HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Languages Education

English Language Teaching Master's Degree Program

# ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK & REPAIR TECHNIQUES IN DYADIC ONLINE EFL YOUNG LEARNER SPEAKING LESSONS

Seher TANBOĞA

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2023

With leadership, research, innovation, high-quality education and change,

*To the leading edge... Toward being the best...*

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Master's Degree Program

# ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK & REPAIR TECHNIQUES IN DYADIC ONLINE EFL YOUNG LEARNER SPEAKING LESSONS

# İNGİLİZCE'NİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRETİLDİĞİ ÇEVRİMİÇİ ÇOCUKLARLA BİREBİR KONUŞMA DERSLERİNDE SÖZLÜ GERİBİLDİRİM TEKNİKLERİ ve DÜZELTME YÖNTEMLERİ

Seher TANBOĞA

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2023

**Acceptance and Approval**

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis, prepared by **SEHER TANBOĞA** and entitled "Oral Corrective Feedback & Repair Techniques in Dyadic Online EFL Young Learner Speaking Lessons" has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** in the **Department of Foreign Language Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

| | |
|---|---|
| Chair | Assc. Prof. Dr. Zekiye Müge Tavil |
| Member (Supervisor) | Prof. Hacer Hande Uysal |
| Member | Dr. Nilüfer Can Daşkın |

Decision of the Board of Directors of the Graduate School, issued on …./…/…. with the number of YL - 69439

This is to certify that this thesis has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 15/06/2023 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Master's Thesis** in the **Program of** English Language Teaching by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences from ...../...../.....

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

**Abstract**

Corrective feedback has been at the centre of many SLA studies due to the desire to reveal its impact in creating opportunities for learning. Many of those studies have been mostly delimited to the experimental settings to compare different types of oral corrective feedback, primarily their effectiveness for learning grammatical structures. However, very few studies examined video-mediated or natural interactions to understand oral trajectories of feedback and its impact on young learners. With this in mind, this study explored what kinds of oral corrective feedback practitioners enacted on meaning and form in an informal video-mediated young learners EFL interaction setting and how/if these actions led to learner repairs. Aligning with this purpose, this study, in the first place, analysed the frequencies of corrective feedback through coding based on Lyster & Ranta's (1997) model and repairs with respect to error distribution (syntactic, morphological, phonological, semantic). In the follow-up analysis, the researcher traced the details of correction sequences longitudinally across ten different one-to-one sessions of learners through discourse analysis. Nearly 20 hours of data coming from EFL-speaking lessons of 10 young learners inform us that teachers' preferences in online settings mainly rely on recasts with relatively fewer use of elicitations followed by explicit feedback and other CF moves. However, elicitation and sporadically used double corrective moves proportionally led to more repairs of learners than the most preferred CF, recasts. Nonetheless, some errors repaired by learners were repeated in future sessions, unveiling that the impact of correction and repair may not be long-lasting.

**Keywords**: video-mediated learning, oral corrective feedback, second language learning, young learners.

## Öz

Düzeltici geribildirim, öğrenmeye fırsat sunmadaki etkisinin ortaya çıkarılması amacıyla ikinci/yabancı dil öğretiminde pek çok çalışmanın odak noktası olmuştur. Bu çalışmaların büyük çoğunluğu düzeltici geribildirimin özellikle gramer yapılarının öğrenilmesinde geribildirim türlerinin etkililiğini kıyaslamak için genellikle deneysel ortamlarla sınırlı kalmıştır. Diğer bir yandan, çok az çalışma sözlü geribildirim süreçlerini ve çocuk yaştaki öğrenciler üzerindeki etkisini anlamak için görüntülü veya doğal iletişim ortamlarını incelemiştir. Bunu bir kenara koyarak, bu çalışma, çocuklara okul dışında, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği çevrimiçi görüntülü görüşme ortamında öğretmenlerin yalnızca dilbilimsel değil aynı zamanda anlam ile ilgili hatalara da düzeltici ne tür sözlü geribildirimde bulunduklarını ve öğrencilerin hatalarını düzeltip düzeltmediği/nasıl düzelttiğini araştırmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, bu çalışma öncelikle hatalara (sözdizimsel, morfolojik, fonolojik, anlamsal) verilen düzeltici geribildirimleri Lyster &Ranta' nın (1997) modeline bağlı ve düzeltmelerin sıklığını kodlama yoluyla analiz etmiştir. Daha sonra, araştırmacı söylem analiziyle her öğrencinin hata düzeltme süreçlerinin detaylarını 10 farklı birebir ders görüşmesi üzerinden uzun süreli olarak takip etti. Çocuk yaştaki 10 öğrenciyle yapılan İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği çevrimiçi birebir görüntülü konuşma derslerinden elde edilen yaklaşık 20 saatlik veri, çevrimiçi ortamda öğretmenlerin tercihlerinin başlıca tekraren düzeltmeler üzerine olduğu ve göreceli daha az kullanılan çıkartımların, direkt düzeltme ve diğer düzeltici geribildirim türlerinin takip ettiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bununla beraber, çıkartım ve ara sıra kullanılan ikili düzeltici geribildirimler en çok tercih edilen tekraren düzeltmelerden oran olarak daha çok öğrencinin hatasını düzeltmesine aracılık etmiştir. Yine de, öğrencilerin düzelttikleri hatalar, geribildirim ve düzeltmeninin etkisinin uzun süreli olmayabileceğini ortaya çıkararak, daha sonraki görüşmelerde yeniden yapılmıştır.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** çevrimiçi görüntülü görüşmeyle öğrenme, sözlü geribildirim, ikinci dil edinimi, çocuk yaştaki çocuklar.

## Acknowledgements

Throughout the writing of this thesis, I have received a great deal of support and assistance. I would first like to thank my esteemed supervisor, Professor H. Hande Uysal, whose insightful feedback and comments supported me during my Master's research study. I want to offer my deepest gratitude to Assc. Prof. Hidayet Sarandi for his invaluable advice and generosity in sharing his knowledge to shape my research. I would also like to thank Dr. Nilüfer Can Daşkın for her comprehensive feedback in helping me elevate the thesis and her sincere support during my education. Considering that the thesis will be a mark in my education life, I would like to say I am deeply grateful to whoever opened a path for me to thrive by seeing a torch to be lit in me and whoever shared their knowledge and experiences for me to better myself as a person and in my profession.

My gratitude extends to the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK), a national agency of Turkey, for financially supporting me with the 2210 - MA Scholarship Program to accomplish my studies at the Department of English Language Teaching, Hacettepe University. I want to express my special thanks to Tarık Sönmez, Bayram Kum and their team for their cooperation.

Lastly, from the bottom of my heart, I thank my dearest family and friends for their unceasing encouragement and care, which relieved me along the way and helped me sustain writing the thesis despite its hardships and hurdles. I could not complete this process without your patience, love and support.

**Table of Contents**

Acceptance and Approval ..... ii

Abstract ..... iii

Öz ..... iv

Acknowledgements ..... v

Table of Contents ..... vi

List of Tables ..... viii

List of Figures ..... ix

Symbols and Abbreviations ..... x

Chapter 1 Introduction ..... 1

Statement of the Problem ..... 4

Aim and Significance of the Study ..... 5

Research Questions ..... 6

Assumptions ..... 7

Limitations ..... 7

Definitions ..... 7

Chapter 2 Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review ..... 12

Comparative Corrective Feedback Studies on Linguistic Structures ..... 17

Corrective Feedback Models and Observational Studies ..... 26

Computer-Mediated Interaction Studies ..... 33

Chapter 3 Methodology ..... 41

Type of Research ..... 44

Research Participants ..... 45

Data Collection ..... 46

Instruments ..... 47

Data Analysis ..... 48

Chapter 4 Findings, Comments and Discussion ..... 52

Corrective Feedback Moves and Frequencies ..... 54
Sequential Analysis of Corrective Feedback Moves ..... 56
Error Distribution and Corrective Feedback ..... 70
Corrective Feedback Sequences and Repairs ..... 74
Repair Sequences..... 78
Oral Corrective Feedback Cycles and Micro Details ..... 84
Chapter 5 Conclusion and Suggestions ..... 90
References ..... 96
APPENDIX-A: Jefferson (2004) Transcription Convention ..... cvi
APPENDIX-B: Extracts of ‘Play’ Verb Inflection ..... cvii
APPENDIX-C: Pronunciation of The Word ‘Favorite’ Across Sessions ..... cix
APPENDIX-D: The Inflection of The Verb ‘Go’ in Simple Past Tense I ..... cxi
APPENDIX-E: The Inflection of The Verb ‘Go’ in Simple Past Tense II ..... cxii
APPENDIX-F: Ethics Committee Approval..... cxiii
APPENDIX-G: Declaration of Ethical Conduct ..... cxiv
APPENDIX-H: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report ..... cxv
APPENDIX-I: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı ..... cxvi

## List of Tables

**Table 1** *Frequency of Learner Repair Across Contexts (Sheen, 2009)* ..... 14
**Table 2** *Learner Participants* ..... 45
**Table 3** *Data Collection Dates* ..... 46
**Table 4** *Data Collection Instruments* ..... 47
**Table 5** *Interrater Reliability for Coding Corrective Feedback Moves* ..... 49
**Table 6** *Interrater Reliability for Coding Linguistic Errors* ..... 50
**Table 7** *Interrater Reliability for Coding Repairs* ..... 50
**Table 8** *Corrective Feedback Moves Distribution* ..... 55
**Table 9** *Double Corrective Feedback Moves* ..... 64
**Table 10** *The Proportion of Corrective Moves per Teacher* ..... 68
**Table 11** *The Proportion of Corrective Moves per Student* ..... 70
**Table 12** *The Distribution of Errors in Linguistic Categories* ..... 70
**Table 13** *The Distribution of Errors Across Linguistic & Corrective Feedback Categories* ..... 71
**Table 14** *The Distribution of Errors Across Students* ..... 73
**Table 15** *The Frequencies of Corrective Feedback and Repair* ..... 75
**Table 16** *The Distribution of Repairs Across the Feedback Moves* ..... 76
**Table 17** *Use of Verb 'Play' In Recurrent Sessions After Correction* ..... 84
**Table 18** *Pronunciation of The Word 'Favourite' Across Sessions* ..... 86
**Table 19** *Use of Irregular Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense I* ..... 86
**Table 20** *Use of Irregular Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense II* ..... 87

## List of Figures

**Figure 1** *Corrective Feedback Moves Frequency Distribution* ..... 55
**Figure 2** *The Distribution of Errors Across Linguistic & Corrective Feedback Moves* ..... 72
**Figure 3** *The Distribution of Errors Across Students*..... 73

## Symbols and Abbreviations

**SLA**: Second language acquisition

**FLA:** Foreign Language Acquisition

**FLL:** Foreign Language Learning

**OCF:** Oral Corrective Feedback

**WCF:** Written Corrective Feedback

**CMC**: Computer-mediated Communication

**F2F:** Face to face

**SCMC:** Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication

**FoF:** Focus on Form

**FFI:** Form Focused Instruction

**FFE:** Focus on Form Episodes

**NoM:** Negotiation of Meaning

**CF:** Corrective Feedback

**L2**: Second/Foreign language

**GJT:** Grammatical Judgement Test

**EIT:** Elicited Imitation Test

**AudCMC:** Audio Computer Mediated Communication

**VidCMC:** Video Computer Mediated Communication

**F2F:** Face to Face

**F2FCF:** Face to Face Corrective Feedback

**CMCF:** Computer Mediated Corrective Feedback

**FE:** Fixed Effects

**RE:** Random Effects

**WSCMC:** Written Synchronous Computer Mediated Communication

**ASCMCF:** Asynchronous Computer Mediated Corrective Feedback

**SVMC:** Synchronous Video-Mediated Communication

# Chapter 1
# Introduction

There has been a growing interest in foreign/second language learning studies in researching corrective feedback (CF), which is defined as corrective responses to learner utterances containing errors (Ellis et al., 2006) to maintain the interaction and learner contribution with the purpose of uncovering its impact on learning and interaction. The Interaction Hypothesis (Long,1996) contends that interaction could foster learning as it helps learners consolidate their knowledge through modification of the output (Swain, 1985) along with selective attention (Schmidt, 1990; Mackey, 2006) to the discrepancy between their existing knowledge and target language structures. These theories depended on learners' cognitive abilities to retrieve feedback through interaction. On the other hand, sociocultural studies (Markee & Kunitz, 2013) claim that learning not only occurs as a cognitive process but is also mutually constructed by the participants in their specific context. Lauzon & Doehler (2013), focusing on bringing two different perceptions together, contend that details explaining learners' changing cognitive orientation to learn are hinged upon the social context.

Based on the cognitivist theories above, feedback has been at the core of many SLA studies for a long time to find out the relationship between feedback and language learning (e.g., Ellis et al., 1994; Mackey and Oliver, 2002; Ellis et al., 2006; Mackey, 2006). Those studies suggested the beneficial impact of feedback on learning as well as offering learners an opportunity to draw on their own resources. Hence, gaining an insight into the complex nature and effectiveness of the corrective feedback is vital for foreign language learning pedagogy. In this course, early descriptive studies strived to shed light on these corrective feedback procedures to reveal teachers' preferences (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and how they lead to uptakes/repairs of learners (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) in French immersion classrooms. In his natural observational study, Chaudron (1997) elucidated feedback moves in a detailed schema, including 30 concepts for the feedback cycle in secondary-level French immersion schools. Subsuming those moves, Lyster & Ranta

(1997) offered a succinct description of corrective feedback in six categories based on their study in primary-level French immersion classrooms. They revealed that teachers tended to use recasts with a high proportion in 18.3 hours of classes, whilst other types of feedback sparingly followed them. Additionally, they found that elicitation and metalinguistic feedback had higher ratios resulting in student-generated repairs, whereas recasts and explicit correction did not urge for repairs.

Lyster's (1997) study has led with its corrective feedback model to many studies (e.g., Sheen, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Brown, 2016) investigating the frequency and use of different corrective feedback moves in EFL/ESL classrooms and the majority of these studies were conducted with learners above the age of 12. Some observational studies (Lyster, 1998b; Ellis et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004) have revealed teachers' dominant use of recasts in ESL classrooms. Aligning with this, Brown (2016) has supported the outweighing proportion of recasts in EFL/ESL classrooms with his meta-analytic study on previous observational CF research. Along with observational studies, proliferate experimental/ quasi-experimental research, which is usually comparative, has been carried out to evidence what kind of corrective feedback (CF) is more influential. In Li (2014), the metalinguistic feedback group outperformed the recast group among the low-level learners. In contrast, metalinguistic feedback did not show a distinctive effect for high-level learners compared to recasts; in other words, both types of corrective feedback resulted in higher success than the control group. In line with this result, Ellis et al. (2006) have shown the prominent effect of metalinguistic feedback (explicit feedback) over recasts (implicit feedback) on the acquisition of past tense -ed for low intermediate ESL speakers in New Zealand. On the other hand, in Li & Iwashita (2019), learners could benefit from recasts and negotiated prompts for the accuracy of irregular past tense, interrogative questions, while CF types did not show a significant difference among CF groups other than the control group. Supporting that, Lyster & Izquierdo (2009) reported both prompt and recast groups had an equivalent effect on the acquisition of grammatical gender by adult

French second language learners at the intermediate level. Primarily focusing on linguistic structures, these studies have also shown that the effect of corrective feedback types might vary depending on the target structure, proficiency level, or maybe the context.

Whereas experimental/quasi-experimental studies (e.g., Dlaska & Krekeler, 2013; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014) investigated the differential effect of corrective feedback types focusing on the accurate use of linguistic structures through pre-tests, treatment sessions, and post-tests; observational or descriptive studies (e.g., Lyster & Mori, 2006) tracked error treatment sequences by counting uptake and repair moves as they serve as 'an indicator of noticing' (Ellis & Sheen, 2006) for learners to modify their language. For example, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) has observed ESL communicative classes to discover the role of focus on form instruction in uptakes. And they have indicated that recasts in FFE (Focus on form episodes) resulted in nearly %70 of successful uptakes, as well as showing the leniency for successful uptakes in student-initiated FFEs other than teacher-initiated FFEs. Compared to content-based French immersion classrooms in Lyster & Ranta (1997), in Ellis et al. (2001), uptakes were higher in terms of the number and the success. Supporting the prominent effect of the directness of (explicit) FFEs resulting in successful uptakes (Ellis et al., 2001), Oliver & Mackey (2003) pointed out that learners benefited the most from explicit language-focused exchanges. However, when it comes to the effect of corrective feedback types offered in interaction, the proportion of repairs resulting from different CF types was similar despite the prevailing superiority of recasts over prompts and explicit correction in Lyster & Mori's (2006) study conducted in French and Japanese elementary level classes. Nonetheless, the likeness of the effect of CF types is confounding, as Panova & Lyster (2002) revealed that elicitation led to more repairs in adult ESL classrooms than other types of feedback.

Despite the rich research on corrective feedback, primarily experimental or quasi-experimental, they were mainly delimited to linguistic structures rather than lexis and vocabulary. Many studies (Nagata, 1993; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Li, 2014; Zhao & Ellis,

2020) claimed the importance of corrective feedback in learners' development through laboratory-like environments, very few studies (Ellis et al., 2001; Dlaska & Krekeler, 2013; Brown, 2016) were observational regarding the natural interaction setting and learners' responses to corrective feedback. Therefore, the SLL/A field still lacks qualitative studies that investigate the natural learning setting other than providing treatment to check the effect of CF on specific structures. On the other hand, studies in computer-mediated interaction focusing on negotiation and corrective feedback generally investigated the impact of synchronicity vs synchronicity, written vs oral interaction with experimental or quasi/experimental designs. Hence, these studies fall short of expanding our knowledge of the corrective feedback in natural video-mediated interaction as well as bringing evidence about young learners' reactions to corrective feedback. Supporting that, Brown (2016) clings to the view that there is still a need for comprehensive studies to uncover teachers' tendencies to provide CF regarding learner responses to maintain the interaction. It is necessary to discover learners' reactions to feedback and how the interaction unfolds for better teaching practices by the same token. In this vein, this study aims to provide a comprehensive description of the dyadic video-mediated interaction of 10 young EFL learners whose ages range between 8-12 by using coding & discourse analysis to portray the patterns of oral corrective feedback processes and their relationship with learning across sessions as well as checking the distribution of corrective feedback moves among error categories (such as phonological errors).

**Statement of the Problem**

Even though many studies have aimed to reveal which type of corrective feedback is the most effective for language learners' development, the results of those studies have been conflicting in terms of variation in the results. Previous studies were mostly conducted in experimental or quasi-experimental settings with adults; however, the number of corrective feedback studies in video-mediated settings and with young learners is scant. Therefore, the field lacks studies investigating the existence and effect of oral corrective

feedback in video-mediated interactions between young learners and teachers in relation to errors (such as phonological or semantic) made by students. As a result, we know very little about what kind of errors young learners make in one-to-one video-mediated speaking lessons, if/how teachers respond to learner errors and if corrective feedback leads to any repairs.

**Aim and Significance of the Study**

This study sets out to explore what kind of oral corrective feedback teachers prefer in video-mediated dyadic EFL young learner classes in relation to error categories (phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic). Along with the distribution of errors and corrective feedback moves, the study will also seek if/what kind of oral corrective feedback moves result in learner repair. Besides, it will focus on discovering exquisite patterns of oral corrective feedback moves resulting from the natural interaction between the learner and teachers through qualitative discourse analysis methodology. Additionally, this study aims to bring a comprehensive view into the effects of oral corrective feedback moves if/how they maintain the further practice and learning of corrected linguistic items longitudinally across various speaking sessions. Even though ample experimental research has shown the positive effect of corrective feedback moves, Lyster & Saito (2010) call for more qualitative studies which will probe into the contextual details to reveal learners' learning tendencies on one corrective feedback over another. Solely tracking the number of repairs or uptakes deriving from selective attention may not be enough to comprehend how different corrective feedback types affect the language learning process unless we concentrate on how the interaction evolves sequentially between the learner and teacher, unlike the common IRF (Initation-Response-Feedback) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) sequence., To the best of my knowledge, very few studies (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) researched how corrective feedback moves affect young learners' learning process and interaction and the majority of corrective feedback studies were conducted using an experimental/quasi-experimental design which leaves the effect of oral corrective feedback in natural interaction

in the dark. Also, oral corrective feedback procedures specifically in video-mediated settings, remain unknown, while some studies only focused on synchronous vs asynchronous, written or oral corrective feedback (e.g., Shintani, 2016; Arroyo & Yilmaz, 2018). This study sets out to reveal the teachers' preferences for oral corrective feedback moves in response to young learners' errors in video-mediated one-to-one speaking sessions through the lens of discourse analysis across time. Thus, it will be fruitful to understand the details of corrective feedback types and learner repair other than frequencies alone. These results may be illuminating both for assessing the multi-dimensions together and for practitioners to see how learners elicit corrective feedback to engage in the interaction.

In sum, the previous studies mostly focused on the comparative effect of different CF moves, implicitness/explicitness, output-pushing/input providing, synchronous/asynchronous feedback, especially on the acquisition of grammatical structures. They were mostly conducted in experimental settings or face-to-face classroom settings. Therefore, to meet the need for longitudinal and more natural classroom setting studies, the current research conducted in a video-mediated interaction setting aims to respond to the questions as follows:

**Research Questions**

1) What kind of corrective feedback techniques do EFL teachers employ in video-mediated dyadic sessions with young learners, and what are the frequencies of each CF type?

2) How are corrective feedback moves distributed regarding their linguistic foci (e.g., phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic)?

3) How do the teachers and learners enact corrective feedback sequences in the unfolding talk, and does teachers' feedback result in learner repairs?

## Assumptions

Based on the procedural policies enforced by the education institution, we assume that learners all have a strong Internet connection to maintain a seamless interaction with their instructors, and there are no distractors in their environment, like a noisy or low-lit room (e.g., home). It is also assumed that learners do not differ in their aptitude in a video-mediated learning environment.

## Limitations

This study, researching video-mediated dyadic interactions, was limited to a small sample of participants. Even though it provides a detailed qualitative analysis and longitudinal evidence, a large sampling is needed for young learners' feedback procedures to give a general conclusion about the relationship between oral corrective feedback and learning. On the other hand, sizeable video-mediated classroom contexts may differ from dyadic video-mediated sessions, which suggests more descriptive research in online settings both for comparison and similarities. Another constraint was continuously changing teachers for learners, as the researcher could not comprehend how this change could psychologically influence learners' learning processes. Each learner had their own learning setting at home, and we do not know much about the background setting of the classes, which might have positively or negatively changed the learners' reactions and behaviours in video-mediated classes. Besides, the Internet connection of learners might not have been stable from time to time which might have affected the interaction flow due to voice and video cuts and distracted learners and teachers.

## Definitions

Corrective feedback was defined as 'responses to learners' incorrect utterances, and it can include a) the sign of error, b) correct target language form, c) metalinguistic explanation, or a combination of these (Ellis et al. 2006). Negative feedback, which is interchangeably used with corrective feedback, indicates the incorrectness of the learner's

utterances through explicit/incidental feedback (Long, 1996). Positive feedback is explained as the provision of correct models of the language (Nassaji, 2007). Some researchers across corrective feedback studies opt for positive or negative feedback alone instead of using corrective feedback for both senses. However, to get away from discussions based on the corrective feedback moves' explicitness/implicitness showing a direct sign/indirect of errors, from now on, corrective feedback will be preferred for both circumstances.

To elucidate different types of feedback emerging in interaction, following Lyster & Ranta's six moves, some researchers added new types by subsuming (Lyster, 1998b; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Ellis, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006) or entailing new characteristics of those six types (Lyster, 1998a; Sheen, 2006) and doubling corrective moves (Nassaji, 2007). Ellis (2006) delineated six types of corrective feedback in two; input-providing (recasts, explicit correction), output-prompting (clarification requests, elicitation, repetition, metalinguistic feedback), considering if they provide the correct form or result in student-generated repairs. However, some researchers named output-prompting as negotiation of the form (Lyster, 1998a) and negotiation (Oliver & Mackey, 2003) prompts (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Some researchers added translation as a new category (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), while others added unique characteristics such as interrogative/declarative recasts (Lyster, 1998a) or double corrective move categories such as embedded recast+prompts, recast+expansion (Nassaji, 2007). In this research, the corrective feedback frequencies will be based on Lyster & Ranta's feedback moves (1997) revised as seven types of corrective feedback by Panova & Lyster (2002). However, the study will probe into the myriad of corrective feedback characteristics to understand their impact on learning in qualitative discourse analysis without naming them as new feedback moves. We clarify them as adapted from Lyster & Mori (2006):

When the teacher makes an explicit correction, s/he provides the correct form of the language by explicitly indicating the error, as in the example below.

Student: Le renard gris, le loup, le coyote, le bison et la gr . . . groue. [phonological error]

"The grey fox, the wolf, the coyote, the bison and the cr…cran."

Teacher: Et la grue. On dit 'grue'.

"And the crane+ We say 'crane'+"

Recasts are 'teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance minus error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Student: Umi ya, umi ya . . . [lexical error]

"The sea and, the sea and …"

Teacher: Mizuumi ya. . .

"The lake and …"

Elicitation involves teacher responses asking for a reformulation from the student by asking questions, such as "How do we say that in French?" or using partial utterances for learners to complete;

Student: Ben y a un jet de parfum qui sent pas très bon... [lexical error]

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

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

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

Clarification requests are feedback moves that indicate learners that their utterances are incorrect or ill-formed.

Student: Bashi ni. [phonological error]

"On the wagon."

Teacher: Nani?

"What?"

Metalinguistic feedback contains technical explanations without offering the correct answer.

Student: Kuruma. [lexical error]

"A car+"

Teacher: Kuruma janai yo.

"(It) 's not a car."

Repetition 'occurs when the teacher repeats learners' ill-formed utterances without any change'.

Student: La guimauve, la chocolat. [gender error]

"Marshmallow, chocolate (fem.)."

Teacher: La chocolat?

"Chocolat (fem.)?"

Translation (Panova & Lyster, 2002)

Teacher: All right, now, which place is near the water?

Student: Non, j'ai pas fini. (L1)

Teacher: You haven't finished? Okay, Bernard, have you finished?

For the distribution of errors, we will benefit from four linguistic categories as follows:

Phonological errors involve mispronounced sounds, syllables, and morphemes. Morphological errors involve misusing morphemes with affixes or, in a different form, position in the sentence (e.g., I am funing.) Syntactic errors involve incorrectly grouping words in a sentence out of grammar rules (e.g., To store went I.) and lack of prepositions. Semantic errors include misusing words to describe or tell something different from their meaning. For example, 'Colorless green ideas sleep furiously' (Chomsky, 1957).

In this study, the researcher will track repair sequences for noticing successful reformulation of the incorrect linguistic item. There are some conceptual discrepancies between the perspective of corrective feedback studies and the conversation analytic (CA) approach. In CA, the repair was defined as 'the treatment of trouble-causing a communication breakdown in interaction' (Seedhouse, 2004), including all types of repairs (self-initiated-self/other repairs, other-initiated-self/other repairs) (see Schegloff et al., 1977 for more.); however, in CF studies, repair refers to 'the correction of an error by the student in one turn following the teacher's feedback and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair' (Lyster, 1998b), in other words, other-initiated self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). Nonetheless, this study will adopt a sequential analysis approach to track learners' repair as learners' correct utterances in response to the teachers' feedback in successive or following turns to avoid conceptual confusion and in the data analysis, will focus on only repairs made by students in response to the teachers' correction to be able to observe the effect of corrective feedback on learners' language use closely.

Video-mediated interaction, the setting of this research, can be described as the synchronous communication mode involving audio and video simultaneously. It may also involve other means of communication like screen-sharing, video or image sharing, and human interaction.

# Chapter 2
## Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review

A growing body of research in the field of foreign & second language teaching (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Sato & Lyster, 2012) has investigated the impact of corrective feedback (CF); that is, information provided by teachers to the ill-formed language use of learners as defined by Loewen (2012). Chaudron (1977) suggests that responding to learners' erroneous utterances may facilitate learners' rate of progress and learning. Similarly, a considerable amount of descriptive, experimental, meta-analysis research has brought evidence that corrective feedback techniques can enhance learning a second/foreign language (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Brown, 2016). Most of these studies have been based on the theories such as the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), output hypothesis (Swain, 1985), and interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), which sprung from cognitive constructs. Schmidt (1990) purported that learners could internalize the language only when they are consciously aware of the difference between the targeted language and erroneous language use. Hence, SLA/L researchers have investigated if the noticing arises following feedback, and it fosters language learning through negotiation of meaning episodes (e.g., Yuksel & Inan, 2014) as well as corrective feedback sequences (Oliver & Mackey, 2003, Lai & Zhao, 2006). In a similar vein to Schmidt, Swain (1995) claimed that learners could modify their incorrect utterances when they notice, which could help the learner develop their interlanguage. Long (1996) also established a view that interaction facilitates noticing and modifying the language through the negotiation of meaning, form, and feedback. In the frame of this theoretical background, FLA/L researchers carried out ample studies to investigate the effect of interaction in various communication modes, such as computer-mediated communication (CMC) (Smith 2003; Smith, 2004), face-to-face (F2F) (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997) on language learning in relation to feedback, negotiation of meaning and the type of instruction (Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004). In the prominent impact of the

interaction and output theories, some of the researchers (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006) studied corrective feedback with respect to language learning using coding to measure noticing through uptakes and repairs following CF in their observational studies whereas other studies benefited from immediate reports (Egi, 2007), stimulated recalls (Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Yuksel & Inan, 2014; Shintani, 2016) and immediate vs delayed post-tests (Saito & Lyster, 2012; Li, 2014; Rassaei, 2017).

To begin with, the early corrective feedback studies were often conducted in F2F classrooms and were primarily observational and descriptive. Chaudron (1977) offered a detailed analytical framework that consisted of 24 teacher feedback moves based on observations of French immersion classrooms. The analytic model was designed and structured following the sequences of repair and discursive features (such as repetition with/without emphasis/reduction/expansion etc.). Later, Lyster & Ranta (1997) established a concise model of corrective feedback moves occurring in French primary immersion classrooms. This model consists of six CF moves which are (1) explicit correction, (2) recasts, (3) clarification requests, (4) metalinguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, and (6) repetition. This model has guided many observational studies (Lyster, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004) and has been developed over time through the classification of CF moves as input-providing, output-prompting, and explicit, implicit according to their purposes and directness (Ellis, 2009). Paralinguistic signals (e.g., gestures, pitch, tone) whose effect in CF moves was disregarded for a long time have also been identified as CF strategies by Ellis (2009). The studies proliferated in different dimensions regarding corrective feedback after these early studies. Some of the studies focused on the most prevalent type of corrective feedback, recast, and its features regarding its saliency and effectiveness. On the one hand, certain studies addressed the differential effects of different types of feedback primarily through empirical and quasi-experimental designs. Observational studies, on the other hand, probed into the frequency of corrective feedback moves and uptakes, repairs through focus-on-form (Ellis et al., 2001), communicative

teaching (Sheen 2004), content-based instruction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a). To illustrate, several studies (Ellis et al., 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori; 2006) have sought the interplay between corrective feedback moves, uptake, and repair. Uptake presumably represents learners' consciousness about the errors, which is defined as a response to the teacher's feedback as a sign of understanding, and indeed it does not indicate specific evidence in terms of learning. However, the repair is more consequential regarding the change in learners' language use from erroneous to corrected utterances. Previous work has reported that elicitation had the highest amount of uptake, followed by clarification requests, repetition and clarification requests, and explicit feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004) despite the superiority of recasts over other CF moves regarding its more frequent use for errors. Some studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Izquierdo) indicated that elicitation with a high proportion caused the treatment of erroneous utterances and led to self-repair more (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Nonetheless, which kinds of CF may result in more repairs is controversial across different levels, contexts, and the size of the classroom. For example, Lyster & Ranta (1997) found recasts and explicit correction outstanding in a high number of repairs in the Canada immersion context, while Panova & Lyster (2002), in Canada ESL and Sheen (2004), in Korean ESL contexts showed contradictory results with a lower rate of repairs (see Table 1). This variance across three different contexts might result from the intensive instruction in the immersion class and the language level of learners, which require comprehensive studies to reveal if/what creates a significant difference among different contexts.

**Table 1**

*Frequency of Learner Repair Across Contexts (Sheen, 2009)*

| | Explicit correction | Recasts | Clarification requests | Metalinguistic feedback | Elicitation | Repetition | Translation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canada | 18 | 66 | 20 | 26 | 43 | 11 | |
| Immersion | 72.0% | 57.4% | 31.3% | 52.0% | 45.7% | 39.3% | |
| Canada ESL | 0 | 29 | 10 | 6 | 11 | 5 | 4 |
| | 0.0% | 32.2% | 22.7% | 40.0% | 73.3% | 83.3% | 21.1% |
| NZ ESL | 17 | 62 | 4 | 4 | 11 | 7 | |
| | 73.9% | 66.0% | 50.0% | 100.0% | 84.6% | 70.0% | |
| Korea EFL | 10 | 89 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | |
| | 71.4% | 70.1% | 20.0% | 100.0% | 50.0% | 50.0% | |
| *Total* | 45 | 246 | 35 | 39 | 66 | 24 | 4 |
| | 69.2% | 57.7% | 28.9% | 54.2% | 53.2% | 52.2% | 21.1% |

Along with previous studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006), much of recent work (Li & Iwashita, 2019) focused on the beneficial effect of certain corrective feedback moves on the accurate use of linguistic structures rather than extending the scope of studies in general language use to see if the proportion of corrections diverges in different contextual settings. Those empirical studies (Sato & Lyster, 2012; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Li & Iwashita, 2019; Zhao & Elllis, 2020) mainly compared the effect of recasts to prompts (alone or the combination of elicitation, clarification request, repetition, or metalinguistic feedback). Thus, they have profoundly contributed to our understanding of the tendencies of teachers and learners in using and receiving CF in grammar and how learners may benefit from teachers' CF choices. The existing literature (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Arroyo & Yilmaz, 2018) dwells on that recasts, and other moves of CF (usually prompts in these studies) had identical accuracy development in the use of different grammatical structure. Nonetheless, we still lack longitudinal data on natural interaction between the learners and teachers to comprehend how interaction is shaped depending on each interlocutor’s preference following corrective feedback moves. Also, some researchers (Ellis et al., 2001) have compared the effect of implicit and explicit correction during form-focused instruction or on the accuracy development of specific structures (Ellis et al., 2006; Zhao & Ellis; 2020). Ellis et al. (2006) have indicated the superiority of explicit (metalinguistic) feedback over implicit feedback (recast) in the proper use of past tense -ed in their experimental designed study conducted with adolescents in ES/FL classrooms. Contrarily, Zhao & Ellis (2020) have detected no significant differences between implicit and explicit feedback on the use of 3rd person -s in their classroom-based experimental study. Supporting this disagreement, Sato & Lyster (2012) found a much

higher positive effect of recasts over prompt and peer interaction groups in Japanese L2 English classrooms. On the other hand, Ellis et al. (2001) suggested that directness (explicit) or indirectness (implicit) of corrective feedback did not affect the number of successful uptakes significantly in their classroom-based study. We can deem that there is a divergence in CF studies along with variations resulting from contextual differences such as experimental and classroom environments. Hence, the need for more classroom-based research or natural observational study is evident to compare and validate the findings of what other studies have uncovered so far. Despite ample research on the comparative effect of corrective feedback moves on the acquisition of grammatical structures in experimental or classroom settings, corrective feedback procedures in video-mediated interaction remain uncovered, which calls for more studies. In addition, except for the text-based corrective feedback studies, very few studies investigated corrective feedback patterns in video-mediated online settings. Specifically, Shintani's (2016) study was conducted in a CMC setting, comparing the effect of written synchronous feedback with asynchronous feedback. Shintani (2016) found a positive impact of both written synchronous and asynchronous feedback. On the other hand, Kim et al. (2020) revealed that direct and indirect written synchronous feedback were both helpful in using linguistic features in writing. Rassaei (2017) also compared two modes of recasts, face-to-face and video chat, and showed both modes were equally effective.

To sum up, with the common perception that feedback contributes to the learners' improvement, researchers primarily have focused on the relationship between different moves of corrective feedback and the linguistic item acquisition through CF (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014), form-focused instruction (Lyster, 2001; Ellis et al., 2001), uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a; Ellis & Sheen, 2006) repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Zhao & Ellis; 2020), perceptions (Mackey et al., 2007; Sato, 2013), peer corrective feedback (Sato, 2013). The studies on corrective feedback, in the written or oral mode, on the topics mentioned above are proliferating; therefore, we will

focus on the oral corrective feedback studies, especially those are observational or conducted in classroom contexts, as well as those carried out on computer-mediated interaction since it is an essential part of our research and a unique setting with its own interactional characteristics. This longitudinal oral corrective feedback research takes its place in descriptive corrective feedback studies with its focus on video-mediated interaction playing its role as the mode of communication.

As I elucidated above, the need for a descriptive study in video-mediated interaction remains important. Based on the number of studies on corrective feedback, I will illustrate previous studies in the overview as follows; (1) comparative corrective feedback studies on linguistic structures, 2) computer-mediated interaction studies, 3) corrective feedback models and observational studies.

**Comparative Corrective Feedback Studies on Linguistic Structures**

Compared to descriptive CF studies, many experimental/quasi-experimental studies investigated the effect of different CF moves, especially in acquiring linguistic structures. In this vein, Carroll & Swain (1993) reported reformulations/recasts had a more significant impact on the accuracy of English dative alternation of adult Spanish ESL learners than metalinguistic feedback, direct correction, and elicitation. Contrarily, Ellis et al. (2006) revealed there was a consistent prominence of metalinguistic feedback (explicit) over recasts in the accurate use of past tense -ed maintained from pre-test to post-tests of GJT (Grammatical Judgement Test), metalinguistic test, and oral imitation test. Likewise, Li's(2014) quasi-experimental study on the learning of two structures (the perfective –le, classifiers) with 78 high-level and low-level Chinese (FL) learners indicated that metalinguistic groups of both high-level and low-level had higher scores on the use of the perfective –le than recast and control groups in the grammatical judgement test (GJT) following tasks and form-focused instruction. On the other hand, the recast group scores of low-level did not significantly differ from those of the control group on both post-tests through post hoc analysis, and the gains of the high-level recast group were higher than the control

group only in the delayed post-test. Based on the elicited imitation test (EIT) scores and post hoc analysis, both recast and metalinguistic groups of low-level performed better than the control group on post-test 1, but the low-level recast group could not maintain it till post-test 2, and the mean scores markedly decreased for both low-level recast and metalinguistic feedback groups. As for the high-level metalinguistic feedback and recast groups, they significantly outperformed the control group, but their mean scores did not substantially differ from each other. Briefly, the high-level learners benefited from both recasts and metalinguistic feedback and improved their use of the perfective –le, yet low-level learners could mainly benefit from the metalinguistic feedback in both EIT and GJT. On the learning of classifiers, both feedback groups of both levels significantly performed better than the control group in GJT, and they maintained the improvement from the post-test 1 to post-test 2. Besides, the metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts on classifiers at the low level, whereas high-level learners benefited from either type of feedback evenly in GJT. However, the mean scores of both feedback groups at either level sharply decreased from the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test, but metalinguistic feedback still showed a substantially larger effect for the learning of classifiers for both levels compared to the control group at the delayed post-test. Whereas the recast showed a significant effect on the learning of classifiers at the low level despite the decrease in post-test gains, the high-level recast group did not perform better than the control group in EIT on post-test 2. In short, in GJT, metalinguistic feedback was more effective for low-level learners, whereas either type of feedback was similarly beneficial for high-level learners. On EIT, the mean scores of both feedback groups decreased regardless of the level, but recast and metalinguistic feedback were still significantly fruitful for low-level learners compared to the control group. However, only the metalinguistic feedback group could sustain the differential effect from post-test 1 to post-test 2 at the high level. Thus, this study puts the positive effect of metalinguistic feedback forward and also shows that learners could benefit from various moves of feedback differently based on their levels and the type of the test. On the other hand, Göksu's (2014) PhD research showed that A1 level 5$^{th}$ grade primary school EFL

learners receiving explicit correction performed significantly better than metalinguistic, recast and control groups in using superlatives and simple past tense in scenarios and oral picture description tests through immediate and delayed post-tests. However, learners in metalinguistic and recast groups also showed more progress than the control group through form-focused instruction (FFI), which means corrective feedback was revealed as fruitful along with FFI through a quasi-experimental design. Nonetheless, these variational findings are based on an experimental context, and the field requires more naturalistic and observational studies to compare the effects of corrective feedback moves on meaning and linguistic structures at different levels rather than only testing the acquisition of certain language structures.

On the other hand, a few studies (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Sato & Lyster, 2012) found no significant difference between the recast and prompt (a combination of clarification requests and repetition, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation). In other words, both CF groups developed the accuracy of grammar at identical progress. On the other hand, Li & Iwashita (2019) brought evidence that the recasts led to the development of irregular past tense verb uses with a significant difference from the prompts group (a combination of clarification requests, repetitions, and elicitations), while the output pushing prompts were more effective in the acquisition of regular past tense -ed. Apart from discrepancies regarding the learner level, age, and context among these studies, they also point out that the effect of corrective moves may change depending on the linguistic structure and the type of the test.

In addition to using grammatical judgement tests or other types of tests, some studies used immediate or stimulated recalls to measure learners' noticing in relation to their accuracy scores. For example, Kartchava & Ammar (2014) discovered that the prompts and mixed CF (prompt+recast) groups recalled CF on the past tense and questions significantly more than the recast group. However, the accuracy scores of CF and the control groups did not substantially differ on the spot-the-difference and picture description tasks of simple past tense and questions, even though the prompt group performed better

than other CF and control groups. In the same strain, in Ammar's(2008) quasi-experimental study with 64 primary school students on the English 3rd person singular, learners in the prompts group showed better progress from the recognition level to use the target structure easily than the ones in the recasts group possibly thanks to the pushing effect of prompts to modify the erroneous language. However, the control group could not proceed from the recognition level to the level of using the structure freely. While Kartchava & Ammar (2014) were conducted with high beginner ESL college students, Ammar's (2008) earlier study was with primary school students. As quasi-experimental studies have indicated, inconsistent results may occur probably due to different characteristics of learners, context, instruction, and so on, thus reminding the need for studies that will illuminate these multiple factors embodied in the class.

Moreover, Zhao & Ellis (2020) have reported the results of their classroom-based experimental study on the acquisition of 3rd person -s. Different from other empirical studies, they provided three different corrective feedback moves as treatment in two experimental groups (CF with a single corrective move, implicit recasts; CF with double corrective moves, a prompt followed by an explicit recast). Even though the number of corrective feedback for both explicit feedback group (EG) and implicit feedback group (IG) were almost identical, uptake with EG repairs was higher than IG. Whilst EG improved the accurate use of -s from pre- to delayed post-test, IG could develop the accuracy only from pre- to immediate post-test. This study brings more evidence to the positive effect of using CF, namely, recasts more explicitly through stress and intonation accompanied by prompts on linguistic structures.

Some studies focused on the effect of instruction type in relation to corrective feedback. For instance, Lyster's (2004) quasi-experimental study with 179 young learners at a French immersion school investigated the effect of form-focused instruction (FFI) in relation to prompts, recasts with FFI and no FFI & feedback through two written tests and oral tasks on the learning of French grammatical gender markers. The analysis of written

tests revealed the significant effect of prompts with FFI in the learning of French grammatical genders over recasts with FFI, only FFI and no feedback or FFI groups, whereas FFI-only and recasts with FFI were evenly good at maintaining the learning of grammatical genders outperforming the control group in both post-tests except the second post-test (text-completion) since they could not sustain the difference between themselves and the comparison group. On the other hand, in oral tests, feedback groups with FI and only FI outperformed the comparison group different from the written tests, which also showed that corrective feedback alone did not mainly contribute to the learning based on the analysis of oral tests, and the instruction itself was one of key elements in the language learning. Moreover, Sato & Loewen (2018) compared the effect of metacognitive instruction with two corrective feedback moves; input-providing recasts (IP) and output prompting clarification requests (OP) which are used in teaching English third-person singular –s and possessive determiners his/her. The analyses have shown the facilitative impact of metacognitive instruction with CF in both the accuracy of third-person singular and possessive determiners. However, compared to the acquisition of possessive determiners, metacognitive instruction (MI) with CF has increased the accuracy of third-person singular -s more in MI with IP (d 0.97) and OP (d 0.86) groups; thus, we see there can be a discrepancy among different structures despite the use of the same CF type. Therefore, metacognitive instruction can be used with these CF moves to promote learning in ES/FL classrooms.

Unlike many studies' unifying approach towards recasts and other corrective moves, recasts have diverse features (their length, prosodic features) and are not monolithic, as Ellis & Sheen (2006) pointed out. Some studies, specifically, Nassaji (2007), studied recasts/reformulations, identifying them according to their characteristics and combining them with other types of corrective moves. His quasi-experimental study with 42 intermediate English ESL learners, which investigates the differential effect of two types of feedback (elicitation & reformulation) on the occurrence of repairs through task-based

interaction, reported that teachers provided reformulations for 45.5% of errors, elicitations for 27.4% of errors, and other types of feedback for the remaining errors. The successful repair proportions of reformulations and elicitations were similar successively as; 34% and 31%. Out of 6 types of reformulations, embedded recasts with prompts were the most commonly used ones, and 38% of them resulted in successful repairs, whereas isolated recast (also named partial recasts) with prompts (added stress or rising intonation) and recast with enhanced prompt resulted in successful and partial repair above 70%. We see that when recasts are shorter and combined with verbal prompts and prosodic features, they might increase the learner's awareness and result in successful repair more. In line with this, isolated recast without prompt and expanded recasts never led to successful repairs and embedded recast without prompts was rarely never followed by successful repairs (4 times, %13). On the other hand, elicitation accompanied by both prosodic features and prompts resulted in successful repairs more than elicitations only marked with stress or intonation whilst unmarked elicitation never led to successful repairs. Exploring characteristics of recasts and their comparable effects, Loewen & Philp (2006) also reported in their quasi-experimental study in adult ESL classrooms that recasts had a better impact with extensions, a high intonation, prosodic emphasis resulting in successful uptake. In a similar vein, Nassaji (2017) probed into acquiring English articles through extensive versus intensive recast groups to compare the intensity of recasts by explicating intensive recasts as focusing on a single linguistic structure and extensive recasts as involving multiple error correction. Thus, he revealed that the extensive recast group had a higher mean score in the immediate post-test ($p<.05$) than others in the oral picture description and maintained it in the delayed post-test ($p<.01$). However, the intensive recast group performed better than the control group but did not show more significant progress in the immediate ($p=.07$) and delayed oral picture description tasks ($p=.15$). The extensive recast group had a higher mean score than the intensive recast and control groups both in the immediate ($p<.05$) and in delayed post-test ($p<.01$) of the written grammaticality judgment tasks, whereas the recast and control group had similar mean scores. As for the written storytelling task,

findings showed no difference in the accurate use of the articles among any of the groups. Nassaji (2007) and (2017) have contrasting findings since the former study underscored the short recasts focusing on a single error, whilst the latter's finding supported recasts are also more beneficial when they involve multiple corrections. One of the most comprehensive studies on recasts, Egi (2007) carried out a task-based quasi-experimental study on the use of –te and numeric classifiers with 49 Japanese learners at levels across beginning to intermediate to explore how students perceive recasts, and if the length of recasts, number of changes and linguistic targets affect their perception, especially in a meaning-based interaction. Their perception was measured through immediate reports and stimulated recalls in two groups and thus revealed that learners could remember slightly over half of the feedback episodes, and there was no significant relationship between linguistic categories (Lexis & Morphosyntax) and learners' interpretations ($p=.88$). Concerning the length of recasts in relation to linguistic categories, the analysis showed a substantial relationship between the learners' perception of lexical errors ($p<.01$), morphosyntactic errors ($p<.01$), and the length of recasts. For morphosyntactic errors, learners interpreted longer recasts 30.20% as responses to content, whereas they perceived 17.13 of shorter recasts as responses to content. However, for lexical errors, learners reported that they thought 41.67% of longer recasts as responses to content, while they indicated only 7.55 % of shorter recasts as responses to content. Also, in lexical errors, learners perceived shorter recasts more as linguistic feedback than longer recasts. Besides, 86% of lexical error recasts comprised shorter recasts, whereas only 58% of longer recasts were interpreted as responses to content. The distribution among the type of interpretations in relation to the length of recasts for morphosyntactic errors was almost even. Hence, the study highlights that shorter recasts promoted learners' awareness more for linguistic feedback, whereas longer recasts led learners to interpret them as conversational or pragmatic. As for the number of changes made in recasts, 77% of recasts for morphosyntactic errors involved one or two changes, and 80% of recasts for lexical errors included fewer changes, which indicates the lenience of the teachers for shorter recasts.

On the other hand, Japanese learners conveyed that they received negative evidence, positive evidence, and both for 83 % of shorter recasts for morphosyntactic errors, whilst they said 68 % of longer recasts were corrective feedback. Consequently, the study demonstrated that longer recasts were perceived more as responses to content for both linguistic targets, whereas shorter recasts were perceived as having a corrective function, which brings more evidence to the findings of Loewen & Philp (2006), Nassaji (2007).

Based on the meta-analysis of 33 experimental &quasi-experimental studies (22 published, 11 unpublished PhD dissertations, in Li's (2010) study, corrective feedback had a medium-size effect on L2 learning/acquisition in the immediate tests (FE: d = 0.61; RE: d = 0.64) and Q-tests indicated no substantial difference among the feedback moves. On the other hand, the medium-size effect of corrective feedback, in general, had a small decrease from the immediate test period to the long period (FE: d = 0.544; RE: d = 0.531; 12 studies). The mean effect size of implicit feedback (FE & RE : d= 0.544, 11 studies) in the long term was higher than explicit feedback (FE & DE: d= 0.440; 4 studies) and recasts (FE: d= 0.533; RE: d: 0.553; 8 studies), however, explicit feedback (d= 0.608, 10 studies) had the highest effect size in the short term compared to others as follows: recasts (FE: d=0.439; RE: d=0.435; 9 studies), metalinguistic feedback (FE: d=0.518; RE: d= 0.519; 6 studies), implicit feedback (FE: d=0.444; RE: d= 0.446; 11 studies). In short, explicit feedback was more effective for language learning in the short term, yet implicit feedback led to more consistent development in the long haul, although there is no significant difference among the corrective feedback moves. The study had an important implication on the research setting, reporting that laboratory studies had a larger size effect than classroom-based or group studies, which did not have a significant difference among their size effects. The mean effect size for mechanical drills was larger than communicative tasks in the FE model, whereas the effect sizes of tasks did not significantly differ under the RE model. The mean effect sizes on L2 acquisition/learning based on the modes of delivery did not substantially differ (CMCF, F2FCF). The mean effect size comparison between published literature and fugitive

literature revealed no significant difference among them, with a slightly higher effect, in favour of PhD dissertations. As for the treatment length, shorter treatment length (50 mins or less, in lab conditions) created a larger size effect than longer treatment length (over 50 mins, classroom-based studies). The analysis on if the different contexts might have different size effects showed studies in the EFL context had a larger effect size than the ones in ESL in learning. The feedback delivered by the computer or given by the native speaker was more influential than the feedback provided by teachers; however, the more influential type of delivery mode occurred only in laboratory conditions. In terms of the output type, free-constructed answers were more effective than limited responses for language development.

Different from Mackey & Goo (2007), Li (2010) and Lyster & Saito (2010) have excluded laboratory studies and fugitive literature in their meta-analysis studying the effectiveness of CF in SL/FL contexts. The analysis has indicated the mean medium to large effect size (d= 0.74) of CF in learning, which remained the same for the immediate and delayed post-tests and corroborated the positive impact of CF on language learning. On the other hand, the effect size of prompts was substantially larger than the recasts within-group contrast, whilst that of explicit correction did not significantly differ from prompts and recast within and between-group contrasts. Additionally, the study revealed the superior effect of prompts for younger learners compared to recasts, whereas prompts were similarly influential as recasts for older learners. In a similar vein to Li (2010), Lyster & Saito (2010) found that the effect size of free constructed response measures (d= 1.25) was comparatively higher than constrained constructed response measures (0.86) and metalinguistic judgements (d= 0.70). Unlike Li (2010), this study discovered no significant differential effect of CF for FL and L2 contexts, which might be related to the fact that Li (2010) included more studies which are also laboratory studies (also computer-based) rather than only classroom studies. Therefore, there is a need for meta-analysis studies that will investigate laboratory, classroom, and computer-based studies separately. Supporting

Li (2010), the measurement of the effect sizes revealed long treatments had larger size effects (d = 1.13) than short-to-medium (d = 0.57) in learning; in other words, as the length of instruction increased, the mean score of learners increased.

**Corrective Feedback Models and Observational Studies**

Chaudron (1977) established a flow of corrective feedback moves in 3 steps opening move, answering move, and follow-up move based on the patterns occurring in content-based instructed French immersion classrooms. To elaborate, starting with elicitation (opening move), the teacher makes answering moves; (1) partial correction, (2) responding to errors, and (follow-up moves) (2.1) delays the correction or (2.2) interrupt the flow (2.1.1) provides an explanation, prompts or makes implicit recasts or through the acceptance and attention of learners, offers (2.2.1) negation (optional) (with/without) repetition with no change, repetition with no change and emphasis, repetition with change, repetition with change and emphasis. However, we are unsure if this analytic schema can explain all CF structures across contexts and lack data to uncover remaining variations of corrective feedback moves and sequences in other contexts and how they relate to repair (other/self).

One of the most prominent other descriptive studies, Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study carried out in 4 French primary immersion classrooms, brought comprehensive evidence on corrective feedback through 18 hours of observation of teachers' feedback practices. They identified six types of corrective feedback. (1) Explicit correction is the direct response involving corrected utterances clearly signalling incorrectness. (2) Recast refers to the teacher's partial or complete reformulation of the incorrect utterance. (3) Clarification requests are defined as teachers' asking students to repeat or reformulate the ill-formed utterance. (4) Metalinguistic feedback is to explain, remind the rule, or just indicate the ill-formedness of the utterance by asking the alignment with the rule. (5) Elicitation refers to various CF moves used to elicit the correct form from the student. Teachers can use Designedly Incomplete Utterances (DIUs) (Koshik, 2002) to allow students to complete the sentence with a pushing silence. They can ask questions on how learners explain

something in English without giving any information or requiring reformulation of previous utterances. (6) Repetition refers to an implying repetition of teachers pointing to the error for learners to correct utilizing emphasis or prosodic features. Through coding the corrective moves, they have uncovered that all teachers displayed a tendency to use recasts widely (55%) in response to learner errors despite its limiting effect for student-generated repairs and ambiguity, causing potential due to its repetitive nature used by teachers habitually or for confirmation. Elicitation and metalinguistic feedback were effective in pushing students to modify and repair their incorrect utterances at a similar (46%, 45%) and a higher rate than other kinds of corrective moves, which is less than 31% except for explicit correction with 36%. Even though elicitation was the second most common feedback move, with 14% in response to student errors, the others were less preferred corrective feedback moves. Recasts and explicit correction never urged students to repair their incorrect language use as also they already had the correct form in themselves.

After Chaudron's analytical model, Lyster & Ranta's (1997) model offered a theoretical framework for many experimental/observational/descriptive studies (such as Panova &Lyster, 2002; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2004, Brown, 2016). In line with Lyster & Ranta's (1997) findings, studies adopting this model reported that teachers tended to provide recasts more than all other types of corrective feedback (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006) even though the other corrective feedback moves led to repairs more (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998b; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Based on the results of these studies, we can conclude that there is a divergence in teachers' corrective feedback preferences from output-pushing strategies (e.g., elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, see Ellis, 2019) to input-providing CF techniques (recasts, explicit correction). However, we cannot claim one strategy's superiority over the other unless we have long-term evidence on the effect of input-providing CF types and on the self-repairs that result from output-pushing strategies in learning.

Oliver & Mackey's (2003) study with five young learners in ESL classrooms in Australia revealed that teachers' tendencies and learners' feedback practices varied in 4 different contexts as defined: content, management, communication, and explicit language. Non-target-like utterances occurred more widely in the communication context than in others. In contrast, errors in the explicit language received more feedback with a high percentage (85%), followed by content (61%), communicative (54%), and with the least amount of feedback, management (%35). On the other hand, learners had more opportunities to modify their non-target utterances in explicit language context 76%, successively in communicative context 63%, in content 32%, and management 14%. Following the same context order, learners repaired the errors by 85%, 38%, and 27%, but opportunities to repair erroneous utterances in the management context resulted in no repair. Thus, we see that explicit language context and communicative context led to more modified output than others. Supporting the previous observational study findings, recasts were more prevalent than negotiation and explicit feedback across four contexts. Explicit feedback was commonly used (41%) only in explicit language context, whereas it was rarely used (less than 5%) in other contexts. Negotiation (%34) was opted more by teachers in communicative context than others (less than 20%), whilst recasts comprised 63% of feedback in the same context. The most frequent type of CF: recasts were respectively used in the content (78%), management (77%), communicative context (63%), and explicit language context (47%). Surprisingly, different from experimental CF studies and observational studies in literature, learners repaired 85% of their errors in the explicit language context in which recasts were widely used. However, we cannot be sure if the repairs following recasts were not simple repetitions.

On the other hand, Sheen (2004) reported with her observational study that recasts had the highest preference rate across seven types of corrective feedback (CF) (Lyster's model and translation) in 4 different contexts; Canada Immersion (CI), New Zealand ESL (NZ ESL), Canada ESL and Korea EFL. Nonetheless, there is a discrepancy in using

recasts among these settings, which ranges through about 55% (Canada immersion and ESL), 68% (NZ ESL), and 83% (Korea EFL), thus, indicating the prominent effect of the context. Even in the same country, following recasts, teachers in Canada immersion classrooms tended to use elicitation rather than translation in Canada ESL classrooms. The data collected in these environments have demonstrated that the teachers' feedback moves resulted in a higher number of uptakes and repairs in Korean EFL (82%, 68%) and NZ ESL (80%, 69%) than in Canada immersion (54%, 48%) and ESL (46%, 33%) contexts. The rate of repair in Canada ESL was significantly lower than the other settings (p= .000). The distribution of uptakes and repairs following recasts in four contexts showed that recasts mostly provided explicitly (through emphasis, intonation, shorter) in NZ ESL and Korean EFL settings led to more uptakes (respectively 72%, 82%) and repairs (66%, 89%) than the ones in Canada ESL (39%, 32%) and immersion (30%, 57%) classes. As for other types of corrective moves, explicit correction proportionally resulted in more repairs across four contexts except for Canada ESL than other CF types, although elicitation and clarification requests led to higher amounts of uptake in four settings. Furthermore, the researcher contended that the lower rate of uptakes and repairs in Canada ESL and immersion settings might derive from their being less proficient, crowded classrooms, age, and intensiveness of instruction.

Additionally, Lyster & Mori's (2006) study in French and Japanese immersion settings (with 4th graders) on the natural occurrence of uptakes and repairs in relation to recasts, explicit feedback, prompts revealed a similar frequency of feedback types for both environments as successively: recasts 54%- 65%, prompts 38%- 26%, explicit feedback 7%–9%. Despite the prevailing occurrence of recasts in French immersion settings, 62% of uptakes happened following prompts, but almost 50% of them needed repair. Reversely, 61% of uptakes in JI occurred after recasts, nearly 30% of which needed repair. However, the proportion of the total number of repairs was very similar in both settings.

Unlike the early studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006) focusing on content-based instructed classrooms, Ellis et al. (2001) observed communicative ESL classrooms for 12 hours to reveal the nature of Focus on Form (FoF) in communicative classrooms and the interplay between FoF and learner uptake in relation to corrective feedback. With the overall average, 74.1 %of uptake was successful, whereas the proportion of uptake was successively much higher in student-initiated FFEs (78.6%), responding FFEs (which might be called as initiated by other students) (71.0%) than in teacher-initiated FFEs (45.53%). Moreover, uptake was more frequent (85.0%) and successful (89.7%) in complex FFEs rather than simple FFEs (71.3% and 69.9%). Another important finding demonstrated episodes focusing on the negotiation of meaning led to a higher rate of successful uptake than the negotiation of form despite the latter's being more prevalent in FFEs ($p < .001$). Regarding the types of corrective moves resulting in successful uptake, prompts, elicitation and repetition always ended with successful uptakes in spite of their less frequent use. Recasts were the most common and usually initiative, with 71% for successful uptake, whereas clarification requests were rarely never used. As for the linguistic focus in relation to uptakes, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation did not significantly differ in terms of the proportion of resulting with successful uptakes.

Furthermore, Netz & Fogel (2019) investigated the effect of input-providing (explicit correction and recast) and output-pushing (prompts) feedback on the development of oral reading of 4, 12 years old young learners in dyadic Old Hebrew reading sessions by four different tutors firstly through quantitative analysis based on coding (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and qualitative analysis through the lens of discourse analysis. The analysis of 4 hours of transcribed classes uncovered that 3 out of 4 tutors showed a high tendency to provide recasts for learners' phonological errors. In proportion to the total amount of feedback, T2 (76%), T3 (71%), and T4 (86%) exploited recasts for error treatment, whereas T1 benefited from prompts (83%) most of the time. All teachers used explicit correction less than 10%. For all learners, input-providing feedback promoted learner-generated repair more than

output pushing, different from the earlier studies (Lyster&Ranta, 1997) showing prompts and elicitations as output-pushing. However, it may result from the focus linguistic area, which is phonology, the errors of which could be repaired through recasts more clearly. To elaborate, 90% of recasts resulted in successful repair with the correct spelling, whilst 61% of prompts and 72% of explicit correction led to self-correction. The distribution of self-correction rates based on different tutors similarly ranged between 74%-88%. Qualitative micro-analysis revealed that learner errors treated with recasts and resulting in successful repair beforehand reoccurred in the following sequences. On the other hand, the analysis demonstrated that the learner mostly receiving prompts mixed with recasts in a corrective cycle gradually shifted for self-correction, starting with the tutor's silences and prompts and ending with self-repair in the same turn through repeating errors. Corrective feedback, namely recasts, promoted self-correction in the next sequences when they were earlier combined with prompts.

Overall, a meta-analysis of 28 observational and descriptive CF studies (Brown, 2016) has brought evidence that those recasts (57%) had an overwhelming proportion in classrooms compared to the other five types of feedback, which follows successively as repetition (13%), elicitation (11.6%), explicit correction (9.7%), clarification requests (9.4%), metalinguistic feedback (7.9%). Brown (2016) found differences among tendencies of teachers across EFL and ESL settings revealing that ESL teachers preferred to correct phonological errors more, whilst grammar errors were more a matter of learning and correction in EFL settings. The study has also discovered contextual and methodological factors impacting teachers' preferences, such as student proficiency, teacher experience, and second/foreign language context. Unlike what Ellis et al. (2001) reported that grammar (37,9%) and vocabulary (37%) had the highest number of corrective responses among spelling, discourse, and pronunciation, a meta-analysis of 28 observational and descriptive CF studies (Brown, 2016) showed that CF on grammar embraces 42.7% of the sum of

corrective feedback moves while CF on lexical (27.6%) and phonological (22.4%) are half-degree less than it.

**Recasts in observational studies.** On the other hand, there is an ongoing discussion about the different forms and functions of some types of CF, significantly recasts regarding their partialness/full formedness or explicitness, implicitness. The field necessitates supporting evidence of what discursive factors are more influential in developing language use and how they differ. Based on the analysis of French immersion classrooms for 18 hours, Lyster (1998a) reported four types of recasts which were isolated declarative, isolated interrogative, incorporated declarative and incorporated interrogative. Isolated declarative recasts were more frequently preferred (67%) following errors than others. Additionally, isolated recasts comprised 84% of the total number of recasts. 23% of isolated recasts were influential for learner repairs, whilst incorporated recasts never led to a repair. On the other hand, 64% of isolated recasts and 90% of incorporated recasts were followed by topic continuation moves of both the teachers and learners. The researcher also pointed out that non-corrective repetitions, which might seemingly function like corrective recasts, followed 18% of student turns and were more prevalent than corrective recasts (11%) in the classes. More and more, corrective recasts and non-corrective repetition had similar rates of distribution depending on the features; declarative, interrogative, isolated, incorporated types of recasts, which might imply both have similar characteristics; hence, the function of recasts cannot be easily differentiated from simple repetitions by the listener. 47% of non-corrective repetitions went on with topic continuation moves and occurred before recasts; on the other hand, it might bring their function to realization. 34% of them happened after repairs as a sign of approval, and 17% of them followed recasts. Therefore, it may be understood that non-corrective repetitions are disambiguated only by looking at their sequential position.

Another milestone, Loewen & Philp's (2006) 17 hourly study with 118 intermediate-level students, investigated the frequency and characteristics of mainly recast and two other

feedback types; inform, elicitation on the learning of items in Focus on Form (FoF) episodes which was assessed by a tailor-made immediate and delayed post-test. Similar to previous literature findings, recasts were preferred more (49.03%) by teachers to initiate a corrective feedback sequence than inform and elicitation (respectively 36.98% and 13.98%). However, the analysis of accuracy rates through the tailor-made tests has shown no significant difference among feedback types both on the immediate ($p = .114$) and post-tests ($p = .577$). On the other hand, the proportions of successful uptakes in FoF episodes revealed that elicitation led to successful uptakes more frequently (83.1%) than other feedback moves: recasts (59.6%), inform (45.9%), although it was less common than other corrective feedback moves. Further analysis into the features of recasts uncovered that recasts differed in the accuracy scores of post-test and successful uptakes in FoF episodes based on their characteristics. Some characteristics of recasts, such as declarative intonation, minimum change, stress, and lengthened feedback sequence, which might increase the noticeability of them, resulted in successful uptakes, whereas short recasts with one change, interrogative intonation promoted higher accuracy scores on the post-test. Based on these findings, researchers contend that these features increased the explicitness of the recasts and it influenced their effectiveness. Besides, as for the intonation, 83.3% of recasts had declarative intonation, whilst 16.7% of them were interrogative. More than 85% of recasts included prosodic emphasis to point out the correction foci specifically. In the same line, the findings showed recasts with emphasis were more effective in ending with successful uptakes than recasts without stress. More than 70% of recasts led to only one change, and recasts were two times more influential for successful uptakes than recasts with multiple changes. The number of recasts for different linguistic categories (lexical, phonological, morphological/syntactic) was almost equal (between 25% & 30%).

**Computer-Mediated Interaction Studies**

Computer-mediated interaction has been the focus of many L2 & FL studies, and it was a breakthrough to teach and learn languages in a virtual mode through voice-chat

rooms (Alastuey 2013; Jenks, 2014), text-based chats (Smith, 2004; Lai & Zhao; 2006), video-mediated telecollaboration (Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Akiyama & Saito, 2016; Balaman, 2019) different from traditional classrooms or face-to-face interaction. Many CMC (computer-mediated communication) studies (Smith, 2004; Yanguas, 2010) adopted the interaction hypothesis; hence, they primarily attempted to understand the effect of interaction on language development through different CMC modes. To illustrate, Smith's (2004) experimental study supports that text-based CMC nourishes negotiation along with pre-emptive input, thus, creating occasions for the learning of unknown lexical items by 12 dyads of adult intermediate-level EFL speakers through jigsaw and decision-making tasks in an instant chatting software. The findings indicated the negotiated items via text-based CMC gained higher scores both in immediate and delayed receptive-productive tests than items provided with pre-emptive input, which highlights that interaction through text-based CMC promotes negotiation and learning. In their study in EFL Turkey setting comparing F2F to CMC, Yuksel & Inan (2014) found that F2F communication mode resulted in more NofM episodes, but text-based SCMC revealed significantly more noticing of NofM episodes (M = 10.72) from the learners in the stimulated recall instances compared to F2F mode (M = 9.13). The high number of NofM in two modes of communication was interpreted as the Jigsaw task leading to the higher amount of NofM through information exchange by the researchers. In the same vein, Lai & Zhao's (2006) study with 12 low-high intermediate English learners indicated that the noticing in F2F mode and text-based chatting was similar during the two interactional spot-the-difference tasks. Negotiation of meaning instances in F2F mode ($z = 2.80$, $p = .01$, $d = 1.68$) was significantly higher than text-based chat, but contrarily, learners indicated slightly (%20) more noticing of NofM instances in text-based chatting. Regarding the nature of CMC, Lee's (2001) study with 12 dyads of Spanish learners in a text-based CMC setting has shown that learners exploited various negotiation strategies (e.g., comprehension checks) to maintain interaction; however, the length of negotiation changed depending on the level of learners and primarily was focused on

meaning not form. All in all, these studies have reiterated the effective role of text-based CMC for interaction through maintaining the negotiation of linguistic items.

A few studies, many of which had an experimental study design, probed into the differential effect of CMC and F2F communication modes. For example, Yanguas (2010) investigated task-based negotiation routines of intermediate L2 Spanish learners (in dyads) in 3 different modes of communication (video-mediated, audio-mediated and F2F interaction) in relation to previous literature on text-based CMC. This study showed that all groups had similar proportions of negotiation, mainly resulting from the lexical items in the task. On the other hand, the negotiation in audio-mediated interaction was slightly higher than the other two groups but resulted in less complete understanding (45%) of target lexical items than F2F (70%), VMC (%64), and had more negotiation on non-target lexical items. Another study finding showed that F2F and VMC had similar communication patterns (e.g., turn-taking) different from WCMC, which was a composite of both F2F and written communication modes. Another study, Yanguas (2012), has demonstrated that three different groups of communication (AudCMC, VidCMC, F2F) had similar increases in the mean scores of production and recognition tests (from the pre-test to the immediate post-test) which measured learning of vocabulary items displayed in the jigsaw task. On the other hand, the mean scores of the three groups in production tests remarkably decreased from immediate to delayed post-test (F2F: t=-.05, p= .020; VidCMC t=-1.74, p= .104; AudCMC t=-2.40, p= .029), whereas the performance of three groups in the recognition tests did not much differ from immediate to delayed post-test. Different from production and recognition tests, the learners in AudCMC outperformed VidCMC and F2F in the aural comprehension tests from the pre-test; however, the post hoc Scheffe test reported no important difference among VidCMC and F2F mean scores. Similar to Yuksel & Inan (2014), Yanguas (2010, 2012) suggests a high amount of negotiation (FTF 50%, VidCMC 48%, AudCMC 57%) in all groups without depending on the communication mode, and presumably, this condition results from the learners' unknowing of lexical items and being the focus of the jigsaw task,

which might lead to negotiation and more practice for the language improvement. Additionally, they also showed that VidCMC and F2F were alike due to their interactional characteristics and similarly affected the learners' negotiation patterns. In parallel, the debriefing questionnaire (Yanguas, 2012) revealed that learners mostly do not see a difference between CMC and F2F modes regarding their learning as well. VidCMC learners reported, like AudCMC learners, they needed to focus more but had more fun.

Ziegler (2016) focused on ten classroom-based and four laboratory-based studies to investigate the differential effect of synchronous computer-mediated communication (oral & text-based modes) against F2F in F/L2 learning in his meta-analysis study. The main finding showed a large effect of both F2F ($d = 0.84$) and SCMC ($d = 1.13$) ($p < .001$) in the learners' language development with a slight superiority of SCMC. As for the learning outcomes, SCMC had a slightly more substantial effect on learners' productive language skills, whereas F2F was more effective in improving receptive skills. The analysis of the impact of SCMC vs F2F mode in FL and L2 settings revealed only a small size effect in favour of SCMC in FL ($d = .08$) and in L2 learning environments ($d = .33$).

Few studies, such as Akiyama & Saito (2016), researched telecollaboration in relation to corrective feedback and negotiation. Akiyama & Saito (2016), in their dyadic task-based study, researched 30 Japanese learners' improvement in global comprehensibility and other linguistic correlates through recasts provided only on errors causing a non-understanding by their interlocutors in a video-mediated tandem course. Based on the analysis of speech excerpts regarding vocabulary and grammar, learners made important gains, whereas learners' performance regarding global comprehensibility individually varied independently from their pre-test scores. The researchers contended that nine weeks were not enough to see if the video-mediated tandem supported by corrective feedback contributes to the overall comprehensibility and fluency of learners whilst having important implications on the development of linguistic correlates (lexical appropriateness, lexical richness, speech rate, and morphological accuracy) could be seen. As for the interlocutors'

error correction revealed, vocabulary received the highest number of corrective feedback, followed by grammar and pronunciation. Besides, Jung et al. (2019) investigated the Japanese, Taiwanese, and Korean learners' (55 in total)' perception towards video-mediated telecollaboration in relation to interactional features through the analysis of transcribed chats of cross-cultural learning context, questionnaires, and interviews. They have found a strong impact of time in more positive perceptions of language learning along with the positive effect of cultural exchange. Besides, correctly resolved grammatical and lexical language-related episodes resulted in positive perceptions, whilst unresolved episodes led to vice versa. Through interviews, learners reported that the feedback given in previous episodes helped them improve their language use through authentic communication.

Some studies concerned with the timing of computer-delivered feedback, namely, Shintani & Aubrey (2016), focused on if there was a differential effect of synchronicity vs asynchronicity on the accurate use of hypothetical sentences by 68 intermediate-level English-speaking students through online writing tasks. They uncovered that synchronous and asynchronous feedback groups outperformed the non-feedback group in both post-tests. On the other hand, the synchronous feedback group had a more consistent score from the first post-test to the second, whilst the asynchronous group scores decreased over time despite being higher than the control group's scores. Shintani (2016) has established a view based on this case study's findings that computer-mediated synchronous feedback (written explicit correction) on writing hypothetical sentences facilitated more a cyclical feedback-modification process which might lead to the internalization of hypothetical sentence structures in English than an asynchronous corrective feedback (written explicit correction) procedure given right after the completion of the task which partly limited the consolidation and modification of the language within the learners' recognition during revision. To exemplify, unsuccessful self-correction was followed by successful correction thanks to the synchronous feedback delivered by the instructor. Supporting this, the

repeated unsuccessful self-correction of the learners in the ASCMCF group (6 out of 7) showed the lack of knowledge resulted in the same errors, which underscores the timing of corrective feedback to be given during language production. Besides, through the stimulated recall interview, the writer revealed that learners were conscious of their errors and in favour of the immediate feedback and their own errors, which led to the modification of the language and self-correction. On the other hand, whereas SCMCF led to both focusing on meaning and form during the writing task, ASCMCF mainly resulted in focusing on form as also expressed by the learners in the ASCMCF group. Moreover, Arroyo & Yilmaz's (2018) study with 45 L1 English speakers- Spanish learners examined the role of timing in delivering feedback on learning of Spanish noun-adjective gender agreement through text-based CMC environment via oral production and grammaticality judgement tests (2 post-tests with 10 days intervals). Thus, they demonstrated the superiority of the immediate feedback group ($p = .001$) over the delayed feedback group and the control group from the pre-test to both post-tests in oral production tests (OP) with large effect sizes, whereas all groups showed improvement from the pre-test to post-test in OP. Surprisingly, the gain scores of the delayed feedback group did not significantly differ from the control group in both post-tests of the oral production test. However, two experimental groups (the immediate and delayed feedback) outperformed the control group in the grammatical judgement test, which shows the non-significant effect of timing in delivering feedback.

Many studies in CMC settings conducted on the interplay between learning and corrective feedback focused on comparing both modes of interaction (CMC vs F2F) along with feedback moves. To illustrate, Yilmaz's (2012) experimentally designed study researched three variables; feedback moves (explicit feedback, recast), communication mode (F2F, WSCMC), salience (the plural morpheme /-lAr/, and the locative case morpheme /-DA/ through two experimental and one control groups of Turkish learners of English speakers. Following the two dyadic tasks (one WSCMC and one F2F), learners'

language development on two linguistic structures was tested through oral production (OP), comprehension and recognition successively in immediate and post-tests. Both immediate and post-tests have revealed that learners in WSCMC received higher scores in the OP and Recognition tests, not on the Comp test. Another important finding has shown that explicit feedback resulted in higher achievement in the OP and Comp tests than recasts. As for the impact of salience on mean scores, learners in both explicit feedback and recast groups had higher scores for the salient structure (i.e., plural) than the non-salient structure (i.e., locative). On the other hand, the models revealed no significant relationship among feedback time, feedback type, and communication mode. Compared to the F2F group mean scores on the OP, WSCMC scores declined from immediate to post-test; however, scores of both groups on the recognition test increased. To sum up, explicit feedback yielded more positive effects than recasts on learning linguistic structures; however, the mean scores of the explicit feedback group were close to one another in F2F mode and WSCMC. Yet, the recast group scores in WSCMC showed a higher performance than those of F2F and thus underscoring the effect of written feedback as well. Concerning the relationship between corrective feedback and WSCMC, Sauro's (2009) study with high intermediate and advanced adult learners of English (23) has asserted that there was no significant difference in terms of language development on the omission of the zero articles with abstract noncount nouns among the group receiving recasts and the group receiving metalinguistic prompts through written synchronous computer-mediated communication (WSCMC) mode. We may contend that this indifference relates to the already possessed knowledge of these high-level learners, which might show they could process recasts in a similar way as metalinguistic prompts. The researcher contended the immediate high gains of the metalinguistic group with a minor increase in recasts as full recasts may not be easily recognized as partial recasts in a short time. However, the prominent effect of corrective feedback in both groups, seen from the pre-test to the post-test, separated them from the control group by their improved language use. The learners' language development was measured through an acceptability judgement test, a type of recognition test.

Very few studies investigated the effect of corrective feedback through synchronous video-mediated communication, particularly, Rassaei's (2017) study with 57 Iranian EFL learners has revealed that the two modes of interaction, F2F recasts and SVMC (synchronous video-mediated communication) recasts (video&audio) have evenly fostered learners' acquisition of articles (a/an, the) which was measured via oral production task and error correction test. However, both experimental groups (F2F & SVMC) improved the use of articles from pre-test to pests ($p < .001$) while the post-test mean scores of the control group did not significantly differ from those of the pre-test. Furthermore, through stimulated recall interviews, the researcher investigated how communication mode affected the learners' noticing of recasts, but he uncovered the levels of noticing in the two experimental groups did not significantly vary from one another. The findings have also shown that learners might interpret recasts as simply repetition, or they did not realize the corrective function of recasts if they had not had previous knowledge of the target structures. In line with this, we may claim learners in this study, being at an intermediate level, must have a pre-existing knowledge of articles (a/an & the), which may underly the reason they could notice 83% of recasts in F2F 88% of recasts in a computer-mediated lab setting. The minority of video-mediated communication studies on corrective feedback corroborates the idea of conducting a qualitative observational study investigating the interaction as a whole as well as coding the types of corrective feedback.

# Chapter 3
# Methodology

This study is a qualitative descriptive study conducted in response to the need for more qualitative studies since in-depth qualitative analysis into interactional details is necessary to track learners' noticing (Lauzon & Doehler, 2013) and learning patterns congruent with corrective feedback moves and repairs. Cognitive-interactionist studies have so far mainly investigated the various modes of CMC and its relationship with negotiation, corrective feedback, and learning, mainly with an experimental design through pre and post-tests. However, other interaction studies used qualitative analysis techniques: coding schemes (e.g., COLT), content analysis, or discourse approaches such as IRF sequences (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), language-related episodes (Swain & Lapkin, 1995) to research negotiation of meaning or form and feedback.

Lazaraton (2009) & Lee (2021) underscore that analysing classroom discourse is crucial to exploring the interaction, developing an understanding of teaching practices and thus improving learning processes. Therefore, various studies (Chaudron, 1977; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) researched actual classroom interaction, namely, spoken discourse, to describe the structure of feedback communication between learners and teachers. For instance, through the analysis of audio-recorded L1 classes, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) developed a triadic language exchange model to explain how feedback processes evolve comprised of acts, exchanges and moves. As Lazaraton (2009) emphasises, this triadic (Initation-Response-Feedback) model has enhanced teachers' perception of the nature of communication and promoted communicative language teaching. Regarding Chaudron's (1977) study in 8$^{th}$ and 9$^{th}$-grade immersion classrooms, adopting discourse analysis, the study offers a neat description of feedback processes by illustrating multiple moves of learners and teachers for error treatment processes. Although a few studies embracing qualitative methodology could inform us about the nature of corrective feedback and its effect on young learners to a certain extent, further details of interaction and learning across time remains uncovered as these studies concentrate on exploring the frequencies of the

errors and correction within a few hours of one-slot data with limited focus on sequential details of the interaction. Previously, Lyster & Ranta (1997) developed an analytic model of error treatment to analyse the corrective feedback use in primary French immersion classrooms by inducing numerous acts and moves of Chaudron into a concise description like learner error, teacher feedback, topic continuation, uptake and repair by analysing spoken discourse. Yet, the study was bounded by the description of the error and corrective feedback use frequencies in different classrooms with 18 hours of data and did not illustrate the further effect of corrective feedback moves in other classes. Therefore, this study aims to expand onto the error and corrective moves distribution with sequential analysis of spoken discourse across time.

Corrective feedback exploitation in response to learner errors in EFL speaking classes in video-mediated interaction is an under-researched area. To penetrate into the errors, corrective feedback use in young EFL video-mediated speaking lessons, and interaction details across time and within the interactional sequence, the methodology of this study is primarily based on discourse analysis since it aims to answer the call for more qualitative studies and ‘discourse analysis is interested in explaining authentic data’ (Lazaraton, 2009) rather than experimental. Therefore, the current study benefits from Jefferson's (2004) conventions to transcribe teacher-learner conversations in detail to see how feedback processes evolve and if corrective feedback moves leads to a change in learners’ language use across time and speaking sessions in the data. Many studies (Lilja, 2014; Eskildsen & Wagner, 2015; Kunitz & Marian, 2017; Sert, 2017) benefited from these conventions to report how teachers promote learning opportunities through sequential organisation. Brown (2016) suggested that gaining sight into learners' preferences relative to the teacher and the context is invaluable.

Provided detailed transcriptions, the analysis was first done by coding errors through linguistic categories: semantic, syntactic, phonological, and morphological. Second, the study sets out to unveil the teachers’ tendencies on how to correct errors in speaking

lessons by exploiting the corrective feedback moves of Lyster & Ranta (1997) like previous studies (Lyster, 1998b; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006), and how the feedback affects learners' language use in the ongoing interaction. The researcher also aims to provide a detailed description of corrective feedback frequencies in virtual settings based on seven feedback moves revised by Panova & Lyster (2002) in a concept-driven way. This revised corrective feedback model involves; recasts, explicit correction, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and translation. 1) Recasts are the reformulated phrases of learner errors. For instance, when a learner says, 'I made my homework.'; the teacher provides recast as 'I did my homework' by replacing 'made' with 'did'. 2) Explicit correction is focused on informing the student overtly they made an error. If a teacher responds to an error of plural noun use like 'There are nine cars, so it is not nine car, nine cars.', the teacher offers explicit feedback. 3) Clarification requests involve phrases or questions of teachers like, 'What do you mean by my dad have accident?' or 'Excuse me, I don't understand when you say XXXX'. 4) Metalinguistic feedback gives learners linguistic remarks on their errors. Example feedback responses can be like: 'We add "-s" to the main verb to talk about what a person regularly does.' or 'We use "in" as a preposition before months in a sentence.' 5) Elicitation used by teachers prompts learners to check their misused language. For example, when a learner gives an irrelevant answer to the teacher's question about activities done during summer vacation, the teacher might say, 'Do you swim or have ice cream during your summer vacation?' 6) Repetition is the teacher's saying the exact utterance of the learner, which still involves an error, in response to the learner's error in the following move. 7) Translation as a corrective feedback move can be explained as the teacher translating a word, phrase or sentence in the learners' native language into the target language, like 'bike sürmek' in Turkish into 'ride a bike'. '

Following coding, with discourse analysis, the researcher offers the sequential process of error, corrective feedback moves, learner/student-generated repair and how/if corrective feedback moves benefit learners depending on how they are enacted by teachers

and elicited by learners by presenting examples from the spoken discourse of video-mediated lessons with young learners.

**Type of Research**

This descriptive research study adopts qualitative methodology, namely, discourse analysis, by coding through Lyster & Ranta's (1997) CF categories and linguistic categories to unravel oral corrective feedback practices of teachers in one-to-one video-mediated young learner classes. The data presented in this thesis were collected from video-mediated dyadic interactions of EFL young learner classes of a private institution in Turkey that offers a wide range of age groups informal English education on a virtual meeting platform, primarily one-to-one speaking classes to support learners' English education except for schooling and in-service training at workplaces. The institution arranges meetings for learners with the instructors at regular intervals with specific durations (like 10 or 25 mins) based on learners' wishes. The instructor in each speaking lesson may change based on the work procedure stating that available teachers on the work schedule can have the lesson with a learner, and an instructor can be appointed to a learner only if learners are at pre-A1 level. Speaking lessons are devised topically (like families, friends, animals, and parties) depending on the learners' ages to promote interaction. The classroom procedure involves target vocabulary (definitions & examples), speaking questions (around 5) based on a picture/text/video, and fill-in-the-blanks exercises. The instructors of this institution are from all around the world who are both native and non-native speakers of English. The participants of this study voluntarily receive video-mediated speaking lessons to polish their English-speaking skills. The dataset in this research comprises ten sessions per 10 pupils ranging from 10 to 25 mins in length (nearly 20 hours) to be automatically video recorded from the first minute of the conversation till the end. The dyadic interactional sessions were designed communicatively to enhance the learner's speaking skills.

**Research Participants**

A purposeful convenience sampling was used as the study focuses on corrective feedback procedures of young learners. Seven female and three young male learners whose ages ranged from 8-12 participated in these sessions. The consent forms were taken from the legal guardians of the learners. Learners are presumed to be between pre-A1, A1, A2 and A2+ levels according to the CEFR descriptors for speaking skill as it was assessed by an institutional speaking test. The descriptors could be accessed on the webpage https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/cefr-descriptors. The test involved four sections and items based on CEFR descriptors such as family, friendship, colours, numbers, past events, and future to evaluate to what extent learners possess the necessary vocabulary, are fluent and can easily express themselves with simple or complex sentences. However, the test is not shared due to the copyright policies of the institution. The assessor teachers were chosen depending their experience in testing and assessment and they were given a rubric. Nineteen teachers contributed to this study, granting their permission. All of the teachers were foreign English language speakers. Their work experience changed between a year and six years in online education. All of them hold bachelor's degrees. Fourteen of them have Bachelor of Arts degrees in English Language and Literature. Four of them were from a different major other than teaching or literature. The sessions were recorded without the presence or interruption of the researcher from May 2022 to July 2022. The participation of more than one teacher was essential to reveal if teachers have different tendencies in selecting corrective feedback techniques. The identities of the participants are kept confidential with pseudonyms.

**Table 2**

*Learner Participants*

| Pseudonyms | Age |
|---|---|
| Aida | 8 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Ayse | 10 |
| Carl | 12 |
| Suna | 12 |
| Jack | 12 |
| Isac | 9 |
| Willy | 9 |
| Jose | 11 |
| Bera | 11 |
| Mona | 8 |

**Data Collection**

To answer the research questions above, the data is collected through video recordings of dyadic young EFL speaking lessons. Starting in May 2022, automatically recorded classes by the institution were shared with the researcher. The researcher retrieved the data weekly or in every second or third day depending on the learners' class schedule. Five to ten sessions per pupil were video recorded without the presence of the researcher. The data collection ended in July, 2022.

**Table 3**

*Data Collection Dates*

| Pseudonyms & Duration per Session | Session 1 | Session 2 | Session 3 | Session 4 | Session 5 | Session 6 | Session 7 | Session 8 | Session 9 | Session 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Aida | May | June | June | June | June | June | June | June | July | July |
| 10 mins | 28 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 13 | 17 | 24 | 27 | 7 | 17 |
| Ayse | May | May | May | May | June | June | June | June | June | June |
| 15 mins | 5 | 12 | 28 | 30 | 1 | 6 | 8 | 20 | 22 | 29 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Carl | | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June | June |
| 15 mins | | 3 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 17 | 30 | 1 | 5 |
| Suna | | May | May | May | May | May | X | X | X | X | X |
| 25 mins | | 5 | 12 | 14 | 19 | 21 | | | | | |
| Jack | 15 | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June | June | June |
| mins | | 5 | 9 | 12 | 16 | 19 | 26 | 30 | 10 | 13 | 16 |
| Isac | 15 | May | May | May | May | May | May | June | June | June | June |
| mins | | 1 | 8 | 20 | 22 | 27 | 29 | 3 | 17 | 19 | 26 |
| Willy | 10 | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June | June |
| mins | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 15 | 23 | 24 | 29 | 2 | 12 |
| Jose | 10 | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June |
| mins | | 2 | 7 | 9 | 11 | 13 | 18 | 20 | 25 | 27 | 1 |
| Bera | 10 | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June |
| mins | | 1 | 5 | 8 | 10 | 15 | 17 | 19 | 21 | 28 | 2 |
| Mona | 10 | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | May | June |
| mins | | 1 | 2 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 21 | 22 |

**Instruments**

Dyadic EFL speaking sessions with young learners were arranged on Zoom, a platform to hold virtual meetings (business, class) used by the institution. These sessions were automatically video & audio recorded, including screen-sharing by Zoom. The verbal and non-verbal interactions were transcribed by means of Jefferson's conventions to eliminate the selective erasing in the data as Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 56) conveyed that it is inevitable for researchers to unknowingly miss some parts of the data.

**Table 4**

*Data Collection Instruments*

| Research Questions | Data Collection Instrument |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Question 1 | Recordings for Coding & Transcription |
| Question 2 | Recordings for Coding & Transcription |
| Question 3 | Recordings for Coding & Transcription |

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis involves two main steps, primarily exploiting discourse analysis through coding. Initially, the sessions for almost 20 hours (nearly 1225 mins) were transcribed in detail thanks to Jefferson's (2004) (see Appendix A) convention through the analytic lens. Based on detailed transcriptions of the sessions, the researcher identifies the error treatment sequences in which a student error leads to feedback (Netz & Fogel, 2019). After collecting error treatment/correction sequences, errors were coded through the linguistic categories and across learners. Later, errors receiving corrective feedback moves are classified in relation to Lyster & Ranta's (1997) revised categories by Panova & Lyster (2002) and in this second step, the researcher reiteratively checked error coding and revisions in coding were made, revealing inconsistencies. Corrective feedback moves remaining out of Panova & Lyster's (2002) revised coding categories were left to be coded by the researcher. The definitions for coding were reviewed, and multiple checks were administered to increase the reliability of coding. Finally, the distribution of errors in linguistic categories and frequencies of corrective feedback moves in relation to students and teachers were calculated through Excel based on the coding system and numbering for a systematic description of corrective moves in virtual young EFL speaking settings. Repairs and partial repair are also categorised for the descriptive statistics in the follow-up analysis through the Excel Programme of Microsoft 365. To sum up, in the early analysis, the frequencies and distribution of errors, corrective feedback moves, repairs, and partial repairs are calculated for the systematic description. Yet, data which did not fit into Lyster and Ranta's (1997) revised categories were left to be interpreted with discourse-analytic lens and were described in the follow-up analysis.

As for coding reliability, a huge amount of data may easily lead to subjective and selective judgements or multiple interpretations; hence, Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 64) recommend that another expert check a certain amount of data and recode it to establish the consistency of the results, thus ensuring reliability. Therefore, 15% of the extracted data of errors, corrective moves and repairs were presented to an associate professor who holds a PhD in corrective feedback research area in the field of English Language Education and was familiar with the coding and definitions. For the inter-coder reliability (ICR) process, the steps were followed as suggested by O'Connor & Joffe (2020) (see the article for details) after the coding of the data by the researcher. The expert researcher recoded the extracted clean data involving errors, corrective feedback moves and repairs. Thereafter, codes of two raters were entered into IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software to compute Cohen's kappa reliability test as well as the agreement rate through the division of the number of agreements by adding the disagreements to the total number of agreements (Miles & Huberman, 1994) being calculated. It is stated that .61-.80 is acceptable as substantial and .81-1.00 as perfect agreement for ICR on Miles & Huberman's (O'Connor & Joffe, 2020) and Cohen's Kappa (McHugh, 2012) calculations.

**Table 5**

*Interrater Reliability for Coding Corrective Feedback Moves*

| | | Value | Asymptotic Standard Error[a] | Approximate T[b] | Approximate Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Measure of Agreement | Kappa | ,917 | ,030 | 18,406 | ,000 |
| N of Valid Cases | | 115 | | | |

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

The agreement rate between two raters for the coding of corrective feedback moves through revealed as ,963 by the conventional method of Miles and Huberman and Cohen's Kappa was measured as ,917 (see Table 5). Both values illustrate the trustworthiness of coding carried out by the researcher.

**Table 6**

*Interrater Reliability for Coding Linguistic Errors*

| | | Value | Asymptotic Standard Error[a] | Approximate T[b] | Approximate Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Measure of Agreement | Kappa | ,813 | ,026 | 22,616 | ,000 |
| N of Valid Cases | | 341 | | | |

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 6 represents Cohen's Kappa as ,813 as the agreement rate between two raters for the coding of linguistic errors, whereas the conventional method rate is almost ,100 higher than the Kappa value of ,900. Yet, despite the difference between the two calculations, both values remain almost perfect for ICR. Regarding the agreement rate for coding repairs, Table 7 indicates Kappa's value as ,904 and the conventional method was calculated as 0,948, respectively high ICR rate.

**Table 7**

*Interrater Reliability for Coding Repairs*

| | | Value | Asymptotic Standard Error[a] | Approximate T[b] | Approximate Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Measure of Agreement | Kappa | ,904 | ,037 | 11,564 | ,000 |
| N of Valid Cases | | 117 | | | |

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

In the second data analysis phase, the researcher longitudinally tracked errors, corrections and repairs, turn by turn, to see how teachers enacted corrective feedback and elicited learner repairs in the interactional sequence. Besides, the researcher focused on whether there was a permanent effect of correction and repair on the misused language in future speaking lessons or lack of correction despite repetitive errors. Unlike previous studies, error or correction tracking across sessions through an analytic approach provides

more evidence regarding the impact of corrective feedback moves. Through the analytical lens of discourse, the research also draws on how teachers differently make corrective feedback moves with interactional -details despite the fact that the coding schema adopted for the early analysis puts corrective moves in the same category by definition. Lastly, the dataset provides new types of corrective moves deriving from the interactional patterns between the learners and the instructors and as well as illustrating how they employed multimodal resources (e.g., gestures, body language) for intersubjectivity through error treatment and repair sequences.  Thus, the comprehensive analysis informs us about the teachers' choices and behaviours and illustrates the other interactional details.

# Chapter 4
## Findings, Comments and Discussion

The main findings of the research through the analysis of 95 sessions, (approximately) 1225 mins with young EFL learners revealed that teachers exploited various oral corrective feedback moves as follows from the most frequent to less frequent; recasts (N= 650), elicitation (N=47), explicit feedback (N= 39), clarification requests (N= 6), metalinguistic feedback (N= 5), translation (N= 2). One type of corrective feedback, repetition, according to Lyster & Ranta's (1997) categories, was never used. These results show similarity with previously conducted studies regarding the prevalent use of recasts in ESL, ESL immersion or EFL settings through observation and coding (Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006). For instance, the use of recasts in French and Japanese immersion classrooms of 4$^{th}$ and 5$^{th}$ graders were reported to make 50-60% percent of the total number of corrective feedback moves based on 33 hours dataset (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006) which is way less than the proportion of recasts in the video-mediated classes in this research. Throughout video-mediated speaking sessions, teachers rarely stopped learners for correction; instead, they often recasted errors without indicating the error with a pause, high pitch or rising intonation. However, considering the speaking classes being 10 or 25 mins and teachers' responsibility to cover the topic discussion within the defined time, the underlying reason for the constant preference of recasts over other types of corrective moves might be to maintain the flow of interaction since other types of corrective moves might require an extended interaction on the error between the learner and the teacher. Corrective feedback moves distribution will be further elaborated under the title of corrective feedback and frequencies.

On the otherhand, teachers used double corrective feedback moves in response to student errors different from Lyster & Ranta's categories (1997) as such; elicitation+recast (N=9), elicitation+explicit correction (N=2),elicitation+elaboration (N=9), recast+metalinguistic feedback (N=2), recast+explicit feedback (N=1), explicit+metalinguistic feedback (N=3). Unlike previous studies, focusing on one type of

corrective move, through the sequential analysis and tracking, this research reveals that correction may be multi-layered rather than a one corrective move and response. These moves of correction are not involved in the early step of the analysis to protect the unity of data and for better interpretation. When it comes to the corrective move choice of teachers, all of them preferred recasts, comprising 87% of the total corrective feedback moves (N= 749) more than other corrective feedback moves in response to students' errors. Similarly, four teachers in Lyster & Ranta's (1997) exploited recasts as frequently as teachers in this research by an average of 55% of all corrective moves. A similar ratio of recasts was reported as 45% by Nassaji (2007) whilst the highest ratio of recasts was revealed as 95% by Lauzon & Doehler (2013) in French L2 classrooms of high school students. The majority of corrective feedback moves being recast in this research necessitates seeing how or if they vary among themselves and lead to student-generated repairs. Although elicitation has been more frequent than other corrective feedback moves after recast, teachers' preferences have differed individually in this research and Lyster & Ranta (1997).

Regarding the frequency and proportion of errors in linguistic categories, the analysis demonstrates that learners made 2275 errors and 757 (33,2 %) of them were phonological errors, and successively semantic errors 566 (24,8 %), morphological errors 514 (22,5%), syntactic errors 418 (19,2%) followed phonological errors. Yet, the gravity of errors changed from one student to another despite the pervasiveness of phonological errors in the overall data. In the literature, grammatical errors prevailed over phonological, lexical and L1 errors, with a 50% of occurrence (Lyster & Ranta, 1998b). Of 1407 errors, 686 received corrective feedback in Lyster & Ranta (1997), making almost 58% of errors, doubling the correction proportion in this research's young EFL video-mediated speaking setting. With 749 corrective feedback moves, only 32,9 % of the total errors were corrected by teachers in this research, while 60% per cent of errors were responded to with corrections in primary school French immersion classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1998b). This huge difference may result from various reasons such as the limited instruction time, the

focus of the lesson's fluency rather than accuracy, etc. The number of corrective feedback moves across linguistic categories was proportionally aligned with the frequency of errors. Further analysis is illustrated under the title of error distribution and corrective feedback.

Following the corrective feedback and error distribution across linguistic categories, student-generated repair frequency is probed through quantified data and a discourse analytic lens line by line. Out of 772 corrective feedback moves, only 23,18% of teachers' corrections led to student-generated repairs, and very few partial repairs (0,77%) were seen, whereas, in Lyster & Ranta (1997), 28% of corrective feedback moves ended with repairs. One the one hand, in adult ESL classrooms, 16% of corrective feedback moves resulted in repairs based on the analysis of 10 hours of lessons (Panova & Lyster, 2002). The results regarding the repair ratios are heterogeneous, although the proportion of corrective feedback moves show similarities, with recasts being the most preferred type of corrective feedback, yet, the main difference is that recasts led to more repairs in Lyster & Ranta (1997) than other studies.

**Corrective Feedback Moves and Frequencies**

The early analysis has revealed that recasts are more prevalent than other types of corrective feedback in response to errors. Across 95 10-25 mins sessions, 18 teachers preferred recasts 87% compared to other CF types (see Figure 1). Despite elicitation being the second most common corrective feedback, 13 out of 18 teachers used elicitation; however, five used elicitation only once, and three used elicitation numerically more than 5 (see Table 10). Explicit correction followed recasts and elicitation with 6% of use to correct errors (see Figure 1). Only ten teachers exploited explicit correction in their sessions with students, and the number is very few for a statistical comparison among the teachers' explicit correction use. Other types of corrective feedback, such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and translation, were rarely used with small numbers (see Table 8). Although recasts are the most commonly used corrective feedback move in the previous literature, the use of other types of corrective moves varies from one context to another. In

line with the result of this research, in Lyster & Ranta (1997), teachers opted for elicitation for learner errors in Canada French immersion classrooms and clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition followed, respectively. However, translation took second place in Canada ESL classrooms among other CF types (Panova & Lyster, 2002), different from other CF studies. Compared to other CF studies, the frequencies of corrective feedback moves in the New Zealand ESL context (Sheen, 2004) show higher compatibility with the results of this research, with recasts' making up 68.3% of total CF moves and explicit feedback and elicitation moves' being preferred more than other CF types after recasts. However, it is essential to draw attention to the fact that only learners in Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study were young learners like in this study, whilst the participants in other aforementioned contexts were adults along with context and setting differences like ESL and immersion.

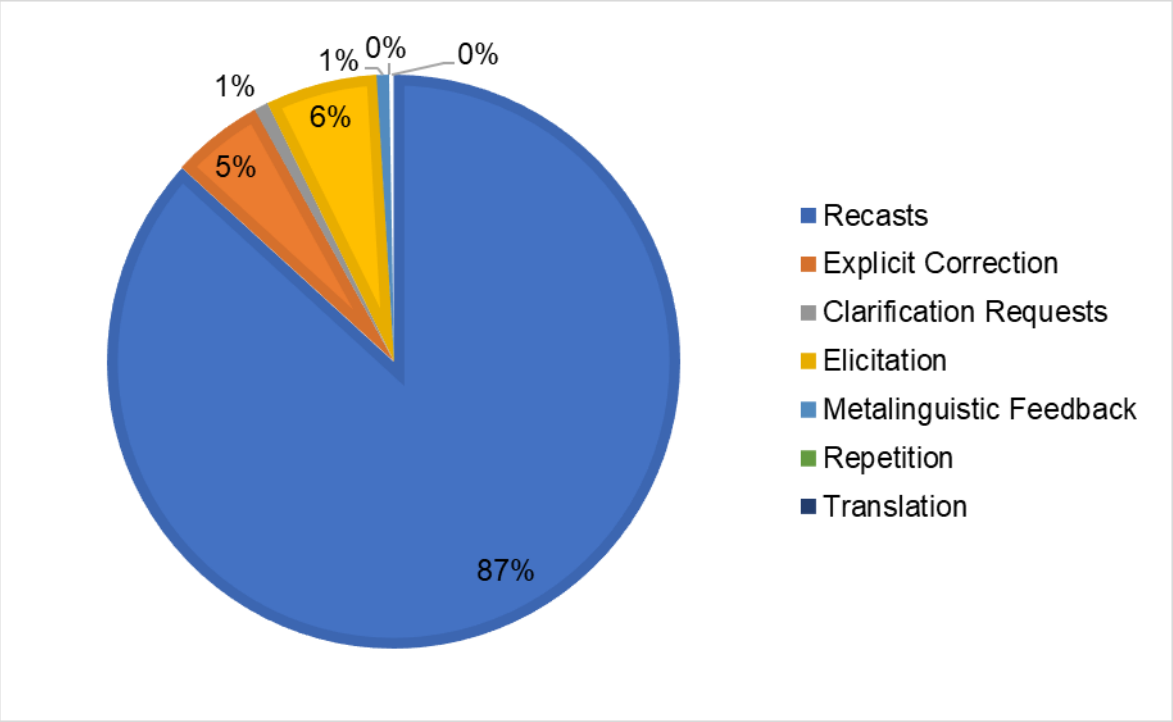
**Table 8**

*Corrective Feedback Moves Distribution*

| Corrective Feedback Moves | Number |
|---|---|
| Recasts | 650 |
| Explicit Correction | 39 |
| Clarification Requests | 6 |
| Elicitation | 47 |
| Metalinguistic Feedback | 5 |
| Repetition | 0 |
| Translation | 2 |
| Total | 749 |

**Figure 1**

*Corrective Feedback Moves Frequency Distribution*




Clarification requests were found to be sparingly exploited in Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL, in line with the findings of this research. Nonetheless, teachers in Canada ESL and immersion classrooms tended to respond to errors with clarification requests in higher figures, making them the second and third most common type of corrective move (Sheen, 2004). Surprisingly, teachers in young EFL video-mediated settings rarely favoured using metalinguistic feedback even though teachers in Canada immersion context more substantially chose them to correct learner errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). As Figure 1 also indicated, repetition was never seen in the data. Though repetition was seen in former studies, it was still the least preferred corrective feedback move in three contexts: Canada immersion, Canada ESL, and Korean EFL, with a percentage below 6% (Sheen, 2004). Due to less use, translation also has a percentage of 0,26 %.

**Sequential Analysis of Corrective Feedback Moves**

Recasts were benefited for different types of errors by teachers; however, they sometimes resulted in partial or full repairs of students. Whereas recasts given for semantic and phonological errors in Extracts 1 and 3 ended with repairs of learners, recast for a syntactic error in Extract 2 did not initiate a repair from the learner. In Extract 1, Line 2, Ayse

mispronounces the word ‘young’ and Reem recasts the word in Line 3. We see the repair of student in Line 4. There are no contextual patterns indicating the enhanced attention of learner for repair except for a token of understanding ‘hu-hu’. Philp (2003) stated that learners were more likely to notice shorter recasts, which may explain why the learner could pronounce the word correctly in the second time.

```
    Extract 1 Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)
    Phonological Error, Recast, Repair
1   Reem: i am slim okay what about this i am
2   Ayse: /jʌndʒ/
3   Reem: /jʌŋ/ hu-hu
4   Ayse: /jʌŋ/
5   Reem: okay and i am
```

In Extract 2, the learner makes a syntactic error regarding using have for the subject ‘she’ in the simple present tense. After a pause of 2 secs, the teacher recasts the error in Line 3, but it overlaps with the learner’s utterance in Line 4. The correction does not lead to a repair, although the teacher recasts in Line 7 again. Nassaji (2007) names the second recast as embedded recast, which lacks prompt. According to his findings, embedded recast-prompt 77% did not cause repairs of learners aligning with this extract. In Egi (2007), learners reported in the stimulated-recall protocols that they could recognise shorter recasts by 68,70% given for morphosyntactic errors doubling the proportion of noticing long recasts. In the same vein, Lyster (1998a) revealed that longer recasts rarely led to repairs. Focusing on recasting multiple errors in a single line as Reem did for both ‘have’ and ‘brown eyes’, Sheen (2006) reported that learners repaired their errors more once recasts involved a single correction.

```
    Extract 2 Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)
    Syntactic Error, Recast, No Repair
1   Ayse: mmedium she have
```

```
2  (2.3)
3  Reem: [she has]
4  Ayse: [sh-]    she is
5  (1.2)
6  Ayse: brown eye c- eye color (.)
7  Reem: so she has brown eyes okay
8  Ayse: yeah
```

Extending the discussion on shorter and isolated recasts in the words of Nassaji (2007), in Extract 3, we see that the learner modified her language in Line 3 after Reem's correction in Line 2. The learner chooses the wrong word, 'grow', to express her dream job. After the teacher provides correction to the learner once in Line 3, the learner uses the verb 'be' correctly twice in Lines 3 and 5 as part of the collocation of 'want to be', showing an understanding of the first correction. Yet, another error correction in Line 6 wants attention since it shows how the teacher preferred to sustain the conversation without allowing the learner to repair it even though she recasted the morphological error, verb inflection made in Line 5.

```
   Extract 3 Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)
   Semantic Error, Recast, Repair
1  Ayse: i want (.) to (.) grow (.) i (.)
2  Reem: want to be
3  Ayse: i want to be a singer um when i grow up
4  Reem: [yes a singer
5  Ayse: [my cousin is want to be vet
6  Reem: aha: your cousin wants to be a vet very nice what do
   you know about your dream job
7  Ayse: u:::m (.) i
```

As the second common type of corrective feedback move, how an elicitation move culminated in partial repair is shown in Extract 4. In Line 2, the learner replies to the teacher, repairing her misunderstanding of the teacher's question. Then, in Line 3, the teacher tries to elicit a semantically appropriate answer to her question. In Line 4, the learner reaches an understanding to repair the communication breakdown, yet she makes a syntactic error in expressing what she did at the weekend. Then, in Line 6, the teacher disregards the syntactic error and moves on with relevant questions about the conversation topic, which shows that the teacher disregards a syntactic error not to interrupt the flow of the conversation in an EFL video-mediated speaking class.

```
  Extract 4 Mona, Nancy (Learner, teacher)
  Semantic Error, Elicitation, Partial Repair
1 Nancy: you are amazing you are like a princess mona really
  you're a princess tell me u:h how did you spend your weekend
  what what have you done for the weekend
2 Mona:  e::hm i'm i my singer is uh uhm
3 Nancy: did you go outside with your parents on saturday and
  sunday
4 Mona:  huh i go to cousin u::h i u:m play my cousin
5 Nancy: u::h how old is your cousin
```

One of the samples of how teachers exploited explicit feedback is presented in Extract 5. In Line 3, the learner misuses the copula 'to be' to explain which language she speaks. After 1.2 secs pause, the teacher explicitly corrects the learner's mistake by using the verb 'speak', and she asks a further question where the learner may use the verb 'speak'. However, the teacher cannot elicit a response from the student despite 2 secs of pauses in Lines 6 and 8. As a result, the learner does not seem to process what the teacher said or corrected.

```
  Extract 5 Aida, Ella (Learner, teacher)
```

Semantic Error, Explicit Feedback, No Repair

1 Ella: so what what languages can you speak

2 (2.9)

3 Aida: i'm (0.9) turkish

4 (1.2)

5 Ella: so you can say (0.9) i can speak turkish and what else (0.9) what language what other language can you speak

6 (2.1)

7 Ella: turkish

8 (2.0)

9 Ella: and

10 (1.1)

11 Ella: english

One of the occasionally used corrective feedback moves, clarification request, is shown in Extract 6. In Line 1, Hira asks how frequently the learner goes to a park or restaurant. After 1 sec pause in Line 2, the teacher tries to elicit an answer from the student. In Line 4, the student seemingly tells a restaurant's name; however, it is not the expected response, and the teacher does not understand. Therefore, she requests clarification in Line 5, and the learner repeats the same words in Line 6, most probably by thinking it was not previously heard. In Line 7, we understand that mutual understanding is not achieved due to the teacher's clarification request. In Line 8, the learner modifies his language and accomplishes a mutual understanding. The extension of clarification requests in consecutive lines seems to be successful in causing repairs.

Extract 6 Willy, Hira (Learner, teacher)

Semantic Error, Clarification Request, Repair

1 Hira: how often do you go to the park or to a restaurant through star do you ever go to a park or do you go to a restaurant

2 (1.2)

3 Hira: yes or not

4 Willy: s /bu:rger/

5 Hira: excuse me again

6 Willy: s /bu:rger/

7 Hira: what is that i don't know turkish william what is j /bu:rger/

8 Willy: this is this is a /hæmbu:rger/ restaurant

9 Hira: o::h oh very good so so it's ha j burger yeah yeah okay so maybe maybe it is something like king /bɜ:gər/ yeah

10 Willy: yes

Metalinguistic feedback, one of the sparsely used CF moves in this research, is shown how it was implemented in one of the lessons. In Extract 7, the learner uses the word ‘trash’ instead of ‘bin’, and she uses two words having the same meaning. In line 2, the teacher explains that trash and rubbish are synonyms. Yet, she goes on speaking without giving a chance for the learner to find the correct word. If the learner did not have the word ‘bin’, it could be an opportunity for her to learn it, or she could be reminded. The tendencies of teachers, like giving a pause or keeping speaking, seem as crucial as the type of CF move and learner’s noticing factor to modify their language.

Extract 7 Suna, Mina (Learner, teacher)

Semantic Error, Metalinguistic Feedback, No Repair

1 Suna: trash is u:h like you put the rubbish in trash

2 Mina: yes like rubbish so let let us say they are synonyms trash or rubbish u:hm everything eh that we don’t need anymore we can consider it as trash [uh-hm

3 Suna: [yes

4 Mina: plastic

5 Suna: plastic a:s plastic [e::h like we use a::h always we use

6 Mina: [hm

The least used type of corrective feedback move is illustrated below in Extract 8. Despite successive efforts of the teacher, like using explicit feedback after translation, repair from the learner is not obtained. In Line 1, the learner uses the Turkish word ‘kına’ instead of ‘henna’; the teacher explains the word through approximation in Line 2 by looking at the learner’s palm on the screen. The teacher later figures out what ‘kına’ is in line 9 with rising intonation and says hennah. The translation does not solicit learner repair, yet in Line 16, the learner makes the same mistake again and says ‘kına’. This time, the teacher explicitly corrects the learner’s misuse and tries to teach the equivalent word of ‘kına’ in Line 17. However, after 3 secs pause, the correction fails to elicit learner repair. Sheen (2004) reported that only 4 out of 91 translation moves in Canada ESL context led to repair.

Extract 8 Mona, Reem (Learner, teacher)

Semantic Error, Translation, No Repair-Explicit Feedback, No Repair

1 Mona: kına (0.6)

*hennah*

2 Reem: really (.) it’s like a paint (.) on your (.) palm (0.9)

3 Mona: u::hm

4 (1.9)

5 Reem: marry↑

6 (1.2)

7 Mona: marry

8 (2.1)

9 Reem: ah like the hennah↑ (.) hm

```
10 (1.4)
11 Mona: uncle (.)
12 Reem: a::h your uncle is getting married
13 (1.0)
14 Reem: o::h okay (.) that’s that’s nice
15 (1.8)
16 Mona: kına
         hennah
17 Reem: ah yeah we call it hennah (0.7) uh-hm (.) you pu- you
   put it on your hand right (0.7) here
18 (3.4)
19 Reem: ah ni:ce it’s a [picture of you (0.7)
20 Mona:                 [((xxx))
21 Mona: uncle
```

After the early analysis of corrective feedback sequences according to Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) categories revised by Panova & Lyster (2002), the data demonstrated double corrective moves (see Table 9) were used with a minor frequency. Elicitation and elaboration were more frequent than other double corrective feedback moves. To show a sample of this double corrective feedback move, in Extract 9, Kate asks Suna how long she has been playing the guitar in Line 1; Suna responds to the question inappropriately. In Line 3, Kate elaborates on the question to elicit an answer. After a token of understanding ‘a::h’, Suna repairs her response.

```
Extract 9 Suna, Kate (Learner, teacher)
1     Kate: hu:h that’s great how long have you been playing guitar
2     Suna: everyday because u::h i must practice it
3     Kate: uh-hm is it for two years now three years
4     Suna: a::h
```

5 Kate: huh-hm

6 Suna: yes wo- two or three years

7 Kate: two or three years i see i see very nice u::hm do you have a: best friend

**Table 9**

*Double Corrective Feedback Moves*

| Corrective Feedback Moves | Number / Ratio |
|---|---|
| Elicitation+ Recast | 2 (8,69 %) |
| Explicit + Metalinguistic Feedback | 3 (13,04 %) |
| Recast + Explicit Feedback | 1 (4,34 %) |
| Elicitation+Explicit Correction | 4 (17,39 %) |
| Elicitation + Elaboration | 11 (47,82 %) |
| Recast + Metalinguistic Feedback | 2 (8,69 %) |
| Total | 23 |

In Table 9, other double corrective moves are also listed. These corrective feedback moves are a combination of two different corrective feedback moves. Another example of double corrective moves is as follows in Extract 10. In Line 1, Adam asks Carl if he has understood everything. In Line 2, Carl makes a morphological error and adds not to the main verb. In Line 3, Adam uses elicitation for the learner to correct his mistake. In Line 4, the learner responds to the question without paying attention to the form and makes the same mistake again. Then, the teacher uses explicit feedback in Line 5 and finally elicits the learners' repair in Line 6.

Extract 10 Carl, Adam (Learner, Teacher)

1 Adam: can you bring the appetizer please so appetizer (.) small dish (.) okay that you get before the main meal all right it's usually (.) small you know you eat that first for example soup okay a soup can be appetizer well done do you have any questions

2 Carl: no teacher i haven’t any questions

3 Adam: okay do you do you have any questions

4 Carl: no no teacher i haven't any questions

5 Adam: okay do you know why don't have you no i haven't can you no i can't did you no i didn't listen to my question and from my question you will make your answer do you yes i do can you yes i can did you yes i did all right try now do you have any questions

6 Carl: no i don't

One type of double corrective feedback, elicitation+recast, happened as in the following Extract 11. In Line 5, Aida mispronounces ‘dish’ as ‘ders’. Ella recasts her response as ‘dish’, and she makes the same mistake again in Line 8. Then, Ella uses elicitation for Aida to repair her misuse.

Extract 11 Aida, Ella (Learner, Teacher)

1 Aida: /wes/

2 (2.2)

3 Ella: /wɒʃ/

4 (2.1)

5 Aida: -ing /ders/

6 (1.3)

7 Ella: ↑/wɒʃ/ (.) /dɪʃəz/

8 Aida: /ders/ (.) [/wɒʃ/ /dɪʃəz/

9 Ella: [/wɒʃ/ /dɪʃəz/ once again

10 Aida: /wɒʃ/

11 Ella: /wɒʃ/ /dɪʃəz/

12 Aida: /dɪʃəz/

Despite not being prevalent in the data set, another double corrective feedback move, explicit correction+metalinguistic feedback, was seen. In Line 2, Aida misuses an auxiliary verb or does not inflect the main verb as supposedly despite the tense being used correctly. Ella responds to the misuse with explicit correction in Line 7 by inflecting the verb properly. In line 9, she explains it further with metalinguistic feedback.

Extract 12 Aida, Ella (Learner, Teacher)

1 Ella: i am swimming in the summer correct are you washing the dishes at home

2 Aida: no i don’t washing the dishes at home

3 Ella: no c- you can say no i [am not washing the dishes

4 Aida: [no

5 (2.1)

6 Aida: dishes no i don’t

7 Ella: wash the dishes you can say

8 Aida: wash the dis- dishes

9 Ella: you can say aida question is are you washing the dishes at home and you say no i am not washing the dishes or you can say i don’t wash the dishes okay are you playing basketball in the garden

In Extract 13, the teacher asks the learner if he has any questions, and the learner makes a mistake by adding a negation to the main verb in Line 1. Then, the teacher tries to elicit self-repair by repeating the question in Line 2. However, the learner makes the same mistake again in Line 3. In Line 4, the teacher corrects the learner by recasting ‘don’t have’ and uses elicitation in the same line. After the teacher's attempts for the learner’s repair, the learner correctly used the negation.

Extract 13 Carl, Mark (Learner, teacher)

1 Carl: no teacher i haven’t any questions

2 Mark: okay do you do you have any questions

3 Carl: no no teacher i haven't any questions

4 Mark: okay do you know why don't have you no i haven't can you no i can't did you no i didn't listen to my question and from my question you will make your answer do you yes i do can you yes i can did you yes i did all right try now do you have any questions

5 Carl: no i don't

6 Mark: well done give me high five

In Extract 14, the learner mispronounces the word ‘climb’ in Line 1, and the teacher uses recast to correct the mistake in Line 4. The learner repairs the misuse, and in Line 8, the teacher provides a sort of metalinguistic feedback by saying the letter ‘b’ at the end is not pronounced. Thus, we see elicitation and metalinguistic feedback were combined by the teacher.

Extract 14 Aida, Ella (Learner, teacher)

1 Aida: he can /klɪmb/ (0.6) .hhh /wʌlls/ /ʒu:/- /ʒu[:s/

2 Ella: [/dʒʌst/ (.) /dʒʌst/

3 Aida: /dʒʌst/ (0.9) like a spider

4 Ella: okay (.) /wɔːlz/ /klaɪm/ can you repeat for me /klaɪm/

5 Aida: /klaɪm/

6 Ella: /klaɪm/

7 Aida: /klaɪm/

8 Ella: okay the letter b is not pronunced we just say climb

In Extract 15, the learner, Aida makes a pronunciation mistake in Line 1. In Line 2, the teacher first recasts the mispronounced word and then provides explicit correction by highlighting the sound /ɒ/ with an emphasis. The correction happened in two folds, the first recasting and the second explicit correction.

Extract 15 Aida, Ella (Learner, Teacher)

1 Aida: avustralya

*australia*

2 Ella: /ɒstreɪliə/ with /ɒ/ /ɒstreɪliə/

3 Aida: /ʌvəstərʌljʌ/

Table 10 shows the distribution of corrective feedback moves and their frequencies among teachers. Since the number of sessions teachers had with learners is different, the number of corrective feedback moves are compared in relation to errors. The table illustrates that the error correction percentage of teachers is under 50% except for 4 of 18 teachers, and the average error correction proportion of teachers is 32,92%. On the one hand, all teachers except for one used recasts the most in response to learners' errors and the number of recasts exploited by teachers across sessions is 650 out of 1225 mins. On the other hand, elicitation is the second most preferred corrective feedback type after recasts. Four of the teachers used explicit correction more than elicitation, yet the frequency of use of both moves is successively 5% and 6% out of seven corrective feedback categories. Four of eighteen teachers never opted for elicitation, whilst eight of them never used explicit correction. Besides, five teachers exploited metalinguistic feedback a few times, whereas four used clarification requests with scarce numbers. Two teachers use the translation twice in the whole data set.

**Table 10**

*The Proportion of Corrective Moves per Teacher*

| CF Moves | Errors of Students | Recasts | Explicit Correction | Clarification Requests | Elicitation | Metalinguistic Feedback | Repetition | Translation | Total (CF Moves) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| Teachers | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number (%)* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reem | 301 | 122 | 10 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 141 (46%) |
| Ella | 273 | 136 | 8 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 148 (54%) |
| Hira | 227 | 87 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 100 (44%) |
| Nancy | 251 | 45 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 50 (0,59%) |
| Kate | 180 | 39 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 48 (26,66%) |
| Clara | 107 | 18 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 26 (24,29%) |
| Mary | 187 | 57 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 64 (34, 22%) |
| Lisa | 134 | 16 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 23 (17,16%) |
| Amalia | 109 | 29 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 32 (29,35%) |
| Anne | 181 | 28 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 29 (16,02%) |
| Eliza | 111 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 18 (16,21%) |
| Mark | 61 | 28 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 29 (47,54%) |
| Karen | 18 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 (5,55%) |
| Nina | 35 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 (25,71%) |
| Alex | 24 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 17 (70, 83%) |
| Vera | 61 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 6 (9,83%) |
| Dorothy | 9 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 (55,55%) |
| Lily | 6 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 (50%) |
| Total | 2275 | 650 | 39 | 6 | 47 | 5 | | 2 | 749 (32,92%) |

As for corrective feedback frequencies per person, the analysis is partly in accordance with the general corrective feedback distribution (see Table 8). Every student received recasts as corrections to their errors the most frequently. However, despite elicitation being teachers' second most preferred corrective feedback, the number of learners receiving elicitation as the second common CF type is five. On the other hand, 6 of the learners never obtained metalinguistic feedback or clarification requests, whilst 8 did not never receive translation as a correction.

**Table 11**

*The Proportion of Corrective Moves per Student*

| CF Moves | Recasts | Explicit Correction | Clarification Requests | Elicitation | Metalinguistic Feedback | Repetition | Translation | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students | Number | Number | Number | Number | Number | Number | Number | Number |
| Aida | 140 | 8 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 150 |
| Ayse | 65 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 70 |
| Carl | 40 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 44 |
| Suna | 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 33 |
| Jack | 15 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 17 |
| Isac | 69 | 13 | 1 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 99 |
| Willy | 67 | 7 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 82 |
| Jose | 46 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 53 |
| Bera | 85 | 3 | 1 | 13 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 104 |
| Mona | 91 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 97 |
| Total | 650 | 39 | 6 | 47 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 749 |

**Error Distribution and Corrective Feedback**

The errors are distributed in four categories, as shown in Table 12. The most prevalent errors in the data were phonological errors, with a percentage of 33,27%; other types: semantic, morphological and syntactic, followed them respectively with 24,87%, 22,59%, and 19,2% percentages. 225 (39,75%) errors out of 566 semantic errors in total were corrected, whereas 257 (33,94%) phonological errors received the correction. Compared to semantic and phonological errors, syntactic errors obtained less correction with a percentage of 30,82%. With a 25,68% percentage out of the total number of errors, morphological errors were the least corrected linguistic error category among others.

**Table 12**

*The Distribution of Errors in Linguistic Categories*

| | Semantic Errors | Phonological Errors | Syntactic Errors | Morphological Errors | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number (%) | 566 (24,87%) | 757 (33,27%) | 438 (19,2%) | 514 (22,59%) | 2275 (%100) |

Regarding the proportion of corrective feedback moves across linguistic error, categories revealed that errors in all linguistic categories were responded to with recasts, and phonological errors reached the highest number of recasts, which achieved 37,84% of the total number of recasts. Besides, recasts given to semantic errors comprised 23,38% of the total recasts. Conversely, although morphological errors outnumbered syntactic errors, they obtained a similar percentage of recasts (see Table 13). Elicitation was the type of CF ranking as the second preferred type by teachers, yet, the distribution of this corrective feedback move was not equal among the linguistic categories. Semantic errors were superior to other linguistic error categories regarding using 95,74% of elicitation. In addition, elicitation was almost never used in response to other linguistic error categories (see Table 13). Along the same line, semantic errors received the highest explicit correction compared to other error categories. In contrast, the number of usage of explicit correction is similarly distributed in the rest of the linguistic error categories (see Table 13 and Figure 2). Teachers replied to only semantic and phonological errors with clarification requests, whereas linguistic error categories, except morphological errors, received metalinguistic feedback. Lastly, only semantic errors obtained translation as corrective feedback.

**Table 13**

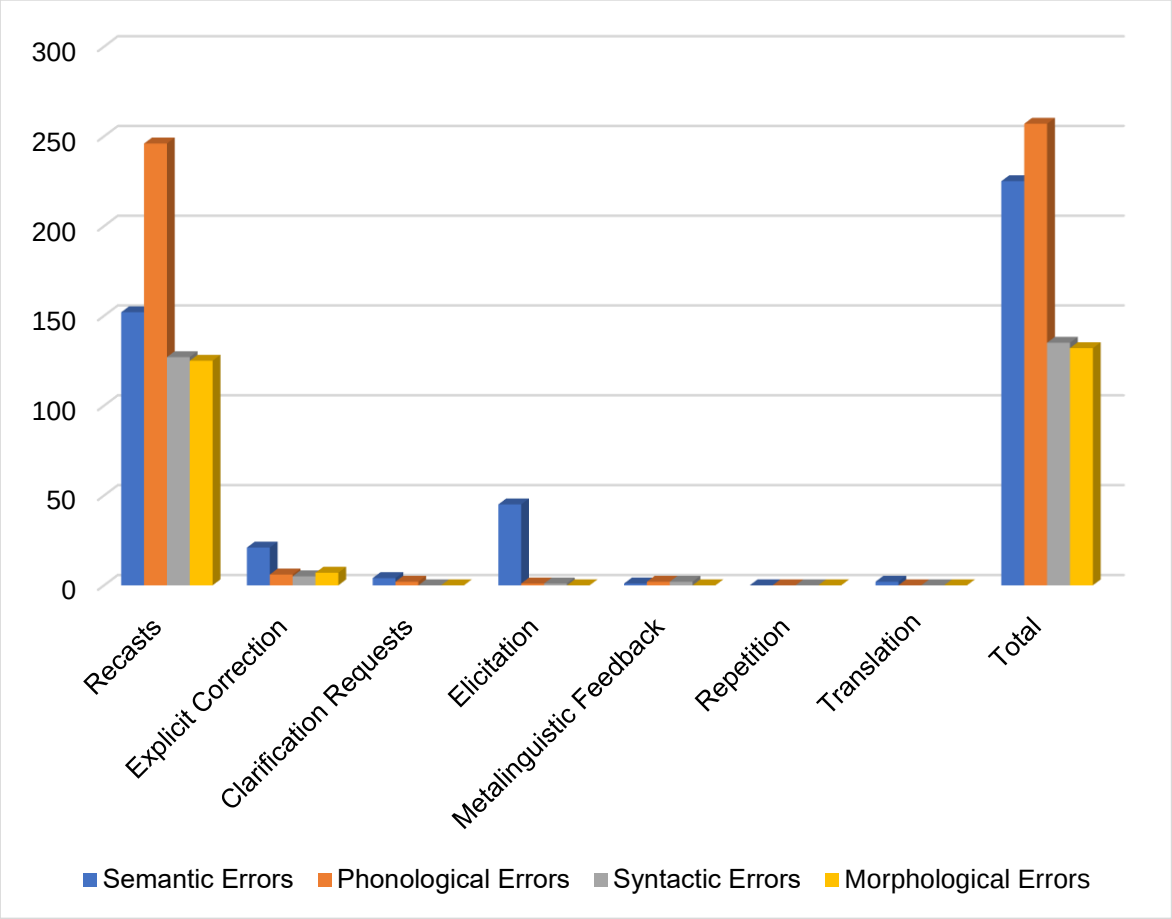
*The Distribution of Errors Across Linguistic & Corrective Feedback Categories*

| Errors | Semantic Errors | Phonological Errors | Syntactic Errors | Morphological Errors | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Corrective Feedback* | *Number ( %)* | *Number ( %)* | *Number ( %)* | *Number ( %)* | *Number ( %)* |
| Recasts | 152 (23,38%) | 246 (37,84%) | 127 (19, 53%) | 125 (19,23%) | 650 (100%) |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Explicit Correction | 21 (53,84%) | 6 (15,38%) | 5 (12,82%) | 7 (17,94) | 39 (100%) |
| Clarification Requests | 4 (60%) | 2 (40%) | 0 | 0 | 6 (100%) |
| Elicitation | 45 (95,74%) | 1 (2,12%) | 1 (2,12%) | 0 | 47 (100%) |
| Metalinguistic Feedback | 1 (20%) | 2 (40%) | 2 (40%) | 0 | 5 (100%) |
| Repetition | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Translation | 2 (100%) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 (100%) |
| Total | 225 (30,04 %) | 257 (34,31 %) | 135 (18,02 %) | 132 (17,62 %) | 749 (100%) |

**Figure 2**

*The Distribution of Errors Across Linguistic & Corrective Feedback Moves*




The distribution of errors in four linguistic categories among students markedly varied from one another. Since whether there is a relationship between the linguistic error categories and the level of learners must be the topic of another research and needs further data, it is not elaborated here. However, as you can see in Table 14, learners at the same

level commensurably differed regarding the frequency of their error distribution. For instance, Carl, at the pre-intermediate level, mostly makes syntactic errors such as phrase order, while Ayse, at the same level, makes phonological errors (see Table 14). Three students, Aida, Ayse, and Isac, from beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate levels, make the most phonological errors compared to other linguistic categories.

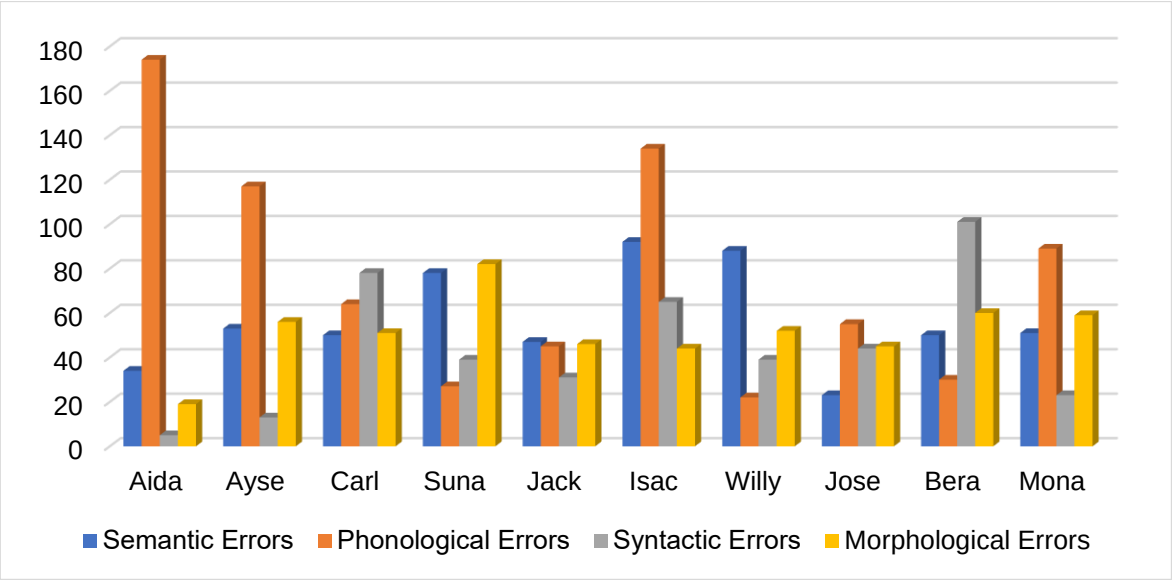
**Table 14**

*The Distribution of Errors Across Students*

| Students | Semantic Errors | Phonological Errors | Syntactic Errors | Morphological Errors | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* | *Number* |
| Aida | 34 | 174 | 5 | 19 | 232 |
| Ayse | 53 | 117 | 13 | 56 | 239 |
| Carl | 50 | 64 | 78 | 51 | 243 |
| Suna | 78 | 27 | 39 | 82 | 226 |
| Jack | 47 | 45 | 31 | 46 | 169 |
| Isac | 92 | 134 | 65 | 44 | 335 |
| Willy | 88 | 22 | 39 | 52 | 201 |
| Jose | 23 | 55 | 44 | 45 | 167 |
| Bera | 50 | 30 | 101 | 60 | 241 |
| Mona | 51 | 89 | 23 | 59 | 222 |
| Total | 566 | 757 | 438 | 514 | 2275 |

**Figure 3**

*The Distribution of Errors Across Students*




**Corrective Feedback Sequences and Repairs**

Corrective feedback sequences unveiled that only 23,18% of corrective feedback moves elicited student-generated-repairs. Having recasts consisting of the considerable part of CF moves in mind, 0,77% of them make up partial repairs. 77,7% of corrective moves did not result in repair. Self-repairs without any teacher feedback are not included in this analysis since this research study aims to see if corrective feedback given by teachers could result in learner/student-generated repairs. Similarly, Panova & Lyster (2002) reported that 16% of corrective feedback moves initiated learner repairs in Canada ESL context, whereas, in Lyster & Ranta's study (1997), corrective feedback moves were corresponded with repairs by young learners by 27%. One of the highest rates of learner repair, in response to feedback, was elicited from adult ESL learners in the New Zealand context (by 55% of CF moves) (Sheen, 2004). On the one hand, a group of young learners at a similar age in French immersion classrooms could modify their language in response to teachers' feedback by 25% (Lyster & Mori, 2006), which indicates a close figure of repair ratio found in this research. On the other hand, interestingly, young learners in Japanese immersion classrooms revealed 55% of repairs following corrective feedback moves. Considering the context, instruction, age, and level similarities, the difference between the repair proportions

of Japanese and French immersion classrooms requires more comprehensive research to uncover underlying reasons.

**Table 15**

*The Frequencies of Corrective Feedback and Repair*

| | Corrective Feedback Moves | Errors | Partial Repair | Student-Generated Repair | No Repair |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number (%) | 772 (100%) | 2275 | 6 (0,77%) | 179 (23,18%) | 600 (77,7%) |

Table 16 illustrates the repair frequencies among corrective feedback moves. Recasts make up 71,65% of corrective feedback types leading to student-generated repairs for the most in line with its proportion in the corrective feedback moves. Elicitation also aligns with its frequency of use by teachers by leading to student-generated repairs with 13,90%. Explicit correction follows elicitation in leading to repairs with a less percentage of 6,41%. Despite being rarely seen in the data, double corrective feedback move, elicitation+elaboration comes after explicit correction resulting in more repairs with 2,67%. Elicitation+explicit correction ranks as the fifth corrective feedback type in bringing more repairs, whereas three types of corrective feedback did not result in any repairs (see Table 16). With the minimum frequency, clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback led to repairs twice. Whilst 511 recasts did not result in any repairs, only five recast moves led to partial repairs. Metalinguistic feedback also brought one partial repair of a learner.

Recasts which make 54% of CF moves in the French immersion context, and 65% of CF moves in the Japanese immersion context, surprisingly culminated in varying amounts of repairs successively as 38% and 68% (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Apart from these results, this research found that 22% of recasts could lead to repairs and partial repairs, as illustrated in Table 16, despite recasts' causing the highest number of repairs. However, in

Lyster & Ranta (1997), 18% of recasts could elicit learner repairs in line with the findings of this research. Although the data in Lyster & Mori (2006) and Lyster & Ranta (1997) was collected in French immersion settings, there is a considerable variation among the effect of recasts. Therefore, it becomes inevitable to highlight that each context and corrective feedback move must be evaluated with its own characteristics and individuals. Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL contexts also revealed the prominent impact of recasts in soliciting learner repairs, respectively, as follows 57% and 48% out of the total recasts.

Elicitation, the second common CF move in this research, remains the second in iniating learner repairs, as shown in Table 16. Even though recasts reached a higher number of repairs, elicitations proportionally resulted in more repairs (26 repairs out of 47 elicitation moves). Likewise, Lyster & Ranta (1997) unveiled that 46% of elicitation moves ended with repairs, almost tripling the rate of recasts in leading repairs. Yet, the prevalent use of recasts numerically brings more repairs in this research and Lyster & Ranta (1997).

**Table 16**

*The Distribution of Repairs Across the Feedback Moves*

| Corrective Feedback | Partial Repair | Student Generated Repair | No Repair |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Number (%)* | *Number (%)* | *Number (%)* |
| Recasts | 5 (90%) | 134 (71,65%) | 511 (88,25%) |
| Explicit Correction | 0 | 12 (6,41%) | 27 (4,66%) |
| Clarification Requests | 0 | 2 (1,06) | 4 (0,69%) |
| Elicitation | 0 | 26 (13,90%) | 21 (3,62%) |
| Metalinguistic Feedback | 1 (10%) | 2 (1,06%) | 2 (0,34%) |
| Repetition | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Translation | 0 | 1 (0,53%) | 1 (0,17) |
| Elicitation+Explicit Correction | 0 | 4 (2,13%) | 0 |
| Elicitation + Elaboration | 0 | 5 (2,67%) | 6 (1,03%) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Elicitation + Recast | 0 | 1 (0,53%) | 1 (0,17%) |
| Recast + Metalinguistic Feedback | 0 | 0 | 2 (0,34%) |
| Recast + Explicit Feedback | 0 | 0 | 1 (0,17%) |
| Explicit + Metalinguistic Feedback | 0 | 0 | 3 (0,51%) |
| Total | 6 (100%) | 187 (100%) | 579 (100%) |

In the Canada immersion context, elicitation and clarification requests were found to be more frequent than other types of CF moves after recasts (Sheen, 2004). The number of repairs led by elicitation took second place after recasts. However, clarification requests were very low in producing repairs, although it was the third most preferred corrective feedback moves among others. Peculiarly, elicitation moves were not influential in obtaining repairs from learners both in proportion and numbers in Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL contexts (Sheen, 2004), with average ratios between 1-7% out of their total numbers used by teachers. Concerning how effective elicitation was in producing repairs in this study, it can be said that the combination of elicitation with other moves increased its success in soliciting repairs as well as almost 50% of being successful once it is used as a single CF move. Thedetails of elicitation moves resulting in repairs are delineated below under the title of repair sequences.

Although explicit feedback was the third most exploited CF move in this research, it had a moderate impact by one-third of its total numbers resulting in repairs. Nonetheless, it was still in third place in producing repairs compared to other types of CF moves. In Canada Immersion, explicit feedback had a high proportion of resulting repairs, above 70%, although it was not preferred as much as elicitation, clarification requests or metalinguistic feedback by teachers, unlike its effect in causing repairs in this study (Sheen, 2004). However, explicit feedback was the second most common CF move in New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL contexts, and it also had the second highest figure in producing repairs

(Sheen, 2004). It is arguable why explicit feedback had a more prominent impact on resulting repairs than in this study. The age of learners and their language competence might be the underlying cause for them not comprehending the correction and thus not being able to modify their language.

Regarding clarification request use in this research, it was sparingly seen, and one-third of it led to learner repairs. In previous studies, clarification requests in Canada immersion and Canada ESL contexts were among the first three commonly used CF types (Sheen, 2004). Yet, their impact in obtaining learner repairs was in low numbers out of its total proportion of use among other CF moves. As for metalinguistic feedback, it was scantly used by teachers in this study, and therefore, the number of repairs was also very low. However, in Canada ESL and immersion settings, metalinguistic feedback was more prevalent than in New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL settings (Sheen, 2004). Besides, its proportion in leading to repairs was also very low in the Canada ESL setting. However, despite its rare use, metalinguistic feedback was influential in resulting in repairs in New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL settings.

Repairs led by corrective feedback moves in this research are illustrated in detail below to bring insight into the actual impact of corrective feedback types and explain the interactional details.

**Repair Sequences**

Repair sequences are demonstrated under the titles of corrective feedback moves, and sample extracts are presented as representative of corrective feedback groups.

**Recasts and Repairs.** Recasts are the dataset's most frequent corrective feedback type, resulting in the highest number of repairs. Yet only 20% of total corrective feedback moves ended with the repair of students. To exemplify, in Extract 16, Ayse misspells the word ‘measured’, and she gets corrected through an overlap in Line 3. Then, she pronounces the word correctly in Line 2 with an overlap.

Extract 16 Ayse, Amalia (Learner, teacher)

1 Nina: six o'clock very well let's start with the vocabulary now time what does it mean time can you read it please

2 Ayse: time a point of times as

[/meʒərət/[/meʒərd/

3 Nina: [/meʒərd/ [/meʒərd/

**Elicitation and Repairs.** 55,31% of elicitation moves led to student-generated repairs. Despite the prevalence of recasts leading to student-generated repairs, elicitation comparatively reached proportionally more repairs. Significantly, it was effective in response to semantic errors in encouraging learners to repair, as in Extract 16. In the extract below, Carl misunderstands the question and goes on to talk about school. However, Kate responds to this communication breakdown with an elicitation move and receives a semantically appropriate response.

Extract 17 Carl, Kate (Learner, teacher)

1 Kate: that’s all what did you do after school

2 Carl: u:m teacher teacher at school

3 Kate: after school after school what did you do did you eat did you watch movies

4 Carl: i playing this i playing video games and

**Explicit Correction and Repairs.** Explicit correction moves obtained student-generated repairs by 30% compared to the total number of uses by teachers. Although the number of explicit corrections was relatively low compared to recasts, the proportion of leading to repairs. In Extract 18, Isac makes a semantic error and cannot explain what is bought in grocery stores in Line 4. Reem provides explicit feedback in response to the error. Then, in Lines 6, 8, 12 and 14, the learner repairs the communication breakdown.

Extract 18 Isac, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Reem: o:kay tell me what do you do at the grocery store um

2 Isac: u::mmm

3 Reem: you [buy

4 Isac: [yes you buy is grocery store

5 Reem: so yes you buy bread you br- buy some fruits and meat and eggs and chocolate so you buy you buy food

6 Isac: tomato

7 Reem: tomatoes yes

8 Isac: um potato

9 Reem: uh-huh [and

10 Isac: [uhm

11 Reem: uh-hm

12 Isac: u:hmm chocolate

13 Reem: chocolate uh-huh [chips

14 Isac: [chips

**Elicitation+Elaboration and Repairs.** Elicitation+Elaboration corrective moves were not as joint as elicitation move alone. Yet, almost half of the double corrective move led to repairs. In Extract 19, Suna makes a semantic error by not responding appropriately to Mark's question about her grade at school in Line 2. In Line 3, Mark replies to her error with elicitation. Following the comprehension check between Lines 5 and 8, and Mark elaborates his question by giving example answers in Line 9. Suna shows her understanding in Line 9 and repairs her response in Line 12.

Extract 19 Suna, Mark (Learner, teacher)

1 Mark: all right so i think it's enough regarding this lesson so tell me what grade are you

2 Suna: uh i think u:m voting is good

3 Mark: sorry can you hear me what grade are you suna what great at school

```
4     Suna: huh sorry [XXXXX
5     Mark:           [can you understand hello
6     Suna: yes
7     Mark: what grade are you now at school
8     Suna: u:mm i don't understand this question sorry
9     Mark: grade third first we have first grade second third
            [fourth
10    Suna: [sorry uh i understand great uh [i am
11    Mark:                                 [are you
12    Suna: i'm in seventh grade
```

**Metalinguistic Feedback and Repair.** Metalinguistic feedback could result in partial and full repair repairs by 60%. In Extract 20, Suna misdefines the word ‘trash’ as if ‘rubbish’ is a bin in Line 1. Ella provides metalinguistic feedback to explain that they are synonyms in Line 2. In Line 3, Suna confirms with a token of understanding ‘yes’ and repeats ‘rubbish’.

Extract 20 Suna, Ella (Learner, teacher)

```
7     Suna: trash is u:h like you put the rubbish in trash
8     Ella: yes like rubbish so let let us say they are synonyms
trash or rubbish u:hm everything eh that we don’t need anymore we
can consider it as trash [uh-hm
9     Suna:                  [yes rubbish
```

**Clarification Request and Repair.** Clarification request was rarely seen in the data. 2 clarification request moves out of 6 could lead to repairs. One of them is presented below. In Extract 21, Isac misunderstands Eliza’s question about his grandfather and makes a semantic error. In Line 3, Eliza tries to elicit the correct answer, but Isac again gives a wrong answer in Line 4 due to his word choice. Following this unsuccessful correction attempt, Eliza asks Isac if he has one or two grandfather(s) through a clarification request in Line 5.

Then, in Line 7, we see that Isac tries to repair his answer, but it is a half-repair. In Line 9, he could fully repair his sentence.

Extract 21 Isac, Eliza (Learner, teacher)

1 Eliza: huh-hm do you have a grandfather

2 Isac: yes i like grandfather

3 Eliza: eh do you have one or two

4 Isac: um zero

5 Eliza: what do you mean zero [you have a grandfather

6 Isac: [ah

7 Isac: yani no no grandfather

*well*

8 Eliza: grandmother

9 Isac: u:m i don't have grandparents

**Elicitation+Explicit Correction and Repair.** In spite of very few use of this double corrective feedback move, it rendered learners to repair their misused language every time. In Extract 22, Ella asks Aida her doll's name, but she gives an irrelevant answer. Then, Ella uses elicitation to receive a more appropriate response in Line 3. Nevertheless, Aida responds to the elicitation move just with yes. In Line 5, Ella provides explicit correction and asks if her doll has no name. Thus, in Line 6, Aida corrects her irrelevant utterance.

Extract 22 Aida, Ella (Learner, teacher)

1 Ella: what is the name of the doll

2 Aida: and teddy bear

3 Ella: oh have you put a name to your doll and teddy bear

4 Aida: yes

5 Ella: what is the name of the doll susanne pear bear heh heh aida or no names

6 Aida: no names

**Elicitation+Recast and Repair.** One of the rare double corrective moves is elicitation+recast could also result in learner repair. In Extract 23, Carl misuses negation in Line 1. In Line 2, Mark responds to it with an elicitation move. However, Carl makes the same mistake in Line 3 again. Then, Mark recasts his response and gives examples of using negation in Line 4. In Line 5, Carl repairs his language.

Extract 23 Carl, Mark (Learner, teacher)

1 Carl: no teacher i haven’t any questions

2 Mark: okay do you do you have any questions

3 Carl: no no teacher i haven't any questions

4 Mark: okay do you know why don't have you no i haven't can you no i can't did you no i didn't listen to my question and from my question you will make your answer do you yes i do can you yes i can did you yes i did all right try now do you have any questions

5 Carl: no i don't

**Translation and Repair.** Translation is the least used corrective feedback type across the classes of 10 learners. One of the moves ended with repair, as shown in the extract below.

Extract 24 Willy, Lisa (Learner, teacher)

1 Willy: golden köpek

*dog*

2 (3.0)

3 Lisa: uh golden dog

4 (1.0)

5 Willy: [yes golden dog

6 Lisa: [don’t speak turkish okayy okayy (.) .hhh um so you said that you like playing with logos right (0.8)

**Oral Corrective Feedback Cycles and Micro Details**

The difficult of determining the effect of oral corrective feedback on learner repair and learning in the long haul remains constant since there are multiple factors involved in language use through time other than responding to errors with corrective moves alone. Yet, through discourse analysis, this study presents recurrent errors in different classes and if/how they are corrected in response to teachers' feedback. The data to shown below may reveal how learners could adjust their language thanks to the consistency of feedback or not be able to repair despite the corrective feedback moves. Besides, the data also demonstrate how errors could reoccur after some time of correctly using a word or verb and how learners could differ in their language use following the corrective feedback. The sequential data illustrate the micro details of corrective feedback cycles, such as emphasis with rising intonation or pauses and embodied actions. The representative samples are chosen to track the learners' repetitive errors across their sessions with teachers. The pervasive use of recasts can also be seen in the representative data excerpts below.

**Table 17**

*Use of Verb 'Play' In Recurrent Sessions After Correction*

| Extracts (Appendix-B) | Date | Correct or Incorrect Inflection of The Verb 'Play' in Simple Past |
|---|---|---|
| Extract 1 | 2022-05-05 | Correct use following recast |
| Extract 2 | 2022-05-28 | Correct use without any corrective feedback or instruction |
| Extract 3 | 2022-05-30 | Correct use without any corrective feedback or instruction |
| Extract 4 | 2022-06-06 | Correct use without any corrective feedback or instruction |
| Extract 5 | 2022-06-20 | Correct use without any corrective feedback or instruction |
| Extract 6 | 2022-06-22 | Wrong tense use & incorrect verb inflection<br>No corrective feedback is given |
| Extract 7 | 2022-06-29 | Wrong tense use & incorrect verb inflection<br>No corrective feedback is given |

In Table 17, the sequential correct & incorrect use of the verb 'play' in simple past illustrates how the learner's language use changes across 7 seven sessions. In Extract 1 (see Appendix-B), the learner misuses the tense and does not inflect the verb as expected in Line 7. The teacher, Nina, corrects the learner's mistake via recast in Line 8. After three seconds pause, the learner correctly inflects the verb in Line 10. 23 days later, in another

one-to-one English lesson, the learner uses the verb properly in simple past. Proper inflection of the verb is seen across 4 sessions around 45 days (see Appendix-B). However, the learner cannot use the verb appropriately again in Extracts 6 and 7 (see Appendix-B), and they go uncorrected by the teachers. In the first time that the learner's mistake is corrected, the teacher does not emphasise her correction by using prosodic features of the language. Yet, the learner repairs her mistake, which might result from the inconsistence of learning and background knowledge might help her to realize and correct following the recast of the teacher. On the one hand, when the learner misuses the verb in simple past again, the teacher could correct her to support the learner to gain consistency in her learning. Nonetheless, it does not happen as assumed. On the other hand, on the same date as in Extract 6, the learner had an unsuccessful attempt using the -ed suffix properly in Lines 2 & 4 as follows:

```
Extract 17, 2022-06-22, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)
Reem: scarf so you wear a scarf when it's when it's very very cold
okay what are you wearing today hum
Ayse: i am weared hat
Reem: huh-hm
Ayse: and i am weared t-shirts and peugu
```

We may conclude that the learner already has the knowledge of using -ed after verbs while talking about the past. However, she misuses it by thing the verb is regular. Recasts and repetitive correction or correct use seem to be effective for pronunciation errors, even if recasts' effect may vary from session to session. For instance, Table 15 shows how a learner could tailor her pronunciation after reiterative correct uses and corrective feedback. In Extract 1 (see Appendix-C), the learner mispronounces the word favourite in Line 7. The teacher provides recast in Line 10, and the learner enunciates the word correctly in Line 11 as she does beforehand in Line 2. A week later, the learner spells the word appropriately in the next session (see Extract 2 in Appendix-C). Yet, the correct use does not seem to last in the next session (see Extract 3) in Line 5. The learner receives recast in response to her

mispronunciation; however, repair does not occur afterwards. Almost a week and a month later, the learner spells the word correctly without any error-feedback interaction (see Extracts 4 and 5 in Appendix-C).

**Table 18**

*Pronunciation of The Word 'Favourite' Across Sessions*

| Extracts (Appendix-C) | Date | Correct or Incorrect Pronunciation of The Word 'Favourite' |
|---|---|---|
| Extract 1 | 2022-05-05 | Correct pronunciation in response to recast. |
| Extract 2 | 2022-05-12 | Correct pronunciation without errors or corrective feedback. |
| Extract 3 | 2022-05-30 | Mispronunciation and recast in response to error, no repair. |
| Extract 4 | 2022-06-08 | Correct pronunciation without errors or corrective feedback. |
| Extract 5 | 2022-06-29 | Correct pronunciation without errors or corrective feedback. |

Table 18 illustrates how a series of recasts in the flow of conversation, which do not have any remarkable prosodic features, which is given in response to the learner's lack of verb inflection in simple past tense. In Extract 1 (see Appendix-D), the learner does not inflect the verb 'go' in the simple past tense, as expected in Lines 5 & 7. The teacher responds to the error by recasting in Line 10 without changing the tone or pace of her speech. This sequence does not result in student-generated repair. The learner also repeats the same error in following sessions with other teachers. To elaborate, the learner misuses the verb go and does not inflect the verb as expected for the simple past tense in Line 6 of Extract 2 (see Appendix-D). The teacher recasts the verb go by inflecting it properly in Line 8 with a smooth tone; however, it does not lead to the learner's repair.

**Table 19**

*Use of Irregular Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense I*

| Extracts (Appendix-D) | Date | Correct or Incorrect Use of The Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense I |
|---|---|---|
| Extract 1 | 2022-05-12 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |
| Extract 2 | 2022-05-30 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |
| Extract 3 | 2022-06-08 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |
| Extract 4 | 2022-06-29 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |

As it is also illustrated in Table 19, unlike previous corrective feedback moves, in Line 4 of Extract 3 (see Appendix-D), the teacher recasts the learner's error by starting the sentence with a rising intonation. Nonetheless, the corrective move does not bring the

learner's repair but a one-second pause in Line 5. In another session, after 21 days, the learner repeats her mistake by using the verb 'go' infinitive in Line 7 of Extract 4. The teacher provides a recast of the inflected verb as a corrective move in the following line but does not provide any chance for student-generated repair by giving some time to the learner. Despite teachers' continuing corrections, the learner never could inflect the verb appropriately. It might result from teachers' not marking their corrections with prosodic features and focusing on the conversation's flow since these classes adopt communicative methods and focus on speaking. Additionally, it may be difficult for young learners to comprehend and use irregular verbs without being able to use regular simple past verbs before, as they may not understand metalinguistic feedback on the unique inflection of 'went'. Also, the correction passes through due to the teachers' continuing the conversation. Therefore, the case of recasts may alter in different types of errors (such as morphological, syntactic or the error itself) for diverse learners. This matter might need to be explored in further studies.

**Table 20**

*Use of Irregular Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense II*

| Extracts (Appendix-E) | Date | Correct or Incorrect Use of The Verb 'Go' in Simple Past Tense II |
|---|---|---|
| Extract 1 | 2022-05-10 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast (1), no repair, metalinguistic feedback (2), partial repair. |
| Extract 2 | 2022-05-19 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |
| Extract 3 | 2022-05-19 | Incorrect use of 'go', partial self-repair (self-initiation). |
| Extract 4 | 2022-05-21 | Incorrect use of 'go', corrected with a recast, no repair. |
| Extract 5 | 2022-06-02 | Partial correct use, recast, no repair (of unnecessary copula). |

Improper use of the verb 'go' in simple past tense is common in the data. To understand better, the researcher tracks down another learner's use of the verb correctly. In Extract 1 (see Appendix-E), the learner misuses the tense in Line 1. The teacher corrects the error via recast and inflects the verb accordingly in Line 2. However, the learner does not repair her mistake. Then, the teacher provides metalinguistic feedback in the third line. In Line 9, the learner the verb 'go' as went and makes a partially correct sentence. Nine days later, the learner repeats the error and uses the wrong tense in Line 1 of Extract 2. In

Line 2, the teacher corrects the error through recast but does not allow the learner to repair it. In the same session (see Extract 3 in Appendix-E), the learner uses ‘went’ in Lines 9 and 11 correctly, yet, the misuse of auxiliary (be) remains the same. 2 days later, the learner made the same error and misused both the tense and the verb in Extract 4. The teacher recasts the error in Line 2 but does not give a chance for student-generated repair. However, the learner uses the verb appropriately again in Line 2 of Extract 5 (see Appendix-E) but the tense is inappropriate. The teacher recasts and corrects the error in Line 4, yet the learner does not repair her misused language.

In Extract 25 below, the learner makes a phonological error in Line 1. The teacher provides corrective feedback through verbal (via recast) and nonverbal actions (such as rising intonation, a minimal pause, and raising eyebrows) in Line 2. After a one-second pause in Line 3, the teacher repeats the correction in Line 4. Thus, she elicits student-generated repair in Line 5. Prosodic features, embodied action and repetition of corrective feedback might be effective for the learner to repair her pronunciation.

Extract 25, 2022-05-09, Mona, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Mona: a bright s- /sɪni:/

2 Reem: yes a bright #↑/ˈʃaɪni/# (0.5) object

reem #fig1 raises eyebrows and tilts head up#

#fig1

3 (1.0)

4 Reem: bright shiny object (0.7) o:kay [awesome

5 Mona: [°bright /ˈʃaɪni/ ob-°

6 Reem: awesome (.) mona you studied very well (0.7) .hhh now (.) did you watch this video hm

Minimal pauses right after corrective feedback move might be influential to grab the learner's attention as in Extract 25 and Extract 26. In Line 2 of Extract 26 below, the teacher recasts the phonological error to receive the learner's repair. Thus, she succeeds in learner repair elicitation.

Extract 26, 2022-05-09, Mona, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Mona: e::h (0.7) /keləfəl/ (0.7) ai- (0.7)

2 Reem: aha:: so /kʌləfəl/ (0.8) [because

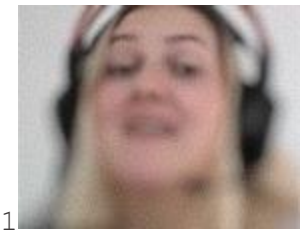
3 Mona: [/kʌləfəl/

In response to the learner's word choice in Line 1 of Extract 27, the teacher provides recast with an embodied action of raising eyebrows to push the learner to repair her mistake. However, the learner does not repair her mistake. Embodied action might mark the error; nevertheless, it might not be helpful unless learners' attention is entirely directed to the focal correction point.

Extract 27, 2022-05-16, Mona, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Mona: I am a u::h /brəzɪljə/

2 Reem: #/brəzɪljən/# uh-huh I am /brəzɪljən/ .hhh okay I li:ve reem #fig1 raises H eyebrows

#fig1 

I li:ve in hmm

# Chapter 5
# Conclusion and Suggestions

The main findings of the research have indicated that teachers employed various types of oral corrective feedback in virtual one-to-one EFL classes of young learners. The corrective feedback moves distribution suggests similarities with the results of previous observational and descriptive corrective feedback studies. For instance, Lyster (1997), Panova & Lyster (2002), Lyster (2001) and Sheen (2004) revealed that recasts surpassed other types of corrective feedback in every study higher than 50%. However, the second common corrective feedback differed among studies. Elicitation was the second most common feedback in Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study, whereas clarification requests were more widely used in Sheen's (2004) study. On the other hand, translation was preferred as secondary in Panova & Lyster's (2002) study after recasts. Also, clarification requests were in third place in their research. These differences might derive from contextual differences (Learners, EFL/ESL etc.) or teachers' individual choices. The frequency of corrective feedback in 20 hours dataset of this research is associated with the results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) 18 hours observation revealing a similar number of corrective moves.

The study has demonstrated that recasts outnumbered other types of corrective feedback and were exploited more for phonological errors. On the other hand, the proportion of student-generated repairs following recasts was commensurably lower than the number of corrective moves of recasts given by teachers. The dominance of all teachers' choice for recast might have different underlying reasons, such as not interrupting the flow of the conversation since the lessons are communicative method-based, speaking classes, or they might have thought the learners could learn how to use the language properly over time by exposure. Yet, the data reveals that 80% of recasts did not proceed with learners' repair. Another reason might be that recasts are more of an implicit correction when they are not marked with pauses, high intonation, emphasis, or embodied action. Thus, the learners may not recognise the corrective effort of the teachers to repair their misused language, and corrective moves are likely to be disregarded when learners' attention does

not accompany them. Similarly, Panova & Lyster (2002) claimed that learners could be perplexed by recasts and perceive them as positive recasts due to their position in the discourse. They also added that shorter recast with emphasis could benefit learners more and thus could be recognised more easily.

The dominance of recasts in the data supports the previous literature findings of observational studies (Lyster, 1998b; Ellis et al., 2001; Sheen, 2004) and meta-analytic research (Brown, 2016). Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study has shown that recasts comprised 55% of total corrective moves in French immersion classrooms of young learners based on the analysis of 18 hours of data. Similarly, the results of this research based on 20 hours database of one-to-one young learner classes also relate to the findings of Lyster's (2005) nearly 18 hours of observation in content-based instructed and French immersion classrooms. Lyster's study also highlights teachers' preference for recasts, with 60% among other corrective feedback types. In a similar vein, Sheen's (2004) observational study across four different contexts between 50-60 hours unveils that recasts constitute 60% of corrective moves, yet the context having the nearest proportion to this research's context with 82,8% per cent is Korean EFL context.

As for how recasts are successful in producing repairs, Sheen's (2004) study reported that recasts could lead to repairs 51% out of the total number of repairs in 4 contexts, much higher than the figure found in this research. Lyster (2001) also presented a similar proportion of repairs following recasts, with 19% per cent repairs out of the total number of recasts to the findings of this research. Different from other research studies, this research could also uniquely illustrate that many teachers chose to recast the most rather than other corrective feedback types in virtual one-to-one young classes. Concerning what differentiates recasts leading to repairs from the ones non-leading is crucial to gain an insight into the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Throughout the data, the recasts were primarily embedded in the flow of the speech in complete sentences, which might have dwindled its attention-raising effect. On the other hand, where meaning was the main focus,

teachers usually disdained phonological, syntactic and morphological errors unless they affected the meaning or just moved on with the conversation by recasting.

Following recasts, the most prevalently chosen corrective feedback move was elicitation. In contrast to the findings of this research, Sheen (2004) unveiled that clarification requests were the second most widespread corrective feedback by average in 4 contexts. However, in the Canadian immersion context, teachers' corrective feedback choices showed alignment with teachers in this study. Though the number of elicitation moves in this research could make up only 7% per cent of total recasts and the number of elicitation-led repairs is less than recast-led repairs, proportionally, elicitation moves were more effective in generating repairs by 55% out of entire elicitation moves. Supporting that, Panova & Lyster (2002) indicated that elicitation moves received the highest repair rate in their dataset. Elicitation moves require learners to pay attention to the corrective feedback and push them to correct their errors rather than mere repetition, as in recasts. Teachers participating in this research usually opted for elicitation in response to semantic errors, comprising 95% of elicitation moves. Semantic errors are the second linguistic category receiving the highest corrective feedback, elicitation, whereas phonological error is the one which received the highest number of corrective feedback, recast.

As the third most exploited corrective feedback, explicit feedback achieved student-generated repairs by 30% per cent. Due to the prominent effect of explicit feedback on learners' awareness, it calls for repairs. However, many teachers did not use explicit corrective feedback even if it is the third most common feedback in the data. Teachers usually depend on recasts for correction; maybe their lack of pedagogical knowledge or practice (coming from different majors other than English language teaching) might have left the other corrective feedback types in the dark as well. The discussion also comes to whether all errors or some errors must be disregarded for the flow of communication. Throughout the data and through repetitive errors which go uncorrected, we see that learners could not realise their mistake and receive the correct information. It is necessary

to accept that if a teacher tries to correct all errors, it might intervene with communication. However, teachers must realise that some mistakes recursively happen and if one type of corrective feedback does not help, it must be treated with other types of feedback provided that it is convenient for the cognition level of learners.

Along linguistic categories, learners had phonological errors the most and semantic, morphological errors followed them. Contrarily, young learners in French immersion classrooms in Canada (Lyster, 2001) had grammatical errors more than phonological errors. This variation might derive from the contextual and sound differences between Turkish and English, which may result in more phonological errors. Even though phonological errors were the most frequent ones in the data, semantic errors were replied to more with corrective feedback, and 39% of semantic errors received corrective feedback. On the other hand, 33 per cent of phonological errors were responded to with corrective feedback, and syntactic and morphological errors were followed by 30% and 25%. Apparently, semantic errors were given higher prominence since the classes aimed to increase interaction and meaningful exchange. However, phonological errors were not treated when they did not interfere with meaning. Syntactic and morphological errors were more difficult for learners to comprehend through embedded recasts if they have not had background knowledge of plurality, articles, verb inflection, tenses etc. These errors may also be beyond the cognition level of young learners and could be repaired through time and immense practice of correctly using the language rather than offering metalinguistic feedback alone. Also, teachers might need to be trained to build competence in treating learner errors effectively.

Though recasts make up 71% of the total corrective feedback moves leading to recasts, each correction and repair varies from one another even in the same corrective feedback moves. Numerically, it can be said that recasts are more useful in resulting in repairs; however, semantic errors could be repaired more easily once they are treated with elicitation or explicit feedback. In addition, prosodic features, non-verbal acts, and learner

factors could affect whether the corrective feedback may end with repair. In some cases, minimal pauses after and before correction, emphasis, rising intonation, embodied action like raised eyebrows, and shorter utterances might have encouraged the learners to repair more. Repetition of the corrective move in respective lines or across sessions also influenced learner repairs. Through the sequential interaction details, it is more evident that corrective feedback processes help learners to modify their language and cognitive processes may not be enough alone and each sequence is constructed by its unique participants. Overall, in line with the previous literature, the research reported the dominance of recasts among other corrective feedback types in response to the errors. Aside from the numerical differences, elicitation moves, explicit feedback and double corrective feedback moves were fruitful in learner repair.

Regarding pedagogical implications, the research also suggests that teachers might exploit different types of corrective feedback sequentially, from implicit to explicit, as in dynamic assessment. Suppose teachers are not qualified to assess which type of corrective feedback might be useful. In that case, they might be trained through in-service education to be familiar with corrective feedback and learning processes. Also, teachers may conduct action research to reflect on their own teaching practices and to check their immediate reactions to errors in order to shape their future teaching practices keeping in mind that each learning context is unique with its learners' characteristics and teachers' competencies.

Secondly, phonological and semantic errors were corrected more and resulted in more repair, whereas syntactic and morphological error correction was unsuccessful in EFL young learner speaking sessions. Looking at the teachers' practices in this research, it may be recommended that teachers may be also provided stimulated recall sessions in cooperation with a teacher trainer to develop an understanding of the young learners' level if they are cognitively equipped to understand correction in response to their errors, or which corrective feedback may benefit them more in relation to error categories. However,

individual differences resulting from their level and personal factors may call for further studies. Understanding that error correction may not interfere with learning and communication if the teacher could embed it in the interaction is significant for learners' further language development.

**References**

Akiyama, Y. and Saito, K. (2016). Development of comprehensibility and its linguistic correlates: A longitudinal study of video-mediated telecollaboration. *The Modern Language Journal, 100*: 585-609. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12338

Alastuey, M. C. B. (2013). Synchronous-voice computer-mediated communication: Effects on pronunciation. *CALICO Journal, 28*(1): 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.28.1.1-20

Ammar, A. (2008). Prompts and recasts: Differential effects on second language morphosyntax. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(2): 183-210.

Arroyo, D.C. and Yilmaz, Y. (2018). An open for replication study: The role of feedback timing in synchronous computer-mediated communication. *Language Learning, 68*: 942-972. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12300

Balaman, U. (2019). Sequential organization of hinting in online task-oriented L2 interaction. *Text & Talk*, *39*(4), 511-534. https://doi.org/10.1515/text-2019-2038

Bower, J., and Kawaguchi, S. (2011). Negotiation of meaning and corrective feedback in Japanese/English eTandem. *Language Learning & Technology, 15*(1): 41–71.

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. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168814563200

Bryfonski, L., and Ma, X. (2020). Effects of implicit versus explicit corrective feedback on Mandarin tone acquisition in a SCMC learning environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 42*(1): 61-88. doi:10.1017/S0272263119000317

Carroll, S., and Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback: An empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalisations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15*(3): 357-386. doi:10.1017/S0272263100012158

Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. *Language Learning, 27*(1): 29-46.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures.* Mouton.

Dlaska, A., and Krekeler, C. (2013). The short-term effects of individual corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation. *System, 41*(1): 25-37.

Egi, T. (2007). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The roles of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 29*(4): 511-537. doi:10.1017/S0272263107070416

Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y., and Yamazaki, A. (1994). Classroom Interaction, Comprehension, and the Acquisition of L2 Word Meanings. *Language Learning*, *44*(3), 449-491. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01114.x

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., and Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning: 51:* 281-318. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00156

Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*: 83-107. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264512

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

Ellis, R., and Sheen, Y. (2006). Reexamining the role of recasts in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(4): 575-600. doi:10.1017/S027226310606027X

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. (L2 Journal) *eScholarship,* University of California.

Eskildsen, S. W., and Wagner, J. (2015). Embodied L2 construction learning. *Language Learning, 65*(2): 268–297. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12106

Fasel Lauzon, V., and Pekarek Doehler, S. (2013). Focus on form as a joint accomplishment: An attempt to bridge the gap between focus on form research and

conversation analytic research on SLA. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 51*(4). doi:10.1515/iral-2013-0014

Göksu, A. (2014). *The effects of corrective feedback on the grammar acquisition of young learners through the focus-on form instruction in an EFL context.* (Publication No. 366229). [Doctoral dissertation, Gazi University]. Ulusal Tez Merkezi [National Theses Center]. https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/tezDetay.jsp?id=yoRuvr2IYe6Au3lJ-nO4ng&no=k6gGWZ7kq3VgylQJrvkeaA

Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In. G. Lerner (Eds.), *Conversation analysis, studies form first generation* (pp.13–34). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Jung Y, Kim Y, Lee H, Cathey R, Carver J, and Skalicky S. (2019). Learner perception of multimodal synchronous computer-mediated communication in foreign language classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, 23*(3): 287-309. doi:10.1177/1362168817731910

Kartchava, E., and Ammar, A. (2014). The noticeability and effectiveness of corrective feedback in relation to target type*. Language Teaching Research, 18*(4): 428–452. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519373

Kim Y., Choi B., Kang S., Kim B., and Yun H. (2020). Comparing the effects of direct and indirect synchronous written corrective feedback: Learning outcomes and students' perceptions. *Foreign Language Annals, 53*:176–199. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12443

Koshik, I. (2002). Designedly incomplete utterances: A pedagogical practice for eliciting knowledge displays in error correction sequences. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 35*(3): 277-309.

Kunitz, S. and Marian, K.S. (2017). Tracking immanent language learning behavior over time in task-based classroom work. *TESOL Q, 51*: 507-535. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.389

Lai, C. and Zhao, Y. (2006). Noticing and text-based chat. *Language Learning & Technology, (10)*3: 102–120. http://dx.doi.org/10125/44077

Lazaraton, A. (2009). Discourse analysis. In Heigham, J., Croker, R.A. (Eds.), *Qualitative research in applied linguistics* (pp. 242-259). Palgrave Macmillan, London. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230239517_12a

Lee, L. (2001). Online interaction: Negotiation of meaning and strategies used among learners of Spanish. *ReCALL, 13*(2): 232-244. doi:10.1017/S0958344001000829a

Lee, J. J. (2021). Spoken classroom discourse. In Friginal E. & Hardy J. A. (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of corpus approaches to discourse analysis* (pp. 82-97). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429259982

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 60*: 309-365. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x

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

Li, H. L., and Iwashita, N. (2019). The role of recasts and negotiated prompts in an FL learning context in China with non-English major university students. *Language Teaching Research.*

Lilja, N. (2014). Partial repetitions as other-initiations of repair in second language talk: Re-establishing understanding and doing learning. *Journal of Pragmatics, 71*: 98–116.

Loewen, S. (2004). Uptake in incidental focus on form in meaning-focused ESL lessons. *Language Learning, 54*(1), 153-188. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00251.x

Loewen, S. and Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *The Modern Language Journal, 90*: 536-556. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00465.x

Loewen, S. (2012). The role of feedback. In S. M. Gass and A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. London: Routledge.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. J. Bahtia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-68). New York: Academic Press.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*(1): 37-66. doi:10.1017/S0272263197001034

Lyster, R. (1998a). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 20*(1): 51-81. doi:10.1017/S027226319800103X

Lyster, R. (1998b). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning, 48*: 183–218.

Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning, 51*: 265-301. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001.tb00019.x

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 26*(3): 399-432. doi:10.1017/S0272263104263021

Lyster, R., and Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(2): 269-300. doi:10.1017/S0272263106060128

Lyster, R., and Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning: a Journal of Research in Language Studies, 59*, 2, 453-498.

Lyster, R., and Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2): 265-302. doi:10.1017/S0272263109990520

Mackey, A., and Oliver, R. (2002). Interactional feedback and children's L2 development. *System, 30*(4), 459-477. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(02)00049-0

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

Mackey, A., Al-Khalil M., Atanassova, G., Hama M., Logan-Terry A., and Nakatsukasa K. (2007). Teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions about corrective feedback in the L2 classroom. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*:1, 129-152, DOI: 10.2167/illt047.0

Markee, N. and Kunitz, S. (2013). Doing planning and task performance in second language acuisition: An ethnomethodological respecification. *Language Learning, 63* (4), 629–664.

McHugh M. L. (2012). Interrater reliability: The kappa statistic. *Biochemia Medica*, 22, 276–282. https://doi.org/10.11613/BM.2012.031

Miles M. B., and Huberman A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Sage.

Nagata, N. (1993). Intelligent computer feedback for second language instruction. *The Modern Language Journal*, *77*(3): 330-339. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1993.tb01980.x

Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 57*: 511-548. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00427.x

Nassaji, H. (2017). The effectiveness of extensive versus intensive recasts for learning L2 grammar. *The Modern Language Journal, 101*: 353-368. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12387

Netz, H., and Fogel, O. (2019). Input-providing vs. output-pushing corrective feedback in dyadic tutoring sessions. *System, 87.*

O'Connor, C., and Joffe, H. (2020). Intercoder Reliability in Qualitative Research: Debates and Practical Guidelines. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 19. https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406919899220

Oliver, R. and Mackey, A. (2003). Interactional context and feedback in child ESL classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal, 87*: 519-533. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00205

Panova, I., and Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*: 573-595. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588241

Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on "Noticing the gap": Nonnative speakers' noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*(1): 99-126. doi:10.1017/S0272263103000044

Rassaei, E. (2017). Video chat vs. face-to-face recasts, learners' interpretations and L2 development: a case of Persian EFL learners. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 30*(1-2): 133-148. doi: 10.1080/09588221.2016.1275702

Sagarra, N. and Abbuhl, R. (2013). Optimizing the noticing of recasts via computer-delivered feedback: Evidence that oral input enhancement and working memory help second language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 97*: 196-216. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.01427.x

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. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x

Sato, M., and Lyster, R. (2012). Peer interaction and corrective feedback for accuracy and fluency development: Monitoring, practice, and proceduralization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 34*(4): 591-626. doi:10.1017/S0272263112000356

Sato, M. (2013). Beliefs about peer interaction and peer corrective feedback: Efficacy of classroom intervention. *The Modern Language Journal, 97*: 611-633. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12035.x

Sato, M. and Loewen, S. (2018). Metacognitive instruction enhances the effectiveness of corrective feedback: Variable effects of feedback types and linguistic targets. *Language Learning, 68*: 507-545. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12283

Sauro, S. (2009). Computer-mediated corrective feedback and the development of L2 grammar. *Language Learning and Technology, 13*(1): 96-120.

Schegloff, E., Jefferson, G., and Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language, 53*(2): 361-382.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*: 129-158.

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

Seedhouse, P. (2004). Conversation analysis methodology. *Language Learning, 54*: 1-54. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00268.x

Sert, O. (2017). Creating opportunities for L2 learning in a prediction activity. *System, 70*: 14-25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.08.008

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

Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research, 10(*4): 361–392. https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168806lr203oa

Shintani, N. (2016). The effects of computer-mediated synchronous and asynchronous direct corrective feedback on writing: a case study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 29*(3): 517-538, DOI: 10.1080/09588221.2014.993400

Shintani, N. and Aubrey, S. (2016). The effectiveness of synchronous and asynchronous written corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy in a computer-mediated environment. *The Modern Language Journal, 100*: 296-319. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12317

Sinclair, J. M., and Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

Smith, B. (2003). Computer–mediated negotiated interaction: An expanded model. *The Modern Language Journal*, *87*(1): 38-57. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00177

Smith, B. (2004). Computer-mediated negotiated interaction and lexical acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *26*(3): 365-398. doi:10.1017/S027226310426301X

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA.: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in the study of language* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yanguas, I. (2010). Oral computer-mediated interaction between L2 learners: It's about time! *Language Learning and Technology, 14*(3): 72-93.

Yanguas, I. (2012). Task-based oral computer-mediated communication and L2 vocabulary acquisition. *Calico Journal, 29*(3): 507-531.

Yilmaz, Y. (2012). The relative effects of explicit correction and recasts on two target structures via two communication modes. *Language Learning, 62*: 1134-1169. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00726.x

Yuksel, D., and Inan, B. (2014). The effects of communication mode on negotiation of meaning and its noticing. *Recall, 26*(3): 333-354.

Zhao, Y., and Ellis, R. (2020). The relative effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on the acquisition of 3rd person -s by Chinese university students: A classroom-based study. *Language Teaching Research.*

Ziegler, N. (2016). Synchronous computer-mediated communication and interaction: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 38*(3): 553-586. doi:10.1017/S027226311500025X

## APPENDIX-A: Jefferson (2004) Transcription Convention

| | |
|---|---|
| [] | Overlapping utterances – (beginning [) and (end]) |
| = | Contiguous utterances (or continuation of the same turn) |
| (0.5) | Represent the tenths of a second between utterances |
| (.) | Represents a micro-pause (1 tenth of a second or less) |
| : | Elongation (more colons demonstrate longer stretches of sound) |
| | An abrupt stop in articulation |
| CAPITAL | Loud/forte speech |
| __ | Underline letters/words indicate accentuation |
| ↑↓ | Marked upstep/downstep in intonation |
| °° | Surrounds quieter talk |
| hhh | Exhalations |
| .hhh | Inhalations |
| heh heh | Laugh particle |
| (hhh) | Laughter within a word (can also represent audible aspirations) |
| >> | The action described begins before the excerpt's beginning. |
| >< | Surrounds talk that is spoken faster |
| <> | Surrounds talk that is spoken slower |
| (()) | Analyst notes |
| () | Approximations of what is heard |

## APPENDIX-B: Extracts of ‘Play’ Verb Inflection

Extract 1, 2022-05-05, Ayse, Nina (Learner,teacher)

1 Amalia: i'm very well also thank you so much for asking i'm teacher nina .hhh how was your day today ayse (.) what did you do
2 (4.5)
3 Amalia: ↑hum
4 (2.9)
5 Ayse: i'm going
6 (1.2)
7 Ayse: i'm playing with my (0.7) /kʊzən/ (0.5) [/kʊzɪn/
8 Amalia: [u::hm (.) you played with your /kʌzə:nz/ very well (0.5) .hhh what did you play
9 (3.9)
10 Ayse: played something
11 Amalia: oka::y

Extract 2, 2022-05-28, Ayse, Eliza (Learner, teacher)

1 Eliza: what did you do today
2 Ayse: i played with my sister and i go to the school
3 Eliza: uh-hm so how was school

Extract 3, 2022-05-30, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Reem: aha you enjoyed it very nice a:nd (.) tell me: u:h what did you do today apart from school did you play with your frie:nds or outside hum
2 Ayse: i played with my friends in the school
3 Reem: in the school awesome that’s very nice ayse did you study your icall lesson
4 Ayse: yeah

Extract 4, 2022-06-06, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Reem: thank you so much i'm also good it's nice to see you again how was your day hum
2 Ayse: i pl- i go to school i played with my sister
3 Reem: uh you played with your sister very nice how was it at school did you have fun

Extract 5, 2022-06-20, Ayse, Mary (Learner, teacher)

1 Mary: okay what else did you do
2 Ayse: and i played with my friends

Extract 6, 2022-06-22, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)

1 Reem: okay that's great tell me how was your day ayse
2 Ayse: i am playing with my sister i go to the math lesson
3 Reem: uhm-hm it was fun
4 Ayse: yeah

Extract 7, 2022-06-29, Ayse, Mary (Learner, teacher)

1 Mary: pretty good thank you for asking how was your day what were you doing today
2 Ayse: i go to the park i play with my sister
3 Mary: [uh-hm
4 Ayse: [i'm work/ət/ my homeworks

## APPENDIX-C: Pronunciation of The Word ‘Favorite’ Across Sessions

Extract 1, 2022-05-05, Ayse, Amalia (Learner, teacher)

1 Amalia: excellent very well what is your favorite day ayse

2 Ayse: my favorite my eye my my favorite day is

6 lines later

3 Amalia: huh-hm okay very well a:nd what is your least favorite day

4 Amalia: the day that you don't like [very much

5 Ayse: [my /les/

6 Amalia: uh-hm

7 Ayse: my /lʌst/ /fʌvɔːrɪt/ day is sunday

8 Amalia: uh-hm

9 Ayse: because you goining going school

10 Amalia: o:kay and which day at school is your favorite

11 Ayse: i don’t have fav- i don’t have favorite

12 Amalia: huh-hm

13 Ayse: favorite school day

Extract 2, 2022-05-12, Ayse, Amalia (Learner, teacher)

1 Amalia: what is your favorite time in a day for example morning evening [afternoon
2 Ayse: [my fav-
3 Amalia: uh-hm
4 Ayse: my favorite time is eh morning

Extract 3, 2022-05-30, Ayse, Reem (Student, teacher)

1 Reem: tell me what is your favorite activity ayse
2 Ayse: my favorite activity is play volleyball [volleyball
3 Reem: [uh-hm is playing volleyball why
4 Reem: humm why do you like playing volleyball
5 Ayse: yeah my /fʌvɔːrɪt/
6 Reem: that’s your favorite sport huh
7 Ayse: yeah

Extract 4, 2022-06-08, Ayse, Mary (Learner, teacher)

1 Mary: [aha
2 Ayse: [example my favorite season of the year is winter
3 Mary: uh-hmm okay good what about uh let's see: what abou:t length

Extract 5, 2022-06-29, Ayse, Mary (Learner, teacher)
1 Mary: so let's look at the first question please describe your favorite items by using possessive adjectives
2 Mary: uh-hm

3 Ayse: my favorite my favorite /ɪ/- /ˈaɪ.təmz/ is a toy u:hm a lego

## APPENDIX-D: The Inflection of The Verb ‘Go’ in Simple Past Tense I

Extract 1, 2022-05-12, Ayse, Amalia, (Learner, teacher)

```
1     Amalia: i'm very well thank you so much for asking how was your
day ayse
2             (3.3)
3     Ayse:   i’m
4             (3.1)
5     Ayse:   i'm going
6     (1.2)
7     Ayse:   i'm go
8     (1.1)
9     Ayse:   go to
10    (1.0)
11    Ayse:   +the pool-->
     amalia  +raises eyebrows->
12            (2.5)+
     amalia   ----+
13    Amalia:  o::h you went to the pool lovely very well (0.9) .hhh
o:kay a::nd (.) .hhh u::h did you have fun
14    Ayse:    yea:h
```

Extract 2, 2022-05-30, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)

```
1     Reem: hello: okay hey hi ayse how are you (0.6)
2     Ayse: i'm fine thank you and you (0.8)
3     Reem: thank you so: much i'm also fine (.) it's nice to see you
again (0.9) how was your day hum
4          (2.8)
5     Ayse: i go to the school
6          (1.3)
7     Reem: ∘ah you went to∘ school ↑really how was it hum
8          (3.0)
```

Extract 3, 2022-06-08, Ayse, Mary (Learner, teacher)

```
1     Mary: pretty good thank you for asking (0.5) .hhh how was your
day what did you do today
2          (3.2)
3     Ayse: i (0.8)  i go to school (.)
4     Mary: ∘huh-hmm∘ ↑you went to school oka:y
5          (1.3)
6     Mary: what else did you do
```

Extract 4, 2022-06-29, Ayse, Reem (Learner, teacher)

```
1     Reem: hello:
2     Ayse: hello
3     Reem: how are you ayse
4     Ayse: i'm fine thank you and you (0.9)
5     Reem: thank you so much i'm also good (0.5) it's nice to see you
again (0.5) how was your day
6          (1.5)
7     Ayse: i go to the pool (0.8)
8     Reem: you went to the pool and how was the pool was it fun hmm
9     Ayse: yeah
```

## APPENDIX-E: The Inflection of The Verb ‘Go’ in Simple Past Tense II

Extract 1, 2022-05-10, Bera, Alex (Learner, teacher)

1 Bera: teacher i am going to the school today
2 Alex: u:h i went to school i [went i when you say i'm going
3 Bera: [yes
4 Alex: to school you're going now and it's 9 00 p.m in turkey right so see that's why tenses are important i went to school
5 Bera: yes
6 Alex: what else did you [do
7 Bera: [okay
8 (2.0)
9 Bera: teacher i am went go to the teacher tennis

Extract 2, 2022-05-19, Bera, Kate (Learner, teacher)
1 Bera: you teacher i am going to school today
2 Kate: huh you went to school today a::nd how was it at your school did you have good time
3 Bera: yes good time

Extract 3, 2022-05-19, Bera, Kate (Learner, teacher)
3 lines later
1 Kate: okay very well and how about the weekend what did you do on the weekend
2 (3.3)
3 Bera: u::m
4 (2.4)
5 Bera: teacher (0.7) i am going to te- i am went
6 (1.4)
7 Bera: i am went tennis
8 (1.8)
9 Kate: huh oh you went to play tennis okay

Extract 4, 2022-05-21, Bera, Mary (Learner, teacher)

1 Mary: pretty good thank you for asking how was your day
2 Bera: teacher i am going to school day
3 Mary: oh you went to school okay but you know today is friday and tomorrow we have weekend do you have any plans for the weekend

Extract 5, 2022-06-02

1 Hira: i'm good thank you so much how was your day did you have a good day
2 Bera: teacher yes good day [teacher i'm went to school day
3 Hira: [hmm
4 Hira: very good you went to school o:kay
5 (4.3)
6 Hira: uhm

# APPENDIX-F: Ethics Committee Approval

Tarih: 29/03/2022 13:12
Sayı: E-35853172-399-00002108464
00002108464

**T.C.**
**HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ**
**Rektörlük**

Sayı : E-35853172-399-00002108464 29.03.2022
Konu : Seher TANBOĞA Hk. (Etik Komisyon İzni)

**EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE**

İlgi : 03.03.2022 tarihli ve E-51944218-399-00002071045 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden **Seher TANBOĞA**'nın **Prof. Dr. Hatice Hande UYSAL** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü **"Çevrimiçi Birebir Yabancı Dil Sınıflarında Ortaya Çıkan Sözlü Geribildirim Teknikleri ve Düzeltme Yöntemleri"** başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **22 Mart 2022** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Vural GÖKMEN
Rektör Yardımcısı

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu: 5D131DF3-E18B-4D67-9108-96A8F7129DF4 Belge Doğrulama Adresi: https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/hu-ebys

Adres: Hacettepe Üniversitesi Rektörlük 06100 Sıhhiye-Ankara
E-posta:yazimd@hacettepe.edu.tr İnternet Adresi: www.hacettepe.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ: www.hacettepe.edu.tr
Telefon: 0 (312) 305 3001-3002 Faks:0 (312) 311 9992
Kep: hacettepeuniversitesi@hs01.kep.tr
Bilgi için: Duygu Didem İLERİ
Memur
Telefon: .

## APPENDIX-G: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that…

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

(27) /(07)/(2023)

Seher Tanboğa

# APPENDIX-H: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

27/07/2023

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title: Oral Corrective Feedback & Repair Techniques in Dyadic Online EFL Young Learner Speaking Lessons

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

| Time Submitted | Page Count | Character Count | Date of Thesis Defense | Similarity Index | Submission ID |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27/07/2023 | 93 | 154534 | 15/06/2023 | 8% | 2137500489 |

Filtering options applied:
1. Bibliography excluded
2. Quotes included
3. Match size up to 5 words excluded

I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

**Name Lastname:** Seher Tanboğa

**Student No.:** N20139040 Signature

**Department:** Foreign Language Education

**Program:** English Language Education

**Status:** ☒ Masters ☐ Ph.D. ☐ Integrated Ph.D.

**ADVISOR APPROVAL**

APPROVED
Prof. Hacer Hande Uysal

# APPENDIX-I: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım haklan bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "**Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına ilişkin Yönerge**" kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- o Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. (1)
- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren … ay ertelenmiştir. (2)
- o Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. (3)

27 /07 /2023

(imza)

Seher TANBOĞA

---

*"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"*

*(1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü Üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.*

*(2) Madde 6. 2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanın önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.*

*(3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir*. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü Üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.*

*Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir*

**Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.*