifteen learners in the former group (Mackey, 2006:420). However, less noticing of these structures in no small measure was signaled by learners in the control group who got no interactional feedback (Ibid). The researcher links this finding with an interrelation between procurement of feedback and reports of learners on noticing, which propounds that the level of noticing L2 structures when learners receive oral CF is higher than when they do not receive feedback (Ibid). Briefly, CF functions as a stimulant for noticing since learners are sparked by feedback to distinguish the gap between their interlanguage and the pattern intended to be acquired, bringing linguistic reconstitution (Kim, 2004:3).

2.3.2.4. Skill Acquisition Theory

The Skill Acquisition Theory, which is another significant subsection of cognitive theory and primarily associated with Robert DeKeyser, has an interest in what manner people enhance fluency and accurateness with anything like writing, speaking, or chess playing (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:101) "from initial learning to advanced proficiency" (DeKeyser, 2014:113). According to DeKeyser (2014), the theory constitutively argues that there is a noteworthy parity in learning of a broad array of skills in point of progress from preliminary clarification of information through the agency of initial behavioral changes to terminal fluent, self-generated, radically unlaboring and tolerably skilled behavior (p. 113). Over and above, a cluster of fundamental principles peculiar to acquiring plenary skills can expound this consecution (Ibid). Along with a three-staged development, in which declarative knowledge precisely converts into procedural knowledge and afterward to an automated performance through steady and optimal 'practice,' learners are presumed to employ the identical cognitive processes during eliciting the whole of skills in compliance with the Skill Acquisition Theory (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:85). "Declarative knowledge is static information such as historical or geographical facts encoded in memory. Procedural knowledge entails knowing how to do things, including the ability to apply rule-based knowledge to cognitive as well as motor operations" (Lyster & Sato, 2013:72). There is another related concept called proceduralization, defined as a process for "the transition from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge through the application of production rules" (Segalowitz, 2003:395). Even if learners acquire the procedural knowledge, they need to struggle more to execute that behavior viably, accompanying with exact fluency or spontaneousness, occasionally holding up any errors (DeKeyser, 2014:114). For instance, learners are considered to have declarative knowledge upon learning the linguistic structures of a target language, such as tenses. To accurately apply these rules and fluently speak, they need to transform that knowledge into the procedural one; hence, they need to produce output in the course of their L2 learning repeatedly. Applied to SLA pedagogy, the skill theory suggests that the constant access and retrieval of correct exemplars from memory would result in learning new language features. For example, they need to interact with each other to learn from their mistakes and get over them, and as a result, the speaking behavior in L2 becomes automated.

Accordingly, the expression "one can't learn to speak unless one engages in speaking behaviors" (VanPatten & Benati, 2015:42) highlights the significance of producing output for learners. Such expressions pave the way for CF's requirement when needed to avert the so-called fossilization of the erroneous linguistic forms in learners' minds.

Lyster & Sato (2013:85) accentuate that the practice, when used in a communicative context and accompanied by CF, can positively influence the evolvement pace of declarative knowledge in the process of spontaneously generating. It also positively impacts the destabilization of interlanguage statements, seemingly fossilized and currently convenient for spontaneous production (Ibid). Notably, the output pushing prompts that "push learners to self-repair" (Lyster & Mori, 2006: 271) through elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition have proved to facilitate the procedural knowledge to become automated. Prompts avail scaffold chances for deliberate practice in communicative interaction context, considering their objective to cater to modified output (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009:462). Referring to practices of diverse kinds, they supply opportunities for output that is 'pushed" with the object of advancing control on already interiorized structures and also stand by learners during the proceduralization (Ibid). However, researchers have a bidirectional discordance on whether prompts work better with low proficiency learners (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006) or high proficiency learners. Besides, whether prompts are effective during interactional activities is still an issue of concern. There is a slew of studies aiming to discover which types of CF work better with specific linguistic targets. Yet, there is still no definite answer to these questions because of different findings in present studies. Shortly, because Skill Acquisition Theory clarifies the significant status of practice and its integral bond with CF, it rewardingly serves for understanding the progress of an L2 against as part of instructed SLA (Lyster & Sato, 2013:85). These expressions highlight the substantial importance of designing communicative activities promoting the use of target forms for a more efficient L2 learning process.

2.3.3. The Sociocultural Perspective

Vygotsky, the Russian psychologist, raised the Sociocultural Theory of Cognitive Development, hypothesizing that cognitive development is possible through social interactions. The wordings by this theory's proponents, handling oral CF from a sociocultural perspective, are also to the point since it is directly associated with the

concept thanks to its emphasis on collaboration and communication. Sociocultural theory (SCT) regards that learning, not excepting language learning, has a dialogical basis; in other words, acquisition takes place *in* interaction rather than *as a consequence of* it (Ellis, 2009:12). Watson-Gegeo and Nielsen (2003: 162) get clear on the interrelation of both cognitive and sociocultural concepts with SLA. They argue that although people are possibly born equipped with a particular species-typical tendency to learn languages, it is the sociocultural environments such as home, community, or school in which the whole cognitive development is effectuated, and these environments mightily form the cognitive development. "The basic theme of the Vygotskian sociocultural perspective is that knowledge is social in nature and is constructed through a process of collaboration, interaction, and communication among learners in social settings" (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986, as cited in Nassaji & Swain, 2000). SCT lines up with the fact that "learning of any kind (including language learning) is an essentially social process rather than one generated within the individual" (Norris & Ortega, 2003). Hence, the current theory is explicitly substantial in L2 learning, which is widely believed to progress through interactions and probably stay stable in the absence of such practices. Successful learning requires cooperation; additionally, wordings by both teachers and learners are not just lingual indications to stimulate the language acquirement from the point of SCT (Rassaei,2014:418). These dual wordings can be triggers that precede a blooming language learning process.

Storch (2018: 263) maintains that as social interaction brings along cognitive development, convenient methods of support are supplied to a novice by one of the expert insiders of the society like their parents, teachers, or more well-informed peers concerning SCT; nevertheless, every kind of support might neither work nor result in progress. It is essential for the people who provide support to pay attention to the novice's present and latent competency levels so that cognitive development can come about, which is termed the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Ibid). It can be defined as the interval between free-standing problem-solving capabilities and the prospective capabilities of a learner through counseling (Swain & Suzuki, 2008:564). So, it is apparent that "instruction 'leads' development within the ZPD" (Mitchell et al., 2019:290); accordingly, issues of CF may function as a setting for searching how interaction channels learning by making up ZPDs (Ellis, 2009:12). Furthermore, the tendency of CF to scaffold interaction for constructing a ZPD illustrates its

effectiveness with reference to SCT (Sheen,2010, p.170). One can fathom that teachers' feedback upon learners' errors during in-class conversations can guide learners to cognitively develop through scaffolding, which can be described as "a joint process constructed on the basis of the learner's need" (Nassaji & Swain, 2000:36). Whenever they encounter any tasks that exceed their present capacity, learners can cope with them through scaffolding; hereupon, CF can be reviewed as the feedback of which objective is to support learners with overcoming their problems with the language by courtesy of collaborative scaffolding (Rassaei,2014:420). According to this view, how CF enhances interaction and how the novice and the expert negotiate it is the prevailing determinants of CF effectiveness rather than its types (Nassaji & Swain, 2000:36). Overall, CF types are related to learning within the realm of possibility, yet this relation hinges on where a specific feature of the second language is positioned in the learners' ZPD (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994:480).

In their case study conducted with two adult L2 learners, Nassaji and Swain (2000) aimed to explore whether CF moves verbally supplied within the Zone of Proximal Development of a learner on the written compositions may upgrade their knowledge of articles in the English language in response to feedback moves randomly provided and regardless of the ZPD of the learner. The teacher supplied one student with feedback within her ZPD, whereas she supplied the other with feedback irrespective of her ZPD. The study's findings revealed that the assistance provided within the ZPD was more efficient than the one delivered randomly. In the first composition, the student provided with feedback within her ZPD had more errors than the other student; however, in her final composition, she displayed more accuracy. Further, the ZPD student viably showed progress eventually, while non-ZPD showed no consistent growth. Nassaji and Swain (2000:48) relate this deficiency with the essence of random assistance and the incongruence between the incidental aid and the CF degree of which the learner was essentially in need. The qualitative analysis section of the study proved that ZPD corrective feedback was efficient in that the ZPD learner learned more than the non-ZPD learner; and that the non-ZPD student predominantly did not gain assistance from the random prompts. Considering the relevant study, it would not be odd to conclude that learners' cognitive needs require attention while providing appropriate corrective feedback. The more the feedback is within their ZPD, the more efficient it will be.

2.4. CF Types and Effectiveness

2.4.1. CF Types

Another issue is the techniques teachers exploit during their error correction processes, on which researchers have conducted multitudinous studies to discover the most efficient way of appealing feedback and the role of both negative and positive evidence in SLA. Nevertheless, Ammar and Spada (2006:566) allege that "there is not one CF technique that is ideal or … one size does not fit all". There are diverse factors influencing teachers' preferences of CF types. For example, learners' proficiency levels should be conceived while seeking the efficacy of any CF strategy (Ibid). Thence, teachers apply particular techniques and choices for particular learners and particular contexts, more to the point (Valeo, 2021:159). Sarandi (2016:241) correlates one cause of teachers' swapping over various feedback types with inherently sliding factors redounding CF effectiveness. He exemplifies teaching in a classroom where students vary from another in terms of their prior knowledge of forms, words, or pronunciation (Ibid). There are various strategies for appealing CF, as will be mentioned below. Yet, beyond question, teachers are the decision-makers in choosing the available CF type that fits well with their students' needs, background information, and the linguistic foci of their classes.

During their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) introduced six types of corrective feedback employed by four participatory teachers. These are explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition, each of which is briefly enucleated below. Teachers may benefit from one of these feedback strategies singly or combine different strategies against an error, taking into account the current error type, students' proficiency level, or linguistic aim of their classes.

2.4.1.1. Explicit Correction

Employing explicit correction, the teacher overtly expresses that what the student uttered is erroneous and concurrently provides the correct form by using expressions such as "Oh, you mean" or "You should say" (Lyster and Ranta,1997:46). Lee (2013:218) exemplifies the explicit correction in that way:

Example 1:

S: On May.

T: Not on May, in May. We say, "It will start in May."

The teacher interferes in the learners' erroneous utterance, straightforwardly makes them notice the error, and straightens out it in explicit feedback, as is the case within the example. Explicit correction is one of the techniques commonly preferred by students rather than teachers (e.g., Lee, 2013). Some studies revealed that students usually want to be explicitly corrected even with high proficiency levels. Lee (2013), for instance, conducted a study that aspired CF types and learner repair as well as both students' and teachers' preferences in the matter of feedback and discovered that learners mostly opted for explicit and immediate correction in due course of their conversations although recasts were procured to be the most widely used feedback type by teachers.

2.4.1.2. Recasts

With its sense of being the most frequently used feedback type and proven effectiveness peculiarly during speaking-based teaching sessions in studies, recasts are often in the spotlight in SLA research. By providing recasts, the teacher reconstructs the whole or part of the student's statement replacing the incorrect part with the correct target language form (Lyster and Ranta,1997:47). Recasts widely enunciate to learners that they uttered something non-target-like (Mackey, 2006:406). One of the extracts by Lee (2013:218) can exemplify recasts:

Example 2:

S: I have to find the answer on the book?

T: In the book.

Recasts are regarded as implicit because teachers do not directly mention the existence of an error to students; yet "they can be operationalized in a way that their corrective forces become salient and hence more explicit to learners" (Sarandi, 2016:237). Short recasts rather than long ones and those with stress on the incorrect part rather than unstressed ones seem more explicit (Ibid). Explicit recasts are commonly declared to be more beneficial for learners, leading students to notice the error and rendering the error to an uptake. Another prevalent notion is that recasts supply second language learners with two principal elements of information (Swain & Suzuki, 2008:562). Firstly, recasts acquaint students with their current ungrammatical structure (i.e., negative evidence), and secondly, they may uncloak grammatical information (i.e., positive evidence) (Ibid). Nevertheless, because of its largely implicit nature, there is

a consensus over the relative effectiveness of recasts with adult learners (e.g., Lee, 2013) and learners with higher proficiency levels (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006). Put it differently, for recasts to be effective, "learners must infer from the interaction that their utterance is wrong … and infer that the form of their utterance is responsible for the interlocutor's comprehension problems" (Carroll & Swain, 1993:361), which may be relatively difficult for learners with less prior language knowledge to notice the feedback move provided to them.

2.4.1.3. Clarification Requests

These are the feedback moves in which the teacher employs wordings like "Sorry?" or "I don't understand" upon errors of their students to signify to them that their statement is somehow ungrammatical and that it needs to be reformulated (Lyster &Mori, 2006:271).

Example 3:

S: When you work in Australia?

T: When you work? Sorry?

S: How long have you worked there? (McDonough, 2005:92)

Clarification requests tender neither grammatical options (i.e., positive evidence) nor information on the basis of the ill-formed nature of learners' statements (i.e., negative evidence); nonetheless, they act a substantial part in SLA since learners can get the chance of taking into account of the solecistic side of their statements via clarification requests (Swain & Suzuki, 2008:563). In his study mentioned above, McDonough (2005:91) deciphers that the feedback moves under the name of clarification requests play an implicit part in L2 question generating by simplifying the generation of modified output. This feedback move, together with other prompts, is notable for those who expressly align themselves with the output hypothesis thanks to its assistance for learners in modifying the output.

2.4.1.4. Metalinguistic Feedback

Being one of the explicit types of CF, metalinguistic feedback incorporates any clues, remarks, or questions concerned with the well-formedness of students' statements providing a piece of grammatical knowledge that points out the error (e.g., "It's singular") or a definition of the word that the students incorrectly used in context

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997:47). Students can understand that they have made an error somewhere through either a metalinguistic clue (e.g., “Can you detect your mistake?”, “No, not X.”, “It is past.”) or a metalinguistic question that usually aims to obtain the correct usage from them (e.g., “Is it masculine?”) (Ibid). In the example below, the teacher provides metalinguistic information in response to the student’s error in past tense by explicitly generating the correct usage and indicating that s/he has made an error (Ellis & Shintani, 2014:261):

Example 4:

S: He kiss her.

T: No, kissed past tense.

S: He kissed her.

Ellis and Shintani (2014:261) clarify on the example that this type of feedback helps its corrective force be salient for learners responding with the correct reformation of their erroneous utterance and highlight the pro of explicit CF types for presumably being taken on by the learner. In contrast, implicit CF types are asserted not to cripple communicative fluency as much as the explicit ones (Ibid). So, the linguistic aim of classes commonly seems vital for determining the CF strategy to respond to student errors. Metalinguistic feedback is often compared to recasts in studies because of their explicit vs. implicit nature. One of these studies was conducted by Li (2014) and showed that while recasts were more effective for learners with high proficiency levels and had limited effectiveness for low proficiency learners, metalinguistic feedback had effectiveness for both proficiency levels which also referred to its potential superiority over recasts for less advanced learners.

2.4.1.5. Elicitation

Another explicit type of corrective feedback is elicitation, one of the most commonly used CF types following recasts by teachers during their teaching (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Yüksel et al., 2021). It is often agreed to be effective in connection with its output-prompting nature. Teachers may benefit from distinctive strategies to elicit accurate restatement from learners. For example, the teacher may stimulate the completion of a student's utterance, or s/he may generate a question to produce the correct form (e.g., “How do we pronounce this?”), or ask a student to reformulate their utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997:48). The extract on elicitation below is cited from

Tedick and Gortari (1998), who translated the French forms of these examples into English from the remarkable study by Lyster and Ranta (1997) on CF types:

Example 5:

S: ...Ben y a un jet de parfum qui sent pas très bon... (lexical error)

"...Well, there's a stream of perfume that doesn't smell very nice..."

T: Alors un jet de parfum on va appeler ça un...?

"So, a stream of perfume, we'll call that a...?"

2.4.1.6. Repetition

One of the implicit feedback strategies that teachers make use of while correcting learner errors is repetition, which is "a move where the interlocutor repeats the learner's ill-formed utterance" (Li, 2010:321) "with or without emphasis on the erroneous part" (Ellis & Shintani, 2014:265). Tedick and Gortari (1998) have another translation of the extract illustrating repetition by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as below:

S: Le...le girafe? (gender error)	"The...the giraffe?"
T: Le girafe?	"The giraffe?"

By repeating students' incorrect utterances, teachers indirectly signal the existence of an error which may lead them to realize and correct it on their own; thus, the correction may become more permanent in their minds. Learners with lower proficiency levels may have difficulty finding their errors and correcting them independently. For that reason, this strategy seems to work better with higher proficiency levels, as in recasts.

2.4.2. Effectiveness of CF Types

In addition to the CF classification by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Ellis and Shintani (2014:265) categorize the CF strategies as being implicitly or explicitly provided or being input-providing or output-prompting and propose a classification as given in Table 1 below.

Teachers inconspicuously correct the error and do not directly notify learners of the presence of error in implicit feedback, unlike explicit one in which learners take notice of their incorrect statements since they are demonstrably provided with feedback moves (Sarandi, 2016:236). Pedagogically speaking, teachers determine the implicitness or explicitness of the feedback or any other feedback to provide to their

students according to various factors such as their proficiency levels, age, personality traits and capabilities. Thus, the way they supply students with CF may show an alternation in various classes with different students or according to the linguistic aims

Table 1: A classification of CF strategies (Ellis &Shintani, 2014)

	Implicit	*Explicit*
Input-providing	Recasts	Explicit correction
Output-prompting	Repetitions	Metalinguistic comments
	Clarification requests	Elicitation

of classrooms or contextual variables. Regarding the effectiveness, in their study seeking the effects of implicit and explicit feedback, Ellis et al. (2006:364) found that implicit feedback in the form of recasts was broadly less effective than explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic comments since the latter appears to encourage cognitive comparison which supports the learning process. Besides, Li (2010)'s metanalysis revealed that explicit feedback availed more than implicit feedback through a short period and that the effects of implicit feedback did not whisk away or swell through an extended period.

On the other hand, input-providing feedback moves, involving recasts and explicit correction, supply learners with the proper target form, while output-prompting actions, in other words, prompts, 'push' them to correct their errors on their own (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:265). The input-providing strategies comprise recasts and explicit correction, which "supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output" (Lyster & Mori, 2006:271). Conversely, output-prompting strategies involve assorted cues, apart from alternating reformulations, pushing them to correct errors independently (Ibid). Teachers may use these feedback types simultaneously or choose one suitable for their students in terms of their capabilities or prior knowledge. The findings of current studies have brought to light that recasts have been the most preferred type of CF vis-a-vis other types by teachers or language instructors (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2002, Junqueira & Kim, 2013, Dilāns, 2015). Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts, the most frequently used CF type, were less effective than prompts in guiding learner uptake. Be that as it may, there are other studies in which recasts that teachers can provide either implicitly or explicitly are ascertained to have a positive impact on the SLA process (e.g., Sarandi & Çelik, 2019), probably

with its labor-saving non-destructive nature. Prompts have also been found effective in L2 learning because they encourage learners to self-repair and conduce to the acquisition (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006). Besides, a number of studies revealed that not only input-providing but also output-prompting feedback have equally positive effects on the L2 acquisition process, specifically during interactions, because they differ from each other in their functions and have unique roles in the learning process (e.g., Mackey & Go, 2013; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Mori, 2006). In balance, their effectiveness may be mediated by many factors, including linguistic forms, students' needs, capabilities, or prior knowledge, which can be a token of the absence of a one-size-fits-all feedback type. However, a bulk of studies on the issue have characteristic findings that depict the lack of superiority of merely one feedback type over others for learners with specific levels.

When considering the timing to provide CF, as mutually agreed, a teacher can give a feedback move either immediately whenever the error appears or in a delayed manner which means the teacher suspends the feedback move until the communicative activity is over. According to Ellis and Shintani (2014:280), as there has hitherto been no smoking gun that proves any superiority over the other, the teacher should make a decision on the timing of corrective feedback moves during communicative activities. Both timings, whether they be immediate or delayed, can avail the SLA process (Ibid). Teachers' preferences diverge in this respect on a vast scale as they often have independent thoughts or methods in their teaching. For instance, few of them prefer to correct the errors later since they consider that immediate correction may hinder the flow of communication inasmuch as some choose to correct the errors as soon as they happen since they want to prevent the fossilization of mistakes.

2.5. Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

Before addressing the related research, defining teachers' beliefs and the relationship between these beliefs and practices from prominent researchers' point of view in the educational field is to the point. A comprehensive review of the common previous studies is subsequently presented to explore the current findings and discussion on the notion.

2.5.1. Description of Teachers' Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs loom large in the teaching process as their beliefs are agreed to affect their classroom practices during their teaching. Beliefs are often defined as the "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done', 'should be the case' and 'is preferable'" (Basturkmen et al., 2004:244). Beliefs, "based on evaluation and judgment" (Pajares, 1992:313), are personal by nature to the utmost instead of being public and stay uninfluenced through persuasion (Ibid:309). Teachers may take advantage of their beliefs to boult and expound information, to embody a particular work or problem (e.g., lesson planning), and to conduct instant action" (Buehl &Beck, 2014: 67). When expanded on the notion, its scope happens to deal with teachers' way of mediating on meta-issues like what kind of knowledge is in a specific field, in what way learners get the hang of that field, and the possible actions that teachers can perform to catalyze the advancement of the specialization (Skott, 2014:13). It is also interested in how these chains of thought advance and the role they play in classroom practice (Ibid). In the light of these descriptions, the term "teachers' beliefs" is closely associated with the term "teacher cognition" which has been the center of interest in the educational field lately in proportion to beliefs. Teacher cognition points out "to the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003:81) and "the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom" (Ibid). As is seen, the domain of teacher cognition embodies teachers' beliefs as it also bears on teachers' knowledge, and they seem to be intertwined considering the current studies.

Roothoft and Breeze (2016:319), drawing on Borg (2003), state that since research findings have revealed that teachers' beliefs are impressive in teaching practice, examining their manners is essential in language teaching. Mori (2011) asserts that their beliefs, by favor of their teaching experiments and knowledge, are instrumental in their teaching (p. 452). On the other hand, teachers may apply simultaneous methods in the class, taking into account their beliefs or not. Therefore, it seems that teachers' practices are not always actuated by their views (Roothoft & Breeze, 2016:319). Accordingly, as teachers may unravel their in-class practices through in-line studies, their beliefs must be explored as a prerequisite for analyzing teaching processes from their points of view. In this respect, teachers' beliefs are highly significant to delve

into, yet it is almost impossible to ensure whether they transfer their beliefs into practice without observing their classes. As for the research interest, it is apparent that there has been a progressively increase in the studies on teachers' beliefs over the last 60 years (Ashton: 2014:31). Skott (2014:25) relates studies on teachers' beliefs to the contexts, students, and themselves as teachers, doers, and learners of the contexts, and thereby, that research has sparked off newly introduced perceptions of teachers' thinking. Thus, so far-reaching is the scope of study on beliefs that every aspect still needs further research separately as findings may differ depending on the study samples, settings, and context.

2.5.2. The Relationship between Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

The best part of previous studies on teachers' beliefs redirected the field of inquiry from in-sight action to intentional action and the delayed impact of an educational activity to anticipated incentives pertaining to teachers' beliefs (Skott, 2014:16). So, their beliefs turned out to be a significant determining factor in students' educational activities and learning processes (Ibid). In other words, it is mutually agreed that the beliefs of teachers, which they claim to have, maximumly serve a function in educational practice (Basturkmen et al., 2004:245). In addition, the findings of the studies infer that the multiplexed factors, which interact and commonly contradict each other, frame the actual practices of language teachers in the classroom (Borg, 2003:91). However, teacher cognition consistently arises as a key factor strongly impinging on teachers' implementations but not eventually representing their claimed beliefs, individual theories, and educational doctrines all the time (Ibid). Hence, the enhanced stress on the teachers' thoughts was oriented toward finding out classroom modus from teachers' points of view, sorting out practice, or hitting a happy medium between the two in due course (Skott, 2014:15).

Studies on the notion have explicated these practices in recognition of teachers' educational apprehensions or attitudes, doctrines or norms they are striving to perform, their views on various degrees of context, and the academic knowledge they own (Borg. 2003:91). Studies have also enucleated the cornerstones of their beliefs, idiopathic practical knowledge, and standpoints (Ibid). Indeed, dabbling with context is momentous for catching on to the formation of the beliefs since it is impossible to keep teachers' beliefs and practices apart from the circumstances they come off; not excepting the broader social, political, and economic terms besides the instantaneous

classroom contexts (Levin, 2014:51). These variables sometimes lead to a situation in which their beliefs do not entirely overlap with their classroom practices, as proven by several studies (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Lee, 2009; Dilāns, 2015; Ha & Murray, 2020, Kartchava et al., 2018). Nonetheless, teachers' beliefs are consistent with their practices in some respects, according to some other studies which are less in number (e.g., Mori, 2002, Yüksel et al., 2021). Buehl and Beck (2014:66) allege that the existence of a mismatch is not an account for the vitality of beliefs; instead, the future relationship between these two, in company with the potential internal or external factors promoting or paralyzing that link, needs to be absorbed. Teachers often benefit from multiple materials and plan their classes to their own methodologies and beliefs, but these beliefs may differ in implementation in a virtual classroom environment as they need to make rapid decisions while teaching. Thus, the terms "technical knowledge" and "practical knowledge" appear that teachers draw on in their teaching. The former connotates the bulk of prominent opinions reproduced by profession over heavy contemplation or experiential research, while the latter connotates the procedural knowledge that a personal doer has reproduced from language teaching and learning experiments (Basturkmen et al., 2004:246-7). By and large, the role a particular belief plays, its code in the teacher's belief system and the condition of practice, which is analyzed, and any different internal or external factors may be the determinants of the concurrency between beliefs and practices (Buehl &Beck, 2014: 73). If that is the case, any lack of congruence between beliefs and practices may be tenable as long as not cropping out at high levels; otherwise, the vast conflicts may need working out.

Buehl and Beck (2014: 68-70) instantiate various points of view about what kind of a relationship is possible between teachers' beliefs and practices:

1. Teachers' beliefs impact their practices.
2. Teachers' practices impact their beliefs.
3. Beliefs and practices are unrelated.
4. The relationship between beliefs and practices is bilateral but complicated.

Given the current probable perspectives on the matter, it could be deduced that there has been no particular unique finding, yet the most approved recently in the field is the one ranking fourth. That is, the existence of reciprocation between beliefs and practices may be somewhat confusing because of different study findings.

Beliefs on corrective feedback refer to the point of view, ideas, reflections, or attitudes that teachers or students possess on the notion's effectiveness in the second language teaching and learning processes and how CF needs to be implemented during instruction (Li, 2017, 143). In that vein, the number of CF studies concerning teachers' beliefs increased, as proven by multifold studies and meta-analyses on the concept (Kartchava et al., 2018:2). Teachers' beliefs on CF have been the focal point in the field of SLA for so long, thanks to its significant role in teaching. On the other hand, the relationship between their beliefs and classroom practices has drawn less interest (Ha & Murray, 2020:2), manifesting the need for further research on the matter. In this study, "practice" refers to any action related to teaching, such as "planning, decision making, instructional strategies or approaches, assessment, reflection" (Buehl &Beck, 2014: 67), and more specifically, corrective feedback moves. Thus, the studies which aimed at finding out either possible matches or mismatches between beliefs and practices primarily in the field of SLA are presented in the following section.

2.5.3. Research on Teachers' Beliefs and Practices on OCF

It is evident that although there are various types or timings of CF, there is no one-size-fits-all solution for teachers to come up with during teaching; hence, they mainly select CF moves that conform to their teaching strategies or the instructional contexts. Put differently, peculiar teachers' beliefs about their teaching affect CF practices in their classes sooner or later (Yüksel et al., 2021:363). Assuming that providing CF is a quite demanding and essential mission for teachers, shedding light on the beliefs behind their practices may facilitate defining the agents that promote forceful feedback (Lee, 2009:14). Li (2017: 143) also asserts that another substantiality of examining teachers' feedback beliefs emanates from a detached form that leaves out any beliefs regarding alternative aspects of L2 learning. Regarding the former studies on teachers' beliefs and practices of oral corrective feedback, their findings have revealed that teachers are not constantly conscious of the way they react to students' errors (Roothoft & Breeze, 2016:319). That is, there may be congruences in company with incongruences between their stated beliefs and actual classroom practices (Ibid). Therefore, making indisputable inferences on the relationship between teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices from the current studies that have produced miscellaneous results should wait for the right time (Kartchava et al., 2018:7), maybe until a superabundant number of studies are conducted on the matter ahead.

Nevertheless, findings of these investigations evidenced either matches or mismatches on “the effectiveness (should errors be corrected?), focus (which errors should be corrected?), provider (who should provide error correction?), timing (when should errors be corrected?) and type (how should errors be corrected?) of OCF” (Yüksel et al., 2021:364). Hence, analyzing and interpreting their results for a grand scheme is legitimate. Below is the list of studies and their findings, which are relevant to the objective of the present research.

Basturkmen et al. (2004) studied the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices during focus on form instruction utilizing classroom observations accompanying the participant teachers’ self-report data. The study's findings showed that teachers’ views were not always congruent with their actual classroom behaviors concerning the timing of focus-on form and CF preferences. There were salient similarities in all teachers’ guidance of focus on form in the task. Nonetheless, the teachers diverged from each other in three aspects of focus on form: "type, complexity, and response,” They showed no alteration in two aspects: "linguistic focus and source.” For example, although three participants asserted that teachers should focus on the form only when a problem arises in conveying the meaning, they overwhelmingly did so even if the focus was on the source rather than the message. In addition, one of the teachers primarily provided CF moves to support them with linguistic information during class; in fact, he formed a view on student correction being more feasible. Two participants seemed to believe in the effectiveness of prompts, yet they mainly provided recasts. Similarly, a teacher maintained to prefer delayed feedback which he would provide after speaking activities, whereas he was found to correct student errors immediately. The study's results proved the existence of a somewhat nebulous link between beliefs and practices of teachers in terms of focus on form.

Mori (2002) conducted an extensive study in which two experienced ESL teachers’ beliefs besides their actual CF behaviors were investigated for two terms, using classroom observations and interviews. The results revealed that both teachers’ beliefs played a significant determinant role in their teaching, unlike the study of Basturkmen et al. (2004). One of the teachers claimed to believe in the importance of learner autonomy, student-initiated interactions, emphasis on the learners’ messages in speaking classes, and classroom environments where students felt relaxed for

communications. She claimed that not every speaking class's focus should be on the form; instead, the focus should be on students' ability to deliver the message even when they make linguistic errors. Ultimately, her CF practices were consistent with her stated beliefs through the number of CF moves she provided. She mainly provided recasts (71%) and elicitation in spots (17%) for lexical, phonological, and grammatical errors, which was the proof of match with her beliefs. The other teacher believed in the substantiality of form-focused instruction. His practices also matched up with his beliefs concerning the CF moves, as he seemed to overtly provide explicit feedback (25%), metalinguistic feedback (53%), and elicitation (22%). Eventually, both teachers' beliefs were consistent with their CF moves in practice. Mori (2002:65) alleged that their educational beliefs on the basis of the mentioned factors' interference turned out to be constitutive of their exploiting certain CF types.

Junqueira & Kim (2013) carried out a study investigating the relationship between former training, teaching experience, corrective feedback (CF) beliefs, and practices of two ESL teachers, one of whom was novice while the other was experienced, utilizing interviews, stimulated recalls and observations. The results uncovered that although teachers' beliefs and practices were not always consistent, their beliefs seemed to affect their feedback practices seriously. One of the teachers mentioned that she preferred correcting pronunciation errors, if she did, since it was substantial for the flow of communication and her CF practices were generally against phonological errors (72.8%), confirming her beliefs. The case was also similar for the other participant because she opted to correct grammatical and phonological errors and did so in her teaching practice (40% for pronunciation and 32.5% for grammar). Notwithstanding that their beliefs favored the CF's ineffectiveness, they appeared to provide CF at 51.9% and 62.8%, which was a sign of a mismatch. Both teachers widely used recasts to correct their students' mistakes (58.2% and 48.3%). Junqueira & Kim (2013:201) concluded that some crucial matters need to be taken into account in teacher training programs:

a) focusing on the CF effectiveness and its function in language classes,

b) guiding preservice teachers on being aware of their beliefs and assessing them with a critical approach.

Dilāns (2016) examined 66 teachers' beliefs on using OCF in Latvian as a second language classes seeking the connection between their beliefs and practices through observing classes of 13 participants. According to the findings, the teachers claimed to use each CF type on an equal basis; however, they seemed to mostly prefer recasts in practice with a percentage of 72% (isolated = 60%, integrated = 12%). Into the bargain, they happened to opt for elicitations for only 13% of all errors and explicit feedback for the other 13%. They only used 2% repetitions during their teaching. All these were indicative of incongruence between beliefs and practices. Dilāns (2016:494) asserted that the account of teachers' commonly providing isolated recasts in practice may have been their remarkable and efficient nature from which teachers could straightforwardly benefit in correcting target errors.

Ha and Murray (2020) investigated the beliefs and practices of six primary EFL teachers and sought the relationship between them via classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. The findings evinced that despite some matches, their beliefs and practices contrasted in the main, as was the case in similar studies (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dilāns, 2016). One participant stated to deem prompts effective and implemented this belief into her teaching, which the researcher qualified as a congruence. On the flip side, other participants enunciated that they did not believe in the recast effectiveness as they were not salient, yet they mostly preferred explicit didactic recasts during teaching practice. Ha and Murray (2020:22) related this case with the characteristics of the errors because students predominantly made phonological or usage errors. In addition, four teachers believed that they provided repetitions most, but only one teacher among them provided repetition two times in practice. A fifth teacher also provided it twice, although s/he did not state to use it. There was a common belief among the participants that they aimed to teach pronunciations of the words to their students correctly. However, the corrected vocabulary errors constituted 78.9% of the whole, while only 40.8% of the phonological errors and 40.4% of the grammatical errors were responded with CF. Ha and Murray (2020:23) deduced that teachers may not have corrected all pronunciation errors with the worry of harming the fluency during interactions, albeit primary schools' teaching programs were form-focused primarily. And it would have been no problem if they had corrected them.

In their related study, Kartchava et al. (2018) targeted the relationship between preservice ESL teachers' beliefs and practices using a questionnaire for learning their beliefs on OCF and classroom observations comprising of a hypothetical and an actual teaching environment for seeing their existing practices. The findings revealed that there was an assorted connection between beliefs and practices in such a way that the participants provided fewer CF moves (17%) than they claimed to do (54%), and they appeared to use the same CF strategies in both hypothetical scenario and actual classroom teaching. Kartchava et al. (2018:14) suggested that their beliefs on the CF effectiveness may have been formed because of their CF experiments in their learning process in which they got CF moves for their oral errors or they were exposed to formal grammar instruction; additionally. Kartchava et al. (2018:17) expressed that their reason for having provided fewer corrections could be their possible concern for hindering learners' fluency, badly influencing their comfort, or basically not having an idea for a timely correction.

As for the Turkish language teaching context, Yüksel et al. (2021), in their study investigating possible (in)congruences between teachers' beliefs and practices of 20 EFL instructors, utilized video-recorded classroom observations to examine oral CF practices, a task on OCF to identify their beliefs besides stimulated recall interviews for data collection. The findings illustrated that teachers' beliefs on the CF effectiveness (63%) and their error correction ratios in practice (68%) were quite similar. It appeared that there was a substantial correlation between beliefs and practices for usage errors ($r = 0.74$, $p < 0.01$) and lexical errors ($r = 0.53$, $p < 0.05$). The CF types that teachers asserted to provide and provided in practice were also similar (e.g., the stated rate of recast provision was 57%, and their actual recast provision was 61.35%). All the participants presented consistent CF practices with their beliefs, as was the case in the study of Mori (2002). Yüksel et al. (2021:376) also informed that teachers' being aware of their feedback provisions during conversational activities and their desire to retain them emerged from stimulated recall interviews, which the researchers found original for its part to the CF domain.

Based on all these studies related to the matter, it can be concluded that the studies are bidirectional in that some resulted in the effectiveness of teachers' beliefs in their in-class practices, and others resulted in a nebulous relationship between their beliefs and practices because of the partial existence of incompatibilities. Borg (2003: 98) casts

these thoroughly examined studies concerning teacher cognition in L2 teaching as favorable for they seek to discover what occurs in classrooms in reality, which may be considered a noticeable requisite for an investigation to promote preferable insights of teaching.

Considering the research on teachers' beliefs and practices of OCF in Turkish educational settings, the number of related studies is limited, which may lead teachers to go unnoticed on their importance. Speaking is one of the skills that Turkish students have significant problems with for various reasons. The ways of providing OCF or timely OCF moves seem crucial for that reason. Thus, future studies should investigate the theme in the Turkish context that findings will significantly guide teachers to make more informed decisions in their classes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The overall purpose of this study was to find out the EFL instructors' beliefs and practices regarding the provision of CF types, their frequency and timings, and the way they deal with various error types during communicative activities in classrooms. It also investigated the relationship between their beliefs and actual classroom practices to discover the existence of either a substantial or a shadowy link between them. This chapter presents the data on research design, research questions, limitations, setting and participants, pilot study, data collection, and data analysis.

3.2. Research Design

As the nature of the study best fitted with the mixed-methods research, it was favored as the research methodology of the study in the form of classroom observations and a questionnaire; so, the data collection process comprised of two stages. The first stage consisted of an online questionnaire with open-ended and closed-ended questions, catering to the characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. This was because "questionnaires are the most common assessment data collection strategy used in teachers' belief research" (Schraw & Olafson, 2014: 91). "Some methods of evaluating self-beliefs deviate from exclusive self-report by combining questionnaires with qualitative assessments … to determine the relation between beliefs and instructional practice" (Hoffman & Seidel, 2014:108), which was the underlying factor of combining observations with questionnaire as the method of the study.

In the second stage of this descriptive and correlational research, to figure out any connection between beliefs and practices, the same questionnaire was also applied to six different instructors whose online recorded classes were observed for three classes, each of which lasted for 45 minutes. In parallel with the classroom observations, their CF moves towards student errors related to the context, and the errors they ignored were transcribed verbatim to obtain quantitative data. The rationale in their teaching practices towards OCF and their beliefs were explored to obtain qualitative data because "a deeper understanding about the ways in which teachers develop, change, and act upon their beliefs over time and in a variety of contexts requires the use of

qualitative approaches in which researchers can attend fully to the lived experiences of teachers" (Olafson et al., 2014:128).

3.3. Research Questions

This study aimed to find answers to the research questions below:

1. What are the general perceptions of EFL instructors regarding CF effectiveness and students' CF expectations?
2. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs concerning:
   a) what CF types to use?
   b) how often to provide OCF?
   c) for which errors to provide OCF?
   d) when to provide OCF?
3. What are the EFL instructors' actual OCF practices in the classroom concerning the subsections a), b), c), and d) above?
4. Are the EFL instructors' beliefs and practices congruent/incongruent?

3.4. Setting and Participants

The online questionnaire was conducted at three Turkish state universities with 51 participants (60% females, 40% males), all of whom were instructors at prep classes. Their ages ranged from 31 to 62 (M=41.3) and teaching experiences varied from 1 to 40 (M=17.3). The undergraduate degree of the participants was mainly from ELT (English Language Teaching) program (64.7%) and ELL (English Language and Literature) program (27.5%) respectively. Only two participants (3.9%) indicated to be graduates of the English Translation and Interpretation (ETI) program, and two (3.9%) opted for "others", possibly referring to American Culture and Literature or English Linguistics programs. In addition, the highest degrees they obtained uniformly varied as 25.5% undergraduate, 39.2% graduate, and 35.3% doctoral. Additionally, several participants stated to have received CELTA (n=2), DELTA (n=1) and TEFL (n=1) certificates.

As for the second stage, six instructors (five females and one male) teaching English preparatory classes at a Turkish state university participated in the study by answering the present questionnaire individually and getting access to their recorded online classes. Various pseudonyms were used to refer to each participant throughout the study. Their ages and years of teaching experience ranged between 29-44 and 7-19,

respectively. Their undergraduate degrees also varied among three programs, ELT (n=3), ELL (n=2), and English Translation and Interpretation (n=1). The levels of the classes they taught were A2 (n=4) and B1 (n=2). Different levels of the classes were purposefully preferred to see if there were any differences between CF moves in different levels. The highest degrees of the participants included undergraduate (n=2), graduate (n=2), and doctoral (n=2).

3.5. Sample Selection

51 participants, responding to the questionnaire, were chosen randomly as the target population was too large to define. On the other hand, the six instructors for the observations were chosen through purposeful sampling as the number was relatively low, and as the study required observing classes in which speaking activities/tasks were highly valued. The purposeful sampling can be described as selecting participants based on their availability and willingness to participate in the study, which was also the case in the present study.

3.6. Data Collection

3.6.1. Data Collection Tools

Regarding the instruments, a questionnaire was administered to the participants to explore their beliefs. Before bringing it into use, the researcher tested it via a pilot study. Once the questionnaire study was completed, classroom observations were carried on through recorded online classes. While transcribing the data of the recordings, a checklist was utilized.

3.6.1.1. Pilot Study

Before collecting the data for the main study, a pilot test was conducted with three English instructors teaching at various state universities, aside from the main study participants, with an intention to test the questionnaire and prearrange it in case of any inconvenience. When asked for their views, the participants made several suggestions on the questionnaire form. That being the case, a few necessary arrangements were made to clarify the statements in the online questionnaire.

3.6.1.2. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire contained three parts (See Appendix A). The first part of the questionnaire included eight questions that aimed to elicit the socio-demographic

information of the participants. The second part contained six questions. Two of these questions also had sub-questions. The questions about OCF participants were asked with the aim of eliciting teachers' beliefs on feedback provisions during oral activities. The third part involved open-ended questions in an attempt to deeply understand the participants' thoughts on OCF and the reasons for these thoughts. Following the pilot test, the questionnaire was administered through Google Forms, and the participants' responses were gathered for four weeks. All the participants were asked for their consent at the outset. The relevant questionnaire was adapted from the study by Yüksel et al. (2021) only with a few changes upon receiving their consent. Only one question regarding timing was incorporated into it because the study also aimed to examine the timing of the feedback moves that the instructors provided. Lyster & Ranta's (1997) classification for CF types, in the forms of recast, explicit feedback, repetition, clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, was also utilized in the questionnaire to specify teachers' preferences. The questionnaire aimed to explore the participants' beliefs about OCF in language teaching.

3.6.1.3. Video Recordings

The six instructors used Microsoft Teams as an instrument for distance education. While observing online classrooms, all the errors that students had made (except those entirely based on completing the given blanks with one-word activities), the number of CF moves, and the types that teachers provided during classes were transcribed verbatim and considered in the data analysis process. Students' errors during conversations were counted as fluency-oriented, whereas the rest were counted as accuracy-based errors. Six CF types that Lyster and Ranta (1997) introduced in their study as "explicit feedback, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition" were the determinants in the classification process of student errors in the present study. The observations aimed to find out about the instructors' actual oral CF practices towards in-class student errors. Classroom observation and the data transcription lasted for almost two months. Some excerpts from overall transcriptions involving student errors and the feedback that teachers provided are attached in Appendix C.

3.6.1.4. The Checklist

A checklist generated by the author in compliance with the research questions was utilized during the data collection and analysis processes of classroom observations. The checklist involved information on various types of student errors, activity types, timing, and type of CF moves (categorized according to the classification by Lyster & Ranta, 1997), teachers' ignoring errors or providing CF moves, uptake signals by students, and peer-corrections. The relevant checklist is presented in Appendix B.

3.6.2. Data Resources for the Research Questions

In furtherance of the mixed-methods research, the procedures included collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. As for the quantitative data collection, student errors with the CF moves towards these errors provided by teachers were identified and numbered during classroom observations. Additionally, all the questions in the questionnaire aimed at exploring teachers' beliefs through frequency analysis. Concerning the qualitative data collection, while observing teachers' classes, the researcher took notes on teachers' various methods, possible underlying factors of their practices, students' common tendency toward errors and the course of events to evaluate during analysis. Moreover, the third part of the questionnaire involved open-ended questions and aimed to find out the reasons for teachers' stated beliefs and whether they would present any specific ideas or notable comments on the notion. Table 2 represents each research question and its data resource/s benefitted during the study.

3.7. Data Analysis

3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics were used to calculate the data obtained through the questionnaire. The statistical analyses were carried out with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences v.23 (SPSS, 2015). A cross-check for at least 50% of the obtained data for teachers' beliefs was done with a teaching assistant. In parallel with the statistical data, the average frequency of the participant responses to the questionnaire items was also calculated and benefitted the evaluations. Table 2 shows the data resources used to explore each research question, such as the questionnaire items and video recordings.

Regarding the video recordings, as there were no separate skill classes in the school of foreign languages at the university where the classroom observations were done, both fluency-oriented and accuracy-based activities throughout the main English course were taken into account during the data analysis. While analyzing the data, a self-prepared checklist was utilized in categorizing and counting the instructors' actual OCF practices. The data analysis of six participants' classroom observations was firstly made through Microsoft Excel by calculating the average frequencies of all student errors, OCF moves, or ignoring acts by the participants. Additionally, the data of the observations and six participants' responses to the questionnaire were also analyzed through Spearman's Rank Order Correlation on SPSS 23 to see the presence of any significant correlations between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Table 2: Data resources of research questions

Research questions	*Data resources*
1. What are the general perceptions of EFL instructors regarding CF effectiveness and students' CF expectations?	Questionnaire: Q1, Q7, Q8
2. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs concerning: a) what CF types to use? b) how often to provide OCF? c) for which errors to provide OCF? d) when to provide OCF?	Questionnaire: a) Q6 b) Q2 c) Q3 d) Q5, Q9
3. What are the EFL instructors' actual OCF practices in the classroom concerning the subsections "a), b), c), d)" in the second research question?	Classroom Observations
4. Are the EFL instructors' beliefs and practices congruent/incongruent?	Questionnaire + Classroom Observations

3.7.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data elicited in this study also supported the quantitative data. While analyzing the participants' responses to the open-ended items in the questionnaire, the data were put in order. Each instructor's response was keyed in computer one by one to categorize them. Then, these responses were grouped, and the numerical values of the participants sharing the same view were calculated. The frequency distributions were utilized in the calculation process. The data were summarized in tables under the section of results to show the instructors' specific responses with their frequencies.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Findings for the Research Questions

The results were evaluated from the points of research questions. The first research question refers to instructors' general perception of CF effectiveness involving an additive general criterion on students' CF expectations which was asked to the participants in the task. As the second research question involves subsections of "a, b, c and d", they respectively refer to 51 instructors' beliefs about CF types, instructors' beliefs about OCF frequency, instructors' OCF preferences of various error types, and instructors' preferences of OCF timing in this chapter. This research question discretely refers to six participants' beliefs which are also presented. The third research question aims to determine instructors' actual practices regarding the given variables in the second question. The last research question is about the findings on the relationship between the instructors' beliefs and practices.

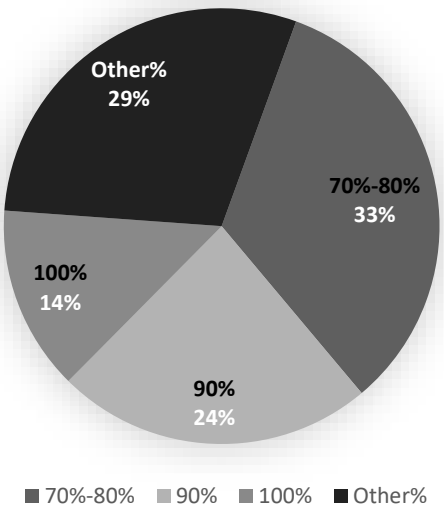
4.2. Instructors' Perception of CF Effectiveness and Students' CF Expectations

4.2.1. Beliefs about CF Effectiveness

Regarding the first research question, "What are the general perceptions of EFL instructors regarding CF effectiveness and students' CF expectations?", the first, seventh, and eighth items of the questionnaire were asked to the participants. They were asked to grade their views on a percentile scale, separated into eleven equal parts ranging from 0% to 100%, with an intention to ascertain their beliefs on CF effectiveness through the first questionnaire item (see page 94). The study's results revealed that most instructors believe in CF effectiveness to a high degree, while some hold reasonable beliefs about it. The average perceived CF effectiveness was 72.74% (n=51). The findings of the equally spaced scale are illustrated in Figure 1 below, showing the frequency of the instructors who picked a certain percentage well suited to their beliefs.

The seventh open-ended question item also examined the instructors' beliefs about CF effectiveness. They were asked whether they thought it was essential to give feedback to their students on language mistakes or find it effective and to show reasons for their beliefs. Two major views, under which others were grouped, appeared in answers:

Figure 1: The instructors' beliefs on CF effectiveness



1) CF is important and effective, and 2) CF is not always but sometimes necessary. The findings revealed that the vast majority (78.4% of the participants) formed a view on the effectiveness and the significance of CF in the L2 learning process, coming up with various reasons. Table 3 shows the reasons for participants' beliefs about the importance of CF with the average frequencies. As you may see from the table, regarding the possible causes, 35% of the participants formed a view that it is important because students learn the second language correctly thanks to the feedback they get upon their errors, which leads them to improve their language skills and produce more correct outputs during their language performance. The six observed participants also gave various reasons for their beliefs on CF effectiveness. One of these instructors, nicknamed Rona, for example, explained that "CF causes learners to pause, engage, and modify behavior in the moment". Similarly, another one, Tera, stated that CF is important because "students should be aware that they have made a mistake".

The second major view, "CF is not always necessary", was less preferred, with a percentage of 21% (n=51). The reasons for instructors' beliefs are presented with their average frequencies in Table 4. These instructors emphasized the importance of delayed feedback; they believe teachers should note the errors and provide learners with the necessary input following the oral task. The reasons also varied among six observed instructors in this regard. One of them, Mila, for example, supported CF's effectiveness with these words while she emphasized the need for correcting only major errors: "It is important to correct the mistakes if students repeat them; otherwise,

students exposed to these misused forms may learn wrong. Not every mistake needs feedback, of course, only the major ones". Another instructor, nicknamed Amy, also supported her in that "if the mistake is major, then CF is effective". On the other hand, another participant, Miri, explained her thoughts about CF effectiveness in terms of OCF timing:

"It depends on the feelings of the students and the general atmosphere in class. If there is a friendly atmosphere and students do not feel stressed out in front of others, it is OK to give immediate feedback. Otherwise, teachers can take notes and correct the mistakes at the end of class time to the whole class. If students are stressed out while talking in front of others, immediate feedback may not help. A student just corrects the mistake but forgets the correct form immediately. In the next sentence, she repeats the mistake. But it really depends on the student's motivation and mood. While some do not pay attention to the feedback, others may regard it and do not let their mistakes fossilize. It is the teachers' job to make an immediate decision about giving feedback. I feel giving immediate and delayed feedback, using both would be more beneficial."

As seen, Miri is with the idea of giving CF during communications, but she highlighted the significance of paying attention to students' psychological states while deciding to provide CF immediately or later. Ted also underlined the necessity of avoiding demotivating students, especially with lower proficiency levels, and caring for suitable OCF timing and frequency. As a side note, none of the participants negatively responded to the seventh question. Thus, it can be concluded that the prevailing beliefs of the instructors are with the effectiveness and significance of providing students with OCF moves.

Table 3: The reasons for instructors' beliefs in CF importance/effectiveness

	Stated reasons and several remarks	**N**	**%**
1	It is important because students learn the L2 correctly thanks to CF, improving their language and producing more correct outputs during the performance.	18	35
2	CF is helpful for students to notice and be aware of their errors so that they can correct their own mistakes.	7	13
3	Errors become stable and fossilized unless teachers provide feedback for mistakes, which may spark off an improbable correction later.	6	11.7
4	Teachers should not correct every single mistake with the aim of not only averting any discouragement but also distracting attention from the current process.	3	5

5	It is better to give feedback on students' errors in an implicit way to avoid offending them.	3	5
6	Providing feedback immediately upon student errors is vital, which may increase its effectiveness.	2	3.9
7	It is crucial to give CF before mistakes become fossilized. We need fluency, but accuracy is increasingly taking attention in the last few years at the tertiary level. We have students who are fluent but not accurate in English.	1	1.9
8	CF is significant, but minor errors do not need to be corrected all the time.	1	1.9
9	CF is essential but interrupting learners too often may negatively affect the flow of conversation.	1	1.9

Table 4: The reasons for beliefs in "CF is not always necessary"

	Stated reasons and several remarks	**N**	**%**
1	CF is not always essential; students should realize their mistakes and correct them on their own, so teachers can guide them to self-correct by giving them chances.	4	7
2	As the priority in oral sessions is fluency, excessive correction through repetitive interruptions may detract their learning enthusiasm, self-confidence, and motivation despite their relative belief in CF effectiveness.	4	7
3	CF is effective for several kinds of errors like vocabulary or pronunciation, but not for others like grammatical ones.	3	5
4	Delayed feedback is required to avoid over-correction.	2	3.9
5	Delayed feedback is the best for pronunciation errors, but common grammar errors should be immediately corrected.	1	1.9

4.2.2. Beliefs about Students' CF Expectations

For the eighth item in the questionnaire, the participants indicated their beliefs on whether students expect CF and why. This time, three main views came up: 1) Students expect to get feedback. 2) Students do not expect to get feedback. 3) Some students expect feedback / Students sometimes expect to get feedback.

For the first and second major views, thirty-two participants, comprising 62.7% of the whole (n=51), agreed that students expect to get feedback when they make errors in the L2 learning process. On the other hand, 15.7% of the total participants (n=51) consider that students do not expect to get feedback, and 21.6% hold the idea that only some students expect CF correction, or its provision is not always expected. Table 5 illustrates instructors' reasons for supporting CF with the average frequencies. Some of the stated reasons for beliefs showed similarity in frequencies. Eight teachers (15.6%), who believed students expected to be corrected, gave the desire of students

to learn pronunciation correctly as the reason for their expectation. This was followed by students' desire to produce correct sentences (11.7%) and understand the reason for their mistakes (11.7%).

Table 5: The reasons for the instructors' beliefs in students' expecting CF

	Stated reasons & remarks	**N**	**%**
1	Students want to learn pronunciation correctly.	8	15.6
2	Students expect feedback as they need to make sure of producing correct outputs.	6	11.7
3	Students need to understand the reasons for their errors and learn from them to progress in the target language.	6	11.7
4	It may take longer for students to realize their mistakes independently, which can be the reason for their CF expectations.	3	5.8
5	Students would feel more confident and willing to take part in speaking activities when their teacher provided them with CF.	2	3.9
6	Teachers should provide feedback indirectly or not do it rashly to avoid anxiety.	2	3.9
7	Students expect to get CF as they get used to being corrected.	1	1.9

Regarding the instructors defending the idea of no CF expectation, four instructors (7.84%) stated that students' focus on fluency and unwillingness to be interrupted was the reason for not expecting feedback. Three other participants (5.88%) claimed they do not want it because they might get demotivated or anxious upon hearing teachers' feedback. Moreover, one instructor highlighted that students devalue CF and do not want any since they may be unaware of their errors during conversations. However, the teacher warned that if no one corrects their mistakes, they may become permanent, illustrating that although they opine on no student expectation of CF, some still believe in the necessity of providing CF.

Regarding the third major view, 21.6% of the participants (n=51) passed an opinion on the partial student expectation of CF; that is, they think students sometimes want to get feedback, but not always or not all students expect feedback. Six instructors (11.76%) stated that students' expectations might vary based on their attitude (where they are interested) and personality factors (whether they are introverts or extroverts). Two others (3.92%) specified that some students do not ask for feedback as they do not want to be interrupted so often. One of them related the case with lower proficiency levels. This participant affiliating CF expectations with lower proficiency mentioned that students with high proficiency levels desire to get CF as they have already

improved their oral skills and want to become native-like through these moves. Another participant stated that students' expectations might vary depending on the person who provides the feedback (whether the teacher or student).

4.3. Instructors' Beliefs about OCF

The second research question aimed to discover instructors' beliefs about the CF types, the OCF frequency, the acts of OCF for various error types, and the OCF timing they prefer during their teaching. These will be examined in turn below.

4.3.1. Beliefs about CF Types

The sixth item in the questionnaire explored the quantitative findings regarding teachers' beliefs about CF type. The participants chose one from the hypothetical samples of six CF types: recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, repetition, and explicit feedback. The examples included grammatical, phonological, and lexical errors with the intent to measure all error types equally. Table 6 demonstrates all hypothetical samples given in the task with the frequencies of instructors' preferences of CF types provided in them. As for the analysis, recasts were claimed to be the most preferred CF type out and away, averaging 50.4% (n=51). All prompts in the forms of repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request underfollowed recasts regarding stated teachers' preferences with a sum percentage of 46.09%. However, the average enumeration showed up that repetition ranked second among all others, including explicit feedback, which was affirmed to be provided at the rate of 20.01% by teachers during instruction. Elicitation and metalinguistic feedback were alleged to be supplied with 13.52% and 11.38% seriatim percentages. The instructors agreed on slightly providing explicit feedback (3.52%) and clarification request (1.18%).

Ten hypothetical samples of CF types in the questionnaire included four examples of grammar, four pronunciation, and two vocabulary errors. Considering the relationship between the type of errors and type of feedback, it turned out that the instructors predominantly preferred recasts for all three error types averaging 57.8% for grammatical, 50% for vocabulary, and 43.2% for pronunciation errors. Following recasts, elicitation (17.1%) and repetition (13.2%) were mostly claimed to be provided on grammatical errors by the instructors. On pronunciation errors, the most common

Table 6: Instructors' preferences for CF types through the hypothetical samples

Hypothetical samples of CF types	Recast %	Elicitation %	Repetition %	Metalinguistic Feedback %	Explicit feedback %	Clarification Request %
Q1. T: What did you do at home last night? S: I goed home late so I couldn't do much.	66.7	13.7	13.7	2.0	3.9	-
Q2. S: I study in Gazi University?	56.9	15.7	15.7	9.8	2.0	-
Q3. T: Where did you stay in London? S: I stayed in a [hotəl].	52.9	17.6	17.6	3.9	5.9	2.0
Q4. T: When do you wake up in the morning? S: I wake up in 8 a.m.	60.8	13.7	11.8	13.7	-	-
Q5. T: Did you call your friend last night? S: No, I got the [wroŋ] number.	43.1	5.9	31.4	11.8	3.9	3.9
Q6. T: What makes you happy in life? S: I love thinking about my future and making plans.	31.4	13.7	37.3	9.8	3.9	3.9
Q7. S: In the apartment I live, there are four stories.	47.1	5.9	17.6	25.5	3.9	-
Q8. S: I didn't remember him to come to the party. I should have called him in advance.	52.9	9.8	11.8	19.6	3.9	2.0
Q9. T: What did you do at the weekend? S: I was really [buzi].	45.1	13.7	31.4	5.9	3.9	-
Q10. S: I sent the letter two months before. Did you receive them?	47.1	25.5	11.8	11.8	3.9	-
Average (%)	50.4	13.52	20.01	11.38	3.52	1.18

CF types after recasts appeared to be repetition (29.4%) and elicitation (12.7%), unlike errors in vocabulary, for which the participants stated to prefer metalinguistic feedback (22.5%) and repetition (14.7%) just after recasts.

4.3.2. Beliefs about OCF Frequency

The participants were asked to choose their preferred OCF frequency from a percentile scale given in the questionnaire's second item as part of the second research question. The result revealed that most instructors believe they supply students with feedback during conversational activities. In percentages, the average claimed correction for the oral errors was 58.23 (n=51). The option of 60% and 70% for OCF provision gave participants' most preferred percentages at the same rate (each 19.6%). Additionally, in the fourth item in the questionnaire, in which their beliefs were asked for the ratios on feedback providers, the instructors indicated that teachers should provide feedback with a mean of 52.15% and learners should correct themselves with a mean of 25%., while they believe in peer corrections with a lower proportion (19.82%).

4.3.3. Beliefs about OCF on Various Errors

Teachers' beliefs about their OCF provision on various error types were measured for exploring another subsection of the second research question. The participants were asked to rate their preferences for each error type on a percentile scale in the third item of the questionnaire, offering them a large alternative of percentages (0%-10%-20%-…100%). For example, if they provided feedback on all of their students' grammar mistakes, they would opt for 100%. Regarding the error types linguistically categorized in the questionnaire, the instructors professed to provide oral feedback for grammatical, phonological, and lexical errors at almost equal rates. Table 7 demonstrates their stated percentages. Participants' responses were grouped to 20% (instead of 10% as given in the questionnaire) for easier data interpretation. Yet the average in the table refers to the ungrouped numerical values, like in the questionnaire. The mean of stated correction types was calculated according to the claimed frequencies with the number of constituent participants of each percentage. The table shows that, on average, teachers claimed to provide feedback on 62.54% of grammar errors, 66.07% of pronunciation, and 68.43% of vocabulary errors.

Table 7: Perceived OCF frequency on various error types

	Grammatical Errors		Pronunciation Errors		Vocabulary Errors	
Grouped data	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
0%- 20%	8	15.7	3	5.9	3	5.9
30%- 50%	11	21.6	10	19.6	11	21.5
60%- 80%	21	41.1	26	51	21	41.2
90%- 100%	11	21.5	12	23.5	16	31.4
(%) Avg. (Ungrouped data)	62.54%		66.07%		68.43%	

4.3.4. Beliefs about OCF Timing

The questionnaire's fifth item aimed to answer the teachers' beliefs about immediate and delayed OCF. When asked for self-giving percentages for timings of CF that the teachers prefer to give during oral activities, the participants decided to pick immediate correction with 55.29% and delayed correction with 45.09% on average.

Furthermore, the ninth item of the questionnaire aimed to find teachers' beliefs and comments about CF timing for specific error types during communicative activities. The participants were asked what type(s) of errors should be corrected immediately and later. They were also supposed to write the reasons for their answers. The findings showed that 29 participants, the vast majority (56.9%, n=51), favored immediate feedback for the pronunciation errors, which gave the highest frequency among the other error types. The most common reason was that unless teachers correct mispronunciations, it will be hard to fix them later, so their errors might become stable, to six participants. Following it, two participants mentioned that providing immediate feedback against pronunciation errors may bring out permanent learning since students' attention is often on pronunciation. Two others stated that they might feel more relaxed when provided with CF towards the pronunciations of the target vocabulary. One instructor judiciously touched on the possibility of misunderstandings over pronunciation errors. Only one participant supported that a teacher could correct pronunciation errors after some time by modeling the correct usage later.

Ranked second was major errors that were chosen to be immediately corrected by 14 teachers with 27.5%, which the participants described as the errors that spoil fluency

or lead to misunderstandings. They gave some reasons for justifying their responses, such as the possibility of hindering the communication.

As another fairly significant finding for the preference for delayed feedback, 22 participants (43.1%) saliently opted for grammatical errors, stating various reasons. For example, two instructors indicated that students could correct their grammar mistakes, so it is possible to allow them to reflect on them. One emphasized the priority of teachers, which is to enhance their speaking rather than focusing on usage errors. Two others evinced that grammar errors can be noted down to be explained and corrected later, after the activity, or sometime later because they sometimes may require detailed explanations. A teacher also keynoted students will always have a chance to see the proper forms later, so delayed correction is the best for grammar errors. Additionally, one of the participants explained the reason for his preference for the delayed correction of grammatical errors. S/he elucidated that the student's stress level will decrease after the speech, and the desire to understand and correct the mistakes will increase. The participant seemed to focus on the psychological factors that students may be affected by through the timing of CF moves.

Additionally, for the delayed correction, there was another significant finding regarding minor errors that do not hinder communication or cause any misunderstanding. It was picked by 11 instructors (21.6%), who highlighted the significance of ignoring and tolerating errors as long as the message is intelligible.

As the question required detailed answers, there were also various comments by the participants on OCF and suggestions for pedagogical implications. For instance, three participants underlined the importance of the task type according to which they needed to decide on the feedback timing. They remarked that errors during fluency-oriented activities should be dealt with later, whereas the ones during accuracy-oriented activities should be treated as immediate correction, which may be a crucial point in deciding the feedback time. One participant warned against the immediate feedback:

> "If you begin boarding errors before the task is completed, you will likely attract too much-unwanted attention and cause distraction from the activity; instead, let them focus on the task and do it afterward."

Also, some others mentioned the significance of student levels, which plays a vital role in teachers' decisions on their OCF timing strategies. Apparently, teachers indicated

specific reasons for their beliefs on the issue, each of which may be cast as significant for distinctive OCF practices in classes.

As for the observed participants, some gave reasons for their beliefs, but some only mentioned the specific error types they preferred to correct, immediately or delayed, or they commented a little. For example, Amy put forward that if an error shifts the meaning and hinders communication, immediate intervention is crucial; if the flow of communication is smooth, teachers can handle it later. Rona also underscored that providing immediate feedback on vocabulary and pronunciation errors may be more helpful than grammatical ones as these two may lead to communication breakdowns more than grammar. Miri explained her reasons for the requirement of immediate OCF on vocabulary and grammar errors in that students could understand the grounds and the ratio behind it when feedback is given immediately. Nonetheless, she also drew attention to most students' tendency to ignore pronunciation errors if corrected immediately, so she believes that delayed feedback would be better for this kind of error. More importantly, Miri signified her concerns about delayed feedback:

> "Some students may not even be aware of their mistakes, so they may ignore them, thinking that theirs are correct, and the teacher is referring to the others (if the feedback is to the whole class and not pointed to one specific student one-on-one). Here again, it is the teacher's duty first to raise awareness about what the students do … then correct it so that all the students can get aware of their own mistakes and who the teacher is referring to (this is for delayed feedback to the whole class)".

On the other hand, Ted remarked that the choice of timing sometimes varies according to the aim of the class. He expressed that delaying the feedback can be better to avoid crippling the fluency, whereas the feedback should be given immediately if the activity aims for accuracy.

4.4. Six Instructors' Beliefs about OCF

In addition to 51 participants' beliefs, six instructors' beliefs were addedly collected through the task to discover the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. In this part, teachers' beliefs are presented by averaging six instructors' individual answers.

4.4.1. Perception of CF Effectiveness and Students' CF Expectations

The participants were found to believe in CF effectiveness with 76.66% (n=6), which was a very close percentage to the main participants (n=51, 72.74%). Their stated CF effectiveness varied from 70% to 90% as they scored on the given scale. Table 8 illustrates the responses of six instructors to the first item in the questionnaire related to CF effectiveness. The percentages were close to those of the main participants, aimed to reach beliefs.

Table 8: Six instructors' beliefs about CF effectiveness

	Miri	**Mila**	**Tera**	**Ted**	**Rona**	**Amy**	**Average**
CF effectiveness	90%	80%	80%	70%	70%	70%	76.66%

For the seventh item in the questionnaire, four participants (66.7%) claimed to believe that CF is effective for some students or that some errors should be corrected, not all.

Two participants (33.3%) stated that CF is effective; in other words, giving feedback to students on language mistakes is crucial. For this item in the questionnaire, there were no instructors who responded that CF is not effective.

When considering the instructors' beliefs about students' CF expectations measured through the eighth item in the questionnaire, the study revealed that four participants (66.7%) hold the idea that students sometimes expect CF upon making errors in the learning process, while two participants (33.3%) believe that they expect it. The reasons for these beliefs also varied, but there were two standard views. Two participants stated that if students are more eager to learn or have high proficiency levels, they expect it, while other students do not. Two other participants agreed that students expect CF, but if teachers correct every mistake, they can lose self-confidence. There were again no participants who claimed that students do not expect CF.

4.4.2. Beliefs about CF Types

Six participants' beliefs about CF types were commonly similar to those of 51 participants. The most preferred CF type was recast with 60% (n=6), as with the big group. Elicitation and repetition shared the second place with 13.33% each, then appeared metalinguistic feedback with 8.33%. Clarification requests and explicit

feedback were slightly preferred by the instructors, 3.33% and 1.66% in turn. Table 9 refers to the specific CF types that the instructors believe in providing in class.

Table 9: Six instructors' beliefs about the provision of CF types

	Recast	**Elicitation**	**Metalinguistic feedback**	**Repetition**	**Clarification request**	**Explicit f.**
Miri	10%	40%	20%	30%	--	--
Mila	90%	10%	--	--	--	--
Tera	50%	20%	20%	--	10%	--
Ted	70%	--	10%	10%	--	10%
Rona	80%	10%	--	..	10%	--
Amy	60%	--	--	40%	--	--

As for the CF types that the instructors claimed to provide for various errors, the study revealed that Miri claimed to provide elicitation at 75% for grammar errors, while she preferred repetition at 25%. For pronunciation errors, she stated to use repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and recast at equal rates (each at 25%). Miri asserted to apply metalinguistic feedback and repetition (each at 50%) for vocabulary-related errors. Conversely, Mila was the only instructor who ultimately claimed to provide recasts (100%) for all three error types. Tera preferred elicitation and recast at 75% and 25%, respectively, towards grammatical errors, whereas she alleged to provide recast (50%), elicitation, and clarification request (each 25%) for pronunciation errors. Tera claimed that she prefers metalinguistic feedback (100%) when a student makes a mistake in vocabulary. As slightly different than others, Ted stated that he corrects his students' grammatical errors through recasts at 75% and explicit feedback at 25%. He also mentioned preferring recasts at 75% and repetition at 25% for pronunciation errors, while he preferred metalinguistic feedback and recast (each at 50%) for vocabulary errors. When it comes to Rona, she believes that she corrects her students' grammatical errors only by recasts (100%). Rona also stated to use recasts at the rate of 75% and clarification requests at 25% for pronunciation errors, while she alleged to provide recast and elicitation (each at 50%) for the errors made in vocabulary. The last participant, Amy, submitted that she provides recasts for all grammatical errors; on the contrary, she stated to correct pronunciation errors through

repetition. For vocabulary errors, she preferred only recasts (100%). It is apparent that the instructors have distinctive beliefs on the provision of CF types for various mistakes, yet their practices will give the exact information on whether they really put their ideas into practice in their teaching.

4.4.3. Beliefs about OCF Frequency

Almost all instructors believe that they provide OCF for 60% and above in their classes. The mean of their responses was found to be 65%. Their answers on the scale were distributed like 60% (two teachers), 70% (one teacher), 80% (one teacher), and 90% (one teacher). Only one instructor (Ted) expressed his belief that he provides OCF at 30%, which caused a decrease in the total average. Excluding his response, the average of the five instructors' responses would be 72%. Yet still, the current finding is fair enough to comment on the participants' slanting toward giving feedback on student errors during communications in the classroom. Table 10 displays the frequency of OCF that six instructors claimed to provide in their teaching when an error occurs.

Table 10: Beliefs of six instructors about OCF frequency

	Miri	**Mila**	**Tera**	**Ted**	**Rona**	**Amy**	**Average**
OCF frequency	80%	60%	70%	30%	90%	60%	65%

In addition, for the fourth item in the questionnaire, aiming to discover the instructors' beliefs on who should provide OCF in the classroom, it was found that they believe it should be teachers who should give feedback with 48.33%, learners themselves with 35% and their peers with 16.66%. The percentages were again close to the other groups' responses to this question.

4.4.4. Beliefs about OCF on Various Errors

The study ascertained that the participants alleged to provide OCF on 80% of pronunciation, 71.66% of vocabulary, and 68.33% of grammar errors. The result for the pronunciation errors was not so close to 51 participants' beliefs as they stated lower correction in this error type (66.07%). Table 11 shows the participants' beliefs about how often they correct various error types one by one.

Table 11: Six instructors' stated provision of OCF on various errors

	OCF for grammatical errors	OCF for pronunciation errors	OCF for vocabulary errors
Miri	60%	90%	80%
Mila	70%	80%	70%
Tera	60%	80%	60%
Ted	80%	50%	70%
Rona	90%	90%	80%
Amy	50%	90%	70%
Average	68.33%	80%	71.66%

4.4.5. Beliefs about OCF Timing

Six instructors believed that they give immediate feedback to their student errors at 58.33% and delayed feedback at 41.66% on average. According to their beliefs, there is no big difference in the rates of immediate and delayed corrections. Table 12 presents the six teachers' responses about providing immediate and delayed feedback accompanied by various error types.

Table 12: Beliefs of six instructors about OCF timing

	Immediate feedback	Delayed feedback	Immediate f. for pronunciation	Immediate f. for vocabulary	Delayed f. for grammar	Delayed f. for minor errors
Miri	90%	10%	--	Yes	--	--
Mila	60%	40%	Yes	Yes	Yes	--
Tera	50%	50%	Yes	Yes	Yes	--
Ted	50%	50%	--	--	--	Yes
Rona	30%	70%	Yes	Yes	Yes	--
Amy	70%	30%	--	--	--	Yes
Average	58.33%	41.66%	50%	66.7%	50%	33.3%

Additionally, the ninth item in the questionnaire revealed that for the immediate feedback, four teachers (66.7%) mainly tended to correct vocabulary errors

immediately to their beliefs. Three teachers (50%) also alleged to give feedback immediately for pronunciation errors and one teacher (33.3%) for major errors. As for the delayed feedback, three instructors (50%) claimed that they provide it for the grammatical errors and two instructors (33.3%) for the minor errors.

4.5. Six Instructors' Actual Practices of OCF

Regarding the third research question, the instructors' virtual practices of the CF types, OCF frequency, OCF towards various error types, and OCF timing were examined through six instructors' video-recorded classes.

4.5.1. Actual Practices of CF Types

By elucidating the first subsection of the third research question, the observations illustrated that recast was the predominant CF type, with 71.4% (n=6) employed against student errors in all 18 periods, as was the case regarding the beliefs of the participants. A different kind of feedback named "mixed oral corrective feedback", supplying a combination of two CF types towards a unique error, cropped out as the second most common CF type provided during classroom practices. Sarandi (2020:406) exemplifies this type of feedback in his related study as follows:

Repetition followed by recasts
Learner: She is busy… She look after children.
Researcher: She look after children???
Learner: Yes… She look after children.
Researcher: Looks after…She looks after children.

As seen, the researcher first provided repetition for the usage error, yet the learner did not repair it. Therefore, another feedback type, recast, was supplied to the learner for a clearer understanding of the correction process. It turned out that mixed CF was the second-best feedback type following recasts for the observation participants with a rate of 13.4%. It is important to note that mixed CF was not included in the survey, which made it impossible to compare beliefs on these feedback types. Prompts in elicitation and metalinguistic feedback were also provided by teachers (both 13.3%); however, their unaccompanied frequencies were 7.5% and 5.8% in order. Explicit feedback was not as favored as all that among instructors as it was only provided two times. Repetition and clarification requests were not employed per se, although instructors supplied them a couple of times within mixed types of CF. Table 13 shows the number

of student errors and the number of OCF moves with specific CF types that each instructor employed in their teaching practices. As seen, teachers did not separately use repetition and clarification requests at all, although they used them several times together with other types, which were calculated as the mixed CF.

Table 13: The number of CF types that the instructors practiced individually

	Number of errors	Total OCF moves	Recasts	Elicitations	Metalinguistic feedback	Repetition	Clarification request	Explicit feedback	Mixed feedback
Miri	33	21	13	3	2	-	-	-	3
Mila	34	20	16	-	1	-	-	-	3
Tera	32	16	10	-	1	-	-	1	4
Rona	23	11	9	1	-	-	-	-	1
Ted	28	18	12	3	-	-	-	-	3
Amy	42	33	25	2	3	-	-	1	2
Total	192	119	85	9	7	-	-	2	16

An important finding is that the provision of CF types varied depending on grammatical, pronunciation, and vocabulary error types. The number of pronunciation errors was 63, and instead of applying the other five CF types, the participants (n=6) treated 100% of the pronunciation errors through recasts. Yet they preferred to wield various CF strategies in the forms of recasts (61.2%), mixed CF (19.3%), elicitation (9.6%), metalinguistic feedback (6.4%), and explicit feedback (3.2%) for a total of 41 vocabulary mistakes. Among six participants, recasts were again the major preferred type for the errors made in vocabulary, followed by mixed CF despite their provision of various CF types. Other CF types, excluding clarification requests and repetition, appeared to be used at the least in vocabulary, unlike pronunciation. As for the grammatical errors, it was found that recasts were used relatively less than they were used for phonological and lexical errors, but it was once more the primary type with 52.1%. The mixed CF type ranked second right after recasts with 21.7%. Elicitation

(13%) happened to have a higher mean of provision for the errors made in grammar. The instructors also provided other CF types: metalinguistic feedback (10.8%) and explicit feedback (2.1%). Recasts, by all means, bore away the bell for CF provision toward every kind of error during classes.

4.5.2. Frequency of Actual OCF Practices

Another interest of the third research question was the frequency of the instructors' actual OCF practices in their teaching. In six classroom observations, the number of total student errors was 192. The participants corrected 119 errors and ignored 73, corresponding to 38% of the fundamental errors. So, the frequency of instructors' actual classroom practices of OCF was 61.9% (n=6). Table 14, given under the next part, displays each observed instructor's overall average CF frequency and the frequency of their reaction to various error types. Among six participants, Rona happened to be the instructor who corrected errors the least (47.8%), while Amy was the one who preferred to give CF the most (78.5%). This difference may have stemmed from the number of oral activities done in classes as the former participant was observed not to focus entirely on speaking activities, whereas the latter did many. In the wake of data analysis of 18 sessions, many teachers literally followed the textbook and did almost all activities related to the forms, which may be a sign of their broad focus on linguistic forms. However, four instructors, all of whom were teaching students with A2 level, allocated enough time for conversational activities, although students were not willing to speak much. Only certain students continuously talked and answered teachers' questions, while most preferred to keep silent. Four teachers did their best to encourage them to speak and supported them with various ideas on topics hoping that something may pop up in students' heads and inspire them.

As for the observed uptakes by the learners, the total uptakes towards 119 feedback moves in all classes was 26 (21.84%). In this study, there were seemingly fewer uptakes by students compared to the studies conducted in classrooms of face-to-face education, which may have been led by the lack of a virtual classroom environment. Peer correction in these classes was also limited, only 11 for the fundamental errors. These moves by peers towards errors were often encouraged by teachers.

4.5.3. Actual OCF Practices on Various Errors

The average of the OCF moves that the participants provided for different errors were also calculated. The frequency of instructors' CF practices (n=6) towards given error types was found to be 75.6% for vocabulary errors, 66.6% for pronunciation errors, and 52.2% for grammatical errors. The findings evidenced that teachers widely preferred giving students feedback on their lexical errors during communicative activities. Moreover, although the number of grammatical errors in the course of classes appeared to be the highest, the error type for which they provided feedback to the lowest degree turned out to be grammatical errors. Table 14 illustrates how often each participant provided OCF for grammatical, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors.

Table 14: The frequency of instructors' CF practices with various error types

	OCF frequency per total errors	Corrected grammar errors	Corrected pronunciation errors	Corrected vocabulary errors
Miri	63.6%	62.5%	55%	75%
Mila	58.8%	54.1%	100%	57.1%
Tera	50%	26.3%	100%	20%
Rona	47.8%	42.8%	46.1%	66.6%
Ted	64.2%	75%	41.6%	87.5%
Amy	78.5%	64.2%	86.9%	80%
Average	61.97%	52.27%	66.66%	75.60%

4.5.4. Actual Practices of OCF Timing

Considering the timing practices, for the last subsection of the third research question, the participants (n=6) responded to student errors immediately (95.7%) by a landslide. They hardly ever handled the errors after the activities were over (4.2%), called a delayed correction. The responses to the ninth item in the questionnaire showed that pronunciation, grammatical, and major/minor errors were significant regarding teachers' beliefs about CF timings. The data of the practices revealed that the teachers (n=6) predominantly responded immediately to the pronunciation errors (95.2%). Moreover, they employed delayed feedback only for 4.3% of the overall grammatical errors. For vocabulary errors, the results were similar. From the 31 CF moves towards

lexical errors, teachers only once gave feedback later; they provided feedback immediately for the rest 30 errors instead (96.7%). During the observations, major or minor errors were not separately evaluated; errors were mainly categorized in terms of their linguistic functions instead.

4.6. Individual CF Practices of the Six Participants

In this part, the participants' personal beliefs and one-off classroom observations, carried out to discover their oral CF acts, are presented, including some remarks on their teaching. Miri, Mila, Tera, Rona, Ted, and Amy pseudonyms were used during the study to refer to each instructor. Table 6 displays the frequency of all OCF practices and feedback moves towards various error types.

4.6.1. Miri

With 17 years of teaching experience, Miri had a Ph. D. from the ELT department. She also indicated having a TESOL advanced practitioner certificate and being one of the unit coordinators in curriculum development. She was teaching a class with A2 plus level (pre-intermediate) and was using Speak Out (Intermediate) as a course book with two additional resources during teaching. As the medium of distance education, Miri wielded the interactive tools of the course book and PPT files along with real-life materials like videos for extra activities on skills. The teacher usually benefitted from Turkish, especially for explaining grammatical structures or activities. She also translated the book's general statements, such as reading texts and words presented in vocabulary activities.

As for the total numbers of OCF during both fluency-oriented and form-focused activities, it was found that students made 33 errors and Miri provided them with 21 feedback moves with a percentage of 63.6%, as 20 immediate (95.2%) and one delayed (4.7%) feedback. She ignored 36.4% of the fundamental errors, specifically during the fluency-based ones, so she clearly did not skip any errors made in accuracy-based tasks irrespective of the students' error types. Miri opted for recasts the most, equating to 61.9% of the errors. Other CF types with a vast difference from the recast frequencies were elicitations (14.2%), mixed feedback moves (14.2%) composed of recasts coupled with metalinguistic feedback, and metalinguistic feedback (9.5%). Considering the number of uptakes in response to the feedback moves by Miri, students signaled six uptakes towards the whole 21 OCF moves. The reason for these

phenomenal uptakes may have been the distance education, as their teacher could not see them during in-class conversations, and they may not have felt compelled to respond to the feedback moves they got.

Referring to CF types which the instructor preferred against various kinds of errors that students made, it can be figured that students made merely nine pronunciation errors, of which Miri corrected 5 of them (55%), whereas she overlooked the other 4 (45%). Additionally, she provided purely immediate recasts (100%), in other words, reformulations, for phonological errors. It turned out that there was no peer correction during the pronunciation errors, which seemed quite natural as students may not correctly know pronunciations. This could be the reason why the instructor did not encourage them to do peer correction for this kind of error. Regarding vocabulary, students had eight errors in total, for 75% of which Miri employed feedback moves, while for the rest, 25%, she did not. All the moves she provided to her students were immediate feedback (100%) that comprised 66.6% recasts, 16.6% elicitation, and 16.6% mixed CF as recasts combined with metalinguistic feedback acts. No peer correction was observed upon the vocabulary errors either. With reference to the grammatical errors that constituted the majority of student errors, the instructor provided feedback moves at the rate of 62.5% against 16 errors, so the rest was left unheeded (37.5%). Miri utilized delayed feedback only once against a grammatical mistake through elicitation, so she essentially provided the feedback immediately after students had produced it, 90% as a whole. The CF types she used were recasts (40%), elicitations (20%), metalinguistic feedback (20%), and mixed CF (20%) involving the combinations of elicitation with metalinguistic feedback and recast with metalinguistic feedback.

Particularly in fluency-oriented activities, Miri mostly ignored the grammatical errors correcting them precisely in half for the pronunciation errors. Therefore, her OCF moves were seen to be relatively more minor during the fluency-based activities than accuracy-based ones. Miri mostly preferred to use recasts and sometimes elicitations in the activities with which she aimed to make students engage in any dialogues. As is clear, the instructor tried to avoid overcorrection specifically during communicative activities by either ignoring minor errors or using recasts for student errors, cast as a significant finding in her class.

4.6.2. Mila

With a graduate degree from the ELT department and 18 years of teaching experience, Mila was teaching an A2 level prep. class at a school of foreign languages. She utilized the interactive version of Speak Out and the online materials of the book for the extra activities as materials during her online teaching. Mila cared for speaking activities a lot and tried to involve students in the activities to make them speak by randomly selecting their names from the classroom list, yet students did not seem to be eager that much. She continuously talked on her own whenever there was no reply which seemed beneficial for learners to enhance their listening skills out of nothing. The instructor sometimes benefitted from the native language to explain the grammatical structures or activities and clarify the meaning when there was no response to her questions from the class.

Speaking of Mila's OCF practices, the instructor responded to 20 of the total 34 errors equaling 58.8% and ignored 14 (41.2%). She invariably preferred to provide feedback immediately (100%) for all student errors involving various error types. Among all her feedback moves, recasts were the most frequently used CF type for student errors during oral activities. She combined recast with metalinguistic feedback twice and clarification requests with metalinguistic feedback once regarding the mixed type of CF (15%). She also provided just one metalinguistic feedback towards a grammar error. She did not encourage peer correction, so there was no CF from students' peers amid three sessions. Students signaled uptake for merely five of the CF acts in her class.

Pronunciation errors were only three in number possible because the same students, who had almost pure pronunciation, often participated in the class while others mostly did not prefer to speak. The teacher was found to give feedback on all three errors through immediate recasts (100%). She was also observed to correct four of seven (57.1%) vocabulary errors by employing immediate recasts entirely (100%). Regarding grammatical errors, forming a considerable part of the fundamental errors (24), she preferred to supply feedback for 54.1% by use of recasts (80%), metalinguistic feedback (7.6%), and mixed CF (23%). Given this data, several significant findings showed up in Mila's classroom. First, it could be noticed that Mila employed various types of feedback to correct grammatical errors, while she solely provided recasts for both phonological and lexical errors. Additionally, she seemed to

ignore minor errors during purely fluency-oriented activities commonly. She was also seen to overlook an error for which Mila freshly provided CF through reformulation towards another student's utterance. Moreover, upon a student's vocabulary error, she offered a recast, but the student showed no signal of uptake and repeated the same mistake at once. Mila did not change her CF type despite no uptake by the student and supplied him with another recast. That was interesting because the type of CF provided for an error needs to be replaced with a different kind if the student proves their vanity by making the same mistake.

4.6.3. Tera

Tera, who had a Ph. D. from the ELL department and 19 years of teaching experience, also expressed having a TESOL Advanced Practitioner Certificate like Miri. She was teaching a class with A2 level using Speak Out's interactive tools for distance education like her colleagues. Tera also benefitted from the stick notes to write the new words with their English definitions so that these little notes could attract students' attention and lead to learning. Tera gave weight to speaking activities and challenged students to speak as much as she could. She talked so much on conversational topics to encourage students to participate in the speaking activities, similar to Mila. Unlike Miri and Mila, who had more difficulty in involving learners in conversations, Tera's students seemed more willing to participate in fluency-based activities.

As for her oral feedback moves, Tera responded to 16 errors in 32 (50%), correcting half of them and ignoring the other half. There were 14 immediate feedbacks corresponding to 87.5% and only two delayed ones (12.5%) in her OCF acts. She overwhelmingly provided recasts with an average of 62.5%. Following recast, Tera appeared to employ mixed CF (25%) in the form of three types; recast, repetition, and elicitation, each combined with metalinguistic feedback. Furthermore, she provided metalinguistic feedback and explicit feedback per se for once.

Students had three pronunciation errors, for all of which (100%) Tera responded through immediate recasts like her colleagues, and ten vocabulary errors, for eight of which (80%) she provided OCF. For half of the lexical errors (50%), she seemed to employ recasts, and for 25% of them, she offered recast combined with metalinguistic feedback and repetition with again metalinguistic feedback, which was referred to as mixed CF in findings. Other CF types she used were metalinguistic feedback and

explicit feedback (12.5% each). The percentages of immediate and delayed feedback for vocabulary errors happened to be 87.5% and 12.5% in turn. The major error type in her class was again grammatical errors which were 19 in number. Tera was found to ignore most of these errors with a percentage of 73.6%, which was one of the significant findings in her classroom observation. She only supplied five CF moves (26.3%) by use of recasts (60%) and mixed type (40%) in the shape of two different combinations: Repetition with metalinguistic feedback and elicitation with the same type. It may indicate Tera's rating of grammatical errors below other errors. She essentially provided immediate feedback (80%) towards them while preferred delayed feedback only once.

Tera provided OCF towards all of the student errors that occurred during accuracy-based activities, and two of 16 grammatical errors occurred during fluency-based activities while she ignored the rest. Students signaled uptake only three times for Tera's overall feedback moves. A significant finding from her class was that all errors in form-focused activities were provided by peer correction, for which Tera mostly encouraged students. She broadly gave a handle to students for self-correction in pursuit of errors when she provided prompts, including mixed types of CF.

4.6.4. Rona

Rona stated to have eight years of teaching experience and an undergraduate degree from the ELT department. She was teaching a prep. class with intermediate level (B1) wielding the PDF format of Speak Out, unlike her colleagues who used its interactive version. During the course, some specific students often used the native language during the activities, including even communicative ones, and Rona often did the same to reply to them or translate some statements from the book. The reason for this may have been the class level, as the only difference in the previous three classes, in which teachers did not employ the students' native language as often as Rona, was the level. At the beginning of the class, Rona made her pre-chosen students give presentations on their favorite topics. Students shared their PPT files and talked about the topics with their own-given utterances. One student's presentation included mostly correct statements with only minor errors, whereas the other contained many usage and pronunciation errors, to which the instructor provided no corrective feedback at all, neither immediate nor delayed. She directly moved in the book after she thanked the students for their presentations. Unlike other instructors, Rona did not open her

webcam, so students could not see her while she was teaching, which may have been somewhat challenging for them since they could see no mimics or facial expressions of her to check the correctness of their answers or utterances. Students did not frequently participate in fluency-oriented activities; if they did, a few particular students repeatedly asked to speak. For accuracy-based activities, the number of participants was superior as she randomly chose students from the list. As they were following the course book, the observed online classroom did not involve many oral activities. Accordingly, fluency-oriented activities took place relatively less than the activities that targeted other skills in the class, and the number of CF moves that the teacher provided was limited.

Regarding the OCF moves, over 23 errors, her provision of CF was 11 in number equaling 47.8%; thus, her ignoring rate of errors was relatively higher (52.1%), which may lead to the fossilization of student errors in the long term. All her feedback moves were immediate; she employed no delayed feedback at all. Rona provided nine recasts (81.8%), one elicitation (9%), and one mixed CF as a combination of recast with metalinguistic feedback (9%) in total.

As to pronunciation errors framing the large majority of the whole, Rona was found to respond to six out of 13 (46.1%), for all of which she preferred immediate recasts (100%) and ignored seven (53.8%). Vocabulary errors were three in number, for two of which she provided OCF employing one immediate elicitation and one immediate mixed CF. Students had seven grammar errors, most of which Rona ignored (57.1%). She appeared to supply three CF acts, all of which were immediate recasts. No student uptake was observed in her class which was surprising because Rona's class was the only class with no uptake. There was also almost no peer correction as it took place only once during all class. The significant finding in Rona's class was that she ignored more errors than she corrected.

4.6.5. Ted

As the unique male participant in classroom observations, Ted mentioned having 15 years of teaching experience, an undergraduate degree from the ELL program, and pedagogical formation. He was teaching students at an intermediate level of prep. class (B1 level). He used Speak Out's interactive tools and self-prepared PPT files for extra activities. To make students participate in the activities, he preferred to choose from

the class list, especially when there were no raised hands or when the same students continuously asked to speak. During the class, Ted usually benefitted from the native language when he needed to explain any grammatical structures or instructions for the activities. He often responded to students' questions in the same way when they asked in Turkish, like Rona, and he translated the texts or the best part of the new words into Turkish instead of giving their English definitions. The reason for Ted's limited corrections was the same as Rona's; namely, the observed classroom did not involve so many fluency-based activities according to the lesson plan tempered to the book, which was considered a hit-or-miss characteristic of classroom observations. However, even if the number of errors was not high, Ted's oral corrective feedback moves were deemed fair.

The instructor was found to react to 18 out of 28 student errors corresponding to 64.2% in the nature of recasts (66.6%), elicitations (16.6%), and mixed CF (16.6.%). His CF frequency proved that he did not favor ignoring errors, specifically during accuracy-based activities. He provided immediate feedback (94.4%) towards all the errors except for merely one that he corrected later.

As for his CF tendency towards various error types, the findings revealed that he mostly preferred not to correct pronunciation errors because he seemed to ignore seven out of 12 errors (58.3%) and provide CF to five (41.6%) using recasts (100%) as all immediate excluding one. He appeared to give immediate feedback on almost all vocabulary errors (87.5%), which were eight. Ted widely employed recasts (57.1%) and subsequently mixed CF (28.4%) in the forms of elicitation accompanied by recast and elicitation with metalinguistic feedback. Students also made eight grammatical errors, and for the better part, he gave students oral feedback with a percentage of 75%. He benefitted from recasts for half of them (50%), and for the other half, he provided elicitations (33.3%) and mixed CF (16.6%), which was a combination of metalinguistic feedback and recast. All OCF moves towards grammatical errors were immediate, like vocabulary-related ones. The total number of uptakes was found to be four, and peer corrections which were three in number were towards vocabulary errors.

The most significant finding in Ted's class was his comparatively fewer OCF moves for pronunciation errors. A priori reason for this may have been his own phonological errors that showed up amid the course. He may not have fully recognized these errors, which may have led to fewer corrections. Pronunciation errors were found not to be

primarily corrected, although the activities during which they occurred were not fluency oriented. Another significant finding was that Ted predominantly corrected lexical errors, which evidenced the importance that he attached to vocabulary. In addition, he seemed to ignore all errors made during fluency-oriented activities, which did not outnumber the accuracy-based ones.

4.6.6. Amy

With seven-year teaching, Amy was the instructor with the least experience. She had a graduate degree from the ELT program but highlighted doing another master's degree in Translation Studies. Amy was teaching an A2 level class (pre-intermediate) using the interactive format of the book "Speak out", benefitting from a Word document she had prepared. She also used this document as a whiteboard that she took notes on during the course. She also previously noted several details on the items that students might have difficulty understanding or some examples to reinforce what they learned, which seemed an efficient way of teaching. She made students read the text by randomly choosing them from the classroom list to check their attendance during the online class. She did not speak much Turkish; instead, she preferred to talk in English as much as possible, trying to make the students speak as well. She explained the grammar structures in English, not Turkish, on her preconditioned word document. She wanted to make them understand better by using different synonyms for some words instead of directly telling their meaning in Turkish. When students asked questions in Turkish, she mostly answered in English, unlike many participants. Of all the pre-observed instructors' classes, Amy's was the one in which the number of participants in the activities was the highest. This may have been due to the course flow in the target language with her intelligible pronunciation and lecturing by employing many alternative synonyms of unknown words. Furthermore, her self-conditioned documents, including many examples and highlights on topics, may have been another reason for students' motivation to be active participants.

Regarding the oral CF moves, students made 42 errors overall, and her provision of OCF was 78.5%. She mainly employed recasts (75.7%) and then metalinguistic feedback (9%), elicitations (6%), and mixed CF (6%) in the combined shape of clarification requests with metalinguistic feedback. Also, she was the only instructor counting in clarification requests (within mixed type) twice and explicit feedback once.

Her corrections happened to be principally given immediately (96.9%) as was in her colleagues' classes.

Out of 23 pronunciation errors, she was found to give feedback to 20 (86.9%), all of which were immediate recasts, and to ignore three errors. Amy immediately (100%) responded to four vocabulary errors, which was five in total, through commonly recasts (75%) and slightly metalinguistic feedback (25%). Vocabulary errors were relatively fewer in number during Amy's class compared to grammatical and pronunciation errors. Out of 14 grammar errors, Amy immediately responded to nine (64.2%). She almost uniformly benefitted from all types by providing recasts, elicitations, metalinguistic feedback, and mixed CFs, for which she combined clarification requests with metalinguistic feedback with a percentage of 22.2% each. She also used explicit feedback for once.

She dwelled on the correct pronunciations of challenging words by repeating them over and over, sometimes even in slow-motion, for a more robust comprehension. One significant finding in Amy's class was that she responded twice through the same CF type (recast) for a student's repeated error. This case, which seemed ill-suited to the purpose of CF in general, had also emerged in Mila's class in the same vein. Another notable finding showed that she was the instructor who employed a wide array of CF types in her feedback moves by far the most. Furthermore, the frequency of her oral feedback moves and the number of uptakes (eight) in her class was the highest among all other classes. Amy's class was considered one of the most effective ones, thanks to the diversity of CF types, the OCF frequency, the number of students' uptake, the well-prepared nature of her teaching, and her wielding of the target language in almost all conditions.

4.6.7. Comparison of Six Participants in themselves

The participants commonly tended toward CF in their classes as the total frequency of OCF moves was 61.9%, as stated. However, some instructors did not favor CF, especially during interactions. For example, an experienced teacher, Tera, avoided CF as much as she could during fluency-based activities. She corrected half of the student errors, mainly during the accuracy-based activities rather than the fluency-based ones. She was the only instructor who ignored almost all grammar errors while communicating with students. She only provided CF for these errors during accuracy-

based activities. Rona happened to be the minor feedback provider among the participants, but the reason for this may have been the density of the reading comprehension activities coincided with the current class observed for the study. Also, Mila was found to provide the least OCF for the vocabulary errors (57.1%) while she treated all pronunciation errors. Amy, with the fewest years of teaching experience, was the participant who provided the most feedback (78.5%) in both fluency-oriented and accuracy-based activities. She also used a wide range of CF types compared to others. The fluency in communications did not seem to be negatively affected by her corrections, as the number of interactions was high in her class. Other participants, specifically those with low levels of OCF, may have worried about fluency. These concerns proved to be pointless, seeing that Amy treated most of the errors and students went on communications in class.

4.7. Findings on the Relationship between Instructors' Beliefs and Practices

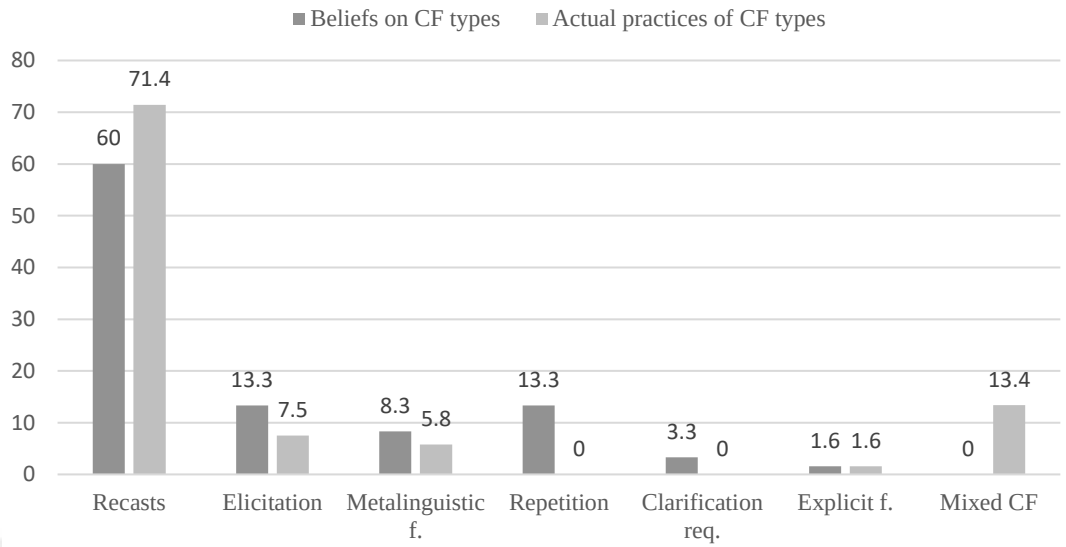
The fourth research question sought to examine the extent to which the instructors' beliefs about OCF are congruent with their actual practices. Quantitative data from the questionnaire and classroom observations were utilized to answer this question. The comparison was checked by the Spearman correlation test.

4.7.1. CF Types

By revealing the answer to the first part of the fourth research question, teachers' beliefs and practices appeared to match in recast as both proved it to be the major CF type provided during communicative activities. The recast provision of six instructors in practice was 71.4%, displaying a match with the average of their beliefs, which was 60%. The instructors preferred recasts only 10% more than the stated average. Figure 2 exposes all six CF types with their practiced frequencies in the sense of teachers' beliefs and practices on the matter.

Addedly, although the numbers showed a minor difference, metalinguistic feedback appeared to be provided in classes faintly less than it was supposed to. The participants (n=6) claimed to apply metalinguistic feedback in their teaching with a percentage of 8.33%. In the meantime, they were found to provide metalinguistic feedback with a share of 5.88% in their classes. Another reasonable difference in averages was for the elicitation, which six instructors claimed to supply at 13.33% but provided it at 7.56% in practice.

Figure 2: Teachers' beliefs vs. practices about CF types



A mismatch was found in the provision of repetition. Instructors asserted to provide repetition, as a prompt, with an average of 13.33%. Yet, observations uncovered that they never used repetition alone in their corrections. One participant only provided OCF through repetition coupled with metalinguistic feedback for two errors. Likewise, the average provision of mixed types of CF for a unique error was 13.44%. There was no separate option for mixed CF in the questionnaire, but participants could have spoken of it in their remarks if they had noticed to be using it. Table 15 shows the instructors' average stated beliefs and actual classroom practices regarding CF types.

The Spearman correlation was used to determine if the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practice was statistically significant. The correlation analysis certified that stated teachers' beliefs and actual practices regarding recast provision were found to correlate significantly and positively ($r = 0.886$, $p \leq .019$). This was the only significant correlation in the overall study. Teachers' beliefs about metalinguistic feedback and practices did not correlate, as displayed by the Spearman correlation test ($r = 0.407$, $p \leq .423$). On the other hand, the study found that their beliefs and practices in elicitation and explicit feedback did not correlate significantly and positively ($r = -0.194$, $p \leq .713$ for elicitation, $r = -0.310$, $p \leq .550$ for explicit feedback). As the instructors did not provide repetition and clarification requests at all in practice, no correlation analyses were applied for these CF types.

Compared to their practices, instructors' individual beliefs on CF types also showed inconsistencies, not surprisingly. The results of the correlational analysis should be

Table 15: The instructors' beliefs and practices about the provision of CF types

	Stated type (%)						Practiced type (%)						
	Recast	Metalinguistic f..	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification req.	Explicit f.	Recast	Metalinguistic f.	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification req.	Explicit f.	Mixed CF
Miri	10	20	40	30	0	0	61.9	9.5	14.2	0	0	0	14.2
Mila	90	0	10	0	0	0	80	5	0	0	0	0	15
Tera	50	20	20	0	10	0	62.5	6.25	0	0	0	6.25	25
Ted	70	10	0	10	0	10	66.6	0	16.6	0	0	0	16.66
Rona	80	0	10	0	10	0	81.8	0	9	0	0	0	9
Amy	60	0	0	40	0	0	75.7	9	6	0	0	3	6
Average	60	8.33	13.33	13.33	3.33	1.66	71.42	5.88	7.56	0	0	1.68	13.44

interpreted with caution as they do not reflect a general trend among all six teachers. For example, Miri claimed to provide elicitation with 40% and recast with only 10%. Yet, in practice, she used recasts the most (61.9%) and provided feedback through elicitation only three times (14.2%). Furthermore, Miri asserted that she would employ repetition in given hypothetical circumstances with 30%, whereas she did not prefer repetition at all in practice. Likewise, another observed participant, Tera, claimed that she would correct student errors through mostly recasts (50%), then metalinguistic feedback (20%), elicitation (20%), and clarification requests (10%). In practice, she provided recasts with a percentage of 62.5%, almost matching her beliefs. On the other hand, Tera was observed not to use any elicitation and clarification requests in her teaching. Another salient mismatch was Amy's in that she alleged to provide repetition with 40%, though she did not use any in practice. Mila, Ted, and Rona were found more consistent than others regarding the matches between their beliefs and practices. All instructors appeared to benefit from mixed CF substantially.

4.7.2. Frequency of OCF

Another subsection of the fourth research question aimed to discover the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices of OCF frequency. As for their beliefs about the frequency of oral CF acts, six participants predominately scored between 60% and 90% on the scale. Accordingly, it came to light that they claimed to provide feedback on student errors at an average of 65%, which was close to their actual OCF practices in the observed classrooms, calculated as 61.97%. Regarding the absolute frequency, it also appeared that the instructors teaching at an established state university were commonly slanted towards CF during oral activities. However, their CF moves were relatively fewer in number during fluency-oriented activities than accuracy-based ones in general terms, which was tolerably uneccentric. Table 16 displays the averages of teachers' beliefs and practices about OCF frequency. The frequencies of beliefs pointed to a consistent result in the sense of the actual frequencies of OCF moves in class. However, the Spearman correlation proved that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practice was not statistically significant regarding OCF frequency ($r = 0{,}464$, $p \leq .354$), proving only average numbers may not be enough to extrapolate the study results from it.

As mentioned, the results of correlation analysis tend to portray the grand scheme rather than individual practices; they need to be examined based on personal beliefs

and practices. When the participants' beliefs were compared to practices individually, mismatches were noticeable for Rona and Tera, as the differences between their stated beliefs and practices were 25.8% for Rona and 20% for Tera. Mila was the most consistent instructor in this regard, as the difference was only 1.2%.

Table 16: The instructors' beliefs and practices about OCF frequency

	Beliefs (%)	**Practices (%)**
Miri	80	63.6
Mila	60	58.8
Tera	70	50
Ted	30	47.8
Rona	90	64.2
Amy	60	78.5
Average	**65**	**61.97**

As a side note, the study also questioned beliefs about feedback providers during teaching and resulted that the six instructors are with the idea that teachers should provide OCF with a percentage of 48.33% on average, seemingly not conforming to their practices as they inflexibly corrected errors themselves with 90.1%. They hardly ever took a chance on students for peer correction (5.7%) and self-correction (4.20%) in practice. The instructors, on the contrary, alleged to believe in peer correction and self-correction requirements with an average of 16.66% and 35%, respectively, seemingly much higher than the practices. Yet, regardless of the difference in percentages, it appeared that the most preferred one among the three providers was teachers according to both beliefs and practices. The findings referred that the instructors' beliefs and practices were not also compatible in this regard.

4.7.3. OCF on Various Errors

Seeking the relationship between beliefs and practices of OCF provision on specific error types, the frequency analysis pointed out that the two were somewhat congruent regarding three error types. Table 17 shows the averages at a time by means of the related percentages of each error type provided by each participant. As seen in the table, six participants opted to provide feedback at an average of 68.33%, 80%, and 71.66% towards grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors, respectively, during oral activities. As for their classroom practices, the averages were found to be 52.2%,

66.6%, 75.6%, respectively. In this way, beliefs and practices seemed congruent in point of oral CF, especially on vocabulary errors. On the other hand, the Spearman correlation revealed no meaningful correlation between the instructors' beliefs and practices about grammatical, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors ($r = 0{,}116$, $p \leq .827$ for grammar, $r = -0{,}25$, $p \leq .635$ for pronunciation, $r = 0{,}772$, $p \leq .072$ for vocabulary).

Table 17: Teachers' beliefs and actual practices of certain error types

	Grammar errors		**Pronunciation errors**		**Vocabulary errors**	
	Belief	Practice	Belief	Practice	Belief	Practice
Miri	60%	62.5%	90%	55%	80%	75%
Mila	70%	54.1%	80%	100%	70%	57.1%
Tera	60%	26.3%	80%	100%	60%	20%
Ted	80%	42.8%	50%	46.1%	70%	66.6%
Rona	90%	75%	90%	41.6%	80%	87.5%
Amy	50%	64.2%	90%	86.9%	70%	80%
Average	68.33%	52.27%	80%	66.66%	71.66%	75.60%

Among six participants, Amy's beliefs by far matched her practices with slight differences in averages of all error types. Miri's beliefs also almost matched her grammar and vocabulary errors practices with minor differences. On the other hand, Tera's beliefs on provision OCF on various errors differed from her practices the most, as seen in Table 17.

4.7.4. OCF Timing

The fourth research question was intended to explore the relationship between beliefs and practices on OCF timing. In the study, the average of six teachers' beliefs on the provision of immediate feedback was discovered to be 58.33%. On the other hand, the actual practices of immediate correction (95.7%) exposed the most remarkable mismatch between teachers' beliefs and practices in this study. Figure 3 illustrates the differences in CF timing on a diagram. The stated difference pointed to a mismatch between beliefs and practices, signaling a nebulous relationship regarding OCF timing.

Regarding the delayed feedback, the participants stated to prefer to correct student errors later with an average of 41.66%, whereas they appeared to employ it towards only 4.2% of all OCF moves in practice. Table 18 refers to the average teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the timing of OCF. The Spearman correlation analysis also

testified that teachers' beliefs on neither immediate nor delayed feedback correlated to their practices (r= -0,029, p ≤ .956, the same rates for each variable).

Figure 3: Teachers' beliefs vs. practices on OCF timing

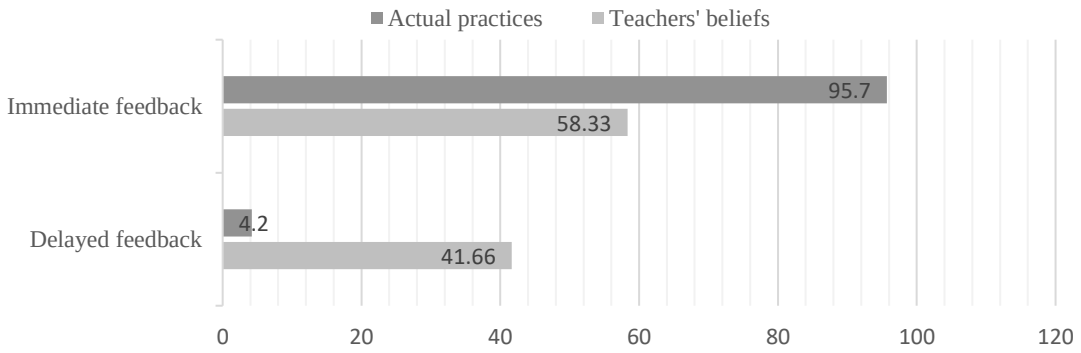


Table 18: The instructors' beliefs and practices on OCF timing

	Stated time (%)		**Practice (%)**	
	Immediate	Delayed	Immediate	Delayed
Miri	90	10	95.2	5
Mila	60	40	100	0
Tera	50	50	87.5	12
Ted	50	50	94.4	6
Rona	30	70	100	0
Amy	70	30	96.7	3
Average	58.33	41.66	95.79	4.20

The instructors' individual responses on timing also varied from their practices. Rona was the one whose beliefs were entirely different from her timing practices as she claimed to provide immediate feedback with 30%, yet she practiced it with 100%. Also, she stated that she would give delayed feedback with 70%, but she used none in her teaching. All her OCF acts were presented at the moment of students' making errors. So, there was a considerable mismatch between her beliefs and practices concerning OCF timing. Unlike Rona, Miri used immediate feedback with 95.2% and delayed feedback with 5%, which was compatible with her beliefs because she claimed to provide feedback immediately with 90% and later with 10%. Miri, Mila, and Ted were other participants whose beliefs and practices were almost mismatched as they looked like they did not favor immediate feedback, yet they applied it much in practice. However, Amy had more moderate feelings than the abovementioned instructors towards immediate feedback (70%) and provided it with 96.7% in her actual teaching,

proving that her beliefs and practices were close to each other, even with a lesser consistency than Miri.

The ninth question in the questionnaire, supplying the qualitative finding on OCF timing for specific error types, showed four significant findings of error types, two for immediate and two for delayed feedback. One significant finding on the beliefs about immediate feedback was for the vocabulary errors, which four instructors, Miri, Mila, Tera, and Rona, highlighted the necessity of correcting immediately. In practice, out of 31 vocabulary errors, they fixed 30 of them immediately (96.7%). Tera gave the unique delayed feedback on a student's vocabulary error, while others did not provide any for vocabulary errors. Rather, they preferred to correct vocabulary errors as soon as students made them. Additionally, three instructors (Mila, Tera, and Rona) claimed to supply immediate feedback for the pronunciation errors. The observations even revealed that all six instructors preferred to give feedback immediately to almost all phonological errors (95.2%), except for only two errors in total. Nonetheless, their beliefs and practices showed their common tendency towards immediate feedback for pronunciation errors regardless of the percentages.

A significant finding with delayed feedback revealed that three participants claimed to correct grammar errors later, especially when the activity was over. On the other hand, in practice, teachers preferred to provide delayed feedback only towards 4.3% of the overall grammatical errors, which can be cast as an incongruence. Out of 46 grammar errors, Miri and Tera decided to give delayed feedback each only once. In addition, there was another finding about delayed feedback, which was towards minor mistakes. Two instructors (Ted and Amy) opted for minor errors to be corrected later, but no comparison can be made in this regard as the observations' criterion did not conclude major or minor errors separately. In the light of the findings above, it can be inferred that there is a considerable difference between teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of timing to supply oral CF during teaching, justifying that teachers' beliefs may not affect their classroom practices in this respect.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Remarks on Instructors' Perception of CF Effectiveness and Students' CF Expectations

In order to find the answer to the first research question, the first, seventh, and eighth items in the questionnaire were posed to the participants. Starting with the quantitative data regarding instructors' overall perception of CF effectiveness, obtained by the task's first question, the study revealed that instructors predominantly believed in CF effectiveness at 72.74% (n=52) with high percentage. It showed that the survey participants had more positive expectations of CF compared to those in the meta-analysis by Li (2017), in which 39% of the teachers alleged that CF was important. However, despite its higher rates, this finding is more consistent with a study by Yüksel et al. (2021), in which the participants' perceived CF effectiveness was 65%.

Concerning the question with qualitative characteristics, targeted to discover through the seventh item in the questionnaire, the study found that the vast majority of teachers (78.4%) believed in both CF's effectiveness and significance for several reasons. Many instructors indicated that since OCF initiates students' language improvement and helps them produce more correct outputs, students may not smoothly acquire the target language without CF moves. For example, an instructor mentioned that giving feedback increases students' awareness of their errors, improving their performance and making them autonomous learners. That kind of connection between CF and learner autonomy was interesting since CF, mainly provided by teachers, is considered to hinder learners from becoming autonomous by some due to its characteristics of a teacher-guided process. So, instructors need to re-evaluate their points of view regarding the relationship between their support to increase students' language performance and the possibility of their being autonomous learners by extension. Among those believing that errors might become stable and fossilized unless they provide OCF, one teacher emphasized the lack of accuracy caused by no CF provision during oral-based classes:

> "It is crucial to give CF before those mistakes become fossilized. We need fluency, it's OK, but accuracy is increasingly taking attention in the last few

years at the tertiary level. We have students who are fluent but not accurate in English."

The participants cared about the possibility of fossilization in students' interlanguages because it pushes them to provide CF as far as possible. The term fossilization has been discussed for so long by educationists as it is one of the most frequently encountered problems during L2 learning, mainly because of students' transfers from their native language to the L2 and the lack of CF towards their repeated errors.

Drawing attention to another significant point, a participant agreed that errors should be implicitly corrected not to offend students. There may be introverted or shy students who can easily be discouraged because of the feedback moves provided in a pretty explicit manner or their teachers' putting their foot down. Thus, giving feedback in a gentle mood or in a more implicit way may be much better for students with high sensitivity as it is less likely to cause any discouragement.

21% of the participants (n=51) figured that CF is necessary but not always, or it is effective for some students, not all. Several of this view's proponents claimed that students' correcting their errors is the most beneficial way of OCF; therefore, they suggested that teachers give their students opportunities and encourage them to self-correction. CF practices, though, vary from teacher to teacher and depend on their class's linguistic targets or specific teaching methodologies. Accordingly, teachers seemed inclined toward using prompts, which have been proven highly efficient in language learning by several studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997). So, students can correct themselves by teachers' making them know about the presence of an error in some ways rather than directly fixing them.

The eighth questionnaire item was about the instructors' beliefs on students' CF expectations. Most instructors agreed that students expect to get feedback when they make errors in the L2 learning process because of students' desire to learn pronunciation correctly. Additionally, one participant, who asserted the necessity of students' understanding of their mistakes and taking lessons from them, gave the following reason for his belief in the importance of CF but wrote it under the question of students' expectations:

> "When language students keep making errors and receive no correction, the errors will be fossilized, and it will disturb the meaning of English they use."

It was interesting to see this statement when asked about students' CF expectations because students are not likely to be conscious of the threat of fossilization, yet they expect to get CF, which is agreed to bring out permanent learning in the long term, to internalize the corrected forms of their errors and learn from them. This irrelevance may have stemmed from the teacher's having misunderstood or not reading the question correctly.

Regarding the CF expectations, almost one-quarter of the instructors remarked that students may not always expect CF broadly, reasoning students' attitudes or personality factors for their beliefs. Several instructors (15.7%) also explained they don't believe in students' expecting CF because of fluency or anxiety concerns. These rates showed that teachers generally believe that most students hope to get CF, as proved in several studies (e.g., Roothoft & Breeze, 2016).

In brief, considering both quantitative and qualitative data on the claimed CF effectiveness, the participants seemed to slant towards the undeniable importance of correcting errors. Thus, this shows that language educationists are well-aware of CF and highly believe in its effectiveness in language learning.

5.2. Remarks on the Instructors' Beliefs about OCF

The second research question was intended to determine instructors' beliefs about the types and frequency of OCF, the provision of OCF towards various error types, and the timing of OCF in their classes. When examining the quantitative findings regarding the CF types, which were measured by the tasks' sixth question, it was found that the instructors (n=51) notably claimed to be supplying recasts (50.4%) in their CF practices. They proclaimed using explicit feedback (3.52%) and clarification requests (1.18%) as little or nothing, while their claims on providing repetitions were 20.01%. These findings seem conformable with the study by Yüksel et al. (2021), seeking teachers' beliefs and practices similar to this study. They found that the participants alleged to be providing recasts at an average of 57%, unlike explicit feedback and clarification requests with 4% and 6.5%. Thus, it is evident that teachers' preferences overwhelmingly tend toward recast, which may be due to their perception of its being harmless for communication. Besides, it is worth highlighting that the teachers rarely opted for explicit feedback to correct student errors, possibly for its quite direct nature and being a potential peril of demotivation in students. Also, the participants' not

stating to use clarification requests may be because it is somewhat challenging for students to notice the feedback they give.

Another subsection of the second research question concerned teachers' beliefs about the CF frequency was quantified with the task's second item. The results showed that they believed to be providing OCF with an average of 58.23%, proving their shared tendency to correct student errors. It supported the findings of the first research question related to beliefs in CF effectiveness. It is because the prior question was related to teachers' views on the efficacy of OCF and the latter accordingly referred to their perceptions of how often they claimed to provide it. The result is consistent with Yüksel et al.'s (2021) study in which they found the instructors happened to provide feedback with an average of 63%.

The further aim of the second research question was to explore the specific error types, the instructors believe to be correcting in their teaching, which was measured by the third item in the questionnaire. The result highlighted that the participants believed that they used CF to correct 66.07%, 68.43%, and 62.54% of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar errors respectively, seeming much the same. These numbers clued that teachers did not have a specific linguistic preference in responding to students' errors; in other words, they did not believe in the necessity of overrating any error type.

The fifth question in the questionnaire was posed to the instructors to discover their beliefs on OCF timing. The result showed that immediate correction was favored for 55.29% of errors, while delayed was preferred for 45.09% of errors. It is evident that teachers equally believed in employing immediate and delayed feedback. For the timing of OCF, the ninth question in the task measured the beliefs about timing for various error types. It was found that 29 instructors (56.9%) preferred immediate feedback towards pronunciation errors for a shared reason: if they do not correct them immediately, they may stay stable later. The merit claimed by participants seems rational as the learners may not have a chance to hear and learn the correct pronunciations without teachers' warnings, so they may be fossilized and scarcely corrected later. Another notable finding was the delayed feedback, which 22 instructors (43.1%) stated to prefer on grammatical errors. There were several reasons for their claims about delayed feedback on grammar, such as the possibility of students' correcting their mistakes when allowed to reflect on them. Some also

remarked that as these kinds of errors require detailed interpretations, they need to be corrected later. Some participants also touched on task type's importance in determining the timing, underlining that immediate feedback should be provided if the errors occur during fluency-oriented tasks, while the delayed one should be employed if it is an accuracy-based activity. They also stated student levels be crucial for deciding on OCF timing. Accuracy is probably more meaningful in lower levels than in higher ones, where the focus is more on fluency. The participants commonly mentioned distinguishing reasons and differed regarding their own teaching mentalities or strategies. For delayed feedback, minor errors were favored as well by 11 participants (21.6%), one of whom formed a view as follows:

"Most of the mistakes could be corrected later; the point is guiding the learner in realizing the mistakes and understanding the rationale behind the correction."

This comment underscores the necessity for students to notice the mistakes and be aware of the correction for CF to be effective, conforming to the reasoning of the Noticing Hypothesis. Also, the participant may have meant that many minor mistakes could be corrected later. If so, this may be a good point as correcting every error, even the minor ones, may result in overcorrection and destroy the flow of communications, specifically in fluency-oriented tasks. Likewise, in the study by Basturkmen et al. (2004), all three teachers indicated they do not immediately respond to student errors unless they paralyze the communication, which points to a widespread view among teachers on the correction of minor errors despite the presence of multiple perspectives on other issues.

5.3. Remarks on the Six Instructors' Beliefs

The beliefs of six participants, who were also observed through their recorded classrooms, about OCF were usually close to the majority group (n=51), of whom responses were taken into consideration to reach a generalizable finding about teachers' beliefs. Six participants' responses, though, were utilized to compare with their classroom practices to see whether they were compatible with each other or not. The study revealed that they commonly believe in CF effectiveness (76.66%), and the correction rate they claimed to provide in class (65%) also supported their positive beliefs on CF effectiveness. Among the CF types asserted to provide, recast was the prevailing type with 60%, a little higher than the majority group's preferences of recast

with 50.4%. So, it is worth mentioning that teachers generally believe to be providing OCF through recasts compared to other CF strategies. Following recasts, teachers believe to be providing out-put prompting strategies like elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback at the least (13.33%, 13.33%, and 8.33%, respectively). Only one of the prompts, clarification requests, appeared not to draw the interest of either the participants in the major group (with 1.18%) or the observed ones (with 3.33%). So, the study has revealed that teachers do not usually deem clarification requests much more appropriate while giving feedback during communications. This may be because of the possibility of students zoning out their errors and correcting them without their teachers' help, especially if they have low proficiency levels. Explicit feedback is the other strategy that the instructors hardly ever opted for (1.66%) in that only one instructor (Ted) chose it once for the hypothetical example of a grammatical error. Obviously, explicit feedback is not favored by teachers, which may be because its relatively straightforward nature can demotivate students in front of their peers.

The OCF provision the six instructors alleged for the grammatical errors (68.33%) was the lowest among the other two error types, while the pronunciation errors were found to be the type they mostly pleaded (80%). It was also conformable with their beliefs obtained from the ninth item, which proved the majority tended to believe that grammar correction should be done delayed and that pronunciation correction should be done immediately. For the vocabulary correction, the participants mainly chose the frequencies between 60%-80% equaling the average of 71.66%, which can be regarded as compatible with their beliefs in the requirement of immediate vocabulary correction, as four out of six instructors claimed to believe in it. Moreover, it turned out that they are with the idea that teachers should provide OCF moves in class (48.33%) rather than learners themselves (35%) or peers (16.66%) by far. When examining the timing issue, it was found that the six participants valued both immediate and delayed feedback, although the former was a little ahead of the latter, as was the case with the 51 instructors.

5.4. Remarks on the Instructors' Actual Practices of OCF

The third research question aimed to identify instructors' virtual practices regarding the matters mentioned in the second question via classroom observations. As for the practices of CF types, recast was the most commonly employed type with an average of 71.4% by the instructors, which cohere with many related studies and meta-

analyses. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that teachers used recasts at 55% in their teaching, and Li (2013) reached a close percentage, 48.94%, in his related study. There is a consensus on the superiority of fluency over accuracy during communicative activities, conceivably leading teachers to side with this type of CF and primarily employ it in their teaching. Despite some doubts about its effectiveness, many studies like this have evidenced recasts as the predominantly practiced CF type, particularly in the course of fluency-oriented activities. Moreover, the participants did not use repetition alone during teaching, as in Dilāns (2015) with only 2%, and Ha & Murray (2020) with 2.3%. Lyster and Ranta (1997:53) reason that these low repetition provision rates are often combined with diverse types instead of uniquely presenting.

The average frequency of instructors' actual OCF practices was 61.9%, meaning that instructors tended to provide OCF for more than half of the errors, whereas the average ignoring was 38%. It may be inferred that the observed instructors may have been among those who positively answered the first questionnaire item on CF effectiveness. This observational finding is close to the frequency of the participants' OCF practices in Yüksel et al. (2021), which was found at 68%.

The instructors' OCF practices towards given error types were also observed during their teaching. They were 66,6% for pronunciation, 75,6% for vocabulary, and 52,2% for grammar-related errors. Compared to Basturkmen et al. (2004), the observed instructors of this study were found to favor grammatical errors more than those of the mentioned study, in which participants mainly focused on language-related errors and tolerated meaning-oriented ones. In this study, teachers provided fewer OCF acts towards grammatical errors than in their claims. However, in a similar vein to Dilāns (2015), the participants mainly responded to each type of error, although the numbers slightly differed. On the one hand, vocabulary errors got the most frequent provision, similar to Ha & Murray (2020)'s findings.

For the last subsection of the third research question on the OCF timing, the participants almost always immediately responded to student errors (95.7%) and rarely later (4.3%). The average percentage of immediate feedback was the highest, proving that instructors prefer to provide immediate feedback towards errors. As is evident, they either ignored student errors or provided immediate feedback rather than correcting them later. These findings somewhat resembled Yüksel et al. (2021), in which the participants immediately provided feedback at 79.6% and gave it later at

20.4%. As a side note, the ample provision of immediate feedback can be considered a positive strategy as it was proved to be more effective than its counterpart in many studies such as Fu and Li (2020). Their research confirmed that the group with immediate correction considerably outperformed the control group on four posttests.

5.5. Remarks on the Relationship between Beliefs and Practices

The fourth research question targeted discovering the relationship between the instructors' beliefs and practices considering matches and mismatches regarding types, frequency, various errors, and timing.

5.5.1. CF Types

The Spearman correlation test evinced that only one variable, the recast, was found highly significant among all the variables analyzed to see the relationship between participants' beliefs with actual practices during communicative activities. The study unveiled the prevalence of recasts in classrooms (71.42%), which almost matched the stated preferences of instructors (60%). The percentage of recast practices turned out to be only 10% higher than beliefs. However, regarding the repetition, claims did not utterly match practices since the instructors claimed to be providing a percentage of 13.33%, but they implemented none. This finding is compatible with Dilāns (2015), whose study showed that the participants barely provided repetitions (2%), although they asserted using it at 24%.

In the light of data obtained through observations and the questionnaire, it can be deduced that there is a mediocre relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices depending on specific types of CF in classrooms. The instructors' practices are affected by their beliefs about recasts, as the dominant CF type in their classes, whereas they stay almost unaffected by beliefs on the other types. For instance, they stated to provide repetitions yet practiced none. By all accounts, matches and mismatches regarding CF types signal a mediocre relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Notwithstanding that the questionnaire did not have any items to address it, the participants of the classroom observations were found to occasionally supply learners with mixed types of CF (13.4%) towards an error. As they did not remark on it in the open-to-comment questions, it can be concluded that instructors may be unaware of combining and simultaneously providing two different CF types in one go. This kind

of data put classroom observations on the map because they procured a lowdown on the virtual teaching practices of instructors.

5.5.2. OCF Frequency

Although the classroom observations revealed that the average frequencies were close to each other (65% for beliefs, 61.9% for practices), no significant correlation was found between teachers' beliefs and OCF provision, indicating that there was a considerable gap between the amount of CF teachers claimed to use and their actual application of CF in their language classes. This may have been caused due to the relatively limited number of the observed participants, stemming from instructors' common unwillingness to share their recorded classrooms with anyone. Therefore, the absence of a relationship between beliefs and practices regarding the OCF frequency demonstrates a mismatch between them. In parenthesis, there were differences between A- and B-level classes in OCF frequency, which looked intriguing regarding a potential relationship between teachers' CF choices and levels.

Generally speaking, the observed students were often discouraged from speaking during online classes, as a typical case in Turkish EFL classes, which may have been because of high anxiety levels for fear of making mistakes or being humiliated by peers. However, if teachers can make students feel more comfortable or provide more implicit OCF acts while speaking, they may participate in the communicational activities more likely than not. Regarding the few numbers of signaled uptake (21.84%) out of overall OCF moves, students did not frequently respond to teachers' feedback moves during oral activities. It was highly likely that because of online courses and the lack of face-to-face conversations, students did not feel obliged to respond to teachers' feedback or speak more, unlike in a virtual classroom environment. Students' unwillingness to interact may have been another reason for their few uptakes because they may have considered that the less they spoke, even for responding to their teacher, the better it was for them. Under regular face-to-face training, teachers can construe students' every statement or even mimic to see the results of their feedback better and interfere whenever they realize that there is no uptake or students do not repair their errors, which is one of the beneficial sides of the traditional learning.

5.5.3. OCF on Various Errors

Although the findings seemed to be congruent regarding OCF provision on three error types, according to the frequency analysis, the correlation coefficients of the variables were not high enough for grammatical, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors to be statistically significant. It could be remarked that teachers' classroom practices, thus, were incompatible with their beliefs on correcting every type of error. The correlational analysis also confirmed that their beliefs do not influence classroom practices in this respect. This finding is similar to Ha and Murray (2020), which found no relationship between beliefs and practices regarding CF, specifically towards pronunciation and grammatical errors, as the participants did not put their beliefs into practice on these errors except for one teacher.

5.5.4. OCF Timing

The timing issue was the most significant mismatch between beliefs and practices. They claimed to provide immediate and delayed feedback in about half shares. This means they believed in delayed correction, though they did not implement it in their classes, verifying the mismatch between their beliefs and practices in this regard as the Spearman correlation test found no significant relationship between them. The finding is similar to Yüksel et al. (2021) as they also inferred a mismatch in OCF timing when analyzed through frequency. The participants in their study claimed to employ immediate and delayed corrections at almost equal rates (immediate: 48% vs. delayed 52%). Nonetheless, the mean of practice was 79.6% and 20.4% for immediate and delayed feedback, respectively, extricating an imbalanced implementation, as in this study.

Providing feedback immediately or later has often been controversial among language educationists leading to various implementations. The practices of the current participants favoring immediate correction are not the problem undoubtedly because of its proven effectiveness, but the difference between claims and implementations suggests that they are unaware of their practices of which possible reasons need to be searched.

As an overall evaluation, the study's findings have highlighted a mediocre relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, which parallels several earlier studies on the issue (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Lee, 2009; Dilāns, 2015; Ha & Murray, 2020,

Kartchava et al., 2018). Teachers' beliefs sometimes play a significant role in some of their practices, while they do not influence practices in other regards. The incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices may spring from distinct reasons. The fact that teachers exploit divergent information resources while scheduling their teaching but need to take on-the-spot decisions throughout their courses may be the first reason for this incongruence (Basturkmen et al., 2004:246). As the second reason, a statement by Li (2017), 'teachers may equate CF with explicit correction and may not consider other CF strategies as CF' (p.155), can be taken. This is because these teachers will probably claim not to believe in the CF requirement when asked for their beliefs on it. Linguistic aims of classes may also be the third reason for incongruences because teachers often treat student errors caring for their teaching purposes, yet they may express their beliefs with a roundup to their provisions, which Kartchava (2018) affirms that "The difference in the opinions may be attributed to the nature of the course". Beyond mismatches in themselves, most teachers seem to be miles apart in recognition of their views or methods on OCF. Thus, they mostly have distinctive implementations, which also gives rise to diverse practices of OCF in language classrooms. Through the present study, it has been deduced that the linguistic targets of the classes, students' proficiency levels, the topics to be taught, and the activity types play a vital role in teachers' determining their OCF strategies.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary

The study's purpose has originated from the lack of studies on instructors' beliefs and practices of oral corrective feedback regardless of the extant ones in the international research. The current study targeted to discover general perceptions of the instructors over CF and compare their beliefs and practices regarding the OCF provisions. The comparison was made through classroom observations with six participants chosen among those who answered the questionnaire. Their views about OCF overlapped in some ways, while they contrasted each other in some others. The study has revealed a mediocre relationship between instructors' beliefs and practices since their beliefs have not wholly but partially matched practices in some respects.

The findings of the research questions are compendiously explained below:

The first research question discovered that the instructors' general perception of CF dominantly tended toward CF effectiveness. Also, most teachers believe that students expect CF from their teachers. Accordingly, it has been agreed that most teachers have a positive attitude towards OCF.

The second research question explored instructors' beliefs concerning how to supply OCF, how often to provide it, for which errors to give oral feedback, and when to deliver OCF. According to the findings, recast has been the prevailing CF type, and repetition has ranked second. Elicitation and metalinguistic feedback, even with lower rates, have also been preferred by the instructors. Yet, the study has certified that teachers do not commonly choose to provide clarification requests and explicit feedback. In addition, regarding the OCF frequency, the instructors believe they respond to more than half of the student errors. They believe in evenly providing OCF moves towards grammatical, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors. As the last, the instructors believe to be providing immediate and delayed feedback for almost half and half.

The third research question's purpose was to determine instructors' actual classroom practices concerning which CF types they provide, how often they apply to it, for which errors they prefer to give oral feedback and when they deliver OCF in reality.

The study proved that recast was the predominant CF strategy in the observed classrooms, followed by the mixed CF types. These were the combinations of recast with metalinguistic feedback, recast with elicitation, metalinguistic feedback with elicitation, metalinguistic feedback with clarification request, and repetition with metalinguistic feedback. It has been proved that repetition is not uniquely employed but combined with metalinguistic feedback. Elicitation and metalinguistic feedback have been favored more than explicit feedback and clarification requests. The finding has revealed the instructors' voting against specific CF types. Neither did the participants adequately employ delayed feedback nor utilized prompts as many as reformulations in their classes. Rather, they were more likely to have preferred immediate feedback, possibly for its agreed effectiveness, and they picked recasts because of their non-destructive nature toward the flow of communications.

The fourth research question addressed the current congruences and incongruences between beliefs and practices on OCF timing, frequency, types, and preferences on various errors. Regarding recast as a type of CF, the relationship between instructors' beliefs and practices has been found significant, yet the relationship can be called mediocre in general as it varies by other specific issues. Recast has been the most preferred CF type according to both teachers' beliefs and actual practices in parallel. Also, as for the beliefs and practices on repetition, there was another incongruence; although participants claimed to employ it sometimes, they provided none in actual classes. So, teacher beliefs do not influence their repetition practices in classrooms. Furthermore, teacher beliefs about OCF frequency and existing practices did not match each other considering the correlational analysis, proving that beliefs do not affect classroom implementations. Another mismatch has been found between the stated CF preferences on grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary errors and the actual practices.

Additionally, the timing of OCF has brought out a significant finding of the study as no matches were reported between the two variables according to both frequency and correlational analysis. The timing issue has been utterly controversial as the difference between stated beliefs and practices has been excessive, which has confirmed this study's significance. Thus, it can be deduced that there is almost no substantial relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the timing of CF moves. All in all, when considering all variables analyzed within this study, it could be

remarked that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices is mediocre rather than significant.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications

The study has drawn forth many crucial findings regarding EFL instruction in higher education, for which some implications can be inferred to clarify the blurs in the notion thoroughly. As the relationship between beliefs and practices has not matched in many regards, teachers' awareness of their teaching methods needs to be raised through this kind of studies for teachers to notice the gap. There are several reasons for these incongruences, on which previous studies have had several suggestions for teachers.

According to the findings of the present study, teachers have positive attitudes toward OCF, yet some of them have a skeptical perception of the notion indicating that if they exceed the limit of correction, students may get demotivated or focus more on the accuracy instead of fluency. Some others believe that a good part of feedback needs to be provided later rather than immediately because they were concerned that immediate correction may destroy the fluency of conversations. Concerning teachers' present worries about CF provision, Li (2017:155) recommends that teachers should realize that students are primarily fond of getting immediate and explicit feedback for their mistakes. This unveils the need for overhauling their delayed and indirect correction preferences. Students' preferences for immediate and explicit feedback also highlight that it is pointless for teachers to have concerns such as demotivating students or harming their self-confidence as learners are already willing to be immediately corrected. Teachers should consider students' own choices on the matter and be conscious of keeping wrong beliefs about CF, like negative manners toward it, if any (Ibid). They should keep in mind that even if they are good teachers, they might be unaware of their own beliefs and should do something to be aware if they notice or learn about any incongruences between their beliefs and practices.

The findings point to instructors' need for support with CF practices, which may be provided during teacher training programs before entering the profession. Teachers should be aware of CF strategies and get to know which one suits best with their linguistic focus, students' proficiency levels or context of classes, and so forth. This training may help teachers have precise knowledge and rational beliefs and arrange their practices to their beliefs, wiping off overall discrepancies. Moreover, teacher

training should also focus on promoting teachers to enlarge their range of CF types and, more specifically, to discover employing output-pushing strategies (Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016:9).

6.3. Limitations

We need to keep some limitations in mind while evaluating the study. The survey was conducted with 51 participants from three state universities; however, only six instructors' classes could be observed because of the limited number of volunteers who consented to participate in the study. Classrooms are somewhat private environments for both students and teachers, so not every teacher leans towards the idea of being observed during their teaching, even if these classes are the recorded ones as in this study. That was why the observational study was conducted with a relatively fewer number of instructors. Moreover, the procedures for receiving permission to tap into the recorded classrooms from the institutions were quite challenging. It took up much more time than expected, bringing about limitations of time and participant numbers for the observation processes. If it hadn't been so, semi-structured interviews with the observed instructors could have been administered to discuss the reasons for the incongruences between beliefs and practices. The sample numbers can be enlarged with more participants, and triangulation can be utilized to enhance the generalizability of the study.

Additionally, the researcher observed the video-recorded classrooms for three class hours (3x45') only. This can be increased for much more reliable results so that the researcher can keep upward corrective feedback each instructor provides learners during conversations. In addition, we preferred the video-recorded classrooms to a more natural environment during observations. Even so, it could be argued that face-to-face classes would offer more feedback than online ones since more in-class conversations would take place, which could have brought another strength to the study. The lack of only speaking classes and practice of all skills in one course by extension were other considerations. Two instructors were lecturing the main English course and teaching all the skills following the book's exercises on different days of the week. So, the time spent on speaking activities depended on the importance instructors attached to speaking. For example, in two of six classes with B1 level, speaking activities occupied little part of the class time, contrary to the rest where they took considerable time, influencing the overall findings. If there had been a chance to

observe classes focused on only oral skills, the number of errors could have been more in proportion to the current courses.

6.4. Suggestions for Further Research

The study has proved the presence of matches and mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices, like the abovementioned studies. Notwithstanding these current differences, Yüksel et al. (2021:377) temperately remark that "having similar or different beliefs and practices may not be something good or bad without considering the impact of the context and specific aims of the courses". In that sense, the underlying factors of any discrepancies should be cared about and shed light on through further studies combined with various research methods such as interviews or stimulated recalls with classroom observations.

Teachers' educational background and teaching experiences may also affect their CF provisions; hence, further studies may be conducted to search for any relationship between these variables. Students' CF preferences, proficiency levels, or emotions have been claimed to influence teachers' CF beliefs or practices by some participants of this study. Therefore, future studies can deal with all these possible factors of CF provisions in classes to uncover any doubts on the matter.

In a nutshell, what this thesis study searched for was the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices. It has found a mediocre relationship between the two, ranging from definite considerations to others, such as CF types, OCF frequency, OCF on various errors, and OCF timing. Teacher beliefs matched their practices only in the matter of recast provision, whereas they did not match in any other issues considering the correlational analyses. The study is important with its under-researched topic with the limited number of studies related to it, research design, and findings indicative of teachers' relative unawareness of their beliefs about OCF. Hopefully, the results of this study could cast light on how teachers apply CF in their classes and how the findings help to understand the processes that learners go through when they learn a second language.

REFERENCES

Aljaafreh, A. & Lantolf, J. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4): 465–83.

Ammar, A. & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(4): 543-574.

Ashton, P. T. (2014). Historical overview and theoretical perspectives of research on teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 31-47). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*: 243–272.

Basturkmen, H. & Fu, M. (2021). Corrective feedback and the development of second language grammar. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 367-386). Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/9781108589789.018

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(02): 81-109.

Buehl, M. M. & Beck, J. S. (2014). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 66-84). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Carroll, S., Swain, M. & Roberge, Y. (1992). The role of feedback in adult second language acquisition: Error correction and morphological generalizations. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 13*: 173-198.

Carroll, S., Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*(3): 357-386.

Chaudron, C. (1986). The role of error correction in second language teaching. *University of Hawai'i Working Papers in English as a Second Language, 5*(2): 43-81.

Chen, W. & Liu, G. (2021). Effectiveness of corrective feedback: Teachers' perspectives. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research, 9*(1): 23-42.

DeKeyser, R. (2014). Skill acquisition theory. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 113-134). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203628942

Dilāns, G. (2016). Corrective feedback in L2 Latvian classrooms: Teacher perceptions versus the observed actualities of practice. *Language Teaching Research, 20:* 479–497.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal, 1*(1): 3–18.

Ellis, R. (2015). The importance of focus on form in communicative language teaching. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 1*(2): 1–12.

Ellis, R. (2017). Oral corrective feedback in L2 classrooms: What we know so far. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning: research, theory, applications, implications* (pp. 3–18). Routledge.

Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research.* Routledge.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S. & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28(2): 339-368.

Fu, M., & Li, S. (2022). The effects of immediate and delayed corrective feedback on l2 development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 44*(1): 2-34. doi:10.1017/S0272263120000388

Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*. (pp. 224-255). Blackwell.

Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 35*(1): 127-165. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000708

Griffiths, C. (2006). Strategies for successful learning in an English-speaking environment: Insights from a Case Study. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 3*(2): 141-163.

Ha, X. V., & Murray, J. C. (2020). Corrective feedback: Beliefs and practices of Vietnamese primary EFL teachers [Advanced online publication]. *Language Teaching Research*: 1-31. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820931897

Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching.* Harlow: Longman.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *The Modern Language Journal, 62*(8): 387-398. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1978.tb02409.x

Hoffman, B. H., Seidel, K. (2014). Measuring Teachers' Beliefs: For What Purpose? In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 106-127). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Izumi, S., Bigelow, M., Fujiwara, M., & Fearnow, S. (1999). Testing the output hypothesis: Effects of output on noticing and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*(3): 421-452. doi:10.1017/S0272263199003034

Junqueira, L. & Kim, Y. (2013). Exploring the relationship between training, beliefs, and teachers' corrective feedback practices: A case study of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 69*: 181–206.

Kartchava, E., Gatbonton, E., Ammar, A. & Trofimovich, P. (2020). Oral corrective feedback: Pre-service English as a second language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*: 220–249.

Kim, J. H. (2004). Issues of corrective feedback in second language acquisition. *TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2): 1-24. https://doi.org/10.7916/D8BR8RPT

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Pergamon.

Levin, B. B. (2014). The development of teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 48-65). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Lee, I. (2009). Ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. *ELT Journal, 63*(1): 13–22. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn010

Lee, E. J. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System*, *41*: 217-230.

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 60*(2): 309–365.

Li, S. (2014). The interface between feedback type, L2 proficiency, and the nature of the linguistic target. *Language Teaching Research, 18*(3): 373-396. doi:10.1177/1362168813510384

Li, S. (2017). Teacher and learner beliefs about corrective feedback. In Nassaji, H., Kartchava, E. (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 143–157). Taylor & Francis.

Li, S. (2018). Data collection in the research on the effectiveness of corrective feedback: A synthetic and critical review. In A. Gudmestad, A. Edmonds (Eds.), *Critical Reflections on Data in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 333-61). John Benjamins.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*(4): 429-448. doi:10.1017/S0272263100009517

Loewen, S. (2011). Focus on form. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning Volume II* (pp. 576-592). Routledge.

Long, M. (1977). Teacher feedback on learner error: mapping cognitions. In H. Brown, C. Yorio, and R. Crymes (Eds.), *Teaching and learning English as a second language: trends in research and practice* (pp. 278–93). TESOL.

Lyster, R., & Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 59:* 453–498.

Lyster, R. & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*: 269–300.

Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*(1): 37-66.

Lyster, R. & Sato, M. (2013). Skill Acquisition Theory and the role of practice in L2 development. In M. P. G. Mayo, M. J. G. Mangado & M. M. Adrián (Eds.), *Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 71-91). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.9.07ch4

Lyster, R., Saito, K. & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching, 46*(01): 1-40. doi:10.1017/S02614448 12000365

Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. Applied Linguistics, 27(3): 405–430. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami051

Mackey, A. & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*(1): 79-103. doi:10.1017/S0272263105050047

Mitchell, R., Myles, F. & Marsden, E. (2019). *Second language learning theories.* Routledge.

Mori, R. (2002). Teachers' beliefs and corrective feedback. *JALT Journal, 24*(1): 48-69. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ24.1-3

Mori, R. (2011). Teacher cognition in corrective feedback in Japan. *System, 39*: 451–467.

Nassaji, H. & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness*, *9*(1): 34-51. doi:10.1080/09658410008667135

Norris, J. & Ortega, L. (2003). Defining and measuring SLA. In C.J. Doughty & M.H. Long (Eds.), The handbook of second language acquisition (pp. 717-761). Blackwell Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756492.ch21

Olafson, L., Grandy, C. S. & Owens, M. C. (2014). Qualitative Approaches to Studying Teachers' Beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 128-149). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Oliver, R. & Adams, R. (2021). Oral Corrective Feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 187-206). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108589789.010

Ölmezer-Öztürk, E. (2016). Beliefs and practices of Turkish EFL teachers regarding oral corrective feedback: A small-scale classroom research study. *The Language Learning Journal, 47*(2): 219-228. doi: 10.1080/09571736.2016.1263360

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62* (3): 307–32.

Pannell, J. L., Partsch, F. & Fuller, N. (2017). The output hypothesis: From theory to practice. *TESOL Working Paper Series, 15:* 126–159.

Rassaei, E. (2014). Scaffolded feedback, recasts, and l2 development: A sociocultural perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*: 417-431. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12060.x

Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (2022). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Third edition). Pearson Education.

Roothooft, H. & Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness, 25*(4): 318-335. doi:10.1080/09658416.2016.1235580

Russell, V. (2009). Corrective feedback, over a decade of research since Lyster and Ranta (1997): Where do we stand today? *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 6* (1): 21–31.

Russell, V. & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar: A meta-analysis of the research. In J. M. Norris, L. Ortega (Eds.), S*ynthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133–164). John Benjamins.

Sarandi, H. (2016). Oral corrective feedback: A question of classification and application. *TESOL Q, 50*: 235-246. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.285

Sarandi, H., & Çelik, M. E. (2018). The effects of explicit recasts and output-only prompts on learning L2 grammar. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, 34*(4): 981-998.

Sarandi, H. (2020). Mixed corrective feedback and the acquisition of third person '-s'. *The Language Learning Journal, 48*(4): 402-413. doi:10.1080/09571736.2017.1400579

Schraw, G. & Olafson, L. (2014). Assessing teachers' beliefs: challenges and solutions. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 87-105). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

Segalowitz, N. (2003). Automaticity and second languages. In C.J. Doughty & M.H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*. (pp. 382-408). Blackwell Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756492.ch13

Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research, 8*(3): 263-300. doi:10.1191/1362168804lr146oa

Sheen, Y. (2010). Introduction: The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2): 169–179. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990489

Sheen, Y. (2011). Corrective feedback, individual differences and second language learning. Dordrecht: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0548-7_1

Skott, J. (2014). The promises, problems, and prospects of research on teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.). *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs (1st ed.)* (pp. 13-30). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437

SPSS. (2015). IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 23.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3): 320-337.

Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Swain, M. & Suzuki, W. (2008). Interaction, output, and communicative language learning. In B. Spolsky, FM Hult (eds.), *The handbook of educational linguistics* (pp. 557-570). Blackwell Publishing.

Ur, P. (1999). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge University Press.

VanPatten, B., & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key terms in second language acquisition.* Bloomsbury Publishing.

Valeo, A. (2021). Classroom-based research in corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 147-163). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108589789.008

Watson-Gegeo, K.A. & Nielsen, S. (2003). Language socialization in SLA. In C.J. Doughty & M.H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* (pp.155-177). Blackwell Publishing. doi: 10.1002/9780470756492.ch7

Yüksel, D., Soruç, A. & McKinley, J. (2021). Teachers' beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback in university EFL classes. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 31*: 362– 382.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

The Questionnaire on Oral Corrective Feedback (Yüksel et al., 2021)

Dear participants,

The following questions are about oral corrective feedback on learners' language mistakes during the classroom activities. Corrective feedback refers to any sign or indication you give to your students when your students utter a non-target-like item. As you may know, it can be in different forms (e.g., recast, repetition, elicitation, explicit correction, etc.)

Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary, and you have the right to terminate your participation at any time without penalty. Your participation in this research will be completely anonymous to the researcher. All of your answers will be kept confidential and will not be used in any form other than for research purposes. Any results that are reported will only be presented in the aggregate across all respondents to the survey. Please feel free to consult with the researcher if you want to express any concerns or get extra information about the classification of corrective feedback or some sample sentences (e-mail address: akapci@bandirma.edu.tr).

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

I have read and understand the above consent form; I certify that I am 18 years old or older, and, by selecting "Yes" below, I indicate my willingness to participate in the study voluntarily. ☐ Yes

Gender:

Age:

Nationality:

Years of teaching experience:

Years of teaching experience at the university level:

The highest degree obtained:

Major:

Extra credentials/qualifications about your job:

1. If you would like to identify the effectiveness of giving corrective feedback on your students' language mistakes, how would you rate it in a percentile scale? Please use the following scale to answer this question. Here, if you circle 100, then it means it is extremely important and effective.

Lower percentages would denote less importance about its effectiveness in your students' language development:

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

2. How often do you correct your students' mistakes in classroom oral communication? Please use the following scale to answer this question.

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

3. Teachers may provide or may choose not to provide oral corrective feedback on their students' grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary mistakes. How often would you provide corrective feedback on your students' different types of feedback? How would you rate each on a percentile scale? For example, if you give feedback on all of your students' grammar mistakes, it would be 100%.

Grammar

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Pronunciation

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Vocabulary

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

4. There are (at least) three sources in providing oral corrective feedback to learners' mistakes in a classroom setting. The learners can correct their mistakes on their own(self-correction), their peers can correct these mistakes (peer correction), or teachers can treat them (teacher correction). On a weighted scale of 100, how would you distribute the three sources of feedback provider? Here, you are asked to give percentages for each source and your total percentage should be 100.

For example:

Learners themselves	Their peers	Teachers	Total
20%	10%	70%	100%

Your answer:

Learners themselves	Their peers	Teachers	Total
%	%	%	100%

5. Teachers can give oral corrective feedback to their students' mistakes immediately after the mistake (immediate feedback) or sometime later (delayed feedback). How would you put a percentage about the time you give feedback on? For example, you may choose to give immediate feedback 40% of the time and choose to give delayed feedback 60%. Remember that your total percentage will be 100.

Immediate feedback	Delayed feedback	Total
%	%	100%

6. How you would give feedback in some specific situations? Please circle one of the feedback types (the one you think most effective) to the following student mistakes. You will do the same in the ten questions below.

6.1. Teacher: What did you do at home last night?

Student: I goed home late so I couldn't do much.

A. Teacher: No, not 'goed', you should use '*went'*.

B. Teacher: You went home late? Why? What did you do?

C. Teacher: I'm sorry?

D. Teacher: You need to use the past form of the verb.

E. Teacher: You. . . (pausing)? (rising intonation)

F. Teacher: I GOED home late. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

6.2. Student: I study in Gazi University?

A. Teacher: No, not 'in', it's '*at'*.

B. Teacher: You study at Gazi University. Hmm. Where is it?

C. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?

D. Teacher: I study IN Gazi University. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

E. Teacher: You study. . . (pausing)? (rising intonation)

F. Teacher: We use 'at' instead of 'in' when we talk about the university we study.

6.3. Teacher: Where did you stay in London?

Student: I stayed in a hotel [hotəl].

A. Teacher: No, not [hotəl], it's 'hotel'. (correct pronunciation)

B. Teacher: You stayed in a hotel. How did you like it? (correct pronunciation)

C. Teacher: I'm sorry? Can you say that again?

D. Teacher: I stayed in a HOTEL. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

E. Teacher: I stayed in a... (pausing)? (rising intonation)

F. Teacher: We pronounce the 'hotel' with /e/ sound, not schwa /ə/.

6.4. Teacher: When do you wake up in the morning?

Student: I wake up in 8 AM.

A. Teacher: No, not in 8 a.m., '*at* 8 a.m.'.

B. Teacher: You wake up at 8 a.m. Good...

C. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat your sentence?

D. Teacher: I wake up IN 8 a.m. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

E. Teacher: I wake up . . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

F. Teacher: We use 'at' when we talk about the time, not 'in'.

6.5. Teacher: Did you call your friend last night?

Student: No, I got the wrong [wroŋ] number.

A. Teacher: No, not [wroŋ], it's '*wrong'*. (correct pronunciation)

B. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?

C. Teacher: I got the…. (pausing)? (rising intonation).

D. Teacher: WRONG number. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

E. Teacher: /w/ sound at the beginning of the word 'wrong' is silent. We don't say it in English.

F. Teacher: You got the wrong number. That's awful. (correct pronunciation)

6.6. Teacher: What makes you happy in life?

Student: I love thinking about my future and making plans.

A. Teacher: No, not /t/, '*th*inking'. (correct pronunciation)

B. Teacher: I love . . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

C. Teacher: I love THINKING about... (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

D. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?

E. Teacher: Thinking about (correct pronunciation)

F. Teacher: The correct pronunciation is 'thinking'. We pronounce these two letters as /θ/.

6.7. Student: In the apartment I live, there are four stories.

A. Teacher: No, not apartment, it is '*building'*.

B. Teacher: In the . . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

C. Teacher: 'Apartment is a false cognate for Turkish speakers. We use 'building' in English with that meaning.

D. Teacher: In the building you live, there are four stories...

E. Teacher: I'm sorry?

F. Teacher: In the APARTMENT I live, there are four stories. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

6.8. Student: I didn't remember him to come to the party. I should have called him in advance.

A. Teacher: 'Remember' and 'remind' have different meanings. 'Remind' is making someone remember. Be careful.

B. Teacher: No, not 'remember', it should be '*remind'*.

C. Teacher: You didn't remind him to come to the party. I see.

D. Teacher: I didn't . . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

E. Teacher: Can you repeat again?

F. Teacher: I didn't REMEMBER him to do come to the party. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

6.9. Teacher: What did you do at the weekend?

Student: I was really busy [buzi]. [wrong pronunciation]

A. Teacher: Can you say that again?

B. Teacher: No, not [buzi], you should say *'busy'*. (correct pronunciation)

C. Teacher: I was really. . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

D. Teacher: I was really BUSY. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

E. Teacher: You were really busy. Why? (correct pronunciation)

F. Teacher: It is /i/ sound that we have in 'busy' even though the letter is "u."

6.10. Student: I sent the letter two months before. Did you receive them?

A. Teacher: I sent the letter two months . . . (pausing)? (rising intonation).

B. Teacher: I sent the letter two months BEFORE. (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

C. Teacher: You sent the letter two months ago? I didn't receive..

D. Teacher: No, not 'before', you need to say '*ago'*.

E. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?

F. Teacher: We should use 'ago' here. 'Before' isn't suitable.

7. Do you think that it is important to give feedback to your student on language mistakes? Do you find it effective? Why / Why not?

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

9. What type(s) of errors do you think should be corrected immediately? What type(s) of errors do you think should be corrected later? Why?

APPENDIX B

The Checklist for Classroom Observations

Teacher's name	**Activity type** *(Fluency-oriented/ Accuracy-based)*	**Timing** *(Immediate/ Delayed)*	**CF type** *(Taxonomy of Lyster& Ranta, 1997)*	**Ignoring error**	**Uptake**	**Peer-correction**
Pronunciation Error	1. 2. …					
Vocabulary Error	1. 2. …					
Grammar Error	1. 2. ..					

APPENDIX C

Excerpts from In-Class Conversations

(Statements and phrases in parenthesis, like (...), are only for giving information on student errors, feedback moves, ignoring by the participants, and sometimes even the class flow. They may also refer to a specific student's name. None of them involve students' or instructors' utterances.)

1. Miri

Miri: Uh, today we're starting a new unit at this Unit 8. During this unit, we gonna talk about money. OK, how do you spend your money? Do you save money? We're gonna talk all about money, how people spend their money? Or do you like department stores or you like High Street shops, independent stores? Which ones do you like most and what do you think about shopping? First question, do you like shopping? Who wants to talk? What kind of shopping do you like?

S1: Yes, I like teacher.

Miri: Who is talking?

S1: It's ….. (telling his name).

Miri: OK, you like shopping? What kind of shopping do you like? I mean, what do you buy?

S1: Uh, clothes.

Miri: Uh-huh.

S1: Shoes.

Miri: Shoes, clothes...

S1: Yes, and pants.

Miri: Pants, uh-huh… So, you generally buy clothes for yourself, right?

S1: And accessories.

Miri: Accessories for example?

S1: A clock. Uh. Necklace (a vocabulary error).

Miri: You talk about this? (Showing his watch). This is not a clock. This is…? (providing elicitation)

S1: Watch (signaling an uptake)

Miri: Watch, uh-huh. Clock is on the wall. OK, if you put it on the wall, it is a clock. But if you put it on your wrist, it is watch (metalinguistic comments). You like to buy watch. What else?

S1: Yes. And necklace and glasses (a vocabulary error).

Miri: And glasses like sunglasses (providing recast).

S1: Yes.

Miri: OK, so I think you care about your appearance.

S1: Yes, of course.

Miri: Yes, of course (laughing), alright. How, how often do you go shopping? I mean, you go every month or every week.

S1: Every week.

Miri: Every week you go shopping. Wow.

S1: I am going but I am not uhm…

Miri: Buying all the time.

S1: I am not buying all time, yes.

Miri: Uh-huh.

S1: Uh, just uh. Hocam şey neydi ya gezmek travel demem, seyahat mi demek o?

Miri: You just… Window shopping… So, you go window shopping, not you buy something all the time…

2. Mila

Mila: Would you like to take over your father or your mother's job? (Naming one of the students) He says he doesn't want to take over his father or mother's job (possibly writing that in the chat box). What do they do? Are they difficult jobs or are they boring jobs? Why do you not want to take over their jobs?

S1: My father is a policeman, and I don't like police jobs, kind of. And my mother is a (a voice problem) …

Mila: Your mother is what? I couldn't hear that.

S1: Nurse.

Mila: Oh, that's also difficult.

S1: And I don't like hospital jobs, too. I like computers and I wanna be electrician.

Mila: Okay, I see. So, you wouldn't like to take over your parents' job. That's very nice, good. Others? Hiç mi kimse yok, annemin işini yapmak isterdim, babamın işini yapmak isterdim diyen? Yes? (Naming another student to speak)

S2: Uh, I wouldn't take my father's job.

Mila: What is his job?

S2: Mm, it has something like electronic cars and something like that (grammar and vocabulary errors; an ambiguity in expressing his exact job and a misuse of the pronoun).

Mila: Mm, you wouldn't like to take over your father's job because it is difficult or because it is boring or for some other reason? (Ignoring grammar and vocabulary errors).

S2: No because I'm afraid of cars so…

Mila: Oh, you're afraid of cars. Okay alright, thank you very much for your answer. Yes please? (Allowing S3 to speak)

S3: I wouldn't like to take over my mother or my father's job because my mother is kindergarten teacher (minor error in usage; the lack of indefinite article).

Mila: Oh (ignoring grammatical error).

S3: And my mother's job is very noisy.

Mila: Uh-huh, I see yeah, also it is very difficult. Every day, I'm sure, every day, she comes home with a big headache.

S3: Yes of course.

Mila: Ok thank you for your answer. OK, now, look at number two, the second question. It says have you ever done a job or a task that turned into a nightmare? Think

about this. You started doing something, but something went wrong, and it turned into a nightmare. Have you job or a task in your personal life maybe? … Maybe you don't have an answer for this in your life. It's not a very common thing. Okay, let's look at number three, I think everyone has something here. What boring tasks take up your time? On which boring tasks do you spend your time on? Cleaning the house takes up time and I think it's boring. What about you?

S2: Doing the dishes.

Mila: Doing?

S2: Doing the dishes.

Mila: Oh OK, doing the dishes. Yes, you're right I hate that too. Uh-huh, boring tasks that take up your time, it can be tidying your room, it can be… I don't know. What boring things do you do on your daily life? Don't say English lessons because well, I will see you tomorrow, and I can make you pay. Yok mu hayatınızda hiç böyle sıkıcı bir iş, zamanınızı alan? Ironing, cleaning maybe. Yes please (naming another student).

S4: I have boring task (error in usage; the lack of plural -s). I hate washing the dishes, I hate also ironing (error in usage; a syntax error).

Mila: Ironing OK, so do you do them on your daily life now? (Ignoring her both grammar errors)

S4: Yes.

Mila: Hmm, so they take up your time, I see, OK. Have you ever turned down a good offer? You remember, to turn down means to refuse an offer, to say no to an offer. Have you ever turned down a good offer? … Siz hiç iyi bir teklif geri çevirdiniz mi?

S4: Teacher I couldn't remember (grammatical error).

Mila: Yeah, you cannot remember okay (recasting the error).

3. Tera

Tera: OK guys, I'm starting the discussion. Because we are going to discuss about something. Procrastination. It is here. Procrastination, OK, are you a planner or a procrastinator? So, what is it? What is a procrastinator?

S1: Erteleme.

Tera: Evet procrastinate ertelemek, it is doing things in the last time, last minute (writing the word and meaning on a stick note).

Tera: What do you procrastinate? For example, do you procrastinate your homework? Yes... (naming one of students).

S2: I sometimes procrastinate my homework or to do things.

Tera: Uh-huh.

S2: Or if I have a work to do, anything.

Tera: Hmm. And when do you procrastinate? I mean uhm, for example, if something is hard to do like your homework…you procrastinate it. Do you procrastinate when you find something is hard to do?

S2: No, if it is difficult, I don't procrastinate.

Tera: Oh, really, because?

S2: I'm a perfectionist.

Tera: Uh-huh. OK. And if it is difficult, you like it and you start earlier?

S2: Yeah. Yes. And I have to do it correctly.

Tera: Uh-huh. OK. And if you don't know how to do it, you pass and you spend more time to learn how to do it, right?

S2: Yep.

Tera: OK, it's perfect. What about the others? What do you generally procrastinate? Yes… (calling one student to express ideas)

S3: Maybe housework.

Tera: Housework because?

S3: I'm a little tired.

Tera: You are a little tired because of the housework because there are lots of things to do.

S3: Yes.

Tera: And your mother lives most of the things uh, to you because you are young, and she has lots of things to do also. She is cooking I don't know... maybe cleaning the

kitchen, but you do the other things. Do you share the responsibilities with your mother? Or I don't know if you have any sisters or brothers?

S3: I haven't sister (usage error), but my mom does it all (error in pronouncing “all” /al /).

Tera: Does it? (The pronunciation error hindered the understanding)

S3: Does it all (repeating the error)

Tera: Aha. Your mother does all the things (ignoring the usage error but recasting for the pronunciation one). OK at home and you don't do it then?

S3: Maybe.

Tera: Sometimes you do then. Just to help your mother

S3: Yes…

4. Rona

Rona: Our topic is teaching tolerance and we have a picture here. The picture is about the reading text. What is our text about? Can we guess by looking that picture? What can we say about text by looking at picture? We have a picture here and it is about our text. What is the topic?

S1: Hoşgörüyü öğretmek amaçlı bişey mi acaba?

Rona: Yes, could be. Peki what can you say about the picture?... Konumuzun başlığı social psychology, teaching tolerance ve bir de we have this picture. What is our topic?

S2: İngilizce mi söyleyelim hocam?

Rona: Yes, please.

S2: Tamam.

Rona: Ne olabilir? Sosyal psikoloji ana başlık, teaching tolerance alt başlık, and we have this picture. Children are holding their hands; colorful hands let's say.

S2: Hocam it describes the relationship between people of different races (pronunciation errors in “describe” /diskalps/ and in “races” /raysıs/). Yani farklı ırklardaki insanları anlatıyor olabilir mi hepsinin farklı bir ten rengi var ya.

Rona: Yes, perfect yes, it's about… Actually, we will read about a text about discrimination (ignoring both pronunciation errors) … Before you read, we have two

questions here. Martin Luther King. What do you know about him? Do you know him?... Who was he? He was a Baptist Minister and social rights activist in the United States in the 1950s and 60s. He was a leader of the American Civil Rights Movement. He has a famous speech everybody knows it, maybe the most famous speech.

S1: Hocam papaz değil miydi sanki bu adam?

Rona: Yes, uh-huh and a civil rights activist… And I have a dream, do you know it Meşhur bir konuşma vardır öyle, I have a dream diye. Bir alıntı line vardır, hiç duydunuz mu daha önce?

S2: Şey mi hocam bu adam, bu toplumdaki sivil haklarla ilgili böyle yapılan bir grupta seçkin bir lider mi?

Rona: Uh-huh. Tabi aynen öyle. I have a dream diye de çok meşhur bir konuşması vardır… Bundan yola çıkan bir lider, çok meşhur bir lider. Bir de alıntısı var ikinci cümlede; "the time is always right to do what is right". What does it mean? Ne demek?

S2: Doğru olanı yapmak için doğru zaman, her zaman doğru mu diyor? Yok…

Rona: … Explain what you think this means? What can we say about it?... Everybody can do something right if they put their minds to it… Okay, the topic is "A class divided"- Jane Elliot's famous lesson… We can see the children and the teacher. Okay, the first paragraph is here, please read that, then we will discuss about it (She gave students time to read the paragraphs in order on their own and they did the activities on main ideas of the paragraphs.)

Rona: Yes, we have two questions (about the second paragraph).

S2: Hocam experience mı? (pronunciation error /iksperriyəns/)

Rona: Elliot decided to have her class read about or experience discrimination (rereading the item and recasting the pronunciation error). Do you agree with your friend?

S2: Diğeri de hocam not wearing bence (another pronunciation error /not/ /vîrink/)

Rona: Bakalım first one is yes, experience discrimination because she taught a lesson to the students. Öğrencilere öğretiyor o dersi. And the children wearing or not wearing the collars were treated badly (recast for pronunciation error) …

5. Ted

Ted: Okay, morning again. We are on page 12. Okay, in this part we have some comments below, okay? Man can't watch sports on TV and talk to their girlfriend at the same time. What do you think about this comment? Do you agree? It means that men only can do one task, but women can do more than one. Remember the word multitasking for women? Do you agree with this idea?

S1: Yes.

Ted: Yes, she agrees okay. Any other opinions?

S2: It depends uh…

Ted: It depends…

S2: I think it depends the match I think (a vocabulary error).

Ted: OK, it depends the match ok (Not realizing the error, so ignoring it). The second one; women don't know how to read maps. What do you think about this one?

S3: I don't agree.

Ted: It's about I think navigating ability, finding a place maybe with using or without using a map. I don't agree, I disagree with these ideas, okay? Because I think these are stereotypes, in Turkish klişe. Yani ben bunları klişe olarak buluyorum arkadaşlar.

S3: Ben de hocam.

Ted: Okay, for example girls, I have a question for you. Can you read maps easily?

S3: Of course, 21. yy. da yaşıyoruz.

Ted: S1, (naming her) what about you? Do you have difficulty in reading maps?

S1: Yes, I can't read easily.

Ted: Yes, okay. Next one, women remember every outfit they have worn for the past 20 years. Men can't remember what they were wearing yesterday without looking on the floor. This is true for me, what do you think? Do you remember everything?

S1: No, I'm really forgot (grammatical error).

Ted: No (ignoring the error) … OK, men can buy a pair of shoes on the Internet in 90 seconds, women like to take 3 weeks. What do you think?

S2: Benim bot seçmem 15 sn sürdü (laughing).

S3: I agree, yes yani.

Ted: “A baby is crying, a dog is barking, a doorbell is ringing but the man of the house is sleeping. Men can sleep through anything, women can’t.” This is opposite with my wife, okay? I I can't sleep easily, what about you boys?

S2: I can sleep, it's not problem for me (minor usage error).

Ted: (Ignoring it) I can hear everything so I disagree with this idea. “Man speak in sentences, women speak in paragraphs.”

S3: I don’t agree.

S2: Hocam bu bana göre yanlış (laughing).

Ted: Yes, that’s right matter.

S1: Hocam bu klişe bence. Hocam bir de yapılan bir araştırmaya göre erkekler kadınlardan daha çok dedikodu yapıyormuş, kadınların adı çıkmış yani (laughing).

Ted: Maybe, olabilir (laughing) OK… Now let’s move on to the next part, OK? Grammar part, review of verb tenses. Here we are revising the tenses we have learned, okay? What are they, present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous? As you remember I always ask you two questions when we learn a new grammar structure. What is the, what are the questions, 2 questions.

S2: Why we use (usage error in question).

Ted: Why we use it, why do we use it okay (recasting). And?

S2: How, how do we use it? (a signal of uptake)

Ted: Yes, how do we use it? That’s right, so let’s try to remember why we use and how we use, Ok, these verb tenses OK? Match the underlined verbs below with the tenses, OK? Here we have four sentences above, can you read and match them? You have 20 seconds… OK, first one, S3? (Naming her).

S3: Hocam ilk önce cümleyi okuyorum. We asked for comments, and this is what you said (pronunciation error in ‘asked’).

Ted: We asked for comments (recasting), and this is what you said…

6. Amy

Amy: How do you feel about it? Is it a good thing to study in a different city, different from your hometown? Would you like to share your ideas with me? I know you are online students, but still your school is in a different city. For example, most of you couldn't come to … (naming the city where the university locates) because you don't have place to stay. Maybe because you have different reasons. I am not sure so, for example, let's see, … where do you live? (Naming a student)

S1: I live in İstanbul.

Amy: Istanbul, OK, so why did you choose ……. (the city)?

S1: I don't know.

Amy: Ah, it is just by chance. Maybe.

S1: Yes.

Amy: OK, good. Have you come to … before?

S1: No.

Amy: No, never. Maybe next year then.

S1: Maybe.

Amy: Why not? OK. What about you …? (Naming S7) Where do you live?

S2: I live in Ankara.

Amy: Ankara? OK, I love Ankara because for 20 years I lived in Ankara before coming to … Five years ago, we moved to ... because of job reasons. So, I love Ankara, every part of Ankara. Are you in which part?

S2: Uh, I don't understand.

Amy: Uh-huh, OK. Which part of Ankara do you live in?

S2: Can you repeat slow?

Amy: You live in Ankara. Which part, for example, do you live in Çankaya, do you live in Sincan, do you live in other parts?

S2: Mamak.

Amy: You live in Mamak. OK, so why did you choose to come to ….? Your school is in …, university is in …. But you live in Ankara. Why did you choose ….? Can you hear me?

S2: I think a cancel in …. (Usage error; an unclear utterance, a pronunciation error in "think").

Amy: Say it again, please. I couldn't get it (clarification request for the usage, ignoring the mispronunciation).

S2: Hocam şu an tüm fiilleri karıştırdım kafamda da (laughing).

Amy: Olsun sen çabala birlikte yapıyoruz böyle. Kim sanki çok güzel yapıyor?...

S2: Bakabilir miyim ben, fiilin anlamına bir telefondan baksam olur mu?

Amy: Hadi bak bakalım (laughing)… Where do you live? (Naming S16)

S3: I live in …. (Naming the city, she lives in).

Amy: Ah really? Why don't you come to school then?

S3: I don't know.

Amy: Yeah, you like online education?

S3: Yes.

Amy: OK, good. So, there is a university in …., what is your department?

S3: Mathematical part (two vocabulary errors).

Amy: Maths, only Maths your department (recasting for both). OK, would you like to study in a different city or are you happy in …?

S3: Now I want to in Istanbul (usage error; the lack of infinitive verb).

Amy: Ah, you want to study in Istanbul? (Recasting the error).

S3: Yes.

Amy: In university exam, did you choose any school from Istanbul?

S3: Yes, I did.

Amy: OK, for example, which one did you choose?

S3: But uhm...

Amy: Sorry?

S3: But I choose in … (she named the city where she currently studies, also she made two usage errors; one in tense and one in preposition).

Amy: OK. But you, you wrote some universities from Istanbul plus you wrote this city (ignoring errors). Is it true?

S3: True.

Amy: OK, good. For example, which university in Istanbul? Do you remember?

S3: Istanbul Üniversitesi (a vocabulary error).

Amy: Istanbul University you wanted (recasting). OK. Do you remember the order number of your choice for …? (naming the city of the current university) Which number was … for your choices?

S3: I don't remember (pronunciation error in "remember").

Amy: You don't remember? (recasting) OK. This is hometown. Maybe it is good for you. I am not sure…Would you like to work in Istanbul? Maybe for work after school. Would you like to go to Istanbul to live in Istanbul?

S3: I would like to Istanbul (usage error; the lack of verb).

Amy: Why not? OK, it is a big city. There are a lot of alternatives. Maybe one day (ignoring the error). OK. Are you ready …? (Naming S7 again) Did you find your verbs?

S2: Yes, yes.

Amy: OK, so tell us. Why did you choose this city?

S2: Uh. Because uh I think a very cold and it's expensive (pronunciation error in "think" and usage error; the deficiency of subject after the verb "think" and an error in the meaning).

Amy: It is cold and expensive in …. (Naming the city here and providing recast for the usage error and also the repetition for the meaning error, ignoring the pronunciation one. She also provided elicitation in her following statement) …

CURRICULUM VITAE

AYŞE NUR KAPCI

TEACHING ASSISTANT

Education : **Master of Arts**

İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University

Graduate Education Institute

English Language Teaching

Bachelor of Arts

Hacettepe University (2009)

Faculty of Education

English Language Teaching Department

Academic Experience: Teaching Assistant

BANDIRMA ONYEDİ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY (2018 -…)

Teaching Assistant

MUŞ ALPARSLAN UNIVERSITY (2013-2018)