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Analysis and Treatment of Oral Errors in Language Classrooms: A case from EAL Context

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Abstract

This study focuses on types and frequency of learner errors in a speaking class offered at a foreign language education department in Turkey. The types and rate of feedback provided by the teacher, the distribution of feedback for each type of learner error were observed, and the relation between types of feedback and uptake rate were also investigated within the scope of this study. By following a case study methodology and through non-participant observation, 400 minutes of classroom audio were obtained for the data collection process. For the analysis of data, the recordings were transcribed and subjected to coding and frequency analysis. Error Treatment Sequence framework, proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was followed throughout this study. The findings indicated that grammatical and phonological errors were the most frequently observed error types. Furthermore, explicit feedback was found to be the most recurring type of feedback throughout the data. Analysis showed that for the treatment of lexical errors, recasts and clarification requests were utilized while for the correction of phonological errors explicit and metalinguistic feedback were provided. Moreover, clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback were found to be the highest uptake and repair generators.

Keywords

EAL, Learner Errors, Error Treatment, Types Of Errors, Types Of Feedback, Uptake

Learning a language requires remarkable amount of effort and study. Besides other elements (such as input, output, and intake) errors are considered to be the inherent part of language learning. Although the learners try to avoid errors and the language teachers try to correct them, the errors are natural outcomes of language learning. The literature on error analysis in English language teaching is quite rich in terms of effort and time spent on the research; yet, the results obtained are not conclusive as to what type (s) of feedback are more valuable to treat or prevent errors (Roothoft, 2014). As pointed out

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by Fanselow (1977), some researchers focused on the identification of error causes; others examined how the errors should be handled by the teachers. Errors are seen as an inseparable part of language learning process and analyzing errors helps language teachers to better see their learners' language development and the gap between the students' interlanguage and the target language (Erdoğan, 2005). Although regarded as important contributors, learner errors are also considered to be "aberrations" that are to be avoided at all times (Fanselow, 1977). Thus, defining what error is also controversial in the literature.

Chaudron (1986) stated that defining what error is a "difficult process" since the definition is context bound. In other words, determination of learner errors depends on the course objectives and aims, the goals of the teachers, purpose of language learning and prior language learning experiences. For instance, George (1972) defined error as "an unwanted form, specifically, a form which a particular course designer or teacher does not want" (p. 2). This definition is rather limited in the sense that it does not provide any specific criterion to be used to evaluate an utterance. Other researchers defined learner errors in different ways, for example, Corder (1974) defined error as nonconformity of learners' utterances to the correct grammar rules. This definition entails that an utterance can be regarded as an error or not based on a set of linguistic rules. It implies checking the utterance against certain linguistic rules. Contrariwise, Ellis (1985) argued that it is not possible to directly evaluate what occurs in the minds of the students. Thus, he proposed that "the utterances that the learner produces are treated as windows through which the internalized rule system can be viewed" (p.6) With this regard, errors are seen as the indicators of learner's language development.

The literature also focused on the feedback for the treatment of errors. Winne and Butler (1994) defined feedback as "information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune, or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, meta-cognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies" (p. 5740). As can be understood from this definition, learners can successfully interpret the provided teacher feedback and make the required correction in their utterances or can as well fail to do so. Thus, Long (1977) makes a distinction between feedback and correction. Feedback was considered to be the initial step of promoting self-correction. In order for correction to occur, the language learners are required to make hypothesis testing which directed students' to alter the underlying rule responsible for the error. Thus, every feedback does not result in correction on the part of the learner. Allwright and Bailey (1996) make this distinction as treatment and cure.

Theoretical Framework

For this study "Error treatment sequence" model by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was used. After reviewing 25 years of research on corrective feedback in language classrooms, Li and Vuono (2019) pointed out that this framework is regarded as "the milestone" in the literature and it provides a clear taxonomy for types of oral feedback that are used in language classrooms. Furthermore, this framework introduced the notion "uptake" (learners interaction with the feedback provided). Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework also provides a "convenient coding scheme" and "reliable guidance" for researchers to explore oral feedback (Li & Vuono, 2019). It is for these reasons that this framework was chosen for the purposes of this study.

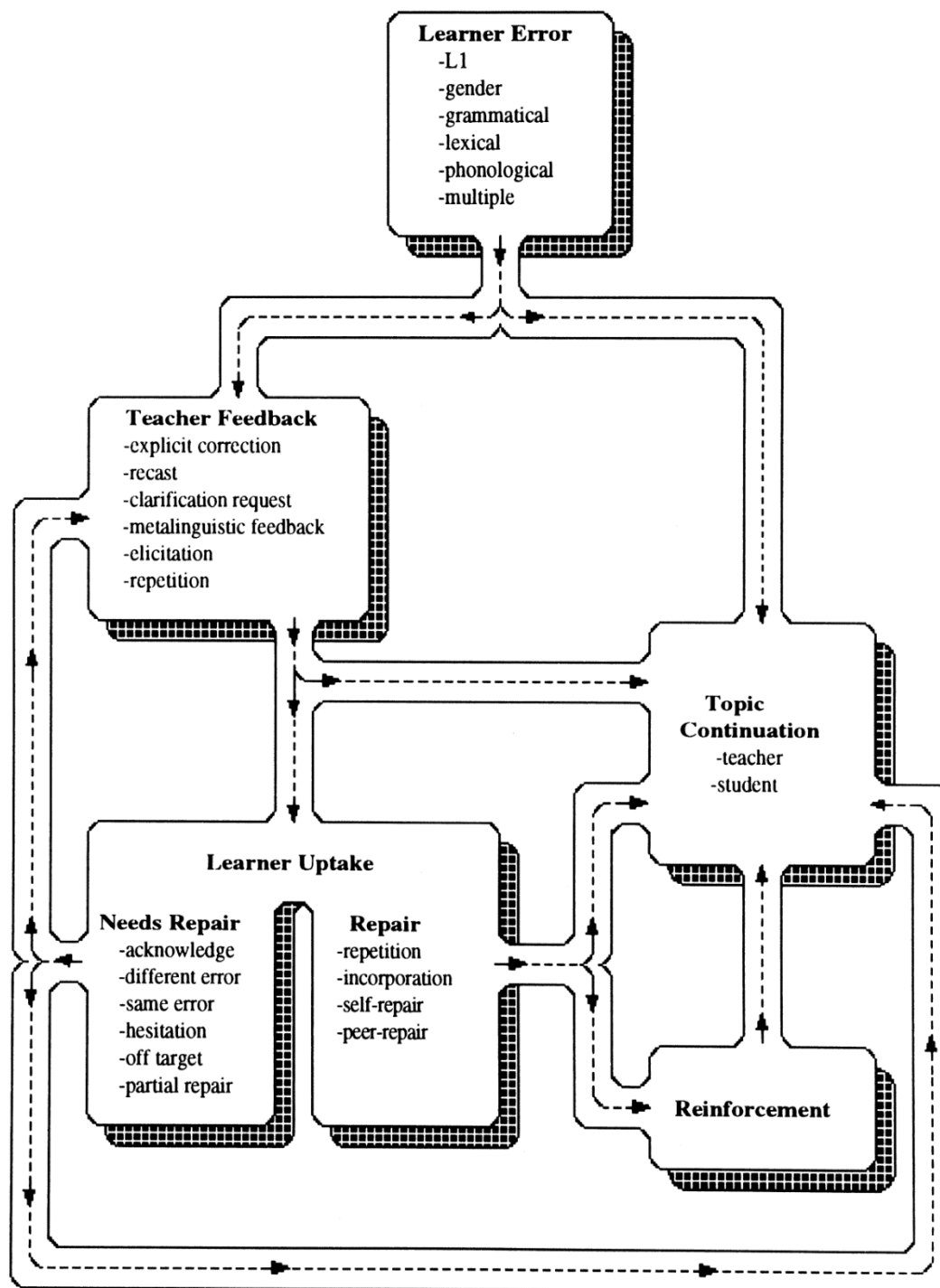


Figure 1. Error treatment sequence model adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.44).

As can be seen in Figure 1 above, the first step starts with an erroneous utterance of the learner. This utterance is either followed by the teacher’s corrective feedback or topic continuation. If the teacher gives corrective feedback it followed by either uptake or no uptake. No uptake leads to topic continuation. If there is uptake on part of the student, then the student either repairs the erroneous utterance or fails to do so. If the student fails repairing (need repair condition) the teacher may choose to provide further feedback. If the teacher does not provide any further feedback then there is topic continuation. “If and when there is repair, then it is followed either by topic

continuation or by some repair-related reinforcement provided by the teacher. Following the reinforcement, there is topic continuation.” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 45)

Identification of errors. For the purposes of this study Lyster and Ranta (1997)’s definition of error was taken as the basis. All utterances that are ill-formed, not complying with the native use were counted as errors. There are 5 types of errors categorized by Lyster and Ranta (1997): unsolicited L1 use, grammatical, lexical, phonological, and multiple errors. Since in their data showed many instances of grammatical gender errors, they created another category for these errors; however, for the purposes of this study gender category was excluded. Utterances counted as unsolicited L1 use when the students resorted to their native language. An example of this kind of utterance can be seen in the excerpt below. All the excerpts are from the data of the present study.

(The class starts with teacher greeting the students and then the discussion leaders responsible for this week take the stage. This week the class watches a short movie called “One Hundredth of a Second” at the beginning of the lesson and then the discussion leaders ask some questions about the movie. The teacher makes note of the students each time a student takes a turn in the discussion. The students’ participation grades are determined on the basis of these notes. Thus each student tries to contribute to the discussion. The teacher interferes only when there is a need for clarification. This week there are four students as discussion leaders. The names of these students are written in bold throughout the transcript. The mistakes identified are also indicated in bold in the transcript.)

Excerpt 1

T: What’s the story behind this photo?

S1: Kevin Carter uhhm... suicide ...

S3: Yes three months after his taking photos he...

S1: Winning an award..

S3: Yeah after award. And he is a South African photographer and he took this photo in South African **desert** ([dɪˈzɜrt]). There is a ehm... there is a health company that this child is away from her/ ay (Tr) his.. Her mü his mi? (Tr) His mother and Kevin Carter maybe **have** a chance to help this child but he didn’t do that. But after he won an award he committed a suicide and ehm...

As can be seen S3 uses her native language while she was giving information about the topic. She uses fillers like “ay” and question particles such as “mü” and “mi” from her native language when she is in doubt. This kind of uses of L1 were coded under this category.

Grammatical errors were another category to identify learner errors in this study. Since the study’s focus is not on the types of grammatical errors made by the students, this category was not divided into subcategories. All kinds of grammatical errors were included under this category. In the following excerpt four examples of grammatical errors can be seen.

Excerpt 2 (The names of the discussion leaders are written in bold throughout the transcript. The mistakes identified are also indicated in bold in the transcript.)

S1: This movie is directed by Susan Jacobson in 2006. And she is also one of the **writers**. Uhm stir-stars **is** uhm **Heather** ([hi:tər]) Cameron as (**-the-**) little girl, and the

journalist is Emma Cleasby. So uhm... Is there anything that **come** to you mind after watching uhm the movie? Like uhm... a photo? Or I don't know any video? (One student raises her hand and S1 gives the turn to her).

S2: I remember a photo of **a** African child.

S1: Yeah. Yes. Kevin Carter. Yeah. And that photo is kind of (**-an-**) inspiration for this movie.

In this excerpt, S1 gives a brief information about the movie they watched and asks questions related to the movie. In line 2 and in the last line, S1 forgets to use an article, in line 3 she makes an error related with subject-verb agreement. S2, on the other hand misuses the article. These kinds of errors were coded under grammatical errors category.

As for the lexical errors, the misuse of words in the given context was considered as the main criterion. For example, in excerpt 2 above, S1 misuses the word “writers” rather than saying “screenwriter” or “scenarist”.

Phonological errors were also another category used in this study. To give an example, in excerpt 3 S11 mispronounces the word “plan” with a Turkish pronunciation. After she realizes her mistake she pronounces the word correctly. In the following excerpt S3 mispronounces the word “desert” by confusing the word with “dessert” in this excerpt.

Excerpt 3 (In this excerpt the students are talking about their ideas on the most interesting scene of the movie they watched. The mistakes identified are indicated in bold in the transcript.)

S3: Yeah after award. And he is a South African photographer and he took this photo in South African **desert** ([dɪ'zɜrt]). There is a ehm... there is a health company that this child is away from her/ ay (Tr) his.. Her mü his mi? (Tr) His mother and Kevin Carter maybe **have** a chance to help this child but he didn't do that. But after he won an award he committed a suicide and ehm...

Lastly, if the error belonged to more than one category it was coded under the multiple error category. In the following excerpt, the student makes an error belonging to both phonological and grammatical categories. In line 5, S14 uses “jeopardy” instead of “jeopardizing” and she also mispronounces the word.

Excerpt 4 (In this excerpt the students are talking about their ideas on the most interesting scene of the movie they watched. The names of the discussion leaders are written in bold throughout the transcript The mistakes identified are also indicated in bold in the transcript.)

S14: The movie, it didn't affect me **because** ([bi'kaʊz]) she need her **job** ([ʒab]).

S3: Yes that's what I was gonna say. We'll come to this part.

T: She did her job but she was very upset. She couldn't stand to take the... award.

S14: But .. but if she helped her she would be **jeopardy** ([ʒepardi]). I think she...

S1: It is a different aspect of the discussion.

Identification of feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified 6 types of feedback in their study; however, this study makes use of 4 of them since the other 2 are not observed in the data. These four types of feedback are explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, and metalinguistic feedback. Explicit correction occurs when the teacher gives the correct form by directly indicating incorrect use. In the following excerpt an example of explicit correction can be seen.

Excerpt 5 (At the beginning of the lesson the class watches a short movie called “One Hundredth of a Second” and then the discussion leaders ask some questions about the movie. At this part of the lesson the students are discussing the relevant news from the world. This week there are four students as discussion leaders. The names of these students are written in bold throughout the transcript. The mistakes identified are also indicated in bold in the transcript.)

S3: And the other example you see every day. And he committed a **crime** and he ay (Tr) she was taking this video in (**-the-**) taxi. And (**-the-**) taxi driver didn't do anything.

T: He/she committed suicide, right?

S3: Yeah, what did I say?

T: Crime.

S3: Ay (Tr) sorry.

(Laughter)

In this excerpt S3 does not realize the mistake and she continues to talk about the news report. The teacher takes a turn and asks the student whether she meant “suicide”. The student sees that there must be something wrong with her previous utterance and asks the teacher what it was that she said. The teacher points out her mistake and the student apologizes. This type of feedback was coded under explicit correction category.

Recasts were another category used for feedback identification in this study. Recasts are defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as follows: “(r)ecasts involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error” (p. 46). According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), translations in response to L1 use of the learners can also be taken as recasts. In the following excerpt an example of recast can be viewed.

Excerpt 6 (In this excerpt the students are talking about their ideas on the most interesting scene of the movie they watched. The mistakes identified are indicated in bold in the transcript.)

S11: I agree with my friends. Mostly agree and I also want to add that I liked the **camera plan**. Ehm it is like left and then right and then left and I like it.

T: What do you mean?

S11: Ehm.. ee.. it is not **the** one direction but also we can see **the** her right ehm **plan ([pilan])**/ plan and then the left and this is so good I think. I can /ehm I liked the recording and yani çekimi sevdim de çekim nasıl söylenir onu bilemedim (Tr).

T: The way it was shot maybe? Because we saw the whole stage, you mean? We saw the movement of the child. That's what you mean?

S11: No no the part of the ehmm... Kate **the** Kate **making up** and the plan is so good I think. It is not the recording ehmm...

SS: (murmur on the background)

S12: Past and present?

S11: Yeah!

SS: (murmuring on the background)

S11: And also *değişiyor ya işte* (Tr)

T: Camera movement.

S11: Camera movement.

T: When she was making up? OK.

In response to S11's question in Turkish about how to say a certain utterance, the teacher provides several translations in lines 4-5. Since the student is not sure about the translation she continues to explain herself for several other turns and then she uses Turkish again. The teachers "camera movement" translation follows the utterance of the student. This is an example of recast.

Clarification requests were another type of teacher feedback identified in this study. Lyster and Ranta (1997) define clarification requests as teachers' feedback when the students' utterances have been misunderstood or when the utterances are ill-formed. By making a clarification request, the teacher indicates that the utterance needs repairing or further explanation is required. Clarification requests "*can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both*" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). In the previous excerpt, Excerpt 6, the teacher uses this type of feedback. The S11 uses "camera plan" while talking about what she liked most about the movie and the teacher asks "What do you mean?" by indicating that the utterance was not understood.

Lastly, metalinguistic feedback was also identified within the scope of this study. These types of feedback contain remarks, information or questions about the well-formedness of the student's utterance. While giving this type of feedback the teacher usually does not give the correct form explicitly. The teacher generally indicates that there is an error in the utterance implicitly. In the transcript below, there is an example for this type of feedback.

Excerpt 7 (In the second half of the lesson the teacher focuses on the common pronunciation mistakes observed in the preceding half.)

T: OK. (writes "desert" and "dessert" on the board.) This is (pointing to one of the words)? Dessert and desert. Which one is dessert? *Tatlı olan hangisi* (Tr)?

SS: ([dɪ'zɜ:t])

T: (pointing to the written word on the board) this one?

SS: Yes.

T: OK and ([dɛzərt])? Yes desert. So here (pointing "desert") the stress is on the first syllable ([dɛzərt]). In the second one it becomes a schwa ([dɛzərt]). OK? ([dɛzərt]). And (pointing to "dessert") ([dɪ'zɜ:t]). ([dɪ'zɜ:t]) here the stress is on the second syllable. ([dɪ'zɜ:t]) Yes.

In this excerpt the teacher asks the students before giving the correct pronunciation of the words “dessert” and “desert”. The teacher also uses some meta-language (such as syllable, schwa) in order to facilitate the feedback. This type of feedback was coded under meta-linguistic category.

Identification of Uptake

This study made use of the definition of uptake provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997) who defined the term in a very different sense. With this respect uptake is the learner’s immediate response to the teacher’s feedback. This response “constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher’s specific linguistic focus may not be)” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). In other words, uptake is “what the learner attempt to do with the teacher’s feedback” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). Following the teacher’s feedback, no uptake leads to topic continuation. Thus, there are two categories of uptake; repair and needs-repair. The first one results in the repair of the initial utterance the latter one indicates that the student did not correct her/his utterance. Although the afore-mentioned study divides these two uptake types into several sub-categories, since the focus of current study was on the uptake not on the types of uptake, only these two main types were considered for the purposes of this study.

Statement of the Problem

The results of meta-analysis studies conclude that corrective feedback yields fruitful improvements for language learners (Li, 2010; Li & Vuono, 2019; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007). Since the literature is yet to reach a consensus about the most efficient type of error treatment, studying error analysis and corrective feedback would yield some fruitful results and implications for English language teaching practice. As Ataş (2013) pointed out, no matter how well trained and experienced the teachers are and no matter how efficient they are at teaching the target language, learner errors are there and they need to be taken into consideration. Furthermore, although the literature on corrective feedback appears to be exhaustive, there is still no agreement on the relationship between the types of feedback provided and error treatment (Brown, 2016; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Gooch, Saito & Lyster, 2016; Lee & Lyster, 2015; Loewen & Philp, 2006). It is important to examine the classroom environment with more in-depth analysis from various contexts so as to better understand the language learning process (Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). Similarly, Margolis (2014) suggested that further studies should “design oral error feedback studies that reflect the nature of feedback in classrooms” (p.18). Thus, as indicated by the literature (Lyster & Rasta, 1997; Surakka, 2007), this study tries to address the gap in the literature about the effects of different types of feedback on learner uptake. Furthermore, Brown (2016) pointed out that there is a need for study to understand the relationship between types of errors and types of corrective feedback. For this reason, within the scope of the present study, error types and feedback types are analyzed.

Aim of the Study

The aim of the study is to investigate the frequency and type of learner errors in a speaking class offered at a foreign language education department at a public university in Turkey. The types and frequency of feedback provided by the teacher and the distribution of feedback for each error type are also within the scope of this study. In other words, by identifying the types of errors and feedback provided, this study aims to

investigate how different types of feedback enhances or hinders language learning process. In order to determine the types of feedback and learner errors Error Treatment Sequence Framework by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was followed.

Research Questions

Considering the issues argued by the literature, this study focuses on the following research questions:

- 1) What types of learner errors are observed in a speaking course offered at a foreign language department of a state university in Turkey? How frequent are these errors?
- 2) What types of different teacher feedback can be seen in this context? How frequent are these feedbacks?
- 3) What is the distribution rate of different feedback types with regards to different types of learner errors?
- 4) What is the distribution of uptake rate with regards to different types of teacher feedback?

Literature Review

It is important to examine the field of research related with the present study in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon. Upon examining the literature, it is observed that some studies focused on how the learner errors should be treated while others investigated the types of feedback and learner uptake. Therefore, this chapter includes a brief literature review of the significant studies in the field. The chapter overviews the different approaches to defining learner error, feedback provided, uptake, and also some relevant research studies that have been carried out before.

Defining Learner Errors

The term “error” has been defined in different ways by different perspectives in the literature. Hendrickson (1978) was one of the early authors to define errors: “an utterance, form, or structure that a particular language teacher deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use or its absence in real-life discourse” (p. 387). Based on this definition it can be said that errors are identified as not confronting to the native speaker forms and also regarded as ill-formed by the language teachers. Furthermore, in the earlier studies, errors were regarded as evil. Brooks (1960) stated that “like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence to be accepted” (p. 58). Although, all teachers want their students to “avoid” these evil errors, how to achieve this is still a question that is yet to be answered. On the other hand, Allwright and Bailey (1991) defined error as “a form unwanted by the teacher” (p. 85), which implies that it is the teacher who is the authority in identifying and treating the error. In order to achieve this, the teacher should be able to identify both unsuitable (within a specific context or content) and grammatically incorrect utterances.

Furthermore, some researchers believe that a mistake and an error are different terms. As argued by Erdoğan (2005), mistakes stem from performance related problems such as tiredness, lack of attention, and carelessness while errors occur because of competency related issues such as the incomplete knowledge of the correct form and hence, cannot be self-corrected. Likewise, Ellis (1997) suggested that mistakes can be indicator of the consistency of a learner’s performance. If a learner sometimes uses the correct form and some other times the deviant form, then it is considered as a mistake.

However, if the learner uses the form in a wrong way all the time, then it is labeled as an error. For the purposes of this study, this differentiation was not taken into the consideration.

Upon considering all different approaches to the definition of the term, Chaudron (1986)'s description of error was used for the current study. This definition states that:

- (1) an objective evaluation of linguistic or content errors according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual of facts, and
- (2) any additional linguistic or other behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected (Chaudron, 1986, p. 67).

This definition considers both the well-formedness of an utterance in terms of linguistic and grammatical rules, and the authority of language teacher in the class. As argued by Surakka (2007), some errors are not in line with the grammar rules of the target language and some errors are context bound (i.e. the topic of the lesson, the activities) and thus can only be judged by the teacher. It is for this reason that this definition was used in the current study.

Defining Corrective Feedback

When talking about learner errors, there is a concept that comes along with it which is corrective feedback. Surakka (2007) argued that there are several terms in use for feedback giving procedure on oral errors. Error correction, error treatment, corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback have been used in the literature. (Surakka, 2007). Although each of these terms may appear to be slightly linked, they are all a part of the whole feedback process. Negative evidence or negative feedback identified as “the input that tells learners what is not possible or grammatical in the target language” (Sheen, 2004, p. 296). Hence, the aim of this type of feedback is to provide learners with what is not possible in the target language. On the other hand, corrective feedback can be regarded as another type of negative feedback in the sense that it is “any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect” (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.171). Furthermore, the literature suggests that feedback can only provide information about the correctness of an utterance, and thus it does not necessarily result in correction (Ellis, 1994). Lyster (1998) pointed out the benefit of corrective feedback by saying that it “allows learners to actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypothesis about the target language, and “provides opportunities for learners to proceduralize target-language knowledge that has already been internalized in declarative form” (Lyster, 1998, 53). Another source referred to corrective feedback as “teacher and peer responses to learners’ erroneous second language (L2) production” (Li, 2014, 196). This definition underlines the fact that corrective feedback can be provided by the teacher and by other learners as well. Surakka (2007) argued that corrective feedback indicates the response of the teacher addressed to a learner error; however, the term does not propose any inferences for the actual language learning process. Along the same lines, Karaazmak (2018) carried out a quasi-experimental study to see the effect of error correction on student achievement. The results of the study revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups. On the other hand, some meta-analyses studies claimed that corrective feedback has positive influence for the acquisition of target grammar structures (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006) since it helps learners to realize their errors and provides negative feedback.

Defining Uptake

Similar to error and corrective feedback, the notion of uptake has been defined from a variety of perspectives in the literature as well. In a broader sense uptake happens when a learner's utterance follows the teacher feedback (Surakka, 2007). Similarly, Allwright (1984) suggested that uptake can be regarded as the claim of learners about what they have acquired at the end of the language learning process. Since there is a discrepancy between the observable behavior of the students and the actual learning process, this definition is rather problematic. Ellis, Basturkmen, Loewen (2001), on the other hand, defined uptake as an "optional" student move following the teacher feedback. Moreover, Ellis et al. (2001) also suggested that, successful uptake can be exhibited by the students' correct use of the form. However, as stated by the same research, correct usage does not ensure acquisition of the feature in question. Although, it is not the case that uptake equals acquisition in language learning; Ellis et al. (2001) indicated that uptake may enhance language learning process. This study utilizes the definition of uptake provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997). According to their definition uptake is the immediate response of a student following the teacher feedback provided. They categorize uptake into two: uptake that results in repair and uptake that needs repair. This explanation of uptake is examined in detail in the Methodology section.

Related Research

There is a vast number of studies on error analysis in the literature some of which focused on the types of learner errors (Coskun, 2010; Surakka, 2007; Taipele, 2012), types of teacher feedback (Coskun, 2010; Gooch, Saito & Lyster, 2016; Seferoglu, 2008; Surakka, 2007; Taipale, 2012;), while others examined whether the type of feedback provided had any effect on the uptake rate (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Esmaili & Behnam, 2014; Gooch, Saito, & Lyster, 2016; Lee & Lyster, 2015; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Karaazmak, 2018). Although the research is varied in terms of context and participants, the results of these studies are still not conclusive.

In the late 1970s, Hendrickson (1978) provided a list of questions about error analysis which were taken as basis for many pioneering studies in the field (Fanselow, 1977; Chaudron, 1988; Allwright & Bailey, 1991). The five questions which still are the topic of studies conducted today, are as follows:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors? (Hendrickson 1978, p. 389)

Fanselow (1977) conducted a study in order to investigate how the errors should be corrected and which types of errors should receive treatment. In his study, Fanselow worked with eleven experienced ESL teachers. Each teacher received the same teaching material and lesson plan and was asked to teach the lesson in one of their classes. The lessons were video-taped and then transcribed for the analysis. The results of the study revealed that grammatical errors were least likely to be treated (33% chance of treatment). On the other hand, content based errors were found to be most likely to be treated (94% chance of treatment). Fanselow (1977) suggested that when an error is made, the teacher will discuss the error in classroom tasks to enhance learning into long-term memory. The aim of these tasks is to expand the learners' discovery of the

errors they make, and to illustrate that correcting errors is not only about eliminating errors, but also about teaching the language patterns to the students.

In his study, Chaudron (1988) listed various types of corrective feedback: expansions, repetitions, recasts, elicitation (prompt), clarification requests and confirmation checks. Besides, Chaudron (1988) suggested that providing feedback may not lead to any further corrections, and it is hard to observe the correction. The learners may not be aware of the fact that they made an error and they received feedback from teacher, thus considered as problematic concepts by Chaudron.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) reviewed some frameworks of error treatment and corrective feedback suggested by scholars (such as Chaudron, 1987; Fanselow 1977). They stated that the most important part of providing feedback is the difficulty that the teacher face while trying to address the learner errors properly. Additionally, Allwright and Bailey (1991) stated that not all the learner errors are treated by the teachers. They also argued that the teachers possess “a wide variety of techniques available for the treatment of errors, but they do not typically make full use of the repertoire of behaviors from which they might choose in providing feedback” (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.100). This argument indicates that the teachers may need further training on the types of feedback available for their use in the classroom.

More recent studies also focused on finding some answers to questions asked initially by Hendrickson (1978). Lyster and Ranta (1997) proposed an error analysis framework based on the database they created for their study. They collected data from four French immersion classes at the primary level in Canada. They created a database of 100 hours of audio-recordings from a variety of lessons in four grade 4 classroom and two grade 6 classrooms across two different school boards. For their study, the researchers examined 18.3 hours of data. The aims of the study were to investigate the types of feedback occurring in the communicatively oriented classrooms and to determine the distribution of uptake in relation to different types of feedback. The results of the study revealed that the teachers had a tendency to use recasts frequently although recasts were found as inefficient for generating student initiated repair. They also found that elicitation, meta-linguistic feedback, clarification requests and repetition were more successful in generating student initiated repair and thus, what authors call negotiation of form. Based on these results the researchers established an error analysis framework which is presented in detail in the Introduction section.

Another study was conducted by Surakka (2007) by using the framework mentioned above. The purpose of this study was to identify English language lessons where the teacher used a variety of corrective feedback means. In addition, the study investigated learner uptake and repair with regards to each feedback type observed in the data. The data was collected from primary education students aged 9-12 in Finland. The same students were subjected to 4 years of longitudinal observation. The data was gathered from 48 EFL lessons and was video-recorded. The results of this study showed that the teachers responded to students' erroneous utterances often implicitly, by means of recasts (34.7%) with the highest percentage. The results of the study also revealed that the students were able to initiate self-repair more than half of the time (52%).

Taipale (2012), studied error analysis with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework as well. This study, too, was conducted in a Finnish context. Similar to the previous study, this research also focused on the identification of different types of feedback the

teachers use in language classrooms. Likewise, uptake and repair rate of the language learners was also examined. The data was collected at two high school level language classes with 29 students and 2 teachers. Overall, 5.5 hours of video-recording was used in the study. The results showed that the teachers were diverse in the way they utilized types of feedback they provided in their classrooms. 70% of the time, the teachers corrected the learners' errors via implicit feedback or recasts. The researcher also noted that another frequently used technique of giving feedback was translating Finnish into English.

For the relationship between recasts and language development, in their study Gooch, Saito and Lyster (2016) examined the effect of recasts and prompts on EFL pronunciation skills in controlled and spontaneous tasks. Their main focus was development of English /ɪ/ by Korean adult learners which is identified as problematic for the mentioned learner group. For data collection they video recorded the classes and then they coded the data to identify recasts and prompts provided by the teachers. The results of the study revealed that recasts were really helpful in developing controlled production of /ɪ/, while prompts were helpful at both controlled and spontaneous production of /ɪ/.

Similarly, Loewen and Philp (2006) specifically examined recasts as corrective feedback. Their study was about different types of recasts, implicitness and explicitness of recasts and if there was any relationship between success rate and type of recasts provided. The participants of the study were 12 teachers and 118 learners studying at a language school in Australia. They collected data through observation and voice recording. After the transcription and coding of data, they found that recasts compose half of the feedback given in language classrooms observed. They concluded that recasts has 50% uptake rate.

Again, by utilizing Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework, Coskun (2010) carried out a classroom research where he observed his own error correction patterns. The participants were the teacher (i.e. the researcher himself), and 30 students with beginner level English. The researcher video recorded 12 minute of a class and then analyzed the data. The results revealed that the most frequent error type was grammatical errors. The teacher claims that he provided corrective feedback for each of the errors immediately and that the feedback resulted in correction. Another point mentioned in this study is the most frequent type of corrective feedback. The analysis showed that the researcher utilized repetition and metalinguistic cues frequently. The researcher concluded that being the researcher and the participant of the study bore some fruitful experiences for professional development.

Seferoglu (2008) carried out a study to see the corrective feedback patterns and the preferences of learners about the feedback they receive. She videotaped two classes to identify the corrective feedback given. The results revealed that the most frequent error correction type was explicit correction. This research also found that the learners expect to be corrected during classroom interactions. They want the teacher to point out their errors and help them improve their language proficiency. The learners also expect immediate feedback as opposed to delayed one, since they tend to forget about the errors they make. Interestingly, the students expect metalinguistic feedback type as error correction policy.

Another study from Turkish context examined the relationship between repetition as corrective feedback and the uptake rate. In her thesis Büyükbay (2007) examined the benefit of using repetition through grammar tests and stimulated-recall interviews with 30 students in two separate EFL classes. The results were in favor of repetition as high uptake generator among language learners. Furthermore, the study concluded that both the teacher and the learners preferred repetition over other types of corrective feedback.

Similarly, Öztürk (2016) utilized Lyster and Ranta's (1997) frame work to study corrective feedback in Turkish EFL context to see the types and distribution of corrective feedback, and the reasons of error ignorance of the teachers. He video-recorded 12 hours of four different speaking classes and then carried out interviews with language teachers. The study found that recasts and explicit correction were the most frequently used corrective feedback types. Furthermore, the type of feedback differed based on the experience level of the instructors: experienced teachers tended to use recast more than their novice colleagues.

For the relationship between types of feedback and uptake rate, Esmaili and Behnam (2014) examined the corrective feedback patterns of Iranian teachers with reference to Lyster and Ranta's framework (1997). They audio recorded, and analyzed 400 minutes of classroom interaction of 29 native speakers of Turkish. The study found recast to be the most frequently used feedback type; however they observed that recast did not result in high learner uptake. On the other hand, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and clarification requests and explicit feedback resulted in higher degrees of uptake to higher level of uptake. Although Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework have been frequently utilized in the error analysis literature, the literature indicates that more studies form different language learning contexts should be carried out in order to fully understand the complex classroom context. Thus, investigating the issue from a different context may yield some fruitful results for the relationship between types of feedback and uptake rate.

Methodology

Since the aim of this study was to identify the frequency and type of learner errors and feedback given, and to investigate the relationship between the type of feedback and uptake rate, case study methodology was followed. A case study is defined as "an in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., an activity, event, process, or individual) based on extensive terms of time, place, or some physical boundaries" (Creswell, 2005, p.439). It is further explained in the same source that a case may be single individual or a group. In this study, the case is a group of EAL learners in an oral communication class, who are studying to become English language teachers, and the instructor of the course. To be more specific, this study follows an instrumental case study design, since it aims to "illuminate particular issue" (p.439). This study followed purposive sampling method (Schutt, 2006). This sampling method is considered to be "exactly what is needed in a case study of an organization, community, or some other clearly defined and relatively limited group" (p.156). The researcher chose to study this particular "case" since the aim of the research was to identify the oral language errors of the learners along with the oral corrective feedback of the teacher. The observed class included high number of in-class activities that would engage learners with oral production in the target language (English).

Data Collection Context

The observed class was an oral expression and public speaking course offered at the second year of a foreign language education department at a state university in Turkey. The medium of instruction of the university is English. The focus was on the development of speaking skills of the future English teachers by raising awareness of and practicing the English pronunciation and speaking patterns. The students were required to deliver academic talks at a scheduled time throughout the semester and each learner was also required to act as discussion leaders in groups of 3-4. While they were discussion leaders, the students came to the lesson prepared for the discussion of a topic and they asked questions about the topic, and made comments and created a speaking environment in the classroom. The teacher observed the class during the discussion session and checked each time a student took part in the discussion. The learners' participation grades were determined based on these observations, thus each student tried to take at least one turn during the discussions. For this reason, discussion sessions of this class were taken under focus in this study.

Participants of the Study

In this case study, there were 30 sophomore students in the class and all of the students were native speakers of Turkish. The learners were aged 19-21 and they were studying to receive a B.A. degree in English Language Teaching. The instructor of the class was also a native speaker of Turkish with a Ph.D. degree on English Language Teaching. The participants were in an EAL context, since the learners were attending a speaking course in which they were expected to give academic talks.

Data Collection and Analysis

For the purposes of this study, non-participant observation was used for the data collection process. Non-participant observation is defined as an observer who "visits a site and record notes without being involved in the activities of the participants" (Creswell, 2015, p.212). Accordingly, the researcher did not take part in any of the activities carried out in the classroom. The data was collected from a second year speaking class at a foreign language education department in Turkey. A speaking class was chosen for the study in order to observe the effects of feedback on the students' oral performance. The researcher took the oral permission from the class, both from the instructor and the learners, before starting the data collection process. The focus of the study was not explicitly explained to the participants, including the instructor of the class in order to observe the natural state of affairs in the class. After getting the participants' consent, the researcher sat at the back of the class for the audio-recording. The lesson was observed for 6 weeks (6 lessons) and 400 minutes of audio recording was obtained. The researcher transcribed all the data for analysis. Example excerpts from the data can be seen in Introduction section. The researcher did not use any observation form; however took some notes during the classes (the topic of the lesson, the activity of the day, the themes discussed during the activities, and so on).

For data analysis, after transcribing; the feedback of the teacher, the errors, and the uptake of the students was counted and then categorized in accordance with the framework mentioned above. In order to avoid researcher bias in the study, another coder went through the same process of data coding. Before coding the data, the coder was trained in the framework above in detail and then 10% of the data was coded by this coder. The inter-coder agreement rate was calculated as 89, 2% which is considered

to be sufficient (Creswell, 2012). Furthermore, as suggested by Mackey and Gass (2005), in order to establish intra-rater reliability, the researcher coded %10 of the data twice. The result of intra-rater reliability measure was 85,3%, which is considered to be good rate (Creswell, 2015). After the categorization the frequency analysis was carried out so as to see what types of errors were corrected the most and what types of feedback lead to a higher rate of uptake.

Results and Discussion

The results and the discussion are presented in accordance with the research questions addressed. First, the types and frequency of learners' errors are presented. Then, types of feedback provided by the teacher are given. This section also reveals some information about the types of error the students made and the types and ratio of feedback the teacher gave for each error category. Lastly, the relationship between the feedback provided and the uptake rate is identified.

Types and Frequency of Learner Errors

The first research question of the study is "What types of learner errors are observed in a speaking course offered at a foreign language department of a state university in Turkey? How frequently are these errors observed?" In order to answer this research question the errors observed are categorized in accordance with Error Treatment Framework proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). There are five types of errors observed in the data. In total, 738 errors are identified. Summary of the results can be viewed form Table 1 below. The most frequently observed error type is grammatical errors with 55,5%. It is followed by phonological errors with the percentage of 27,8. The least frequent error type is multiple errors.

Table 1

Summary of the frequencies and types of learner errors

Number of errors	Type of errors	Percentage
36	L1 (unsolicited use)	4,9%
410	Grammatical	55.5%
59	Lexical	8%
205	Phonological	27,8%
28	Multiple	3,8%
Total: 738		100%

Surakka's (2007), previous study showed that the majority of the learner errors belonged to the lexical category (45%) which is followed by grammatical (30%) and phonological (20%) errors. Similarly, Taipale (2012), concluded that grammatical (24%) and phonological (22%) and lexical (20%) errors were the most frequently observed learner errors. On the other hand, Fakazlı (2018) revealed that grammatical errors were the most frequent error type (50%); while the lexical errors were the least frequent one (19%).

In this respect, the results of the current study are in line with the findings of the previous literature. Although, the top three errors observed are common in these studies, the frequencies of errors differ. While the previous two studies observed that the lexical error rate was 45% (Surakka, 2007) and 20% (Taipale, 2012); this study states that lexical errors were observed 8% of the time; similar to Fakazlı (2018). This difference may stem from the participants' proficiency levels in the target language for each research study. Nonetheless, this difference seems to have no effect on the types of most frequently observed errors across these three studies.

Types and Frequency of Teacher Feedback

Another research question within the scope of this study is “What types of different teacher feedback can be seen in this context? How frequently do these feedbacks are observed?” In order to answer this question, a similar analysis pattern is followed. First, the feedback provided by the teacher is identified and categorized based on Lyster and Ranta’s model (1997), and then frequency analysis is utilized to see how many times these feedback types were observed. There are 160 instances of feedback in the data. As can be seen in Table 2, the majority of the feedbacks provided are explicit feedback (58,1%). Meta-linguistic feedback is the second frequently observed feedback category (20%). In Seferoğlu (2008) it was stated that learners expect this type of error correction during their language learning process.

Table 2

Summary of the frequencies and types of feedback

Number of feedback	Type of feedback	Percentage
93	Explicit	58,1%
25	Recast	15,6%
10	Clarification request	6,3%
32	Meta-linguistic	20%
Total: 160		100%

When examined, Brown (2016), Taipale (2012) and Surakka (2007) showed that recasts were the most preferred type of feedback. After reviewing the related feedback studies in a meta-analysis paper, Brown (2016) found that recasts comprised 57% of all corrective feedback. Similarly, in Taipale it was used 38% while it was 34,7% in Surakka (2007). Moreover, in Fakalzı (2018), recasts (39%) were identified as the most preferred type of corrective feedback while clarification requests (3%) were the least favored one. However, in this study, recasts are the third most preferred type of feedback (15,6%). While explicit correction is the most preferred feedback in this study (58,1%), and in Seferoğlu (2008), while it was second mostly used feedback in Taipale (2012) and fourth in Surakka (2007). The reason for this variety of feedback provided across study may be contextual. Chaudron (1986) indicated that definition of error is context bound. Thus, it can be said that treatment of error is also context bound. Since each teacher and class has their own educational goals, the teachers could have chosen the feedback type that is considered to be most useful for their own educational purposes.

Distribution of Feedback Types and Learner Errors

The question of “What is the distribution rate of different feedback types with regards to different types of learner errors?” is also within the scope of this study. So to answer this question, besides coding the categories of each feedback provided by the teacher, the researcher also coded the type errors that each feedback was given to. The results reveal that, although the most frequently observed error type is grammatical errors, only 8,6% of the grammar errors received feedback and it is explicit feedback. This is in contrary with the meta-analysis study that Brown (2016) carried out. According to this study, grammatical errors were the most frequently corrected error type (43%). Another type of error with high frequency is phonological errors. This type of errors receive 57,5% feedback through explicit and meta-linguistic feedback. Furthermore lexical errors receive 59,3% feedback. The teacher uses recasts and

clarification requests to address the lexical errors of the learners. Table 3 summarizes the results obtained from the data.

Table 3

Summary of the distribution of feedback types and learner errors

Type and frequency of feedback	Type of error and frequency of treatment
Explicit (93) (100%)	Grammatical (8) (8,6%) Phonological (85) (91,4%)
Recast (25) (100%)	Lexical (25) (100%)
Clarification request (10) (100%)	Lexical (10) (100%)
Metalinguistic feedback (32) (100%)	Phonological (100%)

For the error categories unsolicited L1 use and multiple errors, the results do not reveal any specific type of feedback. There are 5 instances of recast for L1 use; however, they are also lexical errors, hence they are analyzed under lexical errors. Other instances of L1 use show that the students are using L1 fillers (such as *yani*, *ya*, *işte*) while speaking in English during the lesson. The teacher does not provide feedback for the use of L1 in this way. Likewise, for the multiple errors category, there are no instances of feedback observed. The reason for this may be the difficulty of identifying multiple errors in the flow of speech, as argued by Taipale (2012). In the Figure below, the frequency of feedback given to each error type can be seen.

Unlike the current study, Taipale (2012) revealed that 69% of the grammatical errors received treatment. It is only 1,9% for this study. Furthermore, in Taipale (2012), lexical errors received feedback 96% of the time while it is 59% for the current study. However, interestingly, the frequencies of feedback provided for phonological errors are similar in both studies (Taipale, 2012, 58%; current study 56%). Yet, phonological errors were identified as less likely to receive feedback in Taipale (2012), while in the current study these errors are one of the most frequently treated errors. This difference can also be explained by the difference of class foci. In the context of this study, the participants were taking an oral expression and public speaking course the main aim of which is to develop learners' pronunciation. For this reason, the teacher of the course may have chosen to focus on pronunciation errors rather than, say, grammatical errors. Öztürk (2016) identified several reasons for error ignorance of the language instructors. The study stated that teachers sometimes choose not to correct the language errors of the students in order not to discourage them, not to intervene with the task in progress, or due to lack of knowledge about the erroneous utterance.

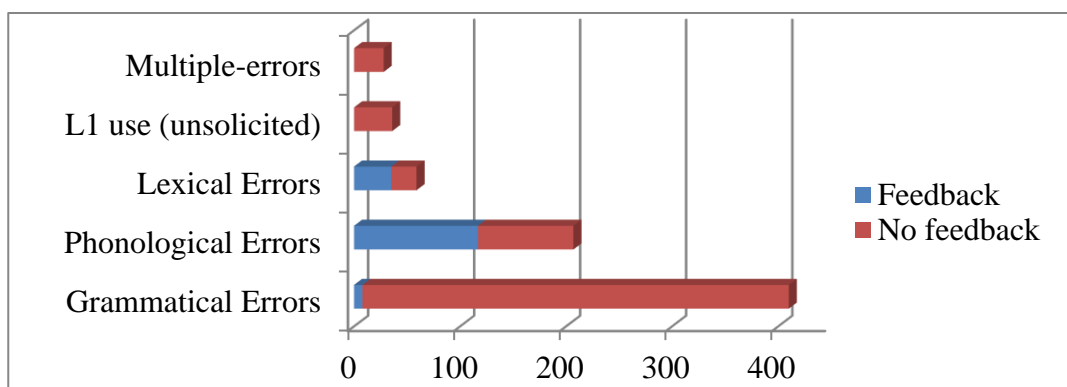


Figure 1. Summary of the frequency of feedback provided and error types

Distribution of Uptake Rate and Types of Feedback

The question of “What is the distribution of uptake rate with regards to different types of teacher feedback?” is the last research question to be answered in this study. In order to identify uptake rate, as suggested by Lyster and Ranta (1997), topic continuation after the feedback is taken into consideration. If there is topic continuation, then it is coded as no uptake. The results reveal that, in total, 35,6% of the feedback given lead to uptake. As can be seen from Table 4, clarification requests are the feedback type that lead to highest rate of uptake (100%) which is followed by meta-linguistics feedback (87,5%). When repair rates are examined, it is seen that highest repair rate belongs to meta-linguistics (59, 3%) and clarification requests (50%). After the analysis, recast return with the lowest uptake (28%) and repair rates (12%).

Surakka (2007) found that the highest uptake rate belonged to metalinguistic feedback (98%) and clarification requests (100%). Similarly, Taipale (2012) concluded the same findings; clarification requests (100%) and metalinguistic feedback (80%) returned with highest rate of uptake. Additionally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) also discovered that metalinguistic feedback (86%) and clarification requests (88%) were highest uptake generators. These results are in line with the findings of the current study. On the other hand, these two previous studies have also identified elicitation as high uptake generator, a category which is not present in the current data set. The results concerning uptake should be interpreted cautiously because (1) uptake does not always lead to error correction, (2) within the framework of this study opportunity for uptake is not taken into consideration. Taipale (2012) argued that there was not always opportunity for uptake in the classrooms because of topic continuation. Furthermore, in their study about effectiveness of recasts, Loewen and Philp (2006) argued that recasts were as effective as other types of feedback. In other words they found that recasts were beneficial at least 50% of the time.

Table 4

Summary of the Results of Uptake Rates and Feedback Types

Type of feedback	Uptake		Repair		Needs Repair	
	N	% of feedback type	N	% of feedback type	N	% of feedback type
Explicit (93)	40	43	23	24,7	17	18,2
Recast (25)	7	28	3	12	4	16
Clarification request (10)	10	100	5	50	5	50
Meta-linguistic (32)	28	87,5	19	59,3	9	28,1
Total (160)	85	53,1	50	31,2	35	21,8

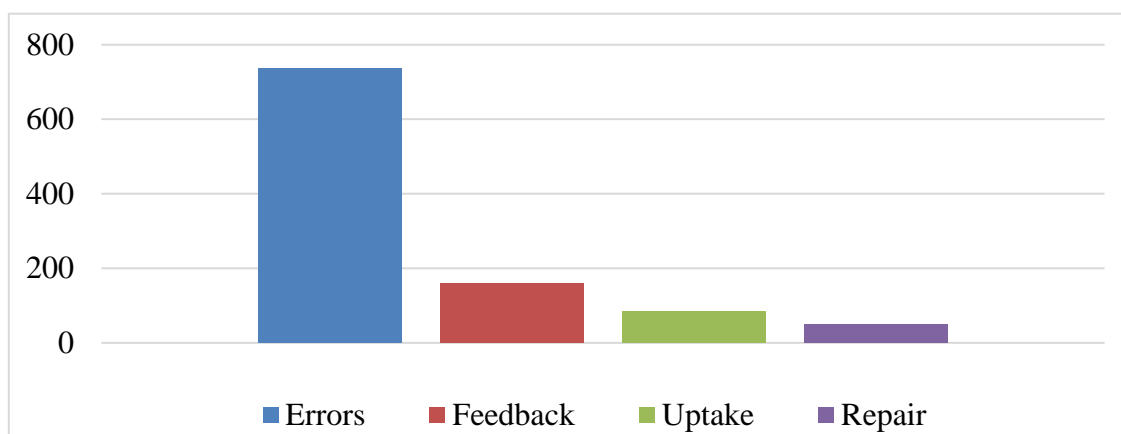


Figure 2. Comparison of the frequency of errors, feedback, uptake and repair

The comparison of the frequencies of observed errors, feedback, uptake and repair can be seen from Figure 2 below. The results are line with the previous studies with regards to this aspect as well. Since the teacher focuses the phonological errors most of the time and ignores grammatical mistakes, which were high in number (N=410), the gap between feedback provided and errors observed appears to be big. For the comparison of repair rates among the previous studies, the highest repair rate is 52% of the errors made.

As can be seen in Table 5, in three of the studies, the rates of repair and error appear to be quite low. As suggested by Taipale (2012) it is difficult for teachers to correct every erroneous utterance in the learner's speech and also treating each and every error is not the aim of a language class. Yet, it is our duty as language teachers to pay attention to these errors in our classes. Although the picture seems pessimistic, by being aware of different feedback types and the uptake rates they entail, we can increase the rate of error repair in our classes.

Table 5

Summary of the rate of repair with regards to uptake, feedback and errors

	Errors (N)	Feedback (N)	Uptake (N)	Repair (N)	Repair (% of uptake)	Repair (% of feedback)	Repair (% of errors)
Present data	738	160	85	50	58	31	6
Lyster & Ranta (1997)	1104	686	377	184	49	27	17
Surakka (2007)	233	233	130	122	94	52	52
Taipale (2007)	109	82	34	16	47	20	15

Finally, when it comes to the treatment of errors, teacher is not the only factor that plays a part in the process. Factors such as psychology and physiology of the learners, educational and personal background of the students, motivation and purpose of language learning, language proficiency, language components, and task type also affect learning process (Erdoğan, 2005; Karaazmak, 2018; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Seferoğlu, 2008). On the other hand, Taşdemir & Yalçın-Arslan (2018) found that learning styles of the students is not an effective factor for learners' corrective feedback preference type.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to (1) identify the different types and frequencies of learner errors, (2) identify the different types and frequencies of teacher feedback, (3) examine the relationship between the types of feedback and errors, and (4) determine the relation between uptake and different types of feedback. For the study, Lyster and Ranta (1997)'s Error Treatment Sequence framework was utilized. The data collected and analyzed was 400 minutes of audio recording. The results of the study revealed that grammatical (N= 410) and phonological (N=205) errors were the most observed errors in the data. After the analysis, it is discovered that the teacher used explicit feedback (N= 93) most of the time and they were utilized for the treatment of pronunciation mistakes (N= 85). The teacher also used metalinguistic feedback to correct phonological errors (N= 32). Other types of feedback observed was recasts (N=25) and clarification requests (N= 10) for the treatment of lexical errors. The results of the study also showed that clarification requests (100%) and metalinguistic feedback (87,5%) were highest uptake generators. These two types of feedback were also the ones that lead to highest rates of repair. Although, it is not the case that uptake equals acquisition in language learning; Ellis et al. (2001) indicated that uptake may enhance language learning process. By helping learners realize their language errors; corrective feedback is considered to be a facilitative factor in language learning process. Similarly, uptake can hint the current level of understanding or learning of students. Uptake can be beneficial for both learners and the teachers. Through uptake the teachers can follow the learners' language development (Ellis, 1985; Lyster &Ranta, 1997).

The results obtained from this study can be used in teacher training programs in order to introduce and practice different types of feedback patterns. As suggested by Allwright and Bailey (1991), teachers need training on how to give feedback since not all teachers are aware of the available feedback patterns that they may find useful in practice. Likewise, pre-service and in-service English language teachers can also benefit from this study so as to develop their error treatment skills and to learn more about different types of feedback. The teacher can also benefit from the results for the comparison of uptake and repair rates of their classes and the classes studied in the literature. As suggested by Roothoft (2014), the teachers may not be aware of the amount and types of feedback they tend to provide in language classrooms. If the teachers are trained in this or if they realize that in order to achieve correction in students' errors, they need to increase the frequency and the variety of the feedback provide; the language classrooms may be more successful. Since the students expect their errors to be corrected (Cathcart & Olsen 1976; Genç, 2014; Gürbüz &Yalçın-Tilfarlioğlu, 2017; Harmandaoğlu-Baz, Balçıkanlı, & Cephe, 2016; Jean & Simard 2011; Roothoft, 2014; Schulz 2001; Seferoğlu, 2008), the results of the study may be beneficial for the teachers in seeing which type of feedback results in highest uptake rate. Similarly, Loweven and Philp (2006) stated that the success rate of feedback (recasts) depends on several factors such as stress, intonation, and length. If the teachers are aware of these variables that affect the rate of success, they can alter their feedback to improve the learners' language skills. Upon synthesizing the studies on beliefs about corrective feedback, Li (2017) concluded that the learners expect corrective feedback and their attitudes towards feedback are highly positive (89%). On the other hand, the teachers' beliefs were not so positive (39%). The beliefs of teachers about the effectiveness of corrective feedback may stem from several factors, yet, if the teachers become more aware of the usefulness of different types of feedback, they can be more open to employ these in their classrooms. Like Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) stated:

“the most effective teachers are likely to be those who are willing and able to orchestrate, in accordance with their students’ language abilities and content familiarity, a wide range of CF types that fit the instructional context.” (p.30).

Similarly, it is hoped that the results of this study will inspire teacher trainers to focus on different types of strategies when it comes to error correction in language classrooms. The literature suggests that engaging teachers with hands-on, experimental activities, projects, and reflection changes their beliefs about corrective feedback (Busch, 2010; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010; Simhoney & Chanyoo, 2018); whereas asking teachers to read research studies about the effectiveness of corrective feedback does not alter their beliefs (Kamiya & Loewen, 2014). Furthermore, Lee and Lyster (2017), and Büyükbay (2007) suggest that teachers should receive training on different types of corrective feedback so as to better help language learners. Similarly, Argüelles, Méndez, and Escudero (2019) revealed that the in-service teachers are not aware of different types of feedback, and hence they need to receive theoretical training. Based on the results of this study, the teacher trainers can utilize some practical exercises and/or activities in language teacher training process to underline the importance of corrective feedback.

As it the case with other research, this study is not without limitations as well. First of all the framework utilized may be considered as a limitation. Lyster and Ranta (1997) concluded in their study that their definition and analysis of uptake was limited to the turns immediately following teacher feedback and thus “claims related to language learning remain speculative and subject to further empirical investigation” (p. 57). Other frameworks for analysis may yield different implications for language learning. Another limitation may stem from the amount and context of data collection. Studies focusing on other contexts of language learning (such as ESL, ESP, EFL) may yield different results. Nevertheless, this study provides some significant information about the analysis and treatment of oral errors in foreign language teacher education context.

Other studies could examine what actually happens inside of the learners’ heads when they receive feedback in a language classroom, as indicated by Taipale (2012). Since it is hard to capture the attention of the students through observation, it would be interesting to see whether the feedback given catches the attention of the learner or not. Furthermore, in order to produce more conclusive results, other studies can be designed in a longitudinal fashion. These studies could focus on the difference between “mistakes” and “errors” of learners and then draw more categorical conclusions for uptake rates. Moreover, similar to the study carried out by Öztürk (2016), the researchers could focus more on the ignored errors and the reasons lying behind. Understanding teachers’ decision making processes regarding which errors to correct and which ones to ignore would also yield fruitful implications for language teaching and teacher training practices.

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