



**IMPACT OF DELAYED CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON TURKISH EFL
STUDENTS' IMPROVEMENT IN INTERACTIVE TASKS: A STUDY WITH
PREPARATORY STUDENTS**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Eskişehir 2021

**IMPACT OF DELAYED CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON TURKISH EFL
STUDENTS' IMPROVEMENT IN INTERACTIVE TASKS: A STUDY WITH
PREPARATORY STUDENTS**

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

MA THESIS

**Department of Foreign Language Education
MA in English Language Education Program
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE**

**Eskişehir
Anadolu University
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
December 2021**



ÖZET

GECİKMELİ GERİ BİLDİRİMİN ETKİLEŞİMLİ AKTİVİTELERDE KULLANIMININ TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN GELİŞİMİNE ETKİSİ: HAZIRLIK ÖĞRENCİLERİYLE BİR ÇALIŞMA

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Yabancı Diller Eğitim Anabilim Dalı,

İngilizce Eğitim Programı,

Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Aralık 2021

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE

Konuşma becerisinin önem kazanmasıyla öğrencilerin performanslarına verilen geri dönüt bir gerekliliktir. Sözel düzeltici geri dönütün verileceği zaman ise tartışılmaktadır. Geciktirilmiş düzeltici geri dönütün kendi başına ve öğrencilerin konuşma yeteneklerine katkısını ölçen çok az çalışmada yer alması ve daha az kaygıya sebep olması açısından tavsiye edildiği gözlemlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla, etkileşimli aktivitelerden sonra geciktirilmiş düzeltici geri dönütün üniversite hazırlık programında hibrit eğitim alan öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerine olan katkısı ölçülmek istenmiştir. Nicel veri öğrencilerin interaktif konuşma becerilerini ölçen konuşma sınavlarıyla ve nitel veri deney gruplarına uygulanan bir anketle elde edilmiştir. İçerik analizi ve SPSS programı analizler için kullanılmıştır. Nicel veri bu tür geri dönütün öğrencilerin etkileşimli ve genel konuşma becerilerinin geliştirilmesinde etkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Nitel veri analizi ise öğrencilerin kullanılan aktivitelerine karşı olumlu bir tutum geliştirdiklerini, İngilizcilerinin aldıkları geri dönüt ile geliştiğini ve hatalarını kavradıklarını, bu uygulamanın daha az kaygıya sebep olarak öğrencilerin duygusal durumlarına pozitif etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Düzeltici sözel geri dönüt, Geciktirilmiş düzeltici sözel geri dönüt, Etkileşimli aktiviteler, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler, Hibrit eğitim

ABSTRACT

IMPACT OF DELAYED CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON TURKISH EFL STUDENTS' IMPROVEMENT IN INTERACTIVE TASKS: A STUDY WITH PREPARATORY STUDENTS

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Department of Foreign Language Education,

Programme in English Language Teaching

Anadolu University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences, December 2021

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE

Because speaking as an interactive skill has gained importance, feedback to oral productions has become a part of teaching cycle. On this point, one of the controversial issues while providing OCF is timing. There are few studies carried out for this point, and although delayed OCF is offered in terms of its leading to less anxiety, there is no single study dealing with it on its own terms and its relation to speaking skills improvement of learners. Thus, the study aimed to reveal whether there are any effects of delayed OCF on tertiary level EFL learners when offered after interactive activities in hybrid teaching. Mixed methods design was applied. For quantitative data, learners' speaking performances were measured in pre and post-tests while the qualitative data were attained through a survey implemented among experimental groups. Content analysis and SPSS program were utilized for analysis. The quantitative findings indicate that delayed OCF is effective in improving learners' speaking skills in interactive communication and in general. Also, qualitative analysis shows that learners have formed positive attitudes towards interactive activities, improved their English and understand their errors clearly, and the treatment has affected learners' emotional state positively thanks to making them feel less anxiety.

Keywords: Oral corrective feedback, Delayed oral corrective feedback, Interactive activities, EFL learners, Hybrid teaching

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would first like to thank my thesis supervisor Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE for her guidance, affection, continual support and constructive feedback. I have learnt a lot from her professional stand and advice as well as her teachings. I feel proud and lucky to have a chance to work with her in this journey. I will always feel gratitude and appreciation towards her.

I would also like to state my gratitude to the jury members of my thesis, Prof. Dr. İlknur SAVAŞKAN and Assist. Dr. Gonca SUBAŞI for their invaluable feedback, valuable recommendations, comments and their kindness.

I am thankful to all the participants who accepted to be a part of this study. I owe thanks to my pre-intermediate students in the institution in 2020-2021.

I have special thanks to Ceren ÇINAR for helping me throughout the process and providing constructive feedback.

I need to express my gratitude to my beloved sister, Leyla BAYRAKTAR because she was kind enough to spare her time for my questions and offer me help during the process.

My sincere thanks also go to my little family, my unborn child, Atlas YEŞİLYURT and my husband, Özgür YEŞİLYURT for his patience, encouragement, motivational talks and guidance throughout the study. He was with me all the time in this journey and provided endless support and encouragement. I feel so blessed to have them with me in this process.

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

22/12/2021

Bu tezin bana ait, özgün bir çalışma olduğunu; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı; bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen tüm veri ve bilgiler için kaynak gösterdiğimi ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi; bu çalışmanın Anadolu Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan “bilimsel intihal tespit programı”yla tarandığını ve hiçbir şekilde “intihal içermediğini” beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda, çalışmamla ilgili yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması durumunda, ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçları kabul ettiğimi bildiririm.

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Eskişehir 2021

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

22/12/2021

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with “scientific plagiarism detection program” used by Anadolu University, and that “it does not have any plagiarism” whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all the ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Eskişehir 2021

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
COVER PAGE.....	i
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI.....	ii
ÖZET	iii
ABSTRACT.....	IVv
ACKNOWLEDGMENT	v
ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ.....	vi
STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Statement of the Problem	3
1.2. Aims of the Study and Research Questions	4
1.3. Significance of the Study.....	4
1.4. Limitations	5

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	6
2.1. Speaking as a Skill.....	6
2.1.1. Definition of speaking.....	6

	<u>Page</u>
2.1.2. Importance of speaking	7
2.1.3. Features of speaking as a skill	7
2.1.4. Problems related to speaking	11
2.2. Teaching Speaking	12
2.3. Interactive Communication	15
2.4. Speaking Anxiety	17
2.5. Speaking Assessment	20
2.6. Oral Corrective Feedback	22
2.6.1. Types of OCF	25
2.6.2. Source of OCF	27
2.6.3. Linguistic targets for OCF	30
2.6.4. Timing of OCF	32

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY	37
3.1. Introduction	37
3.2. Research Design	37
3.3. The Pilot Study	38
3.4. Participants in Experimental and Control Groups	40
3.5. Context	40
3.6. Data Collection Instruments	42
3.6.1. Pre and post test	42
3.6.2. Rubric	42
3.6.3. Audio recordings	43

	<u>Page</u>
3.6.4. Survey	43
3.7. Data Collection Procedure.....	44
3.8. Data Analysis	50

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS	52
4.1. Introduction	52
4.2. Inter-rater Reliability Scores.....	52
4.3. The Results of Quantitative Findings	53
4.3.1 Results of participants' pre and post-tests	53
4.3.2. Findings of each experimental group according to the speaking rubric ..	56
4.3.2.1. Results of experimental group 1	57
4.3.2.2. Results of experimental group 2	58
4.4. The Results of Qualitative Findings.....	60
4.4.1. Positive effect of the treatment on learners' emotional state.....	60
4.4.2. Positive effect of the treatment on learners' English and comprehending their errors	63
4.4.3. The positive attitude towards interactive activities in classrooms	67

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	71
5.1. Introduction	71
5.2. The Effect of Delayed OCF on Learners' Speaking Skills in Interactive Tasks	71
5.3. Delayed OCF and Learners' General Speaking Skills Improvement	73

	<u>Page</u>
5.4. Learners' Perceptions on Delayed OCF	75
5.5. Conclusion	76
5.6. Implications of the Current Study	79
5.7. Suggestions for Further Studies	81
REFERENCES.....	83
APPENDICES	
CURRICULUM VITAE	

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 3.1. First experimental and control group's schedule	44
Table 3.2. Second experimental and control group's schedule	45
Table 3.3. Units and tasks implied in the classrooms in this present study.....	46
Table 3.4. The applied steps in the current study according to weeks	48
Table 3.5. Statistical tests run for the quantitative data	50
Table 4.1. Inter-rater reliability between raters	52
Table 4.2. Sharpio- Wilk normality test of control groups	54
Table 4.3. Sharpio- Wilk normality test of experimental groups	54
Table 4.4. Mann Whitney U test findings of experimental and control groups'	
participants pre-test	54
Table 4.5. Mann Whitney U test findings of experimental and control groups'	
participants post-test	55
Table 4.6. Paired sample t-test results of experimental groups	55
Table 4.7. Sharpio- Wilk normality test of experimental group 1	57
Table 4.8. Comparing pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group 1 participants	
by means of paired samples t-test	57
Table 4.9. Sharpio- Wilk normality test of experimental group 2	58
Table 4.10. Wilcoxon signed ranks test results of experimental group 2	59

Table 4.11. Categories and codes for the first emerging theme	61
Table 4.12. Categories and codes for the second emerging theme	64
Table 4.13. Categories and codes for the third emerging theme	68



LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 2.1. Diagram of spoken and written discourse.....	9
Figure 2.2. Diagram of spoken and written discourse in terms of social aspects	9
Figure 2.3. Main competences of speaking	10
Figure 2.4. Second language speaking competence according to Goh and Burns	13
Figure 2.5. A new model for teaching speaking by Goh and Burns	14

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CF	: Corrective Feedback
CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESP	: English for Specific Purposes
ICC	: Interclass Correlation Coefficient
IELTS	: International English Language Testing System
OCF	: Oral Corrective Feedback
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Feedback can be identified and categorized in various ways. Ramaprasad (1983) defines feedback as a source of outer information given to the person on the expected and actual performance, in doing so, the person is supposed to be upgrading the performance. Similarly, Hattie and Timperley (2007) highlight that feedback occurs as a result of one's performance. The scholars differentiate positive and negative feedback, and though they acknowledge their benefits in different areas, negative feedback has been suggested to be more influential in one's understanding of the performance. Ellis (2009) defines positive feedback as acknowledging learners' performance is successful and appropriate whereas negative feedback is the opposite. Loewen (2012) asserts that negative feedback could be interchangeably used with corrective feedback (CF) or error correction since it conveys the message that learners have produced as inaccurate usages. In addition, Loewen (2012) makes note that feedback could be offered to both oral and written works of students, yet on the grounds that they are disparate in timing and process, they need to be differentiated. Loewen (2012) puts forward that although feedback to written works has to be delayed feedback in nature and written, oral corrective feedback (OCF) could be immediate or delayed and verbal. Besides, Sheen and Ellis (2011) mention oral and written CF have not been given as regarding points in scholars' research. Sheen (2010) argues that the study areas range differently in oral and written feedback. The writer exemplifies that while oral works have been associated with learning continuum and noticing, written feedback has prioritized the way of developing learners' written products. The last issue between these two feedback types is that whereas oral one could be in the form of implicit or explicit, written feedback needs to be always explicit (Sheen, 2010). Therefore, in the scope of this study, only OCF will be the main focus.

As Bailey (2005) pointed out, when the researchers figured out that learning a language occurs by communication, direct effects on teaching were observed; thus, communicative language teaching (CLT) which is a method requiring learners to communicate with one another emerged. With CLT applied in classrooms, CF emerged as a controversial point. On the one hand, when teaching speaking, feedback about students' performances has been

validated as an indispensable point of language teaching as well as learning (Tennant and Negash, 2009). Harmer (2007) also puts forward that students benefit from speaking activities most when activities are intriguing for them to join, they speak as much as possible and surely get CF from their teachers. On the other hand, some scholars opposed the usage of negative feedback in communicative classrooms. For example, Krashen (1985) does not recommend error correction in communicative classrooms and believes that learners acquire a great deal of target language proficiency without error correction. Truscott (2004) criticizes the way the researchers interpret their data on feedback and defends that error correction is not beneficial and efficient. Nevertheless, as Loewen (2012) summarizes, negative feedback is compatible with SLA (second language acquisition) research, interactionist approaches, socio-cultural theory and skills acquisition theory. Together with the popularity of CLT and negative feedback in classrooms, OCF has been analyzed extensively. Among these extensive studies, Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010) Mackey and Goo (2007) and Russell and Spada (2006) carried out meta-analyses on CF. They reached as a conclusion that CF has been evaluated as quite efficient. With their pioneer study and findings, Lyster and Ranta (1997) proposed OCF moves of teachers into some categories that are explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. However, their conclusion at the article is that negotiation of form is offered an important side of effective OCF moves. They link this sort of effectiveness with an adequate level of proficiency. Thus, since interactive communication should be an integral part of developing learners' speaking abilities, Gutierrez (2005) actualized a study on that point and figured out that learners could enhance their speaking skills via interactive tasks as well as CF and various interaction types. Han (2002) underlines the fact that when lessons depend on learners' interaction with one another in CLT classrooms, CF is needed so that fossilization of errors could be avoided.

As it could be grasped, CF includes a lot of questions and is a popular study topic; nevertheless, controversial points reside. After analyzing the studies, Sheen and Ellis (2011) found that OCF could ease learners' acquiring target language. By the time Ellis (2009) investigated CF in detail, there emerged some issues not resolved, and they were *the effect of CF in L2 acquisition, selecting errors to correct, the choice of corrector and the most useful type and lastly the time of the feedback*. Upon the corrector, there are a lot of studies

in the literature on this topic, yet when analyzed, it could be understood that teacher feedback seems to be more influential (Ebrahimi, and Hajmalek, 2016; Khoram, Bazvand, and Sarhad, 2020; Patri, 2002; Van Ginkel, Gulikers, Biemans, and Mulder, 2017). There are many explanations why teacher feedback surpasses peer or self-feedback. Lynch and Maclean (2003) explain that teacher as a feedback's source is more trustworthy and Boughazzoula (2016) realizes that students' perception towards teacher feedback is really positive in terms of its leading awareness among students and increasing self-confidence.

Among the controversial points Sheen and Ellis (2011) reinforced, timing of feedback has been one of the least studied aspects. Although written feedback has called for delayed feedback, this is not valid for OCF (Ellis, 2009). The scholar also does not derive any overarching themes about when it is best to offer OCF, yet it is emphasized that this question needs to be asked to enlighten the issue. Immediate feedback was found to be more effective in the process (Ellis, 2009; King, Young and Behnke, 2000) or both of them was asserted to be effective equally (Quinn, 2014); on the other hand, delayed feedback was associated with its leading to less anxiety and stress among students (Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat, 2015; Shabani and Safari, 2016). Atma and Widiati (2015) also investigated students' preferences and it came out that students had tendency to opt for delayed feedback. Although the referred studies suggest delayed feedback when anxiety is regarded, only Rolin-Ianziti (2010) and Hunter (2011) carried out a study upon delayed feedback on its own despite of the fact that the other mentioned studies analyzed immediate and delayed feedback in juxtaposition.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

There have been some studies carried out to unearth the relationship between anxiety and language learning. In Turkish context, Duman, Göral and Bilgin (2017) revealed that students had high levels of anxiety, which led them to be less participators in the classrooms. Similarly, Şener (2017) validated this learner anxiety and proposed that feedback was one of the sources of this anxiety. Because of Covid-19 and emergency remote teaching (ERT), Cao, Fang, Hou, Han, Hu, Dong, and Zheng (2020) had comprehended that university students had more anxiety. Since delayed feedback has been studied very few in number by itself in studies and it has been asserted to be beneficial to ease anxiety of students by several scholars

such as Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012), there is a need of applying and analyzing it so as to explore its effects on students and their speaking performances in communicative classrooms which require them to build interactive communication with one another in a form of negotiation of meaning.

1.2. Aims of the Study and Research Questions

The aim of the study is to indicate the impact of delayed OCF when it is applied in communicative classrooms to increase interactive communication skills of students with the help of teacher feedback. With the help of this in mind, the current study aims to reveal whether delayed feedback has a direct effect on students' oral communication skills. Another point is to get learners' opinions on the usage of delayed feedback upon interactive communication with their peers. The following research questions were formulated.

1. What is the effect of delayed oral corrective feedback on improving students' speaking skills in interactive tasks?
2. Is there an increase between students' pre-test and post-test speaking scores upon delayed oral corrective feedback?
3. What are the students' perceptions on delayed oral corrective feedback?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Although many scholars find the link between delayed feedback to oral productions of learners and its decreasing the anxiety, there are fairly low studies which analyze delayed feedback on its own. Thus, it carries a great importance to examine this feedback timing upon students' uptake and views when it is consistently applied. In addition to this, the teaching context in which the study is set emphasizes on communicative skills of students through the course book utilized and the curriculum. The course book at hand places a great importance to use of English and speaking skills of students by allowing them to interact with one another. By focusing on students' oral communicative skills, the effect of delayed feedback could be presented in a concise and measurable way. The results of the study could shed lights on the way of enhancing speaking skills of learners of English through delayed OCF; besides, it could give away significant inferences for English language teaching in different settings as well as teacher educators in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments. As

Hunter (2011) foresaw, analyzing the effects of consistent and systematic application of oral delayed feedback could offer new insights to teacher development, teaching or learning a second/foreign language and SLA studies on the grounds that this area has not been enlightened and examined substantially.

1.4. Limitations

This study is limited to pre-intermediate level students in a preparatory school at a private university in Ankara. The number of participants were 40 students. This could be enlarged in the future studies. The time period of implementation was aligned with terms in the preparatory school in which each quarter was for 8 weeks. Students from only two quarters joined the study. Only interactive communication improvements of learners were accompanied by delayed feedback. Hence, the recommendations could be varied, and indications could be multiplied by diversifying the data.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Speaking as a Skill

First of all, speaking as a skill would be defined so as to comprehend its various points clearly. To this end, speaking would be defined, and importance, features as well as problems related to this specific skill would be examined in detail.

2.1.1. Definition of speaking

In Merriam-Webster dictionary, speaking is defined as being able to give speeches or talking. In language teaching, Bailey (2005) describes speaking as a productive as well as an oral skill, and the author continues that speakers transmit a message through these oral productions in a determined way. Chaney and Burk (1998) add another dimension to definition of speaking as saying that it is conveying a meaning with the help of not only orally but also non-verbally in disparate contexts. On the other hand, Bahadorfar and Omidvar (2014) regard an efficient speaking skill as learners' utterances to be comprehended by the audience. Together with writing, speaking could be evaluated as an expressive skill whereas reading and listening are receptive ones (Asan and Çeliktürk-Sezgin, 2020). Additionally, Bouzar (2019) asserts that when developing their speaking, learners are involved in two important procedures which are conveying the ideas and inferring the message given. Burns and Seidlhofer (2010) emphasize that speaking is something every person counts on easily; nevertheless, speaking or learning how to speak includes exquisite and elaborate grasp of the reason, the way and timing of communication in addition to adopting competencies.

Asan and Çeliktürk-Sezgin (2020) also point out that speaking includes many factors such as cognitive, affective and physical. The authors give examples of planning for cognitive, articulation for physical and anxiety for affective one. Lastly, Bygate (2005) gave two main dimensions to identify second language speaking, and the first one is the repertoire referring the speaking including a variety of language properties whereas the latter is based on the contexts that speaking is implemented. Therefore, it could be concluded that second language speaking is made of both language features and socio-psychological conditions.

2.1.2 Importance of speaking

Being able to speak English in a good way has been an important issue since English has been the language to communicate with people having different language backgrounds in a common tongue (Nazara, 2011). Another important point is that Bahrani and Soltani (2012) stated that when students do not get how to speak or have a chance to produce utterances in the language learning classrooms, they could be reckoning that they do not learn and will probably not be eager to continue. Zyoud (2016) comments that the learners consider speaking as the proof of their achievement in the target language.

Namaziandost and Nasri (2019) believe that the learners' attainments in their future careers are accompanied by their speaking skills in the target language, which learners notice in their professional lives. Burns and Seidlhofer (2010) extend the significance of speaking to the point that speaking is a projection of learners' identity in community because it is related to social contexts. Hughes (2011) agrees with this view and explains that learners adopt a new identity when they are speaking in another language seeing that the new language brings new cultural, social as well as political thoughts in its sense, all of which affect learners' style of speaking in the language. Inayah (2017) disputes the academic success of students as depending on their speaking skills and exemplifies that although students need to complete a mini thesis before their graduation, they must take an oral exam for defending their work, so speaking carries significance in their academic lives in addition to daily conversations. Kardaş (2015) links importance of speaking with the individuals' wish to express themselves politely, adequately, and flawlessly in personal, academic, and social aspects of their lives so as to make an impression on others. Thus, it could be deduced that speaking is a must skill to be adopted by language learners since it carries a great deal of importance for learners' academic, daily or cultural success when communicating. As a result, it could be commented that teaching speaking could be crucial in classrooms.

2.1. 3. Features of speaking as a skill

Bygate (1987) underlines two types of skills when explaining speaking. There are motor-perceptive skills in which speakers are occupied with articulation, comprehension of and recalling the sounds and linguistic structures, yet interaction skills also exist when

implementing speaking. Through interaction skill, learners could employ their motor-perceptive skills in their talks by monitoring their communication and deciding on their intentions in the communication. Richards and Renandya (2009) mentioned that speaking is a skill based on a variety of aims, and these aims require many disparate skills. For example, the scholars list some of these purposes as socializing, understanding each other, stating your ideas, convincing a person, instructing a person on what/how to do, asking for permission, or making complaints etc. Therefore, it could be concluded that these aims change the ways speakers perform as well as the context, the speakers, their roles or acquaintance, the speaking activity itself. When speaking is analyzed as a skill, it is completed under time limitations, by creating and processing reciprocal action and endorsing your interactions in a way that it is suitable in that environment as for relationships of signals whether being verbal or non-verbal (Burns and Seidlhofer, 2010). About time limitation of speaking, Alaraj (2017) emphasizes that learners make use of the target language fast for the sake of communication in contrast to writing, and they do not look up the words in the dictionary or review their speeches because of time.

Similarly, Cook (1989) expresses the difference between writing and speaking, and speaking is an “on-line” action which can be explained that speakers cannot retell or change their sentences or wait to reckon on the other speakers’ utterances. In addition, Harmer (2001) comments on the issue and asserts that speaking as a skill requires learners to have linguistic knowledge as well as handling the input given the target language on that moment. After analyzing works of other scholars, Bouzar (2019) expands on this point, and claims that learners do not need to learn only the target language’s features, but they have to acquire compensatory strategies such as paraphrasing, explaining for clarification, or exemplifying.

Hughes (2011) compares speaking and writing with the aim of describing speaking with its natures. In that book, speaking is evaluated as oral/aural channel while writing is visual/motoric channel. The author creates two diagrams so as to underline the difference between spoken and written discourse. When Figure 2.1 is analyzed, it could be inferred that spoken discourse is context dependent, unplanned, temporary, oral/aural and not static, yet written discourse is indeed static, visual/motoric, permanent, planned and decontextualized. As it can be seen, speaking is unplanned and dynamic process which is constant change as a result of recipients of conversations. In Figure 2.2, the author underlines spoken discourse’s

being primary indicator of language, informal, interpersonal, adaptable, wordy and labelling whereas writing is secondary indicator but formal, logical, creating prestige, tending to preserve status quo and legitimate. While Figure 2.1 is revealing how these two skills are produced, Figure 2.2 is referring to social aspects of these skills.

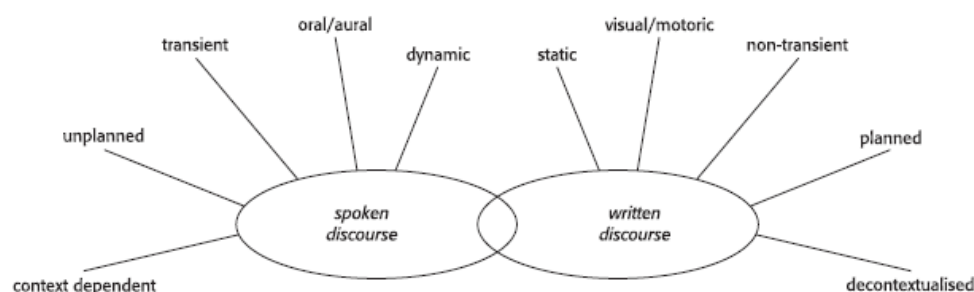


Figure 2.1. *Diagram of spoken and written discourse (Hughes, 2011, pp. 11)*

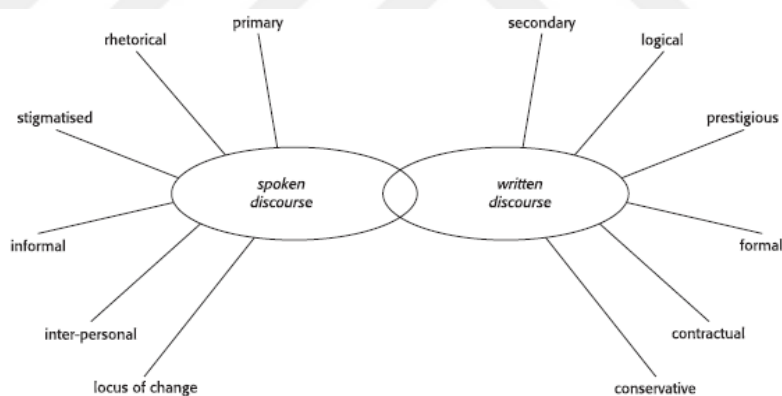


Figure 2.2. *Diagram of spoken and written discourse in terms of social aspects (Hughes, 2011, pp. 12)*

Furthermore, Newby (2011) indicates that Chomsky maintains two terms within the language learning. Competence vs. performance has been recognized in language studies and kept being improved; however, competence is defined as knowledge about the rules of the specific language in people's minds; in contrast, performance is the people's actual use by this linguistic knowledge. When it comes to speaking competence, Shumin (2002) illustrates the competencies that learners need to have to be able to speak competently in the target language by considering the framework of Canale and Swain (1980), it could be viewed that

there are four main competences which are grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse in Figure 2.3. Firstly, grammatical competence in relation to speaking is explained with the knowledge of sounds, syllables, articulation of letters and words, emphasis and intonation (Scarcella and Oxford,1992). Next, discourse competence refers to learners' comprehension of communication's being formal or not, intelligible and having a unity (Shumin, 2002). When it comes to sociolinguistic competence, Shumin (2002) clarifies it as learners' producing utterances according to social and cultural appropriate manners with correct timing and comprehension. Lastly, strategic competence could require learners to take turns, have extended interactions, end or start these interactions or repair any occurring problems (Shumin, 2002).

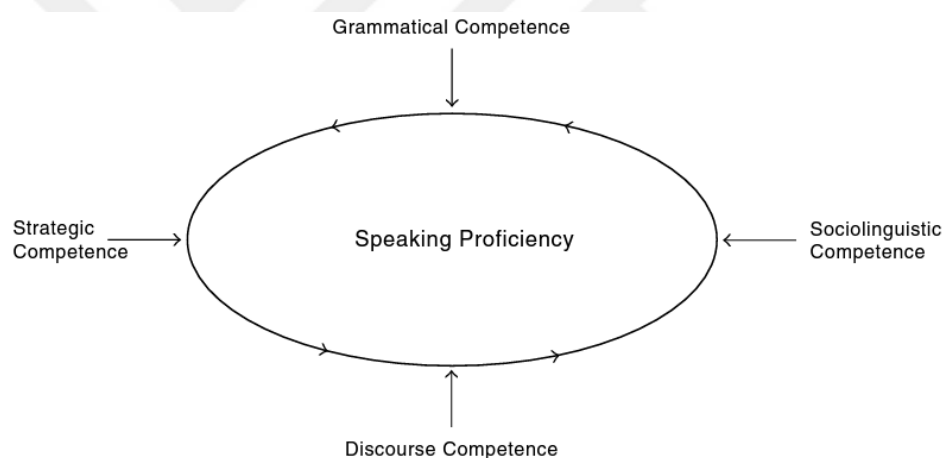


Figure 2.3. *Main competences of speaking (Shumin, 2002, pp. 207)*

Here, it should also be put forward that speaking as a skill is not a disparate one on the grounds that it is interconnected with other skills and disciplines (Hughes, 2011). The scholar comments that this situation leads to the point that teaching speaking cannot be thought as being separable from other goals in classrooms.

The last point in speaking skill is the division between fluency and accuracy. Nation and Newton (2009) get inspired from other researchers' definition of the terms and suggest that fluency is related to production speed of spoken discourse with few hesitations whereas accuracy in speech can be linked with its including few errors. Additionally, the scholars

bring the complexity issue by looking at the works of Skehan (1998). Complexity is representing the speech's being composed of not only simple and clear structures but also complex ones.

To conclude, speaking is an intricate skill, which has its roots in social, physical and various aspects. On the other hand, there are many features of speaking learners and teachers ought to take notice of and establish a way of improving it.

2.1.4. Problems related to speaking

Hughes (2011) stresses that despite speaking being given significance today's teaching environments, it was a skill that was not studied sufficiently and theorized adequately. As Leong and Ahmadi (2017) reconsidered and put forward, speaking could be judged as a hard to obtain as a skill when developing skills for the language. They also brought upon the issue that speaking has not taken enough attention in schools or colleges owing to the fact that grammar has been more the priority. Bahadorfar and Omidvar (2014) agree with this view and list other reasons such as teaching how to speak through drills or memorization techniques. In addition, Bygate (1987) attracts the attention to the fact that knowledge and skill are two separate things, which means that students need to be able to both have the knowledge of certain parts of the knowledge such as grammar or vocabulary and produce them together with having quick decisions, smooth transitions and reverting their conversation in case of any problems occurring. Due to the nature and features of speaking, some of which are mentioned section above, this skill is not dealt in the classes extensively and intensively, and this also causes teachers to have hard time implementing speaking activities; additionally, this leads to speaking becoming a language skill that is not researched more (Alaraj, 2017). Ur (1991) approaches the difficulty of acquiring speaking in the target language by learners from a different perspective, and the scholar relates the issue with deficiencies of speaking activities. These problems are that learners are impeded to say something in the target language, have no need of explaining themselves, make use of their native language more or there are often participation issues in the classrooms. The other point is the emotional state of learners. When learners hold the feelings of anxiety, shyness or nervousness, this situation may delay their speaking or avert them speaking fluently (Azizifar, Faryadian and Gowhary, 2014).

In conclusion, Zainurrahman and Sangaji (2019) point out that there are three main areas that cause learners to encounter predicaments in learning to speak in the target language. The first factor is linguistic factors, which can be learners' lack of content knowledge. When speaking is separated from pronunciation and listening, learners' knowledge may become insufficient. Second of all, learners' psychological state prevents them from expressing themselves comfortably in the target language. This can be as a result of inadequate content knowledge or low self-confidence, self-esteem. The last category which is social result in learners' inability of interacting with one another in actual spoken discourse. In their study, Zainurrahman and Sangaji (2019) argued that learners' vocabulary knowledge and being hesitant or having low self-esteem created problems in their speaking. As a consequence, it could be seen clearly that teachers or instructors need to consider these factors when teaching speaking on the grounds that these could affect their learners' improvement in speaking.

2.2. Teaching Speaking

Richards (2008) evaluates the way that speaking is taught depends on functions of speaking, which are *talk as interaction*, *talk as transaction* and *talk as performance*. As to talk as interaction, the scholar admits this is often too hard but the most crucial one for learners' side; additionally, there are skills that learners need to acquire for talking interactively. They would open conversation, react or keep the turn. Talk as transaction demands the learners complete a mission through explaining themselves clearly. Burns (1998) offers two variations for transaction parts; obtaining/delivering information vs. dealing with services. Learners should be able use a great deal of sub skills for talking as transaction such as making themselves clear or requesting. The last type is talk as performance in which learners are involved in conveying knowledge to a group of listeners like presentations. Here, learners are expected to be able to pronounce vocabulary items correctly or start/finish suitably. Likewise, Richards (2008) advises teachers to decide on the skills that they want their learners to acquire, and form procedures to teach these skills; hence, it is highly important to choose the genre that teachers are going to deal with in their speaking classrooms. In the scope of this study, talk as interaction is going to be the main focus for analyzing.

While teaching speaking, another point is how we are teaching. Dinçer, Yeşilyurt, and Göksu (2012) assert that teaching speaking methodologies have been questioned and modified or changed a lot. They acknowledged that there have been teacher centered methods like Audio-Lingual Method and student centered methods such as communicative language learning. Despite this division, they argued that approaches can be separated as accuracy-oriented and fluency-oriented ones. While accuracy-oriented approaches consider that learners' utterances should be error free, fluency-oriented ones do not heavily depend on errors, which can be regarded as indicators of language improvement. Therefore, it should be concluded teachers could concentrate on these orientations alone or together.

In addition to methods mentioned above, there are newer ways teaching speaking. One of them called holistic approach in teaching speaking has been provided by Goh and Burns (2012). These researchers argued that speaking competence heavily depends on three categories which are “knowledge of language and discourse, core speaking skills and communication strategies”. This is given in Figure 2.4 from the scholars' work as follows.

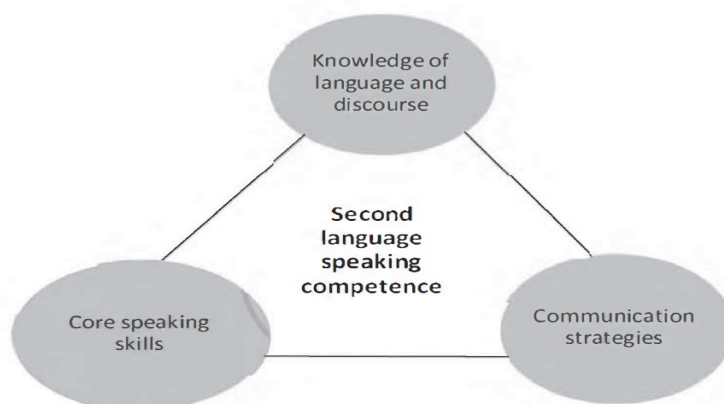


Figure 2.4. *Second language speaking competence according to Goh and Burns (Goh and Burns, 2012, pp.53)*

Knowledge of language and discourse is composed of the knowledge of grammatical, phonological, lexical and discourse. Concerning core speaking skills, Goh and Burns (2012) mention four main strands which are pronunciation, speech function, interaction management and discourse organization. With pronunciation, articulation, word stress and intonation

patterns are accounted in this category. Speech function refers to speech acts which are exemplified as requesting, explaining or offering etc. Interaction management asks learners to start, maintain or terminate communication. Discourse organization skills are dependent on genres in relation to socio-cultural appropriation so that learners make use of speaking in a variety of purposes. Lastly, teaching communication strategies are vital, and learners need to learn cognitive strategies like paraphrasing, metacognitive strategies which are about metacognition such as self-monitoring or self-evaluation; eventually, interactional strategies are enabling learners to negotiate for the meaning, in which learners could ask for clarification for the discourse they could not comprehend. The scholars pay attention to three dimensions of speaking in this approach which are fluency, accuracy, and complexity; components of speaking competence and the role of metacognition. Moreover, a model for teaching speaking has been designed for instructors, and it could be seen in Figure 2.5.

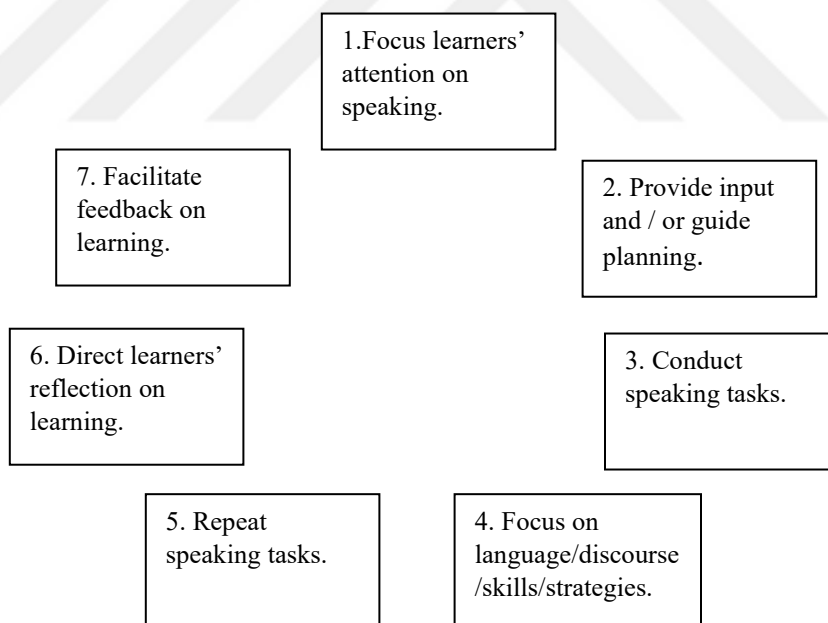


Figure 2.5. *A new model for teaching speaking by Goh and Burns*
(Goh and Burns, 2012, pp.153)

In this cycle, the scholars created objectives under each category. Above mentioned speaking competence and skills are aimed to be obtained through this cycle. Learners are helped to realize metacognitive features of speaking in the first cycle, then, instructors supply input which could be varied from suitable lexical items to genres. In the third stage, learners

acquire core speaking skills and master their fluency. The fourth stage, learners may be involved in leaning into various skills or strategies. Next, repetition of speaking tasks is followed as a stage. Continuing these, learners are encouraged to reflect on their learning and feedback must come into the frame in order to let learners be aware of their speaking. Feedback is a part of learning how to speak on the grounds that learners will be aware of their errors and obtain gains with regard to the feedback they are provided.

As to materials employed for teaching speaking, they have undergone some changes according to teaching methods applied. Hughes (2011) asserts that the main aim of the materials in 1970s and 80s was actually to follow or learn the patterns. These materials were composed of structures practices and there were out of context tasks. With audiolingual method, these materials did not enable learners to produce 'free talk' or negotiate for meaning; in addition, the objective was to help learners own automaticity rather than understanding the knowledge behind the structures. Nonetheless, when functional approaches started to influence the materials, they involved short plot/context and a reason to speak. As the scholar confirmed, interactions an interactive communication in materials came out under the influence of communicative approach. These ones led students gain a natural speech. After communicative approaches, task-based approach materials placed speaking in the center place together with speaking and learners are encouraged to join in conversations through their questioning and problem-solving skills, which call for talk as interaction.

To conclude, when teaching speaking, teachers or instructors could determine first why they are teaching speaking, and decide whether it is for talk as an interaction or performance. Afterwards, suitable materials are found and planning is finalized, they could implement speaking tasks with objectives for the lesson. However, learners need to be encouraged to reflect on their learning, and feedback as an inseparable part in this continuum ought to be delivered.

2.3. Interactive Communication

Talk as interaction stems from conversation, which prioritizes building a communication between two parties for a social feature. The purpose is to complete social messages; to illustrate, people could have small talk in a party or introduce themselves for

the first time and ask questions to one another (Richards, 2008). The scholar also highlights that when a conversation is interactive, it is evident that speakers are active in listening and responding to what has been said like giving continual feedback or interrupting. Moreover, it should be noted that learners need some abilities to be able to be involved in a conversation. These are starting or ending a dialogue, finding topics, being engaged in a small talk, making jokes, narrating individual experiences, changing turns, making use of complementary words, interfering, showing reaction to speakers, and adopting a suitable style of speaking. In addition to this, the scholar underlines that speaking interactively is not an easy task for the learners, yet it is vital that they need to gain this speaking skill because if learners do not have this skill, they feel that they do not have command in the foreign language. When referring to core and specific speaking skills, Goh and Burns (2012) mentioned that learners need lessons on pronunciation, speech function, interaction management and discourse organization for core speaking skills; besides, when specific skills are looked at, especially speech function and interaction management demand learners to be interacting with one another, which indicates the importance of interactive communication on learners' behalf.

Ducasse and Brown (2009) carried out a study for the relation between speaking in International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and undergraduate students' readiness for education context. They argued that learners in university context need to be able interact and communicate cooperatively; that is, learners are supposed to start and keep the conversation as well as creating, offering, assessing ideas or perspectives. Hence, the researchers conclude that university context demands learners be communicative and interactive as much as possible. This is to say interactive communication is a major part of education contexts, and teachers should get their learners gain this as a skill.

From another point of view, Harputlu and Erarslan (2019) carried out a study with university students in a preparatory program and found that learners had affirmative thoughts on group work in speaking while explaining they acted more like in a community, therefore, the researchers suggested that learners can enhance their speaking skills through interaction in group work, which is closer to real life conditions. This could also be supported by the study of Chaisongkram (2018) which revealed that university level learners' speaking abilities were managed to be improved with the help of communicative tasks that require for talk as interaction; additionally, learners had positive beliefs on these types of tasks.

Türkben (2019) stressed that when interaction is prioritized in teaching speaking, learners' performances and skills could be improved a lot, and teaching techniques should enable learners to communicate with one another. The researcher carried out a study to reveal the effects of interactive teaching strategies upon speaking skills of learners who are learning Turkish as a second language, and the results yielded this type of teaching could be great impact on learners' improvement in speaking skills. Moreover, Liubashenko and Kornieva (2019) draw attention to the fact that teachers could make use of different interactive communication techniques to boost their learners' speaking skills; for example, the scholars utilized dialogic interactions as both instructional purpose and assessment, and the learners were found to benefit from this type of interactive speaking activities with regards to the increase their knowledge in language, reconcile meaning and self-evaluation. As a similar context, Demydovych and Holik (2020) completed a study which lasted 5 years of experimentation, and they realized that when speaking clubs are used as a part of interactive communication, not only learners' speaking skills but also their listening, reading and writing ones demonstrated an increase; therefore, even made use of as an extracurricular activity, speaking as an interaction talk could provide benefits to learners' language improvement. Lastly, Marzuki, Prayogo and Wahyudi (2016) actualized a study on interactive storytelling. By doing so, they stated that learners' speaking skills boosted as a result of interacting over telling stories. To sum up, as Asatryan (2016) underlines, interactive communication turns learning into a phase which learners find more sensible, likeable, dynamic as well as the fact that it supports learners' gaining in communicative language skills. Thus, talk an interaction and its teaching should be one of the core parts of teaching speaking in classrooms.

2.4. Speaking Anxiety

As Türkben (2019) discussed, stress on speaking skills could create some problems upon learners, and one of these problems is speaking anxiety. Krashen (1982) formed five hypotheses for language acquisition and each of them had diverse effects on the field. Among them, affective filter hypothesis is related to emotional states of the learners. Having studied other works, the scholar gave three reasons for high affective filter, which are motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

Shumin (2002) focuses on improving interactive communication of adult learners in English as a foreign language (EFL) environments and proposes a few aspects which need to be taken into consideration during EFL adult learners' acquiring oral communication. The first aspect the scholar stresses is age on the grounds that adult learners may experience fossilization which could be referred as a halt to target language development, and unlike young learners, adults have difficulty in adopting ease of expression and authenticity in the target language. Another factor is that learners are supposed to listen and speak simultaneously while interacting. Additionally, sociocultural elements influence or interfere with learners' progress and communication in the second language. The reason is that learners are expected to realize social, cultural contexts and norms together with nonverbal communication or cues. Last of all, Shumin (2002) asserts that while interacting orally, adult learners might face different mental states such as anxiety, feelings, confidence, affinity, perspective, and encouragement. Besides, the scholar gives importance to the fact that speaking with others could pose anxiety among learners because adult learners often contemplate on how other learners criticize themselves. In a nutshell, anxiety and other factors could affect the learners' journey in the second or foreign language in an extent.

Although anxiety is a broad term, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) described in its more specific situation, which was foreign language anxiety; cordially, the scholars defined this term as a unique composite of learners' self-conception, assumptions, emotions, and attitudes to language learning in classrooms during this exceptional journey. The scholars had also separated anxiety in three categories which were *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety* and *fear of negative evaluation*. As self-explanatory, communication apprehension leads to anxiety because of the process of interacting with others and test anxiety is a result of tests and learners' feelings on failure. Fear of negative evaluation emerges as a consequence of thinking of others' judgements in a negative manner (Tüm, and Kunt, 2013). Aydın (2008) disputed that EFL learners may experience problems in the language learning process owing to language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The researcher's study unearthed that learners are afraid of being assessed negatively and they should be in less anxiety and uneasy environments. By looking at other studies carried out in the field, Tüm, and Kunt (2013) emphasize that there is a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and success in acquiring the target language; nevertheless, they also mention that

anxiety could have profound effects on different skills, and it has a unique relationship with these specific skills.

By setting their study in Turkey, Kasap and Power (2019) worked with both teacher and students on EFL speaking classroom in a university context, and they revealed that interaction could have been halted as a result of anxiety in EFL speaking classrooms. Also, while instructors put forward the indicators of their students' feeling anxiety, students' emotions and body movements were restless; thus, active participation and classroom environment were found to be negatively influenced by the anxiety of students in speaking classrooms. What's more, the study of Tercan and Dikilitaş (2015) indicated that learners in university context communicate more if their anxiety levels are low upon speaking. Their conclusion is tied with testing and teaching speaking skills due to the fact that they supported for non-intimidating classroom and testing environment. It could be interpreted that when learners are provided with less anxiety, their language achievement in speaking skills will advance. Besides, Mede and Karairmak (2017) summarized the possible issues leading to anxiety in speaking classrooms, and these are interactive communication especially with people from other countries, giving talks in public and being evaluated negatively by others. Additionally, vocabulary knowledge, proficiency level and memorization could affect learners, so teachers are invited to have more conscious on the issue as well as creating less stressful but more empathetic environments for this specific skill. Quinn and Goody (2019) justified that even public speaking anxiety among students could be lowered with the continuous help and support as well as practice. By transitioning from small to large crowd and informal to formal content, learners may overcome speaking anxiety.

As it can be comprehended, anxiety among learners in speaking skills may stem from different reasons, and it is a reality especially in EFL classrooms, yet it needs to be remembered that anxiety could be overcome with a help and other practices. It is noticed that speaking anxiety could derive from lots of various reasons, and two of them would be underlines, which are talk as an interaction and speaking assessment. Since these are the core elements in the present study, their relation with OCF would be examined in detail.

2.5. Speaking Assessment

Testing speaking, which is another factor for learner anxiety, should be addressed in relation to this study's context on the grounds that learners are obliged to take speaking exams in order to prove their levels and speaking level. Testing speaking is an important part for this study's context, as well; therefore, testing learners on the skill could give their progress.

By analyzing the issues and offering solutions for speaking assessment in Turkey, Höl (2018) had looked into different areas for the issue, and listed the problems related to testing this specific skill as validity issues, time limitation, anxiety caused by the test, physical environment of the test. The researcher delved into reliability issue of testing speaking, and revealed that student-related, rater reliability, rater objectivity as well as rubric and specifications carry great importance. As a solution, Höl (2018) suggests increasing the rater number at least two, and the research yielded formative assessment could be implemented and content of assessment could be carefully designed. Hughes (2011) adds that interactions and formats are also crucial for assessing speaking. Since interactive talk is a part of oral communication, its impacts should be carefully thought.

To assess interactive talk, paired speaking test formats are used by different institutions. May (2009) studied on raters' perspective in a paired speaking test, and it was pointed out that raters considered mutual success in interactional talk as an indicator of an interactive communication. In addition, May (2009) suggests that it is better to include a variety of tasks into paired speaking tests because when only one task used, inducing learners' performance would be more difficult since learners could produce oral productions disparately in the face of various interactive topics and aims as well as disparate interlocutors. As an example of paired speaking tests, Cambridge Speaking Tests could be given (Galazci, 2008). So as to capture different glimpses of learners' speaking skills, this type of test was designed and included a variety of tasks (Galazci, 2008). Galazci (2008) explains that interaction is more differentiated in this test because candidates need to communicate with another candidate and an examiner; besides, two raters give scores to the performance of a candidate. With the usage of various tasks like answering questions of an interlocutor, talking with one another could enable the rater and interlocutor have an idea about the candidate's speaking skills in general. Furthermore, the scholar underlines that holding an interaction

could be assessed best when candidates are given chances to be involved in a variety of tasks to show their communicative competence, nonetheless, Galazci (2008) warns that lower-level students could hold a restricted interaction with an interlocutor whereas higher level students could be in dialogues which require other candidates to have turns or change turns as being listeners and speakers. Similarly, Foot (1999) discusses paired speaking tests' allowing candidates to show their performance more than one-to-one type of tests since there are more patterns of speech, and one of the most advantageous part of this type of testing could be the incorporation of two examiners so that objectivity is gained to assess learners' oral performances. Also, Norton (2005) mentions Cambridge Speaking Tests as an example of a paired speaking test and explains that this test uses composed rubric to provide objectivity among raters. When Norton (2005) worked on pairing systems in this type of speaking test, the researcher reached an understanding that how to pair learners in speaking exams like this could influence their performance. Consequently, the way of pairing the candidates should be contemplated carefully.

On top of that, Roever and Kasper (2018) confirm that when interactional competence is incorporated in assessing speaking skills of learners, the evaluations could be more valid. They maintain that the assessment of interactive communication of learners could yield more deductions for learners, and it could approve their abilities to be a part of a talk as an interaction. Vo (2020) supports that candidates who take speaking exams could find more chances to display their interactive communication abilities in paired speaking tests more than individual ones after analyzing interactional competence in paired and interview speaking tests. Finally, Borger (2019) verifies how CLT has urged learners' speaking skills to be assessed through paired or group format, and it is advised to have rating scales which refer to features of an interaction talk together with demonstrating advancement of learners' interactive competence.

When looked at with a different angle, Duque-Aguilar (2021) devised research in order to illuminate the way teachers evaluate their EFL learners' speaking skills. One of the points the scholar makes is that the instructors in the study advocated the usage of feedback as an important part of this process due to the fact that they could explain learners' stronger and weaker points in the performances. Because feedback, especially CF, is highly associated with boosting interactive communication and testing speaking, OCF usage in classrooms has

drawn more attention in the last decade; hence, OCF would be examined in its own aspects as follows.

2.6. Oral Corrective Feedback

Feedback is an essential part in teaching and learning cycle, and it could be recognized as carrying the information which includes learners' errors in knowledge, skill, or production from instructors to students (Ahmad, Saeed, and Salam, 2013). In their pioneering article, Hattie and Timperley (2007) held a special place for feedback, and described it as a message on learners' productions or comprehension conveyed by an individual like teachers, partners, parents or themselves; besides, they believe that feedback could be the most effective when it could become a part of teaching and it requires learners' reply to a task as a performance while the source of feedback focuses on incorrect applications rather than inadequacy of apprehension. Sheen and Ellis (2011) define CF as feedback given to learners on their oral or written performances in the target language for specific linguistic errors. CF has been evaluated as an intricate wonder in the field because its role and effect has still been under research, but it is clear that CF is a crucial part in the sense that instructors could enable each learner with scaffolding in their journey of learning a different language rather than their native tongue (Lyster, Saito, and Sato, 2013).

In a meta-analysis, Li (2010) first differentiates between two forms that are positive and negative evidence. Whereas positive evidence gives learners information on only correct structures to which they are exposed, negative evidence as CF does the opposite, namely, it indicates the ill-formed structures used by the learners so that they could notice in their usages. Positive evidence is just accepted in SLA by a group of scholars (Krashen, 1981; Truscott, 1999), yet it was revealed that the learners need negative evidence since their interlanguage could not be sufficient; additionally, Li (2010) states that CF is based on theories such as interaction hypothesis which cares learners' finding out what's needed in their performances, noticing hypothesis that evaluates second language learning as an intentional process, and uptake attributed to learners' comprehension of their errors or errors. Among these SLA theorists, Gass (1997), Long (1996) and Schmidt (1990) could be exemplified. Sheen and Ellis (2011) add output hypothesis by Swain (1995) to this list on the grounds that this hypothesis requires learners to gain information from their own productions

to play with their interlanguage so that they could communicate effectively. Also, Sheen and Ellis (2011) comment that all these mentioned cognitive theories present that CF could be effective in making learners aware not only forms but also meaning, as a result, learners could hold a conversation by focusing on mainly meaning, make errors and get CF. In an extent, the scholars acknowledged sociocultural theory, as well in terms of CF, and they stated that a creation of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) happens when communication occurs, and learners could communicate better with the help of scaffolding by an agent; therefore, before learners regulate themselves, teacher or peer CF can make learners get ready for the stage. Ellis (2009) clarifies that positive feedback has been dealt in the field less than negative feedback due to the fact that positive feedback supplied in the classroom is often not clear; in contrast, when negative feedback has been given, it is quite obvious because it means that the learners' performances are linguistically including abnormal forms. Additionally, CF is a kind of negative feedback seeing that it includes a message to the learner who has made an error linguistically (Ellis, 2009).

As it can be inferred, CF has played an important role in both English as a Second Language (ESL) and EFL classrooms. In CF, there are two types which are written and oral. Sheen (2010) untangles the differences between them. By the scholar, first difference is written CF could be taken more into consideration by learners since it is more noticeable as a correction while OCF could go unnoticed. Secondly, OCF could be evaluated as online, but written CF is delayed. Moreover, while OCF is pointed at a learner but available to others in classrooms, written CF is only for the learner in query; furthermore, learners get OCF moves as several edits whereas learners get just a few in written CF. Sheen and Ellis (2011) discloses these two types in detail. According to the scholars, OCF might be input providing which the source provides the accurate structure or output-prompting meaning that elicitation from learners on the accurate structure is actualized; next, OCF could be implicit or explicit and finally it might be immediate which is given after the erroneous production or delayed which is hanged on until the performance is over. As for written CF, it is virtually all the time delayed owing to the fact that learners need to complete the process of writing; then, it could be input providing which requires learners rewrite the entire text or providing the accurate structures or output prompting in which an error is drawn attention in the production.

Considering their disparities between these two feedback types and skills in nature, OCF and written CF are distinguished from each other in terms of their literature, research methodology although there are few studies which combine them such as Doughty and Varela (1998), Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2015) as claimed by Sheen (2010). Sheen and Ellis (2011) emphasize that OCF and written CF have been under research independently from each other and they found almost no reference to one another, and this situation led them analyze each phenomena alone but reach a wholesome conclusion. Their conclusions were that learners declare a want for correction, CF enforces acquisition, immediate or delayed CF may enhance the improvement, explicit CF seems to be more effective than implicit one, learners should be aware of the correction, and eventually CF should prepare learners to make them self-correctors.

As the differences between two types of CF and skills described above; additionally, the scope of the current study is regarded, OCF would be analyzed in its details in this research.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) had a seminal study in OCF, and when they review the previous studies, they had realized that there were questions needed to be answered. These questions were made use of by other scholars, as well, and they were gotten from Hendrickson (1978). These questions were;

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors be corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting?

(Hendrickson, 1978 as cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

Therefore, the present study is going to focus on these points in order to attribute to OCF usage in classrooms with an integration with interactive tasks.

2.6.1. Types of OCF

By inspired from the studies dealing with these studies, Lyster and Ranta (1997) observed six French immersion classrooms in Canada in their study within CLT environment. Because they recorded the sessions, they analyzed the data and identified six types of OCF types provided by the teachers. These types were explicit correction, recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. As exemplified from Li and Vuono (2019), a teacher could correct an ill-formed sentence upon using passive voice like “The house cleaned yesterday.” in six ways according to the pioneer study.

Firstly, teacher could use explicit correction in which the teacher focuses on letting the student know where the error resides by giving the correct form like “Not cleaned, was cleaned”.

Secondly, the teacher could recast, in other words, restate the whole or a part of the structure with the correct form, and in this case, the teacher could say “The house was cleaned yesterday.”

Third of all, the teacher could form a question for further understanding as in clarification request such as “I beg your pardon?”

Next, the teacher could provide the student with a metalinguistic explanation by not offering the correct form; and here the teacher could comment “Your sentence should be formed with passive voice.”

Fifth one is elicitation, and the teacher could elicit the accurate version of the sentence from the student such as by saying “The house ...?”

Lastly, the teacher could repeat the error so that the student could notice the error and correct it like saying “Cleaned?”.

These OCF moves or types have been used in studies merging classroom observations in their scope (Brown, 2016). In their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that the teachers had used recasts more than other feedback types, and it was followed by elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request and repetition. Another way of categorization OCF types are being implicit vs. explicit and input-providing vs. output-prompting as mentioned earlier, too. Li and Vuono (2019) explain that while explicit vs. implicit refers to directing learners to errors evidently or not; for example, clarification request could be more

implicit than explicit correction, input-providing vs. output-prompting is about causing learners to correct their errors on their own or not; for instance, recasts are giving the accurate form to learners as its being input-providing, yet elicitation requires learners to come up with the correct form, so it is in the category of output-prompting. Li and Vuono (2019) warn that though a clear taxonomy like this occurs, teachers' CF may vary a lot like mixing two moves.

When it is looked at other studies, OCF types could be detected in a clearer way. To illustrate, Fan (2019) made use of a characterized OCF types, and after the analysis, it was revealed that the teachers utilized elicitation with questions more than others. In an EFL setting, Suryoputro and Amaliah (2016) analyzed twenty-hour long lessons by using the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997), and they revealed that explicit correction was the one benefitted more, which was followed by elicitation, recast, clarification request, paralinguistic signal, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition. Similarly, Amalia, Fauziati, and Marmanto (2019) devised a study to unearth OCF types used in classrooms, and their results concluded that explicit correction was used more than others, and elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, repetition and recast were in the list respectively.

In the literature, there are some studies dealing with one or several OCF types in its topic; for example, Gholizade (2013) wished to compare the effects of recast and metalinguistic feedback on points that were accuracy, fluency, and complexity of speaking performance. The scholar added gender as a factor, but the findings yielded that there happened no disparities between the genders, nevertheless, the group taking metalinguistic feedback outperformed the group taking recasts. Therefore, metalinguistic feedback was asserted to be more beneficial. In an ESL environment, Panova and Lyster (2002) recorded ten hours of classrooms and classified the moves according to the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, they added translation as another move, and it was claimed that recasts and translation were applied more than others in the classrooms. Roothoof (2014) worked with EFL teachers who were instructing adult EFL learners in speaking lessons, and the scholar acknowledged that the amount of teachers' error correction in the lessons were 48.01%, and they adopted recasts more than others. Huong (2020) carried out a study in which preferences of students and teachers in terms of OCF types and actual usages were compared. It was clear that recast was the most used one among observed classrooms. This

was also validated by the research of Solikhah (2016), and in that study recast being the dominant one was pursued by explicit correction and clarification request. Solikhah (2016) drew attention to the fact that the amount and frequency of feedback varied a lot across the classes, so the teacher changed the quantity and density of OCF types in different classrooms.

When these findings of the studies were analyzed, it could be deduced that the conclusions had showed differences among contexts. As other scholars claimed (Zhao and Bitchener, 2007; Choi and Li, 2012; Brown, 2016) recasts seem to be used more than others; nonetheless, when above studies were considered, explicit correction is the second runner, and implicit corrective types could be less preferred by teachers. As for frequency of the feedback types, it is also clear that it varied across the studies. Despite of the fact that OCF has been confirmed to be efficient in studies, applied types and the frequency of them have resulted in a variation, which could be due to contexts, students' traits, teachers, content of the teaching, materials, or educational programs.

2.6.2. Source of OCF

Russell and Spada (2006) focus on two main sources to give feedback, and these are teachers and peers, and they stated that teachers have been evaluated as the major source; however, peer feedback could also offer advantages. Moreover, Ellis (2009) argues the importance of selecting the individual to correct learners' errors, and in addition to teachers and peers, learner self-correction has been suggested to be among the sources of CF. Sheen and Ellis (2011) claim that there has been no specific way to perform CF in terms of the source or other points after reviewing that there are both advantages and disadvantages of different sources. Nevertheless, studies carried out on this topic would illuminate the positive and negative sides for instructors or individuals in educational policies.

When studies in the field reviewed, they happen to be set either to compare the effectiveness of the sources or analyze each one in its entirety. First of all, the comparison of these sources is going to be discussed.

In a Turkish EFL context, Au (2019) compared teacher and peer feedback among young adults in the university environment. In the setting, experimental group was instructed with peer feedback, yet control group got feedback from the teacher. When analyzed, it was figured out that both sources were effective, so the learners seemed to benefit from these

sources despite of the fact that the group which took teacher feedback exceeded, which was not a significant difference. Furthermore, Khoram, Bazvand, and Sarhad (2020) created four conditions called as intra-error, inter-error, teacher feedback and control group. While two learners were evaluated by all the class on their performance in intra-error condition, two learners performed but again evaluated by only one student in inter-error condition. They concluded that all these sources caused learners to improve their language, but teacher feedback was found to be more competent than others. It should be added that their analysis made them claim that peer feedback was efficient in creating friendly zone to get feedback and student-centeredness; meanwhile, teacher feedback was more useful at advancing learners' speaking skills. Ebrahimi and Hajmalek (2016) carried out a study in which teacher and peer feedback are compared with each other on their effects over anxiety. The participants were chosen from upper-intermediate levels, and it was reached that there were not any significant differences between the two feedback sources. Therefore, teacher and peer feedback were advised to be in the speaking classrooms. Finally, Van Ginkel, Guliker, Biemans and Mulder (2017) were interested in learners' giving oral presentations and getting feedback from different individuals who were selected to be as teachers, peers, themselves and a peer supervised by an instructor. When the learners' performances were examined, teacher feedback was the most successful one while self-assessment was the least effective one.

On the other hand, there are studies which have centered only teacher, peer or self-feedback in their scopes. These types of studies will also allow the scholars in the field to assess the outcomes. For example, Lynch and Maclean (2003) executed a study with early advanced level students for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) so that teacher feedback could be analyzed with its positive and negative sides. Their study revealed that the learners made use of teacher feedback in terms of improving their speaking skills, nonetheless, it was not the case all the time and for all the points. Thus, they deduced that teacher feedback was indeed a source that is trustworthy in classrooms, and learners could take advantage of this especially on language use. Last of all, Boughazzoula (2016) emphasized on teacher feedback, and explored it by applying questionnaires to the students. The data yielded that teachers are a source of feedback that is seen crucial by the students as leading to awareness

on errors, helping learners, increasing self-confidence as well as the fact that the students could improve the points need to be dealt with.

There are studies who concentrate on peer feedback and its effects. For example, Yeh, Tseng, and Chen (2019) delved into effects of peer feedback on learners' speaking skills, and they used blogs in their study. This online peer feedback implementation demonstrated that the learners had some doubts about peer feedback in terms of the feedback' clarity, accuracy and consistency, but they boosted their performance in some ways. There were two specific groups in the research, and they were called as More progress and Less progress. It was clear that more progress group improved in some content parts like introduction, conclusion, body language and gestures, albeit less progress group enhanced in gesture, body language, eye contact, speech volume and fluency. Hence, it seemed that less progress group increased their performance except the cognitive or content part. This and the fact that not any groups showed an improvement in vocabulary and grammar caused researchers to infer that online peer feedback could be useful, still the parts it affects positively could be restricted in a sense. Additionally, Saidalvi and Samad (2019) analyzed peer feedback, and it was again implemented as a part of an online platform. The researchers reasoned that online peer feedback could be efficient in respect of speech delivery or voice control; however, it should be approached with caution in terms of language advancement. Fujii, and Mackey (2009) designed a study in which learner-learner interactions could be investigated with OCF types. It was disclosed that the participants got feedback from each other on target points, and they made use of recast, clarification requests as well as confirmation checks. Much as recasts induced error repetition, clarification requests and confirmation checks were beneficial in guiding them to repair their utterances. Lastly, Chu (2013) applied a treatment and took the learners' opinions and found that they were in favor of explicit correction and translation due to time constraints. In spite of their improvement in their performances, they preferred to get teacher feedback.

Last source is self-feedback which requires learners to correct their sentences and give feedback to themselves. In the literature, there are few studies in relation to OCF and self-feedback. Huang (2016) encouraged learners to give feedback to themselves, and when their performances overviewed, they were able to apply self-feedback clearly. Their recommendations were on including self-feedback in the classrooms. Also, Chen (2008) gave

a training to the students on self-assessment, and revised students' comments to themselves. It was noted that the students' progress was noticeable, and their feedback could be counted as similar to their teachers. Consequently, self-feedback is suggested.

To sum up, when the studies above are reviewed, it could be clearly detected teacher feedback seems to be successful at improving learners' oral performances more than other sources. Participants in the studies stated their preferences for teacher feedback, and their performances have been highly affected by teacher feedback in a positive way. Peer feedback has also been found beneficial, but some restrictions have been discovered in the results like its lacking in language points. Finally, self-feedback's effectiveness could still be questionable seeing that it requires a proper training on learners' side and the results are limited in contexts and contents.

2.6.3. Linguistic targets for OCF

Another issue Lyster and Ranta (1997) referred was which errors ought to be corrected. In this point, Brown (2016) negated that the reason why teachers apply specific CF types could stem from the target linguistic forms. As a result, target forms to give OCF should also be under research in the literature. About this, Lyster and Saito (2013) had reviewed the studies on this point, and it was demonstrated that instructors and interrogators are more inclined to providing CF on morphosyntactic errors than the others. They also revealed that students got benefits from more on lexical and phonological errors. However, this topic has been scarcely studied; that's why, Ellis and Sheen (2016) disputed over contrastive findings such as learners' developmental readiness or prominence of structures, and they emphasized on future studies.

On this issue, Saito and Lyster (2012) analyzed /ɪ/ sound and its pronunciation together with form focused instruction and CF. By looking at the improvement of intermediate level adult Japanese learners, they concluded that CF was successful in making learners aware of their pronunciation and their realization was that learners need CF in a certain manner by including the benefits of focus on form communicative activities. On the other hand, Yang and Lyster (2010) examined regular and irregular past tense forms within form-focused practice and CF, and this study was set in an EFL context. There were three groups which were prompt, recast and control. The scholars gathered data from the learners' pre, post and

delayed post-tests, and these data yielded that prompt group seemed to make use of regular past tense forms in their speaking more accurately whereas recast and prompts were identical in terms of improving the accuracy of the learners for the usage of irregular past tense forms. As to lexical targets, Egi (2007) designed a study on recasts on whether they are leading to noticing and which roles they take. In an EFL context, the learners got OCF with recasts on morphosyntactic and lexical errors. When it is evaluated, it turns out that recasts were seen as long and disparate by the learners because they thought that they were responses to the content; nonetheless, when they were short, they saw them as linguistic evidence. Takimoto (2006) carried out a study on requests and used structured input task and structured input task with explicit feedback in addition to control group. Japanese learners of English took pre, post and delayed post-test which consisted of discourse completion, role play, a listening judgment, and an acceptability test. These analyses suggested that two conditions were successful over the control group, but explicit feedback group had slightly better scores than other conditions, therefore, it was explained that explicit feedback could not be assessed as an essential item in structured input tasks.

Some small number of researchers valued devising studies on non-linguistic areas, as well. King (2016) included message cues, personality traits and the nature of tasks into its study design with OCF. The scholar stressed that the way that learners' personalities differ could be used an explanation for their behaviors. Also, scoring students' performances could affect them negatively, and it is advised otherwise. Further, Smith and King (2004) did research on learners' feedback sensitivity when it comes to feedback comments. It was identified that when feedback was offered in low-intensity format, the learners succeeded more upon their second attempts. On the other hand, they validated that if the learners were indeed sensitive, CF could be judged as torture and not advantageous. Finally, Sakale (2017) put two variables in the study that were wait time and teachers' experiences, and only wait time could result in a differentiation, hence, it could be interpreted that if the learners were provided with more time, they would get prepared better for their performances.

When above studies are gone over, it appears that OCF could be explored with distinguished linguistic targets such as grammatical, lexical targets etc. It should be noted that there are other studies which deal with non-linguistic targets like wait time or anxiety. Therefore, these kinds of studies should be based on real classroom experiences, and because

there are disparate findings, more studies should be taken under in order to derive any generalization.

2.6.4 Timing of OCF

Another important aspect of OCF is when to offer OCF to learners. Ellis (2009) has also touched upon this issue and stated that teachers must set the time for correction, and they have to choose if it is better to give immediate or delayed one. Much as studies express that correction could be done as immediate when there are accuracy-oriented tasks, there is no definite conclusion on effectiveness of immediate or delayed feedback. Moreover, as Sheen and Ellis (2011) stated that timing of feedback has been an issue in oral performances of learners rather than writing. The reason is that learners obtain feedback in writing as delayed because teachers offer feedback right after their productions are completed. Mendez and Cruz (2012) emphasized that immediate and delayed feedback are supported differently when it comes to accuracy and fluency tasks, but both of them would be employed in differentiated educational contexts. From this perspective, studies on immediate and/or delayed feedback would be studied in detail.

As for immediate feedback, King, Young and Behnke (2000) wished to compare immediate and delayed feedback with regards to a public speaking lesson offered in a university. Their conclusions were that immediate feedback caused learners to have more positive attitude, and more progress in one of the criteria which was eye-contact. Besides, Siyyari (2005) completed a study which measured the effects of two conditions which were delayed explicit focus on form correction and immediate focus on form implicit corrective recast, and the researcher dealt with learners' accuracy gains in their speaking. According to the findings, focus on form immediate group outscored the other group slightly; therefore, Siyyari (2005) indicated immediate and delayed timings could be a consequence of this outscoring, and immediate was found to be more useful.

Moreover, one of the early works in treatment of oral work was actualized by Fanselow (1997). In that study, Fanselow (1997) were interested in answering the questions such as what types of errors teachers choose to deal with, how this correction should be made. To this end, actual lessons of eleven teachers who were completing the same topic were recorded and analyzed. It came out that teachers had similar patterns to give feedback, seemed to prefer

explicit feedback, but the scholar suggested that teachers should not be in hurry to offer feedback on the grounds that they need to analyze the errors' nature in detail committed by learners, so delayed OCF is recommended in a sense. Additionally, Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) compared immediate and delayed OCF, and they validated that learners benefitted from delayed feedback more than the other especially on fluency and accuracy areas. Their another finding was that learners' anxiety levels were low in delayed feedback condition due to their being more comfortable at making conversations. Similarly, Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat (2015) placed immediate and delayed feedback into their study in terms of revealing their effectiveness. The scholars indicated that delayed error correction aided learners to include more vocabulary items in their oral productions compared to immediate OCF.

Anxiety has been also studied with timing of feedback as speaking anxiety could be seen as a common issue among learners. Shabani and Safari (2016a) executed a study which took 6 weeks. They created two conditions which were immediate and delayed feedback. They confirmed that delayed feedback had enabled the learners to reduce their anxiety levels but gain more self-confidence.

As differently from the other mentioned studies above, Rolin-Ianziti (2010) investigated delayed feedback along with its organization and the researcher presented that teacher ought to offer delayed feedback by two ways that were teacher-initiated/completed or teacher-initiated student correction. The former one could be exemplified as quoting, correcting, explaining the rule while the latter one could be self-correct, adding to the quotation, reformulating, and reinitiating. Likewise, Hunter (2011) carried out a study in which delayed OCF was applied and assessed with its effect on accuracy/fluency, accuracy and reaction time, and lastly complexity of oral productions. The researcher concluded that delayed OCF is influential to enable learners to include complexity and accuracy in their oral performances.

Although some studies in the literature defended betterment of immediate or delayed feedback alone, there are studies that find both of them together efficient or disparate in certain issues. For example, Shabani and Safari (2016b) got two groups, and provided them with either immediate or delayed feedback. They unveiled that both of the conditions were profitable, yet it is understood that the group getting delayed feedback surpassed the other

group on scores. As to accuracy, immediate group was more successful. Quinn (2014) had investigated this issue and recognized that both timings of feedback was prosperous in boosting learners' speaking skills. However, Quinn (2014) found out that both of them were teacher dependent though the learners preferred immediate OCF.

When the issue of preferences is brought up, there are abundant of studies delving into learners' or teachers' preferences on OCF and its aspects as well as discovering beliefs vs. practices of teachers. Some of these studies pointed out results related to timing of OCF, so these studies will be examined here shortly since learners' or teachers' opinions or preferences on this issue will illuminate the way immediate or delayed feedback is applied in classrooms. For instance, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) looked into non-native English-speaking instructors' cognitions upon CF in interactive communication, and to this end, they employed questionnaires and semi-structured interviews whose analyses substantiated that experienced teachers cared for error correction more and found explicit correction more efficient whereas novice teachers evaluated implicit corrections as being more effective. Upon timing, experienced teachers gave more value to the employment of immediate feedback; nevertheless, novice ones selected delayed feedback more. Yiğit (2019) actualized a study in Turkey and examined teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF. The researcher asserted that although teachers were more hesitant to offer feedback and wanted to offer it on serious errors, learners asked for correction for all errors. The researcher also revealed some inconsistencies on teachers' beliefs and practices and stated that teachers told that they could benefit from all feedback types, but it was clear that they made use of prompts more. As for timing, they remarked the usage of delayed feedback, however, immediate feedback was found to be used more in the classrooms. Tomczyk (2013) studied both teachers and students, and the scholar put forward that students regarded highly teacher feedback as a source and delayed feedback as timing more than others. As in EFL context in Iraq, Hassan (2017) compared instructors' and learners' assumptions on the topic by implementing questionnaires and interviews. The data led that instructors and the learners selected teacher feedback compared to other sources, and immediate feedback was favored more by the instructors. Muhsin (2016) investigated only learners' stance on OCF and its conditions and studied the subject together with anxiety. After the questionnaire, the researcher illustrated that learners cared teacher feedback as an essential part while timing of OCF was evaluated

to be delayed as right after the speaking tasks. Similarly, Dawood (2014) carried out a study in which the effects of error correction for grammar of the learners on their speaking accuracy. A questionnaire was employed to get learners' beliefs on the issue. Dawood (2014) indicated that immediate feedback should be an inseparable part in lessons. Next, Atma and Widiati (2015) correlated two different level students' preferences, and they claimed that students wanted all their errors to be corrected, teacher feedback with explicit correction was seen more useful, and delayed feedback preferred more. Martin and Valdivia (2017) examined anxiety and OCF and revealed that the learners favored CF without having low or high anxiety levels. They agreed on getting explicit correction, but it was found that the learners whose anxiety levels were high appreciated immediate feedback whereas the ones with lower anxiety levels were more interested in getting the feedback from teachers. Gamlo (2019) revealed that learners were in favor of frequent CF, teachers as the main source, targets as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary as well as immediate feedback on timing. Besides, Aydın (2015) did not work with teachers or students but student-teachers in relation to beliefs in OCF. Student-teachers in Turkey tend to correct the errors of most of the learners in the classrooms, and they concentrated on accuracy issue. As to timing, the participants stated that OCF should be offered as delayed for fluency tasks as immediate OCF should be for accuracy tasks.

All in all, there could be observed many disparate findings. Some studies presented effectiveness of immediate one or delayed one alone while some others recognized effectiveness of both timings. Nevertheless, anxiety levels could be attributed with delayed feedback which seems to have lowering effects on it. Yet, when it is looked over in general, the issue of when to offer OCF has not been a question that has a definite answer; rather, distinct variables could affect their effects and implications.

As it could be understood from the detailed analysis on OCF and interactive communication skills, there is an absolute need of studying when to offer OCF in speaking classrooms at a university context in relation to learners' interactive communication skills. Because of a pandemic and its bearing anxiety on learners, delayed OCF could be analyzed together with its effect on learners' improvement in speaking skills in communicative classrooms. Thanks to this study, the alone effect of delayed OCF on learners' speaking skills improvement especially in interactive communication could be grasped and attributed to the

university contexts. Besides observing whether its leading to any improvement, learners' perceptions on delayed OCF could be gathered to enlighten the issue.



CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, research design, participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedure as well as analysis of data are going to be given in detail. By this research, it is targeted to reveal the effect of delayed feedback in classrooms with the aim of improving learners' communicative skills through teacher delayed feedback to learners' oral productions. When the learners' ideas on including delayed feedback into communicative classrooms are included, delayed feedback' direct effect on performance and attitudes of learners could be detected. Considering these goals, research questions below were examined.

1. What is the effect of delayed oral corrective feedback on improving students' speaking skills in interactive tasks?
2. Is there an increase between students' pre-test and post-test speaking scores upon delayed oral corrective feedback?
3. What are the students' perceptions on delayed oral corrective feedback?

3.2. Research Design

In this experimental study, a mixed methods research design was acknowledged and applied throughout the time. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) analyze mixed methods research in detail, and the scholars define it as the usage of quantitative and qualitative methods in the form of data collection, analysis, combination of results, deductions in the specific study. They also underline that researchers could make use of mixed methods research design on the grounds that distinct research questions, sampling types, data collection tools, the way data is analyzed, disparate findings exist. Therefore, mixed methods design could be integrated into studies with different purposes or aspects.

Additionally, Dörnyei (2007) stated that mixed methods research could enable researchers triangulate their data by lessening defects of quantitative and qualitative methods and increasing the validity of the studies. Dörnyei (2007) lists the advantages of applying mixed methods research design as improving the advantages whereas eradicating

disadvantages of quantitative or qualitative approaches, offering a chance of using multiple analysis for complicated study designs, strengthening the validity of the research, addressing larger groups. In an extensive explanatory article, Ivankova and Creswell (2009) refer to three features of identifying mixed methods research and they are timing, weighting as well as mixing. Depending on a study's purpose or data collection procedure, how to apply mixed methods research varies. The scholars make distinctions among three main designs in this type of research which are explanatory, exploratory, triangulation and embedded design. In this current study, triangulation design was set to be incorporated since triangulation design lets researchers collect the data distinctively yet bringing them together in the analysis part in order to see whether the findings coming from two data collection ways merge or diverge. As the current study deals with speaking performances of the participants together with their perceptions on the treatment, the researcher could collect data through two means which are quantitative and qualitative, still compare and contrast the findings emerging from these two data types in the analysis part with the usage of triangulation design.

As Ivankova and Creswell (2009) emphasize the mixed methods design's aid in explaining research questions by centering questions more than methods themselves together with reaching in-depth acknowledgment of patterns and comprehending the connection between variable, this current study embedded mixed methods research design into its method for the purpose of triangulation.

As for the quantitative data, it is compiled from students' pre and post-test speaking test scores along with the scores for each task during delayed oral feedback phase. When it comes to qualitative one, it included students' statements to open-ended questionnaire concerning students' experiences related to interactive activities and delayed OCF. So as to detect whether students' oral performances and feelings or statements as a result of delayed OCF unite or not, quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and compared.

3.3. The Pilot Study

The pilot study was completed with pre-intermediate level students in the institution. Since the institution offered education in four quarters, it was carried out in the first quarter, and it was between September and November. The academic year was 2020. Firstly, consent forms were signed by the students. These forms were asking their permission to join in the

speaking assessments for pre and post-test and also survey for experimental group. This pilot study was completed with 20 students in total. These students were divided in two groups which were experimental and control groups. In experimental group, there were 6 male and 4 female students whereas control group embodied 4 male and 6 female students. These sample groups were selected as a result of convenience sampling.

The pilot study included application of pre and post-tests for speaking assessment so that any mistake could be detected in the process of tests. The participants took the tests in pairs, and it was seen that since some students grew relationship with each other as the quarter continued, it was better to change the pairs in post-test. This was performed for experimental and control groups. In experimental group, the participants were exposed to seven different interactive activities. Their audio-recordings while performing the tasks were got and analyzed by the researcher; after that, delayed OCF was provided to each individual student after each and every task. This time was determined to be one week later by looking at the literature review.

Thus, it meant that the data collection process was implemented as it was intended. However, some adaptations and changes were needed to be made for the participants in the second and third quarter. The researcher asked the participants' comments and opinions about the speaking tests and activities made in the classrooms. The participants mentioned enjoying the process of joining paired speaking tests and application of interactive tasks which required them to record themselves while performing and send to the researcher. Additionally, most of the students had understood the interactive tasks clearly. Yet, two of the tasks were given as to be completed outside the classroom because of the time limitation. It was seen that the participants delayed accomplishing and sending them to the researcher. Hence, in the real study, these tasks were finished in the real classroom time under the supervision of the researcher. Another change was made for one of the tasks. When the participants had no difficulty in six interactive tasks, they had hard time for the first activity as it was requiring lots of structures to be recalled and produced. That's why, this task was simplified for the real study. Moreover, when the researcher allowed the participants to pair up, they either got reluctant to work with different learners or could not decide with whom to work. Therefore, the researcher herself determined the pairs for both the activities done in

the class and speaking tests. Luckily, the survey questions were found to be clear by the pilot group, so the researcher kept the questions the same.

3.4. Participants in Experimental and Control Groups

The present study was carried out with 40 students in the department of basic English at a private university in Ankara in quarters of two and three. The students' level of English was pre-intermediate. When they were in pre-intermediate level, the study was completed with the students. Pre-intermediate level students were included into the current study because their curriculum includes more interactive communication. Their native language was Turkish. Their ages varied between 18-19. These participants were in either experimental or control groups.

As a sampling method, convenience sampling method was implemented. Taherdoost (2016) refers to convenience sampling as making use of participants who researchers can reach effortlessly and convenience sampling allows researchers to have deductions about the intended population by analyzing the sample group. Since the present study was executed in the whole pre-intermediate course, convenience sampling was the best choice to apply so that the researcher could apply speaking tests, tasks, provide delayed OCF and a questionnaire to the classes that she taught.

In conclusion, the participants were selected in regard to the objective of the current research which was to apply delayed OCF to experimental groups as well as assessing the participants' progress with and without it with the help of interactive speaking tests. The researcher was teaching English to both of experimental and control groups.

3.5. Context

The current study was carried out at the department of Basic English of a private university which is located in the middle region of Turkey. The study was executed in 2020-2021 academic year.

In this institution, hybrid education was being applied and the year was divided into four quarters. Students were having their lessons on an online platform for three days, but they were having their face-to-face lessons for the other two days regular classes because of Corona virus pandemic. Hybrid education was provided with online and face to face lessons.

It should be emphasized that the syllabus did not change according to online or face-to-face days. The education was adapted into online learning. An interactive teaching platform was utilized in order to continue online teaching. The classes got into the account of teachers in the platform as a class and had lessons.

Additionally, in this preparatory school, learners are divided into modules according to their proficiency levels. These are beginner (A1), elementary (A2), pre-intermediate (B1) and intermediate (B2). Learners are expected to complete each module in approximately two months. When the participants first started the semester, they took a proficiency level test, and they were placed into levels according to their exam scores. They continued to the next level on condition that they got enough scores from their midterm, final exams, writing quizzes and portfolio.

Lessons in this preparatory school are standardized by following the course book which is called Empower (Doff, Thaine, Puchta, Stranks and Lewis-Jones, 2015) by Cambridge Publishing House. In the course book, students are given grammar, vocabulary, reading and listening input in the first two parts, and then they encounter the third part which aims at students' attaining conversational skills in pair or group work. They study vocabulary and chunks in relation to conversational skills such as changing your mind, making social arrangements, making offers and suggestions etc. The students are expected to deliver a dialogue with their peers about the designated topics. Since this study focuses on learners' interactive communication with their peers and delayed OCF, the above-mentioned part of the course book was adapted and applied through the study time with the learners.

The teaching of this part of the book started with introducing the situation. Learners watched videos related to the topic which included the interactive communication of two or more people's conversation. Their comprehension of the videos was enabled and supported through answering the questions. After that, they were encouraged to analyze the chunks and conversational skills of speakers through different activities such as matching, rewriting, explaining. These videos were extended in some units so that learners could comprehend the conversation vocabulary and structures. They studied these structures with the help of guided or semi-guided practices. In order to make learners produce what they had learned in an interactive environment, learners were asked to create a dialogue with their partners according to the cards, clues or situations they were provided with. For this study, learners

in the experimental group recorded themselves in the production part so as for the teacher to give delayed OCF. However, it should be noted that control and experimental group had been given a whole class feedback to make sure that control group were not unfairly treated.

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

3.6.1. Pre and post test

For this study, quantitative data came from pre and post-test scores of experimental and control groups. These tests were video recorded, and two raters attended the test while the researcher was also being the interlocutor. Both of the instructors were working in the institution for five years. Since the subjects were taught in the lessons through the course book called Empower (Doff et al., 2015), pre and post-test (*Appendix A*) were selected from speaking exams Cambridge University prepared and applied. Since interactive communication is the objective in the study, a paired speaking test was applied as May (2009), Galazci (2008), Foot (1999), Norton (2005), Roever and Kasper (2018) and Borger (2019) suggested.

These tests were chosen according to their compatibility with the course book and courses' syllabus. They included three parts. In the first part, learners were asked daily and conversational questions individually. In the next part, they were assessed through their interaction with their partners upon the context they were given. The next part led the students to refer to a picture alone and then discuss with their partners based on what they understood from the picture and the question or instruction posed by the interlocutor. As it can be seen, these tests considered learners' interactive communication with each other and then their individual assessment.

3.6.2 Rubric

Moreover, a rubric (*Appendix B*) from Cambridge which is specifically designed for these kinds of speaking tests was made use of. This rubric included four aspects of speaking. These were grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation and last of all interactive communication. In each part, raters were supposed to give out of 5, which summed up to 20 in total. This distinct rubric was incorporated because of the fact that learners were asked to communicate interactively in the speaking tests and each part in the

rubric were invaluable for this study' purpose together with interactive communication's being dealt with. Since the participants were provided with delayed OCF focusing on their communication skills, the usage of this rubric would enable the validity and reliability of the pre and post-test; additionally, learners' progress after delayed OCF could be clearly detected.

3.6.3. Audio recordings

Another data collection tool was audio recording of the participants. They were expected to practice and produce daily language structures and dialogue types with their partners in the mentioned part of the course book. In the production part, they were asked to create a dialogue with their partners based on the given instructions. While they were creating these dialogues, they were requested to record themselves via an electronic device and send them to the researcher.

The researcher analyzed these recordings carefully by using the rubric which was employed in pre and post-test. By focusing on their dialogues' interactive communication side, the learners were granted delayed OCF on their performances after approximately one week for each activity. There were 7 tasks which were from the course book itself and they were about different communication patterns such as making arrangements, organizing an event and making excuses etc. While control groups took whole class feedback on the performances, experimental group benefitted from delayed OCF.

3.6.4. Survey

The qualitative data stemmed from the survey (*Appendix C*) which was designed by the researcher in order to get insights of learners' perspective on the usage of delayed oral feedback in speaking classes. This survey consisted of six questions. These questions were about delayed oral feedback, interactive communication lessons/activities, teacher feedback, pre and posttest. Participants were encouraged to write their feelings and experiences freely for these open-ended questions.

The main purpose for this survey was to investigate learners' engagement with delayed OCF since it is not a phenomenon used in the preparatory school lessons.

Expert opinion on data collection instruments was accredited from two instructors in the institution and two doctors in the field. The participants were given about thirty minutes to write their answers. With the help of this survey, the researcher could make deductions on learners' general attitudes on delayed OCF as well as the usage of interactive communication activities in classrooms.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Following to deciding the research design, context, data collection tools and the participants, appropriate permissions from Anadolu University Ethics Committee (*Appendix D*) were first adopted.

The study started the procedure by informing the students in the experimental and control groups about the research process. After taking their consent through consent forms (*Appendix E*), the participants attended their regular lessons. The researcher was their instructor.

It should be mentioned that there was also one piloting experimental and control group to make sure that delayed OCF process and speaking tests could be applied.

The study was applied in the same level which was pre-intermediate, but there were two distinct experimental and control groups in two different quarters. The schedule of both experimental and control groups could be detected in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2. The first experimental and control groups were instructed in the months from December to January while the second experimental and control groups were in pre-intermediate level from February to April.

Table 3.1. *First experimental and control group's schedule*

Consent Forms	December 20
Applying pre-test	December 25
Applying the treatment	December 25 – January 22
Applying post-test	January 25
The Survey	January 26

Table 3.2. *Second experimental and control group's schedule*

Consent Forms	February 15
Applying pre-test	February 22
Applying the treatment	February 22 – March 29
Applying post-test	April 5
The Survey	April 6

First of all, the participants were asked to fill in consent forms if they wanted to be in the research process. The researcher made clear the steps and requirements for the participants, and any questions arising from the participants were answered. After taking their consent, each participant in experimental and control groups took pre-test and they were paired by the researcher.

Secondly, the tasks in the course book were done in the classrooms. These tasks were seven in total. First task was simplified by considering the learners' reaction in the pilot group. The first task was taken from Unit 3, and it required them to talk to people in public places, so the participants were asked to apply turn-taking according to given instructions such as interrupting or changing the topic. The second lesson and task were from Unit 4 and about making arrangements and making time to think. The third was taken from Unit 5 and it was concerning making offers and suggestions. When Unit 6 revolved around asking for and giving advice as well as showing sympathy, the fourth task was selected accordingly. The fifth task was in Unit 8, and it was in connection with apologizing and making/accepting excuses. The sixth task was to learn the related items and produce a dialogue about returning goods and making complaints. This was from Unit 10. Last task was applied according to Unit 12, and here the participants were asked to agree and disagree in conversations upon some topics. The lesson flow was followed according to the course book, and the tasks were in the course book, as well. In the course book, after learning useful language, learners are encouraged to create dialogues by given instructions, clues or cards. The content of the procedure of the present study was reflected in Table 3.3. In Table 3.3, units and tasks could be noticed clearly.

Table 3.3. *Units and tasks implied in the classrooms in this present study*

Unit	Task
Unit 3 - talk to people in public places	Applying turn taking in a free conversation -interrupting the person -changing the topic -reacting as much as possible
Unit 4- making arrangements and making time to think	Student A: You want to invite your friend for lunch. Complete your week with plans for three afternoons. Decide what you want your friend to bring to the lunch. Student B: Your friend is going to invite you to lunch. Complete your week with plans for three days. Arrange an afternoon for lunch. Offer to bring something.
Unit 5- Making offers and suggestions	A surprise birthday party for a friend •buy food and drink •make and send invitations •book somewhere for the party Organize this event with your pair, and determine who will do which duties.
Unit 6 -asking for and giving advice as well as showing sympathy	You will give bad news to your partner. Read the cards 1– 4 and choose one. Remember to show sympathy and advice. 1 st situation: Someone stole your bag in a café. •What was in the bag? •What were you doing when the person stole it? •Who do you think stole it? •How did you feel? •What problems will you now have without your bag? 2 nd situation: You failed an important exam. •What was the exam? •Why was it important? •Did you think you would pass? •Who else will be upset that you failed?

Table 3.3. (Continued) *Units and tasks implied in the classrooms in this present study*

Unit 8- apologizing and making/accepting excuses.	In your pairs, apologize for situations and put forward an excuse. Take turns while apologizing/giving excuses and responding/accepting excuses Situations •being late for a meeting •not answering an email •forgetting to pay back some money Excuses •lots of traffic •didn't get paid •very busy •missed the bus/train
Unit 10 - returning goods and making complaints	Student A: You are a customer. Find an item you complain about. Think about: •where you are •what the problem is •what you want Student B: Manage with Student A's complaint (Do this activity by taking turns.)
Unit 12 - agree and disagree in conversations upon some topics	Think about the opinions below. Talk with your partner on which one(s) you agree/disagree with. Please offer reasons for your agreements and disagreements with the opinions. • Money makes people happy. • Celebrity magazines are fun to read. • Italian food is the best in the world. • There should be no speed limits on motorways. • Children should stay at school until 5 pm. • Video calls are better than normal phone calls.

Thirdly, when these lessons and tasks were carried out in the classroom, control groups received whole class feedback on their errors since the teacher was taking notes of their errors

while supervising the activity, yet students in the experimental group recorded their conversations and sent them to the researcher.

Next, the researcher provided delayed OCF on the rubric focusing on interactive communication to the experimental group. Delayed OCF was given to the participants individually after one week of the completion of each task.

Fifthly, before the level completion, the participants were called for post-test. The pairs were changed by looking at the pair groups in pre-test.

Lastly, the students in the experimental group filled the survey for the qualitative part of the study. Each student's view in the experimental group was taken thanks to the survey. Since a new treatment was applied, taking student views upon it would contribute to analyze and interpret the process.

By applying pre and post-test, the participants' progress was aimed to be assessed. The interlocutor was the researcher, nevertheless, seeing that the objectivity of the scores on the tests needed, another rater was invited to the tests and rated the students. This rater had a Bachelor's and Master's degree in ELT, and the researcher and the rater were working in the same institution for four years.

Furthermore, because the participants in the experimental groups recorded themselves while completing the tasks, the researcher could give delayed OCF one week later; otherwise, it could not have been possible. The survey completion enabled the researcher to infer the participants' general view on getting delayed OCF. The applied steps were reflected in Table 3.4 and explained in detail below.

Table 3.4. *The applied steps in the current study according to weeks*

	Experimental Groups	Control Groups
1 st Week	Signing consent forms	Signing consent forms
	Taking pre-test	Taking pre-test
2 nd Week	Unit 3- Learning the structures	Unit 3- Learning the structures
	Accomplishing the related task in pairs and recording	Accomplishing the related task in pairs
		Getting whole class feedback on it

Table 3.4. (Continued) *The applied steps in the current study according to weeks*

3 rd Week	Getting delayed oral feedback on	Unit 4- Learning the structures
	Unit 3 task	Accomplishing the related task in
	Unit 4- Learning the structures	pairs
	Accomplishing the related task in	Getting whole class feedback on it
4 th Week	Getting delayed oral feedback on	Unit 5- Learning the structures
	Unit 4 task	Accomplishing the related task in
	Unit 5- Learning the structures	pairs
	Accomplishing the related task in	Getting whole class feedback on it
5 th Week	Getting delayed oral feedback on	Unit 6- Learning the structures
	Unit 5 task	Accomplishing the related task in
	Unit 6- Learning the structures	pairs
	Accomplishing the related task in	Getting whole class feedback on it
6 th Week	Getting delayed oral feedback on	Unit 8- Learning the structures
	Unit 6 task	Accomplishing the related task in
	Unit 8- Learning the structures	pairs
	Accomplishing the related task in	Getting whole class feedback on it
7 th Week	Getting delayed oral feedback on	Unit 10 and 12- Learning the
	Unit 8 task	structures
	Unit 10- Learning the structures	Accomplishing the related tasks in
	Accomplishing the related task in	pairs
	pairs and recording	Getting whole class feedback on
	Unit 12- Learning the structures	them
8 th Week	Accomplishing the related task in	
	pairs and recording	
	Getting delayed oral feedback on	
	Unit 10 and 12 task	
	Taking post test	Taking post test
	Conducting the survey	

3.8. Data Analysis

To compute the data, two distinct methods were used. The quantitative data were gathered from pre and post speaking tests. These tests were graded by two raters and these ratings were statistically analyzed in terms of interrater reliability. The quantitative data were examined through SPSS 22.0 by following the processes.

First of all, inter-rater reliability scores were figured out statistically. The main purpose of having two raters was to be sure of the reliability of the scores given to the participants. With the help of interrater reliability scores, the validity and reliability of the scores could be unearthed.

Secondly, normality tests were applied in order to decide the tests to run for each data set. These tests would lead the researcher to choose the appropriate tests accordingly. Table 3.5 below indicates the quantitative data analysis and specific tests.

Table 3.5. *Statistical tests run for the quantitative data*

Data	Test
Normality tests of Experimental and Control groups' scores	Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test
Examining pre and post-tests scores of Experimental and Control groups	Mann Whitney U Test
Examining pre and post-tests scores of experimental groups	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks
Normality of the first experimental group's pre and post-test scores in total with sub-scores	Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test
Normality of the second experimental group's pre and post-test scores in total with sub-scores	Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test
Examining pre and post-test scores in total and in categories of the first experimental group	Paired Samples T Test
Examining pre and post-test scores in total and in categories of the second experimental group	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks

The qualitative data were attained from the survey. After the treatment which lasted for seven weeks, the students in the experimental groups gave their opinions on the treatment and the treatment process. The researcher wanted to collect the learners' view on the

treatment since this kind of feedback type was not primarily made use of in classrooms. In addition, these answers of the participants to the questions would enable the researcher to explain and verify the quantitative data in a detailed form.

The survey questions were prepared in Turkish so that the participants could state themselves in their mother tongue without the hardship of finding the correct words in the target language or anxiety. Thirty minutes were given to the participants so as to give them a chance to think and reflect their opinions easily. After the participants' completion, the data were translated from Turkish to English by the researcher herself. Translations were asked to be proofread by the second rater.

To analyze these data, content analysis was implemented. The researcher applied general inductive approach while analyzing the qualitative data. To do this, data was inspected attentively. The common ideas among the participants' views were tried to be found and categorized under codes. These codes were turned into categories and themes. These themes and ideas were checked and compared with the rater mentioned.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results based on the quantitative data which are comprised of pre and post-test scores of the participants and the qualitative data which include the analysis of the survey asking for open-ended questions related to the research variables which are the treatment, interactive lessons, tasks and delayed OCF. The quantitative data were computed by SPSS 22.0 programme whereas participants' answers to the survey were analyzed with content analysis and discussed by comparing with the quantitative data.

4.2. Inter-rater Reliability Scores

In examination for productive skills which are speaking and writing, objectivity is aimed to be got for the participants' scores. That's why, two or more raters give scores to learners' performance so that the subjectivity element while scoring can be eliminated. Koo and Li (2015) explain interrater reliability as indicating the change between the raters when they give scores to the same students' performances. So as to bring objectivity to the speaking scores of the participants in the current study, two raters measured the outputs of the participants and gave scores. With the help of this, the validity of the scores was reported and objectivity was ensured with two raters.

In this view, the scores in pre and post-tests which assessed the participants' speaking performance with time difference were computed in SPSS programme to detect the inter-rater reliability. 2-way mixed model with 95% confidence interval was executed for this purpose. This was chosen on the grounds that Koo and Li (2015) state that this model can demonstrate the reliability of the scores among two particular raters that evaluated the learners. The findings could be viewed at Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. *Inter-rater reliability between raters*

Variable	ICC	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control Groups pre-test	.889	.720	.956*

Table 4.1. (Continued) *Inter-rater reliability between raters*

Control Groups post-test	.728	.312	.892*
Experimental Groups pre-test	.944	.859	.978*
Experimental Groups post-test	.625	.053	.852

*p<.05

By interpreting the ICC (Interclass Correlation Coefficient), the recommendations of Koo and Li (2015) were benefitted. The ICC score of control groups' pre-test scores was 0.889. This is suggested to show Good Reliability between the raters. Next, the ICC scores of control groups' post-test scores was computed as 0.728. It indicated Moderate Reliability as the reliability level. When it comes to experimental groups' pre-test scores, the ICC scores was found to be 0.944 and it was interpreted as indicating Excellent Reliability between the two raters. Finally, experimental groups' post test scores' ICC score was 0.625. This was accepted as Moderate Reliability among the raters.

4.3. The Results of Quantitative Findings

One part of the current study dwells on using an experimental design. This brings the researcher to collect quantitative data and analyze them. The main question in this study is whether the new treatment which is providing delayed OCF on the participants' interactive communicative performances has a direct effect on the participants' speaking performances. To unearth it, a great deal of statistical analyses was conducted and interpreted.

4.3.1 Results of participants' pre and post-tests

To this end, the first step was to examine and compare the pre and post-test results of the participants in experimental and control groups. Therefore, the effect of the treatment could be determined. To be able to run the data, normality tests were needed in order to evaluate the data in terms of normal distribution. Seeing that the number of participants in either experimental or control groups were below 30, the appropriate test was selected as Sharpio-Wilk normality test. The results of this test could be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. *Sharpio- Wilk normality test of control groups*

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	20	.093*
Post-test	20	.599*

* $p > .05$

By looking at Table 4.2 which shows the results of normality tests for control groups, it can be figured out that the scores were distributed normally within 95% confidence interval. To decide on which tests were needed to be employed to compare two distinct groups' scores, Sharpio-Wilk normality test was computed for experimental groups, as well, and it could be viewed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. *Sharpio- Wilk normality test of experimental groups*

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	20	.044*
Post-test	20	.049*

* $p < .05$

Just as it can be detected in Table 4.3, the pre-test and post-test scores of the participants in experimental groups indicate a normal distribution in the normality test. The following step would be to analyze the difference between experimental and control groups in line with pre and post-tests. Yet, because control groups did not yield a normal distribution in normality tests, Mann Whitney U test was chosen as non-parametric test to be implemented if the experimental and control groups' speaking scores had differentiated according to the treatment. So as to reveal that, first pre-test scores were analyzed in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4. *Mann Whitney U test findings of experimental and control groups' participants pre-test*

Groups	<i>N</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>p</i>
Experimental	20	193.500	-.177	.860
Control	20			

* $p > .05$

As Table 4.4 suggests, no statistically significant difference was found between pre-test scores and groups ($U = 193.500$, $z = -.177$, $p = .860 > 0.05$). When the findings were analyzed, it shows that pre-test speaking scores of the participants presented high similarity.

Therefore, there is no significant difference between the groups pre-tests, and this suggests the groups resemble one another.

The next step was to examine the post-test speaking scores of the participants in the groups, thence, whether the difference that the treatment created exists or not could be detected. To this aim, Mann Whitney U test was applied for the post-test speaking scores for the groups in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Mann Whitney U test findings of experimental and control group participants post-test

Groups	N	U	Z	p
Experimental	20	317.500	-2.519	.012*
Control	20			

*p<.05

According to the results in Table 4.5, it can be deduced that there was a significant difference between the post-test speaking scores of the participants in experimental and control groups ($U = 317.500$, $z = -2.519$, $p = .012 < 0.05$). This indicates that the treatment brought good results for the participants' improvement in the speaking scores. Since there is a statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups, it could be inferred that delayed OCF could lead to improve the participants' speaking performances overall.

The other important statistical analysis would be to reveal the analysis of experimental groups in total and in detail. Because the normality test of experimental groups showed a normal distribution, a Paired Samples t-test was selected to be applied to see experimental groups' pre and post-test results in general. The results could be found in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Paired sample t-test results of experimental groups

	Pre-test		Post-test		n	95% CI for Mean Difference	t	p
	M	SD	M	SD				
Total	12.02	3.812	15.90	3.272	20	-4.939, -2.810	-7.360	.000*
Grammar	3.625	.896	4.275	.816	20	-.916, -.383	-4.932	.509
Discourse	3.375	.978	4.275	.784	20	-1.205, -.594	-5.958	.000*
Pronunciation	3.175	1.059	4.20	.822	20	-1.368, -.681	-6.037	.000*
Interactive	1.850	1.702	3.150	1.805	20	-1.857, -.742	-4.719	.000*

*p<.05

As table 4.6 suggests, this statistical test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between pre and post-tests of experimental groups ($t_{(20)} = -7.360, p < .05$). The total scores of pre-test of the participants ($Mean=12.02, SD=3.812$) are higher than post-test scores ($Mean=15.90, SD= 3.272$).

On the grounds that there are specific parts in the speaking rubric and this thesis focuses on the improvement of interactive communication of the participants, each part in the rubric was statistically analyzed. It could be realized that grammar part does not show a statistically significant difference between pre and post-test of the participants in the experimental groups ($t_{(20)} = -4.932, p > .05$). Although the mean scores for grammar part post-test scores ($Mean=4.275, SD= .816$) are higher than in pre-test ($Mean=3.625, SD= .896$), this is not a noteworthy discrepancy. Secondly, discourse competence part creates a statistically significant difference between pre and post-test of the participants ($t_{(20)} = -5.958, p < .05$). For this part, the mean scores for pre-test ($Mean=3.375, SD= .978$) are much lower than for post-test ($Mean=4.275, SD= .784$). Thirdly, the pronunciation part indicates that there is a significant difference between the participants' performances in pre and post-treatment ($t_{(20)} = -6.037, p < .05$). The post-test scores ($Mean=4.20, SD= .822$) differ from pre-test scores ($Mean=3.175, SD= 1.059$). The final part is interactive communication. When the participants' performances in this part were analyzed, there is a statistically significant difference between pre and post-test scores ($t_{(20)} = -4.719, p < .05$). The post-test mean scores ($Mean=3.150, SD= 1.805$) are much higher than pre-test mean scores ($Mean=1.850, SD= 1.702$), therefore, it seems that the treatment focusing on interactive communication aided the participants' speaking skills improvement and performances.

4.3.2 Findings of each experimental group according to the speaking rubric

Since there are two experimental groups and they had the treatment in two separate timings, the next step after finding out that there is a statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups was to determine in which areas in the speaking rubric the participants showed progress. One part of this dissertation is linked to interactive communication classrooms and activities; hence, it is really crucial to detect whether the experimental groups improved in that part of speaking skill as a consequence of delayed

OCF. In order to decide which statistical test was going to be run, normality tests of each experimental group were done.

4.3.2.1. Results of experimental group 1

In the table 4.7 below, you can see the findings of the normality test of experimental group 1.

Table 4.7. *Shapiro-Wilk normality test of experimental group 1*

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	10	.436*
Post-test	10	.171*

* $p > .05$

As Table 4.7 above asserts, both pre and post-test means of the experimental group mentioned indicated normal distribution. As a result of this, Paired Sample T-test was selected to be performed in Table 4.8. The main reason is to reach an understanding in which areas of the speaking rubric the participants showed progress.

Table 4.8. *Comparing pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group 1 participants by means of Paired sample t-test*

	Pre-test		Post-test		<i>n</i>	95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
Total	12.40	4.005	16.60	2.270	10	-6.300, -2.099	-4.523	.001*
Grammar	3.70	1.159	3.90	.737	10	-.857, .457	-.688	.509
Discourse	2.80	.788	4.30	.823	10	-2.107, -.892	-5.582	.000*
Pronunciation	3.20	1.229	3.90	.737	10	-1.529, .129	-1.909	.089
Interactive	2.70	1.766	4.50	.849	10	-3.006, -.593	-3.375	.008*

* $p < .05$

This statistical test in Table 4.8 demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between pre and post-test scores in total among the participants in the experimental group 1 ($t_{(10)} = -4.523$, $p < .05$). The scores in the pre-test ($Mean=12.40$, $SD= 4.005$) and the post-test ($Mean=16.60$, $SD= 2.270$) confirm the participants' improvement over their overall speaking performances. When it is analyzed closely, it could be seen that the treatment does not seem to have affected learners' speaking improvement in a large extent in terms of grammar and pronunciation. The grammar evaluations of students in their speaking

performances in the pre-test and post-test do not introduce a statistically significant difference ($t_{(10)} = -.688, p > .05$). The pre-test scores ($Mean=3.70, SD= 1.159$) and post-test scores ($Mean=3.90, SD= .737$) in grammar section do not deviate from each other a lot. When it comes to pronunciation, the pre-test ($Mean=3.20, SD=1.229$) and post-test ($Mean= 3.90, SD= .737$) results are very close to each other, so there is no statistically significant difference ($t_{(10)} = -1.909, p > .05$).

As for discourse section, a statistically significant difference could be detected among the participants' pre and post-test results ($t_{(10)} = -5.582, p < .05$). This could also be seen in mean scores in pre-test ($Mean= 2.80, SD= .788$) and post-test ($Mean= 4.30, SD= .823$). It can be deduced that the treatment aided the improvement of the participants' speaking performance very significantly. When provided delayed OCF, the participants' attention was taken into discourse and setting, and they showed progress. Lastly, interactive communication part shows that there is a statistically significant difference between pre and post scores of the participants ($t_{(10)} = -3.375, p < .05$). The pre-test mean scores ($Mean= 2.70, SD= 1.766$) are lower than post-test mean scores ($Mean= 4.50, SD=.849$).

4.3.2.2 Results of experimental group 2

Normality test is needed so as to choose the appropriate statistical test in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. *Shapiro-Wilk normality test of experimental group 2*

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	10	.024
Post-test	10	.067*

* $p > .05$

Table 4.9 shows that there are mixed results for pre and post-tests. With pre-test, data is distributed normally, but post-test results do not show a normal distribution. Additionally, because the number of participants is lower and 30, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test as a one of the most common non-parametric tests was determined to be performed. The results could be observed in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. *Wilcoxon signed ranks test results of experimental group 2*

Score	Ranks	N	Mean Ranks	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Pre-test Score Post-test Score	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.527	.012*
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	10				
Pre-grammar Post-grammar	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.251	.024*
	Positive Ranks	6	3.502	21.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	10				
Pre-discourse Post-discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.585	.010*
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	10				
Pre-pronunciation Post-pronunciation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.549	.011*
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	10				
Pre-interactive Post-interactive	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.379	.017*
	Positive Ranks	7	4.00	28.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	10				

* $p < .05$

Table 4.10 suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between pre and post-test scores of participants experimental group 2, $T = 26$, $z = -2.527$, $p < .05$. In total, pre-test scores ($Mdn = 13.00$) of this group are lower than post-test scores ($Mdn = 14.50$). This result leads to the fact that the treatment was successful at enhancing the participants' speaking skills.

As it was done for the first experimental group, each part in the rubric was statistically analyzed to detect each part's effect on the participants' total improvement. Firstly, the grammar part indicates a statistically significant difference in the group, $T = 21$, $z = -2.251$, $p < .05$. The pre-test scores for this part ($Mdn = 4.00$) are lower than post-test ones ($Mdn = 5.00$). Another part is discourse competence of the participants, which also shows a statically significant difference, $T = 36$, $z = -2.585$, $p < .05$. Pre-test findings of this part ($Mdn = 4.00$) are equivalent with post-test findings ($Mdn = 4.00$). Next part is pronunciation, and this section indicates a statistically significant difference, $T = 36$, $z = -2.549$, $p < .05$. The post-test scores ($Mdn = 3.50$) in this section are higher than pre-test scores ($Mdn = 4.00$). The final section in the speaking rubric is interactive communication skills of the participants, and again this section shows a statistically significant difference, $T = 28$, $z = -2.379$, $p < .05$.

However, pre-test median scores (*Mdn* = 1.50) are higher than post-test median scores (*Mdn* = 1.00). When it is looked at Table 4.10, it can be suggested that the treatment not only affected interactive communication part positively but also the other sections that are grammar, discourse competence and pronunciation.

4.4. The Results of Qualitative Findings

The current study has included a survey which is interested in the participants' perspectives and opinions on the treatment and has included open-ended questions. By making use of inductive approach, codes were found, put into categories, and lastly these categories were themes. This analysis could be found under each theme derived as a result. There were three major themes emerging out of this qualitative analysis done by the researcher, and these major themes are positive effect of the treatment on learners' emotional state, positive effect of the treatment on learners' English comprehension and errors, last of all, positive attitude towards interactive activities in classrooms.

4.4.1. Positive effect of the treatment on learners' emotional state

The analysis of answers given to survey questions by the participants yielded and were gathered around under codes and categories, which led the research figure out the first theme which is named as positive effect of the treatment on learners' emotional state. These findings could be seen in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. *Categories and codes for the first emerging theme*

Theme	Categories	Codes	Participants	<i>f</i>
Positive effect of the treatment on Learners' Emotional State	Feeling less anxiety	Giving more courage	1	1
		I feel less anxiety.	11,17	2
		Decreasing especially my tension while speaking.	3,6	2
		I was not under stress.	13	1
	Feeling more comfortable & relaxed	Speaking more comfortably	2,3,	4
		Making me a more comfortable person in terms of speaking	12,15	2
		Helping me speak more comfortably and neatly	11	1
		I believe I am more comfortable right now	5,9	2
	Increase in self-confidence and self-esteem	Gaining confidence	8,4	2
		My self-confidence increased.	1	1
		Boosting confidence & Self-esteem	14,16	2
		It enabled more confidence.	18	1

As it can be seen in Table 4.11, the theme included three main categories that are feeling less anxiety, feeling more comfortable and increase in self-confidence and self-esteem. These are compatible with the participants' comments, which were merged under some codes.

Most of the participants wrote about their feelings about the treatment they had got. They focused on some parts of the treatment, and how it affected their emotional state. There were some specific points they commonly stated. These statements are provided in Appendix F with direct quotations from students both in English and Turkish.

First of all, lots of the participants mentioned that they felt less anxiety thanks to the treatment. They felt more confident at speaking English when the treatment came to an end. Participants 14 and 3 had written on this point.

(1) "It (The treatment) created more practice. I picked up speed on my speaking. It boosted my confidence and self-esteem." (P14, survey)

(2) "I liked it (delayed oral feedback) because it decreased especially my tension while speaking." (P3, survey)

As it can be seen, the subject was talking about how this treatment affected the speaking positively, but the more crucial thing is that the student felt more confident at speaking and self-esteem of the participant increased. Also, the other participant pointed out how the anxiety lessened when spoken language was practiced.

Another point came out from the participants, and a few of them felt that they started to become more relaxed while they were speaking. For example, participant 12 had written as below.

(3) "These kinds of practices made me a more comfortable person in terms of speaking." (P12, survey)

There are two points that participants 11 and 1 had jotted down generally. These two participants that actually summarized the point, and the quotations were given as follows.

(4) "I started to be more careful while speaking thanks to feedback I got." (P11, survey)

(5) "It was very useful, and my self-confidence increased while I am speaking. Reflecting what I am thinking into a paper is easy, but it is hard to speak. There is someone who is waiting to understand you. You get nervous on whether the person could understand or not. I believe I am more comfortable right now." (P1, survey)

The former sentence could direct the attention to how participant 11 believed an emotional upstate in terms of being more attentive at the time of speaking. The latter comment of participant 1 on the treatment summarizes that when got delayed OCF on interactive communication, the belief of the participant fortified, and when the participant felt less anxious, he/she could be more comfortable to talk in the target language.

There were a few codes which need to be referred to because participants 8 and 2 thought that interactive communication activities donated with delayed OCF contributed their self-confidence and speaking skills. Two quotations were selected to be shared.

(6) “I believe interactive communication activities improved my self-confidence and speaking skills.” (P8, survey)

(7) “If you are a shy and hesitate to speak because of making errors, these activities make you more relaxed.” (P2, survey)

Two different participants stated that interactive communication activities done in the classrooms improved their confidence but lessened the anxiety. Hence, it can be concluded that the participants considered that the treatment on interactive communication activities worked on their behalf in terms of making them feel more self-confident and comfortable to speak as well as causing less anxiety.

4.4.2. Positive effect of the treatment on learners’ English and comprehending their errors

The other theme which came out as a result of learners’ opinions on open-ended survey questions was the positive effect of the treatment on learners’ English as improvement and comprehending their errors. The categories and codes could be observed in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. *Categories and codes for the second emerging theme*

Theme	Categories	Codes	Participants	<i>f</i>
Positive effect of the treatment on learners' English and comprehension of their mistakes	Benefits of the treatment	Effectiveness of the treatment	2,5,	2
		Usefulness	19,6,7	3
		Constructive and effective	8,15	2
		Making me improve a lot	16,18	2
		Helping my English improve	20	1
		Sufficient and related	9,10	2
		More permanent	13,14	2
		It is fruitful.	11,12	2
	Improvement in English-speaking skills	Improving speaking skills	3,5,18,12,20	5
		Affects comprehension positively	4,8	2
		Affecting my speaking positively	10,19	2
		Exchanging opinions	9, 11	2
	Increase in vocabulary knowledge	Learning new vocabulary items	1,7	2
		Effective in correcting my mistakes in speaking and finding new vocabulary items to use in the speaking	12,15	2
		Contributing to my vocabulary knowledge	17	1
	Noticing mistakes	Realizing/ Understanding errors clearly	3,5	2
		Understanding our errors and correcting them more	6,8	2
		To be more careful/attentive	10,11	2
		Making participants learn the wrong parts in speaking	13,14,15,18	4
		Trying not to make the same errors every time	17,20	2
		Aids me to see our own errors in pronunciation, and fluency	4,9	2

Suggested as in Table 4.12, this theme was created to attribute to the categories of benefits of the treatment, improvement in English speaking skills, increase in vocabulary knowledge and noticing mistakes by considering codes. The categories and codes drew attention to the fact that the participants felt an improvement in their English, and they believed that they could notice their mistakes more.

The majority of the students gave their opinions on the questions related to the treatment (*Appendix F*), interactive activities made in the classrooms and the speaking exams. What occurred as common was that the participants felt that their English had improved thanks to the treatment.

For instance, participant 20 wrote about this in precise and shortly.

(8) “It (the treatment) improved my English.” (P20, survey)

Participant 19 commented on the treatment as it can be seen below. When it is analyzed, the learner assumed that speaking activities are closely integrated with delayed OCF, and it could be realized the learner felt an improvement on speaking skills in English.

(9) “Thanks to speaking activities, I believe that my speaking in English has improved, and it was useful to me.” (P19, survey)

Like this comment, participant 10 shared a similar opinion.

(10) “I believe I improved my English with every activity.” (P10, survey)

It could be realized that participant 10 here again associated delayed OCF and interactive communicative activities as one, and it led a success in general improvement in the target language.

There were also other comments on both how entertaining the treatment process was, and they enhanced their speaking skills. For instance, participant 8 stated that

(11) “They were fun practices to me, and in regard to them, my speaking skills improved.” (P8, survey)

On the grounds that the subjects had fun while being involved in delayed OCF, it might have led them to practice English more and increase their motivation towards the language. Another point could be made on recording the speaking performance of themselves, and this situation was not commonly practiced in universities or schools. Since it was a new way for them, they could have had fun, and made them believe in the treatment.

In addition, participant 18 jotted down a comment on the treatment process below with both in classroom activities and delayed OCF. As it can be inferred, the participant's motivation and belief on improving in English was crystal clear to him.

(12) "In general, they (oral delayed feedback and interactive activities) were pretty useful to us with regards to improving our language." (P18, survey)

As a further point, some of the participants mentioned the fact that their vocabulary knowledge enlarged due to the treatment. Two quotations below could indicate how participant 7 and 12 considered their vocabulary enhancement in relation to their speaking.

(13) "Delayed feedback were effective in correcting my errors in speaking and finding new vocabulary items to use in the speaking." (P7, survey)

(14) "It contributed to my vocabulary knowledge." (P12, survey)

Thus, it could be concluded that almost all of the participants regarded that delayed OCF aided them in terms of improving their speaking skills in general, but also their vocabulary knowledge was highly affected by the treatment.

On the other hand, the last point should be made with the participants' answers on the fact that the treatment enabled them to realize and correct their errors more easily. A big part of the selected groups shared an insight on this issue. There were distinct but similar shared opinions on the part that the participants could understand their errors more than the other times.

Two of the participants had given some thoughts on this issue, and they could be used as representatives of the total group.

(15) "I saw my errors which I had not realized. The benefit of its being delayed feedback is that I forgot the sentence I formed, and thanks to this, I could have a new perspective and be more rational." (P14, survey)

(16) "Feedback given delayed, time passing after our speaking show us our errors clearly." (P13, survey)

Participant 14 here was referring to the fact that the learners could be approaching their errors in an honest and objective way because their speaking productions were recorded, and the feedback time let them have a clear mind and be unbiased towards the feedback content. Likewise, participant 13 stated that delayed feedback made them more unprejudiced towards the feedback, and they could grasp their errors.

On this issue, participant 6 mentioned how correcting the errors were associated with the delayed OCF.

- (17) “I understand more by speaking attentively, and with every feedback I try to understand my errors and correct them more and more.” (P6, survey)

The participant’s attention level was increased because the given feedback type was successful at getting him realizing and repairing their errors.

Participant 5 and 3 stated that recognizing errors could have led an improvement in speaking English because the learner could be able to learn from the errors on their speaking. These statements could be seen below.

- (18) “It helped me notice my errors I made while I was speaking English and speak better.” (P5, survey)
- (19) “I am satisfied with the delayed oral corrective feedback because although it is given later, I can learn from the errors while I am speaking.” (P3, survey)

It should be mentioned that some of the learners believed that oral delayed feedback was more permanent. This could be as a result of being more objective towards their own performance, finding out their errors clearly or their will of correcting their errors. A sample sentence on this issue was shared below.

- (20) “The teacher gives us detailed feedback and we learn the correct versions. Because time passes over speaking, it becomes more permanent.” (P13, survey)

To sum up, participant 13 believed that delayed OCF assisted them in terms of noticing their errors during their speaking performance; besides, they sensed that they could speak English better by correcting their own errors based on the given feedback, which proves statistical results indicating that delayed OCF was successful at improving the participants’ speaking performance.

4.4.3. The positive attitude towards interactive activities in classrooms

Final theme emerged in the analysis seeing that a great deal of the participants shared their opinions on interactive or communicative activities which were associated with delayed OCF in the study, and they considered that interactive communicative activities were meaningful and useful. This analysis could be found in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. *Categories and codes for the third emerging theme*

Theme	Categories	Codes	Participants	<i>f</i>
The positive attitude towards interactive activities in classrooms	Positive beliefs	Having new ideas	1,11	2
		Having fun	7,15	2
		We like the tasks.	19	1
		Fun and instructive	20	1
		Better and sensible speaking exercises	5, 8	2
	Usefulness	Interactive activities are more useful.	1,6,	2
		Pretty successful and informative	16,10,12	3
		Good and improving	18	1
		Comprehending the differences between speaking and writing clearly	13,14	2
			15,17	2
		Efficient	9	1
		Thinking fast and speak comfortably.	4	1

When Table 4.13 was gone over, it could be detected that the participants' ideas on interactive classroom activities revolved around two main categories which are usefulness and positive beliefs. The students seemed to enjoy this type of activity and find them quite beneficial for their learning. The statements of the participants under this theme could be seen with English and Turkish versions with direct quotations in Appendix F.

Almost all of the students in the study supposed that interactive activities were both useful and fun. There two example sentences from their answers.

(21) "They (interactive activities) are pretty successful and informative." (P16, survey)

(22) "I like talking to my friends interactively. I've had fun, and it was fruitful for me." (P15, survey)

Participant 16 found them informative whereas participant 15 mentioned the fun side of the practice. Thus, it could be deduced that the participants had had fun while being engaged in interactive activities with their peers, and they had benefitted from these types of speaking activities.

Another category demonstrated that the participants benefitted from interactive activities in the classrooms disparately, and three of the examples would be given here.

(23) "We comprehend the differences between speaking and writing clearly." (P13, survey)

(24) "They (interactive activities) are enhancing my speaking skills and I could think fast and speak comfortably." (P4, survey)

(25) "Thanks to the people I talk to, I have had new ideas." (P11, survey)

The participants attracted the attention on three specific parts. The participant 13 was referring to the fact that while learning English, the learners are expected to differentiate between speaking and writing as production types. Besides, because the participants in the study were instructed with academic writing such as opinion paragraphs, interactive activities let them observe the differences between speaking and writing. The next statement reveals that the more practice made in communicative activities, the more the learners could feel how fast and comfortable they could be speaking. The reason is why participant 4 felt she could reply faster and with comfort the fact that interactive activities were supplied with a pre-teaching according to the course book's guidelines. Hence, the participants became more competent. The last quotation indicates that participant 11 reached and confronted new ideas thanks to the peers, which was different from learning how to speak in a language. Owing to the fact that the learners could be in a meaningful and real communication with the help of

interactive activities, they, as human beings, are in an authentic conversation, which enables them to obtain new ideas or opinions from their partners.

In conclusion, as the statements written for the open-ended survey questions were analyzed, it was figured out that the participants had positive attitudes and beliefs towards delayed OCF and interactive activities. There were more positive replies, and it should be given as a fact that there were only two or three neutral comments on the parts; therefore, it could be reasoned that almost the majority of the participants in the study believed that they had benefitted from the study in a way. Their perception on delayed OCF linked with interactive activities was positive and the treatment seemed to create a positive learning environment for the participants.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative findings presented in the previous chapter are going to be discussed by referring to research questions formed for the study as well as results of studies in the literature which have dealt with the similar topic. First, research questions of this study are going to be reminded. Then, findings of the current study are going to be regarded with the previous studies.

In the conclusion part, summary of the current study is going to be given. This is going to be followed by implications of the current study, and lastly suggestions for further studies are going to be shared.

Discussion of this study is going to be completed according to the findings, and each research question is going to be attributed. The research questions are as follows:

1. What is the effect of delayed oral corrective feedback on improving students' speaking skills in interactive tasks?
2. Is there an increase between students' pre-test and post-test speaking scores upon delayed oral corrective feedback?
3. What are the students' perceptions on delayed oral corrective feedback?

5.2. The Effect of Delayed OCF on Learners' Speaking Skills in Interactive Tasks

The data which were gathered from speaking pre and post-test of the participants and the survey indicated that the students in pre-intermediate level benefitted from delayed OCF when applied for interactive communicative tasks. After comparing the scores of control and experimental groups, it was observed that experimental groups which were provided with delayed OCF following to oral communicative tasks outscored the control groups. Therefore, it was reached that the treatment worked for the learners' improvement. When interactive communication criteria in pre and post-tests was analyzed, it was also evident that experimental group participants outscored their previous scores for this specific part. It could be deduced that they could gain some interactive communication skills such as applying turn-taking, asking each other some questions etc. Furthermore, it should be underlined that the

learners improved their speaking in other sections that are grammar, discourse management and pronunciation in the rubric, as well.

The findings of the current study are compatible with other studies which underline that delayed OCF is beneficial at improving learners' speaking skills. For example, Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) report that delayed OCF is influential at learners' fluency together with accuracy although they could not find any difference in complexity when it is compared to immediate feedback. Therefore, the study concluded that when teachers correct their students' utterances with delay, especially EFL learners could improve their speaking skills like in fluency and accuracy. Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat (2015) had argued that when complexity in speaking was analyzed, the learners who were more proficient and provided with delayed OCF were more skilled at including more words into their speaking. This is also in line with findings of the current study because high proficient learners could make use of delayed OCF, and the learners' proficiency level in this research was pre-intermediate.

On especially interactive communication, Quinn (2014) disputed that immediate and delayed CF might not differ from each other well enough to create any distinct effects on acquiring the knowledge, yet the researcher identifies learners commented on delayed CF as letting learners to complete interactive activities by not being interrupted. Therefore, delayed CF could be crucial when it comes to let learners concentrate on communicative assignments without the fear of being interfered or bothered. Rolin-Ianziti (2010) incorporated communicative activities and delayed OCF in their study. After analyzing the delayed OCF of the teachers, the scholar asserted that teachers could evaluate learners' strengths and weakness in their oral productions when completing interactive tasks with regards to their language usages, and individual learners' needs in relation to their language use or performances could be dealt with together in the delayed correction time.

This study's findings could also be supported by the works of Ducasse and Brown (2009) because learners in the university context are advised to interact in a communicative manner like requesting or accepting. By instructing university students in pre-intermediate levels, it is evident that learners could hold conversations communicatively in the target language while speaking. When they get delayed error correction, their improvement was proved to increase. In addition, Harputlu and Erarslan (2019) and Chaisongkram (2018) put

forward that learners in university level could enhance their speaking skills through communicative tasks, which could be a part of the findings of this study.

However, the results of the current study contradict with the study of Shabani and Safari (2016a) in terms of accuracy criteria. Although the scholars recommend using immediate OCF to improve learners' accuracy in their speaking performances, this study reveals that delayed OCF could enhance learners' speaking skills almost all speaking assessment parts that are grammar, pronunciation, interactive communication, and discourse. Discourse and interactive communication in this study could be evaluated to correspond with accuracy in this sense. Likewise, Shabani and Safari (2016b) advocate the usage of immediate OCF more than delayed OCF with regards to accuracy in learners' speech, but this differs from the results of this study.

5.3. Delayed OCF and Learners' General Speaking Skills Improvement

Much as this study prioritizes the improvement of learners for their interactive communication skills, it was revealed that experimental groups took advantage of being instructed and delayed OCF in sections for grammar, discourse management and pronunciation, too. The results yielded that experimental group 1 benefitted from the treatment in terms of all the sections, yet discourse, pronunciation and interactive communication resulted in statistical difference. Likewise, experimental group 2 made use of the treatment, and the learners improved their skills on all these sections with a statistically significant difference. This suggested that even though the learners got delayed OCF after interactive tasks done in the classrooms, their speaking skills in general enhanced as a result. Thus, the effect of delayed OCF could be acknowledged for learners' overall enhancement in their speaking skills.

Furthermore, Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis and Swain's Output Hypothesis should be referred owing to the fact that these hypotheses consider the treatment aided the learners to perceive their errors while they learned from their own oral productions. When viewed from this point of view, findings could be justified with results of other scholars in the literature such as Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012), Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat (2015), Quinn (2014) and Rolin-Ianziti (2010). Besides, the findings of the current study could be supported by the work of Fanselow (1997) on the grounds that the scholar emphasizes the

fact teachers need some time to inspect the error, consider how it should be conveyed; therefore, delayed CF for oral productions of the learners were suggested. Because the researcher had also some time to analyze the errors of the participants, delayed OCF may have contributed to the learners more.

In a sense, this study is also in line with Shabani and Safari (2016b) on the grounds that the scholars put forward that both timings of OCF which are immediate and delayed feedback was successful at boosting learners' speaking skills, yet their study focused on accuracy in particular. Similarly, Quinn (2014) found that learners evaluated both timings for feedback as beneficial, were pleased with either immediate or delayed CF.

Nonetheless, the findings here in the current study is not in line with the work of Siyyari (2005). Although Siyyari (2005) could not reveal a big statistical difference between experimental group which was treated with focus on form immediate corrective recast and comparison group offered with delayed explicit focus on form, the researcher attributed this gaining in accuracy of experimental group to feedback timing, which underlined the benefit of immediate one.

It should be incorporated that since the learners got the feedback from their teacher, the studies which discussed that teacher feedback is rewarding in connection with speaking improvement. Au (2019), Khoram, Bazvand, and Sarhad (2020), Van Ginkel, Guliker, Biemans, and Mulder (2017), Lynch and Maclean (2003), Boughazzoula (2016) advocate teacher feedback on the grounds that it leads learners to have more gains other than other sources like peer feedback or self-assessment with reference to learners' speaking skills' overall improvement. As a consequence of this, it could be stressed that the way delayed OCF was offered in the study might have affected the learners' progress, and teacher delayed OCF could be supported by studies dwelling on feedback timing or source. Another issue could stem from types of feedback offered to the student in the study during the delayed OCF sessions. Due to the fact that the researcher used explicit feedback types that are explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation more than implicit ones like repetition or recasts, this might have contributed to the learners' speaking progress. As Gholizade (2013) and Solikhah (2016) pointed out that explicit correction could aid learners' noticing the errors, these findings could advocate the findings of this study.

5.4. Learners' Perceptions on Delayed OCF

As a part of the present study, a survey was implemented in order that the learners' opinions on the treatment which included delayed OCF on interactive activities could be gathered. The survey consisted of open-ended questions related to the treatment, and the answers of the learners were categorized into codes, categories and themes. Three main themes emerged which were *positive effect of the treatment on learners' emotional state*, *positive effect of the treatment on learners' English comprehension and errors*, and *positive attitude towards interactive activities into classrooms*.

When it was investigated, it turned out that the learners' anxiety was positively affected by the treatment, and they ended up being more confident to speak in the target language. Another issue was that they had felt more comfortable and more self-confident at speaking. In addition, the learners believed in the contribution of interactive communication activities into their self-confidence and speaking skills. This finding could be confirmed by other studies in the field. To illustrate, Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) included anxiety in their study frame which aimed to compare immediate and delayed OCF, and the group which got delayed OCF had lower anxiety levels. It was commented that the learners felt more comfortable so as to join and speak up in talks or reply to the teacher's queries. In another perspective, Shabani and Safari (2016a) suggested that delayed OCF should be applied in classrooms seeing that when students were provided with immediate one, they could become more nervous since their communication was suspended and their anxiety became apparent. Moreover, Shabani and Safari (2016a) confirmed that the group which took delayed error correction had experienced anxiety less than the one supplied with immediate OCF.

Nevertheless, this study's findings disprove the points made in the research of Quinn (2014). The researcher stressed that the learners who got delayed OCF viewed the feedback as embarrassing whereas immediate OCF group was more contented with the feedback. Delayed OCF evoked embarrassment and anxiety together with happiness among children, but immediate OCF led to happiness more. Quinn (2014) also pointed out immediate feedback created a positive sense that teacher was there to help themselves and this was especially for learners who are not patient; however, the researcher admits that this timing of CF could cause learners to be more teacher-dependent.

The second theme led to an inference that the learners had an improvement in their speaking skills such as vocabulary enhancement, noticing their errors. This could be advocated by the findings of above-mentioned studies. Nevertheless, one study's finding should be attributed to because it is in line with this theme found with reference to vocabulary learning progress. In their study, Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat (2015) asserted that delayed OCF was proved to let learners incorporate more vocabulary items in their talks. The fact that learners notice their errors thanks to CF could be defended with the remarks of Li (2010) and also Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis approves that the learners could realize their errors through CF in their oral performances by getting a delayed treatment.

The last occurring theme demonstrated that interactive activities were regarded to be fun, meaningful, and useful by the learners. Gharaghanipour, Zareian, and Behjat (2015) stated that the anxiety caused by correcting the error is rare among learners when interactive communication can be set. They continued that when learners are familiar to interactive situations, they contact with one another better, which could ease and aid their anxiety levels to be decreased. As mentioned earlier, Harputlu and Erarslan (2019) and Chaisongkram (2018) express that learners in university carry positive beliefs on interactive tasks as well as group work. These findings of the studies above support the results of the present study in this regard.

Last of all, these themes which were indicating the learners' positive attitude towards delayed OCF could be justified by the studies of other scholars. The results found in Muhsin (2016), Atma and Widiati (2015), Yiğit (2019), Tomczyk (2013) support that learners prefer to get delayed OCF. Learners' preferences are also crucial in terms of affecting their judgments. Yet, the findings of the present study contradict with Hassan (2017), Dawood (2014), Martin and Valdivia (2017), Gamlo (2019) with regards to the fact that the learners were found to prefer delayed OCF in this study.

5.5 Conclusion

In this part, a short summary of the current study is provided so that the aim, procedure, analyses, and findings could be revised and offered in a nutshell. First of all, the aim of the study has been to reveal if delayed OCF influences oral skills improvement of young adult learners in university preparatory program when applied with and for interactive activities.

So as to reach results, a mixed-methods research design including not only quantitative but also qualitative methods were made use of. The method implemented in the study was called as triangulation design as being one of the mixed-methods research. This specific design lets researchers collect the data from two points and bring them together in the analysis part. Because the learners had been exposed to new treatment, comprehending and analyzing their opinions and perceptions would enable the researcher to understand the effects of the treatment on the learners in a comprehensive way.

Before the actual implementation phase, interactive activities which were taken from the course book, speaking tests and the survey were piloted. After piloting, the study was completed with two distinct experimental and control groups. These groups were selected, and the learners were in pre-intermediate level in a private university in Ankara. The researcher was teaching both experimental and control groups, yet the study was implemented in quarter 2 and 3 in the foundation university on the grounds that the effects of the treatment could be observed with disparate experimental and control groups. Hybrid teaching was being applied at the time of the research as a consequence of Covid-19 pandemic, and the participants were getting lessons three days as online but two days as face to face.

When carrying out the study, the participants took speaking pre-test that aimed to measure learners' speaking performance individually and in interactive pair activities. After that, the participants in the experimental groups and control groups learned the structures in interactive activities in the course book. The experimental groups recorded themselves while performing the production parts related to interactive communication. The control groups performed the same activity, but they did not record their productions. While the control groups were offered a whole class feedback on their performances together with experimental ones, the participants in the experimental groups were given delayed OCF after one week from their performances. When the syllabus ended, the groups took a post-test which was a similar test with pre-test, but the questions in it was differentiated. Finally, a survey was completed by the experimental groups. The participants wrote their thoughts on the process, interactive activities and delayed OCF in general.

When statistical measurements were enforced, a few conclusions were gathered from the data analysis. To begin with, there is a clear connection between learners' oral skills

improvement and delayed OCF given for interactive activities. When pre and post-tests were compared, it could be acknowledged that the treatment affected the learners' speaking performance positively. Second of all, by the time a detailed analysis was made, it emerged that the participants improved their interactive communicative skills together with their grammar, discourse competence and pronunciation, as well. That's why, it could be rationalized that delayed OCF could aid learners' speaking performance on disparate sections even though it was only given after interactive activities.

Lastly, the qualitative data illuminated that the experimental groups indeed benefitted from the treatment since they gained positive attitudes towards delayed OCF and its usage after interactive activities in the classroom. Their emotional state was positively affected by the treatment due to the fact that the majority of the participants stated their self-confidence increased, anxiety lessened while they started to become more relaxed and comfortable to speak in the target language. Additionally, the participants stated that the improvement in their speaking performance was obvious because they had fun while recording and getting feedback as well as noticing their errors clearly. Besides, lots of students mentioned an increase in their vocabulary knowledge. Final point in the qualitative data came out as the fact that the participants held positive thoughts about interactive activities in the classrooms, and they believed the benefits of these types of activities would help them obtain and share new ideas in meaningful and real communication.

Finally, when research questions of the study were recollected, the first question was about the effect of delayed OCF on improving learners' speaking skills in interactive tasks, and it could be clearly deduced that learners benefitted from delayed OCF when they were involved in communication in interactive tasks. The second question was upon whether there could be an increase in learners' speaking performances before and after the treatment. The results yielded that learner improved their speaking scores after the treatment in almost all areas of rubric like interactive communication and discourse competence. The last question which dealt with learners' perception on delayed OCF, and the detailed analysis illuminated that learners had got positive attitudes towards the usage of delayed OCF in terms of its leading to less anxiety but more self-confidence, noticing the errors and the implementation of interactive activities in communicative classrooms.

5.6 Implications of the Current Study

In the light of the findings of the current study, several implications could be detected related to the usage of delayed OCF in interactive activities.

First, it is clear that OCF is beneficial at improving learners' speaking skills in English, and it is obvious that when OCF is given in the form of teacher feedback, it could guide learners about their errors and gaining more information on their errors. Therefore, instructors should provide OCF to learners for their speaking performances; however, it is crucial to vary sources sometimes. Peer and self-feedback could be incorporated into classrooms without the negligence of teachers as a source.

Besides, targets of OCF could be set before or during learners' speaking performances. Instructors could select linguistic or non-linguistic targets to offer OCF when learners are involved in speaking tasks. By doing so, instructors could concentrate on diverse parts. In speaking classrooms, learners appear to get advantages of feedback in terms of a lot of disparate points. Therefore, instructors could be called to provide OCF for not only linguistic but also non-linguistic targets.

Thirdly, delayed OCF is a useful timing to inform learners about their errors. Therefore, delayed OCF could be incorporated in the lessons. When learners are exposed to different timings for OCF, they could benefit from the feedback sessions more. As an implication, teachers are called to implement delayed OCF in their classrooms with a time interval between performances and feedback sessions. In this sense, syllabus designers in preparatory schools could dedicate a few hours in a week to delayed OCF sessions so that each individual student notice their errors precisely and clearly while instructors would have time to analyze learners' errors in an objective manner to gather more information about their errors. The advantage of delayed OCF as allowing instructors to analyze their learners' errors more could be utilized. Apart from providing whole class feedback, learners could comprehend their errors by the time their errors are given special care. As it could be deduced from the study itself, learners were contented with getting one-to-one delayed OCF; thus, paying special attention to learners individually could enable them to make use of OCF more.

It is also advised that learners' beliefs and preferences could be taken into consideration on this aspect. After applying a questionnaire to learners on their preferences about OCF

timing, source or type, instructors could experiment different parts and observe the effects on their learners' speaking performances. These performances should be evaluated according to the target speaking skills such as talk as an interaction or performance. Suitable speaking tests ought to be determined to be applied.

Next, the study indicated that learners found interactive activities meaningful, fun and real. As a result, these types of activities could be included in the programs or course books more for students' sake. The administrations, syllabus designers and instructors should work closely in order that interactive activities could be added to programs or lessons. Instructors tend to ignore interactive communication parts in course books, and concentrate on teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, and writing. However, when applied with feedback, interactive activities could help learners improve their speaking skills in general. A course book dedicating some modules to interactive communication could be selected to be applied in the classrooms.

Furthermore, since feedback could aid improvement in learners' speaking skills, teachers should not neglect offering one in or outside classrooms to learners. Noticing errors or errors may contribute to learners as much as learning the content.

In addition, the issues such as how and when to give OCF, feedback sources, which errors to correct, which OCF type to use in classrooms should be conveyed to practitioners. Workshops and seminars could be provided in preparatory programs by allowing instructors to have hands-on activities related the implementation of OCF. In workshops, instructors could try giving OCF to some sample student errors and compare their practices with fellow practitioners. In seminars, instructors could learn many points related to OCF from researchers or experts in the field. In-house workshops or studies could be prepared by teacher trainers in universities or schools. Also, on condition that collaborative learning occurs, practitioners could experience peer learning, and they could get newer ideas to implement in speaking classrooms by sharing experiences on the topic.

On this point, practitioners' awareness on OCF and its timing, source, targets, types should be raised. Their beliefs and practices could be displayed through questionnaires and self or peer class observations when they are teaching speaking. Aside from practitioners, learners' awareness could also be raised by conferences or practices in classrooms. When they possess this kind of knowledge on their preferences of when to get OCF, this could

enable instructors to prepare their lessons, teachings in addition to feedback sessions accordingly.

Other than practitioners, pre-service EFL teachers should be donated with this type of knowledge on OCF. There could be specific courses which can be designed to teach OCF with its disparate points. Some lessons of practitioners and their way of corrections to learners' errors in speaking could be discussed. Moreover, pre-service EFL teachers could investigate their beliefs and preferences on OCF before offering speaking lessons to learners.

By changing the type, timing, source of OCF, learners could be exposed to different ways of getting feedback on their speaking performances. When instructors take advantage of disparate ways of OCF and obtain their learners' attitudes, more benefit to learners' improvement in the target language could be substantiated and more scientific data could be gathered on the point to refer.

5.7 Suggestions for Further Studies

This current study was actualized in hybrid teaching context where learners are subjected to both online learning environment and face-to-face education. Hence, a similar study could be applied in either online or face-to-face learning environments.

Moreover, the number of participants in this study was determined to be forty, yet this numbers could be expanded in future studies. More classes could be added into this type of study or learners could be followed throughout one educational year rather than one quarter.

Additionally, since learners here were chosen from representing one level which was pre-intermediate, the effects of the treatment can be compared within different levels in the future studies or other specific levels could be inspected in this manner.

Besides, another study could be devised to observe the effects teachers' preferences on timing of offering OCF as well as the way they deliver feedback sessions. Another suggestion for a further study could be to compare two classes' speaking skills improvement on their teachers' preferences of giving either immediate or delayed OCF.

Also, this study was completed with participants in a foundation university in the capital city of Turkey. Applying the same or different designs in state universities or other private ones in various cities of Turkey could illuminate more definite results. In the further studies, researchers could select different level participants in various kinds of preparatory

programs or schools. Similarly, future studies could be based on revealing the effects of this specific treatment on public or private elementary, middle, or high schools so that age variation could be verified. Likewise, pre-service teachers could be investigated in this respect.

Alternatively, the design of the study was stemming from both quantitative and qualitative methods. By implementing quantitative or qualitative methods alone in future studies, a chance to observe disparate results in terms of delayed OCF and interactive activities alone or together could be created. Next, a variety of speaking tests could be implied in future studies to collect more data on learners' speaking performances. In this sense, this study focused on talk as interaction, but future studies could work on talk as a performance and its relation to delayed OCF so that whether delayed OCF is influential in talk as a performance could be revealed.

On top of that, another productive skill which is writing could be put into juxtaposition in future studies. This current study's findings could be compared with one dealing with writing skills improvement with CF. Since writing performances of learners are given delayed CF, these two productive skills could be analyzed under the head of delayed CF, which could indicate the link between these two productive skills and timing of CF.

Lastly, this study's scope was determined to be the usage of delayed OCF with interactive activities; however, future studies can be interested in measuring the effects of delayed OCF in discourse competence, pronunciation or grammar parts with regards to learners' speaking performance. In preference, interactive activities with immediate or delayed OCF could be examined, as well to explore the effects of feedback timings on this specific point or other selected topics could be investigated.

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, I., Saeed, M. and Salam, M. (2013). Effects of corrective feedback on academic achievements of students: Case of government secondary schools in Pakistan. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 2(1), 36-40.
- Alaraj, M. M. (2017). EFL speaking acquisition: Identifying problems, suggesting learning strategies and examining their effect on students' speaking fluency. *The International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention*, 4(1), 3215-3221. Doi: 10.18535/ijsshi/v4i1.05
- Amalia, Z. D. H., Fauziati, E. and Marmanto, S. (2019). Male and female students' preferences on the oral corrective feedback in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) speaking classroom. *Humaniora*, 10(1), 25-3. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.21512/humaniora.v10i1.5248>
- Asan, H. and Çeliktürk-Sezgin, Z. (2020). Effects of the educational games on primary school students' speaking skills and speaking anxiety. *Journal of Theoretical Educational Science*, 13(4), 685-700.
- Asatryan, S. (2016). Activities contributing a great deal to the students' interactive skills in foreign language classes. *Education Provision to Every One: Comparing Perspectives from Around the World*, Sofia: BCES, pp. 16-22.
- Atma, N. and Widiati, U. (2015). EFL students' preferences for corrective feedback in speaking instruction across speaking course levels. *Bahasa dan Seni*, 43(2), 183-195.
- Au, H. Y. (2019). *An analysis of the effect of peer and teacher feedback on EFL learners' oral performances and speaking self-efficacy levels*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. Gaziantep: Gaziantep University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences.
- Aydın, S. (2008). An investigation on the language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among Turkish EFL learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, 30(1) 421-444.

- Aydın, H. Ü. (2015). *Student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Ankara: Gazi University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences.
- Azizifar, A., Faryadian, E. and Gowhary, H. (2014). The effect of anxiety on Iranian EFL learners speaking skill. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Science*, 8(10), 1747-1754.
- Bahadorfar, M. and Omidvar, R. (2014). Technology in teaching speaking skill. *Acme International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 2(4), 9-13.
- Bahrani, T. and Soltani, R. (2012). How to teach speaking skill?. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(2), 25-29.
- Bailey, K. M. (2005). Speaking. In D. Nunan (Ed.). *Practical English Language Teaching*. Singapore: McGraw-Hill.
- Bitchener, J., Young, S. and Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 191 – 205.
- Borger, L. (2019). Assessing interactional skills in a paired speaking test: Raters' interpretation of the construct. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 13(1), 151-174.
- Boughazzoula, A. (2016). *The role of teachers' feedback in improving students' speaking skill The case of study: first year LMD at Biskra university*. Unpublished master's thesis. Biskra: Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra, Science of English.
- Bouzar, S. (2019). Issues in teaching speaking to EFL learners. *Education and Linguistics Research*, 5(1), 70-79. Doi: 10.5296/elr.v5i1.14705
- Brown, D. (2016). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 436-458. Doi: 10.1177/1362168814563200
- Burns, A. (1998). Teaching speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 102–123.

- Burns, A. and Seidlhofer, B. (2010). Speaking and pronunciation. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. Oxon: Hodder Education.
- Bygate, M. (1987). Speaking. In C. N. Candlin, and H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *A scheme for teacher education*. China: Oxford.
- Bygate, M. (2005). Oral second language abilities as expertise. In K. Johnson (Ed.) *Expertise in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 104–27). London: Palgrave.
- Cao, W., Fang, Z., Hou, G., Han, M., Xinrong, X., Dong, J., Zheng, J. (2020). The psychological impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on college students in China. *Psychiatry Research*, 287, 1-5.
- Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Chainsongkram, K. (2018). The development of English speaking ability using communicative tasks of undergraduate students at Kalasin university. *IJAEDU-International E-Journal of Advances in Education*, 4(11), 216-224.
- Chaney, A. L. and Burk, T. L. (1998). *Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Chen, Y-M. (2008). Learning to self-assess oral performance in English: A longitudinal case study. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(2), 235-262.
- Choi, S. and Li, S. (2012). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in a child ESOL classroom. *RELC Journal*, 43(3), 331-351.
- Chu, R-X. (2013). *Effects of peer feedback on Taiwanese adolescents' English speaking practices and development*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh, College of Humanity and Social Science.
- Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Dawood, H. (2014). The impact of immediate grammatical error correction on senior English majors' accuracy at Hebron university. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 2(7), 37-46.
- Demydovych, O. and Holik, O. (2020). Speaking club as an interactive extracurricular activity in learning English for professional purposes at medical universities. *Advanced Education*, 14, 4-10.
- Doff, A., Thaine, C., Pucka, H., Stranks, J., Lewis-Jones, P. (2015). *Empower B1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C. J. and Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. J. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114 – 138). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ducasse, A. M. and Brown, A. (2009). The role of interactive communication in IELTS speaking and its relationship to candidates' preparedness for study or training contexts. *IELTS Research Reports*, 12, 1-26.
- Duman, B., Göral, G. N. and Bilgin H. (2017). Üniversite öğrencilerinin sınıf ortamında yabancı dil konuşma kaygısı üzerine nitel bir çalışma. *Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 8(2), 13-27.
- Duque-Aguilar, J. F. (2021). Teachers' assessment approaches regarding EFL students' speaking skill. *Profile: Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 23(1), 161-177.
- Ebrahimi, Y. and Hajmalek, E. (2016). The impact of error correction strategies of speaking tasks on the anxiety level of intermediate EFL learners. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 3(6), 105-116.
- Egi, T. (2007). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The role of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 29(4), 511-537.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1, 3-18.

- Ellis, R. and Sheen, Y. (2006). Reexamining the role of recasts in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 575-600. Doi: 10.1017/S027226310606027X
- Fan, N. (2019). An investigation of oral corrective feedback in an ESL listening and speaking class. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 10(1), 197-203. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1001.22>
- Fanselow, J. (1977). The treatment of error in oral work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 10, 583-593.
- Foot, M. C. (1999). Relaxing in pairs. *ELT Journal*, 53(1), 36-51.
- Fujii, A. and Mackey, A. (2009). Interactional feedback in learner-learner interactions in a task-based EFL classroom. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 47, 267-301. Doi: 10.1515/iral.2009.012
- Galazci, E. D. (2008). Peer-peer interaction in a speaking test: the case of the first certificate in English examination. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 5(2), 89-119. Doi: 10.1080/15434300801934702
- Gamlo, N. H. (2019). EFL learners' preferences of corrective feedback in speaking activities. *World Journal of English Language*, 9(2), 28-37. Doi: 10.5430/wjel.v9n2p28
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Gharaghanipour, A. A., Zareian, A. and Behjat, F. (2015). The effect of immediate and delayed pronunciation error correction on EFL learners' speaking anxiety. *ELT Voices*, 5(4), 18-28.
- Gholizade, R. (2013). The investigation of different effects of recast and metalinguistic feedback on accuracy, fluency, and complexity of speaking performance of male and female EFL learners. *Journal of Novel Applied Sciences*, 2(9), 417-428.
- Goh, C. C. M. and Burns, A. (2012). *Teaching Speaking: A Holistic Approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Guitierrez, D. G. (2005). Developing oral skills through communicative and interactive tasks. *PROFILE*, 6, 83-96.
- Han, Z. (2002). Rethinking the role of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *RELC Journal*, 33(1), 1-34.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to Teach English*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman, Pearson Education Limited, England. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003368820103200109>
- Harputlu, L. and Erarslan, A. (2019). Turkish EFL learners' appraisal of group work in speaking: Self and peer reflections. *The Literacy Trek*, 5(1), 1-22.
- Hassan, A. (2017). *Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Gaziantep: Gaziantep University, Educational Sciences.
- Hattie, J. and Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112. 10.3102/003465430298487
- Hendrickson, J. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 62, 387-398.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. and Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.
- Hughes, R. (2011). Teaching speaking and researching speaking. In C. N. Candlin, and D. R. Hall (Eds), *Applied Linguistics in Action Series*. Edinburg: Pearson.
- Hunter, J. D. (2011). *A multi-method investigation of the effectiveness and utility of delayed corrective feedback in second-language oral production*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Birmingham: University of Birmingham, School of Humanities.
- Huang, S-C. (2016). Understanding learners' self-assessment and self-feedback on their foreign language speaking performance. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 41(6), 803-820. Doi: 10.1080/02602938.2015.1042426

- Huong, L. T. (2020). Matches and mismatches between EFL teachers' and students' preferences for corrective feedback in English speaking classes at a Vietnamese university. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, 36(1), 142-155.
- Inayah, R. (2017). Exploring students' difficulties in speaking English and their attitude in speaking English. *Acuity: Journal of English Language Pedagogy, Literature and Culture*, 2(1), 12-23.
- Ivankova, N. V. and Cresweil, J. W. (2009). Mixed methods. In J. Heigham and R. A. Croker (Eds), *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kardaş, M. N. (2015). Turkish speaking anxiety of the multilingual Turkish teacher candidates whose second language is Turkish and the relations of the some variables with speaking anxiety. *Turkish Studies*, 10(7), 541-556. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.7960>
- Kasap, S. and Power, K. M. (2019). Anxiety in the EFL speaking classrooms. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 9(2), 23-36.
- Khoram, A., Bazvand, A. D. and Sarhad, J. S. (2020). Error feedback in second language speaking: Investigating the impact of modalities of error feedback on intermediate EFL students' speaking ability. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 63-80. Doi: 10.32601/ejal.710205
- King, P. E. (2016). When do students benefit from performance feedback? A test of feedback intervention theory in speaking improvement. *Communication Quarterly*, 64(1), 1-15. Doi: 10.1080/01463373.2015.1078827
- King, P. E., Young, M. J. and Behnke, R. R. (2000). Public speaking performance improvement as a function of information processing in immediate and delayed feedback interventions. *Communication Education*, 49(4), 365-374. Doi: 10.1080/03634520009379224

- Koo, T. K. and Li, M. Y. (2015). A guideline of selecting and reporting intraclass correlation coefficients for reliability research. *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine*, 15(2), 155-163.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. United Kingdom: Pergamon Press Inc.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- King, P. E., Young, M. J. and Behnke, R. R. (2000). Public speaking performance improvement as a function of information processing in immediate and delayed feedback interventions. *Communication Education*, 49(4), 365-374. Doi: 10.1080/03634520009379224
- Leong, L-M. and Ahmadi, S. M. (2017). An analysis of factors influencing learners' English speaking skill. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 2(1), 34-41.
- Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 309–365.
- Li, S. and Vuono, A. (2019). Twenty-five years of research on oral and written corrective feedback in System. *System*, 84, 93-109.
- Loewen, S. (2012). The role of feedback. In S. M. Gass, and A. Mackey (Ed.). *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Luibashenko, O. and Kornieva, Z. (2019). Dialogic interactive speaking skills assessment in the experiential teaching of technical English to tertiary school students. *Advanced Education*, 13, 18-25. Doi: 10.20535/2410-8286.156228

- Lynch, T. and Maclean, J. (2003). Effects of feedback on performance: A study of advanced learners on an ESP speaking course. *Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 12, 19-44.
- Lyster, R. and L. Ranta (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37–66.
- Lyster, R. and K. Saito (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 265–302.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K. and Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 1-40. Doi: 10.1017/S0261444812000365
- Mackey, A. and Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: a series of empirical studies* (pp. 407-453). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Martin, S. and Valdivia, I. M. A. (2017). Students' feedback beliefs and anxiety in online foreign language oral tasks. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 14(1), 1-15. Doi: 10.1186/s41239-017-0056-z
- Marzuki, M., Prayogo, J. A. and Wahyudi, A. (2016). Improving the EFL learners' speaking ability through interactive storytelling. *Dinamika Ilmu*, 16(1), 15-34.
- May, L. (2009). Co-constructed interaction in a paired speaking test: the rater's perspective. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 397-421.
- Mede, E. and Karairmak, Ö. (2017). The predictor roles of speaking anxiety and English self-efficacy on foreign language speaking anxiety. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 6(1), 117-131.
- Mendez, E. H. and Cruz, M. R. R. (2012). Teachers' perceptions about oral corrective feedback and their practice in EFL classrooms. *PROFILE*, 14(2), 63-75.

- Muhsin, M. A. (2016). The effectiveness of positive feedback in teaching speaking skill. *Lingua Cultura*, 10(1), 25-30. Doi: 10.21512/lc.v10i1.873
- Namaziandost, E. and Nasri, M. (2019). A meticulous look at Long's (1981) interaction hypothesis: does it have any effect on speaking skill?. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 6(2), 218-230.
- Nation, I. S. P. and Newton, J. (2009). Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking. In E. Hinkel (Ed.). *ESL and Applied Linguistics Professional Series*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Nazara, S. (2011). Students' perception on EFL speaking skill development. *Journal of English Teaching*, 1(1), 29-43.
- Newby, D. (2011). Competence and performance in learning and teaching: theories and practices. *Selected papers on theoretical and applied linguistics*, 19, 15-32.
- Norton, J. (2005). The paired format in the Cambridge speaking tests. *ELT Journal*, 59(4), 287-297.
- Panova, I. and Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quartely*, 36(4), 573-595.
- Patri, M. (2002). The influence of peer feedback on self- and peer- assessment of oral skills. *Language Testing*, 19(2), 109-131. Doi: 10.1191/0265532202lt224oa
- Quinn, P. (2014). *Delayed versus immediate corrective feedback on orally produced passive errors in English*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Toronto: University of Toronto, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Quinn, S. and Goody, A. (2019). An evaluation of a course aimed at reducing public speaking anxiety among university students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 31(3), 503-511.
- Rahimi, A. and Dastjerdi, H. V. (2012). Impact of immediate and delayed error correction on EFL learners' oral production: CAF. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(1), 45-54. Doi: 10.5901/mjss.2012.03.01.45

- Rahimi, M. and Zhang, L. J. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication. *System*, 55, 111-122.
- Ramaprasad, A. (1983). On the definition of feedback. *Behavioral Science*, 28, 4-13.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Cambridge.
- Richards, J. C. and Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Singapore: Cambridge.
- Roever, C. and Kasper, G. (2018). Speaking in turns and sequences: Interactional competence as a target construct in testing speaking. *Language Testing*, 35(3), 331-355.
- Rolin-Ianziti, J. (2010). The organization of delayed second language correction. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(2), 183-206. Doi: 10.1177/1362168809353874
- Roothoof, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System*, 46, 65-79. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.07.012>
- Russell, J. and N. Spada (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. Norris and L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 133-162.
- Saidalvi, A. and Samad, A. A. (2019). Online peer motivational feedback in a public speaking course. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies*, 19(4), 258-277. Doi: <http://doi.org/10.17576/gema-2019-1904-14>
- Saito, K. and Lyster, R. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /ɹ/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 595-633. Doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x
- Sakale, S. (2019). The important role of teachers' feedback during speaking activities in Moroccan classes. *Arab World English Journal*, 10(3), 344-351. Doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no3.24>

- Scarcella, R. C. and Oxford, R. L. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 129–158.
- Shabani, K. and Safari, F. (2016a). Immediate vs delayed correction feedback (CF) and accuracy of oral production: The role of anxiety. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(11), 2222-2230. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0611.21>
- Shabani, K. and Safari, F. (2016b). The effect of immediate and delayed error correction on accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 6(3), 93-112. Doi: 10.5296/jse.v6i3.8915
- Shumin, K. (2002). Factors to consider: Developing Adult EFL students' speaking abilities. In J. C. Richards and W. A. Renandya (Eds), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp. 204-211). Singapore: Cambridge
- Shabani, K. and Safari, F. (2016). Immediate vs delayed correction feedback (CF) and accuracy of oral production: The role of anxiety. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(11), 2222-2230. Doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0611.21>
- Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, 203-234. Doi: 10.1017/S0272263109990507
- Sheen, Y. and Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning, Vol. 2*. New York: Routledge.
- Siyyari, M. (2005). *A comparative study of the effect of implicit and delayed, explicit focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy of oral production* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Iran University of Science and Technology, Tehran.

- Şener, S. (2018). Teacher trainees' perceptions on English language speaking anxiety in foreign language classes. *Trakya University Journal of Education Faculty*, 8(2), 178-194. Doi: 10.24315/trkefd.303860
- Skehan, P. 1998. *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Smith, C. S. and King, P. E. (2004). Student feedback sensitivity and the efficacy of feedback interventions in public speaking performance improvement. *Communication Education*, 53(3), 203-216. Doi: 10.1080/0363452042000265152
- Solikhah, I. (2016). Oral corrective feedback in speaking class of English department. *Lingua*, 15(1), 87-102.
- Suryoputro, G. and Amaliah, A. (2016). EFL students' responses on oral corrective feedbacks and uptakes in speaking class. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 3(5), 73-80.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook and B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honor of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 125–144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology; How to choose a sampling technique for research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 5(2), 18-27.
- Takimoto, M. (2006). The effects of explicit feedback on the development of pragmatic proficiency. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(4), 393-417.
- Tashakkori, A. and Creswell, J. W. (2007). The new era of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 3-7. Doi: 10.1177/2345678906293042
- Tennant, A. and Negash, N. (2009). *Language Improvement for English Teachers*. Senegal: British Council.

- Tercan, G. and Dikilitaş, K. (2015). EFL students' speaking anxiety: a case from tertiary level students. *International Association of Research in Foreign Language Education and Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 16-27.
- Tomczyk, E. (2013). Perception of oral errors and their corrective feedback: Teachers vs students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(5), 924-931.
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "the case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 111-122.
- Truscott, J. (2004). Evidence and conjecture on the effects of correction: A response to Chandler. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 337-343.
- Tüm, D. Ö. and Kunt, N. (2013). Speaking anxiety among EFL student teachers. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 28(3), 385-399.
- Türkben, T. (2019). The effects of interactive teaching strategies on speaking skills of students learning Turkish as a second language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(3), 1011-1031.
- Ur, P. (1991). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Ginkel, S., Gulikers, J., Biemans, H., Mulder, M. (2017). The impact of the feedback source on developing oral presentation competence. *Studies in Higher Education*, 42(9), 1671-1685. Doi: 10.1080/03075079.2015.1117064
- Vo, S. (2020). Evaluating interactional competence in interview and paired discussion tasks: A rater cognition study. *TESOL Journal*, 12(2), 1-18.
- Yang, Y. and Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, 235-263.
- Yeh, H.-C., Tseng, S.-S. and Chen, Y.-S. (2019). Using online peer feedback through blogs to promote speaking performance. *Educational Technology and Society*, 22(1), 1-14.

- Yiğit, T. (2019). *Belief and practices of EFL instructors on oral corrective feedback and students' perceptions*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Bursa: Bursa Uludağ University, Institute of Educational Sciences.
- Zainurrahman, Z. and Sangaji, S. (2019). A study on the university students' speaking difficulties. *Langua- Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Language Education*, 2(1), 1-8.
- Zhao, S. Y. and Bitchener, J. (2007). Incidental focus on form in teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions. *System*, 35, 431-447.
- Zyoud, M. (2016). Theoretical perspective on how to develop speaking skill among university students. *Pune Research Scholar: An International Multidisciplinary Journal*, 2(1), 1-10.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Pre-test & post-test

Preliminary English Test Speaking Test Part 1 (2-3 minutes) Phase 1 Interlocutor A/B Good morning / afternoon / evening. Can I have your mark sheets, please? (Hand over the mark sheets to the Assessor.) A/B I'm and this is He / she is just going to listen to us. A Now, what's your name? Thank you. B And what's your name? Thank you. Back-up prompts Candidate B, what's your surname? How do you spell it? Thank you. And, Candidate A, what's your surname? How do you spell it? Thank you. (Ask the following questions. Use candidates' names throughout. Ask Candidate A first.) Where do you live / come from? <u>Adult students</u> Do you work or are you a student in ...? What do you do / study? <u>School-age students</u> Do you study English at school? Do you like it? Thank you. (Repeat for Candidate B.) Phase 2 Interlocutor (Select one or more questions from the list to ask each candidate. Use candidates' names throughout. Ask Candidate B first.) Back-up prompts Do you enjoy studying English? Why (not)? Do you like studying English? Do you think that English will be useful for you in the future? Will you use English in the future? What did you do yesterday evening / last weekend? What? Did you do anything yesterday evening / last weekend? What? What do you like to do in your free time? What do you enjoy doing in your free time? Thank you. (Introduction to Part 2) In the next part, you are going to talk to each other.

Speaking Test 1 (Holiday present)

Part 2 (2-3 minutes)

Interlocutor
Say to both
candidates:

I'm going to describe a situation to you.

A young man on holiday in **North America** wants to buy a **present** to take home to his **parents**. Talk together about the different presents he could **buy**, and say which would be **best**.

Here is a picture with some ideas to help you.

Place **Part 2 booklet**, open at **Task 1**, in front of candidates.

Pause

I'll say that again.

A young man on holiday in **North America** wants to buy a **present** to take home to his **parents**. Talk together about the different presents he could **buy**, and say which would be **best**.

All right? Talk together.

Allow the candidates enough time to complete the task without intervention.
Prompt only if necessary.

Thank you. (Can I have the booklet please?)

Retrieve Part 2 booklet.



About **2-3 minutes** (including time to assimilate the information)



PS200196

Speaking Test 1 (People reading and writing)

Part 3 (3 minutes)

Interlocutor
Say to both
candidates:

Now, I'd like each of you to talk on your own about something. I'm going to give each of you a photograph of people **reading** and **writing**.
Candidate A, here is your photograph. (Place **Part 3 booklet**, open at **Task 1A**, in front of Candidate A.) Please show it to Candidate B, but I'd like you to talk about it.
Candidate B, you just listen. I'll give you your photograph in a moment.
Candidate A, please tell us what you can see in the photograph.

Approximately one minute

(Candidate A)

If there is a need to intervene, prompts rather than direct questions should be used.

Thank you. (Can I have the booklet please?)

Retrieve Part 3 booklet from Candidate A.

Interlocutor

Now, Candidate B, here is your photograph. It also shows people **reading** and **writing**. (Place **Part 3 booklet**, open at **Task 1B**, in front of Candidate B.) Please show it to Candidate A and tell us what you can see in the photograph.

Approximately one minute

(Candidate B)

Thank you. (Can I have the booklet please?)

Retrieve Part 3 booklet from Candidate B.

Part 4 (3 minutes)

Interlocutor
Say to both
candidates:

Your photographs showed people **reading** and **writing**. Now, I'd like you to talk together about the different kinds of reading and writing **you** did when you were **younger**, and the kinds you do **now**.

Allow the candidates enough time to complete the task without intervention.
Prompt only if necessary.

Thank you. That's the end of the test.

Parts 3 & 4 should take about 6 minutes together.



**Preliminary English Test
Speaking Test**

Part 1 (2-3 minutes)

Phase 1
Interlocutor

A/B Good morning / afternoon / evening.
Can I have your mark sheets, please?

(Hand over the mark sheets to the Assessor.)

A/B I'm and this is
He / she is just going to listen to us.

A Now, what's your name?
Thank you.

B And what's your name?
Thank you.

Back-up prompts

B Candidate B, what's your surname?
How do you spell it?

Thank you.

A And, Candidate A, what's your surname?
How do you spell it?

Thank you.

How do you write your family
/ second name?

How do you write your family
/ second name?

*(Ask the following questions. Use candidates'
names throughout. Ask Candidate A first.)*

Where do you live / come from?

Adult students

Do you work or are you a student in ...?
What do you do / study?

School-age students

Do you study English at school?
Do you like it?

Thank you.

(Repeat for Candidate B.)

Do you live in ...?

Have you got a job?
What job do you do? / What
subject(s) do you study?

Do you have English
lessons?

Phase 2
Interlocutor

(Select one or more questions from the list to ask each candidate. Use candidates' names throughout. Ask Candidate B first.)

Back-up prompts

Do you enjoy studying English? Why (not)?

Do you like studying English?

Do you think that English will be useful for you in the future?

Will you use English in the future?

What did you do yesterday evening / last weekend?

Did you do anything yesterday evening / last weekend? What?

What do you enjoy doing in your free time?

What do you like to do in your free time?

Thank you.

(Introduction to Part 2)

In the next part, you are going to talk to each other.

Speaking Test (City visit)

Part 2 (2-3 minutes)

Examiner
Say to both
candidates:

I'm going to describe a situation to you.

A young man is going to visit a **city** for the **weekend**, but he **doesn't** enjoy **sightseeing**. Talk together about the different things he could do in the city and say which would be most **fun** for him.

Here is a picture with some ideas to help you.

*Ask both candidates to look at picture * on page * of the Student's Book and repeat the frame.*

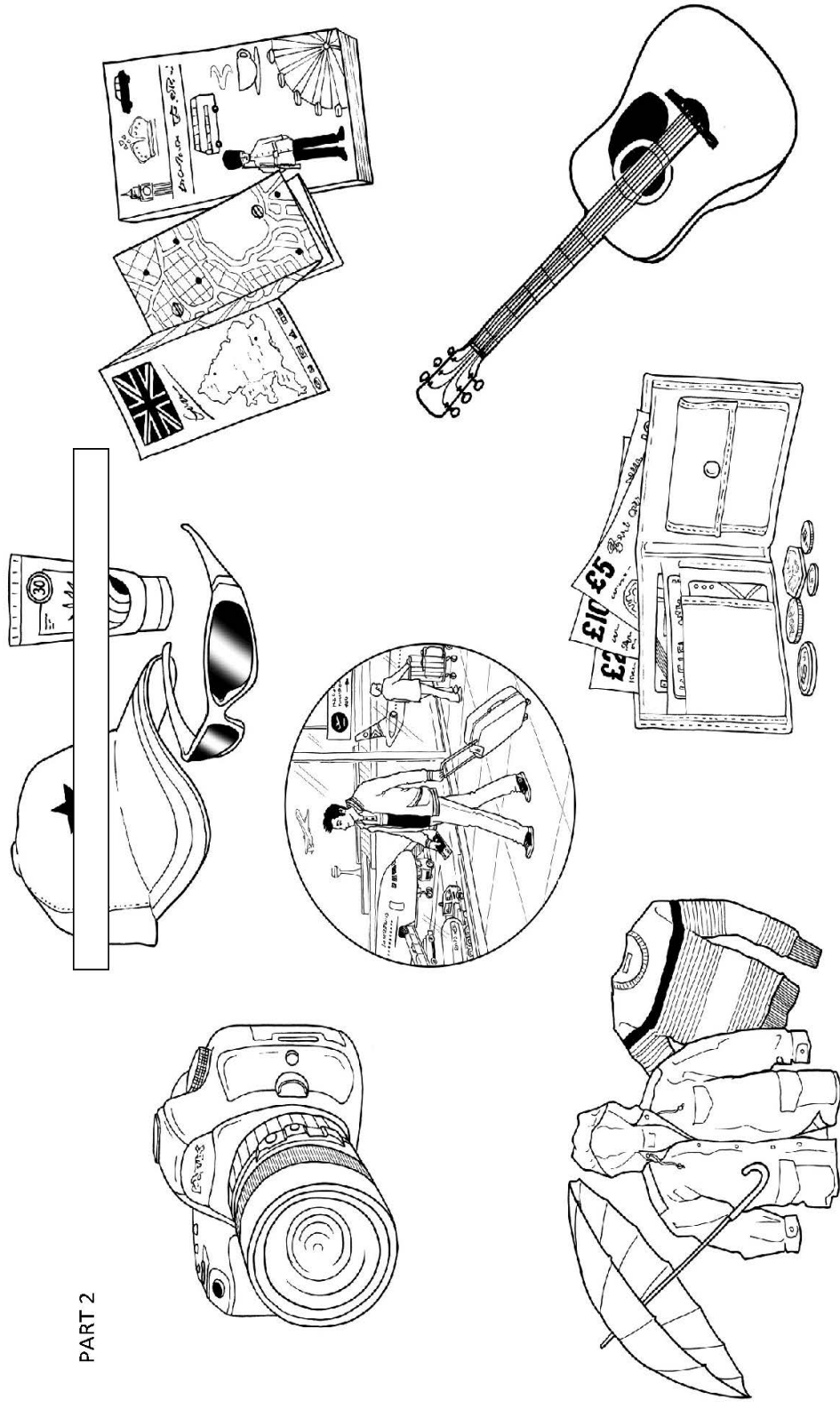
I'll say that again.

A young man is going to visit a **city** for the **weekend**, but he **doesn't** enjoy **sightseeing**. Talk together about the different things he could do in the city and say which would be most **fun** for him.

All right? Talk together.

*Allow the candidates enough time to complete the task without intervention.
Prompt only if necessary.*

PART 2



Speaking Test (Doing things at home)

Part 3 (3 minutes)

Examiner
Say to both
candidates:

Now, I'd like each of you to talk on your own about something. I'm going to give each of you a photograph of **people doing things at home**.

Candidate A, here is your photograph. (Ask Candidate A to look at photo *B on page * of the Student's Book.) Please show it to Candidate B, but I'd like you to talk about it. Candidate B, you just listen. I'll give you your photograph in a moment.

Candidate A, please tell us what you can see in the photograph.

(Candidate A)

Approximately one minute

If there is a need to intervene, prompts rather than direct questions should be used.

Ask Candidate A to close his / her book.

Thank you. (Can I have the booklet please?)

Retrieve Part 3 booklet from Candidate A.

Examiner

Now, Candidate B, here is your photograph. It also shows **people doing things at home**. (Ask Candidate B to look at photo *C on page * of the Student's Book.) Please show it to Candidate A and tell us what you can see in the photograph.

(Candidate B)

Approximately one minute

Ask the candidates to close their books before moving to Part 4.

Part 4 (3 minutes)

Examiner
Say to both
candidates:

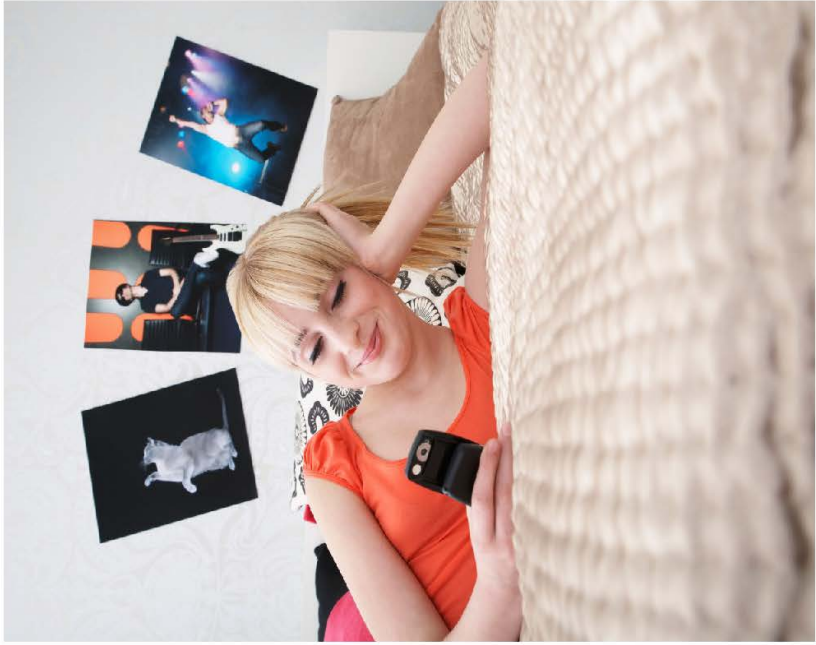
Your photographs showed **people doing things at home**. Now I'd like you to talk together about the things **you have to** do at home and the things you **like** doing at home.

*Allow the candidates enough time to complete the task without intervention.
Prompt only if necessary.*

Thank you. That's the end of the test.

Back-up Prompts

1. Talk about the things **you have to** do at home.
2. Talk about the things you **like** doing at home.
3. Talk about **your favourite room** in your home.
4. Talk about **inviting friends** to your home.



PARTS 3 & 4
A



B

APPENDIX B: Rubric

B1	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication
5	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms, and attempts some complex grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics.	Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. Contributions are relevant despite some repetition. Uses a range of cohesive devices.	Is intelligible. Intonation is generally appropriate. Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.
4	Performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5.			
3	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.	Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition. Uses basic cohesive devices.	Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.
2	Performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3.			
1	Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics.	Produces responses which are characterised by short phrases and frequent hesitation. Repeats information or digresses from the topic.	Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.	Maintains simple exchanges, despite some difficulty. Requires prompting and support.
0	Performance below Band 1.			

APPENDIX C: Survey

Değerli Katılımcılar,

Bu çalışma, “*Gecikmeli geri bildirimin etkileşimli aktivitelerde kullanımının Türk öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi: Hazırlık öğrencileriyle bir çalışma*” başlıklı bir araştırma olup gecikmeli geri dönütün, etkileşimli aktiviteler kullanılarak yabancı dil öğrenimindeki konuşma becerisini geliştirmeye katkısını görme amacı taşımaktadır. Çalışma, Ayla Yeşilyurt tarafından yürütülmekte ve sonuçları ile yabancı dil öğrenen öğrencilerde gecikmeli geri dönütün, konuşma becerilerine olan katkısına ışık tutacaktır.

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Gül Durmuşoğlu

KÖSE

Ayla YEŞİLYURT

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

Yüksek Lisans Programı

Lütfen aşağıdaki sorulara kendi düşüncelerinizi yazınız.

1. Süreç boyunca konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra aldığınız düzeltici sözel geciktirilmiş geri bildirim hakkındaki düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

2. Bu geri dönüt çeşidi hakkında özellikle sevdiğiniz ve sevmediğiniz kısımlar nelerdir?

4. Etkileşimli konuşma aktiviteleri/dersleri hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

5. Bu aktivitelerden sonra öğretmen aldığınız geri dönüşü nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

6. Girdiğiniz sınavlarda sizden arkadaşınızla konuşmanız istenen etkileşimli aktiviteler hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

7. Genel olarak bu deneyimi İngilizce konuşma becerinizle olan ilişkisiyle düşüncelerinizi yazınız.

APPENDIX D: Ethical permission from Anadolu University Ethics committee

Evrak Kayıt Tarihi: 13.11.2020	Protokol No: 66587	Tarih: 25.11.2020
--------------------------------	--------------------	-------------------



ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER BİLİMSEL ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİĞİ KURULU
KARAR BELGESİ

ÇALIŞMANIN TÜRÜ:	Yüksek Lisans Tez Çalışması
KONU:	Eğitim Bilimleri
BAŞLIK:	Gecikmeli Geri Bildirimin Etkileşimli Aktivitelerde Kullanımının Türk Öğrencilerinin Konuşma Becerilerinin Gelişimine Etkisi: Hazırlık Öğrencileriyle Bir Çalışma
PROJE/TEZ YÜRÜTÜCÜSÜ:	Prof. Dr. Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE
TEZ YAZARI:	Ayla YEŞİLYURT
ALT KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ:	-
KARAR:	Olumlu

APPENDIX E: Consent Forms for pre/post-test, voice/image record, survey

Öğrenci Gönüllü Katılım Formu (Ön Test / Son Test)

Bu çalışma, “Gecikmeli geri bildirimin etkileşimli aktivitelerde kullanımının Türk öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi: Hazırlık öğrencileriyle bir çalışma” başlıklı bir araştırma olup gecikmeli geri dönütün, etkileşimli aktiviteler kullanılarak yabancı dil öğrenimindeki konuşma becerisini geliştirmeye katkısını görme amacı taşımaktadır. Çalışma, Ayla Yeşilyurt tarafından yürütülmekte ve sonuçları ile yabancı dil öğrenen öğrencilerde gecikmeli geri dönütün, konuşma becerilerine olan katkısına ışık tutacaktır.

- Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, uygulama başında ve sonunda bilgisayar ortamında yapılacak konuşma testleri aracılığıyla sizden bilgiler toplanacaktır.
- İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz/araştırmada katılımcıların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır.
- Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacak, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.
- İstemeniz halinde sizden toplanan verileri inceleme hakkınız bulunmaktadır.
- Sizden toplanan veriler korunacak ve araştırma bitiminde arşivlenecek veya imha edilecektir.
- Veri toplama sürecinde/süreçlerinde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabilirsiniz. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Eğitim Programı öğrencilerinden Ayla Yeşilyurt’a yöneltebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı Adı: Ayla Yeşilyurt

Adres:

Cep Tel:

Bu çalışmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediğim takdirde çalışmadan ayrılabileceğimi bilerek verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

(Lütfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kişiye veriniz.)

Katılımcı Ad ve Soyadı:

İmza:

Tarih:



Öğrenci Gönüllü Katılım Formu (Ses Kaydı/Görüntü Kaydı)

Bu çalışma, “Gecikmeli geri bildirimin etkileşimli aktivitelerde kullanımının Türk öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi: Hazırlık öğrencileriyle bir çalışma” başlıklı bir araştırma olup gecikmeli geri dönütün, etkileşimli aktiviteler kullanılarak yabancı dil öğrenimindeki konuşma becerisini geliştirmeye katkısını görme amacı taşımaktadır. Çalışma, Ayla Yeşilyurt tarafından yürütülmekte ve sonuçları ile yabancı dil öğrenen öğrencilerde gecikmeli geri dönütün, konuşma becerilerine olan katkısına ışık tutacaktır.

- Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, ders kitabınızdan seçilen belli aktivitelerden sonra ikili veya grup şeklinde yaptığınız konuşmaların ses ve görüntü kaydını almak aracılığıyla sizden bilgiler toplanacaktır.
- İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz/araştırmada katılımcıların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır.
- Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacak, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.
- İstemeniz halinde sizden toplanan verileri inceleme hakkınız bulunmaktadır.
- Sizden toplanan veriler korunacak ve araştırma bitiminde arşivlenecek veya imha edilecektir.
- Veri toplama sürecinde/süreçlerinde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabilirsiniz. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Eğitim Programı öğrencilerinden Ayla Yeşilyurt’a yöneltebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı Adı: Ayla Yeşilyurt

Adres:

Cep Tel:

Bu alıřmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediđim takdirde alıřmadan ayrılabileređimi bilerek verdiđim bilgilerin bilimsel amalarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

(Lütfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kiřiye veriniz.)

Katılımcı Ad ve Soyadı:

İmza:

Tarih:



Öğrenci Gönüllü Katılım Formu (Anket)

Bu çalışma, “Gecikmeli geri bildirimin etkileşimli aktivitelerde kullanımının Türk öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi: Hazırlık öğrencileriyle bir çalışma” başlıklı bir araştırma olup gecikmeli geri dönütün, etkileşimli aktiviteler kullanılarak yabancı dil öğrenimindeki konuşma becerisini geliştirmeye katkısını görme amacı taşımaktadır. Çalışma, Ayla Yeşilyurt tarafından yürütülmekte ve sonuçları ile yabancı dil öğrenen öğrencilerde gecikmeli geri dönütün, konuşma becerilerine olan katkısına ışık tutacaktır.

- Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, kendi görüşleriniz belirteceğiniz anket aracılığıyla sizden bilgiler toplanacaktır.
- İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz/araştırmada katılımcıların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır.
- Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacak, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.
- İstemeniz halinde sizden toplanan verileri inceleme hakkınız bulunmaktadır.
- Sizden toplanan veriler korunacak ve araştırma bitiminde arşivlenecek veya imha edilecektir.
- Veri toplama sürecinde/süreçlerinde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabilirsiniz. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Eğitim Programı öğrencilerinden’nden Ayla Yeşilyurt’a yöneltebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı Adı: Ayla Yeşilyurt

Adres:

Cep Tel:

Bu alıřmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediđim takdirde alıřmadan ayrılabileređimi bilerek verdiđim bilgilerin bilimsel amalarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

(Ltfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kiřiye veriniz.)

Katılımcı Ad ve Soyadı:

İmza:

Tarih:



APPENDIX F: Participants' Quotes in English and Turkish

Positive Effect of the Treatment on Learners' Emotional State

- (1) **P14:** "It (The treatment) created more practice. I picked up speed on my speaking. It boosted my confidence and self-esteem." (survey)
"Bu uygulama daha fazla pratik yapmamıza yol açtı. konuşurken hızlandım. Kendime güvenim ve özgüvenim arttı."
- (2) **P13:** "I liked it (delayed oral feedback) because it decreased especially my tension while speaking." (survey)
"Konuşurken gerginliğimi azalttığı için geciktirilmiş sözel geri dönütü sevdim."
- (3) **P12:** "These kinds of practices made me a more comfortable person in terms of speaking." (survey)
"Bu çalışmalar beni konuşma açısından daha rahat bir insan yaptı."
- (4) **P11:** "I started to be more careful while speaking thanks to feedback I got." (survey)
"Aldığım geri dönüşler sayesinde konuşurken daha dikkatli olmaya başladım."
- (5) **P1:** "It was very useful, and my self-confidence increased while I am speaking. Reflecting what I am thinking into a paper is easy, but it is hard to speak. There is someone who is waiting to understand you. You get nervous on whether the person could understand or not. I believe I am more comfortable right now." (survey)
"Oldukça yararlıydı ve konuşurken özgüvenim arttı. Zihnimizden geçenleri bir kağıda aktarmak kolay fakat konuşmak gerçekten zor. Sizi anlamak için bekleyen birisi var. Anlayıp anlamayacağını düşünürken insan tedirgin oluyor. Sanırım artık daha rahatım."
- (6) **P18:** "I believe interactive communication activities improved my self-confidence and speaking skills." (survey)
"Etkileşimli konuşma aktivitelerinin özgüvenimi ve konuşmamı geliştirdiğini düşünüyorum."
- (7) **P2:** "If you are a shy and hesitate to speak because of making errors, these activities make you more relaxed." (survey)

“Çekingen biriyseniz be konuşmaktan, yanlış yapmaktan çekiniyorsanız size git gide rahatlatan bir aktivite.”

Positive Effect of The Treatment on Learners’ English and Comprehending Their Errors

(8) P20: “It (the treatment) improved my English.” (survey)

“Bu uygulama İngilizcemi geliştirdi.”

(9) P19: “Thanks to speaking activities, I believe that my speaking in English has improved, and it was useful to me.” (survey)

“Konuşma aktiviteleri sayesinde İngilizce konuşmamın geliştiğini düşünüyorum ve bana göre oldukça yararlıydı.

(10) P10: “I believe I improved my English with every activity.” (survey)

“Her aktiviteyle İngilizcemi geliştirdiğimi düşünüyorum.”

(11) P8: “They were fun practices to me, and in regard to them, my speaking skills improved.” (survey)

“Bence eğlenceli aktivitelerdi ve onlarla konuşmam gelişti.”

(12) P18: “In general, they (oral delayed feedback and interactive activities) were pretty useful to us with regards to improving our language.” (survey)

“Genel olarak bu uygulamalar dilimizi geliştirmek açısından oldukça faydalıydı.”

(13) P7: “Delayed feedback were effective in correcting my errors in speaking and finding new vocabulary items to use in the speaking.” (survey)

“Geciktirilmiş geri bildirimler konuşmamdaki hataları düzeltmeme ve yeni kelimeler kullanmamda etkili oldu.”

(14) P12: “It contributed to my vocabulary knowledge.” (survey)

“Kelime bilgimi geliştirdi.”

(15) P14: “I saw my errors which I had not realized. The benefit of its being delayed feedback is that I forgot the sentence I formed, and thanks to this, I could have a new perspective and be more rational.” (survey)

“Farkına varmadığım hataları görmüş oldum. Geciktirilmiş olmasının faydası kendi kurduğum cümleyi unutmuş olmam ve bu sayede kendime sıfırdan bakabilmem daha rasyonel olabilmem.”

- (16) P13: “Feedback given delayed, time passing after our speaking show us our errors clearly.” (survey)
“Geri dönüşlerin geç olması konuşmamızın üzerinden zaman geçmiş olması hatamızı bize daha net gösteriyor.”
- (17) P6: “I understand more by speaking attentively, and with every feedback I try to understand my errors and correct them more and more.” (survey)
“Daha dikkatli konuşup daha dikkatli anlayabiliyorum ve her geri dönüşle daha çok hatalarımı anlayıp düzeltmeye uğraşıyorum.”
- (18) P5: “It helped me notice my errors I made while I was speaking English and speak better.” (survey)
“İngilizce konuşurken yaptığım hataları fark etmeme ve daha güzel konuşmama yardımcı oldu.”
- (19) P3: “I am satisfied with the delayed oral corrective feedback because although it is given later, I can learn from the errors while I am speaking.” (survey)
“Memnunum çünkü sonradan da olsa konuşurken yaptığım hatalarını öğrenebiliyorum.”
- (20) P13: “The teacher gives us detailed feedback and we learn the correct versions. Because time passes over speaking, it becomes more permanent.” (survey)
“Öğretmenimiz bize ayrıntılı geri dönüşler veriyor ve doğrularını öğreniyoruz. Üzerinden zaman geçtiği için de kalıcı oluyor.”

The Positive Attitude Towards Interactive Activities in Classrooms

- (21) P16: “They (interactive activities) are pretty successful and informative.” (survey)
“Bu aktiviteler çok başarılı ve eğiticiydi.”
- (22) P15: “I like talking to my friends interactively. I’ve had fun, and it was fruitful for me.” (survey)
“Arkadaşlarımla karşılıklı konuşmaktan zevk alıyorum. Eğlendim ve benim için yararlıydı.”
- (23) P13: “We comprehend the differences between speaking and writing clearly.” (survey)
“Konuşma ve yazma arasındaki farkları daha net bir biçimde anlıyoruz.”

(24) P4: “They (interactive activities) are enhancing my speaking skills and I could think fast and speak comfortably.” (survey)

“Konuşmam gelişiyor ve daha hızlı düşünüp daha rahat konuşabiliyorum.”

(25) P11: “Thanks to the people I talk to, I have had new ideas.” (survey)

“Konuştuğum kişiler sayesinde aklıma yeni fikirler geldi.”



CURRICULUM VITAE

Name Surname : Ayla YEŞİLYURT

Foreign Languages : English

Education:

2019-2021, MA, Anadolu University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences,
Department of Foreign Language Education, Program in English Language Teaching.

2011-2016, BA, Middle East Technical University, Educational Sciences, Department of
Foreign Language Education, Program in English Language Teaching.

Work Experience:

2017- still, English Instructor, ATILIM University, Department of Basic English, Ankara.

2016-2017, English Teacher, ARI Private Schools, Ankara.