A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EXPERIENCED AND LESS EXPERIENCED EFL TEACHERS' STATED BELIEFS ABOUT ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND THEIR CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

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ÖZET

DENEYİMLİ VE AZ DENEYİMLİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN SÖZEL DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜT İLE İLGİLİ İNANÇLARININ VE SINIF İÇİ UYGULAMALARININ KARŞILAŞTIRMALI ÇALIŞMASI

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Bu çalışma deneyimli ve az deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerin sözel düzeltici dönüt ile ilgili inançlarını ve sınıf içi sözel düzeltici dönüt uygulamalarını bulmak ve sonrasında bu ikisini karşılaştırıp aralarında tutarsızlık olup olmadığını incelemek için yürütülmüştür. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda; sınıf içi ses kayıtları, sözel düzeltici dönüt inançları anketi ve yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat kullanılarak bir karma yöntem araştırması yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları, Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinin hazırlık okulunda çalışan iki deneyimli ve iki az deneyimli öğretmendir. Çalışmanın sınıf içi kayıt verileri, 'Recast' tekniğinin tüm öğretmenlerin Dinleme ve Konuşma derslerinde en sık kullandıkları yöntem olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, tüm öğretmenlerin altı temel sözel dönüt tekniğini değişen derecelerde kullandığı belirlenmiştir. Diğer taraftan anket ve mülakat sonuçları deneyimli ve az deneyimli öğretmenlerin; sözel dönütün önemi, dönütlerin odağındaki hata türleri, farklı hata türleri için en etkili sözel dönüt türleri ve akran düzeltmesi gibi konularda hem çelişen hem de benzer fikirleri olduğunu bulmuştur. Öğretmenlerin inançları ve sınıf içi uygulamalarının karşılaştırılması sonucu her iki gruptaki öğretmenlerin bu ikisi arasında birçok tutarsızlığının olduğu ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sözel düzeltici dönüt, Öğretmen inançları, Deneyimli ve az deneyimli öğretmenler, Sözel öğrenci hataları.

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EXPERIENCED AND LESS EXPERIENCED EFL TEACHERS' STATED BELIEFS ABOUT ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND THEIR CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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The current study was undertaken to reveal the experienced and less experienced EFL teachers' stated beliefs about oral feedback types and their in-class practices and compare them to find out whether there were an inconsistences between the two. To reach its aims, a mixed-method was employed by means of classroom audio recordings, a belief questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The participants of the study were two experienced and two less experienced teachers teaching at preparatory school in a state university in Turkey. The classroom data showed that the most frequent feedback was Recast for both groups in Listening and Speaking classes. Also, they all used the six main types of oral feedback at varying degrees. On the other hand, the questionnaire and semi-structured interview results revealed that the experienced and less experienced teachers had both contrasting and similar ideas about the concepts such as priority of oral feedback, focus of correction, feedback types used for correction and peer-correction. The comparison of in-class practices and stated beliefs showed that there were a number of inconsistencies between the two in both groups.

Key words: Oral corrective feedback, Teacher beliefs, Experienced and less experienced teachers, Oral student errors.

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14/02/2020

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

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

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S. Yıldız

14/02/2020

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

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

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

CF: Corrective Feedback

ETs: Experienced Teachers

LETs: Less Experienced Teachers

ET1: First Experienced Teacher

ET2: Second Experienced Teacher

LET1: First Less Experienced Teacher

LET2: Second Less Experienced Teacher

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

L1: First Language (it is Turkish in this study)

L2: Second Language (it is English in this study)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Errors are indispensable part of learning a foreign and second language. Either consciously or unconsciously, teachers generally tend to correct the language errors using different types of oral corrective feedback (OCF). Researchers and scholars have used a variety of terms for OCF according to their disciplinary orientation. As Lyster & Ranta (1997) explain, it has been named as “negative evidence by linguists, as repair by discourse analysts, as negative feedback by psychologists, as corrective feedback by second language teachers and as focus-on-form in some work in classroom second language acquisition (SLA)” (p.38) When the research domain is examined, it is obviously seen that giving OCF to learner errors has been a long and heated debate among these scholars and researcher. With changing language teaching approaches and methods over the years, the ideas on the role of OCF have been profoundly diverse. While in Grammar Translation Method and the Audio-lingual Approach there was little or no tolerance to learner errors, in the Natural Approach or Communicative Language Teaching, which prioritized ‘negotiation of meaning’ and ‘communicative competence’, OCF was seen as ineffective, even counterproductive.

Scholars also stated varying and contrasting ideas on OCF. Brooks (1960), for example, claimed that errors were like sins and in order to avoid their influence, errors should be corrected immediately after they were committed. Yet, Krashen (1982) and Schwartz (1993) asserted that OCF was not useful, but even harmful as it raised the ‘affective filter’ of students and hindered language learning. They claimed that principles of universal grammar controlled the L2 acquisition as well as L1, that is grammatical structures were learned in a natural inner order without any instruction or correction. Truscott (1999) also claimed that OCF was harmful because of its negative effects such as anger, embarrassment and inhibition. Affected by these assumptions, teachers had a tolerant attitude towards learner errors and even ignored them in the classroom (Han, 2002). On the other hand, ignorance of learner errors and exclusion of focus-on form were later criticized and challenged by some scholars. Allen et al. (1990), for example, asserted that inconsistent and ambiguous feedback can affect learning negatively. Parallel to the idea, Lightbown and Spada (1999) explained that some researchers and educators disapproved the idea of allowing too much ‘freedom’ without correction and explicit correction suggested by Communicative Language Teaching as it was likely to lead to early fossilization of errors.

Evaluating the learner errors from a different perspective, Corder (1967) advocated the importance of learners errors and claimed that a learner's errors provides teachers with significant clues about learner's particular stage of the learning process. Corder explained that errors are important in three different ways. Firstly, if teachers engage in a systematic analysis of the learner errors, they can get clear ideas about how far the learner has progress in the certain language goals and how much remains to be acquired. Secondly, errors provide researchers with significant ideas about the process of language acquisition, and with strategies and methods employed by the language learners as well. The final and most important aspect is that errors, which are the crucial part of learners themselves, are used as a kind of language learning device. Learners test their "hypotheses about the nature of the language" they are learning. Together with these constructive findings about learner errors, a more balanced idea of providing judicious CF that is between seeing errors as undesirable and totally abandoning the correction seems to dominate the research area.

Besides ideas of scholars and researchers, teachers' beliefs that they hold about the nature of learner errors and the process of correcting, stand out as important components of CF. It is clear that teachers' conscious or even unconscious beliefs determine their practices in the classroom. So, examining teachers' beliefs can contribute not only to the CF research, but also teacher education programs. Yet, it was not until the 1970s that the research on teacher beliefs attracted attention and the studies on beliefs helped understand the "teachers' thought processes, instructional practices, and change and learning to teach" (Zheng, 2009, p.73). Simply, teacher beliefs, in other words 'teacher cognition' research investigated "what teachers think, know and believe" (Borg, 2003, p.81). Studies on beliefs helped construct a new view that teachers were not people just comprehending theories and principles prescribed by experts, but rather, as Basturkmen,et al.(2004) explain, formulate their own feasible theories.

Throughout the time, studies on teachers' beliefs had different motives. Some studies examined the self-efficacy and beliefs about teaching (e.g. Brousseau et al., 1988), some wished to reveal the role of teachers' thoughts and beliefs in interactive decision making (e.g. Tsang, 2004a) and other studies investigated the sources of teachers’ beliefs about teaching (e.g. Crookes and Arakaki, 1999). Furthermore, only a few studies searched for the possible link between teachers’ use of CF and their classroom practices (e.g. Mori, 2011; Roothooft, 2014; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Kamiya, 2016).

Teacher beliefs can be difficult to research as teachers may be unconscious of them, reluctant to reveal them and may sometimes have difficulty labelling them (Kagan, 1992; Thompson, 1984). Yet, as Pajares (1992) explains when the concepts and key assumptions about beliefs are clear, when exact meanings are comprehended, when specific belief constructs are evaluated accurately, “beliefs can be single most important construct in educational research” (p. 329).

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Nearly four decades ago, some primary questions about error correction were articulated Hendrickson (1978); “1. Should learners’ errors be corrected? 2. If so, when should learners’ errors be corrected? 3. Which errors should be corrected? 4. Who should do the correcting? 5. How should errors be corrected?” (p. 389).

Despite some controversies, as an answer of the first question, a reasonable amount of experimental (e.g. Li, 2013; Ellis et al., 2006; Moghaddam and Behjat, 2014; Heift, 2004; Sheen, 2010 etc.) and observational classroom studies (e.g. Havranek, 2002; McDonough, 2005; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006; Sheen 2004; Saxton et al., 2005; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013 etc.) seem to suggest that judicious corrective feedback (CF) promotes second and foreign language learning. However, scholars and researchers still do not seem to have found adequate and satisfying answers for the remaining critical questions throughout the time. In order to find some reasonable answers to the questions about oral error correction, it is essential to analyse the ways teachers’ put feedback into practice in different classroom settings as novice and experienced teachers may have varied practices in different classroom contexts. However, there a few studies which include the effect of teaching experience in oral corrective feedback (OCF) research (e.g. Mackey et al., 2004; Junqueira and Kim, 2013). It is clear that more research is needed on this issue.

Another point is that, most of the studies only focus on teachers’ OCF practices in the classroom and the beneficial effects of certain correction types. Yet, including teachers’ beliefs about OCF is profoundly essential to shed light on different dimensions of CF. As Pajares (1992) expresses, when teacher beliefs are excluded from the research on teacher behaviours and practices, little can be achieved as beliefs construct practices in the classrooms. Research on teacher beliefs can help understand their crucial mental processes during OCF instructions. On the other hand, studies aiming to elicit teacher beliefs just through questionnaires without analysing their practices can similarly be inadequate. As Phipps and Borg (2009) explain, “beliefs elicited through the discussion of actual classroom practices may be more rooted in reality – beliefs about what is – and reflect teachers’ practical or experiential knowledge” (p.382). Therefore, in order to understand the rationales behind the teachers’ choices of specific OCF types and to put the research findings about beneficial effects of CF into use, it is essential to analyse teachers' beliefs and practices together. In this vein, Basturkmen (2012) also asserts that examining teachers’ practices that were not planned beforehand can also reveal their unconscious beliefs. Yet, the language teaching domain seems to have insufficient information on this issue as there are a limited number of studies (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Al-Faki & Siddiek, 2013; Mori, 2011; Roothooft, 2014) that evaluate the teachers’ stated beliefs and their real classroom practices together. It is clear that little is known about the teachers’ thought processes during OCF instances. Furthermore, almost all of the studies on beliefs and practices have found some discrepancies between teachers’ beliefs and practices. So, it is clear that researchers need to shed light on this issue by investigating it more in different educational settings. This can both help teachers reflect on their own teaching and work out any divergences between their deeply rooted beliefs and actual practices. Additionally, teacher educators can re-organize the related parts in their teacher education programs.

1.2. Aims of the Study and Research Questions

The current study aims to add to the limited body of knowledge by analysing Turkish non-native EFL teachers’ stated beliefs and their classroom practices to determine the extent to which language teachers' instructional practices are consistent with their theoretical beliefs. Furthermore, as Mackey et al. (2004) explain, “One individual difference that may play an important role in L2 teachers’ use of incidental focus-on-form techniques (i.e., CF) is teachers’ level of experience” (p. 307), this study also examines the possible effects of teaching experience on their beliefs and practices. In accordance with these aims, the following research questions are going to be investigated:

1) What types of oral corrective feedback do the experienced and less experienced non-native EFL teachers use for different error types?

2) What are these language teachers' stated beliefs and preferences about oral corrective feedback?

3) To what extent are teachers’ beliefs about oral corrective feedback consistent with their observed practice? Are there any discrepancies?

1.3. Significance of the Study

The contribution of the current study on the teachers’ side is twofold. First, it provides experienced and less experienced teachers with a clear picture of their choices of OCF. So, they can be aware of their feedback choices during communicative practices. As Roothooft (2014) points out, learning about findings of CF research may possibly lead teachers use different types of CF techniques and this can make their teaching more productive. Besides examining the types of CF, Roothooft (2014) adds that finding out about teachers' beliefs about CF can be beneficial to “reflect on their teaching and to improve their teaching by making more conscious, and informed decisions when dealing with their learners' spoken errors” (p.67). It is obvious that focusing on teachers’ beliefs about CF can also help them be aware of their unconscious beliefs that shape their automatic feedback choices in the classroom and work out any discrepancies which might arise between their feedback beliefs and practices.

An additional contribution of the study may be to have more ideas about whether having more teaching experience has any effect on choosing particular oral feedback types and amount of inconsistencies between beliefs and practices. Also, findings about beneficial effects of OCF types used by experienced teachers can be helpful especially for teacher candidates and novice teachers.

The current study can also make an important contribution to the teacher education field. As Aydın (2015) articulates, investigating teachers' beliefs and feedback practices can provide valuable ideas for teacher trainers and curriculum developers to improve teaching profession. It is known that an important part of teacher beliefs is formed during pre-service teacher education, so investigating their deep-seated beliefs and the roots of these beliefs can obviously improve teacher education. Ellis (2009) explains that teacher educators can “help teachers see how their ideas about CF reflect their overall teaching philosophy and thus to assist them to review this critically” (p.15). By this way they can work out any inconsistencies between their beliefs and future OCF practices in the classroom. Furthermore, informing teacher candidates more about the OCF instructions and including important findings of related research can undoubtedly help them develop their cognition. Educators may even include some awareness-raising OCF activities in the teacher education curriculum, which can make a concrete connection between theory and practice.

Studying teacher beliefs on OCF practices can also open new avenues for researchers and inspire them to examine the unplanned practices of teachers in the classroom to find out more about their implicit beliefs.

1.4. Limitations

Even though the current study has some important implications for the research area, there are some limitations of it. The first limitation is the number of participants. The researcher could only investigate feedback uses and stated beliefs of two experienced and two less experienced EFL instructors’ at a state university. Although some insights are gained through the comparison between experienced and less experienced teachers’ beliefs and practices, they may not be generalized.

Another limitation is that the classroom data was collected over audio recordings, not video recordings, which might lead to overlook some nonverbal parts of the CF turns. The study is also limited to teachers' feedback choices for Intermediate level students' errors. Different levels of students may give different results.

1.5. Definition of the Terms

The definitions of the frequently used terms in the study are given below so as to make the senses they are used in the study clearer.

Error: A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts (Lennon, 1991).

Mistake: Deviant forms that can be repaired by the learner with an appropriate instruction (James, 2013).

Error types: They are four main types; grammatical, lexical, phonological and L1 use as it was "unsolicited by the teacher" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Oral Corrective Feedback: Any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance (Chaudron, 1977).

Oral Corrective Feedback Types: Six main types include Recast, Explicit correction, Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests, and Repetition (Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

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

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Error vs. mistake

Language scholars and educators have articulated different meanings for language ‘errors’ and ‘mistakes’ according to their language acquisition perspectives. As an early pioneer of ‘Error Analyses’ and advocator of the importance of learner errors, Corder (1967) explained errors as defects in their knowledge of the language and added that errors are systematic and “we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language to date”. On the other hand, ‘mistakes’ are the unsystematic performance errors such as slip of the tongue and memory lapses. Corder claims that learners can correct their mistakes whereas this is not possible for the errors as learners’ current linguistic level and interlanguage system hinder them to detect these errors.

Edge (1989) termed mistakes as ‘slip’ and explained them as language mistakes that students can self-correct. For him, “if a student cannot correct his or her own English, but the teacher thinks that the class is familiar with the correct form, we shall call that sort of mistake an error”.

Similarly, James (2013) called the deviant forms that can be repaired by the learner with an appropriate instruction as ‘mistakes’. He defined errors as lack of knowledge in language rules and learners cannot correct the errors without any outside help.

As a different perspective, Lennon (1991) claims that it is considerably difficult and problematic to define language ‘error’ as even native speaker teachers make wrong judgements in error identification. Therefore, Lennon finds the specific definitions of ‘error’ which include the terms such as ‘fluent speakers’ or ‘educated native speakers’ as questionable and unclear. After evaluating the different definitions, Lennon (1991) suggests a more judicious definition for ‘error’; “a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts” (p.182). The current study employs this final definition.

2.2. Categories of errors

Language learners commit different kinds of written and oral errors. Before evaluating these error types, it is important to analyse the sources of them. Touchie (1986) defined two major sources of errors; the first one is interference from the native language and the second is intralingual and developmental factors. Learners' native language is considerably influential on the target language they learn and they are called 'interlingual errors' by Touchie (1986), 'transfer errors' by Corder (1981).

As for the categories of errors, Burt (1975) distinguishes between two main types; 'global' errors that "affect overall sentence organization" (p. 56) and 'local' errors which "affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly, such as errors in noun inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation" (p.57). Burt (1975) claims that it is not necessary to correct all errors for a successful communication and adds that correcting one global error helps more to convey the speaker's intended meaning than correcting several local errors in the same sentence.

Looking from a different research perspective, Mackey et al. (2000) categorized errors in four types; phonology, morphosyntax, lexis, and semantics analyse their interactional data. Similar to this categorization, Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated four main learner error types; grammatical, lexical, phonological and L1 use as it was "unsolicited by the teacher" (p.45). Lyster and Ranta also specified '*multiple*' for the errors which included more than one error type.

In the present study, these four error categories described as grammatical, lexical, phonological and unsolicited Turkish use were used for student error transcriptions.

2.3. The Model for Error Categorisation and Oral Corrective Feedback Types

To evaluate the verbal exchanges between students and teachers during activities, Spada & Fröhlich (1995) developed the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme. It was divided into two parts. Part A specifies classroom events within the activity such as activity type, participant organization, content, student modality and material. Part B illustrates the communicative aspects of verbal exchanges which included use of target language, information gap, sustained speech, reaction to the code or message, incorporation of preceding utterances, discourse initiation, and relative restriction of linguistic form. Two of these communicative features; discourse initiation and relative restriction of linguistic form are only coded for students, but the remaining features are coded for both teachers and students.

Doughty (1994) used some categories in her analysis of fine-tuning feedback in her study. The features of teacher-learner interaction were coded together with their functional definitions. For example, well-formed learner utterances were coded as ‘no error’ or utterances that were inappropriately brief were coded as ‘too brief’. Teacher feedback turn were classified as teacher clarification request, teacher repetition, teacher recast, teacher expansion that included additional information, teacher translation (immediate translation into French), teacher English (teacher responded in English) and as untranscribable which meant unclear student utterances.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) compiled a new feedback coding model by combining the related parts of COLT Part B coding scheme by Spada & Fröhlich (1995) and Doughty’s (1994) and distinguished six types of CF: Recast, Explicit correction, Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests, and Repetition. Lyster and Ranta define these types as follows:

1. ***Recasts*** “involve the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error” (p.46). Recast is mostly “implicit” as the teacher does not clearly utter that there is an error.

(T: Teacher, FM: Female student (FS1, FS2, etc.) MS: Male Student (MS1, MS2, etc.))

MS8: There is a mountain [phonological error /maʊnteɪn/].

T: There is a mountain. Is it a high mountain? [recast]

2. ***Explicit correction*** is “the explicit provision of the correct form. The teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (e.g., “Oh, you mean,” “You should say”)” (p.46).

MS2: Experience! [lexical error]

T: Not experience. We say experiment! – [explicit correction]

3. ***Elicitation*** has three different methods all of which aim to help the student elicit the correct form. “First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to ‘fill in the blank’. Second, teachers use questions to elicit correct forms. Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance” (p.48).

MS1: On the contrary, some people just go to zoos for see animals. [grammatical error]

T: Zoos educate people about animals. On the contrary, some people just go to zoos :: ? (00:02) [elicitation]

MS1: To see animals.

4. ***Metalinguistic feedback*** “contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form” (p.47).

FS2: They are used for find. [grammatical error]

T: If we use ‘used to’ then we have infinitive. If we use ‘used for’ then we have to use gerund after it. –[metalinguistic feedback]

5. ***Clarification requests*** shows that the teacher cannot understand the student’s erroneous utterance and wants a clarification. This feedback type hints the “ problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both” (p.47).

FS1: It died new. [lexical error]

T: Sorry? It lived? [clarification request]

6. ***Repetition*** is “teacher’s repetition, in isolation, of the student’s erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error” (p.48).

Some: Wolves! [lexical error]

T: Wolves? [repetition]

FS1: They are dogs.

Translation is an additional form of corrective feedback for unsolicited L1use. In their study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) included ‘translation’ in recast because it rarely occurred and these infrequent occurrences served as a recast. Yet, in the current study since L1 use errors were frequent; Translation was also coded as another type of feedback.

In the present study, this model is taken as basis because we can state three main reasons to prefer Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) model. First of all, it provided a very practical tool to identify each teacher’s styles and techniques of OCF in detail. The model provides a clear view of the teacher- student interaction which starts with a teacher prompt or an erroneous utterance of the student. The teacher either provides OCF or ignores the error by not giving any explicit or implicit feedback. If the teacher employs corrective feedback the sequence continues with either topic continuation or student uptake which is not within the scope of the present study. The errors were mainly related grammatical, phonological, lexical and L1use. In fact, L1 usage does not necessarily mean an error, but function as unsolicited learner utterances. So, they were coded as another feedback category.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted their study with young learners in 13 French language arts and 14 subject-matter lessons L2 immersion classrooms. Although the first aim of the current study is to find out error treatment patterns of experienced and less experienced teachers and their stated belief about oral error correction its secondary aim was to find out whether Lyster and Ranta’s OCF taxonomy would provide different results in a Turkish EFL instructional context.

The final reason to choose this model is that results of the present study can be easily compared to the findings from previous studies that applied the same model.

After having considered the above stated reasons and suggestions about the discussed model proposed by Lyster & Ranta, the researcher in this present study finds this model highly appropriate for the aims and scope of his study.

2.4. Corrective Feedback and Second Language Acquisition Theories

Chaudron (1977) defined corrective feedback (CF) as “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (p.31). CF has been debated by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theorists since 1970s as it is closely related to the cognitive theories in SLA. The reasons of this relation lie within the nature of the CF as it mostly occurs in teacher-student and student-student interactions in the classroom. During these interactions, teachers provide target input and students get the opportunity to perceive any discrepancies between their interlanguage and the target input provided in the OCF (Mackey, 2006). By this curial processing, learners can restore their linguistic errors, and improve their foreign or second language acquisition.

2.4.1. The input hypothesis

The input hypothesis is advocated by Krashen (1981), and suggests that students acquire language in just one way- by obtaining ‘comprehensible input’. Individuals understand messages that contain this rule. That is claimed to happen by the help of extra linguistic context, general knowledge, and our existing linguistic competence. The hypothesis also claims that by obtaining comprehensible input, the ability to speak emerges on its own as a result of language acquisition.

The other basic component of the input hypothesis is that, when delivered in sufficient quality and quantity, comprehensible input automatically contains all the appropriate structures for the acquirer (Krashen, 1981). Krashen argues that this approach is far more efficient than intentional grammatical sequencing for the development of grammatical accuracy. In this sense, Krashen, and scholars like Schwartz (1993) and Terrell (1982), did not favour the OCF as it raised the ‘affective filter’ of students and prevented language acquisition. They also believed that correcting errors changed the focus of the lesson from communication to content.

2.4.2. The interaction hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis proposed by Long (1983) builds upon the comprehensible input view of the input hypothesis. He suggests that interaction, or ‘negotiation of meaning’ in its basic form, provides learners with comprehensible input, which helps them acquire the target language. Long (1996) expresses the process as, “Negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways” (p.414)

Long adds that “Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development” and “essential for learning certain specifiable L1–L2 contrasts” (p. 414). In this vein, in interaction hypothesis, providing negative feedback, that is correcting errors, was seen beneficial for language acquisition.

2.4.3. The output hypothesis

Swain’s (1985) output hypothesis claims that although comprehensible input is important, it is necessary to push learners reach the accurate language production or in other terms comprehensible output. Swain argues that negotiating for meaning needs to be broadened beyond simply conveying one’s message in two-way communication as grammatically deviant forms cannot deliver one’s message across. ‘Negotiating of meaning’ needs to incorporate the notion of “pushed language use” to convey the message coherently and precisely.

For Swain, output has some crucial functions in language acquisition. As a first function, it helps learners to be aware of or to notice what they cannot say or write during communication. This encourages them to acquire the necessary grammatical resources. Another function of the output is to provide learners with hypothesis testing. Learners have the chance of testing their production and at this point they expect feedback from their teachers (Liberato, 2012).

2.5. Research Made in the Field of Corrective Feedback

A large amount of OCF research has been done in both Foreign Language (FL) and Second Language (SL) contexts with different proficiency and age groups and both in laboratory and classroom settings. These studies generally aimed to find out the occurrences and effects of different OCF types, learners' uptake after OCF use and both teachers' and learners' attitudes towards OCF.

2.5.1. Experimental studies

Experimental studies mostly aimed to evaluate the differential effects of OCF and 'repair' and 'uptake' are frequently used terms in them. Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined uptake as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p.49) and they categorized it into two: (a) uptake that results in "repair" of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair. Furthermore, they identified four different repair types. The first one is *repetition* and it refers to student's repetition of the teacher's feedback with the correct form. *Incorporation* refers to a student's repetition of the correct form by including it into his or her utterance. *Self-repair* means a self-correction of the student after the teacher's feedback which does not include the correct form.

Evaluating the uptake in the learners' utterances after providing certain OCF types, a number of studies investigated the grammatical competence and speech accuracy. As an example, McDonough and Mackey (2006) examined the effects of Recasts as feedback and students' responses on second language (L2) question development. In their study, there were 58 EFL learners that were all native speakers of Thai and they were randomly selected for the recast and control group. They investigated responses to recasts as follows; "(a) when a learner immediately repeats some or all of the recast in the third turn and, (b) when a learner produces a new utterance using the syntactic structure that was provided in the recast, either immediately or a few turns later" (p. 698). During a 9-week period, the participants carried out a number of tasks that included communication tasks with native English speakers. Results showed that recasts and primed production promoted uptake and improvement in L2 question development. Yet, they found that repetition of recasts in the subsequent turn did not provide significant advancement.

In another study, Rassaei and Moinzadeh (2011) examined the immediate and delayed effects of Recasts, Clarification requests and Metalinguistic feedback on English wh-question forms acquisition. 134 Iranian EFL learners were equally divided to four groups. In three experimental classes; recasts, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification requests were carried out. One was chosen as a control group. During treatment sessions, learners were provided with two sets of pictures including 10 pictures each and half of them included slightly different pictures to make students detect the differences. The students were provided with different types of feedback according to their groups when they failed use a wh-question form or an ungrammatical form. Results showed that only Recasts and Metalinguistic feedback led positive results on students' performance on the post-test. However, Clarification requests did not lead uptake. Among three types of feedback, Metalinguistic feedback proved to be the clearest and the most effective one in both posttest and delayed posttest. Further studies (Li, 2013; Ellis et al., 2006; Moghaddam and Behjat, 2014; Heift, 2004; Sheen, 2010 etc.) also show that OCF has some beneficial effects on improving grammatical competence.

In a different study, Heift (2004) evaluated the effects of OCF on learner uptake in Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Totally 177 students from three different Canadian universities participated in the study. Three feedback types were focused on: Repetition + Highlighting, Meta-linguistic and Meta-linguistic + Highlighting. The results showed that Meta-linguistic + Highlighting which included an explanation of the error and also highlighted the error in the student input was the most effective at eliciting learner uptake. Moreover, two learner variables; gender and language proficiency did not have a significant effect on learner responses to OCF.

As for a different research point, Chu (2011), examined the effects of OCF on oral English accuracy among high\medium and low group of students by employing a variety of qualitative and quantitative methods. During the treatment sessions, experimental classes were provided with CF and the control class was given none OCF. The findings revealed that OCF affected oral English accuracy positively.

Hejazi (2012) investigated the possible results of CF on the development of EFL learners' speech accuracy. The participant students took a TOEFL test and were randomly divided into experimental group and control group. 18 students in the experimental group received CF while 22 students in the control group did not. The t-test results showed there was a statistically significant relationship between the teachers' use of CF and the students' speech accuracy.

In a more recent study, Naeimi et al. (2017) studied the effect of four different types of OCF, namely, implicit and explicit recast, explicit and implicit elicitation, on the most common phonological errors among Iranian EFL learners through immediate uptake and retention. They randomly categorized five classes into four experimental groups and one control group, each with 18 intermediate-level male learners. There we nine treatment sessions in the form of a retelling task. The learners' uptake was recorded during the feedback sessions and their retention was also examined in one immediate and one delayed post-test. The results showed that the learners who got the highest score in terms of correct uptake were those receiving explicit recast. The learners' scores increased over time. Yet, except for the group which were provided explicit elicitation, the increase diminished and even dropped in the delayed post-test in all the experimental groups. Explicit elicitation group apparently had more retention of the target phonological items.

Finally, Edmond (2018) analyzed student responses to teacher-generated recasts in an adult ESL context. The study was carried out in a low-level ESL class of 23 adult students at an education and training center in Pacoima, California. The teacher-student interactions were audio recorded during a form-focused, speaking activity. For the type and number of form-focused OCF turns and immediate learner responses after teacher feedback, fifty-minutes of the recording were transcribed and analyzed. The findings revealed that different from some other studies on recast, most of the student uptake was in response to teacher-generated partial recasts. These findings show that the effectiveness of recast depends on a number of variables that include the focus of classroom instruction and the qualities of the recast itself. These overall results clearly show that CF has facilitative effects on language learning.

2.5.2. Studies based on observation

Observational studies that evaluated the teachers' CF use and students' reactions date back to 1970s. As some of the earlier studies, Holley and King (1971) and Fanselow (1977) observed the teachers' error treatment in classroom and Chaudron (1977) investigated student repair after CF provided by teachers.

As leading researchers to compile a new feedback coding model in CF field, Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998), Panova and Lyster (2004) carried out observations in Canadian Immersion Programmes in order to find out occurrences of CF types and learners' uptake that is learners' repair or any responses. They found that 'recast' was the most used type and also different CF types were effective for certain errors. Lyster (1998) discovered that while CF types that are named as "negotiation of form" (i.e. Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification request etc.) were more effective for lexical errors, 'recasts' were more favorable for grammatical and phonological errors.

In a similar study carried out at two secondary schools in Hong Kong, Tsang (2004b) found that 'recast' the most frequent type of feedback followed by explicit correction. Yet, they led the least amount of repair generated by students. Furthermore, the most grammatical repairs followed from 'negotiation' which included Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation, Repetition and Clarification request.

In another classroom-based observational study, Havranek (2002) tried to find out whether there was any relationship between the efficacy of CF and linguistic or contextual factors. The subjects were 207 learners from varied proficiency levels and age groups. 1700 instances of CF were analyzed and these observations showed that most of the learners who received CF gained positive results and it contributed to their subsequent test results as well. Furthermore, linguistic and contextual factors were also found to be effective on corrected learners' and peers' test scores.

Zhang and Rahimi (2014) addressed the EFL learners' beliefs about CF in terms of different types, frequency, timing and necessity of it and their corrector choices. The results of the study revealed that both high- and low-anxiety level learners strongly believed that they profited from CF. Both groups also expressed that explicit, immediate and frequent correction facilitated their language learning.

Alsolami and Elyas (2016) investigated different types of OCF including learner uptake moves in teacher-learners interaction turns in the low intermediate EFL classes. The subjects were 104 male EFL learners enrolled in an English language institute and five teachers from different nationalities. Eight different classes were video-recorded and the data was transcribed. The findings showed that recast was the most frequently employed OCF type by EFL teachers. Yet, it led the lowest amount of repair. The types such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition and explicit correction were much more effective in eliciting repair.

Hartono (2018) tried to find out types of OCF used by an academic lecturer, the most effective types of OCF in the lecturer's opinion, the types of uptakes after lecturer's feedbacks and finally most favorable OCF for students. Twenty seven students in an academic speaking class also participated in the study. The findings revealed that the lecturer mostly applied explicit correction (90%). Furthermore, the lecturer believed that explicit correction was the most effective type. On the other hand, repetition led the most uptakes although most of the students preferred repetition.

To conclude, in a meta-analysis of 31 different OCF studies, Russell and Spada (2006) also found some statistically meaningful results about the effectiveness of feedback in general on grammar learning. They concluded that "CF has a substantial effect on L2 acquisition" and "the benefits of CF are durable" (p. 152). Similarly, in his detailed meta-analysis of 33 studies, Li (2013) examined the effects of CF on second language acquisition and found that CF had beneficial and durable effects, effects of implicit feedback was better retained and CF studies carried out in EFL contexts provided more significant results than those carried out in L2 contexts.

2.6. Teachers' Beliefs and Oral Corrective Feedback

Beliefs held by teachers are crucial elements to understand the concepts in teaching and learning process. Yet, it is difficult to study beliefs as teachers may be unconscious of them, reluctant to reveal them and may sometimes have difficulty labelling them (Kagan, 1992; Thompson, 1984). As Pajares (1992) explains, this complex nature of them lead to "definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures" (p.309). So, there is not a consensus on a clear definition of ‘belief’. Researchers also used varying terms such as “attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding and social strategy” (Pajares, 1992, p.309) for the concept of ‘belief’. Clark and Peterson (1986) define ‘belief’ as “the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions” (p.258). Borg (2001), on the other hand, defines it as “a mental state which has as its content a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding it, although the individual may recognize that alternative beliefs may be held by others” (p.186). A more generally agreed meaning can be “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 2003, p.2). Kagan (1992) defines ‘teacher beliefs’ more specifically as “tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught” (p.65), which addresses their educational beliefs.

The controversy of defining ‘belief’ is also connected to the difficulty of distinguishing it from ‘knowledge’, which makes it a “daunting undertaking” (Pajares, 1992, p. 309). Some researchers like Richardson (2003) make a distinction between these two. She suggests that “beliefs are propositions that are accepted as true by the individual holding the belief, but they do not require epistemic warrant. Knowledge, however, does” (p.3). Furthermore, Pajares explains that belief systems are debatable, subjective and usually inflexible while knowledge systems are dynamic and open to change. Looking from a different perspective, Borg (2003) groups these two terms together as ‘teacher cognition’ and refers it as “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching –what teachers know, believe, and think” (p.81). It is obvious that the terms are intertwined and they affect each other, which in turn makes it almost impossible to distinguish them clearly. Yet, it can certainly be said that teachers’ beliefs and knowledge have a powerful effect on their classroom practices.

As ‘beliefs’ are difficult to observe for researchers, they generally use questionnaires, surveys, interviews, stimulated recalls, think aloud protocols etc. to gather teachers’ ‘stated beliefs’. Basturkmen et al. (2004) defined teachers’ ‘stated beliefs' as "statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done', 'should be the case', and 'is preferable" (p.244). The present study also resorted to teachers' stated beliefs through a questionnaire and one-to-one interviews with each one.

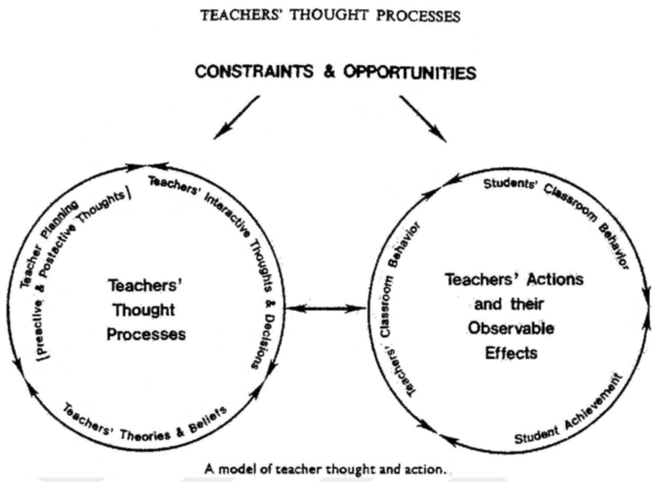
TEACHERS' THOUGHT PROCESSES
CONSTRAINTS & OPPORTUNITIES
Teachers' Thought Processes
Teacher Planning (Preactive & Postactive Thoughts)
Teachers' Interactive Thoughts & Decisions
Teachers' Theories & Beliefs
Teachers' Actions and their Observable Effects
Students' Classroom Behavior
Student Achievement
Teachers' Classroom Behavior
A model of teacher thought and action.

Figure 2.1. *A model of teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions (Clark and Peterson, 1986; cited in Borg, 2006)*

2.6.1. Sources of teachers' beliefs

It is known that teachers begin their profession with established beliefs about language learning, teaching, students, effective methods, approaches and so on. Research on this dimension shows that teacher beliefs have some certain sources. Borg (2003) points out these sources as *schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice and contextual factors* (see Figure 2.2).

In addition to these basic sources, Richards & Lockhart (1994) illustrated some other sources such as

- *Established practice*: Some schools and institutions may require teachers to use pre-determined teaching styles and practices.
- *Personality factors*: Some teachers may tend to use certain types of teaching methods or arrangement that are in accordance with their personality.

- *Educationally based or research-based principles*: Teachers may try to put the things they learned from other disciplines such as psychology and L2 acquisition into use. They may also want to apply the information they learn from research studies or conferences on language teaching.

- *Principles derived from an approach or method:* Teachers may want to use a particular approach or method that works best for them in the classroom.

It is obvious that various components form the teacher beliefs. One purpose of teacher education can be to help teacher candidates to form clear, conscious and coherent beliefs during their education programs.

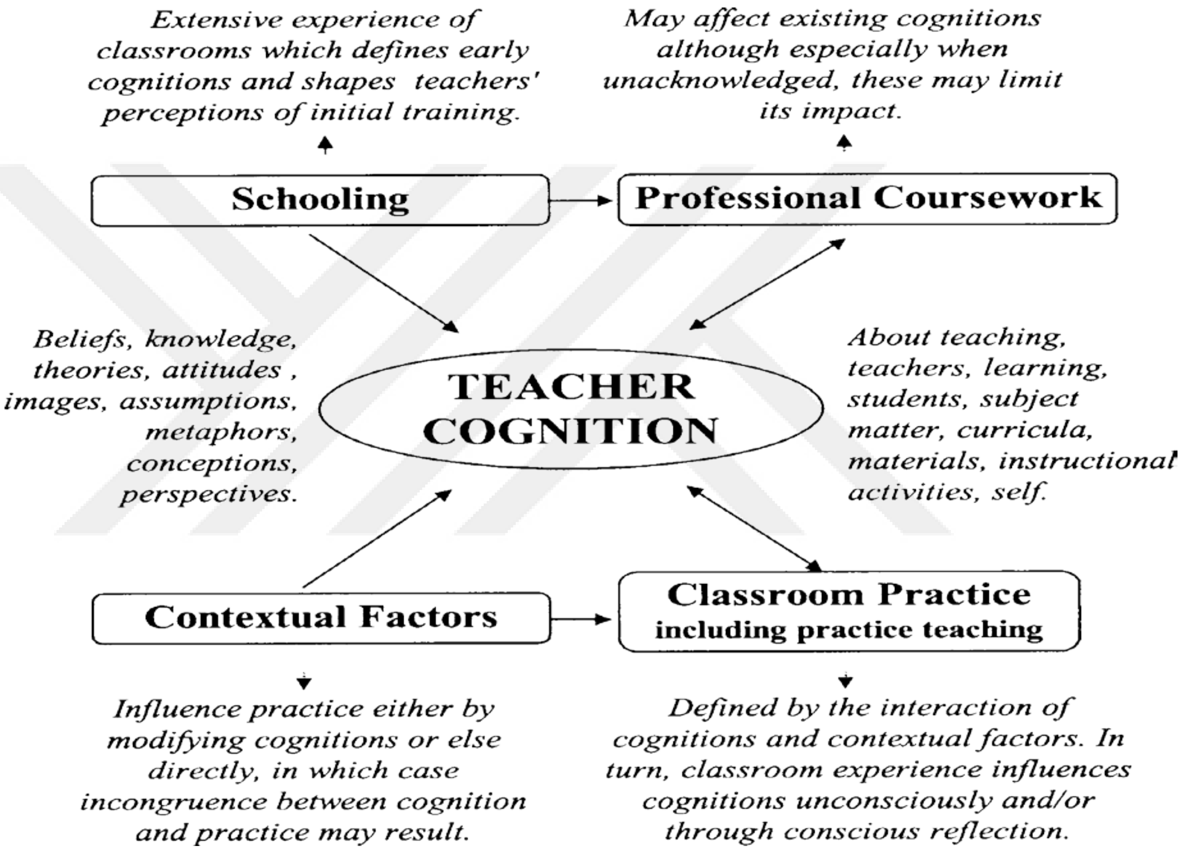
Extensive experience of classrooms which defines early cognitions and shapes teachers' perceptions of initial training.
May affect existing cognitions although especially when unacknowledged, these may limit its impact.
Schooling
Professional Coursework
Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions, perspectives.
TEACHER COGNITION
About teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula, materials, instructional activities, self.
Contextual Factors
Classroom Practice including practice teaching
Influence practice either by modifying cognitions or else directly, in which case incongruence between cognition and practice may result.
Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection.

Figure 2.2. *Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg 1997, cited in 2003)*

2.6.2. Research into teachers' beliefs

The history of research into teachers' beliefs goes back to more than forty years. In the 1960s, as the behaviourist approach was still dominant in the field of education, teachers' observable behaviours were studied. Productive teaching practices that would stimulate learning were investigated. This "process-product" model of research aimed to find out “effective behaviours in the belief that could be applied universally by teachers” (Borg, 2009, p.1).

In the 1970s, with the rise of cognitive psychology, the behaviourism began to be criticised. Cognitive psychology helped take attentions on teachers’ mental processes such as perception, thinking, consciousness and decision making. From that time on, as Borg (2009) explains teachers were no longer seen as “robots who simply implemented, in an unthinking manner, curricula designed by others; rather, teachers exerted agency in the classroom – they made decisions, both before and while teaching” (p.1). Educational researchers began to concern about teachers’ beliefs that shaped their classroom practices.

In the 1980s, the number of research on teachers’ beliefs, namely ‘teacher cognition’ increased. Yet, there were some criticism on teacher cognition research, too. Most of the earlier studies were conducted in laboratory settings and were isolated from the contextual factors that affected teachers in the real classroom settings (Borg, 2006). This ‘socio-psychological’ dimension was included in subsequent studies. Another criticism was that teachers’ ‘pedagogical content knowledge’ was ignored in teacher cognition studies (Borg, 2006). However, the process of teachers’ acquiring and transferring the content knowledge was quite important to understand their beliefs.

In 1990s and 2000s, besides the growing number of studies, some important reviews focused on different aspects of teacher cognition such as teacher knowledge (e.g. Fenstermacher, 1994; Shulman and Quinlan, 1996), attitudes and beliefs (e.g. Richardson, 1996; Ashton, 2015), learning to teach (Carter, 1990; Borko and Putnam, 1996), teaching beliefs and practices (e.g. Kane et al., 2002; Basturkmen, 2012) and so on. All of these studies have provided researchers, scholars and educators with crucial information about teachers’ belief systems. In his comprehensive article on the concept of belief, Pajares (1992:324-6) compiled these important findings from the research into beliefs as follows:

1. Beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate, persevering even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling, or experience.

2. Individuals develop a belief system that houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission.

3. The belief system has an adaptive function in helping individuals define and understand the world and themselves.

4. Knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined, but the potent affective, evaluative, and episodic nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted.

5. Thought processes may well be precursors to and creators of belief, but the filtering effect of belief structures ultimately screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing.

6. Epistemological beliefs play a key role in knowledge interpretation and cognitive monitoring.

7. Beliefs are prioritized according to their connections or relationship to other beliefs or other cognitive and affective structures. Apparent inconsistencies may be explained by exploring the functional connections and centrality of the beliefs.

8. Belief substructures, such as educational beliefs, must be understood in terms of their connections not only to each other but also to other, perhaps more central, beliefs in the system.

9. By their very nature and origin, some beliefs are more incontrovertible than others.

10. The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter. Newly acquired beliefs are most vulnerable to change.

11. Belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon, the most common cause being a conversion from one authority to another or a gestalt shift. Individuals tend to hold on to beliefs based on incorrect or incomplete knowledge, even after scientifically correct explanations are presented to them.

12. Beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks; hence, they play a critical role in defining behaviour and organizing knowledge and information.

13. Beliefs strongly influence perception, but they can be an unreliable guide to the nature of reality.

14. Individuals' beliefs strongly affect their behaviour.

15. Beliefs must be inferred, and this inference must take into account the congruence among individuals' belief statements, the intentionality to behave in a predisposed manner, and the behaviour related to the belief in question.

16. Beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student gets to college.

2.6.3. Studies on teachers’ stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback

Most of the observational and experimental research done in the field oral corrective feedback (OCF) has generally investigated the occurrences and effects of different CF types and learners’ uptake after CF use. Yet, teachers’ beliefs about OCF have received very little attention by researchers and scholars. Moreover, the consistency between their beliefs and practices is not investigated adequately since few studies were conducted to investigate it.

As an example of the few studies, Basturkmen et al. (2004) examined the link between three teachers' focus on form practices and their stated beliefs about CF in L2 communicative lessons through classroom observations, stimulated recalls, interviews and cued response scenarios. Results showed that teachers’ practices regarding focus on form differed. They found some outstanding similarities among the three teachers' focus on form practices. There were some definite differences as well. They all articulated very clear and similar beliefs about how to focus on form and favoured student self-correction. On the other hand, there were some inconsistencies between the teachers' stated beliefs about focus on form and classroom practices. For example, the teachers all believed not to interfere with the communicative flow of the lesson, but their reactive focus on form practices hindered the flow. Basturkmen et al. (2004) concluded that they found “tenuous links between the teachers' stated beliefs and their practice of focus on form” (p.269).

In a case study, Farrokhi (2007) also investigated the relationship between five teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices of OCF in EFL in a private English language teaching institute in Tabriz. The data was gathered through in-class observations and feedback questionnaire. When results from the observational and questionnaire data were compared, some inconsistencies appeared again. Although the teachers stated that negotiated feedback and explicit correction were effective types, their percentages of occurrence were rather low in their actual performance. The results of the study also showed that the effective feedback types may interfere with the communication flow and may not lead students' to produce accurate target structures.

In a different study, Mori (2011) investigated how the knowledge and beliefs of two EFL teachers formed their OCF practices. The study based on classroom observations and interview data to reveal teachers’ beliefs. Different from other studies, Mori included personal experiences, cultural and social factors into CF research designs. The participants were a native speaker, who had eight years of teaching experience and no teaching background and a native Japanese teacher with 20 years of teaching experience. Results revealed that the teachers’ choices of OCF depended partly on “instructional focus, time constraints, the frequency of occurrence of errors, student personality, and the level of student communication ability” (Mori, 2011, p.464). Teachers’ schooling and teaching experiences also had a significant impact on teachers’ beliefs about CF.

Al-Faki & Siddiek (2013) also aimed to find out the different types of oral correction techniques used by male English Language teachers in Oman to compare their attitudes towards OCF with their actual performance in their classes. They used ‘The Observation Checklist’ to gather classroom data and ‘The Teacher’s Preference Elicitation Questionnaire’. They also included ‘The Student’s Preference Elicitation Questionnaire’. Results revealed that teachers mostly provided Recast, Peer-correction and Elicitation. On the other hand, the students from different levels preferred Metalinguistic feedback, Repetition, Explicit correction, Recast, Elicitation and Denial. Similar to the other studies, there were discrepancies between their in class practices and belief about CF. When the teachers that participated the study were informed about the results, they commented that lack of time, heavy curriculum, and complex tasks for the students forced them to deviate from their beliefs.

In another study, Roothooft (2014) addressed the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices directly by focusing on different aspects of OCF in adult foreign language classrooms. Participants were 6 male and 4 female EFL teachers in Spain and their years of teaching experience ranged from 1 and half year to 42. Each teacher had one or two of their classes observed and afterwards completed a questionnaire which elicited their views on oral corrective feedback. The results showed that most of the teachers were not fully conscious of both the amount of feedback and the different CF types they provided. Furthermore, even though the teachers believed that feedback was essential, they were still worried about interrupting students and affecting their motivation and self-confidence negatively by this way.

Kamiya (2014) examined the relationship between stated beliefs of 4 English as a second language teachers about teaching and OCF. Similar to other studies, the data was collected through a classroom observation and an interview. All of the teachers advocated creating a good classroom atmosphere for students by not embarrassing students with explicit OCF. So, they generally tended to use more implicit types, primarily as Recasts. Contrary to previous studies that found discrepancies between stated beliefs and classroom practices of OCF, the findings of this study showed that the teachers’ beliefs were mostly in accordance with their teaching practices. On the other hand, despite a general consistency between teaching statements and practice, one of the most experienced teachers showed discrepant behaviour between the two.

Shirkhani & Tajeddin (2017) conducted a study to find out teachers' perceptions of pragmatic CF and to compare their perceptions with their pragmatic use of OCF. 300 EFL teachers completed a 44-item questionnaire and the researchers recorded 40 of these teachers’ classroom practices. The results revealed that the teachers generally had positive ideas and attitudes towards pragmatic CF, especially about importance of pragmatic CF, teachers' knowledge and agency about it and the way of providing pragmatic CF. They thought that the flow of communication should not be hindered by immediate correction. They also maintained that explicit correction should be provided only if implicit feedback is ineffective. However, the teachers classroom practices data showed that the teachers were not implementing what they believed. To give some examples, they used explicit correction for all the pragmatic errors though they maintained negative ideas about it. Also, they corrected only a small amount of pragmatic errors, which contradicted their beliefs. The study implies that the teachers' need specific teaching training courses to develop their pragmatic competence and to increase their awareness about pragmatics and pragmatic instruction.

Adding a new dimension to the OCF research, Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) studied teachers’ practices and beliefs about OCF in terms of their priorities and compared them with the recent research findings to demonstrate the mismatching parts between the two domains. Seven teachers were observed. They carried out interviews with them and also with 30 more teachers. The results revealed that the teachers’ foremost concerns were about students’ feelings and their error correction was practice-oriented. Furthermore, inconsistencies between teachers’ beliefs and practice were found as in similar studies.

In a different study, Roothooft (2018) carried out a study to compare beliefs and attitudes of 31 language school teachers versus 23 secondary school teachers working in six different secondary schools and six private language schools in Spain, about various aspects of oral CF such as when to provide correction, the best way to correct, and which factors potentially affect choices when dealing with students’ spoken errors. The teachers varied in terms of their ages, teaching experience and qualifications. The results showed that both groups of teachers had similar ideas about different aspect of CF. For example; most of them believed their students expect to receive oral CF. Majority of them did not favour CF during fluency-focused activities such as group or pair discussion, but they thought immediate feedback was more appropriate and effective during accuracy-focused activities. The teachers expressed reservation about two points: students’ emotional responses and the importance of fluency. There were a few differences between the attitudes of two groups of teachers. About CF types, while secondary school teachers found Recast more effective, language school teachers found Elicitation more useful. Finally, the language school teachers seemed slightly less positive about the need for OCF than the secondary language teachers.

Finally, Sánchez-Centeno and Ponce (2019) investigated beliefs of an Argentinian EFL teacher about OCF and how her beliefs guided her provision of OCF in the classroom. Videotaped classroom observations, teacher stimulated recall interviews and a semi-structured teacher interview were the means of data collection. The teacher was asked about her beliefs about the effectiveness and role of OCF, ways of providing OCF and its emotional effects on students. The results showed that the teacher’s beliefs were generally consistent with her OCF practices. Yet, some discrepancies appeared especially when the teacher could not decide whether to provide different output-prompting or input-providing types of OCF, or to preserve students’ self-confidence and integrity. In these situations, she avoided arousal of negative emotions and contradicted some of her OCF beliefs.

As it is clearly seen, though studies investigating teachers’ beliefs about OCF and their practices found some consistent results, in almost all of them there were also a number of inconsistencies, which means that more research is needed in this field. The current study aims to add to the limited body of studies and shed some light on the issue.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter includes the information about the participants, the data collection instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis parts. This research design aimed to find out the oral feedback preferences of experienced and less experienced non-native EFL teachers' and their real classroom practices and to determine the extent to which language teachers' instructional practices are consistent with their beliefs. In accordance with these aims, the following research questions were investigated:

1) What types of oral corrective feedback do the experienced and less experienced non-native EFL teachers use for different error types?

2) What are these language teachers' beliefs and preferences about oral corrective feedback?

3) To what extent are teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback consistent with their observed practice? Are there any discrepancies?

3.2. Research Design

The current study adopted a mixed methods research as it includes both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection. As Dörnyei (2007) expresses, in a mixed methods study, "decontextualized and reductionist" nature of the quantitative method can be overcame by adding qualitative components and "thereby putting flesh on the bones" (pg. 45). In the light of that, the current study adopted this method to have more reliable results.

The quantitative data consists of the numbers and percentages of student errors and the teachers' oral feedback turns used for these errors, which were gathered from the transcribed data of 44 audio-recorded lessons. This data was analysed and compared to the qualitative data to reach the main target of the study. The qualitative data included teachers' stated beliefs and preferences of oral feedback that were obtained by teacher's preferences elicitation questionnaire and one-to-one interviews. This procedure was employed to find out whether there was a consensus or discrepancy between teachers’ beliefs and practices.

Additionally, teachers’ amount of teaching experience was taken into consideration to see if any differences took place. Four teachers were dived into two groups; two experienced and two less experienced in each group and the whole data was analysed based on these groups.

3.3. Participants

In the present study, four teacher participants were English language teachers at a preparatory school of a state university in North-western part of Turkey. They were all non-native speakers of English and have English language teaching education background. They were teaching at different Listening and Speaking classes at intermediate level. Their participation was based on their willingness. They were categorized as two experienced (9 years of teaching experience each) and two less experienced (3.5 and 4 years of teaching experience) teachers.

Borg (2006:105) explains three critical differences between experienced and novice teachers. These are:

1. the extent to which various aspects of teaching and the knowledge embedded in the teaching act as a an integrated whole

2. the extent to which teachers are able to see possibilities for learning presented by the contexts they work in

3. the extent to which the practical knowledge gained through experience can be made explicit and to which formal knowledge can be transformed into practical knowledge

Related to the third point, Woods and Cakir (2011) suggested that “experientially-derived knowledge is more likely to occur in action than verbally derived knowledge” (p.383). In this respect, more experienced teachers are likely to reflect their beliefs in their classroom practices. Furthermore, Basturkmen et al. (2004)

argued that with more experience, teachers possibly eliminate the mismatches by bringing their theoretical beliefs more in line with their practical ones.

In the light of these, in the present study the teachers were categorized into two groups based on their teaching experience to find out if more experience makes any difference in teachers' beliefs and practices.

3.4. Context

The study was conducted at a preparatory school of a state university in the north-western part of Turkey during the spring semester of 2017-2018 academic year. Modular system is adopted at the school. The modules are A1, A2, B1 and B2 and each of them lasts two months.

During the present study, the teacher participants offered four different Listening and Speaking lessons in different intermediate level (B1) classes. In each class, there were 25 students on average. At the Beginning of the fall semester of 2017, they all took a placement test and began the modular system as beginner level (A-1) students. Based on the scores they got from their mid-exams, final exams and portfolio scores in each module (in A-1 and A-2 modules), they became Intermediate (B-1) level students. The purpose of choosing this level is that some scholars (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) claim that this level may provide more suitable and varied data for such a study. As Kılınç (2007) explains, intermediate level students might interact in the FL more than lower level students and also might make more mistakes during speaking in FL than more advanced level students.

As the main domain of this research is oral corrective feedback, Listening and Speaking classes of the teachers were observed. The book was Unlock Listening and Speaking Skills 3 by Sabina Ostrowska. It was published in 2014 and consists of twelve units. The recorded units of the book for the current study were the first unit, 'Animals' and the second unit 'Customs and Traditions'. Both of them are interesting topics to preparatory students.

Each unit begins with 'Your Knowledge' part. All the teachers began the units by discussing students' general knowledge about the topic in this part. After that, they went on with ‘Watch and Listen’ part. Students watched a video about the topic and answered the questions about it. They also discussed the events in the video. It prepared students for the other two listening parts. In the listening parts, there were three parts. In ‘Preparing to Listen’ part, they studied the related vocabulary. Some teachers made students form sentences using the words in this part, which also led some teacher-students interaction and feedback turns. In ‘While Listening’, they listened and answered the questions about it. In ‘Post Listening’ parts, they studied some grammatical structures and pronunciation exercises that taught them new sound patterns. Finally, in ‘Critical Thinking’ parts, the students worked on a speaking task and discussed their ideas on the given topic which was related to the theme of each unit.

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

3.5.1. Audio recordings

For quantitative data collection, four different B-1 module Listening & Speaking classes and 11 class hours of each teacher were audio-recorded. The recordings were carried out by the class teachers themselves by using a voice recorder with a stereo microphone. The researcher did not participate in the recording sessions in order not to hinder the natural flow of the lesson.

3.5.2. Teachers’ beliefs elicitation questionnaire

To reveal the teachers’ preferences and beliefs about oral corrective feedback, a teachers’ beliefs elicitation questionnaire was used after the recording sessions. It was adapted from Roothooft (2014), and it includes open-ended questions to make teachers explain their beliefs in detail (see Appendix A). Roothooft formed this questionnaire by including the items from the surveys used by Schulz (2001) and Jean and Simard (2011) about the types and number of errors that should be focused on, and importance of oral errors correction. The questions mainly aimed to reveal how important the teachers found OCF, which errors they usually corrected in the class, the right time of OCF for them and if they corrected all of errors or ignored any of them.

The main reason to adapt the questionnaire in Roothooft's study is that it had the same aim as the current study. She compared the observation of ten adult EFL teachers and their stated beliefs about oral feedback. To reveal these ten teachers' stated beliefs, she compiled this above mentioned and well-structured questionnaire and reached her goal by obtaining reliable findings to compare with classroom observation results. Roohooft also used Lyster and Ranta's (1997) typology for corrective feedback types that made it convenient to compare the result of the two studies. Considering these, the researcher of the current study found the questionnaire highly relevant and efficient to use.

3.5.3. Semi-structured interviews

The final instruments of the current study were one-to-one semi-structured interviews with each teacher, which were carried out to make questionnaire results more reliable and find out how much they knew about oral feedback types (see Appendix B). A week after the class recordings, the researcher of the present study carried out interviews with each teacher individually. The question about the role of corrective feedback was asked again to find out whether they were consistent about their beliefs. At the end of the interviews, the researcher also handed a leaflet out that included oral error feedback types, their definitions and some examples (see Appendix C) to ask questions and check if they knew and used any of them in their classes. Their degree of awareness of certain feedback types could be revealed in this way.

At the end of the interview, the researcher also used 'cued response scenarios' that is the teachers read some written dialogs in which there were three different kinds of student errors and six options to correct. All of these options were examples of the six types of corrective feedback as mentioned before. These example dialogs were also taken from the study of Roothooft (2014). Roothooft adapted them from Cathcart and Olsen's (1976, cited in Roothooft, 2014) study and reorganized them to fit Lyster and Ranta's (1997) typology, as in the following excerpt from the questionnaire:

Teacher: What did you do last weekend?

Student: I watching a film with my friends yesterday.

a) T: No, not watching, watched.

b) T: You watched a film.

c) T: I’m sorry?

d) T: You need to use past tense.

e) T: Last weekend I … (pausing)? (rising intonation)

f) T: I WATCHING a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)

The teachers were asked to choose the most effective correction options for them and how often they thought they used each of them. The teachers’ answers to these dialog questions were important as they were later compared with their choices of feedback for each error type in real classroom settings.

3.6. Data Collection Procedures

The current study adopted a mixed-methods research as it includes both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection. By these methods, the researcher aimed to have more reliable results.

Before the data collection, the teachers were informed about the study and were told that the researcher was only interested in their classroom interactions in order not to influence the way in which they dealt with their students' errors. The researcher did not instruct teachers prior their teaching to use any particular kinds of corrective feedback. The students were also previously informed and told that the class teacher would keep their identities and any of their behaviours confidential.

For data collection, four different B-1 module Listening & Speaking classes and 11 class hours of each teacher were audio-recorded. The data includes 44 lessons, totalling of nearly 1800 minutes or 30 hours. The data collection occurred over two weeks by the class teachers themselves by using a voice recorder not to hinder the natural flow of the lesson.

After all the recordings were done, the teachers completed the teacher's beliefs and preferences elicitation questionnaire and a few days later, the researcher conducted individual interviews with each teacher and recorded them with the voice recorder. As stated before, the aim was to have more reliable comparisons of the teachers’ classroom practices and their beliefs nd preferences of oral error feedback.

3.7. Data Analysis

As a first step, the audio recordings of all the instructors were transcribed by the researcher for the data analysis. The transcription conventions were chosen according to the object of inquiry in the present study (see Appendix D). These conventions were adapted from a similar study by Kılınç (2007) in which the error and correction turns were coded according to 4 error types and 7 types of corrective feedback according to the model by based on the model of Lyster and Ranta (1997) as illustrated in ‘literature review part’. ‘Peer Correction’ was also included as an additional type for the beliefs’ questionnaire included questions about it. If the teachers didn’t provide any feedback type for the students’ ill-formed utterances, they were coded as ‘Ignorance’ in the transcriptions. The grammatical errors included inaccurate use of tenses, auxiliaries, subject-verb agreement, prepositions, pronouns, pluralization, determiners, negation and word order. Lexical errors were non-target like use of verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs. Phonological errors were incorrect pronunciation and intonation of words. L1 errors were students’ unsolicited use of Turkish. The errors which were not in the scope of the four main error types such as content errors and multiple errors explained by Lyster and Ranta (1997) were excluded from the study as their numbers were quite a few.

As a next step, the numbers and percentages of feedback moves of each teacher for different errors were analysed and illustrated in the results part.

To assure the reliability, a co-worker who has an MA degree in ELT as a second-rater was informed about the feedback and error types and transcribed 20 percent of the classroom data and also analysed all of the transcriptions again. Inter-rater reliability between the researcher and the second-rater for the 20 percent of the data was calculated by the formula below:

$$\frac{\text{Number of agreements} \quad \text{X } 100}{\text{Number of agreements} + \text{Number of disagreements}}$$

Inter-rater reliability between two raters has been found to be 96 % agreement. The small amount of mismatched parts that appeared after the second analysis was discussed and the raters reached a consensus at the end.

The answers to the interviews were transcribed and both the interview and the questionnaire data were analysed by identifying codes and themes (Cresswell, 2012). Finally, the themes obtained were compared with the classroom data which included the numbers and percentages of the error and feedback types. This comparison helped the researcher to find out any possible discrepancies or inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the data gathered from transcriptions of 44 lessons, totalling of nearly 1800 minutes or 30 hours of Listening/Speaking course. General distribution of feedback moves of two experienced and two less experienced teachers and the relationship between error types and feedback types are explained with the help of samples of transcripts from the study. Additionally, the qualitative data acquired by a belief questionnaire and interviews are also analysed and discussed. Finally, teachers' stated beliefs are compared to their observed classroom practices to find out the level of consistency.

4.2. Student Errors and Corrective Feedback Turns

The total data consists of 698 erroneous utterances and contained unsolicited L1 use. Of these 698 turns, 592 (84.8 %) were followed by a teacher turn that included corrective feedback (CF) coded as Recast, Explicit correction, Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification request, Repetition, Translation and Peer correction. The remaining 106 (15.1 %) student turns with error or L1 use did not receive any CF and were followed by topic continuation moves.

Though the distribution of the different error types is not among the main aims of the present study, it is important to analyse them as they are necessary to answer the research questions. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of the student error types and the teacher feedback turns provided for each error type.

As it is seen in Table 4.1 the total of 698 turns of the students included 292 (41.8%) phonological, 238 (34.1%) grammatical, 105 (15.1%) lexical errors, and 63 turns (9%) had L1 use. As clearly seen, the percentages of errors and the feedback given to each error have a balanced proportion. That is, the most committed error type in the current data is phonological errors that have the rate of 41.8% among all error types. Parallel to this, this error type received the most amount of feedback with the rate of 40.9% among all the given feedback. The second most occurring error types were grammatical errors that have the rate of 34%. Relatively, the percentage of feedback given to this error type was 31.2%. Another error type occurred were lexical errors with the rate of 15.1 %. These error types received 17.5% of feedback among other types. Finally, the least occurring type of error was unsolicited L1 use that has the rate of 9%. Accordingly, these errors received 10.3% of feedback within the whole amount of feedback allocated.

Table 4.1. *Numbers and percentages of errors* and *feedback moves per error type*

	Number of error	**Percentage**	**Number of feedback**	**Percentage**
Phonological	292	41.8%	242	40.9%
Grammatical	238	34.1%	185	31.2%
Lexical	105	15.1%	104	17.5%
L1	63	9%	61	10.3%
Total	698	100%	592	100%

We can see more clearly in Figure 4.1, the number of errors made by the students and the feedback given by the teachers as it is seen in Table 4.1.

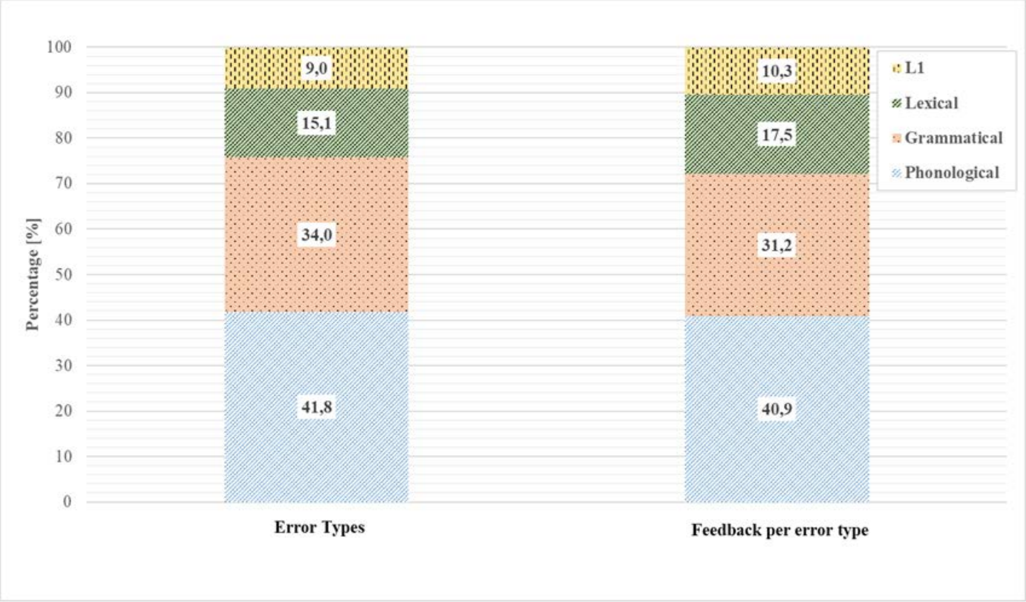

Figure 4.1. *Percentage distributions of error types and feedback per error* type

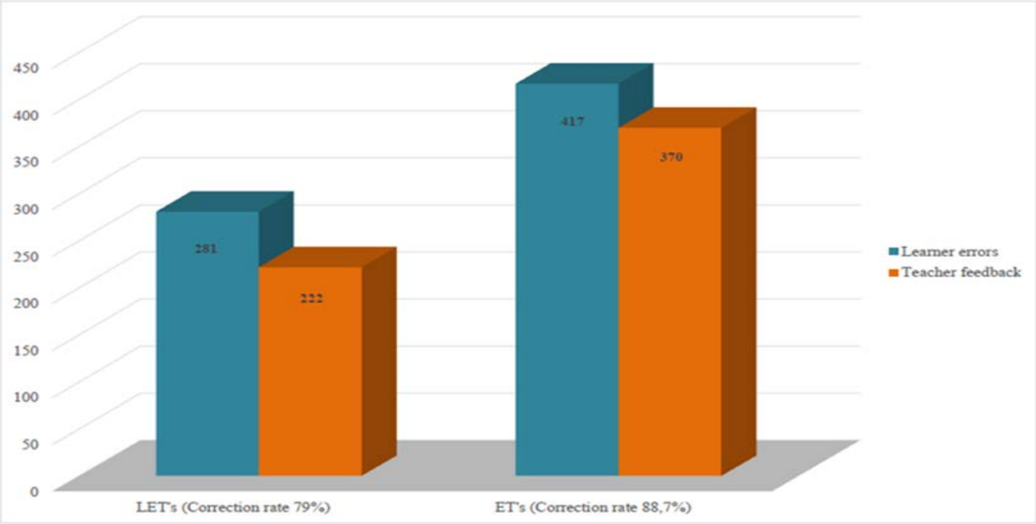

Figure 4.2. Rate of error correction by the LETs and ETs

As it is displayed in Figure 4.2, out of the total 698 student error turns, 281 errors were committed in less experienced teachers' (LET) classes in total. They provided 222 feedback turns (79 %) for these errors. 59 turns (21 %) of these 281 errors were ignored by the teachers. In experienced teachers' (ETs) classes there were 417 student errors. 47 (11.3 %) turns of these errors were ignored.

Table 4.2. *Number and percentage of feedback moves in whole data*

Feedback distribution	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	364	61.4 %
Elicitation	69	11.5 %
Translation	44	7.4 %
Explicit correction	44	7.4 %
Metalinguistic feedback	42	7.1 %
Clarification request	24	4 %
Repetition	4	1 %
Peer-correction	1	0.2 %
Total	592	100

The general distribution of the feedback types for all teachers together is illustrated in Table 4.2. As seen, the most occurring type of feedback was Recast with 364 turns (61.4 %) followed by Elicitation with 69 turns (11.5 %), Translation and

Explicit correction with 44 turns (7.4 %), Metalinguistic feedback with 42 turns (7.1 %), Clarification request with 24 turns (4 %), Repetition with 4 turns (1 %) and finally only one turn of Peer-correction (0.2%).

4.3. The types of oral corrective feedback the experienced and less experienced non-native EFL teachers used for different error types

The first research question aimed to demonstrate a clear picture of different corrective feedback types that experienced and less experienced EFL teachers used in their Listening and speaking classes.

Table 4.3. *General feedback distribution of less experienced (LETs) and experienced teachers (ETs)*

Feedback distribution	LETs	%	ETs	%
Recast	127	57.2%	237	64%
Explicit correction	23	10.4 %	21	5.7%
Translation	22	10 %	22	6%
Elicitation	16	7.2 %	53	14.4%
Metalinguistic feedback	15	6.7 %	27	7.3%
Clarification request	15	6.7 %	9	2.4%
Repetition	3	1.3 %	1	0.2%
Peer-correction	1	0.5 %	0	0%
Total	222	100	370	100

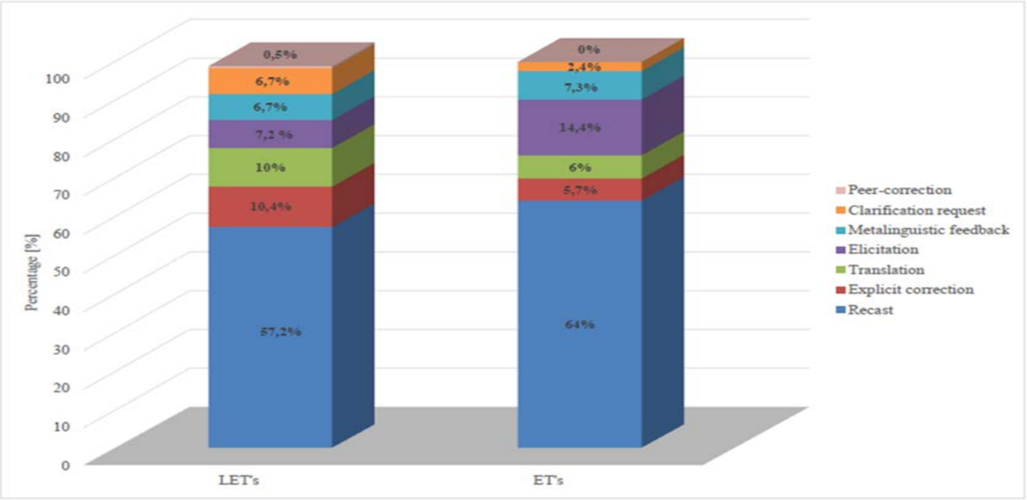

Figure 4.3. Percentage distribution of OCF types preferred by LETs and ETs

As it can be seen in Table 4.3 and graphically in Figure 4.3, in classes of LET, 222 feedback turns of the teachers consist most of 127 (57.2 %) as Recast followed by 23 turns (10.4 %) of Explicit correction and 22 turns (10 %) by Translation to unsolicited uses of L1, all three of which were determined as implicit feedback types by Lyster & Ranta (1997), Panova & Lyster (2002). The other feedback turn was Elicitation by 16 (7.2 %). Metalinguistic feedback and Clarification request had the same number of turns. Each had 15 (6.7 %) turns. The least chosen types of feedbacks were Repetition with 3 (1.3%) and Peer-correction with only one turn (0.5%).

The ETs used more feedback types in their classes. 370 feedback turns were provided and 237 (64 %) of these turns were Recast followed by 53 turns (14.4 %) of Elicitation. There were also 27 turns (7.3 %) of Metalinguistic feedback, 22 turns (6 %) of Translation to unsolicited uses of L1 and 21 turns (5.7 %) of Explicit Correction. The least employed types of feedback were Clarification Request with 9 turns (2.4 %) and Repetition with only 1 turn (0.2 %). ET did not resort to any Peer-correction feedback type. Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification request and Repetition were classified as ‘negotiation of form’ feedback types by Lyster and Ranta (ibid). As it is clear from the results, ET employed more negotiation of form types.

4.3.1. Feedback distributions after phonological errors

Phonological errors were the most occurring error types with 292 occurrences in classes of both LETs and ETs.

Table 4.4. *LETs’ and ETs’ feedback type distributions after phonological errors*

Feedback distribution	LETs	%	ETs	%
Recast	88	78.6%	114	87.7%
Explicit correction	10	9%	7	5.4%
Clarification request	6	5.4%	2	1.5%
Elicitation	5	4.5%	3	2.3%
Metalinguistic feedback	2	1.7%	4	3.1%
Peer-correction	1	0.8%	0	0%
Repetition	0	0%	0	0%
Translation	0	0%	0	0%
Total	112	100	130	100

As it can be seen in Table 4.4, among the 222 feedback turns in the LETs' classes 112 (50.4%) were provided for the students' phonological errors. The most frequently used type of feedback was Recast with 88 turns (78.6%) followed by 10 turns (9%) of Explicit correction, 6 turns (5.4%) of Clarification request and 5 turns (4.5%) of Elicitation. The least used type was Metalinguistic feedback with 2 turns (1.7 %). Peer-correction was also used for this error type, but only in 1 turn (0.8%). Repetition and Translation were not preferred. On the other hand, LETs ignored 36 turns of (24.3%) phonological errors.

To make occurrences of feedback types clearer, providing some sample episodes containing phonological errors can be useful. The examples of next episode are many in the present study as Recast is the most frequently used type. Before and after listening parts, students do vocabulary exercises and they read the extracts from the written source. The teachers generally tended to correct the mispronounced parts in an unobtrusive way.

In the first sample; Episode 1, the teacher corrects the mistake with Recast and also gives additional linguistic information.

Episode 1:

T: Ok, Talha. Let's begin with you.

MS1: A room used for scientific tests is lab [phonological error- /ləb/]

T: Yes, lab [recast] It's the short form of laboratory. Who wants to go on with C?

In Episode 2, one of the LETs uses Explicit correction for the phonological error. Especially for the words, of which pronunciations can be confused commonly, teachers might feel the need to correct the mispronunciations explicitly to hinder fossilization. Here, the student confuses 'human' with 'humane'.

Episode 2:

T: Number seven?
MS1: Humane; [phonological error -/ hjumən/] kind and gentle

T: Yeah, kind and gentle. But it’s not / hjumən/ it’s humane – ! [explicit correction]

It’s clear that, Pronunciation errors might sometimes be very difficult to understand. In one of these situations in Episode 3, the teacher wants the student to provide a more comprehensible pronunciation or maybe a synonym.

Episode 3:

T: Do we use animals in our country?

MS1: Security [phonological error - /sokeriti/]

T: Sorry? – [clarification request]

MS1: Security. [phonological error - /sekeriti/]

T: Ah yes. Security.

The only peer-correction employed in the study is shown in Episode 4. The student has a phonological error and the teacher asks other students to find out the error by comparing it the one in the listening part.

Episode 4:

T: The first one!

MS1: First of all, keeping animals in zoos [phonological error - /zɒs/] helps protect them.

T: Ok, the others. Now find the difference the reading of Umut and the speaker’s. ((Opens the listening again)) –[peer-correction]

Some: ((laugh)) Zoo

T: Umut again!

Umut: First of all, keeping animals in zoos [phonological error - / zujs /]

T: +/. In zoos- [recast]

Table 4.4 also illustrates the feedback distributions of experienced teachers (ETs) after phonological errors. Of the total 370 feedback turns of ETs, 130 turns (35.1 %) were allocated to phonological errors. The most frequently used type of feedback was again Recast with 114 turns (87.6 %) followed by 7 turns (5.4 %) of Explicit correction, 4 turns (3.1 %) of Metalinguistic feedback, 3 turns of (2.3 %) Elicitation, and 2 turns of (1.5 %) of Clarification request feedback types. ETs did not provide any Repetition, Translation or Peer-correction types and ignored 14 turns (9.7 %) of Phonological errors.

Some sample episodes containing phonological errors to demonstrate the ETs' feedback distributions are as follows: In Episode 5, the teacher corrects the Phonological error by Recast. The teacher corrects the pronunciation of 'lion' without interrupting the flow of the speech.

Episode 5:

T: If you had the chance which animal would you like to be and why?

MS1: A lion! [phonological error /lıon/]!

T: A lion? [recast]   Why lion?

MS1: Because king of forest [grammatical error]

T: Because it is the king of the forest. Are you a fan of Galatasaray? [recast]

MS1: Yes!

In Episode 6, one of the ETs provides Metalinguistic feedback for the Phonological error. Lyster (1997) explains that Metalinguistic feedback contains either comments, information, or questions without explicitly providing the correct form. Here, the teacher gives information about the right pronunciation.

Episode 6:

FS3: Women [phonological error -/wʊmən/] usually live [phonological error -/ laɪv/] longer than men.

T: Okay, just a minute. Women usually live longer than men. [recast] Live. If you say /laıv/ it's an adjective. Live music, live concert, live broadcasting, live football match. Bu durumda live ne demekmiş. Canlı. –[metalinguistic feedback]

Lyster (1997) describes three different ways of Elicitation. The teacher pauses and makes the student complete the utterance, asks open-ended questions or the teacher asks the student to reformulate the erroneous utterance. Although Elicitation is rare for Phonological error, in Episode 7 the teacher uses Elicitation by both requesting a reformulation and pausing to let the student complete.

Episode 7:

FS2: The seda.. sedative [phonological error -/sıtıv/] could kill people. True!

T: Could you please pronounce that word again. The::? –[elicititation]

FS2: Sedative [phonological error -/sıdetıv/]

4.3.2. Feedback distributions after grammatical errors

In the present study, the second most frequently occurring errors were grammatical errors with 229 turns (% 32.8 %) out of 698 errors in total. As the first group, LETs' feedback distributions after grammatical errors are as follows (see Table 4.5):

Table 4.5. *LETs'and ETs' feedback type distributions after grammatical errors*

Feedback distribution	LETs	%	ETs	%
Recast	26	72.2%	87	61.3%
Elicitation	3	8.4%	27	19.1%
Metalinguistic feedback	3	8.4%	18	12.8%
Explicit correction	2	5.4%	7	4.6%
Clarification request	1	2.8%	3	2.2%
Repetition	1	2.8%	0	0%
Peer-correction	0	0%	0	0%
Translation	0	0%	0	0%
Total	36	100	142	100

Among the 222 feedback turns in the LETs' classes, 36 turns (16.2 %) were employed for these types of errors. Like Phonological errors, the most commonly used feedback type was Recast with 26 turns (72.2 %) followed by both 3 turns (8.4 %) of both Elicitation, and of Metalinguistic Feedback, 2 turns of (5.4 %) Explicit correction and only 1 turn (2.8 %) for both Clarification request and Repetition. There were no turns of Translation and Peer-correction.

In Episode 8, there is a sample of Recast after a grammatical error from one of the LETs' classes. The student makes an error in pluralization and the teacher implicitly corrects it while agreeing on the idea she gives. The student understands her mistake and repairs it.

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Episode 8:

T: Cows. Ok, what do cows do?

FS2: They give milks. [grammatical error]

T: Yes, cows can give us milk. -[recast]

FS2: Aw. Milk yes.

In Episode 9, the students make a mistake in passive form and the teacher asks questions to elicit the correct form. However, the students fail to provide it.

Episode 9:

T: Many mental illnesses are:::?

SOME: +/. Many mental illnesses are treat - [grammatical mistake]

T: Treat? Is it enough? Correct form? - [elicitation]

MS1: Yes!

T: Treated! –[recast] Soldiers or the soldiers:::? Semanur?

Throughout the data, number of Explicit correction feedback was rather low. The reason of this might be about the main focus of the lessons. Listening and speaking classes mainly focus on communicative competence. Episode 10 shows one of the rare samples of Explicit correction after a grammatical error. It is clear that the teacher deals with a common error and corrects it in an explicit way.

Episode 10:

MS2: Both of my parents work full-time. That’s why this is they don’t have much time to cook at home. [grammatical error]

T: ((laughs)) Bir ‘that, this’ sorunumuz var. That’s why doğru ama this is şeklinde devam etmiyor. That’s why’dan sonra asıl cümlemiz gelecek hemen. That’s why they don’t have much time to cook at home. - [explicit correction]— And Furkan!

In Episode 11, there is an example of Metalinguistic feedback after a Grammatical error. The teacher tries to correct the error by providing a correct grammatical form for the non-count word, information.

Episode 11:

FS1: There are three important information about new technology. [grammatical error]

T: There are three pieces of important information, because we cannot count information, about new technology. [metalinguistic feedback]

Table 4.5 above illustrates the feedback distributions of ETs after Grammatical errors. Of the total 370 feedback turns of ETs, 142 turns (35.1 %) were allocated to Grammatical errors. Recast was again the most occurring type of feedback with 87 turns (61.3 %). Others were 27 turns of (19.1 %) Elicitation, 18 turns of (12.8 %) Metalinguistic feedback, 7 turns of (4.6 %) Explicit correction and 3 turns of (2.2 %) of Clarification request. Repetition, Translation and Peer-correction were not used by ETs. 31 turns (18 %) out of 173 Grammatical errors were ignored by them as well.

In Episode 12, there are examples of Recast after Grammatical errors. The implicit feedbacks do not interrupt the communication, but rather seems to act as confirmations by the teacher.

Episode 12:

MS8: Not everything that is learned contains in books. In my view, everything don't writing in books. [grammatical error]

T: Everything is not written in books. [recast]

MS8: Yes. While person having experiences, he learn [grammatical error].

T: Ok, while they are having experiences, they learn. [recast] Ok, Enes are you ready?

Throughout the feedback distributions, Elicitation was employed more by ETs compared to LETs. In an example in Episode 13, the teacher wants the student to repair the grammatical error with the help of a rising intonation.

Episode 13:

MS3: Watching animals is fun, especially for children. In addition, their parents watching with their children, too. [grammatical error]

T: Watching animals is fun, especially for children. In addition, their parents also:: ((rising intonation)) [elicitation]

MS3: Watching [grammatical error]

T: Watch! [recast] Ok, let's listen to Halit!

In Episode 14, the student has a missing verb after 'can'. The teacher uses Metalinguistic feedback without explicitly correcting the error.

Episode 14:

T: What about being a teacher? What are the advantages of being a teacher?

FS: You can a very strong relationship. [grammatical error]

T: You can have, you can have. You need a verb there. You can have a very strong relationship. – [metalinguistic feedback]

4.3.3. Feedback distributions after lexical errors

Lexical errors, which were the third most occurring error type and Table 4.6 shows the feedback distributions in LETs' and ETs classes.

Table 4.6. *LETs' and ETs' feedback type distributions after lexical error*

Feedback distribution	LETs	%	ETs	%
Recast	14	29.7 %	31	54.4%
Metalinguistic feedback	10	21.2 %	4	7.1%
Explicit correction	9	19.2 %	6	10.5%
Clarification request	7	15 %	3	5.2%
Elicitation	5	10.6 %	12	21.1%
Repetition	2	4.3 %	1	1.7%
Translation	0	0 %	0	0%
Peer-correction	0	0 %	0	0%
Total	47	100	57	100

Firstly, the distribution of feedback turns provided by the LETs reveal that among the total 222 feedback turns of the teachers 47 turns (21.1 %) were allocated to Lexical errors. More detailed, feedback types that were preferred by the teachers after Lexical errors were 14 turns of (29.7 %) Recast followed by 10 turns of (21.2 %) Metalinguistic feedback 9 turns of (19.2 %) Explicit correction, 7 turns of (15 %) Clarification request, 5 turns of (10.6 %) Elicitation and 2 turns of (4.3 %) Repetition. Lastly with no turns as Translation and Peer-correction. LETs only ignored only 1 turn of lexical error.

To give a clearer insight, it might be useful to investigate some samples of different feedback types after Lexical errors.

In Episode 15 below, the teacher explicitly corrects the student's wrong choice of word.

Episode 15:

T: These are huskies. What are they doing?

MS1: Pushing! [lexical error]

T: Not pushing, but pulling! They’re pulling the sledge. [explicit correction] What other types of work can animals do?

In Episode 16, there are both examples of Elicitation and Metalinguistic feedback after Lexical errors. The teacher tries to elicit the accurate form of the word by prompting “*Having a pet can be ….?*” However, the student fails to find the right lexical item again and the teacher provides Metalinguistic feedback to correct it.

Episode 16:

FS1: Having a pet can be benefit to your health. [lexical error]

T: No. Having a pet can be ….? ((rising intonation)) [elicitation]

FS2: Beneficially! [lexical error]

T: Beneficial- Bir evcil hayvan sahibi olmak sağlığınıza ne olabilir, yararlı olabilir. Buraya yine bir adjective gerekiyor. – [metalinguistic feedback] Yes Sadiye!

Finally, in Episode 17 the student uses a word which does not exist and the teacher request a clarification from him to understand. Another student tells the right word.

Episode 17:

MS1: Involation! [Lexical errror]

T: What? Evolution? – [Clarification request]

MS2: Involvement!

T: Yeah, involvement! We have involvement. And the adjective form of survive?

Feedback distributions of ETs after lexical errors are also illustrated in Table 4.6. Of all 370 feedback turns provided by ETs, 57 turns (15.4 %) were allocated to Lexical errors. Of these 57 turns, the highest number belonged to Recast with 31 turns (54.4 %). The others were 12 turns (21.1 %) of Elicitation, 6 turns (10.5 %) of Explicit correction, 4 turns (7.1 %) of Metalinguistic feedback, 3 turns of (5.2 %) and lastly only 1 turn of (1.7 %) Repetition. None of the Lexical errors were ignored in ETs’ classes. This might be because of the importance of lexical accuracy in Listening and Speaking classes as communicative competence is mostly via correct pronunciation and lexical accuracy.

Some sample episodes of feedback distributions after Lexical errors are as follows:

Episode 18:

MS1: I’m sorry to interrupt. Most *science* are men. [lexical error]

T: Most scientists are men you say. Okay! -[recast]

In Episode 18 above, the student confuses ‘science’ with ‘scientist’. The teacher uses a Recast to correct it without explicitly indicating that an error is made.

In Episode 19, the teacher tries to elicit the correct lexical item by asking a question. The student finds the right adjective after the feedback.

Episode 19:

MS2: Wolf!

T: Wolf again, why wolf?

MS2: Because wolves are royal [lexical error] and noble

T: Wolves are royal or loyal? –[elicitation]

MS2: Loyal.

T: Ok. Wolves are noble and loyal. That’s why you like them. Good! Aybüke which animal would you like to be?

In Episode 20, the student uses ‘listen’ instead of ‘watch’ for the video and the teacher gives linguistic information to correct the wrong choice of words. Like in Recasts, in Metalinguistic feedback there is not an explicit indication of an error. The teachers do it implicitly by providing linguistic information.

Episode 20:

MS: I want to listen the video again. [lexical error]

T: I want to watch the video again. Video is watched, audio is listened. [metalinguistic feedback]

4.3.4. Feedback distributions after L1 use

Since L1 use is unsolicited in Listening and Speaking classes, they were categorized as the last error type. Most of the feedback turns after L1 use were naturally Translation. Nevertheless, there were some other feedback types provided for these types of errors.

As seen in Table 4.7, in LETs' classes; 27 turns (12.2 %) out of 222 feedback turns were employed after L1 use. As it is shown in Table 4.12, the most frequent feedback was Translation with 23 turns (85.2 %). There were also 3 turns of (11.1 %) of Elicitation and 1 turn (3.7 %) of Clarification Request. The other feedback types were not used and none of the L1 use errors were ignored.

Table 4.7. *LETs' and ETs' feedback type distributions after L1 use*

Feedback distribution	**LETs**	**%**	**ETs**	**%**
Translation	23	85.2 %	22	64.8%
Elicitation	3	11.1 %	11	32.3%
Clarification request	1	3.7 %	1	2.9%
Recast	0	0 %	0	0%
Explicit correction	0	0 %	0	0%
Metalinguistic feedback	0	0 %	0	0%
Repetition	0	0 %	0	0%
Peer-correction	0	0 %	0	0%
Translation	0	0 %	0	0%
Total	27	100	34	100

Episode 21:

T: Ok, what is Amy's point?

MS1: Galiba acı çekiyorlar falan diyordu, o muydu? [L1 use]

T: Yes, she thinks that animals suffer a lot because we use them for our work. [translation]

In Episode 21, there is a common Translation while Episode 22 is a sample of Elicitation after L1 use. One of the LETs tries to elicit the English equivalent of “taşımak” by pausing deliberately to lead the student complete the sentence.

Episode 22:

T: Ok. What do horses do?

MS1: Taşımak neydi? [L1 use]

T: Horses::: (00:04) ? [elicitation]

FS1: Catch on mu? [lexical error]

T: No. Come on! You know that. Horses carry people, right? [explicit correction] Ok. What else? What can animals do for us?

In Episode 23, the student begins the sentence in English and uses a Turkish word. The teacher does not understand it and wants a clarification and finally uses Translation for it.

Episode 23:

T: So, would you like to work with wild animals?

MS1: Yes, they are innocent and korunmasız? [L1 use]

T: Sorry? – [clarification request]

MS1: Korunmasız.

T; You can say insecure or they need to be protected. [Translation]

In ETs’ classes, there were 34 feedback turns (9.1 %) were provided for unsolicited L1 use. Of these 34 feedback turns, 22 turns (64.8 %) were Translation (see Table 4.13). Similar to LETs, ETs also used 11 turns of (32.3 %) Elicitation and 1 turn of (2.9 %) Clarification request. The other feedback types were not resorted to and 2 turns of L1 use were ignored (see Table 4.7).

Some sample episodes in ETs’ classes are as follows:

In Episode 24, the student forgets the verb “fly” and uses L1. The teacher tries to elicit the right word by pausing and saying “you know it, say it!”

Episode 24:

T: … Which animal would you like to be?

FS1: Bird.

T: Bird, why? Aybüke is a bird.

FS1: Because I like:: Ya uçmayı seviyorum dicem ((laughs))! [L1 use]

T: Because you like::: (rises her voice)) (00:03) you know it, say it! - [elicitation]

FS1: I like flying!

In Episode 25, there is another sample of Elicitation after L1 use. The teacher asks the meaning of “dalgıç” in English to elicit the correct word.

Episode 25:

MS?: Dalgıç var. [L1 use]

T: What does dalgıç mean in English?- [elicitation]

MS?: Diver!

In Episode 26 below, the student uses the Turkish word “sirk” instead of circus. Since the other components of the sentence are in English, the teacher does not understand this last word wants a clarification.

Episode 26:

MS3: Yes! Just wolves can’t play in sirk. [L1 use]

T: They cannot play:::in what? [clarification request]

MS3: In sirk- [L1 use]

T: Hım, circus! They cannot play in circus. [translation]

4.4. The Teachers' Stated Beliefs about Oral Corrective Feedback

As explained in methodology part, to reveal the teachers’ preferences and beliefs about oral corrective feedback, the teachers’ preferences elicitation questionnaire was used after the recording sessions. The questionnaire which included open ended questions was adapted from Roothooft (2014). It aimed to make teachers explain their beliefs in detail (see Appendix A). Additionally, one-to-one interviews with each teacher were carried out to get further information on the teacher’s preferences. Apart from these the teachers were given some cases where different oral correction techniques were used and asked to identify the most effective correction options as well as the name of the technique to understand if they were aware of the type of the correction technique. The qualitative analysis of the questionnaire and the interviews was carried out to identify the codes and the themes (Creswell, 2012). The results from the cases are dealt with after the qualitative analysis. These are explained in the following parts successively.

Table 4.8. *Teachers’ common beliefs about OCF in Listening & Speaking classes*

OCF in Listening & Speaking classes		***TEACHERS***
✓ Priority of correction	OCF is important, hinders fossilization	ET1, LET1 and LET2
	During activity; distracting, demotivating	ET2, LET1 and LET2
✓ Focus of correction	Lexical and phonological errors	ET2, LET1 and LET2
	Every error-grammatical included	
	Outcome related	
✓ Peer-correction	Level dependant	ET1, ET2, LET1 and LET2
✓ Feedback types used for correction	For grammatical errors: Elicitation	ET2, LET1 and LET2
	For phonological errors: Recast-Elicitation	ET1, ET2 and LET1
	For lexical errors: Recast	ET1 and LET1
	For lexical errors: Elicitation	ET2 and LET2

As it is seen in Table 4.8, the analysis of the questionnaires and the interviews indicated that teachers mentioned four main themes related to their beliefs and preferences about OCF. These are priority of the correction, focus of correction, peer correction and techniques of correction.

4.4.1. Priority of correction

The teachers did not have similar opinions on priority of correction. Both of the LETs and one of the ETs believed in the immediate feedback since it prevented fossilization. In this sense, OCF was important for them. Some sample extracts from the teachers' comments can be seen below:

Extract 1 (ET1):

"*It's very important, because correcting mistakes helps students form desired outcomes. Giving feedback by immediate correction helps students correct their mistakes and it prevents repeating the same mistakes. As we all know repeating the incorrect item leads fossilization."*

Extract 2 (LET2):

"I think every teacher should use corrective feedback. Sometimes the students are not aware of their mistakes and they need some guidance for them. Teachers can give this guidance. And also some mistakes are just called fossilized mistakes… so I think it is important to correct mistakes in the class."

On the other hand, for ET2, immediate correction was distracting and demotivating for the students during speaking and as it can be understood from the extract below she doesn't prefer it.

Extract 3 (ET2):

"I don't want to interrupt and discourage them by interfering about their mistakes. I think when they are made aware of their mistakes they start to think about these

mistakes all the time while they are speaking. Sometimes they become obsessed with them and it hinders their progress in expressing themselves orally."

As ET2, LET1 and LET2 did not favour immediate correction because they thought it was distracting and discouraging for the students. Yet they also believed that OCF was important and hindered fossilization.

Extract 4 (LET1)

"*I prefer to give them feedback afterwards especially in the Listening and Speaking courses. The reason for this is that I don't want to interrupt my students while they are talking or discourage them".*

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4.4.2. Focus of correction

The teachers had some similar ideas about which errors to focus on while correcting. ET2, LET1 and LET2 expressed that they focused on phonological and lexical errors in Listening and Speaking classes. They thought that it was not necessary to correct grammatical errors.

Extract 5 (LET1):

"...Pronunciation is more important for communicative competence and fluency. The students also improve their communicative competence by learning relevant vocabulary items… We can ignore some of them, for example, grammar mistakes. If your course is Listening and Speaking, maybe you can ignore grammar mistakes because students don't want to speak more if you just correct them"

Different from them, ET1 believed that all errors including the grammatical ones should be corrected.

Extract 6 (ET1):

"*I think especially in speaking activities mistakes should be corrected and a proper feedback should be given on all students' mistakes. Actually, I correct all the student mistakes about pronunciation all the time. Also, I do vocabulary, stress and grammar* *corrections. In short, I think if we can, we should correct mistakes whenever they occur."*

4.4.3. Peer-correction

All of the teachers found peer-correction technique useful, but still they explained that it depended on the level of the students to use it.

Extract 6 (ET1):

"Actually, peer-correction is an economical, time saving and useful way of giving feedback. However, I don't prefer that technique for B1 Speaking classes because that kind of feedback raises the physiological filter of students and causes anxiety among them. Also, peer-pressure should be considered in that case."

Extract 7 (LET2):

"I rarely use peer-correction, but I think that it is effective for students to realize their mistakes if the students did not have negative feeling towards each other."

4.4.4. Feedback types used for correction

The teachers also identified the most effective correction options in the given cases where different oral correction types were used for different error types. The aim was to understand if they were aware of the types of the correction they used. They had some common preferences for each case. ET2, LET1 and LET2 stated that Elicitation was the most effective type that they used for grammatical errors.

Extract 8 (LET1)

"Ok. I think I'd prefer Elicitation; "Last weekend, I……". I think I use it a lot."

Extract 9 (ET2)

"*It's just use Elicitation; "Last weekend, I bla bla bla for that kind of errors."*

For phonological errors, ET1, ET2 and LET1 thought they used Recast and Elicitation.

Extract 10 (ET1):

"I use Recast; 'He cleans the leaves /liːvz/ in the garden'. For sure, this is the first one, I would apply, choose. … I use Recast all the time, for sure. And sometimes I use Elicitation."

Extract 11 (ET2):

"*This time, I say the correct form and I want the student to repeat after me. Or I just remind him the correct form and let him go on. "He cleans the leaves /liːvz/ in the garden" I say.*

Finally, for the most effective OCF types for lexical errors, teachers had two different ideas. While ET1 and LET1 believed that the most effective was Recast, ET2 and LET2 thought it was Elicitation for them.

Extract 12 (LET1):

"I think, this time I'd use Recast because if we did not talk about this vocabulary item in class, I cannot expect the student to know about it. And you know I could just give the right answer."

Extract 13 (ET2):

"… So, the way I use is Elicitation. … Most of the time, for B1 students, if I'm sure the student knows the correct word I say "she was soo …" and wait for the correct answer."

4.5. The Teachers' Awareness of the OCF Types

The teachers were asked whether they knew that there were mainly six types of oral corrective feedback and whether or not they knew what they were.

The hand-out that included the explanations of the feedback types and examples of them were given to the teachers. None of the teachers revealed any clear opinions and specific names of OCF types, which showed that they were not aware of them.

4.6. The comparison of teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their observed practices

In order to find out about whether the teachers in the present study were consistent about their beliefs and practices, their classroom data was compared with their stated beliefs derived from questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. As each teacher had a number of different opinions about the concepts about oral corrective feedback, the experienced and less experienced teachers' results were analysed within their groups individually and in detail.

4.6.1. The comparison of experienced teachers' (ETs) stated beliefs and practices

The first theme identified after the beliefs elicitation questionnaire and the interviews was the priority of oral correction for the both groups of teachers. ET1 articulated that OCF was quite important and it hindered fossilization of the certain errors. So, he favoured immediate correction during activity. Of the 196 student errors in his classes in total, ET1 corrected 181 error turns (92 %). Also, ET1' classroom data shows that when a student commits an error during a speaking activity, he almost always interrupts that student and corrects the error immediately (see Episode 27). So, it can be said that ET1 was generally consistent with his beliefs about correcting student errors in every possible way and his strong beliefs in importance of correction were parallel to his actions in the classroom.

Episode 27 (ET1):

T: Now, are your grandparents alive? What does your grandmother or grandfather do?

FS2: Yes. He is a work in Beyazıt. [lexical error]

T: He is a worker in Beyazıt or, he works in Beyazıt.- [recast] Okay, what do old people generally do in our country?

MS: Old people play tavla. [L1 use]

T: Backgammon. [translation]

FS: Usually walk near beach. [lexical error]

T: Hı hı. They usually walk, go walking by the sea. [recast] … They pray. They go the::

MS: Mosque. [phonological error -/mɒskʊo/].

T: Mosque. They go to the mosque. [recast] They walk around. They look after their grandsons.

About the same issues, ET2 had different ideas again. She declared that she did not want to interrupt and discourage students by interfering about their mistakes. So, OCF did not have priority in her Listening and Speaking classes. Yet, her classroom data shows that ET2 corrected 189 erroneous turns out of 220, which means that she corrected 86 % of these errors. Therefore, she was not consistent with her beliefs about correction. She was not coherent about not interrupting the students while they were talking either. In a number of cases, she constantly interrupted the students for correction as seen in the extract below:

Episode 28 (ET2):

MS3: Keeping animals in zoos helps protect some endangered species [phonological error /speɪs/]

T: +/. Species!- [recast]

MS3: Species, and people protect next generations of animals.

T: Good, perfect! Anyone else? Ok, ladies first!

FS3: Keeping animals in zoos helps protect some endangered species and many people think that should not closed in the zoos [grammatical error]

T: Animals shouldn’t be closed in zoos. It is passive voice, ha? Ok? [metalinguistic feedback]

FS3: Zoos educate people about animals. On the contrary, [phonological error /kʌntri/]

T: +/. On the contrary. [recast]

FS3: On the contrary, they don’t remember anything.

The other theme was focus of correction. ET1 explained that especially in speaking activities mistakes should be corrected whenever they occurred. He also said he corrected all of the pronunciation errors all the time and also did vocabulary, stress and grammar corrections. He ignored only 15 error turns which means he did not give any feedback to 8 % of the errors and so corrected most of the errors. It is obvious that he acted in accordance with his beliefs again. However, there was a little inconsistency about pronunciation mistakes. He asserted that he corrected all these mistakes all the time, but ignored 7 turns of pronunciation errors.

ET2 stated that she mostly focused on vocabulary and pronunciation errors as she believed it was impossible for students to know every single word. She believed that speaking classes were not suitable for correcting grammar mistakes. Nevertheless, she gave feedback to 99 turns of grammatical errors out of 123 turn, which means she corrected 80 % of them. So, she was not aware that she corrected most of the grammatical errors. On the other hand, she was consistent about correcting mostly vocabulary errors as she did not ignore any of the lexical errors.

Both ET1 and ET2 were consistent about their peer-correction ideas and practices. They declared that they did not prefer that technique for Intermediate level Speaking classes and they did not resort to any peer-correction in their classes.

The last issue was oral feedback types used for correcting different error types. First of all, for the grammatical mistakes ET1 explained that he mostly used Metalinguistic feedback. However, his classroom data results showed that ET1 generally used Recast with 31 turns out of 50 turns of feedback, not Metalinguistic feedback for grammatical errors as he claimed. On the other hand, ET2 asserted that she only used Elicitation for grammatical error. Actually, she used Elicitation in 20 turns, but still she mostly employed Recast with 61 turns for grammatical errors like ET1. Hence, the teachers were not aware of the effective feedback type that they mostly used for grammatical errors.

For phonological errors, ET1 and ET2 both declared that they used Recast and Elicitation. They were consistent about using Recast as it was the most frequent type used for phonological errors in their classes. Yet, they were both inconsistent about using Elicitation as they rarely used it for these kinds of errors.

Finally, for the lexical errors, ET1 pointed out that the most effective type was Recast. He was right about this preference as he used Recast very often in his classes. For ET2 the most acceptable errors were lexical errors, so she said she usually gave feedback on them. The most effective feedback for her was Elicitation for her. Yet, Elicitation was the second most used type in her classroom data as she mostly used Recast for lexical errors. She was partly in line with her belief.

As it is clearly seen, both ETs had some inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices.

4.6.2. The comparison of less experienced teachers' (LETs) stated beliefs and practices

About priority of the correction, LET1 and LET2 had similar ideas. They both believed that it was important to give corrective feedback because students needed to learn about their mistakes. Especially LET2 asserted that OCF hindered fossilization. Being in line with these ideas, they corrected most of the student errors in their classes. Besides they indicated that they did not favour immediate correction as it was distracting and demotivating for the students. They preferred delayed correction. However, both of them either gave immediate feedback while the students were talking as in the sample extract below or ignored the student errors totally.

Episode 29 (LET1):

MS1: … For example, birds fly during earthquake [Phonological error -/ etkweık/]

T: +/. Earthquake! –[Recast]

MS1: But animals shouldn’t work in circus [Phonological error -/ si:sus/]

T: +/.Because they shouldn’t work in:: (00:03)? - [Elicitation]

MS1: Circus [Phonological error -/ sisus/]

T: Circus. [Recast]

For the focus of correction, again both LET1 and LET2 had similar ideas. They believed that pronunciation and vocabulary were more important to reach communication competence, so they focused on phonological and lexical mistakes. LET1 also stated that she wouldn’t correct the grammar mistakes if they were not in the learning outcomes of that lesson. It was clear from the data of LET1’s classes that she corrected most of the errors even if they were not related to outcomes of the unit they studied. For example, the grammar outcomes of the unit they studied were using modals and contrasting ideas using but, yet etc., but she corrected more than half of the grammatical errors which did not include these forms. So, there was a discrepancy here. She was consistent with her statement about other two error types as she corrected nearly all of the lexical errors and most of the phonological errors in her classes. Yet, the mostly ignored type of error was phonological which stands out as another inconsistency.

LET2, on the other hand, corrected all the lexical errors and most of the phonological errors. However, like in LET1’s classes the most ignored errors were phonological although LET2 asserted they were important to correct. The other discrepancy was again about grammatical errors as LET2 corrected 60 % of them in her classes, which does not mean she generally ignored them as she asserted.

About peer-correction issue, they expressed the same ideas as the ETs. Though they found it beneficial, they didn’t use it a lot as the level of their classes were not that good.

Finally, the effective feedback types for different error types were mostly different for each LET. For grammatical errors, the common feedback type was Elicitation for both of them. They explained that they generally used it. Nonetheless, they only used this type in a few feedback turns.

For phonological errors, LET1 and LET2 had different opinions. Though LET1 believed that she used Elicitation and Repetition very often, she used Elicitation in only 3 turns out of 63 feedback turns and never used Repetition for phonological errors. LET2 explained that this time she was more direct and generally used Explicit correction. Yet, she used Explicit correction in only 5 turns out of 49 feedback turns. In fact, both of them mostly provided Recasts. These show that there was not a consensus between their perceptions and actions about phonological errors.

For lexical errors, LET1 expressed that she could not expect the student to know about every lexical item, so would just use Recast. Yet besides Recast, she still used all six types of feedback for lexical errors. For example, the numbers of Metalinguistic feedback, Explicit correction and Clarification request types were nearly the same as Recast, but she did not mention about them. Different from the other teacher, LET2 explained that she favoured Elicitation for lexical errors. Her classroom data showed that she used Elicitation in only 1 turn out of 13 feedback turns. She mostly used Recast and Metalinguistic feedback.

All in all, the comparisons of quantitative and qualitative data showed that teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices were not congruous to each other to a large extent. Both experienced and less experienced teachers had inconsistencies.

In the next chapter, the findings of the current study will be discussed in detail and will be compared to the findings of the similar studies.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

The present chapter aims to discuss the quantitative and qualitative results of the study in the same order as the research questions as follows:

1) What types of oral corrective feedback do the experienced and less experienced non- native EFL teachers use for different error types?

2) What are these language teachers' stated beliefs and preferences about oral corrective feedback?

3) To what extent are teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback consistent with their observed practice? Are there any discrepancies?

An overall conclusion of the study will be presented after the detailed discussion. The chapter will come to end with implications and suggestions for further studies.

5.2. The Types of OCF the ETs and LETs Used for Different Error Types

The data gathered from transcriptions of 44 lessons, totalling of nearly 1800 minutes or 30 hours of Listening/Speaking course showed that the students committed 698 erroneous utterances and the teachers corrected 592 (84.8 %) of these errors turns. The remaining 106 (15.1 %) student turns with error and L1 use did not receive any CF and were followed by topic continuation moves. The 84.8 % of correction is consistent with those explained by Lyster and Ranta (1997), wherein the average rate of OCF was 62%. So, the correction rate in the present study, as claimed by Lyster and Ranta, "appears to represent a reasonable ratio of correction versus non-correction in such interactive contexts" (p.56).

The most occurring type of error was Phonological errors with 292 turns. They were followed by grammatical and lexical errors and unsolicited L1 use respectively. The most used type of OCF was Recast. In Lyster and Ranta's study, the teachers used Recast to a large extent with 55 % and the second was Elicitation with 14%. Similarly, Recast was the most frequent feedback with 61.4 % and the second was Elicitation with 11.5% in the current study. In a similar study, Sheen (2004) examined teachers' corrective feedback and learners' uptake across Canada ESL, French Immersion, Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL instructional settings using Lyster and Ranta's taxonomy of teachers' corrective feedback moves. Recasts were again by far the most provided feedback type in all four communication-based classroom settings. A lot of other research studies (e.g. Tsang, 2004b; Havranek, 2002; Panova & Lyster (2002), Roothooft, 2014, Al-Faki & Siddiek; 2013 and Farrokhi, 2007) found out that Recast was the most occurring feedback. All these research results prove the finding of Loewen (2013) that Recast is "the most common feedback method in the classroom" (p.23).

In a nutshell, both ETs and LETs corrected most of the errors in their classes. More specifically, ETs and LETs corrected 88.7% and 79% the errors respectively, committed by students in their Listening & Speaking classes and it can be said that both groups of teachers provided somewhat similar amount of feedback. Junqueira and Kim (2013) also found a similar result in their study, which investigated the relationship between previous training, teaching experience, CF beliefs, and practices of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher. Both groups of teachers in their study employed similar amounts of CF with 51.9% and 62.8% respectively.

On the other hand, more teacher-learner and error-feedback interactions were observed in ETs' classes. In studies carried out by Mackey et al. (2004) and Junqueira and Kim (2013), they also found that experienced teachers had more error-feedback interactions. Teaching experience seems to have an impact on the amount of classroom interactions and choice of CF techniques.

Additionally, although ETs used different types of feedback such as Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback which included "negotiation of form" named by Lyster and Ranta (1997), both ETs and LETs used all six types of errors categorised by Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, it was different in the study of Junqueira and Kim (2013) as the novice teacher almost always used Recasts and Clarification requests (58.2% and 36.4%, respectively) whereas the experienced teacher's choices of feedback were more diverse including Recasts, Clarification requests, Elicitation, Explicit correction, Metalinguistic feedback.

In the results part, the feedback distribution after each error was also analysed in details. The classroom data showed that there was a consistent relation between the number of errors and number of feedback provided by the teachers. That is to say, the most occurring type of error was phonological errors and this type received the most feedback as well. The order for the frequency of error and amount of feedback went on with grammatical and lexical errors and L1 use respectively. Different from the current study, in Kılınç's (2007) study, which was also carried out in a Turkish EFL context, although the most common error type was grammatical errors, they received the least amount of feedback. There was not a balanced error-feedback distribution.

Detailed analysis of the feedback types after different errors were also analysed for experienced and less experienced teachers separately. Firstly, in experienced teachers' (ET) classes, there were totally 417 student errors. 370 turns (88.7 %) of these errors were corrected. That is, they provided OCF for most of the errors and only ignored 11.3 % of them. The most frequent feedback was Recast, followed by Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Translation, Explicit correction and Clarification Request respectively. The least feedback was Repetition with only 1 turn. They did not resort to any peer-correction (see Table 4.4 for percentages).

In less experienced teachers' (LETs) classes, on the other hand, only 281 errors were committed. They provided 222 feedback turns (79 %) for these errors. 59 turns (21 %) of the total 281 errors were ignored by the teachers. The most common feedback was again Recast followed by Explicit correction, Translation, Elicitation, Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification request and finally Repetition respectively. There was only 1 turn of Peer-correction (see Table 4.3 for percentages).

Teachers' use of feedback for four different error types was examined in detail as well. To begin with, phonological errors were the most common errors with 292 turns. ETs mostly corrected these errors with Recast with 114 turns which meant nearly 90 % of them. The other feedback types did not have more than 7 turns. The least used feedback was Clarification request for phonological errors. As for LET, they also used Recast for most of the phonological errors with 88 turns (78.6 %) out of 112 error turns. The least used feedback was Metalinguistic feedback this time. Furthermore, the only used Peer-correction was recorded for a phonological error in one of the LETs' classes.

ETs ignored 14 turns (9.7 %) of Phonological errors while LETs ignored 36 turns of (24.3 %) of them.

Grammatical errors were the second most common error types with 238 turns. In ETs' classes the most employed types were Recast with 87 turns, Elicitation and Metalinguistic feedback with 27 and 18 turns respectively. The least used ones were Explicit correction and Clarification request. They did not provide any Repetition. LETs employed Recast for most of the errors. The other feedback types did not have more than 3 turns. Lastly, whereas ETs did not provide any feedback for 18 % of grammatical errors, it was 37.2 % in LETs' classes.

For lexical errors which comprised 105 turns (15.1 %) among others, ETs mostly used Recast and Elicitation for total 43 turns out of 57 lexical errors. The least used types were Clarification request and Repetition. In LETs' classes, there were 47 lexical errors and they mostly (24 turns) used Recast and Metalinguistic feedback for them. The least used feedback was Repetition again. While ETs did not ignore any of the lexical errors, LETs only ignored 1 turn.

The final and least occurred error type was unsolicited L1 use with 63 turns (9 %) in the total data. In ETs' classes, there were 36 turns of L1 errors and 22 turns of them were corrected by Translation which is the most expected feedback type for this type of error. Still, it is the ETs provided 11 turns of Elicitation for L1 use. They tried to elicit the correct forms in English by telling the students "Say it in English please!" or "You know it in Turkish. We have the same verb for …" There was also 1 turn of Clarification request as L1 word was incomprehensible in the English sentence. In LETs' classes, there were 27 turns of L1use and nearly all them were corrected by Translation. There were only 3 turns of Elicitation and only 1 turn of Clarification Request. Finally, although LETs corrected all of the L1 use errors, ETs ignored 2 turns of them.

To sum up, both ETs and LETs teachers corrected most of the phonological, grammatical, lexical and L1 use errors in their classroom. The most feedback was provided for phonological errors as they were the most occurring. Yet, except the L1 use, LETs ignored each type of error slightly more than ETs. As stated earlier, the most frequent OCF was Recast for each error, but the others changed according to error type.

This overwhelming use of Recast may be about nature of it. Recast is a more implicit type of feedback and so is not “face-threatening” and helps to maintain the “supportive classroom atmosphere” (Yoshida, 2008, p.89). Furthermore, the flow of the lesson is not hindered most of the time and teachers do not feel that they interrupt the students while they are speaking. So, this frequent use of Recast can explain the teachers’ concerns about disrupting and distracting students.

5.3. ETs’ and LETs’ stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback

The ETs and LETs had varying and sometimes contrasting beliefs and preferences of OCF. Some common codes and the themes were identified.

5.3.1. Priority of correction

Firstly, the teachers did not have similar opinions on priority of OCF. Both of the LETs and one of the ETs believed in the immediate feedback since it prevented fossilization. In this sense, OCF was important for them. Yet, ET2, LET1 and LET2 thought that immediate correction was distracting and demotivating for the students during speaking. Most of the teachers in Farrokhi’s (2007) and Roothooft’s (2014) study stated that CF was important and effective in language learning. Yet, like the participant teachers in Roothooft’s study, the teachers in the current study still expressed some doubts about interrupting and discouraging students by correcting them too much. In Kamiya’s (2016) study, all of the teachers also shared a common belief that OCF should not humiliate students. It is clear that although they believed the effectiveness and importance of OCF, they were concerned about the affective factors.

5.3.2. Focus of correction

The teachers had some similar ideas about the focus of correction. ET2, LET1 and LET2 expressed that they focused on phonological and lexical errors in Listening and Speaking classes. They thought that it was not necessary to correct grammatical errors. Different from them, ET1 believed that all errors including the grammatical ones should be corrected. In Roothooft's (2014) study, three of the teachers also believed that they provided OCF for all errors as ET1 and only two of them expressed that they focused on phonological and lexical errors as LET1 and LET2 did.

5.3.3. Peer-correction

All of the teachers found peer-correction technique useful, but still they explained that it depended on the level of the students to use it. As far as it is known, there are not any studies that have found certain beliefs of teachers about using peer-correction in Listening and Speaking classes. In the current study, although the teachers found it as a beneficial method, they did not employ it in their classes.

5.3.4. Feedback types used for correction

The teachers also identified the most effective correction options in the given cases where different oral correction types were used for different error types. The aim was to understand if they were aware of the types of the correction they used. They had some common preferences for each case. ET2, LET1 and LET2 stated that Elicitation was the most effective type that they used for grammatical errors. For phonological errors, the most effective common type was Elicitation for ET2, LET1 and LET2. Finally for lexical errors, there were two common themes. While ET1 and LET1 believed that they generally used Recast, ET2 and LET2 thought they used Elicitation as it was more effective for them.

For the question that asked about the teachers' own useful techniques, the teachers gave different answers. While ET1 mainly explained immediate correction, ET2 focused on her own peer-correction method. LET1 did not mention the name of the feedback type, but she exemplified Elicitation and claimed that she sometimes used it as a useful technique. LET2, on the other hand, explained that she took notes about students' errors while they were presenting something and then gave feedback without uttering their names. By this way, she would not interrupt them. Obviously, there was not a consensus on an effective type of feedback. In Roothooft's (2014) study, the teachers also advised different methods such as students' self-correction, indirect feedback and combining different feedback types. Similar to the present study, the teachers treated most of the student errors with Recast even though they did not mention about it.

Interestingly, none of the teachers in the present study named any of specific feedback types that they used in their classroom. After they read about the certain CF types, their definitions and examples, only ET2 expressed she knew Recast. It seems that the teachers were not aware of the specific feedback types even though they employed all of them in their classes.

5.4. The comparison of teachers’ stated beliefs and classroom practices

One of the main aims of the study was to find out whether the experienced and less experienced teachers had clear beliefs about OCF and applied them in their practices. Although some of the beliefs of the teachers matched their actual practices, there were a lot of inconsistencies between the two regardless of their level of experience.

First of all, ET1 believed that OCF was quite important and had an essential role. Accordingly, he corrected most of the errors. ET1 explained that he corrected errors during the activity and his classroom data showed that he provided immediate correction during the activity like he said. On the other hand, ET2 articulated that it was not important and useful to provide OCF because of its negative affective results on students. Yet, she also corrected most of the errors. She also expressed that she did not want to interrupt and discourage students by interfering about their mistakes and added that if the mistake blocked the message of the speaker to get through she corrected it during the activity. Yet, during the activities, she corrected most of the errors that did not hinder the communication.

Both LET1 and LET2 declared the importance of OCF and their correction rate was in line with this belief. Yet, they did not favour immediate correction as it was distracting and demotivating for the students. They preferred delayed correction. Yet, they corrected most of the errors during the activity. As stated before, these can be the explanation of their frequent use of Recast. In the study carried out by Junqueira and

Kim (2013), one of the teachers who unconsciously used Recast expressed that she was just “dialoguing” in correction parts. Most of the teachers in the study also were not aware of their use of CF and viewed them as some kinds of “communicative exchanges”. Similarly, the teachers in the present study might also feel they were not correcting by Recasts, but rather communicating with the students.

For focus of correction, ET1 expressed that mistakes should be corrected whenever they occurred. For him, the most serious errors were pronunciation errors which he believed he corrected all the time. The others were grammatical and lexical errors respectively. He was consistent about correcting all of the errors in his classes. Yet, he claimed the lexical errors should be the least important errors among others, he corrected all of them while he ignored a small rate of both the other two. ET2 was again inconsistent as she claimed it was not necessary to correct errors in speaking classes, but still corrected most of the (86%) errors. She said when she sometimes corrected; it was mainly vocabulary, pronunciation. She was right about focusing on vocabulary and pronunciation as she corrected all of the lexical and most of the phonological errors. Although she corrected 80% of the grammatical errors, the most frequently ignored errors by her were also grammatical ones. This was partly in line with her beliefs.

On LETs side, they both maintained that they did not correct all of the errors. They also focused on pronunciation, vocabulary. They behaved consistently about focusing on lexical and phonological errors, but they also corrected more than 60% of the grammatical errors even if they did not block the communication. It seems that both groups of teachers were generally consistent with their beliefs about focusing on phonological and lexical errors. Similar to that, in Junqueira and Kim’s (2013) study, the novice and experienced teachers error foci were in line with their stated beliefs as well. The discrepancies were generally about their OCF practices.

All of the teachers stated positive ideas about peer-correction, but believed that it was not suitable for intermediate level students. They all acted in line with their peer-correction beliefs and did not resort to it in their classes.

Finally, the teachers explained the feedback type(s) for each one. The first case included a grammatical error. ET1 explained that he mostly used Metalinguistic feedback for them, but his classroom data revealed that he used Recast the most frequently. However, he was right about sometimes using Explicit correction and never using Repetition. ET2 she only used Elicitation and she used this feedback ‘rarely’ as she claimed to have given feedback rarely. Yet, she mostly employed Recast. Elicitation constituted only one third of her total feedback for grammatical errors.

On the other side, LET1 explained that she generally used Elicitation, frequently used Repetition and sometimes used Recast if the level of the students was not high. Nevertheless, she used Elicitation and Repetition only in one turn each while she used Recast most of the time. LET2 stated that she generally used Recast and Elicitation for grammatical errors. She was consistent about her beliefs. Yet, she also used Metalinguistic feedback in 4 turns but, did not mention about it.

For the phonological error, both ET1 and ET2 declared that they mostly used Recast, Elicitation. ET1’s beliefs were almost in line with his classroom behaviours. ET2 was also consistent about using Recast as she used it most frequently. However, she used Elicitation only in one turn, which does not mean she used it ‘mostly’.

There was not a consensus between LETs perceptions and actions about phonological errors. That is, LET1 stated that she used Elicitation and Repetition very often for this type of error. Yet, she rarely used Elicitation and never used Repetition. Similarly, LET2 claimed she generally used Explicit correction and sometimes used Clarification request, but still rarely used them for phonological errors.

For the lexical errors, ET1 pointed out that the most effective type was Recast and he used it often in his classes. For ET2 the most acceptable errors were lexical errors and the most effective feedback for her was Elicitation again. Elicitation was the second most used type in her classroom data as she mostly used Recast.

LET1 expressed that she could not expect the students to know about every lexical item, so would just use Recast. Yet, she used Metalinguistic feedback, Explicit correction and Clarification request as much as Recast. LET2 explained her own technique which was actually a kind of Elicitation. Nevertheless, she used Elicitation in only one turn. She mostly used Recast and Metalinguistic feedback for lexical errors.

It is clear that both ETs and LETs had a lot of discrepancies between their beliefs about effective types OCF and their actual in-class practices. As one of the experienced teachers also had a lot of inconsistencies, it can be said that experience "cannot be exclusively relied upon as an indicator of classroom practice" (Kamiya, 2016, p.206). The reason why experience was not an indicator of consistency can have some possibilities. One possibility explained by Basturkmen et al. (2004) is that teachers rely on their technical knowledge when asked about their beliefs, but when they confront with real classroom contexts, they turn to their practical knowledge.

The general finding of mismatches between beliefs and practices is line with the results of the similar studies such as Al-Faki & Siddiek (2013), Farrokhi (2007), Roothooft (2014), Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Basturkmen et al. (2004). All of them also found some mismatches. To give some examples, Farrokhi's (2007) study, the teachers stated that negotiated feedback and explicit correction were effective types, but still their percentages of occurrence were rather low in their actual performance. In the study of Basturkmen et al. (2004), the teachers all believed not to interfere with the communicative flow of the lesson, but their reactive focus on form practices hindered the communication flow. Al-Faki & Siddiek (2013) also found that there was not significant relationship between EFL teachers' attitudes towards OCF and their actual practices. However, different from these studies and the current study, Kamiya (2016) discovered that although there was not a perfect match, stated beliefs and practices of four experienced and inexperienced teachers were generally consistent with each other.

5.5. Conclusion

The current study was carried out to investigate the experienced and less experienced EFL teachers' oral corrective feedback beliefs and their in-class practices and aimed to reveal any possible inconsistences between the two.

The data was collected by means of classroom audio recordings, a belief questionnaire and semi-structured interviews all of which were conducted during the respectively. The teacher participants were two experienced teachers with 9 years of experience each and two less experienced teachers with 3.5 and 4 years teaching experience. The teachers were especially chosen in that way to find out any potential effects of teaching experience. The student participants were B-1 (intermediate) level students in classes of the four teachers. There were 25 students in each class on average.

In classroom data analysis, the OCF taxonomy compiled by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was used. To find out about teachers' stated beliefs 'Teacher's preferences elicitation questionnaire' which was prepared by Roothooft (2014) was used. To get more reliable results, semi-structured interviews with each teacher were conducted by the researcher.

In the current study, three research questions were aimed to be answered. The first question asked about the types of OCF used by experienced and less experienced teachers (ETs and LETs). The classroom audio transcripts disclosed that the teachers used all six types of CF with varying degrees of frequency and Recast was the mostly employed type for both groups of teachers. Yet, the least used one was Repetition. It was also revealed that both groups of teachers corrected most of the student errors in their classes. Furthermore, there were more teacher-student interaction instances in ETs' classes, there were more OCF turns in their data.

The second research question addressed the stated beliefs and preferences of the teachers. The questionnaire and interview results showed that in both groups there were similar and contrasting beliefs about OCF. Three of the teachers believed in the importance of OCF in developing speaking skills of the students whereas ET2 was strongly against OCF due to its demotivating and distracting nature. Except ET1, all of the teachers believed that it was not necessary to correct all of the errors in speaking classes. ET1 believed in habit formation by immediate correction, so he stated that errors should be corrected whenever they occurred. As for peer-correction, both groups found it useful, but added that intermediate level students were not suitable for it. Teachers were asked about their own effective feedback techniques. Their answers varied. While ETs focused on immediate correction and peer-correction, LETs emphasized helping students elicit the accurate forms by hints and delayed correction especially during student presentations. On the other hand, both groups of teachers agreed on focusing on phonological and lexical errors rather than grammatical errors. Still, the effective types of OCF for each type of error changed according to each teacher.

The final research question aimed to reveal whether ETs and LETs teachers stated beliefs and actual classroom practices were consistent with each other. The comparisons between the two showed that there were a lot of inconsistencies both in ETs and LETs sides. Although three of them expressed some reservations about discouraging and interrupting students by CF, they believed OCF had a crucial role in developing speaking skills. It was noteworthy in the findings that the teachers were not conscious of the amount of feedback they provided. For example, the teachers who stated that they ‘sometimes’ or ‘rarely’ corrected oral errors, actually corrected most of the errors in class. This discrepancy may be explained by the excessive use of Recasts by them. They were most probably not aware of using it as an OCF as Recast are implicit and short. Another mismatching point was that although they thought pronunciation errors were important to correct, they ignored an important amount of them. Still, the least ignored errors were lexical errors as the teachers generally stated that they prioritized them. Finally, even though there were some consistent results between the teachers’ ideas about the effective types of feedback for grammatical, phonological and lexical errors and in-class behaviours, a lot of mismatches were found as well. It was quite interesting to find that the most consistent teacher was ET1 whereas one of the least one was ET2. This finding together with others mentioned above proves that ‘teaching experience’ does not have a significant effect on determining the most preferred types of feedback, certain beliefs about the OCF and the degree of consistency between beliefs and actual classroom practices.

5.6. Implications of the Study

In the light of the findings of the current study, some implications can be drawn out to raise the awareness of the concepts regarding OCF in language learning area.

Firstly, classroom observation data of experienced and less experienced Turkish EFL teachers indicated that both groups of teachers used all six types of OCF proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). So, it can be said that these feedback types are applicable for EFL contexts as well.

Nevertheless, the questionnaire and interview data revealed that neither group of teachers had clear knowledge and awareness of the certain OCF types they used. Furthermore, though the ones who were concerned about distracting students by providing OCF, employed Recasts a lot. They also believed that too much correction was counterproductive and demotivating, but still corrected most of the student errors in their classrooms. It is clear that teachers do not always perceive Recast as a type of correction. They probably see it as a natural part of conversation as Recasts are usually implicit and not face-threating. Together with this, both ETs and LETs had serious discrepancies between their stated beliefs about different dimensions of OCF and their actual classroom practices. It can be implied that it is important for in-service teachers to reflect on their teaching to work out any inconsistencies and help them have more conscious preferences of OCF.

On the other hand, the large amount of incoherence between the teachers' beliefs and practices can be seen as an opportunity to realize that scholars, teacher educators, curriculum designers and also language teachers should take some important steps about the issue. First of all, it seems essential to raise teachers' awareness by informing them about CF types and their benefits in promoting foreign language learning. In this vein, teacher educators and curriculum developers can include the concepts about feedback in teaching programs so that teachers can use a greater variety of different feedback types in their classroom and make their teaching more effective (Roothooft, 2014). Awareness-raising activities in the teacher education programs and particular work-shops on OCF can also contribute considerably.

5.7. Suggestions for Further Studies

The current study investigated the types of OCF that Turkish EFL teachers used in their intermediate level Listening and Speaking classes. Further studies can be conducted in different lessons with different levels of students to find out any possible similarities or differences of feedback types used. Furthermore, this study included only four teachers, so comparing choices of greater number of experienced and novice teachers can reveal more concrete results about the effect of experience on OCF choices and beliefs on feedback.

Another noteworthy point in the study was to find out teachers stated beliefs about OCF. However, the deep-rooted sources of these beliefs were not in the scope of it. More research can be done to shed light on the roots of these beliefs so that the most influential factors such as schooling, teacher education, experiences as a learner and a teacher explained by Borg (2003) can be found.

An additional study can also be conducted to bring out the students’ feelings, beliefs and preferences about OCF during language learning. They can be analysed together with the ones owned by their teachers’ to find out any congruous points.

Finally and most importantly, as Junqueira and Kim (2013) suggests, further investigation can be carried out to find out whether teacher training can change teachers’ inconsistent beliefs about correction and help them match their beliefs and actual classroom practices. In this sense, the positive effects of reading CF research and taking part in work-shops that inform about OCF can also be scrutinized closely.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: TEACHERS' BELIEFS ELICITATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The following questions are all about oral feedback on students' language mistakes when they speak. This part is to find out how you feel about oral feedback on speaking and how you usually deal with your students' oral language mistakes. With your group of students in mind, please answer the following questions and write as much as you think is necessary.

Gender: Male/Female

Age:

Title of university degree:

Years of teaching experience:

Type of teaching experience (language academy, university…):

Qualifications/certificates:

1. How important do you think it is to give students feedback on language mistakes during or after speaking activities?

It is (very) important, because…

It is not important, because…

2. When doing activities in class, do you usually give your students feedback on their language mistakes?

- If you don’t what is the reason for this?

- If you do, do you give them feedback during the activity, or afterwards?

3. Do you think it is necessary to give feedback on ***all*** of your students’ mistakes?

YK

- If not, what type of mistake do you think you should focus on? Why?

4. On what type of mistakes do you usually give feedback to your students? (Pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc.)

5. How often do you use peer-correction (letting the students correct each other)? What do you think about this technique?

6. Can you please order the importance of correcting the following types of mistakes and state your reasons?

1= the most important 2= less important 3= the least important

Grammar mistakes _______

Pronunciation mistakes______

Vocabulary mistakes ______

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation!

APPENDIX B: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Guiding Questions for the Semi-structured Interview

Interviewee:
Date:

- All information from this interview will be confidential. You will not be identified by name in any report from this study.

- I want to assure you that there are no correct answers to the questions. What is important, are your thoughts, feelings, and experiences.

Part 1

1. What do you believe the role of corrective feedback is in language learning?

2. Do you remember any particular activities or techniques that you thought would be useful in providing corrective feedback in your classroom?

3. Do you know that there are mainly six types of oral corrective feedback? Do you know what they are?

Part 2

4. Please read the following dialogs which include different student mistakes. Which correction type or types are the most effective for each one? (Teacher=T, Student=S)

1. *Teacher:* What did you do last weekend?

   Student: I watching a film with my friends yesterday.

a) T: No, not watching, watched.

b) T: You watched a film.

c) T: I’m sorry?

d) T: You need to use past tense.

e) T: Last weekend I … (pausing)? (rising intonation)

f) T: I WATCHING a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)

- Do you use any of these techniques?
- How often do you use each one?

2. Teacher: What does their gardener do every weekend?

   Student: He cleans the leaves in the garden. (The student pronounce it as /lʌɪvz/ instead of /liːvz/)

a) T: No, not /lʌɪvz/, /liːvz/.

b) T: He cleans the leaves /liːvz/ in the garden.

c) T: I’m sorry?

d) T: You pronounce the ‘leaves’ wrong .

e) T: He cleans the … (pausing)? (rising intonation)

f) T:…….. the LEAVES in the garden? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)

- Do you use any of these techniques?
- How often do you use each one?

3. Teacher: So, why were they angry with Lisa?

Student: Because she was so disresponsible.

a) T: No, not disresponsible, but irresponsible.

b) T: She was so irresponsible.

c) T: I’m sorry?

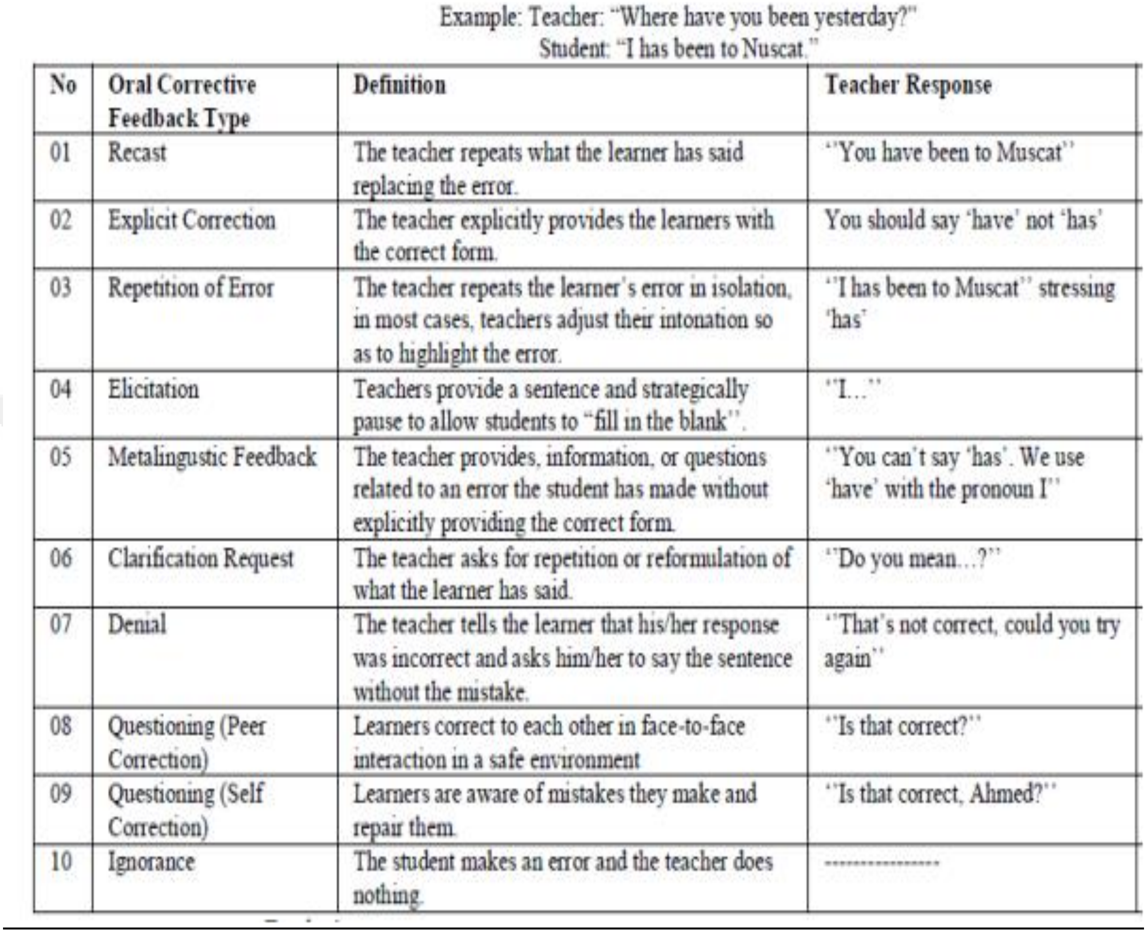
d) T: You used a wrong prefix.

e) T: She was so….. (pausing)? (rising intonation)

f) T: ……. Disresponsible? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)

- Do you use any of these techniques?
- How often do you use each one?

APPENDIX C: LEAFLET FOR ORAL CORRECTİVE FEEDBACK TYPES



Example: Teacher: "Where have you been yesterday?"
Student: "I has been to Nuscat."

No	Oral Corrective Feedback Type	Definition	Teacher Response
01	Recast	The teacher repeats what the learner has said replacing the error.	''You have been to Muscat''
02	Explicit Correction	The teacher explicitly provides the learners with the correct form.	You should say 'have' not 'has'
03	Repetition of Error	The teacher repeats the learner's error in isolation, in most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.	''I has been to Muscat'' stressing 'has'
04	Elicitation	Teachers provide a sentence and strategically pause to allow students to "fill in the blank''.	''I…''
05	Metalingustic Feedback	The teacher provides, information, or questions related to an error the student has made without explicitly providing the correct form.	''You can't say 'has'. We use 'have' with the pronoun I''
06	Clarification Request	The teacher asks for repetition or reformulation of what the learner has said.	''Do you mean…?''
07	Denial	The teacher tells the learner that his/her response was incorrect and asks him/her to say the sentence without the mistake.	''That's not correct, could you try again''
08	Questioning (Peer Correction)	Learners correct to each other in face-to-face interaction in a safe environment	''Is that correct?''
09	Questioning (Self Correction)	Learners are aware of mistakes they make and repair them.	''Is that correct, Ahmed?''
10	Ignorance	The student makes an error and the teacher does nothing.	----------------

APPENDIX D: TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

1. **T:** indicates the teacher

2. **?;** A question mark instead of a name or initial indicates that no good guess could be made as to the identity of the speaker.

3. **FS1:** first speaker instead of a name or initial indicates the identity of a female speaker.

4. **MS1:** first speaker instead of a name or initial indicates the identity of a male speaker.

5. **FS ?: OR MS ?:** A question mark instead of a name or initial indicates that no good guess could be made as to the identity of the female or male speaker.

6. **Some:** indicates that more than one speakers speaking at the same time

7. **(1.5)** Numbers between parenthesis indicate length of pauses in second and the tenths of seconds.

8. **…** Dots indicate an untimed pause

9. **(( ))** Material between double quotes provides extra linguistic information, e.g. about bodily movements.

10. **(10 :18)** Numbers between parenthesis with a semi colon indicates the time that has passed during the class hour.

11. **+/.** Indicates that the speaker is interrupted

12. **X** Incomprehensible item, one word only

13. **XX** Incomprehensible item, of phrase length

14. **XXX** Incomprehensible item, beyond the phrase length

15. **so :::** colons indicates the lengthening of the last sound

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