Konin Language Studies
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, State University of Applied Sciences in Konin, Poland
KSJ 8 (2). 2020. 165-184
http://ksj.pwsz.konin.edu.pl
doi: 10.30438/ksj.2020.8.2.3

Oral corrective feedback and learner uptake: The Turkish EFL setting

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Abstract

Different oral corrective feedback strategies yield different results in different language classrooms. The factors that play into making feedback more effective are still under scrutiny in the field of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2015; Loewen, 2013; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2019) despite oral corrective feedback being a staple language teaching move that promotes L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2015, 2017; Gass & Mackey, 2015; Li, 2010; Nassaji, 2016; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006). Over 15 hours of data collected in the Turkish EFL setting from seven intact classrooms were analyzed following the research questions and analytical framework developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Findings of this replication differed from the original study in terms of which feedback types are most effective, which reinforces previous findings that different cultural settings may contribute to determining whether the initial error gets corrected by learners. Most notably, results indicated that recasts were not only the most frequent but also the most effective teacher feedback strategy in eliciting student repair in this setting, while output pushing strategies remained as the only viable options for the negotiation of form.

Keywords: corrective feedback; error correction; negotiation of form; negotiation of meaning

1. Introduction

As part of their developing L2 competence, students produce grammatically incorrect utterances in language classrooms, and teachers are left with multiple choices in the face of these errors. Do these errors need to be corrected, or do they perhaps disappear on their own as students' competences increase? Do errors need to be corrected right away, or can they wait until the end of the lesson, the unit, etc. because the task at hand is important and doing so will interrupt the flow of the lesson? Do all errors need to be corrected, or are some of them more important to correct than others? How should errors be corrected so that the learners realize what did not work and hopefully learn the correct way? Does it have to be the teacher that offers the feedback, or can it be a peer, or should it be a peer for it to be effective? Since these questions were originally raised (Cohen, 1975; Hendrickson, 1978), teachers' oral corrective feedback practices have become their own line of inquiry in second language acquisition studies. It is now accepted that corrective feedback, defined as "teacher and peer responses to learners' erroneous second language (L2) production" (Li, 2014, p. 196) and "an indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 216), facilitates L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2015, 2017; Gass & Mackey, 2015; Li, 2010; Nassaji, 2016; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006). In this paper, the focus is on the 'how' question; that is, how errors should be corrected in a way that is effective.

OCF effectiveness research has so far focused on a number of factors. Several studies have rotated around the linguistic target of the OCF, in other words, the error type according to linguistic domain (Brown, 2016; Lyster, 1998a; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Morris, 2002) such as pragmatics (Ajabshir, 2014; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Nipaspong & Chinokul, 2010; Takimoto, 2006), morphosyntax (DeKeyser, 1993; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Pawlak, 2008; Pawlak & Tomczyk, 2013), and phonology (Abberton & Fourcin, 1976; Chen, 2011, 2011; de Bot, 1983; Dlaska & Krekeler, 2013, 2013; Gooch, Saito, & Lyster, 2016; Hellermann, 2003; Hincks & Edlund, 2009; Levis & Pickering, 2004; Ning, 2014; Offerman & Olson, 2016; Olson, 2014; Saito, 2015, 2015; Saito & Lyster, 2012; Thomson, 2016; Weltens & De Bot, 1984).

Other studies focused on how individual factors impact the effectiveness of OCF, looking at age (Lyster et al., 2013; Lyster & Saito, 2010a, 2010b), language aptitude (Baker Smemoe & Haslam, 2013; Granena, 2012; Hu, Ackermann, Martin, Erb, Winkler, & Reiterer, 2013; Sheen, 2007; Skehan, 2015; Yalçın, Çeçen, & Erçetin, 2016), memory (Fanselow, 1977; Yalçın et al., 2016), learning style (Havranek & Cesnik, 2001), personality (Keshavarzi & Amiri, 2016), motivation (Miranda-Calderón, 2013; Bassiri, 2011; Uzum, 2011), language anxiety (Rassaei, 2015; Sheen, 2008; Zhang &

Rahimi, 2014), learner beliefs (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Mackey, Al-Khalil, Atanassova, Hama, Logan-Terry, & Nakatsukasa, 2007; Pawlak, 2010; Rassaei, 2015; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014), and teacher beliefs (Baker & Burri, 2016; Chaudron, 1977; Farrokhi, 2007; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mori, 2011; Ozmen & Aydın, 2015; Roothooft, 2014). Some other studies focused specifically on the OCF strategies that teachers employ in the language classrooms, and the onset of this now prolific line of research was marked by Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) analyzed immersion classroom data and identified six oral corrective feedback strategies that the teachers utilized. The first strategy was explicit correction, where the teacher would say "Oh you mean X," or "You should say X instead of Y" when the students said something incorrectly. Another strategy was recasting, which was rephrasing the student's incorrect utterance in the correct form. The third strategy was clarification requests, where the teacher would prompt the student to repeat and/or explain what they had just said (e.g., "Pardon me?," "What do you mean by X?"). The fourth strategy was metalinguistic feedback; the teacher explicitly focused on the grammar, which might sound like "Can you find the error?," "Is it feminine?." The next OCF strategy was elicitation; the teacher would try to get the student to produce the correct form by asking questions or providing gap-fill utterances such as "No, not that. It's a … ." The final strategy that the research found teachers employed was repetition, where they would simply repeat all or part of the incorrect utterance, usually with marked intonation.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings indicated that recasts were the most frequently occurring (55%) teacher feedback strategy, but they were not the most effective in terms of successful learner uptake (18%). The types of feedback that prompted students towards corrected production (i.e., output pushing feedback) and/or informed them on the nature of the error (i.e., explicit feedback) were found to be more effective in eliciting student-generated repair. These types (called prompts) were elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition. These results were in line with Allwright (1975) and Hendrickson (1978) who also maintained that learner repair should be the goal in OCF practices instead of the teacher providing the correct form. Other studies have used a similar methodology. Lyster (1998a) examined which types of OCF are most effective for which linguistic type of errors. Panova and Lyster (2002) expanded the scope of this descriptive study by observing adult ESL classrooms. Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) reported on a similar descriptive study in order to investigate learner uptake in ESL classrooms in New Zealand. Sheen (2004) used the same analytic framework in four different settings of instructed SLA. Lochtman (2002), Suzuki (2004), Lyster and Mori (2006), Roothooft (2014), Öztürk (2016), and Wang and Li (2020) are other examples of descriptive

studies that investigate OCF with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) methodology or similar, and more are discussed below. The current study also uses this framework, although it should be noted that overly relying on uptake in OCF research has faced some criticism which is discussed thoroughly in Pawlak (2014).

2. The study

2.1. Purpose of the study

Since the inception of the Lyster and Ranta model, the classifications of their six strategies have changed (see Ellis, 2010, 2015, 2017; Lyster & Saito, 2010a, 2010b; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). The motivation behind these alternative groupings remains outside the scope of this study; however, a more important reason was considered in using the original categories. These categories make it easier for meta-analyses to have access to the counts of each specific subtype of prompts and recasts or implicit and explicit feedback. For instance, in some studies (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Gooch et al., 2016; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Nassaji, 2019; Yang & Lyster, 2010), recasting involves explicit correction as the latter also provides the correct form to the student. By keeping all six strategy counts separate, it is possible to both stay true to the original study that is being replicated, and make sure future researchers can easily use the data to serve their specific questions.

The provision of oral corrective feedback is influenced by the instructional context (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Wang & Li, 2020). For instance, across Korean EFL (Sheen, 2004), New Zealand ESL (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001), Canadian French immersion (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), Turkish EFL (current study), Canadian ESL (Panova & Lyster, 2002), American ESL (Suzuki, 2004), Japanese immersion (Lyster & Mori, 2006), and Belgian German as a Foreign Language (GFL) (Lochtman, 2002) settings, the distribution of learner repair following teacher feedback can range between 16% (Canada ESL) and 56% (Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL). These studies are comparable as they all use the Lyster and Ranta framework. Likewise, the frequency of recasts in these studies may range between 48% (Turkish EFL) and 83% (Korean EFL), and the effectiveness of recasts can change between 32% (Canada ESL) and 74% (Turkish EFL and Belgian GFL). In other words, despite over two decades of research since Lyster and Ranta (1997), there is still no conclusive evidence on what type(s) of feedback is (are) the most effective, or what conditions optimize the effectiveness of OCF. With these points in mind, the three research questions in this study are as follows:

1. What are the different types of corrective feedback and their distribution in communicatively oriented classrooms?

2. What is the distribution of uptake following different types of corrective feedback?
3. What combinations of corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute the negotiation of form?

It is worth noting that this study has been conducted in response to the repeated call for replication studies (Norris & Ortega, 2006; Polio & Gass, 1997; Porte, 2012, inter alia) in the field of SLA. Replication studies contribute different samples to the ongoing scholarly conversation so that methodologies can be refined and broader conclusions can be reached. Replication studies also help reveal the universality of instructional and acquisitional constructs by their inclusion in meta studies and review papers. As such, many OCF effectiveness meta-analyses have been conducted (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013; Lyster & Saito, 2010a, 2010b; Nassaji, 2016; Russell & Spada, 2006); however, their conclusions are mixed. This may partly have been due to the differences in OCF classification in these meta-analyses. For instance, on the one hand, Lyster and Saito (2010b) found that across 15 classroom studies, prompts (i.e., clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback) were more effective than recasts. On the other hand, in a meta-analysis of 33 OCF studies, Li (2010) found that implicit feedback (i.e., recasts, clarification requests, repetition, and elicitation) proved to be more effective than explicit feedback (i.e., explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback) in the long term. In other words, recasts were found to be in the more effective group in one meta-analysis (i.e., in Lyster and Saito, 2010b), and in the less effective group in the other (i.e., in Li, 2010). More on OCF meta-analyses and their different results can be found in Plonsky and Gass (2011) and Plonsky and Brown (2015) among others. The findings of these meta-analyses point to OCF being an effective teaching strategy that has an impact on L2 acquisition. As it stands, however, more research is needed in order to understand the conditions under which feedback leads to the students correcting the erroneous utterances.

2.2. Methods

This replication was conducted using data collected for a larger OCF study. The participants were recruited in an adult EFL setting from a private language academy in the North West region of Turkey. The primary focus of this language school is for their students to be able to communicate in their respective foreign languages effectively through intensive programs, and all curricula follow the communicative approach to language teaching. Seven teachers teaching three adult groups of intermediate English proficiency were video-recorded in their intact classrooms over

a span of three weeks yielding approximately 16 hours of data. The teachers were all bilingual speakers of English and Turkish, and all lessons were conducted in English with a target language only policy in place. Data were collected by recording the class sessions through three camcorders. To capture the teacher's face from as many angles as possible, the camcorders were placed in the two back corners of the classroom and in front of the back wall directly facing the board.

The OCF instances in the data were transcribed and annotated using ELAN (2017) utilizing the codes from the original analytical framework. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified the error treatment sequence as consisting of three main turns: learner error, teacher feedback, and learner uptake or topic continuation. In this study, only the learner errors that received corrective feedback from the teacher were coded as errors. Teacher feedback to learner errors was coded as one of the following: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. After the teacher's turn, the following turn was coded as either learner uptake, where the OCF is acknowledged and/or acted upon, or topic continuation, where either the teacher or the learners moved forward with the conversation without acknowledging and/or acting upon the feedback, or in the teacher's case, without waiting for the learners to do so. The uptake was further coded as repair or needs repair. If there was learner uptake, it could potentially be followed by a teacher reinforcement turn. The process is exemplified in (1) with data from the current study.[1]

(1) S1: ((READING)) two, if someone gives you a present for no reason, you might be, excited.
T1: you might be?
S2: surprised.
T1: you might be surprised I think, yes.

This excerpt comes from a homework check activity in which the teacher asks students to read their answers taking turns and for everyone to follow along so that they can correct any mistakes that they may have made. The grammar item of concern in this particular gap-fill exercise is adjectives with -ed and -ing endings. The student gets the ending right, but the word wrong. The teacher draws attention to the incorrect word by using elicitation ("You might be?") and another student then gives the correct answer. The teacher then provides reinforcement, and they proceed with the next item, leading to a perfect loop of the error correction sequence. In this sequence, the Lyster and Ranta (1997) model deems the feedback instance successful as there is uptake, and the uptake involves repair, even if it is not self-repair.

[1] Transcription conventions follow Du Bois, Schuetze-Coburn, Cumming, & Paolino (1993) as presented in Du Bois (2006).

Excerpt (2) shows a sequence that involves no uptake. The teacher is doing a schemata activation activity where he has students shout out vocabulary items related to law and order before they start a new unit on the topic. One of the words that come up is regulation, and the teacher asks for examples of regulations. The teacher laughs and corrects the student's grammar with a recast, and comments on the inaccuracy of usage. He continues without waiting for a response from the students. Because there is no uptake in this error correction sequence, there is no way of measuring whether the feedback instance was successful or not. While it may look like the teacher did not give learners a chance to respond, it should be noted that students can provide uptake for recasts in the form of private speech (Ohta, 2000), where they often quietly repeat the correct form to themselves without communicative intent.

(2) S3: yogurt, regulate sh- errr regula- .. regulation . regulat- .. er .. our stomach.
T7: yogurt is regulated in our stomach. it is a good example? ((LAUGHS, GESTICULATES AT THE STUDENT, LAUGHS AGAIN)) yogurt is digested in our stomach, but, regulation? regulation also means what?

The effectiveness of each teacher OCF instance in this model is operationalized by focusing on the uptake turn; that is, if in the immediately following turn learners (either the original student or his/her peers) have repaired the error, then the feedback was effective. For the negotiation of form in the classroom, however, Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (1998b, 1998a) posited that the repair needs to be student-generated and not a mere repetition of the teacher-provided correct form, as shown in (1). In that example, the error was corrected by a second student rather than the first one who originally made the error. In essence, the student did not negotiate for form but was provided with it by a peer.

2.3. Results

The first research question inquired into the different types of corrective feedback and their distribution in communicatively oriented classrooms. Teachers in this study utilized six different OCF strategies with one of them accounting for more than half. The strategies were recasts (54%), metalinguistic feedback (20%), elicitation (9%), explicit correction (9%), clarification requests (7%), and repetition (2%). Teachers' preferences for feedback types are fairly similar to those in the original study. Over half of them favor recasts over other types of feedback with the remaining strategies ranging between 2% and 20%, which is similar to the 5% and 14% found in Lyster and Ranta (1997). One noteworthy difference is while elicitation is the second most frequently preferred feedback

strategy in the original study, in the current study teachers favored metalinguistic feedback the most.

Table 1 presents the number of all teacher OCF instances, the number of those that resulted in uptake, and the number of uptakes that were successful. The results are also summarized in Figure 1. According to the findings, 76% of all OCF resulted in learner uptake, and 42% of the OCF resulted in successful learner uptake (i.e., repair). While the percentage of repair (i.e., 43%) may seem low, it should be noted that it is calculated against all instances of teacher feedback. If we instead calculate the percentage of successful uptake, or repair, against the number of student turns that included a response to the feedback (i.e., uptake), then the percentage rises to 54%.

Table 1 Frequency of turns with teacher feedback and student uptake

Teacher	Teacher turns with feedback	Student turns with uptake (% of feedback)	Student turns with repair (% of feedback)
T1	97	66 (68%)	35 (36%)
T2	108	86 (80%)	46 (43%)
T3	105	90 (86%)	58 (55%)
T4	36	30 (83%)	7 (19%)
T5	17	12 (71%)	7 (41%)
T6	30	20 (67%)	12 (40%)
T7	22	18 (82%)	8 (36%)

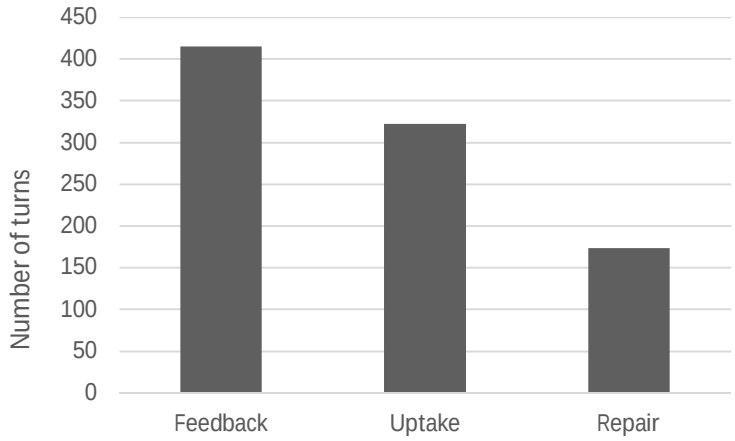

Figure 1 Total turns with feedback, uptake, and repair

The total numbers and percentages indicate that the teachers in this study mostly favor recasts over other types of feedback with the remaining strategies ranging between 2% and 20%, with metalinguistic feedback as the second most frequently preferred feedback strategy. However, there is some individual variation

among the teachers. As presented in Table 2, T2 and T4 use metalinguistic feedback more often than they use recasts. T7 uses metalinguistic feedback almost as much as she uses recasts.

Table 2 Distribution of feedback types

	T1 (*N* = 97)	T2 (*N* = 108)	T3 (*N* = 105)	T4 (*N* = 36)	T5 (*N* = 17)	T6 (*N* = 30)	T7 (*N* = 22)	Total (*N* = 415)
Recast	46 (48%)	60 (56%)	71 (68%)	11 (31%)	9 (53%)	18 (60%)	8 (36%)	225 (54%)
Elicitation	12 (12%)	8 (7%)	6 (6%)	4 (11%)	0 (0%)	4 (13%)	2 (9%)	36 (9%)
Clarification request	10 (10%)	6 (5%)	2 (2%)	5 (14%)	3 (18%)	0 (0%)	2 (9%)	28 (7%)
Metalinguistic Feedback	20 (21%)	30 (28%)	11 (10%)	13 (36%)	1 (5%)	3 (10%)	7 (32%)	83 (20%)
Explicit correction	9 (9%)	4 (4%)	14 (13%)	1 (3%)	4 (24%)	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	34 (8%)
Repetition	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	2 (5%)	0 (0%)	3 (10%)	3 (14%)	9 (2%)

The second research question sought the answer to the distribution of uptake following different types of corrective feedback. The effectiveness of each OCF instance categorized by feedback strategy is presented in Table 3. Recasts were the most effective in eliciting student repair (48%) in the current study. Results also showed that teacher repetition of learner errors was the most likely to lead to uptake (100%). Closely following repetition were elicitation (95%), clarification requests (93%), and metalinguistic feedback (88%). Feedback strategies that were least likely to elicit uptake were the two that involve reformulation of the student error: explicit correction (72%) and recasts (65%).

Table 3 Uptake following teacher feedback

	Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake
Recast (*N* = 223)	106 (48%)	38 (17%)	79 (35%)
Elicitation (*N* = 36)	14 (39%)	20 (56%)	2 (5%)
Clarification request (*N* = 28)	4 (14%)	22 (79%)	2 (7%)
Metalinguistic Feedback (*N* = 85)	30 (35%)	45 (53%)	10 (12%)
Explicit correction (*N* = 34)	16 (47%)	8 (24%)	10 (29%)
Repetition (*N* = 9)	3 (33%)	6 (67%)	0 (0%)

The third and last research question inquired into what combinations of corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute the negotiation of form as operationalized by Lyster and Ranta (1997) in terms of student-generated repair. Because reformulations in the form of recasts and explicit correction eliminate the possibility for the students to formulate the corrections themselves, negotiation of form was only possible through the other four OCF strategies. Elicitation led to student-generated repair 28% of the time; metalinguistic feedback 23%, and clarification requests and repetition both 11%. Teachers may want to acknowledge that using these four strategies instead of recasts and explicit correction gives students more of a chance to form their own utterances rather

than merely repeating what is already given to them, which could arguably be a simply mechanical response rather than negotiated meaning.

While successful learner uptake or repair is the basis on which the effectiveness of a feedback strategy is operationalized, Lyster and Ranta (1997) maintained that the negotiation of form only truly takes place if the learners correct their errors themselves instead of using the teacher-generated forms. Table 4 shows a breakdown of each OCF strategy with the number of total repairs it has elicited along with the number of student-generated repairs followed by the percentage values for each. Table 5 shows the same information with the percentages presented according to the total number of student-generated repairs.

Table 4 Number and percentage of feedback turns leading to repair

	Number of repairs	Repairs as % of feedback type	Number of student-generated repairs	Student-generated repairs as % of feedback type
Recast (*N* = 224)	108	48%	0	0%
Elicitation (*N* = 36)	15	42%	10	28%
Clarification request (*N* = 28)	4	14%	3	11%
Metalinguistic feedback (*N* = 84)	29	34%	19	23%
Explicit correction (*N* = 34)	17	50%	0	0%
Repetition (*N* = 9)	3	33%	1	11%

Table 5 Number and percentage of repairs attributed to each feedback type

	Recast	Elicitation	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	Explicit correction	Repetition
All repairs (*N* = 176)	108 (61%)	15 (9%)	4 (2%)	29 (16%)	17 (10%)	3 (2%)
Student-generated repairs (*N* = 33)	0 (0%)	10 (30%)	3 (9%)	19 (58%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)

Because recasts by definition correctly reformulate erroneous student utterances, they are not conducive to student-generated repair. The number of repairs in response to recasts is high in the current study; therefore, the percentages of student-generated repairs in Table 4 are low compared to the original study. Otherwise, the order of the feedback strategies that generated the greatest number of student-generated repairs in this study follows the original as shown in Table 4, with elicitation as the most effective, metalinguistic feedback second most effective, repetition third and clarification requests fourth. The breakdown presented in Table 5 shows that metalinguistic feedback elicited the highest percentage of student-generated repair (58%) followed by elicitation (30%), clarification requests (9%) and repetition (3%). While the percentages are different from the original study, the order remains the same in both studies.

3. Discussion

The effectiveness of oral corrective feedback (i.e., whether it results in successful learner uptake) varies across cultures and in different language learning settings. These variations indicate that learners may best benefit from teachers customizing their OCF practices by leaning more towards the feedback strategies that elicit repair from the particular group of students. A case in point, teachers in this study utilized six different OCF strategies with one of them accounting for more than a half. One noteworthy difference is that while elicitation is the second most frequently preferred feedback strategy in the original study, in the current study teachers favored metalinguistic feedback the most. Language teachers that would like to improve their OCF practices may benefit from paying attention to the distribution of different types of feedback in their own lessons to see if there are any differences across their different classrooms and to find out whether they may already be changing their practices with different learner groups.

It is important to note which types of feedback elicit the most uptake as noticing the discrepancies between one's interlanguage and the target language plays a role in second language acquisition (DeKeyser, 1993; Long, 1996; Schmidt, 1990). As such, one of the major differences between the original study and the present replication emerges here. While recast has the highest percentage of no uptake in both studies, it is the most effective in eliciting student repair (48%) in the current study. In the present study, recast is closely followed by explicit correction (47%) and elicitation (39%). In Lyster and Ranta (1997), 69% of recasts led to no uptake, whereas the percentage was considerably lower in the current study at 35%. The repair that resulted from recasts was measured at 18% in the original study, whereas it is at 48% here. The other difference is in explicit correction; only half of its occurrences led to uptake in the original study with 36% of repair, whereas in the current study 71% of it led to uptake and 47% of all explicit correction resulted in repair. While the stark differences may be attributed to the differences in setting, numbers fluctuate across other studies as well. For instance, in the New Zealand ESL classrooms, 73% of recast led to uptake (Ellis et al., 2001), while this number stayed at 40% in the Canadian ESL classrooms (Panova & Lyster, 2002). Likewise, while recasts led to no uptake 69% of the time in the French immersion setting of the original study, this number was much lower at 29% in the Japanese immersion setting (Lyster & Mori, 2006)

Negotiation of form also remains an important issue in language classrooms. It is through this process that students re-evaluate their existing knowledge of the language and consider to revise what they know. Because reformulations in the form of recasts and explicit correction eliminate the possibility for the students to formulate the corrections themselves, negotiation of form was only possible

through the other four OCF strategies. Elicitation led to student-generated repair 28% of the time; metalinguistic feedback 23%, and clarification requests and repetition both 11%. Teachers may want to acknowledge that using these four strategies instead of recasts and explicit correction gives students more of a chance to form their own utterances rather than merely repeating what is already given to them, which could arguably be a simply mechanic response rather than negotiated meaning.

4. Conclusion

OCF has been found to be beneficial for L2 acquisition (e.g., Li, 2010; Nassaji, 2016; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006); however, research has not led to a consensus on the most effective OCF practices in the language classroom (Ellis, 2017; Loewen, 2013). Lyster and Ranta (1997) is a seminal study on OCF, both in terms of classifying the feedback strategies that teachers utilize in the language classroom, and in determining the effectiveness of each strategy based on learner uptake and student-generated repair of the original error. The replication took place in northwestern Turkey with adult learners of EFL at the intermediate level. Lyster and Ranta's classification of the OCF types and the operationalization of their effectiveness have been groundbreaking in the field. However, research has shown that the setting of the study may affect the results. This paper contributed to this line of argument by showing such differences in OCF effectiveness in a Turkish EFL setting, while also adding empirical data to the ongoing discussions of the effectiveness of OCF.

The findings of the present study may differ from Lyster and Ranta (1997) due to a number of possible reasons. The student bodies involved in the two studies and the settings are different. Lyster and Ranta studied French immersion classrooms at the primary school level in Canada, while the present study examined adult EFL classrooms in Turkey. Individual differences such as the ages, maturity levels and cognitive development levels of the students may have played a role; previous findings such as Lochtman (2002), Suzuki (2004), Lyster and Mori (2006), Llinares and Lyster (2014), and Wang and Li (2020) support the hypothesis that OCF patterns may differ across different cultures and contexts. In that regard, more replication studies are needed across the world in order to better understand OCF as a useful didactic tool in language classrooms so that teaching practices can be refined accordingly. In the meantime, in-service language teachers are advised to take an analytical look at their own OCF practices so that they can optimize the effectiveness of their strategies based on the preferences of their students.

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