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STUDENT TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

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ÖZ

Bu araştırmanın amacı öğretmen adaylarının sözel düzeltici dönüte ilişkin inançlarını, beyan edilmiş davranışlarını ve bu ikisi arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu çalışmada, belirli nitel ve nicel araştırma yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Nitel yöntem olarak öğretmen adaylarının sözel düzeltici dönüte ilişkin inançlarını ortaya çıkarmak için bazı görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın nicel bölümü bir İngilizce öğretmeninin herhangi bir dil sınıfında karşılaşabileceği hatalar içeren 20 durumdan oluşan Hata Düzeltme Durumları Benzetimi'nden gelen veriden oluşmaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarından her bir duruma nasıl ve neden karşılık vereceklerini yazmaları istenmiştir. Bu aracın amacı öğretmen adaylarının beyan edilmiş davranışlarını belirlemektir. Görüşmelerin bulguları öğretmen adaylarının belirli kategorilerdeki görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmıştır: (1) Düzeltilecek Hataları Seçme, (2) Sözel Düzeltici Dönütün Zamanı, (3) Sık Görülen Sözel Hatalar ve (4) Etkili Sözel Düzeltici Dönüt. Hata Düzeltme Durumları Benzetimiyle toplanan verilerin sonuçları aday öğretmenlerin beyan ettikleri davranışlarının öğrencilerin yaşları ve seviyelerine, hatanın türüne (dil bilgisel, sözcüksel ve fonolojik) göre doğruluk ve akıcılık temelli aktivitelerde değiştiğini göstermiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, bulgular öğretmen

adaylarının sözel düzeltici dönüte ilişkin inançları ile beyan ettikleri davranışlarının belirli ölçüde uyuşsa da bunların aralarındaki farklılığın daha fazla olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu farklılıklarının çeşitli nedenleri olabilir. Fakat bu çalışmanın bulgularında iki neden ön plana çıkmıştır. Bunlardan biri öğretmen adaylarının deneyim eksiklikleri ve diğeri ise öğretmen eğitimi programındaki uygulama eksikliğidir.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate student teachers' stated beliefs and their stated behaviors about oral corrective feedback (OCF) and the nature of interaction between them. In this study, some certain qualitative and quantitative research methods were applied. As for the qualitative design, some interviews were conducted to find out student teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback. The quantitative part of the study consists of the data coming from Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation including 20 situations that involve an error an English language teacher can encounter in any language classroom context. The student teachers were asked to write how and why they would respond each situation. The aim of this tool was to identify the student teachers' stated behaviors. The findings of the interviews revealed the student teachers' views on certain categories: (1) Selecting Errors to Correct, (2) Time of OCF, (3) Frequent Type of Oral Errors and (4) Effective OCF. The results of the data gathered through SEC Simulation demonstrated that the student teachers' stated behaviors differed depending on age and level of students, type of the error (grammatical, lexical, and phonological) in accuracy and fluency based activities. Additionally, the findings showed that although the

student teachers' beliefs about OCF are consistent with their stated behaviors to some extent, there were more divergences between them. There can be various reasons for these discrepancies. However, in the findings of the present study two reasons become prominent. One of them is the student teachers' lack of experience and the other one is lack of practice in the teacher education program.

Science Code:

Key Words: oral corrective feedback, EFL student teachers, student teachers' beliefs

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Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAH: Conversation Analysis Hypothesis

CF: Corrective Feedback

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

FFI: Form Focused Instruction

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

MNE: Turkish Ministry of National Education

NS: Native Speakers

NNS: Non-native Speakers

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLTE: Second Language Teacher Education

STs: Student teachers

THEC: Turkish Higher Education Council

TL: Target Language

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Language classrooms are not different from any other social contexts in real world. A language class is a social context co-constructed through interaction by a teacher and learners. Interaction is seen central to language learning because "learning arises not through interaction, but in interaction" (Ellis, 2000, p.209). Learning occurs initially through interaction with more experienced ones who are able to guide and support the novice (Vygotsky, 1978). Long (1983, 1996) states that second language acquisition is enhanced when learners have to negotiate for meaning by asking for clarification and confirming questions. He also highlights the importance of the more competent interlocutor in making input comprehensible for learner's learning (Long, 1996).

From this perspective, there are some tasks for teachers to make the input more comprehensible for learners. One of the most important tasks is responding to learners' errors. This is an issue that has been examined in different studies with different research concerns: as negative evidence by linguists (e.g., White, 1989), as repair by discourse analysts (e.g., Kasper, 1985), as negative feedback by psychologists (e.g., Annett, 1969), as corrective feedback by second language teachers (e.g., Fanselow, 1977), and as focus-on-form in more recent work by the second language acquisition (SLA) researchers (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1991). All of these different focuses of research concern with the same practical issue of "what to do when students make errors in classrooms that are intended to lead communicative competence" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.38).

The view that language errors could help observe the developmental process of SLA enabled the field of language teaching to accept that errors in language learning process is inevitable and it is a mark of learning by the late 1970s. Some specialists argue that error

correction is not necessary because if students receive enough comprehensible input, errors will disappear naturally (Krashen, 1982). However, many experts state that provision of error correction is one of the most important teacher roles (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). During the last thirty years, this opinion has motivated second language (L2) researchers to study on oral error correction to understand the value of it for SLA and to determine best practices of it for better learning.

Although it seems very practical, how to treat errors in a spoken discourse is a perplexing issue for teachers. They have always some questions in their minds such as; "Should learners' errors be corrected? When and how should learners' errors be corrected? Which errors should be corrected? Who should do the correcting?" (Hendrickson, 1978). Answering these questions can give language teachers an idea of effective L2 education. These questions are needed to be answered for both in written and oral discourse. Although there are many studies done in the written discourse, there are few studies conducted in oral discourse, so this study targets oral error correction.

SLA researchers are interested in oral error correction because it is one of the ways in which teachers can help learners monitor, reflect on and self-correct learner contributions (Walsh, 2006). It also leads to better insight into SLA processes, such as whether SLA requires explicit or implicit instruction, whether noticing and attention are sufficient for acquisition, or how the environment and interaction benefit SLA.

In the process of error correction, as it is in all components of teaching, the role and importance of teachers cannot be ignored. Teacher's belief has an effect on the way a teacher corrects errors because their behaviors are shaped by their beliefs about teaching and learning (Borg, 2006). Early research studies in teacher education focused on only teachers' behaviors in the classroom, they did not take into consideration the underpinning mental processes. Prior to the mid-1970s, teaching was regarded as a set of discrete behaviors that could be studied and taught to teachers to ensure the students' high quality performances.

However, after the mid-1970s, the focus of research on teaching has moved from teachers' in-class teaching behaviors to their thought processes (Clark & Peterson, 1986). The researchers started to realize that teachers were not just implementing what experts say. In fact, they are always in the classroom observing, diagnosing and responding to various situations (Borg, 2006). They are major active assessors, interpreters and decision makers

of actual classrooms. They are not simple followers of prescribed principles and theories developed by pedagogical experts for them (Baştürkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004), but they are professional who are capable of making reasonable decisions and judgments in the complex classroom and school context.

Substantial research has been conducted in the field of general education on teachers' beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1992) to understand how student teachers learn to teach. This increased research interest in the field of general education has spread into the field of second language teacher education (SLTE) (Borg, 2006, Wright, 2010). With this arousing research interest, it has been understood that teacher preparation is an educational process that is not made up of informing student teachers about some necessary strategies for effective teaching but requires illuminating the cognitive processes underlying effective instruction (Richards, 1998).

In this respect, an investigation of how teachers' cognition as an individual and an affective variable in the classroom exerts an impact on teachers' choice of error correction stands at a critical point, leading us to observe the relationship between teacher beliefs on language teaching and their actual practice. To this end, inclusion of teachers' beliefs as a factor in error correction studies can make significant contributions for some reasons. Firstly, teachers' thoughts, judgments and decisions guide their classroom behavior (Fang, 1996) and accordingly information about teachers' belief can give more depth to the understanding of teachers' error correction practices in the classroom context. Examining their instructional practices and understanding their underlying mental processes enable researchers to provide more powerful explanations of oral error correction practices of teachers.

Secondly, if it is aimed to make a change in the classroom, teachers' beliefs need to be understood and taken into consideration. Quite a lot of studies failed in reaching some convincing evidence because they did not take teachers' beliefs into account. These studies again demonstrate that teachers are individuals who think and make instructional decisions in their own right based on their knowledge and beliefs about teaching, learning, students and the world beyond classes (Borg, 2006). By taking teachers' beliefs as a component in oral error correction research can be more effective to place it in teachers' existing knowledge and beliefs. In this way, teachers are able to reflect on their own knowledge and beliefs and this is how teacher education research develops.

In this research, it is aimed to find out student teachers' beliefs about oral error correction. This aim is chosen for some reasons. First, although it is teachers who put research findings into practice, second language teacher education research may lack this point of view in terms of some specific points in language teaching. There are only few studies focused on specific points, such as grammar instruction (Borg, 2003).

Focusing on these specific points is very important for further research studies, teacher trainers, and developers of English language teaching (ELT) curriculums because we are able to understand teachers' mental processing in these specific areas by means of this kind of studies. They lead future studies and give some insights for the teacher trainers and the curriculum developers about the steps that can be taken to improve and change student teachers' behaviors. Second, most of the studies in literature are about written error correction. However, providing data and insights concerning the nature of teacher behavior with regard to oral corrective feedback (OCF) is also of great importance to reach credible generalizations and precise techniques for the classroom use. Thus, the incentive behind this present study is to analyze student-teachers' self-reported beliefs and their stated behaviors in terms of oral corrective feedback.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Error correction has been a subject that arouses researchers' interest for so long although there are some differences in the focus of the studies (e.g. Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1991; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It has gained prominence in studies of language education context lately. Its nature and role in second language teaching and learning have been looked into by a number of researchers. Since the 1970s, the role of interactional feedback in second language classrooms has been investigated basing on the premise that learners benefit from information about the communicative success of their target language use (Long, 1983) for this reason they may require feedback on their errors. When error correction is salient enough for learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage forms and target language forms, the resulting cognitive comparison may trigger a destabilization and restructuring of the target language (Panova & Lyster, 2002, p 574).

In the past 15 years, there has been an increase in the interest for teacher belief researches. The reason is that "the fact that teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who play a

central role in shaping classroom events" (Borg, 2006, p.2) is recognized. This recognition, together with insights from the field of psychology which shows how human action is strongly influenced by knowledge and beliefs, suggests that to understand the process of teaching it is a must to understand teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2006).

Taking into account both these interesting developments, the researcher focuses on student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback. Error correction can be studied in two discourses; written and oral. There are many studies on written error correction, however, there are few studies done in oral context although oral communication comprises a great part of communication in the classroom. There are also few studies focusing on oral error correction in terms of teachers' belief. On the other hand, the focus of early research on teachers' beliefs and practices in the field of second language was very much on the general issues about pedagogical beliefs (Johnson, 1992). It is needed to narrow down the scope of research on teachers' beliefs and practices to make the findings more comprehensible and applicable (Kartchava, 2006).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between student teachers' stated beliefs and stated behaviors in the area of oral corrective feedback in the context of an ELT program at Gazi University, Turkey.

In line with the aim stated above, the following research questions are answered:

1. What are student teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback?
2. What are student teachers' stated behaviors of oral corrective feedback?
3. What is the nature of interaction between student teachers' beliefs and stated oral corrective feedback behaviors?

1.3 Importance of the Study

It is a known fact that teachers' beliefs affect their classroom practices. That is why there are many studies focusing on the relationship between language teachers' beliefs and practices. These studies generally handle the subject taking into consideration specific factors such as contextual factors, differences between experienced and inexperienced

teachers and planned aspects of teaching (Baştürkmen, 2012). However, there is a need to research incidental aspects of teaching such as error correction.

In this respect, this study aims to investigate student language teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their stated behaviors. It focuses on student language teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback and stated behaviors of oral corrective feedback with the purpose of understanding language teachers' not only explicit beliefs, but also their implicit beliefs about oral corrective feedback. This study will give some insights for teacher education programs of universities, for teacher trainers and student-teachers. The previous studies in literature (e.g. Dong, 2012; Xing, 2009) show that there is a need for research of unplanned aspect of teaching and teachers' underlying mental processes such as interactive decision making. By investigating student teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback and stated behaviors of oral corrective feedback, this study aims to find out student teachers' stated beliefs about OCF, their stated OCF behaviors and the nature of interaction between them. The findings of the study may help teacher education programs about training of oral corrective feedback they include in the program and may cause some differences in it. It may also inspire teacher trainers and trainees about the subject.

1.4 Assumptions

The present study assumes that the student teachers that participated in the study were instructed about the major issues in English language teaching at tertiary level. The instruction concerned includes the courses of a typical BA level second language teacher education courses such as language acquisition, teaching language skills and components, introduction to linguistics, methods and approaches in ELT and alike. Grounded on this initial assumption, student teachers were expected to know the basics of teaching speaking, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. In addition, it was assumed that they hold some beliefs about what language, learning and teaching is, whether those beliefs are based on a academic origin or not. Another assumption of the present research is that the participants have sincerely and honestly responded to interview questions and items in SEC Simulation. The initial analysis of the instruments has revealed an internal consistency among both interview questions and SEC items.

1.5 Limitations

Limitation of the study arises from the number of participants. The research is limited to fourth grade students of Gazi University English Language Teaching Department. The researcher does aim at generalizing the findings to the actual context, but not to the total population of student teachers or ELT programs in Turkey. The results of the present study would attain an even higher degree of reliability when contrasted with other student teachers and ELT programs from further research based. Also, the current study is limited to student teachers' stated behaviors not real practices. Further studies may include student teachers' real practices and compare their stated beliefs, stated behaviors and real practices to see to what extent they are consistent.

1.6 Definitions

Beliefs:

Beliefs refer to "attitudes and values about teaching, students, and the educational process" (Pajares, 1993; cited in Borg, 2006, p.36).

Corrective feedback:

Corrective feedback has been defined as any kind of indication that is used to inform learners about their use of target language is incorrect (Ligtbown & Spada, 1999).

Focus on form:

'Focus on form' means to attention to form and enabling learners to notice linguistic components that might have been missed otherwise (Long, 1991).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the literature on the concepts of second language teacher education, EFL teacher education in Turkey, teachers' beliefs, and oral corrective feedback. Each section covers major issues in the field in detail by introducing different perspectives and views.

2.1 Second Language Teacher Education

The term of second language teacher education was originally fabricated by Richards (Richards & Nunan, 1990) meaning the process of training and education of L2 teachers. He explains the aim of the second language teacher education as "to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use" (Richards & Nunan, 1990, p.15). There are mainly two issues that shape the development of SLTE. One of them can be called "internally initiated change" (Richards, 2008, p.159) referring to changing and developing knowledge base and related instructional practices of the field itself. The other issue having an effect on the development of SLTE is "external pressures" (Richards, 2008, p.159), such as globalization and the rapid spread of the English language in international trade and communication, which cause a demand for new language teaching policies, control over English language teaching and teacher education, and standardization by national education policies (Richards, 2008).

Although the term SLTE is new, the field of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is relatively old and it is in the form that we know it today since 1960s. English language teaching started a major period of expansion worldwide during the 1960s and some specific approaches to teacher training of language teachers were started to use. Some short training programs and certificates were designed for prospective teachers with the purpose of giving practical teaching skills needed to teach.

Ever since this period, there is always a debate about the relationship between practical teaching skills and academic knowledge and their place in SLTE programs. In the 1990s, the distinction between practice and theory was tried to be solved by distinguishing 'teacher training' from 'teacher development'. The distinction is that training includes a repertoire of teaching skills whereas development means mastering the discipline of applied linguistics.

Today, the distinction between training and development gives its place to a reconsideration of the nature of teacher learning. It is perceived as "a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices f a community of practice" (Richards, 2008, p.160). Anymore, perspectives drawn from sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000) and the field of teacher cognition have more effects on SLTE.

2.1.1 Approaches to Teacher Education

There are primarily two approaches to the study of teaching from which theories of teaching and principles for teacher preparation programs can be developed (Wallace, 1991). The first one is a micro approach to the study of teaching. It is an analytical approach looking at teaching in terms of some directly observable behaviors and looking into what teacher does in the classroom. The second one is a macro approach that is holistic and contains making generalizations and inferences going beyond the directly observable behaviors of teachers in the classroom.

2.1.1.1 The micro approach to teacher education

The micro approach to the study of teaching took its principles from the study of content subjects and then, these principles were applied to the study of second language teaching. In the beginning of the approach, features of an ideal, good teacher were described by the

experts. The behaviors and the characteristics of actual teachers were matched with the described characteristics to evaluate their success although there was no evidence of these features showing to bring success. In the 1950s, research began to examine teaching rather than the teacher. The focus was on what the teacher does, but not on what the teacher is (Richards, 1996). In time, the focus of the research changed and systematic analysis of teacher-student interaction became the main focus. Thus, the emphasis shifted to the relationship between teacher behavior and student learning, which was known as a process-product research.

After these systematic observations of teachers, a lot of aspects of effective teaching had been described and they were used as the basis for models of effective teaching. These effective teaching strategies including use of questions by teachers, time-on-task and feedback incorporated into various kinds of second language teaching programs (Richards & Nunan, 1990).

However, the identified effective teaching strategies were based on the observation of successful teachers in content classes, so these findings do not help us identify effective language teaching strategies naturally. The goals of language classes are different from ones of content classes; therefore, the strategies adopted to achieve these goals by the teachers will differ. The need for psycholinguistically motivated studies of teaching informed by constructs drawn from second language acquisition theory in second language classrooms is pointed out.

The micro approach to teaching relies on identification of low-inference categories of teacher behavior, that is, categories whose definitions are so clear in terms of behavioral characteristics that the observers can reach high level of agreement on them, or the reliability. This category of behaviors is easy to identify and quantify because they reflect a forthright from-to-function relation. However, all of teachers' behaviors are not so easy to identify or they sometimes depend on making abstract inferences. These low-inference categories can be contrasted with a category in which the relationship between form and function is not direct as it is in low-inference categories (Brown, 1988). Even for a simple skill like the use of referential or display questions, its effectiveness depends on knowing which kind of question will be appropriate to use.

2.1.1.2 The macro approach to teacher education

This approach looks learning context not from just one view, but from the total context of teaching and learning in the classroom on the purpose of understanding effects of interactions between and among teacher, learners and classroom tasks on learning. Therefore, it can be called a holistic approach. It concentrates on the importance and nature of classroom atmosphere. In such a kind of approach, goals of teacher preparation cannot be broken down into isolated, individual objectives (Britten, 1985).

This approach to the study of teacher education generally called as active teaching. As reported by the theory of active teaching, factors such as time-on-task, question patterns, feedback, grouping and task decisions as well as factors like classroom management and structuring determine effectiveness of an instruction. Some of the factors above can be categorized as low-inference whereas some of them as high-inference categories and this approach includes both of the categories.

The active teaching is originally based on studies of effective teachers of content subjects as it is in micro approach. However, Tikunoff (1983) conducted a study to examine the extent to which the teaching model can be applied to other contexts, specifically bilingual education programs. The findings of the study show that the concept of active teaching can be used to clarify effective teaching in bilingual education programs (Tikunoff, 1983).

2.1.2 Pre-service EFL Teacher Education

At the present time, there is a higher level of professionalism in the field of English language teaching (ELT) in comparison with past. With professionalism, it is meant that ELT is a specific career in the field of education that has a basis of scientific knowledge obtained through academic studies and practical experiences. For those who are engaged in the profession, it is required to have that knowledge. Correspondingly, how they acquire that knowledge and how they develop their professionalism are crucial issues for ELT.

There are three models of teacher education characterizing both general education and teacher education for language teachers identified by Wallace (1991). These are the craft model, the applied-science model and the reflective model.

In the craft model, knowledge and skill of a young trainee are in an experienced professional practitioner's power. The relationship between the trainee and the experienced professional practitioner resembles a relationship between a craftsman and an apprentice. The experienced practitioner plays the role of a craftsman, and the trainee behaves like an apprentice. The trainee learns the profession "by imitating the expert's techniques and by following the expert's instructions and advice" (Wallace, 1991, p.6). The model is criticized because it relies on a static society although today's schools are in a dynamic society (Stones & Morris, 1972).

The applied-science model is the traditional and possibly the most common model underlying most teacher education programs. The model stems from the achievements of empirical science in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. According to this model, application of empirical science can solve teaching problems encountered in the process of achieving desired learning objectives. In this model, the experts transmit the findings of scientific knowledge and experimentation to the trainee. It is the trainee's duty to put these scientific findings into practice. If the trainee fails in practice, it is probably because of her/his misunderstanding of the scientific findings or improper application of the findings. Furthermore, it is believed by the followers of the model that all teaching problems can be solved by the experts in content knowledge, but the practitioner cannot solve the problems themselves.

The reflective model is the last model described by Wallace (1991). It will be discussed in detail in the next part.

2.1.3 Reflective Approach in EFL Teacher Education

The reflective model of teacher education has been the model mostly applied in current understanding of training English teachers. "The concepts 'reflection' or 'reflective practice' are entrenched in the literature and discourses of teacher education and teachers' professional development" (Ottesen, 2007, p. 31). There are various definitions for the concept. However, Schön's notion of the reflective practitioner seems to dominate and shape the other definitions and understanding (Pennington, 1995; Ur, 1997; Wallace, 1991). Accordingly, the literature on reflective practice has mainly emerged from Schön and Dewey's studies. They maintained that learning depended on combination of both experience with reflection and theory with practice.

Open-mindedness, a sense of responsibility and wholeheartedness or dedication were the characteristics of a reflective practitioner to the potential development for Dewey (Harford & MacRuaric, 2008). Schön (1991) distinguished the concept of 'reflection-in-action' from 'reflection on action' to further the relationship between reflection and experience. The former is related to thinking about what you are doing in the classroom and this thought is supposed to modify what you are doing. On the other hand, the latter can be thought as the process of thinking over your actions after they have already occurred, and probably learning something from one's experience will extend the knowledge base of her/him (Schön, 1991). Later, Schön (1991) offered the concept of 'reflection-in-practice'. With this concept, he emphasizes that performance process of a practitioner consists of some professional situations including a certain amount of repetition (Schön, 1991). Dealing with these certain kinds of situations, "a repertoire of expectations, images and techniques" (Schön, 1991, p.60) is constructed by the practitioner. If the practitioner encounters with most possible cases during the practice process, she/he handles problems and finds solutions more easily in real classrooms. Schön (1991, p.60) claims that knowing-in-practice "tends to become increasingly tacit, spontaneous, and automatic and is likely to develop through expertise in time". However, there is a possible disadvantage of this process. It may prevent teachers from thinking about their teaching process and gain valuable insights on teaching.

Inspired by the previous works of Dewey, Schön and some others, Wallace (1991) offered a framework of reflective practice. He claims that there are two kinds of knowledge: received knowledge and experiential knowledge which correspond to knowing-in-action by Schön. Wallace defines received knowledge as being familiar with the research findings, theories of language, learning, teaching and also as knowing the target language at a professional level of competency (Wallace, 1991). Also, the term 'experiential knowledge' is defined as: "The trainee will have developed knowledge-in-action by practice of the profession, and will have had, moreover, the opportunity to reflect on that knowledge-in-action" (Wallace 1991, p. 15). Wallace proposed the reflective model combining received and experiential knowledge, practice and reflection aiming to lead the trainees to construct their own professional competence. This is the reflective model for training foreign language teachers developed by Wallace.

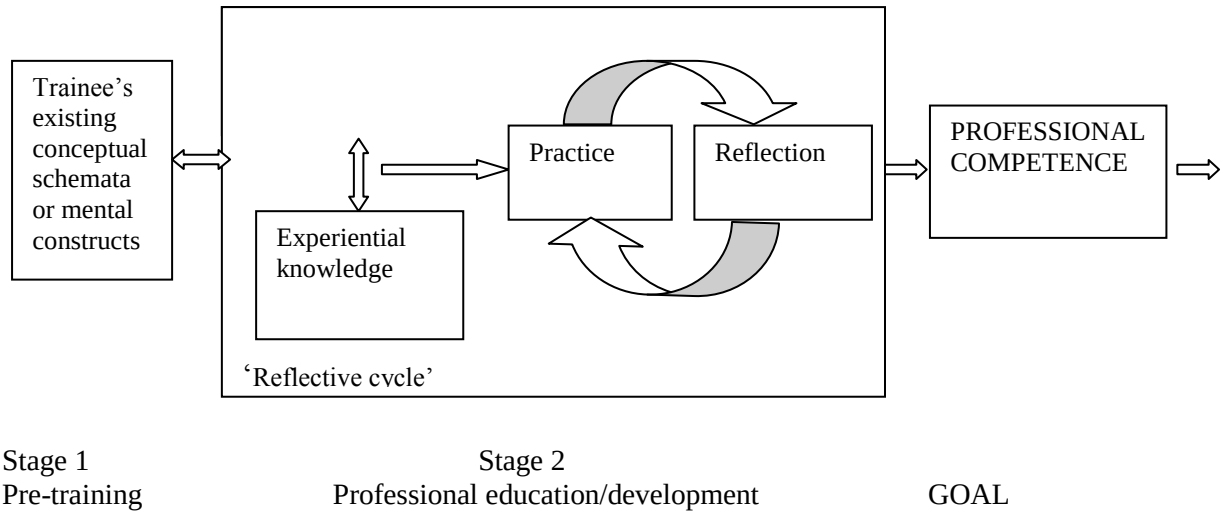

Figure 1: Reflective model proposed by Wallace (1991)

In this model, Wallace (1991) emphasizes the reciprocal relationship between 'received knowledge' and 'experiential knowledge'. He remarks that a trainee teacher can reflect on her/his classroom experience in consideration of the received knowledge and her/his classroom practice can give insights into the received knowledge as well. The model suggests that a successful completion of the process including received and experiential knowledge, practice and reflection will lead the trainee to the professional competence. Furthermore, differently from the other models for training teachers, the model takes account of the trainee's existing conceptual schemata.

Wallace's reflective model is dominant in the field of teacher education. However, the model is criticized by stating that it does not give enough attention to the received knowledge as much as it should do and for this reason, the development of professional competence is left to the understanding of the trainee more than it should be (Ur, 1997). In a similar way, it is claimed that the reflective practice of teacher education does not aim to reject theory or despise it, but it furthers the practice to the level of theory (Akbari, 2007).

2.2 EFL Teacher Education in Turkey

Turkey is located in a strategically important part in the world intersecting Europe and Asia and it is proximate to the Middle East and Africa. Turkey plays a crucial role in maintaining and stability and peace in the region because of its significant location

(Kırkgöz, 2007). In 1952, Turkey became a member of NATO. After that, it has started talks with the European Union (UA) with the aim of a full membership. It is clear that Turkey has an important place in the international arena due to its strategic and geopolitical status. These reasons make learning English a must for Turkish citizens to communicate internationally and keep up with the developments in many fields around the world.

In Turkey, Turkish is the official language and language of education. English is the only language that is taught compulsorily at almost all level of education among the foreign languages. German and French are the two other foreign languages that are elective in the curriculum of some schools in Turkey. English language teaching has undergone some changes influenced by some political and socioeconomic factors since it was included in education system of Turkey. The development of foreign language teaching and teacher education in Turkey can be divided into three periods:

2.2.1 The Process Before 1997

With the establishment of Turkish Republic in 1923, some new reform movements were begun in various fields, and unification of education was one of most important movements. All the schools around the country were gathered together under the control of the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MNE) with the "Law on Unification of Education" in 1924. The MNE studied for finding out realities and needs of the newly established republic and set some standards (Deniz & Şahin, 2006)."Since the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923, educational development has been regarded as the most important factor in reaching the level of the civilized European countries." (Grossman, Sands & Brittingham, 2007, p.138).

There was a growing number of teacher needs in the schools and so the MNE tried to fill the teacher gaps with graduates of faculties other than education faculties. This was not different for ELT in Turkey, and there were graduates of English medium schools selected by school principals and American college graduates who were members of the American Peace Corps among English language teachers (Salihoğlu, 2012). Under these circumstances, it was quite difficult to achieve the goals of foreign language education with untrained foreign language teachers who were lack of knowledge, experience and motivation.

The high need for foreign language teachers caused Gazi Institute of Education, which was the first educational institute opened as a teacher training school during the Republican era, to establish French in 1941, English in 1944 and German in 1947 (Demircan, 1988). Moreover, the immediate need for training a lot of language teachers resulted in open evening class programs in 1974. Some summer distant education courses were also carried out by correspondence by the departments in the summer of the same year (Demircan, 1988).

In 1982, all of the teacher training institutions were transferred to existing or newly established universities with legislation and the need for a unified system in higher education was started. The increasing number of education faculties caused a need for academicians and instructors to train student teachers. This shortage was tried to be overcome by transferring lecturers from other faculties, such as faculties of Science and Letters and from some departments like Mathematics, History and Modern Languages (Altan, 1998). However, as Altan (1998, p.409) stated "these faculty members were and are qualified in their subjects, they were and are not trained in methodology and pedagogy". The teaching knowledge base involves both content knowledge and pedagogic knowledge, for this reason the faculty members who are not educated in language teaching methodology can rarely be successful language teacher trainers.

Findings of an investigation of the 1983-1984 program shows that the curriculum was based on content courses that aimed to improve grammatical and structural knowledge in language (Salihoğlu, 2012). Courses like classroom management, material design and evaluation, and special teaching methods were not included in the curriculum and this can be taken as a shortcoming of it. Also, in this period, there was a divergence in terms of content and practices among the first ELT programs among faculties of education (Salı, 2008).

2.2.2 1997 Education Reform in Turkey

In cooperation with the Turkish Higher Education Council (THEC), the Turkish Ministry of National Education decided to make some strong changes in English language policy of the nation with the intent of reforming Turkey's ELT practice in 1997. A plan called 'The Ministry of Education Development Project' was a major curriculum innovation in ELT

and it was established aiming to promote the teaching of English in Turkish education (Kirkgöz, 2007).

At the level of primary education, with this reform, the primary and secondary schools were integrated into a single stream and the duration of compulsory elementary education in Turkey was increased from 5 to 8 years. Another consequence of the reform was the introduction of English course for Grade 4 and 5 with the purpose of exposing students to the foreign language for a longer time. This item of the reform made English course compulsory for all recipients and English started to be taught young learners in Grade 4 and 5.

The 1997 curriculum was a landmark in the history of Turkish education because the concept of communicative approach was introduced for the first time (Kırkgöz, 2005). The main aim of the policy is to prepare learners to use the target language for communication and improve their communicative capacity. It supports student-centered learning and expresses the role of the teacher as a facilitator of the learning process.

At the level of higher education, the programs of teacher education departments were redesigned attending to the neglected areas, and the number of methodology courses and the duration of teaching practicum time both in primary and secondary schools were increased. Additionally, the Teaching English to Young Learners course was integrated into the curriculum of ELT Departments of Faculties of Education in order to familiarize student teachers with the ways of learning and needs of young learners (Kırkgöz, 2007).

2.2.3 Restructuring the Curriculum in 2006

Elementary teacher education programs were revised in 2006. Türkmen states that "according to the THEC, the need for this change was some problems arising from the application of the 1998 program, and also some necessary updates had to be done after the eight–year period." (2007, p.339). Some regulations and changes made on the 1997 program in 2006 were summarized by Kavak and Başkan (2009) as: the restructuring names, descriptions and credits of courses, the level of flexibility in changes to the courses in curriculum "general education courses (subject and subject education courses, liberal education courses) 65-80%, professional education (pedagogic) courses 25-30%" (p.367),

the authority given to the faculties for offering elective courses and selection of the courses with 25% of total credits.

On the other hand, there are some shortcomings of the program. There is still no regulation for English language teachers to be graduates of education faculties of universities (Aydoğan & Çilsal, 2007). Also, there is no difference between primary-secondary school teachers and high school teachers for ELT. All of them are graduated from the same departments taking the same courses, so they may have some insufficient knowledge, practice or motivation for one of them. Üstünoğlu claims that "specialization for the different levels, primary, secondary, and university would produce better-qualified teachers." (2008, p.329).

2.3 Teachers' Beliefs

Belief is a concept whose definition is not agreed upon although it has a vital effect on teaching and learning as it has on people's behaviors and knowledge in various fields. The definition of the term mostly depends on researchers and this unclear definition of 'belief' can be a problem causing confusion among them.

Another confusion about the term is identified by Pajares (1992), who calls belief as a "messy construct" because researchers use different terms to mean the same thing, belief, and he provides some other names referring to belief 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). However, the definition of belief made by Richardson (2003, p.2) can be accepted as the most agreed one: "Beliefs are psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true".

Except from abundance of the terms used to refer to belief, it is also difficult to distinguish belief from knowledge. In literature, these two terms are considered as equivalent terms by some researchers (Alexander, Schallert & Hare, 1991; Kagan, 1990) while some of them make a distinction between them. Snider and Roehl (2007) explain that knowledge and beliefs affect each other, in other words, beliefs have an effect on the way we get the information and knowledge influences our beliefs and belief system. Calderhead (1996,

p.715) explains beliefs as “suppositions, commitments and ideologies” and knowledge as “factual proposition and the understanding that inform skilful action. Additionally, Richardson (2003) states that beliefs are considerably subjective and personal while knowledge is more objective.

Pajares (1992) explains that although it is a known fact that teachers’ beliefs have influence on their perceptions, judgments and classroom behaviors, research on teachers’ beliefs meet with difficulties because of the lack of a clear definition for the term. After attempting to make the term clear, he claims that the term of beliefs is too board and it is not easy to talk about teachers’ beliefs under these circumstances. Therefore, there are various terms referring to teachers’ beliefs, such as, “implicit knowledge” (Richards, 1998), “teachers’ implicit theories” (Clark & Peterson, 1986), “personal practical knowledge” (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987), “teacher perspectives” (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 2003) and BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) (Woods, 1996). To solve the confusion stemming from the proliferation of the terms for belief, it is proposed that researchers should define clearly what they mean with the terms they used and explicate what beliefs are investigated (Pajares, 1992). Table.1 shows some terms and definitions of them used by the researchers for the concept of belief.

As it can be understood, the distinction between belief and knowledge has been a matter of discuss. It can be concluded that belief includes experiences, feelings, preferences, subjective evaluations, moods and they are more personal, more permanent whereas knowledge involves accepted facts and principles and it is more dynamic. Knowledge is something that can be argued over, but belief is not open to discuss (Erkmen, 2010; Nespor, 1987). However, it should not be forgotten that trying to make a clear distinction between them is not sensible because knowledge and beliefs are interwined in the mind of teachers so it not possible to examine them separately (Woods, 1996).

Table 1. Terminology and Description for the Concept of Belief

Source	Term	Definition
Clark and Peterson (1986)	Teachers' theories and beliefs	"the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258)
Richards and Lockhart (1996)	Beliefs	"the goals [and] values [that] that serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action" (p.30)
Woods (1996)	Beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK)	BAK is integrated sets of thoughts which guide teachers' action
Richards (1996) Richards (1998)	Maxims Implicit theories/ knowledge	personal working principles which reflect teachers' individual philosophies of teaching, developed from their experience of teaching and learning, their teacher education experiences, and from their own personal beliefs and value systems (1996: 293). personal and subjective philosophy and their understanding of what constitutes good teaching (p.51)
Sendan and Roberts (1998)	Personal theories	an underlying system of constructs that student teachers draw upon in thinking about, evaluating, classifying and guiding pedagogic practice' (p.230)
Borg (2003)	Teacher cognitions	"the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think in relation to their work" (p.81).
Tabachnick and Zeichner (2003)	Teaching perspectives	A coordinated set of ideas and actions used in teaching

(cited in Erkmen, 2010, p.17)

2.3.1 Research into Teachers' Beliefs

There is a shift in the focus of researches in second language teacher education since the late 1970s. The most common approach to the study of teaching in 1970s was a process-product approach. Teaching was composed of behaviors of the teacher and learning was seen as a product at the end of the process and result of teachers' behaviors performed in the class. The main aim of research on teaching was to identify effective teaching behaviors and match these behaviors with learning outcomes. However, in the late 1960s alternatives to this understanding showed up. There are three factors commonly referred while explaining the development of these alternatives (Carter, 1990). First one was developments in cognitive psychology emphasizing the importance and effect of thinking on human behavior. With this development, it was suggested that just identifying teachers' behaviors was not enough to understand what really went on in the classes. The significance of teachers' thinking and mental lives was understood. Secondly, the central and active role played by the teacher in learning process began to be acknowledged. Accordingly, examining decisions made by teachers and the cognitive principles of them appeared to be as a central area of research interest (Borg, 2006). Thirdly, limitations of studies to find out generalizable effective teachers' behaviors by identifying individual teachers' behaviors were recognized. Alternatively, studies examining teachers' work and cognitions in a more holistic way began to be conducted.

In the early 1980s, teacher knowledge was seen as practical because it was claimed that most of teacher knowledge arose from practice and teachers always needed to understand and deal with practical issues occurring in the classroom (Clandinin & Connelly, 1997). In Elbaz's research (1981), it is emphasized that the aim of research on practical knowledge is understanding teachers' conceptions of their work and for this purpose some in-depth interviews and some classroom observations were conducted (as cited in Borg, 2006). Therefore, the number of researches dealing with teacher cognition increased in the 1980s. One of the most important steps taken was recognition of reciprocal relationship between teachers' thinking and their classroom practices. It started to be understood that not only cognition affected classroom behaviors of teachers, but also classroom events shaped teacher cognition (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Another development took place in this decade was change in treatment of teacher cognition. Until 1986, teachers' actions and thinking were described and interpreted without any reference

to the factors and contexts they occurred. After that time, researchers began to take contextual factors into consideration (Clark & Peterson, 1986).

Two elements behind the practice of teaching, namely knowledge and beliefs, have been the focus of research since the mid-1980s and 1990s. Criticizing process-product approaches, Shulman (1986) started the research interest in the subject matter knowledge. He claimed that in previous researches by focusing too much on practical knowledge of teachers researchers missed theoretical part of teacher knowledge. He said that a teacher must have theoretical knowledge as well as practical knowledge (1986).

In 1990s, researches focusing on learning to teach increased in number as a result of need mentioned in the review studies published through the end of 1980s (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Researchers began to try to find out what teachers know and how they acquire that knowledge (Carter, 1990) and the role of beliefs in learning to teach (Richardson, 1996). Also, subject-specific teacher cognition research started in this decade. Since then, interest in study of teachers' beliefs has continued and various kinds of studies have been conducted in different areas.

2.3.2 Beliefs and English Language Teaching

In the last 35 years, mainstream educational research has recognized the impact of teachers' beliefs on their professional lives and that gives rise to a considerable amount of research. Concordantly, a number of researches on teachers' belief started to appear in the field of language teaching in the 1990s, and it increasingly continues. When the literature is viewed, it is quite clear that there is a variety of studies on beliefs of language teachers in terms of the numbers, features and experience of participant teachers. However, when topics of the studies are examined, there are only two curricular areas specifically examined in language teaching. These are grammar and literacy instruction. Rest of the studies mainly focus on general processes like decision-making of teachers, growth and change in teachers' beliefs and practices during teacher education (Borg, 2003). Also, most of the studies are conducted in ESL contexts. There are no many studies made in EFL contexts.

Teachers' belief studies that are conducted with no respect to a specific curricular area in the field of language teaching can be divided into three categories. In the first kind of studies, effects of prior language learning experiences on teachers' belief are examined

(Golombek, 1998; Lortie, 1975; Nespor, 1987). The second category investigates effects of teacher education on teacher's beliefs (changes in their beliefs) (Almarza, 1996; Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). Last group of studies investigates the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Bailey, 1996; Richards, 1996). In the following parts of this study, more explanation will be made for the first and the last categories. When it comes to the second category, it can be said that there are mainly two kinds of studies examining effects of teacher education on student teachers. First one is the longitudinal studies investigating changes of beliefs in the process (Özmen, 2012; Peacock, 2001). The second one is the studies that focus on the impacts of one specific course on student teachers' beliefs (MacDonald, Badger & White, 2001; Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996).

2.3.3 Types and Sources of Teachers' Belief

It is clear from the research on teacher belief that student teachers and novice teachers hold some beliefs about teaching and learning before they start their profession (Woods, 1996; Flores, 2001). According to findings of the researches, their beliefs come from mainly three different resources (Richardson, 1996); their own personal experiences as students in the school, teacher education and their personal experiences in general and with teaching. Among these three sources, the one which is considered to be the most influential is the first one; their experience of being a student (Richardson, 2003) or in Lortie's (1975, as cited in Xing, 2009, p.9) words "apprenticeship of observation". Student teachers form their good and bad models of teachers, teaching and learning methods during the apprenticeship of observation. By internalizing the behaviors of their models, they decide the kind of teacher they want to be in the future. In the field of language teaching, researches show that student teachers' experiences as learners have a great effect on their teaching (Peacock, 2001).

Numrich (1996) conducted a study with twenty-six students in a Master's degree program in USA to define common points shared among the student teachers. The students were wanted to keep a diary during practicum. Before they started practicum, the students' language learning history was learned. The results of the study indicated that the student teachers reflected their learning experiences in their teaching. Teachers who were used to doing communicative activities in their language learning process included this kind of activities in their teaching. Furthermore, teachers who had negative experience of being

corrected all the time by their teachers avoided explicit error correction during their teaching in the practicum.

Johnson's research (1994) is another good example to understand the power of apprenticeship of observation on the student teachers. Four MA ESL pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and how their beliefs shaped were studied by using various kinds of data collection techniques such as written journals, interviews, observation, video-taping and stimulated recall. The findings of the study indicate that all of four student teachers were affected by their experience as students. All of them stated that they were taught in a teacher-centered, traditional classroom atmosphere so they did not want to be like their former teachers because they did not provide them with meaningful learning. However, they expressed that they did not know how not to be a teacher like their former teacher because they did not have any images of teachers that would serve as role models. Roberts (1998) states that teacher training programs should give an opportunity to experience and observe good models of alternative instructional practices because student teachers are lack of procedural knowledge and they do not have any idea about how classrooms work and students behave. However, as it is stated in Kagan's study (1992), student teachers' images of good and bad teachers are generally wrong because they suppose that their students will have similar learning styles, interest and problems with them. The beliefs of non-native language teachers are even stronger than the other teachers on this point because they think that they have had similar experiences with their students in the process of learning a second or foreign language.

Another important source of teachers' belief is teacher education. There is a number of studies showing the importance of teacher education on teachers' beliefs (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Flores, 2002; Mattheouidakis, 2007). Almarza (1996) found out the changeable impact of teacher education on trainees emphasizing the difference between cognitive and behavioral changes that teacher education may bring about. The study was conducted with four student teachers who took a Postgraduate Certificate in Education course. Behaviorally, all of the students adopted the method they were taught on their program and practiced the method in their classroom during practice teaching. The cause of this behavior probably was the need they felt to apply the certain standards because they were being assessed. Cognitively, the trainees were not the same in accepting of the suggested approach to teaching. These differences were not clear in their practices, but

they stated different opinions while they were talking about their work. In the conclusion of the study, it was expressed that although teacher education programs had an important effect on student teachers' behaviors during teaching practice, it was no able to change their cognitions they brought to the course.

Lastly, except these sources, there are various teachers' beliefs taking its source from (Richards & Lockhart, 1994):

- Their experience of classroom: Teachers can experience that certain kinds of strategies work better than the others so they may prefer to use the strategies working best in their classrooms,
- Institutional preferences: An institution may want the teachers to teach in a certain, preferred teaching style,
- Personality factor: Personality of the teacher can have an effect on the teaching style and activities chosen by the teachers because teachers have a tendency to choose activities or teaching styles matching with their personality,
- Practice of educationally based or researched-based principles: Teachers may want to try applying a new teaching style that may have been learnt from a conference or a research article,
- Believe in the effectiveness of a certain approach or method: Teachers may stick to an approach or a method in their teaching because they think that it is the most effective one.

According to Calderhead, teachers hold beliefs about learners and learning, teaching, subject, learning to teach, self and teaching role (1996). In the study of Richards, Tung and Ng (1992), they found that teachers also hold beliefs about the curriculum, classroom practices and the profession. Therefore, the studies examining teachers' beliefs focus on these types of teachers' beliefs (Erkmen, 2010). Furthermore, teachers' beliefs about a specific issue are also investigated by the researchers; for example, communicative language teaching (Feryok, 2008; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

2.3.4 Beliefs of Pre-service Language Teachers

As the studies of pre-service language teachers' beliefs indicate, when they begin teacher education courses, they already have some beliefs about the nature of teaching and learning (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). These beliefs are called entering beliefs (Xing, 2009). This

kind of beliefs is generally "highly idealistic, loosely formulated, deeply seated, and traditional" (Richardson, 2003, p. 6). The role of apprenticeship of observation, their experiences as learners, is highlighted as most important source of their beliefs in most of the studies of the student teachers' beliefs (Bailey, 1996; Numrich, 1996).

In the study of Richardson (2003), it is reported that pre-service teachers' beliefs have an effect not only on the content they choose to learn but also on their interpretation of what they learn. In other words, they use their past experiences as learners as a filter which they interpret the content of the courses with. Moreover, the pre-service language teachers have a tendency to use the information in these courses in order to reinforce their preexisting beliefs about teaching and learning not to challenge them (Mattheoudakis, 2007).

Many teacher education programs have the aim of changing these entering beliefs of pre-service language teachers because they often include detrimental elements to teaching. However, it is not an easy work to transform them and they are mostly named as inflexible. In literature, reasons of difficulties of changing pre-service teachers' entering beliefs are explained in different ways. The first reason is related to the duration of teacher education programs. Changing beliefs is a process that takes a long time, but the programs are not long enough to transform pre-service teachers' beliefs (Richardson, 2003). Also, content and quality of the teacher education programs is a very important factor because it is clear from the researches that while some programs achieve their aims of changing the beliefs of pre-service teachers, the others are not able to do it. Therefore, pre-service teacher education programs should be taken as a variable in the studies not as a constant (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000).

Secondly, another difficulty that teacher educators confront with is that generally pre-service teachers' are not conscious of their entering beliefs (Brown & McInytre, 1992). In Richardson's study (2003), the aim was to change the beliefs of pre-service teacher. The first step was to make the teachers' beliefs explicit so the student teachers were provided with some opportunities to identify and examine their beliefs. Then, the pre-service teachers were equipped with necessary knowledge to see the alternatives to their belief systems. Peacock (2001) suggested that teacher educators firstly help pre-service teachers to express their beliefs explicitly and be aware of them and then they should try to transform their beliefs because most pre-service teachers have unhealthy beliefs about not only their learning but also their students' learning. For this reason, it is very important for

teacher education programs to be sure that they put mechanisms to help teachers identify and become aware of their beliefs (Xing, 2009).

Finally, lack of practice in teacher education programs are shown as a difficulty because when pre-service teachers cannot have a chance to practice their knowledge in real classroom context, they cannot make sense of their knowledge (Baştürkmen, et. al., 2004; Xing, 2009).. Accordingly, pre-service teachers do not feel the need of increase their knowledge and they cannot understand the importance of the theories they have learned during their training. Consequently, although their beliefs seem to change in the program, when they start to work in real classrooms, they turn back to the beliefs that they have before entering teacher education program because they are not competent enough to face up to challenges in these real contexts.

2.3.5 Stated Beliefs and Behaviors

Revealing beliefs of people is not an easy work to do because beliefs are not solid. Teachers' beliefs are very difficult to observe because "teachers can follow similar practices for very different reasons" (Kagan, 1992, p.66). Moreover, most of the teachers are not aware of what their beliefs are and "they may be unwilling to express them publicly" (Kartchava, 2006, p.8). Therefore, researchers need to find out beliefs of teachers implicitly by using different ways such as interviews and questionnaires, so they are not their beliefs but stated beliefs which are defined as "statements [L2] 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, p. 244). Additionally, there are numerous ways teachers reflect their beliefs in and outside the class. For example, their beliefs can be understood through their teaching behaviors, their expectations of their students, their lesson planning, etc. (Fang, 1996; Xing, 2009). To show the relationship between teachers' thoughts and practices, Clark and Peterson (1986) provided a model.

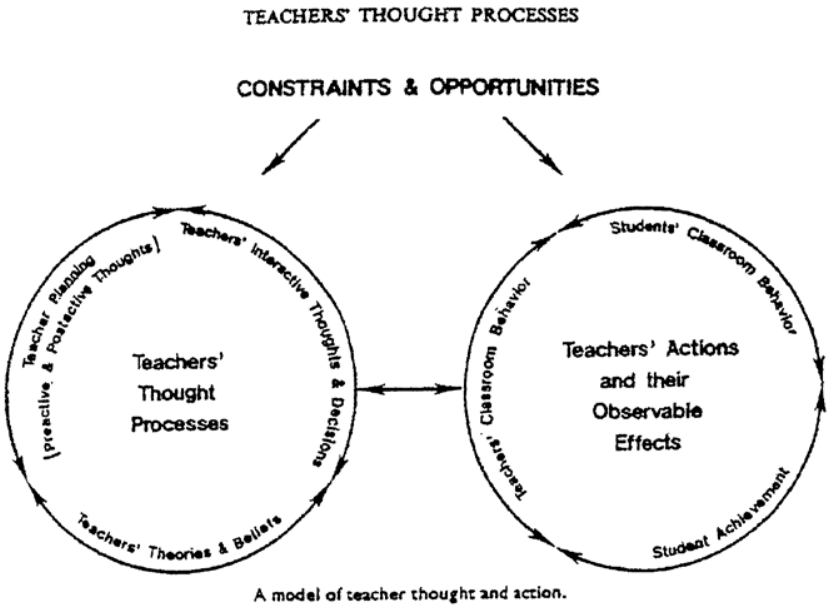

Figure 2: A model of teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions **(**Clark and Peterson, 1986)

The model indicates that there is an interactive and complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and behaviors. It is interactive because beliefs of teachers affect their classroom practices as well as their classroom behaviors affect their beliefs. It is a reciprocal relationship. On the other hand, it is complex since there are a number of factors affecting the relationship between teachers' beliefs and behaviors such as the school, the principal, the curriculum. This means that although teachers' beliefs have a great impact on their behaviors, there are some other factors causing teachers to depart from their beliefs.

Many studies have been done to examine whether teachers' beliefs and behaviors are consistent and if it is inconsistent, they aim to identify reasons of inconsistency. Although there are few studies proving consistent relationship between teachers' beliefs and behaviors (Fang, 1996), many of the studies report inconsistency unsurprisingly. In the study of Baştürkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004), they studied on 3 ESL teachers with different lengths of teaching experience. They researched the relationship between these three teachers' incidental focus on form and their stated beliefs about communicative language teaching. According to the researchers, incidental focus on form means natural need to focus on forms as an activity goes on in the class when the teacher's focus is on communicative tasks. To collect data of their study, the researchers conducted classroom

observations, open-ended questionnaires. They also used some other methods such as in-depth interviews, cued response scenarios and stimulated recall to collect data about their beliefs. The result of the study indicated that all of the teachers' behaviors and stated beliefs were inconsistent because of some reasons. One of the reasons was that the sources of their beliefs collected through various methods based on different kinds of knowledge. While they were talking about their beliefs, they used their technical knowledge. However, while they were teaching in an actual classroom context, they just applied their practical knowledge. Relying on different kinds of knowledge in their practice and belief caused this discrepancy.

There are also some studies conducted to clarify the factors causing inconsistency. Richards and Pennington (1998) studied with 5 novice teachers who were just graduated from a teacher education program at the City University of Hong Kong. They used a variety of techniques such as questionnaires, reflections, classroom observations and meetings to collect the data of the study. In the results of the study, they found that the teachers' stated beliefs were not consistent with their classroom practices. They stated factors preventing the teachers from implementing their beliefs as follows: level of the students in English, discipline problems of the students in the class, scheduled syllabus and curriculum, insists of colleagues and students on traditional methods, large size of classes, unavailability of necessary materials, testing and program policies, heavy workloads of the teachers, students' resistance and unwillingness to the new ways of learning (Borg, 2003).

When the reasons of discrepancy between teachers' behaviors and beliefs are viewed, length of teaching experience of teachers is seen as one of the most significant factors. Tsui (2003, 2005) stated that novice teachers did not have enough experience and alternatives in their repertoire so they had difficulty in dealing with unexpected events and responses of students during a lesson. Similarly, in the study of Osam and Balbay (2004) which investigated difference between Turkish EFL experienced and student teachers in their decision-making skills when they diverged from their lesson plans, they found that experienced teachers dealt with unexpected events and problems immediately whereas student teachers ignored these behaviors to maintain the flow of the lesson.

Findings of researches indicate that even though experienced and inexperienced teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning are similar, they may be different in practice (Akyel, 1997); Osam & Balbay, 2004; Tsui, 2003). Baştürkmen et al. (2004) investigated the stated

beliefs and practices of incidental focus on form of three ESL teachers. The teachers were all native speakers of English. One of them had only one year of teaching experience, but the other two teachers had 11-15 years of teaching experience. The results of the study showed that there were more inconsistencies between the stated beliefs and practices of the inexperienced teacher than the experienced teachers. The authors claimed that discrepancies between stated beliefs and practices of novice teachers might disappear as they gain experience.

2.4 Oral Corrective Feedback

2.4.1 History of Error Correction

Error correction has been an issue discussed for long years in the fields of second language acquisition and second language teacher education. In this section, the history of error correction is explicated.

2.4.1.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

From the 1940s to 1960s, one of the most popular research areas of researchers in the SLA was comparing two languages systems scientifically. They aimed to identify similarities and differences between specific native languages and target languages because they believed that if they had been taken into consideration, there would be a more effective pedagogy (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Eventually the Contrastive Analysis of Hypothesis (CAH) was formulated by Lado (1957) basing on the assumption:

> … the student who comes into contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult (p.2, as cited in Ellis, 2008).

In the book of *Linguistics Across Cultures*, Lado (1957) explained the technical procedures that one should need to conduct detailed contrastive analyses. They were designed to enable course developers and language teachers to learn and predict what the differences and so difficulties were for learners of different language backgrounds. The procedure followed in contrastive analysis started with a formal description of the two languages compared. Secondly, particular areas or items of the two languages were chosen for

detailed comparison. Then, points of difference and similarity were identified and lastly areas that were likely to cause errors were determined (Ellis, 2008).

Meanwhile, the prevailing view of learning in the field of language learning was behaviorism at that time. The behaviorists described language learning as acquiring all the discrete units in a language and believed that it was a product of habit formation. Through the repeated association between stimuli and responses which were bonded with positive reinforcement, habits were constructed. Then, second language learning was seen as a process of overcoming the habits of native language with the aim of acquiring the new habits of the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). The contrastive analysis hypothesis was significant for behaviorism because if errors students made in the target language were anticipated, preventing them or holding them in a minimum level might be possible.

The scientists specified various kinds of difference and they attributed different degrees of difficulty to them. Stockwell, Bowen and Martin (1965) constructed a hierarchy of difficulty. It indicates that difficulty of learning the target language will be greatest when there is a split and there will not be any difficulty if there is a complete correspondence between the items in the two languages. The hierarchy of difficulty helped teachers or linguists make a prediction of the difficulty of a specific item in the target language and take necessary precautions to prevent their students from making mistakes (Ellis, 2008).

There are two forms of contrastive analysis hypothesis; strong and weak forms. In its strongest form, it was claimed that almost all the errors were results of interference with the native language (Lee, 1968, as cited in Ellis 2008). When the differences between the target language and the native language were identified, all errors could be predicted. However, the results of empirical studies showed that many errors were not caused by transfer, so the weaker form of the hypothesis was proposed (Wardhaugh, 1970). This weaker form suggested that only some of the errors could be identified with the CAH and it could be used to explain the errors not to predict them.

Although the CAH was very popular in the 1960s, it lost favor in the 1970s because of some reasons. The strong form was refuted by empirical studies showing that most of the errors were not caused by transfer (Dulay & Burt, 1974) and most of the errors that had been predicted by contrastive analysis did not take place. Not only the strong form but also the weak form of the CAH is problematic. The weak form just provides some explanations

of reasons of errors and so it does not make sense to make a detailed comparison of two languages to confirm the information that some of the errors are caused by transfer. Consequently, it can be said that the strong form of the CAH was untenable (Ellis, 2008) and the weak form of it was not practical or sufficient. Therefore, it is not surprising that error analysis took the place of contrastive analysis in the 1970s.

2.4.1.2 Error Analysis

Inspired by Chomsky's theory of language acquisition, first language acquisition researchers started to analyze the speech of children speaking in their native languages so as to see the process of language acquisition. Second language learning process is not an unlike process, so second language acquisition researchers also began to analyze errors made by learners that are in process of learning a second language in an attempt to investigate how learners acquire a second language. The researchers make use of error analysis. Researchers and teachers of second language came to realize that errors of learners committed during the process of learning a language are very important for them to understand how the learners construct a new system of language.

Stating " A learner's errors … are significant in [that]they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language." (Corder, 1967, p.167; as cited in Brown, 2000) Corder explicated theoretical principle and procedures to conduct an error analysis. In the process of carrying out an error analysis (EA), Corder (1974) identifies 5 steps to be taken.

The process starts with a collection of a sample of learner language. Since the type of data has a significant effect on results of an EA, natural samples of learner language are mostly preferred. However, it was not always possible to find learners speaking spontaneously and this situation led Corder to elicited data. He suggested two ways to collect elicited data (Ellis, 2008); clinical elicitation and experimental elicitation. The former includes getting information through any kind of instrument for example, by asking learners to write a composition or by means of a general interview. The latter involves using a special tool designed by the researcher who wants to investigate a specific linguistic feature to elicit data.

The second step is identification of errors. Defining what an error is problematic (James, 1998) and the difficulty caused by a lot of different issues. We will deal with four main issues. The first is whether grammaticality (well-formedness) or acceptability should be determined as a criterion. An utterance can be grammatically correct, but it may not be acceptable in the discourse, not suitable for the situation. In general, EA deals with the grammatical ones because it is not easy to look at the context of the utterance took place. The second issue is whether there should be a distinction between errors and mistakes. A mistake is a performance error that is a failure to use a known system. It arises as a result of "competing plans, memory limitations, and lack of automaticity" (Ellis, 2008, p.48). Errors are seen as a result of lack of knowledge. Corder (1974) suggests that EA should be concerned with just errors not with mistakes. However, it may be difficult to describe an incorrect utterance as an error or a mistake. A leaner may use a target form correctly but sometimes incorrectly. We cannot be easily sure whether the learner is competent enough to use the target form correctly. The third issue is a distinction between overt and covert errors. An overt error is an utterance that is ungrammatical at the sentence level so it is easy to identify. A covert error is an utterance that is grammatical at the sentence level, but it does not express the thing that the speaker wish to mean and it is not meaningful in the context of communication. A simpler set of terms for overt and covert errors would be 'sentence level' and 'discourse level' (Brown, 2000). The last issue is whether infelicitous uses of L2 should be considered erroneous. In some instances, a learner produces a well-formed utterance, but it may not be the form preferred by native speakers of the language.

The third step to be taken in the process of an EA is description of errors. There are two types of descriptive taxonomies: linguistic and surface strategy. In linguistic categorization of errors, an indication of the number and percentages of errors in different levels of language (i.e. lexicology, morphology, and syntax) or in specific grammatical categories (i.e. articles, adverbs, word order) are provided. In surface strategy taxonomy, errors are classified according to whether they include omission, addition and regularization (misinformation and misordering) (Ellis, 2008). It is claimed that this approach is promising because an indication of the cognitive processes underlying the learner's reconstruction of L2 is provided (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982). However, it is not a promising approach as it is claimed because it presumes that learners are not creating their own structures but they just operate on the surface structures of the target language. Although these two taxonomies have a pedagogic application, they do not make a clear

explanation of how a learner learns a second language. However, the framework that is developed by Corder (1974) to identify errors is more favorable in this regard. There are three types of error defined by him according to systematicity. The first one is pre-systematic errors. This type of error occurs when the learner is not aware of a specific rule in the target language. The second one is systematic errors. This time, the learner is aware of a rule but the rule is a wrong one. The third one is post-systematic errors. These errors occur when the learner is aware of a specific rule but she/he does not use it correctly (makes some mistakes).

The fourth and most important step in EA for SLA is explanation of errors. It is crucial for SLA research because it is concerned with establishing the source of the error. It aims to explain the process of L2 acquisition. Errors may arise from different sources such as psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, epistemological discourse structure. Nevertheless, the main aim of EA is providing psycholinguistic explanation for sources of errors. There are various categories of sources or causes of psycholinguistic errors. One of them is the categorization of Richards. He divided psycholinguistic errors into three categories; interference errors (which occur as a result of another language interference while speaking or writing), intralingual errors (which 'reflect the general characteristic of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply' (Abbott, 1980, p.124, as cited in Ellis, 2008), and developmental errors (which occur as a result of attempts of a learner with limited experience). However, Schachter and Celce-Murcia objected to the classification made by Richards because the distinction between intralingual and developmental errors was not clear enough. To deal with that problem, Dulay and Burt categorized the errors into three categories by removing intralingual errors from the classification and adding a category named unique that involves errors which are not developmental or interference (as cited in Ellis, 2008). However, this classification is also criticized bitterly. Eventually, it is accepted that it is not possible to classify sources of errors under some headings because there are a number of factors affecting occurrence of errors such as the type of the study, collection of learner language, the methods used to collect samples of learner language, age of learners, the level of the learners, language components (grammatical errors, phonological errors, lexical errors) (Schachter & Celce-Murcia, 1977, as cited in Ellis, 2008). Therefore, a researcher aiming to explain sources of an error should be cautious.

The last part of EA is evaluating errors. In this part, in contrary to previous steps, the point of view of the person addressed is taken into account. It evaluates errors in terms of the effects of errors on the person addressed (called judge). Errors are judged with regard to comprehensibility of the message of the learner or affective response of the addressed people to the error. Generally, error evaluation studies seek to answer these three main research questions; (1) Are some errors considered more problematic than others by judges? (2) Are there any differences between the evaluation of native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS)? (3) What criteria are used by judges to evaluate errors? (Ellis, 2008). According to the findings of researches, lexical and global errors are evaluated more seriously by NS whereas local errors are corrected by NNS more frequently (Khalil, 1985; Santos, 1987). Additionally, NNS are more severe than NS and they also differ in the criteria they use to evaluate errors. While NNS are concerned with the errors that have effect on comprehensibility, NS are interested in errors that are not correct according to their ideas of basic rules of target language. There are mainly three criteria identified by Khalil (1985) to determine error gravity; intelligibility that means comprehensibility of the message of the learner, acceptability that is seriousness of the error for the judge, irritation is an emotional respond to message and it is also about the frequency of error. Studies of error evaluation generally have a pedagogical aim. The results of the studies can guide teachers to what type of errors they need to pay most attention to. In conclusion, teachers are suggested to evaluate errors according to their intelligibility and irritation.

2.4.1.3 Interlanguage and Error Correction

With the insights from cognitive theory of Chomsky, learning was started to be seen as a process involving some errors. Corder (1967) claimed that errors were signs of learners' organization of their existing knowledge at a specific point in time. He also expressed that errors were the most important source of information showing the existence of an in-built system of learners that enable them to formulate and reformulate their hypothesis about language. Although it is Corder who laid the foundations of interlanguage and raised issues central to interlanguage studies, interlanguage is a term invented by Larry Selinker (1972, as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Selinker defined interlanguage as a unique linguistic system constructed by the learner relying on leaner's first language (L1) but it is different not only from L1 but also from the target language.

The concept of interlanguage includes some assumptions about L2 acquisition. In the process of L2 learning, learners construct a system of rules of the language and it is referred to as mental grammar and it is at the bottom of understanding and production of the L2. This learner's grammar is open to influence both from the inside and outside. In other words, it can change through the input taken from outside and through the internal, mental processing (Ellis, 1997). Therefore, learner's interlanguage can change from one time to another as the learners increase their knowledge of the language. Learners may add some rules, delete some of the rules and in this way they restructure their own system. That is the only way of improving their knowledge in the target language. They always need to compare their interlanguage with the target language. In Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990), it is expressed that noticing the difference between their utterance and the target language is the first step of acquiring it. However, in the process of learning a new language it is not an easy task for the learners to notice the gap on their own. At this point, they need help and support of their teachers. Providing the students with the correct form of erroneous utterance is not always successful to make the learners be aware of what they need to learn (Havranek, 2002).Attitudes of students and teachers towards error correction are various. Most of foreign and second language students think that they need correction when they make a mistake (Schulz, 2001). On the other hand, many of them find error correction embarrassing and they do not want to be corrected. In most of teachers' point of view, error correction is important, but they are worried about effects of error correction on their students (whether it will be positive or negative) (Havranek, 2002).

On the basis of different attitudes of students and teachers, SLA researchers looked for an answer to the question whether there was a difference between the students who were corrected regularly on a structure and the ones who did not receive any correction on that structure but were exposed to it in the input. Although answering this question was difficult because there were other factors affecting increase in accuracy of learners' interlanguage, researchers found that the students who were corrected regularly showed a better progress in accuracy than the others by conducting tightly controlled experiment studies and classroom studies. (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Spada & Lightbown, 1993).

2.4.1.4 SLA and Error Correction

Second language instruction is generally divided into two categories in discussions of language pedagogy: meaning-focused instruction and form-focused instruction (Ellis, 1997). The meaning-focused instruction is largely characterized by communicative language teaching. It assumes that linguistic knowledge is acquired through communication, without explicit attention to language form. However, form-focused instruction aims to draw learners' attention to a specific linguistic feature and enables learners to practice on it. Whether only meaning-focused instruction is enough has been discussed and there are different opinions on that. Krashen suggests that for second language acquisition comprehensible input and low affective filter in the student are necessary conditions and meaning-focused instruction can meet these conditions (1994). Unlike Krashen, Long thinks that some attention should be given to form (1991). He claims that attention to language structures should be integrated into a meaning-focused activity because there is a good deal of studies indicating that only meaning-focused instruction is not enough to achieve high level of proficiency in the language (Lightbown, 1991).

2.4.2 Methodological Developments behind Corrective Feedback

In the days of grammar translation method, correcting students' errors was considered significant. It is suggested that when a student makes an error, the teacher should provide the student with the correct answer. In 1950s and 1960s, audio-lingual method came to the stage and errors were considered something to be avoided. Errors were seen like a sin. Later on, this approach to error correction has changed by means of studies conducted in transformational-generative grammar, first language acquisition research and cognitive psychology since the late 1960s and error correction has been considered "more humanistic and less mechanistic" (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 388).

2.4.2.1 Philosophy behind Communicative Approaches

In the 1970s, most of the educators began to realize that although students could produce some sentences accurately while they were talking with their friends in the classes, they were not able to communicate appropriately with other people outside the classroom

(Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It was recognized that mastering language structures, linguistic competence, was not enough to use the language. Students need to "know when and how to say what to whom" (Larsen-Freeman, p.121, 2000) for a successful communication. These notices led the field to a shift from a linguistic structure-centered approach to a communicative approach in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Widdowson, 1990).

The field was ready for that shift because audio-lingualism and situational language teaching were apparently not appropriate methodologies. Communicative language teaching (CLT) caught attention of those who looked for a humanistic approach to teaching. CLT is mostly considered as an approach not as a method because a number of principles behind CLT can be applied by use of various classroom procedures (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

There are mainly five main features underlying current application of CLT described by Johnson and Johnson (1999). The first one is appropriateness. It means that learners need to know what they should say according to the situation, setting, roles of participants and purpose of communication. They should be able to use both formal and casual styles of speaking. The second characteristic is message focus referring to focus on information sharing and information transfer. In CLT activities and real communication, learners need to understand and create real meanings of the messages. The third one is psycholinguistic processing and it means that learners are engaged in the use of cognitive and other processes which are important in second language acquisition. The fourth one is risk taking. Language learning is a creative process in which learners try to communicate, make some errors and learn from their errors. The fifth characteristic is free practice. It shows the holistic view of CLT. Communication involves use of diverse sub-skills simultaneously.

In communicative approaches, learning a language is possible through using the language to communicate. The goal of classroom activities is meaningful and authentic communication between learners and fluency is an important aspect of communication (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). From all reasons above, errors are seen a natural consequence of the improvement of communication skills. During fluency-based activities, errors of focus are tolerated and these errors may be noted by the teacher and these errors can be returned after by use of an accuracy-based activity (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

2.4.2.2 Perception of Errors in Post-method Era

Throughout the history of language teaching, one of the major goals has been to find out the most effective way of teaching second and foreign languages. For this reason, a number of methods and approaches have been developed and adopted for some time, but when its shortcomings for a specific context show up, it is left. Each approach consists of a group of beliefs and principles that can be used as the basis for teaching a language (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Methods mean particular instructional designs or systems that are based on a specific theory of language and of language learning. They include roles of teachers and learners, techniques and procedures that can be used in class and detailed description and requirements of content. Methods provide teachers with some prescription of what and how to teach and role of the teacher is just following the method.

However, the heyday of methods lasted till the late 1980s. The concept of methods was criticized for some reasons. Firstly, most of the methods include claims about language learning and teaching, just few of them are based on classroom-based studies and second language acquisition research. Furthermore, roles of the teachers and students were prescribed in the methods and they were expected to submit themselves to the methods, but it goes against what really teaching and learning mean. Teachers always reflect their own principles and beliefs in classroom practices. Also, each student has a different learning style, interest, need and preference, so while a method works with a group of students, it may not work with the other. A teacher needs to use different techniques in different classes at different times.

By the end of the 20th century, approaches and methods lost their popularity and the term 'post-method era' started to be used. It claims that there should not be an alternative method, but an alternative to method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). It does not mean that approaches and methods are not beneficial. On the contrary, teachers, especially novice teachers, should know major teaching approaches and methods and they should know them in order to know how they can use different approaches and methods and how they can be useful in their classrooms, to understand how they can link theory and practice from a variety of different perspectives. When it comes to error correction, teachers should know needs of their learners, the contextual factors in their classes and respond learners' needs accordingly.

2.4.3 Second Language Acquisition and Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback (CF) is an important research area in the field of SLA and is generally referred to responses to learners' incorrect use of the target language. In the last decade, a growing body of research on CF has focused on the effectiveness of CF and they suggest that it mainly depends on the negative evidence provided. Long (1996) categorized the input provided to language learners into two groups: positive evidence and negative evidence. Positive evidence is defined as providing the learners with what is acceptable and grammatical in the target language (TL). Negative evidence is providing learners with the information about what is incorrect and unacceptable in the TL and it is often provided through corrective feedback when the learners produce non-target-like utterances in the TL.

On the theoretical side of CF, there has been a debate over whether positive evidence or negative evidence is necessary and useful for language learning. Some researchers (Krashen, 1981; Schwartz, 1993) argue that only positive evidence is enough and necessary to learn a foreign language as it is in first language acquisition. They claim that negative evidence is not necessary and it might be even harmful for learners' interlanguage development, so the task of their teacher is to make them be exposed to positive evidence as much as possible.

On the other hand, a group of researchers argue that negative evidence is not harmful to language learning; even it is facilitative and significant for interlanguage development. In Output Hypothesis, it is stated that output opportunities are very important for L2 development because students can make hypotheses and test them about linguistic correctness and in this way they can develop their metalinguistic knowledge and find out how the L2 works (Ellis, 2008). Schmidt (1995) states in Noticing Hypothesis that conscious attention to input is a must in order to proceed in L2. Also, noticing is a necessity of learning. Corrective feedback can be thought as stimulus, in other words, it helps learners to identify the gap between their interlanguage and target form and noticing the gap is beneficial for interlanguage development (Sheen, 2004). In Interaction Hypothesis, Long (1996) states that not only input but also output is equally important for second language learning because both of them are significant during negotiation for meaning. A language learner needs comprehensible input to develop her or his interlanguage. However, that is not enough for a successful interaction. The learner needs to be understood by other people in

the conversation. Negative feedback received during interaction is facilitative for L2 development.

After the role of CF was demonstrated theoretically, empirical research has increased and the subject is investigated by researchers from various aspects. The studies consist of experimental and observational studies conducted in classroom and laboratory settings. Although most of studies are conducted in L2 context, there are important studies in foreign language contexts (Sheen, 2004). The studies concentrate on the overall effect of feedback on interlanguage development (McDonough, 2005; Oliver & Mackey, 2003), the occurrence of different types of feedback (Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), learners' perception of feedback (Doughty, 1994; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000), different effects of different feedback types (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2004).

2.4.4 Research into Oral Corrective Feedback

Oral CF and written CF have been investigated separately because SLA and second language writing researchers' research interest are different. SLA researchers study on CF in relation to how it affects interlanguage development of learners, learning process and its outcomes. However, second language writing researchers are interested in how CF affects learners' writing performance in general (Sheen, 2011). Additionally, there are a few ways in which oral and written CF differs. Firstly, while written CF is generally clear for the learners, oral CF may or may not be clear. Secondly, written CF is delayed whereas oral CF can be delayed or immediate. Thirdly, although written CF address individual learners, oral CF can address individual students or it may be provided to a group of students.

There are mainly two kinds of studies focusing on oral CF, namely laboratory studies and classroom-based studies. Most of the studies focusing on the effectiveness of recasts have been conducted in laboratory settings because in these studies variables can be easily controlled and CF can be provided on specific linguistic targets. Results of these laboratory studies show us that recasts have a positive effect on second language development of learners (Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Ishida, 2004; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). However, in classroom-based studies, focuses of the researches are various. There are studies on learners' perception of CF (Mackey et al., 2000), studies comparing different types of CF (Ammar & Spada, 2006), the effect of noticing on L2 development (Yoshida, 2010) and so on. The results of experimental classroom-based studies of CF indicate that

oral CF is considerably more effective than no CF and students tend to receive prompts or explicit correction rather than recasts (Sheen, 2011).

In oral corrective feedback studies, learner uptake is a much-discussed issue in theoretical and methodological terms. Learner uptake is a term firstly used by Lyster and Ranta (1997) who provided a taxonomy of the types of corrective feedback. They used the term learn uptake to refer to learners' responses to corrective feedback, and they categorized it into two groups; (1) utterances still in need of repair and (2) utterances with repair. In their study with four French immersion classrooms and four different teachers, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that although recast was the most common type of feedback (55% of all feedback), it produced the least amount of the uptake (31%) and the rate of successful repair was 18%. This rate of successful repair found in Lyster and Ranta's study should be interpreted carefully because this percentage is based on the total number of recasts not the total number of uptakes following the recasts (Sheen, 2004). It is a significant point because in some contexts, the low rate of successful repair following recasts is because of teachers' topic continuation moves after recasts and this prevents students from responding to the recasts (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). However, Ellis, Baştürkmen and Loewen (2001) investigated focus-on-form practices of teachers, learner uptakes and successful repairs following focus-on-form practices in intensive adult ESL classrooms in New Zealand and it was found that not only recast was the most common type of feedback (75%) but also it led to the highest rate of successful repair (75%). To explain the reason why the result was quite different from those of Lyster and Ranta (1997) they indicated the learners' interest in form in their communication-based classrooms. The students might have been looking for the teachers' feedback because they had already received form-focused grammar instruction before their communication-based lessons. Learner repair requires the correct reformulation of an error and it can be repetition or self-repair depending on the type of CF. If a teacher provides recasts or explicit correction, the response of student will probably be repetition of correct forms, but if the teacher provides prompt, it will lead the student to self-repair or peer-repair. In descriptive studies of different types of CF and uptake, it has been predicted that different kinds of repair will have different effect on L2 development over time because different kinds of repair will cause different kinds of processing (Lyster et.al., 2013).

Some of oral corrective researchers have investigated effects of contextual factors such as age of learners, proficiency level of learners on the efficacy of corrective feedback. In Oliver (2000) and Oliver and Mackey's studies (2003), they revealed that younger learners benefited more from CF than adult learners did. When it comes to proficiency level of students, there are two different points of view on that issue in relation to whether CF aims to help the acquisition of totally new knowledge or to reinforce partly acquired knowledge (Lyster et. al., 2013). Long (2007) claimed that "acquisition of new knowledge is the major goal, not 'automatizing' the retrieval of existing knowledge" (p.102). However, Lyster indicated that "the ultimate goal of instruction is not to continuously present only new knowledge to students without sufficiently providing subsequent opportunities for assimilation and consolidation of that knowledge" (2007, p.119). Furthermore, researches display that more developed language learners gain more from CF (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Philp, 2003).

2.4.4.1 Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished six different CF types; explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition in their descriptive study of teacher-learner interaction in French immersion classrooms. In addition to these six main categories, they included a category named multiple feedback and referred to it as a combination of more than one of the identified feedback types in a teacher turn. Later, they divided CF into two broad groups: reformulations and prompts (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Recasts and explicit correction are included in the group of reformulations because both of them provide students with "target reformulations of their their non-target output" (Ranta & Lyster, 2007, p.152). Recasts are defined as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" by Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.46). In explicit correction, the correct form is also provided by the teacher but this time the teacher shows that what the student had said was incorrect (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Prompts include various signals pushing learners to self-repair. Prompts include different CF types: clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, and repetition. Clarification requests show students that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that there is a problem in comprehensibility or accuracy, or both of them and a reformulation is needed for the utterance. Metalinguistic feedback can be in the form of a comment, information or a question about the well-formedness of the student's

utterance. The teacher points the error without providing the correct form explicitly. Elicitation can be at least in three different ways. First, a teacher may want her students to complete her own utterance by strategically pausing at a specific place and want students to fill in the blank. Second, teachers can ask questions to elicit correct forms, for example, 'How do we say X in English?'. Third, teachers can sometimes want their students to reformulate their utterances. Repetition means the teachers' repetition of the students' erroneous utterance. The teachers generally use intonation to make the student be aware of the error. Although prompt include different types of CF, there is a common point among them differentiating them from reformulations; correct forms of the students' errors are withheld and they are supplied with clues to prompt to recall these correct forms from their existing knowledge. Accordingly, in terms of linguistic evidence, both positive and negative evidence are provided in explicit correction, positive evidence and sometimes also negative evidence are provided in recasts, and only negative evidence is provided in prompts (Lyster & Saito, 2010).

Drawing upon these identified CF types, categorization of them and findings of considerable amount of researches on CF, Sheen and Ellis (2011) suggested a taxonomy of oral CF strategies. They clarify not only the distinction between reformulations and prompts but also the distinction between implicit and explicit CF. Differently from the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997), Sheen and Ellis (2011) included paralinguistic signals that mean trying to elicit the correct form from the students non-verbally in the CF types. Also, they separated recasts into two groups; conversational recasts that are reformulations of students' utterances in order to resolve a communication breakdown and didactic recasts that are reformulations of students' utterance in default of a communication problem (Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

CF types have been differentiated by researchers in terms of explicitness and implicitness. However, it has been proven that making this kind of a categorization is problematic. For example, recasts are generally included in implicit category (Long, 1996), but the researches show that they can also be explicit depending on context, setting and characteristics such as linguistic target, the number and length of changes (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2004).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the design and application of the methodology of the study. The research design, context, universe and samples of the study are described respectively. Then, the data collection techniques and the process of data analysis are explained in detail.

3.1 Research Design

A variety of techniques and approaches are available for researchers to make use of in order to meet needs of their researches. Mainly, there are three different methods used in researches currently; qualitative methods, quantitative methods and mixed methods. In this study, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is used on the grounds that they can "support and inform each other" (Mile & Huberman, 1994, p. 310). The present study offers a mixed methods research design to investigate the phenomenon. Mixed methods research design is a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques; thus, for the present study, it is important to discuss major quantitative and qualitative techniques frequently exploited in ELT and teacher education.

3.1.1 Quantitative Techniques

Inspired by remarkable progress of natural sciences in the nineteenth century, quantitative social researchers started to use scientific model in their own studies. Scientific method assumes three phases in the process of a research: (1) observing and identifying a problem; (2) forming an initial hypothesis; (3) testing the hypothesis by means of empirical data collected and analyzed through standardized procedures (Dörnyei, 2007). If the hypothesis is tested successfully and validated by replication, it becomes a scientific theory. In this way, it provides results that are not influenced by the researcher's bias and prejudice and so it is believed as reliable and accurate. To show the results of empirical studies, the scientific method used numerical values and statistics. Being a scientist was associated with conducting experiments and measuring a subject empirically. In emergent social sciences, there was a mathematical need to show results of investigations and statistics served this purpose by the end of the nineteenth century. In the first half of the twentieth century, with the developments in both the scientific method and statistics, use of quantitative methods increased in almost all social disciplines. In applied linguistics, there was a significant increase of quantitative research articles between 1970 and1985 and between 1991 and 2001.Within this period, 86% of 524 empirical research papers that were published in four major applied linguistics journals were quantitative (Lazaraton, 2005).

Quantitative techniques have both some strengths and some weaknesses. In quantitative studies, there is a standardized, systematic process to follow and there are some rules to collect and analyze the data so these enable the study to be objective and reliable. Furthermore, quantitative researches provide replicable data that can be generalizable to the other contexts. However, the focus of quantitative studies is on the variables capturing the common features (Dörnyei, 2005). All quantitative methods aim to identify the relationship between the variables, but there is no detailed information about any of the variables. They are not very sensitive in identifying the reasons of any observation or situation.

3.1.2 Qualitative Techniques

Although qualitative-like methods were used in different fields such as sociology and anthropology, they were Glaser and Strauss who defined the term of 'qualitative methodology' in their book of the Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research in 1967. Their purpose was to systemize the collection, coding and analysis of qualitative data with the aim of generating a theory. In applied linguistics, the number of qualitative research has increased since the mid-1990s and this kind of research has a serious effect on the field (Dörnyei, 2007).

One of the main features of qualitative research is its emergent nature. There are not established hypotheses or determined research questions in the design of qualitative research. A study is open to new ideas emerging during data collection and data analysis (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In addition, the context of the study is a natural setting in qualitative studies because it aims to investigate participants' thoughts and behaviors and their interaction during their everyday activities. Also, the goal of qualitative research is not to reach generalizable information. On the contrary, it tries to catch rich and complex details about particular participants, settings or interaction in order to achieve a thick description of it (Dörnyei, 2007). In this way, it expands the list of possible interpretation of people's experiences. Additionally, qualitative research tries to look at the subject from the point of view of an actual participant of an action because the focus of the research is the meaning that is attributed and brought to the situation by people (Punch, 2009).

3.1.3 Rationale behind Mixed-methods Research

Mixed-methods research includes elements of both qualitative and quantitative methods in data collection or data analysis of a single study. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) define mixed-methods research as "research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings and draw inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry" (p. 4). After a period called 'paradigm war' emphasizing ideological differences between qualitative and quantitative methods, researchers agree upon that integrating these two approaches can be beneficial for social science researches (Dörnyei, 2007). With the introduction of the concept of triangulation into social science studies in the 1970s, the idea of combining

qualitative and quantitative research gained more acceptance. Triangulation is a term used to mean looking at a phenomenon from different perspectives by using various research methods, data sources and theories in order to document and confirm an overall interpretation. Furthermore, triangulation is regarded as useful strategy to confirm research validity.

Mixed-methods research is generally associated with pragmatism because it suggests that researchers should apply a method or different methods that work well with problems and questions of their studies (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The focus is on the findings of the study and the questions rather than the methods used in the process of data collection.

There are mainly two purposes for mixed-methods research. Firstly, it provides broad and deep understanding of a specific phenomenon (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Secondly, it helps to validate a set of findings against the other (Dörnyei, 2007). Additionally, it enables researchers to reach more audience. By using a combination of methods, researchers can reach the ones who do not appreciate if one of the approaches applied alone.

3.1.4 The Research Philosophy behind the Study

In the current study, two data collection methods were administered: an interview and Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation which consists of 20 situations involving an error that an English language teacher can encounter in any language classroom context**.** The interview questions were prepared by the researcher in order to understand participants' beliefs about teacher, learner, teaching, language and specifically oral corrective feedback.

The second data collection tool was Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation. The situations in SEC Simulation included an erroneous sentence or utterance and the participants were expected to write why and how they correct this error. The aim of this tool was to identify student teachers' stated behaviors about oral corrective feedback. The answer to the question of 'how' was analyzed by using descriptive statistical tests. The answers of the participants were categorized into seven groups (1) explicit, (2) recasts, (3) clarification request, (4) metalinguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, (6) repetition and (7) multiple feedback according to the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997). Their answers to the question of 'why' were analyzed by using constant-comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and thematic coding (Gibbs, 2007). The answers of the student teachers

were read many times until the discovery of some underlying themes. The data is used to illustrate the reasons of their answers to the question of 'how'.

In conclusion, the current study aims to identify student teachers' stated behaviors about oral corrective feedback, their stated beliefs about it and teacher, learner, teaching and language in general and the nature of interaction between their stated behaviors and stated beliefs. The data coming from these two different tools were used to explain reasons of the results of one another.

3.2 Context

The current study was carried out in English Language Teaching (ELT) program at Gazi University in Ankara. A national curriculum which is based on a constructivist view of education and reflective approach in pre-service teacher education is offered in the program. The main reason of offering a constructivist program is the policy of the European Union adopted in language teaching in Turkey (Çakır & Balıçıkanlı, 2012).

The ELT program at Gazi University is a four-year program. The students of the program are introduced to academic English courses in four skills separately, some educational science courses in their first year. In the second year of the program, applied linguistics courses, some educational science courses, courses of techniques and principles in language teaching, a course of language acquisition and one practical course called 'Special Teaching Methods' are offered. The third year of the program includes more practical courses such as teaching English to young learners, creative drama, special teaching methods (continue to previous semester), teaching language skills and some educational courses. In the last year of the program, students have to complete a one-year practicum. They complete their practicum at state primary, secondary or high schools. In the first term of the practicum, the student teachers observe the students, teachers and the school system. In the second semester, they start their teaching practice every week for at least one course hour. Student teachers write reflections on their observation and practice every week and submit them to their trainer. They also need to plan their lessons and develop some materials and submit them to the trainer. Student teachers have to stick to the national curriculum developed by the Ministry of Education. Lastly, The ELT program at Gazi University is the most crowded one in Turkey, hosting around a thousand students at BA, MA and PhD levels.

3.3 Universe and Samples

The research was conducted at Gazi University, English Language Teaching (ELT) program with third and fourth grade students in 2013-2014 academic year. This group of students took typical ELT methodology courses, such as 'Teaching Language Skills', 'Special Teaching Methods', 'Teaching English to Young Learners ' and 'Drama in ELT'. The third and fourth years of the BA program are heavily practice oriented; that is, student teachers perform demonstrations in various micro and macro teaching attempts. In addition, they prepare lesson plans, materials designed for a specific course content and write reflections that secure a personalized way of learning.

3.3.1 Interview Group

The sample interview group of the study consisted of 12 fourth grade students who were selected randomly among fourth grade students in ELT program at Gazi University. Among the students that participated in the study, 3 of them (25%) were males and 9 of them (75%) were females. In the country, ELT programs are generally preferred by female students and it results in gender distribution of the current study.

3.3.2 Participants of SEC Simulation

The sample SEC Simulation group of the research consisted of 98 third and fourth grade students in ELT program at Gazi University. They were selected among voluntary students in the program. Students ranged in age from 20 to 26 (M=22.25; SD=0.66). Participants consisted of 77 female and 21 male students.

3.4 Data Collection Techniques

Two data collection tools were administered in this study. In this section, how these two tools, respectively SEC Simulation and interviews, were developed is presented.

3.4.1 Instruments

3.4.1.1 SEC Simulation

Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation is a data collection tool that aims to find out student teachers' stated behaviors of oral corrective feedback and it is developed by the researcher. It consists of 20 situations that any English teacher can encounter in any language classroom. All the situations include an erroneous utterance or a sentence. The participants were asked to identify the type of the error (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) and the focus of the activity (fluency, accuracy) and answer the question of how and why they would correct the error.

SEC Simulation emerged from the need to identify student teachers' stated behaviors of oral corrective feedback because the study was on student teachers, it was not easy to observe their actual behaviors in this context. The student teachers were not full-time teachers. They just taught one hour in a week, so it was not possible to reach enough data to confirm their behaviors for each level and each age group.

To develop this tool, firstly, common errors of the learners of English were searched and most common errors included in the studies (Brians, 2003; James, 1998; Swan & Smith, 2001; Tanner & Green, 1998) were noted by the researcher. Then, these most common errors were included in the situations paying attention to the level of learners who made the errors (from elementary level to upper-intermediate level) and age of them (young learners, adolescents, adult learners). The researcher wrote fifty situations and one of the faculty members of Gazi University English Language Department was consulted for his opinion. In the light of his opinions, twenty of them were chosen and some necessary changes were made to secure validity. SEC Simulation consisting of 20 situations was piloted with 20 participants and it was decided to be used in the same way with the pilot study.

3.4.1.2 Interviews with Student Teachers

The interviews were conducted once with each student teacher. The duration of interviews was between 25 to 45 minutes. The interviews were audio-taped. Also, the researcher took notes while the participants were responding to the questions. The interview questions were pre-planned and structured. The interview questions included different items aiming

to measure same points with the SEC Simulation. As it was in the SEC Simulation, one of the faculty members of Gazi University English Language Department was consulted for his opinion about interview questions and some necessary modifications were made to secure validity.

The interviews were conducted in the native language of the participants, in Turkish, so the excerpts from the interviews used in the findings part were translated by the researcher firstly. Then, an independent English language teacher was asked to translate the same parts of the conversation to secure reliability. The translations were consistent to a great extent. For the divergent parts, another English language teacher's opinion was consulted and agreed translations were included in the study.

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Review of Research Methodology

3.5.1.1 Theory behind Quantitative Approaches

Quantitative approaches are principally based on post-positivism (or scientific method). It holds a deterministic philosophy and that requires it to determine and evaluate the causes, influences and outcomes (like the findings in experiments). Also, because of the reductionist view of it, quantitative research divides ideas to be tested into a set of separate ideas. In other words, they are consisted of measurable, testable and specific hypotheses and research questions (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative researchers develop the relationship among variables and they reveal that in terms of questions or hypotheses (Creswell, 2009). In post-positivism, the source of knowledge is observation and numeric measures of the objective reality. In the scientific method, a research begins with a theory and a post-positivist researcher collects data by using an instrument designed to measure attitudes in order to test whether it supports or refutes the theory. Then, necessary revisions are made before additional tests. In quantitative approaches, an experimental design is generally used so as to assess attitudes before and after the experimental investigation. The collected data is analyzed by using statistical methods and hypothesis testing (Dörnyei, 2007).

3.5.1.2 Theory behind Qualitative Approaches

Qualitative approaches are generally conducted from a constructivist view (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In constructivism, it is considered that there are various views on reality and the goal of research is to investigate this diversity. People attribute meanings to their experiences, objects and things, so it is not possible to understand the complexity of views with specified questions in quantitative approaches. In qualitative approaches, questions are more general and broad than the ones in quantitative approaches. Thus, participants can construct their own meanings of a situation and share their views on it. Also, qualitative researchers generally conduct studies in natural settings of their participants in order to watch and listen what they do and say in their daily lives during their interactions with other people. The researchers also pay attention to the contexts that their participants live in because these personal meanings are formed through historical and cultural norms of these contexts. They bring together all these factors and interpret their findings. While interpreting, they know that their interpretation is shaped by their experiences and backgrounds. Unlike quantitative approaches, investigators generate meaning from the collected data and develop a theory (Creswell, 2009).

3.5.2 Analysis of the Qualitative Data

3.5.2.1 Coding Procedures

The qualitative data collected through interviews and SEC Simulation were analyzed by using constant-comparative method that is derived from grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). However, the data were analyzed separately and different coding procedures were applied.

3.5.2.1.1 Codes and Themes

In the analysis of the interviews, some pre-determined themes were used to categorize the STs' beliefs in general. These were (1) teacher, (2) learner, (3) teaching, (4) language. Also, these themes were categorized under main educational views on teaching a foreign language. These were traditional view, constructivist view and the mixed view (Özmen, 2012). The views of some of the participants were incomprehensible and they were

including some unclear expression, so they were categorized as 'Other'. Moreover, there were some themes emerged from the data and these themes were about their beliefs about OCF: (1) selecting errors to correct, (2) time of OCF, (3) frequent type of oral errors, (4) effective OCF.

The data collected through SEC Simulation were analyzed in two steps. Firstly, the answers to the question of 'how' were categorized according to the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997). A number was assigned to each category by the researcher and nominal variables, namely, (1) explicit, (2) recasts, (3) clarification request, (4) meta-linguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, (6) repetition and (7) multiple feedback were coded. For the participants who said that he/she would not correct that kind of an error, the code of (8) no correction was used. Also, there were some answers that were not related to the situation or there was a misunderstanding and these answers were coded as (9) irrelevant response. Lastly, the situations left blank by the participants were coded as (10) missing data. Secondly, the answers to the question of 'why' were read many times and all the data related to these themes were categorized under them. To enhance reliability, the definitions of the coding categories were written and an example of each category was provided. After finishing the first draft of coding procedure, one of the faculty members of Gazi University English Language Teaching Department was consulted for his opinions and some feedbacks were taken. Additionally, an independent researcher was trained for the categorization. The coding system was taught to the coder and she worked on the categorization independently. The categorization of the researcher and that of the coder were compared and the categorizations were quite similar. There were few different points and these points were consulted to the aforementioned ELT faculty member at Gazi University.

Before the analysis of the data, both the interviews and the SEC Simulations were enumerated by the researcher. In the findings part, some excerpts from both of them are used. To show the number of the interviewee, the abbreviation of 'Int…' (i.e. Int1 means the first interviewee) and to show the number of the SEC Simulation the abbreviation of 'ST…' (i.e. ST5 means the fifth SEC Simulation) is used.

3.5.2.2 Categorization of Qualitative Data

There were two different sets of qualitative data in this study. One of them was the data consisting of interviews. The other one came from the answers to the questions in the SEC Simulation. The data obtained from interviews aimed to release student teachers' beliefs in general and about OCF so the data were categorized under four pre-determined themes firstly. These were teacher, learner, teaching and language. Then, these themes were categorized under three main educational views on teaching a foreign language, namely, traditional, contrastive and mixed. Then, the data were read many times until the emergence of the following themes: selecting errors to correct, time of OCF, frequent type of oral errors and effective OCF.

In the SEC Simulation, the student teachers' answers to the question of 'how' were categorized according to the taxonomy of Lyster and Ranta (1997). There were seven types of oral corrective feedback in the study, namely, (1) explicit, (2) recasts, (3) clarification request, (4) meta-linguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, (6) repetition and (7) multiple feedback. For the answers to the question of 'why' in the SEC Simulation, the themes were not different from the ones used for the question of 'how'. The answers to the question of 'why' were re-read a lot of times and the ones related to these themes were categorized under them.

In terms of feedback type, the categorized data was analyzed on the basis of calculating the frequency of OCF for each simulation item. As the factors chart indicates (See Appendix C), there are some certain situation items related to each language component, age group, level group and focus of the activity. The frequencies represented in the findings parts are the means of the frequencies of the situations that stand for that certain component (i.e. language component, age, level, focus of the activity).

As for the feedback time, to calculate the percentages of the participants in each subheading the number of the participants who would correct the errors and the ones who gave an answer including the feedback time is taken in consideration.

3.5.2.3 Quantification of the Verbal Data

All of the interviews were audio-recorded and they were transcribed verbatim in order to prepare data to analyze. All the interviews were transcribed by the researcher. To verify

transcriber reliability, an independent researcher transcribed some parts of the material a second time. The data derived from the transcription of the interviews were categorized under four themes; teacher, learner, teaching, language. These themes were categorized under main educational views that were traditional view, constructivist view and mixed view on teaching a foreign language (Özmen, 2012). Frequencies and percentages of student teachers' beliefs about teacher, learner, teaching and language in each view are provided in findings. Furthermore, there were some themes, namely selecting errors to correct, time of OCF, frequent type of oral errors and effective OCF generated from the STs' answers to the interview questions. The answers were coded and placed under the related themes emerged.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, analysis and interpretation of the collected data are provided. Firstly, pilot studies of SEC Simulation and interviews are presented. In the following part, qualitative research findings are reported under two different titles. Part 4.2.1 presents student teachers' beliefs about teacher, learner, teaching and language learning respectively. In part 4.2.2 student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback are reported under the subheadings of selecting errors to correct, time of OCF, frequent oral errors and effective OCF. Then, the quantitative research findings of the main study are introduced. Part 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 include the interpretation of the data in respect to successively research question one, research question two and three. Lastly, in part 4.3.3 sources of the student teachers' beliefs are explained.

4.1 Pilot Study

Before the actual study, certain studies were carried out to secure the reliability and validity of the collected data. In the present inquiry, two different pilot studies were conducted independently. The first pilot study was fulfilled to ensure content validity of SEC Simulation. The second pilot study was conducted to find out whether the interview questions were clear and adequate to reveal student teachers' beliefs about OCF.

4.1.1 Piloting of SEC Simulation

The studies regarding the piloting of SEC Simulation were carried out in fall semester in 2014. It was one month before the actual study. The piloting study was fulfilled by taking into account the following questions:

- Are there any language components, learner groups and English levels that have not been covered in the situations?
- Do the situations reflect the real contexts experienced in the English language classes in Turkey?
- Are there any aspects of these situations that require an improvement or a change to make them more understandable for the student teachers who will participate in the study?

One of the main aims of this study is to include possible errors that can be made by any learner groups in any levels while studying any language component, so the number of the situations for each learner group, each level and each component is equalized. As for the second question that concerns the content validity of the study, one of the faculty members of Gazi University English Language Teaching Program was consulted for his opinions about the situations in SEC Simulation and in the light of his opinions; it was decided not to change any situations. It is agreed that all the situations can be met by any language teachers in Turkey. As for the third and last question, the SEC Simulation was conducted with 20 student teachers who were the senior students at the same university, Gazi University ELT Program, and showed the same demographical features with the actual research participants. The results of the study indicated that all the situations were clear enough to be understood and there was no confusion among the participants. However, some wording mistakes that did not alter the meaning were detected and corrected.

4.1.2 Piloting of the Interviews

The second pilot study was fulfilled on the interview questions. In the process of piloting of the interviews, the following questions were taken into account:

- Are the questions clear enough to be understood and answered by the participants? Are there any aspects of these questions requiring an improvement or a change?

- Are these questions adequate enough to find out student teachers' beliefs about OCF?

Before the actual study, the interviews were conducted with 3 participants who had the same demographical characteristics with the actual study participants. These interviews were audio-taped and then they were transcribed verbatim. The transcribed interviews showed that especially for the 11th and 12th questions asking when they would prefer to use delayed and immediate corrections in the interview, the participants needed some explanations about delayed and immediate correction. Therefore, while asking these questions, the researcher made some explanations about them when it was necessary. The revised version of the questions with the explanations was submitted to one of the faculty members in Gazi University ELT Department and was consulted for his opinion. As for the second question, the answers given to the questions by the participants were categorized under the pre-determined titles (i.e. beliefs about teacher, learner, teaching and language) and while interpreting the data, it was also seen that there were some data-driven titles. The analysis of the collected data for the pilot study was also consulted for one of the experts in Gazi University ELT Department. With his confirmation of the applicability of the instrument, it was decided to use the question in actual research study.

4.2 Qualitative Research Findings

In this part, the results of the data gathered through interviews are presented in two different sections: 4.2.1 Student Teachers' Beliefs and 4.2.2 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Oral Corrective Feedback. In the first part, student teachers' beliefs about some pre-determined themes, namely teacher, learner, teaching and language learning, are provided. In the second part, their beliefs about oral corrective feedback are presented under some headings that are the themes arising within the student teachers' answers to interview questions.

4.2.1 Students Teachers' Beliefs

The results of the interviews show that most of the student teachers held a constructivist view of language teaching and learning. The details of results of the interviews are presented in Table 2. Besides, in Table 3, the categorization of the beliefs is demonstrated with some related descriptions and emergent themes.

Table 2. Results of the Interviews

		Teacher	Learner	Teaching	Language learning
Traditional/Transmissive	f	1	0	1	0
	%	8.3	0	8.3	0
Constructivist	f	9	10	9	10
	%	75	83.3	75	83.3
Mixed	f	2	2	0	2
	%	16.7	16.7	0	16.7
Other	f	0	0	2	0
	%	0	0	16.7	0

Table 3. Classification of the Beliefs

Area of Questioning	Important Relevant Descriptions Derived from Quotations	Emergent Themes	Sum of Constructivist Views	
			f	%
Beliefs about Teacher	• Ts should know the needs of their students • Ts should do some activities to improve critical thinking • Ts should promote life-long learning (Int1, Int3, Int4, Int5, Int7, Int8, Int10, Int11, Int12)	• Guide • Motivator • Facilitator	9	75
Beliefs about Learner	• Learners' individual differences must be taken into account • Students' feelings should be paid attention (Int1, Int2, Int3, Int4, Int5, Int7, Int8, Int10, Int11, Int12)	• No memorization • Self-confidence • Autonomous learners	10	83.3
Beliefs about Teaching	• Teachers should use implicit ways of teaching • Teaching is not a prescribed process (Int1, Int3, Int4, Int5, Int7, Int8, Int10, Int11, Int12)	• Constructivist teaching methods • Teaching is spontaneous in some aspects	9	75
Beliefs about Language Learning	• Students should be a part of language learning process • The most important goal is delivering the message (Int1, Int2, Int3, Int4, Int5, Int7, Int8, Int10, Int11, Int12)	• Communication • Classroom atmosphere • Attitudes of learner, the teacher and classmates	10	83.3

4.2.1.1 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Teacher

As for the beliefs regarding teachers, 75% (f=9) of the STs had a constructivist view whereas 16.7 (f=2) of them held a mixed view. The view of 1 participant (8.3%) was traditional/transmissive. Most of the students called the teacher as a motivator, a facilitator and a guide. One of the most common answers to the question asking the qualities of a teacher was that "…the teacher should be a guide. She should ask some questions or provide some alternatives to lead her students…" (Int6). At the same time, most of them referred to their experiences as students, their practicum experiences, their professors at the university and their high school teachers as the sources of their beliefs while they were stating their beliefs about teachers.

4.2.1.2 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Learner

Most of the participants stated their views on learners in a constructivist way (f=10, 83.3%). Only two participants (16.7%) held a mixed view about learners. When the participants were asked to think on the learners, they emphasized three points in their answers; students' feelings, self-confidence and being autonomous. One of the most remarkable responses was

> …Learners should take the responsibility of their own learning. As it is said in one of the sayings give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime (Int7).

Also, while they were talking about the learners, they generally referred to their own experiences as learners. From their own experiences, they deduced how their students could feel and think.

4.2.1.3 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching

The participants' views on teacher possessed a constructivist way. Likewise, most of the STs (f=9, 75%) held a constructivist view on teaching. Most of the participants described teaching as a process that does not prescribe how teachers must teach: "…Teaching is not something prescribed. Students have different needs and as teachers, we need to meet their needs in different ways" (Int3). Also, one of the comments about teaching was "…OK,

there should be lesson plan, but our teaching should also be spontaneous" (Int5). Only 1 participant had a traditional/transmissive view (8.3%).

4.2.1.4 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning

The findings of the participants' beliefs about language learning were comparable to the findings about their beliefs about learners. While 10 of the participants (83.3%) held a constructivist view, 2 of them (16.7%) had a mixed view. One of the notable comments of participants concerning language learning is as follows:

> "...We should not think that learning a language is mechanical. It is not. If we think in this way, it will be a serious mistake. It is not learned in the same way as the other subjects are learned. I mean that it is not like learning Math or History. It will improve in the process (Int3)".

Additionally, most of them indicated communication as the main aim of learning a language: "…In the process of learning a language, the most important thing is delivering the message, in other words, communication" (Int9). Lastly, majority of the participants underlined the importance of developing good relationship between students and learners to create a positive learning environment.

4.2.2 Student Teachers' Beliefs about Oral Corrective Feedback

The analysis of the data gathered through some face-to-face interviews revealed some categories that the participants formed their views on. These categories are 'Selecting Errors to Correct', 'Time of OCF', 'Frequent Type of Oral Errors' and 'Effective OCF'.

4.2.2.1 Selecting Errors to Correct

All of the participants stated that they would not correct all the mistakes their students made. Among the reasons to correct errors the most frequently expressed one (4 out of 12 participants) is repetition of an error: "If I hear the same error for a few times on the same subject or if I have notice that she learns it in a wrong way, I'll correct it (Int11)".

The second most frequent (3 of the student teachers) reason is how many of the students in a class made the same mistake. If the number was high, they stated that they would correct the mistake. Another reason stated by 2 participants is whether an error causes ambiguity in meaning or not. If it caused ambiguity, they would correct it. Another one (mentioned

by 3 participants) is the subject that the error is on. If the error was on the subject that was the aim of the activity, they would correct it:

> "…For instance, in the class, we are studying on a reading text and answering comprehension questions. While one of the students is reading the text aloud, she makes a pronunciation mistake. I'll ignore it because at that point our focus should be on comprehending the text and answering the questions correctly (Int1)".

Also, they remarked that the reason of the error was important. It might be because of anxiety of a student, or lack of knowledge. If the reason of the error is lack of knowledge, the error should be corrected:

> "…For example, the student knows the subject, but she makes a mistake because she is anxious. That's OK. I'll not correct it. However, if there is a mistake that can be permanent and it is because of lack of knowledge and can affect the other things she will learn in the future, I need to correct it (Int4)".

Another reason mentioned by 2 of the participants was the importance of the subject that the students made mistakes about. If a mistake is about a subject that they will always come across, if it is a frequently used subject, it should be corrected. Lastly, most of the participants made reference to the difference between an error and a mistake. If they think that it is a mistake, they stated that they would not correct it, but if it was an error, they would correct it.

4.2.2.2 Time of OCF

In the questions 11 and 12, the student teachers were asked to opine when they preferred delayed and immediate correction and their opinions on each of them are included respectively in next two subheadings.

4.2.2.2.1 Delayed Correction

When the student teachers were asked when they preferred delayed correction, before they told when they preferred using it, a majority of them explained why they would use it. They expressed that they did not want to demotivate their students, so they would benefit from delayed correction. When it comes to when they would use it, 9 out of 12 participants stated that they would use delayed correction if the focus of the activity was on fluency: "…think that one of the students is talking about a thing in an excited way and he's making

some mistakes while speaking, I'll not interrupt him. If I do it, it'll not be correction but sabotage (Int3)".

The second most repeated answer (5 out of 12 STs) was whether the error was on correct use of language. They explained that while the students were speaking if they made a pragmatic mistake or if there was a problem about their word choice, but the meaning was understandable, they would give delayed feedback to their students.

Another reason reported by 3 of the participants to prefer using delayed correction was crowded classes: "I can use delayed correction in crowded classes because the duration of classes won't be enough if I correct mistakes of each student. Instead, I can take some notes and later I can talk about these mistakes with them (Int2)". Also, 3 of the student teachers told that they would correct the mistake after some time if they thought that it was not a real mistake, in other words, if it was a slip of tongue.

4.2.2.2.2 Immediate Correction

For the 12th question in the interview, "When do you prefer immediate correction?", 7 out of 12 participants stated that they would use this type of correction if the focus of the activity they were doing on accuracy: "…OK, our aim in our classes is always communicating in English, but in some situations being accurate is more important. At that time, I can give feedback immediately (Int6)".

During the interviews, most of the participants expressed that they tended to correct almost all of the pronunciation mistakes they heard. As the reason for this tendency, they referred to their own experiences as students and stated that they had difficulty in pronouncing some words or they learned pronunciation of some words wrong because their teachers had not paid enough attention to their pronunciation mistakes. Most probably because of that, one of the student teachers put herself into her students' shoes and said: "…sometimes we cannot pronounce some words because we are anxious. At that moment, we expect someone to help us; we expect to be corrected, so for the mistakes on pronunciation, we can use immediate correction (Int5)". Therefore, 4 out of 12 participants clearly stated that when there was a pronunciation error they would correct it immediately: "…pronunciation mistakes should be corrected immediately because in my opinion, if my teacher doesn't correct what I say, I'll think that it is correct. After some time, it'll be more difficult to correct it for me as a student (Int2)".

2 of the student teachers stated that they would correct an error in an immediate way if they thought that it would lead the student learn another thing or the subject wrong. 2 of them reported that if their students made some mistakes on the subjects that were just studied or a short time ago, they would correct them immediately.

One of the participants pointed out level and age of students as an important factor affecting the type of the correction he would make. He stated that he would correct errors of students who were more advanced and older immediately because he thought that they would want to be corrected in this way (Int9).

4.2.2.3 Frequent Type of Oral Errors

When the participants were asked their opinion on the frequency of the kind of errors made by students in speaking activities in terms of language component, 7 out of 12 participants indicated pronunciation mistakes as the most frequent error type. Grammar errors took the first place in the answers of 3 participants. One of them stated that: "…the most frequent errors are on grammar. This is tragicomic. In fact, we, as the country, give the most importance to grammar, but most of the mistakes are on grammar (Int7)". 2 of them referred vocabulary errors as the most frequent one.

When it comes to the second most frequent errors, there is an equal distribution of answers. 4 out of 12 referred vocabulary errors, 4 of them showed pronunciation errors and the rest 4 participants indicated grammar errors as the second most frequent error type made by the students.

Grammar and vocabulary errors were referred as the least frequent error type by the same number of participants (5out of 12). 2 of them stated that pronunciation errors were the least frequent errors that a teacher met in language classrooms.

4.2.2.4 Effective OCF

4.2.2.4.1 Factors Affecting the Efficiency of OCF

In one of the questions in the interviews (23th question, Appendix A) the student teachers were asked to reflect on the factors having an impact on efficiency of OCF. Among the answers, factors of classroom atmosphere and manner of the teacher were repeatedly

articulated by the participants (each of these factors was stated by 5 of 12 student teachers). By stating classroom atmosphere, the participants mostly referred to the roles of students, roles of the teacher and their attitudes toward each other: "…classroom affects it a lot. If other students in the class make fun of him when he makes an error, I don't believe that error correction can be possible in this classroom (Int2)".

Most of the participants expressed that the teacher should be motivating not criticizing while correcting the errors. They underlined that the one who would create a positive classroom atmosphere was the teacher:

> "When one of the students makes a mistake, the attitudes of the other students are also important. At that point, I'll try to adjust the classroom atmosphere. He can make mistake. That's possible and it's a normal situation. Everyone can make some mistakes. Students should know that if I correct his mistake, I can correct the others in the same way and my attitude will be the same (Int12)".

As it is stated above, one of the most repeated factors was how the teacher corrected the error: "The teacher's tone of voice, body language, his attitudes towards the students and his reaction to his students. All of them will have an effect on the effectiveness of correction (Int9)". "My attitude certainly affects it. The teacher's attitude is quite important. If the teacher criticizes in a very harsh way, the student even comes out against the teacher. Her tone while correcting the mistake is very important (Int7)".

Most of the participants stated that how a teacher corrected errors affected the efficiency of OCF because it had an impact on how the students perceived making errors in their own perspectives of learning a language.

As another factor having an effect on efficiency of OCF, 3 of the student teachers stated that knowing the students, their characters and their attitudes towards the lesson were the most important factors.

The other factors pointed out to influence the efficiency of OCF by the participants as follows:

- Age of the students,
- Students' level of English,
- The number of the students in a class,
- Type of the activity,
- Students' developmental phase,

- Students' backgrounds,
- Students' eagerness to learn,
- Students' expectations,
- Students' personality,
- Students' interests,
- Whether the technique used by the teacher addresses the students, their intelligence and their interests,
- Using different materials to correct errors,
- Knowing what students know or do not know very well.

4.2.2.4.2 Effectiveness of OCF for Learners

For the question (26th question, Appendix A) asking how they can understand whether their OCF is effective for their learners to acquire the correct information, all the participants stated that they would follow the students to see whether they repeated the same error or not: "I can understand by observing. I'll observe them and if they're still making the same mistakes, it means that the things I've done aren't effective and I will think that I need to do some other things (Int8)". "I can do some other activities on the same topic and I'll check whether they are doing the same mistakes or not (Int10)".

Also, 3 of the student teachers stated that students' facial expressions, gestures and behaviors could be a hint for the teacher to understand whether their OCF was effective for their learners: "…feedbacks we get from the students are very important. What kind of a feedback can we get? It can be oral or we can understand from his/her body language or to what extent she/he feels relaxed in the class (Int3)".

Finally, 2 of the participants expressed that they would exploit some quizzes that were prepared specially on the subjects that the students had made errors.

4.2.3 Sources of the Student Teachers' Beliefs

One of the significant points emerged from the data collected through the interviews was the sources of the student teachers' beliefs. Although there was no particular question asking the sources of their beliefs, the STs referred these sources while they were answering the questions on oral corrective feedback. The sources of their beliefs can be

categorized into 3 groups: their experiences as students in school, the teacher education program and their classmates' experiences in school. As it is in literature (e.g. Bailey, 1996; Numrich, 1996; Peacock, 2001), the most powerful source was the STs' experiences as students. When they referred this source, they mostly mentioned two points. One of them was their own experiences as learners (e.g. how they feel or think): "…teachers should correct errors. I don't trust peer-correction because I don't think that it is possible in our country. For example, I felt annoyed when one of my friends corrected my error (Int2);

> …think that a student is reading a text aloud. It happened to me when I was in high school. The teacher was always correcting every pronunciation mistake immediately an d I felt like I couldn't read anything and I didn't know any English, so I didn't want to participate in anything. I think while correcting an error, the teacher shouldn't focus on that particular student. A general revision can be made for all the students after the student finishes reading aloud (Int6).

The other one was bad models of teachers:

> …it will be more beneficial if we think about how to improve these points and what we can do more instead of being like our teachers saying that if you wanted to listen to me, you would listen, it's not my problem (Int3),
>
> When I was in high school, I had an English teacher. She was intolerant of errors. We couldn't even say a single word in English. I don't remember a time I spoke in English until I started preparatory class at university. She really affected me. Teachers' role is very important in this respect (Int11).

As for the effects of the teacher education program, they focused on three points: their mentor teachers, the practicum and the courses they took in the program:

> …at the practicum school, I had a class consisting of 40 students. They were very different from each other. If I correct some of them and some other students make the same mistake but I don't correct them, they were telling that I was always correcting their mistakes, but not other students. But, some of them were giving positive reactions when I corrected them. There were different reactions… (Int8)
>
> …after taking some classes I agreed errors should be corrected immediately. Especially after taking 'approaches to language teaching' class, I reached this opinion because all of us experienced this situation. Most of my classmates experienced this. The errors that hadn't been corrected became a problem for us, so I believe that errors should be corrected (Int2).

The last but may be the most important point expressed by the STs as the source of their belief was their classmates or their friends' experiences as learners. They did

not only refer to their own experiences, but also their classmates and friends' experiences:

> It will change from one student to another. For example, it doesn't matter for me to be corrected by my teachers. It's OK for me, but I had friend in high school and it was a real problem for her. She didn't participate in any class because she thought that she would feel humiliated if the teacher corrected her (Int6)

> Of course, error correction contributes to learning, but over correction may hinder it. I have a friend. She is good at grammar and writing but she is not good enough at speaking. She makes a lot of pronunciation mistakes… Her teacher was always correcting her whenever she made a mistake. Day by day, her English speaking capacity got worse. Because she was always corrected, she thought she wasn't able to speak in English, so I think it (error correction) shouldn't be insulting (Int8).

It might be concluded that their beliefs are influenced by both their own experiences as students and their friends' experiences. Also, their teacher education program, especially some courses, practicum and some of their professors had a huge effect on them.

4.3 Quantitative Research Findings

In this part, the results of the data collected through the SEC Simulation are displayed in two sections: 4.2.1 Feedback Type and 4.2.2 Feedback Time. In both of the sections, the findings are presented in terms of language components, age, level and focus of the activity.

4.3.1 Feedback Type

4.3.1.1 Language Components

The SEC Simulation includes 8 simulation items that led student teachers to perform oral corrective feedback moves that relate to grammar, 6 items related to vocabulary and 6 items related to pronunciation, either fluency or accuracy (See factors chart on Appendix C). Data analysis was performed on the basis of calculating the frequency of OCF for each simulation items. For the grammar errors, frequency of OCF was calculated for all of the eight situations. For the vocabulary errors, it was calculated for all six situations including vocabulary errors. As for the pronunciation errors, the frequency of OCF was calculated

for all six situations including pronunciation errors. The findings suggest that the student teachers preferred to use different feedback types to correct the errors on different language components: grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. In Table 4 below details are provided.

Table 4. Language Component and Feedback Types

	Language Components					
	Grammar		Vocabulary		Pronunciation	
	f[1]	%	f[2]	%	f[3]	%
Explicit	11.8	12	13.7	14	27.7	28.3
Recast	21.1	21.5	12	12.2	18.8	19.2
Clarification request	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Meta-linguistic feedback	11.8	12	18.2	18.6	6.2	6.3
Elicitation	16.9	17.2	12.7	13	10.5	10.7
Repetition	1.8	1.8	0.3	0.3	1.5	1.5
Multiple feedback	2	2	2.8	2.9	1.8	1.8
No correction	17.1	17.4	21.3	21.7	11.8	12
Irrelevant response	5.6	5.7	6.3	6.4	6.3	6.4
Missing data	9.2	9.4	9.5	9.7	12.2	12.4

4.3.1.1.1 Grammar

When there was a mistake on grammar, most of the student teachers preferred to use implicit ways of correction , namely recast ranking first (f= 21.1; 21.5%) and elicitation ranking number three (f=16.9; 17.2%). The second most frequent response given to the situations including grammar mistake was no correction. As the reason why they preferred not to correct grammar errors, they expressed that grammar was something that could be learned through time and even native speakers of a language made grammar mistakes while speaking "…especially in daily language grammar mistakes aren't cared much. This

[1] The frequencies represent the Mean of eight situations including grammar errors.

[2] The frequencies represent the Mean of six situations including vocabulary errors.

[3] The frequencies represent the Mean of six situations including pronunciation errors.

is true also for native speakers of English (Int8)". "I don't correct this because it isn't very important in aspect of whole grammar rules. It can be fixed in time (ST83)".

4.3.1.1.2 Vocabulary

In the SEC Simulation, when the student teachers were asked to response situations including a vocabulary mistake, most of them preferred not to correct the errors (f=21.3; 21.7%). The second most frequently preferred correction type to correct vocabulary errors was meta-linguistic feedback (f=18.2; 18.6%). Most of the student teachers preferred to define the meaning of the word or ask some yes-no questions to lead the students to the correct vocabulary item if it was wrongly used. The third most frequent type of correction choice among the student teachers was explicit correction (f=13.7; 14%). The participants who stated to correct vocabulary errors explicitly believed that this type of correction would be beneficial for students to learn the vocabulary item because it as direct and clear. One of the participants stated: "… especially wrong word use should be corrected directly. If we tell the correct word directly, we can improve the learners' vocabulary knowledge (Int3)".

4.3.1.1.3 Pronunciation

The majority of the student teachers chose to use explicit correction if the error was on pronunciation (f=27.7; 28.3%). They stated that correcting pronunciation mistakes was highly important because it "…plays a key role in being able to communicate with people whose mother tongue is different from yours (ST19)". They also expressed the importance of explicit correction as follows: "I would directly give the correct pronunciation of the words because I don't want the students to learn the pronunciation wrong (ST27)". "Pronunciation is important. If I don't correct their pronunciation mistakes directly, bad habit formation can be seen in the future (ST26)".

Recast was the second most common correction type preferred by the student teachers (f=18.8; 19.2%). As the reason why they would use recasts they stated that just repeating the correct pronunciation of a word would be enough for the students to notice the correct pronunciation of it (ST1, ST3, ST9, ST11, ST17, ST23, ST24, ST27, ST29, ST33, ST36, ST45, ST51, ST61,ST64,ST76,ST92).

Lastly, as it can be clearly seen in Table 4, pronunciation errors were the ones that were stated to be corrected most. The frequency of the student teachers who expressed that they would not correct that kind of mistake was 11.8 (12%). Most of the participants had a tendency to correct pronunciation mistakes: “Unless a person pronounces a word correctly, other people don’t understand him correctly (ST55)”.

4.3.1.2 Age

The results of the SEC Simulation indicate that the student teachers prefer to use different feedback types to correct the errors of learners from different age groups. Table 5 presents the details. The data was analyzed on the basis of calculating the frequency of OCF for each simulation items. For each age group there were certain situation items (See factors chart on Appendix C). Therefore, the frequencies presented in the Table 5 were the means of the frequencies of the situations for that age group.

Table 5. Age and Feedback Types

	Age					
	Young learners		Adolescents		Adults	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Explicit	14	14.3	19.3	19.7	16.3	16.6
Recast	23.6	24	16.8	17.1	14.2	14.5
Clarification request	1,4	1.4	0.7	0.7	1.2	1.2
Meta-linguistic feedback	9.8	10	8.1	8.3	19.7	20.1
Elicitation	19	19.4	11.2	11.4	13	13.3
Repetition	2.2	2.2	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.5
Multiple feedback	2.4	2.4	1.8	1.8	2.7	2.8
No correction	11.2	11.4	20.6	21	15.8	16.1
Irrelevant response	4.8	4.9	7.7	7.9	4.7	4.8
Missing data	9.6	9.8	10.7	10.9	10	10.2

4.3.1.2.1 Young Learners

When there was an error made by a young learner, most of the student teachers (f=23.6; 24%) stated that they would correct the error by using recasts. The second most frequent feedback type preferred by the participants was elicitation (f=19; 19.4%). Most participants stated that they would not use explicit correction techniques: “Since they’re young learners, I don’t want to interfere directly (ST35). As the reason why they would not use explicit correction techniques they referred to the feelings of students at those ages: “I

won't correct the mistake directly because they are young learners. I don't want them to feel shy (ST38)".

On the other hand, the third most frequent feedback technique preferred by the student teachers to correct young learners' errors was explicit correction (f=14; 14.3%). They explained that they would use this type of correction because the learners were young learners and most probably they studied that thing for the first time, so if they learned it wrong at the beginning, it would be really hard to correct it later: "I'll correct directly because they're young learners, so correcting the mistake is very important before it becomes an error (ST93)". "I directly correct the mistake otherwise students who are young learners learn the wrong way and correcting that mistake is very difficult (ST4)".

Among the age groups, young learners were the ones who got the answer of 'no correction' least. The reason why most of the participants preferred to correct their errors was that they thought that if they didn't correct their errors, young learners would learn them wrong and these errors would be fossilized: "I immediately correct because they are young learners and some mistakes they do can be fossilized. To prevent this, I'll correct their mistakes (ST90)". Nevertheless, 11.4% participants (f=11.2) stated that they would not correct the errors made by young learners because it might discourage the learners and making mistakes was something normal for this age group: "In speaking activities, correction can give negative reinforcement to the children. They don't want to speak again. The teacher makes them offended (ST83)".

4.3.1.2.2 Adolescents

The most frequent feedback type preferred by the student teachers to correct adolescents' oral errors was 'no correction' (f=20.6; 21%). They explained the reason of preferring this kind of correction by referring to the developmental stage of them. Most of the participants stated that learners at those ages attached great importance to their relationships with their friends and they were trying to develop a personal identity. For this reason, they would not want to be corrected in front of their friends in the classroom atmosphere: "I won't correct the mistake because the adolescents can be afraid of being corrected (ST90)". Furthermore, in the interviews, the student teachers stated that they would not prefer to correct some of the errors made by adolescents in consideration of their feelings: "…adolescence period is a little bit dangerous. Corrections made directly may make students feel bad because

adolescents may think that their teachers don't love them and she or he always pays attention to their mistakes not to the others (Int3)". "…a high school student will be discouraged if she or he is corrected in front of her or his friends because the student is an adolescent (Int5)".

The second most frequent feedback type stated to be used by the participants was explicit correction (f=19.3; 19.7). They thought that the students at those ages were old enough to correct their mistakes when they were corrected directly: "…because of their ages, he can correct his mistake when I directly tell him the correct version of the word (ST93)".

4.3.1.2.3 Adults

The most often preferred feedback type to correct adult learners' errors was meta-linguistic feedback (f=19.7; 20.1%). The student teachers reported that they would use this technique because the students at those ages would have an aim to learn the language and they would be more careful about their learning process.

The second most frequent feedback type was explicit correction (f=16.3; 16.6%). Most of the student teachers thought that these students would not be offended when they were corrected directly. Even, they would want to be corrected if they made a mistake (Int7, Int9, and Int11). Also, they expressed that unlike adolescent students; adult students would not be affected by what their classmates thought: "…adult students won't be shy about their mistakes. They won't place so much importance to what their friends think, so there is no harm to correct their errors directly (Int5)".

The number of the participants who said that they would not correct adults' mistakes ranked number three (f=15.8; 16.1). They expressed that there was no need to correct adult learners' errors because they were able to assess themselves and correct their errors (Int3).

4.3.1.3 Level

The data was analyzed on the basis of calculating the frequency of OCF for each simulation item. For each level group there were certain simulation items in the SEC Simulation (See factors chart on Appendix C). Accordingly, the frequencies presented in the Table 6 were the means of the frequencies of the situations for that level group.

Table 6. Level and Feedback Types

	Level							
	Elementary		Pre-intermediate		Intermediate		Upper-intermediate	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Explicit	13.5	13.8	8.75	8.9	20.2	20.6	19.7	20.1
Recast	25	25.5	26.25	26.8	16.2	16.5	11.5	11.7
Clarification request	2	2	1	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.3	1.3
Meta-linguistic feedback	10.5	10.7	12.75	13	9.4	9.6	15.5	15.8
Elicitation	11	11.2	22.25	22.7	13.8	14	8.8	9
Repetition	3	3	2.5	2.5	1	1.0	0.17	0.17
Multiple feedback	4	4	1.25	1.3	2.4	2.4	2	2
No correction	15	15.3	10	10.2	19.4	19.8	18.5	18.9
Irrelevant response	2.5	2.5	5	5.1	5.5	5.6	8.7	8.9
Missing data	11.5	11.7	8.25	8.4	9.6	9.8	11.8	12

There are two remarkable points related to the preferred correction type in terms of level of the students. Firstly, as the Table 6 shows, the student teachers preferred to correct lower-level learners more frequently than upper-level students. As the reason why they would often correct elementary or pre-intermediate level students' mistakes they mentioned the possibility of mislearning: "The teacher should correct the student's mistake as soon as possible because he/she is an elementary level student. If the teacher doesn't correct the error, the student may learn it wrong (ST58)".

The second most significant finding is the difference in the types of correction preferred by the participants between lower-level and upper-level students. The student teachers preferred to use more implicit ways of correction for lower-level students, namely recast (elementary: f=25; 25.5% and pre-intermediate: f=26.25; 26.8%) and elicitation

(elementary: f=11; 11.2% and pre-intermediate: f=22.25; 22.7%) although they preferred to use an explicit way of correction for both intermediate and upper-intermediate level students (respectively f=20.2; 20.6% and f=19.7; 20.1%). When they were asked why they chose to use implicit ways to correct lower-level students, they mentioned their students' motivation (Int4, Int8, and Int12):

> "When I imagine that I am an elementary school teacher, I don't feel like correcting my students' errors directly. It sounds me like something demotivating. Instead of direct correction, I'll tell the correct version just after the student makes the mistake. I believe that s/he can learn better in this way (Int12)".

Moreover, as the reason of choosing an explicit way to correct upper-level students' errors they stated that the students in higher levels were supposed and expected to use English correctly: "I'll correct the mistake directly as they're upper-intermediate level, so they'll be expected to use the vocabularies in a correct form (ST45)".

4.3.1.4 Focus of the Activity: Fluency-Accuracy

The SEC Simulation includes 15 items leading student teachers to use OCF moves relating to fluency and 5 items to accuracy. The data was analyzed on the basis of calculating the frequency of OCF for each simulation item, so for fluency based activities, the mean of 15 items was calculated and for accuracy based activities, the mean of 5 items was calculated. The Table 7 shows these means.

Table 7. Focus of the Activity and Feedback Types

	Focus of the Activity			
	Fluency		Accuracy	
	f	%	f	%
Explicit	17.5	17.8	16	16.3
Recast	18.2	18.5	16.2	16.5
Clarification request	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8
Meta-linguistic feedback	11.9	12.1	12.4	12.7
Elicitation	13	13.2	16	16.3
Repetition	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2
Multiple feedback	2.5	2.5	1.4	1.4
No correction	18	18.3	13.4	13.7
Irrelevant response	4.8	4.9	9.8	10
Missing data	10	10.2	10.8	11

In both fluency based and accuracy based activities, the most frequently preferred feedback type to correct students' oral errors was recast (respectively f=18.2; 18.5% and f=16.2; 16.5%). The second most frequent feedback type was explicit correction (f=17.5; 17.8%) in fluency based activities while it was explicit correction (f=16; 16.3%) and elicitation (f=16, 16.3%) in accuracy based activities. Lastly, as it might be expected, the findings indicate that the student teachers would correct the errors in accuracy based activities more frequently than in fluency based activities. Most of them remarked that interrupting the students during a fluency based activity would not be good for their language development (ST2, ST5, ST13, ST14, ST15, ST16, ST21, ST22, ST23, ST26, ST27, ST33, ST34, ST35, ST40, ST50, ST92).

4.3.2 Feedback Time

In this section, the student teachers' preferences on feedback time, delayed and immediate, to correct oral errors are presented.

4.3.2.1 Language Components

Table 8 displays the frequencies and percentages of the student teachers' preferences of feedback time on each language component.

Table 8. Language Components and Feedback Time

		Delayed	Immediate	Total Given Answers
Grammar	f	7.1	59.9	67
	%	10.6	89.4	100
Vocabulary	f	6.2	52.3	58.5
	%	10.6	89.4	100
Pronunciation	f	17.3	44.8	62.1
	%	27.9	72.1	100
Total	f	10.2	52.3	62.5

	%	16.3	83.7	100

As it is pointed out in Table 8, in total, the percentage of the participants who would correct errors immediately (f=52.3; 83.7%) is higher than the ones that would correct the errors in a delayed way (f=10.2; 16.3%).

Among the language components, pronunciation errors were the one that were stated to be corrected in a delayed way most (f=17.3; 27.9%). Finally, the percentages of delayed and immediate correction (respectively 10.6% and 89.4%) are the same in grammar and vocabulary errors.

4.3.2.2 Age

In Table 9, the frequencies and percentages of the participants' choices of feedback time on each age group of learners are demonstrated.

Table 9. Age and Feedback Time

		Delayed	Immediate	Total Given Answers
Young learners	f	5	69.6	74.6
	%	6.7	93.3	100
Adolescences	f	10.1	44.6	54.7
	%	18.6	81.5	100
Adults	f	13.7	52.2	65.9
	%	20.8	79.2	100
Total	f	9.6	55.5	65.1
	%	14.7	85.3	100

It is clearly shown in Table 9 that the total percentage of immediate correction is higher for all age groups (f=55.5; 85.3%). Moreover, the percentage of the use of delayed correction is increasing with older ages, so the age group that was said to be corrected in a delayed

way most is adults (f=13.7; 20.8%) while young learners are the group that was stated to be corrected immediately most (f=69.6; 93.3%).

4.3.2.3 Level

Table 10 shows the frequencies and percentages of the student teachers' preferences on feedback time according to each level: elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate.

Table 10. Levels and Feedback Time

		Delayed	Immediate	Total Given Answers
Elementary	f	9	62	71
	%	12.7	87.3	100
Pre-intermediate	f	3.8	70.8	74.6
	%	5	95	100
Intermediate	f	7.6	53.5	61.1
	%	12.4	87.6	100
Upper-intermediate	f	17.3	37.8	55.1
	%	31.4	68.6	100
Total	f	9.4	55.8	65.2
	%	14.4	85.6	100

The Table 10 demonstrates that most frequently preferred feedback type to correct the errors of students in all levels is immediate correction (f=55.8; 85.6%). Among them, upper-intermediate level students had the highest percentage of delayed correction (f=17.3; 31.4%). The second highest percentage of delayed correction was belonged to elementary level students (f=9; 12.7%). Therefore, it can be said that for the lowest and highest level students, the participants preferred to use delayed correction more frequently.

4.3.2.4 Focus of the Activity: Fluency-Accuracy

The frequencies and the percentages of the student teachers who used delayed and immediate correction in fluency based and accuracy based activities are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Focus of the Activity and Feedback Time

		Delayed	Immediate
Fluency	f	10	53.1
	%	15.8	84.2
Accuracy	f	9.8	53
	%	15.6	84.4
Total	f	9.9	53.05
	%	15.7	84.2

As the Table 11 points out, there is no big difference in the number of the frequencies and the percentages of the participants who used delayed and immediate correction when the focus of the activity was fluency or accuracy.

4.4 RQ1: Student Teachers' Stated Beliefs of Oral Corrective Feedback

In the face to face interviews, all of the participants stated that they had a positive attitude toward oral corrective feedback. Also, they referred it as an important part of language learning. From the analysis of the data gathered through their answers in the interviews, following categories are obtained: selecting errors to correct, time of OCF, frequent oral errors and effective OCF, as it is mentioned in the findings of qualitative research.

For the question related to how to select an error to correct (4^{th} question, Appendix A), the answers of the participants can be collected under six categories:

- Repetition of an error
- How many students in a class make the same mistake
- The subject that the error is on (a studied subject or not)
- Whether the error causes ambiguity in meaning or not

- Importance of the subject that the students make mistakes on (a frequently used subject or not)
- The reason of the error

Whether the error interferes with the communication and it causes ambiguity in meaning is an issue stated in some other studies (e.g. Roothooft, 2014; Lyster et al., 2013).In these studies, the participants reported that they would correct the errors if they interfered with the flow of communication. Besides, in some studies, not the subject that the error is on but the language component or error type (grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation) that teachers had a tendency to correct more was given (e.g. Brown, 2014). However, there are few, if any, studies to compare the other factors that the student teachers in the current study stated. These factors are not paid attention in any of the studies in literature. Therefore, these findings can be taken into consideration as variables that affect teachers' choice of making error correction or the type of the correction they use in future studies.

Discussed in the findings part, the student teachers' beliefs about time of OCF generally depend on the focus of the activity (accuracy or fluency based activities). If the focus of the activity was on fluency, they would use delayed correction, but if the focus of the activity was on accuracy, they would use immediate correction. This result is in congruence with the findings of Méndez and Cruz (2012) and Roothooft (2014). Especially for delayed correction, before the participants stated when they would prefer it, they said why they would prefer it. The reason was not to demotivate students and not to hurt their feelings. In fact, the participants in Méndez and Cruz's study (2012) expressed the same concerns with the participants in the present study. Another point stated by the participants was the class size. If the class was a crowded one, they would prefer delayed correction. However, this is something that they just stated to do, not their actual practices. This point needs to be confirmed empirically as Roothooft (2014) referred as well.

When it comes to their beliefs about the frequent type of oral errors Most of the participants referred to pronunciation errors as the most frequent type of error that an English language teacher could meet in classrooms. While they were expressing their opinions, most of them referred to their experiences as learners in primary school or high school, or even in university. They stated that when they were students, even still, their most frequent errors were on pronunciation, so pronunciation errors were the most frequent feedback type. In fact, this result was not surprising. The findings of the studies in

teachers' beliefs literature show that one of the sources of student teachers' beliefs come from their experiences as students in schools and it is considered to be the most influential source (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Richardson, 2003). Therefore, when the student teachers were asked the most frequent error type that they could meet in a classroom, they answered the question by referring to their old experiences in schools because they were lack of experience to think over real classroom atmospheres.

The matter of effectiveness of OCF is a much discussed issue in the field of OCF. There are a number of studies focusing on effectiveness or differential effects of particular types of correction type on a particular language component (Büyükbay, 2007; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Mutlu, 2006; Nassaji, 2009). These studies generally use pre-test post-test design or examine rates of uptake (i.e. students' responses to feedback). In the previous studies the focus was mainly on the type of correction and its effects and they took age and proficiency level of learners into consideration with regard to students' individual factors. However, in the current study, the participants emphasized not only the student parts in a more detailed way and correction type but also teachers, classroom atmosphere and other students in the class. The data collected through the interviews can be categorized into two groups in terms of effectiveness of OCF: firstly factors affecting the efficiency of OCF and secondly effectiveness of OCF for learners.

Getting to know the students, their characters, their attitudes towards the lesson are cited as important factors affecting the efficiency of OCF. These findings are similar to the findings of Méndez and Cruz (2012) and Roothooft (2014). The participants highlighted the importance of the students' reactions to feedback that would change according to the stated factors, like the participants in the mentioned studies. One of the most expressed factors was the classroom atmosphere. With classroom atmosphere, the participants meant the roles of the students and teachers in a class, their relations, and classroom rules. Also, some of the students pointed to the manner of the teachers. They thought that how a teacher corrected an error (i.e. her body language, tone of voice) was crucial for a feedback to be effective for learners. The aforementioned factors can be especially important for classroom studies.

The other factors articulated by the student teachers were as follows: age of the students, students' level of English, the number of the students in a class, type of the activity, students' developmental phase, students' backgrounds, students' eagerness to learn,

students' expectations, students' personality, students' interests, whether the technique used by the teacher addresses the students, their intelligence and their interests, using different materials to correct errors, knowing what students know or do not know very well. As it is yielded by different studies in literature, the type of the corrective feedback cannot be counted as the only variable affecting the effectiveness of correction (Sato, 2011), so learner factors and other factors stated by the participants are important variables that can influence OCF effectiveness.

In literature, different measures have been used to measure the effectiveness of OCF on learning or for learners. These are some post-tests (immediate or delayed) (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998; Loewen & Philp, 2006), uptake and learner repair (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002), stimulated recalls (e.g. Roberts, 1998; Philp, 2003). Similarly, in the present study, the student teachers referred to some tests and students' responses. However, the participants not only mentioned the verbal responses of the students but also pointed their facial expressions, gestures and behaviors just after the feedback as some hints to decide the effectiveness of teachers' feedback.

4.5 RQ2: Student Teachers' Behaviors about Oral Corrective Feedback

It is a known fact in the literature that oral corrective feedback can affect second and foreign language learning in a positive way (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). However, little is known about the types of oral corrective feedback used by teachers for the students at different ages and levels in fluency and accuracy based activities. Also, although there is a number of studies concerning in-service teachers' oral corrective feedback practices (e.g. Baştürkmen et. al., 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Tsang, 2004), there are few studies regarding student teachers (e.g. Vibulphol, 2004). Therefore, this study focuses on student teachers' stated OCF behaviors in terms of age of students, level of students, and focus of activity (fluency-accuracy). There is a point needing to be clarified in the study: the data collected in relation to student teachers' behaviors are not actual practices of them, but their stated behaviors. The reason why they are called as stated behaviors is that these are the responses given by the student teachers to specific situations including errors, not the observation of their behaviors.

The current study was carried on 98 student teachers who were third and fourth grade students in ELT program at Gazi University. The student teachers ranged in age from 20-26. To find out the participants' stated behaviors the SEC Simulation consisting of 20 situations that can be encountered in any language classroom was conducted. All the situations include an erroneous utterance or a sentence and the student teachers were asked to response each situation.

The findings of the present study indicate that the most frequently preferred feedback type in total was explicit correction, account for 18% of all responses. As Table 4 indicates, the reason of this high percentage is the result of the answers given to phonological errors and this percentage is slightly higher than the percentage of recasts (17.6%). In literature, there are some studies suggesting that explicit ways of corrective feedback could be more useful than implicit ones (Ellis, Loewen, Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). However, this was not the main subject of interest in the current study. For the reasons mentioned above, the focus of the study is on the feedback types preferred for each language component that the error is on, so the answers given to each error type are regarded separately.

In literature, there is no particular language component that is focused on in most of the studies. The focuses of the observed lessons can range from vocabulary, grammar, to combination of speaking, listening, grammar or reading. Nevertheless, it is shown that grammar errors are receiving the highest proportion of correction made in classes (Brown, 2014; Havranek, 2002). For this reason, it might be better to interpret the findings of the current study by keeping these points in mind.

In the present study, the most frequent feedback type exploited by the participants for grammatical errors was recast, accounting for 21.5% of all answers given to the questions including grammatical errors. This is concurrent with the findings of Brown (2014), Havranek (2002), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002), Roothoft (2014), and Sheen (2004). Among all the corrective feedback types recast are the ones that are studied on the most. Also, they are reported to be the most frequent corrective feedback type in most instructional settings (Li, 2013). Frequent use of recast is associated with "its contingency, non-intrussiveness, and affordance of both positive and negative evidence" (Li, 2013, p. 175). Additionally, it is claimed that recasts are both beneficial in form-focused instruction in which linguistic forms are also addressed during a meaning-based

communication and useful when there is a need for scaffolding because a learner is lack of the capacity to maintain the interaction (Lyster & Mori, 2006).

As for the vocabulary errors, a considerable part of the participants preferred not to correct the errors (f= 21.3, 21.7%). In a similar vein, Méndez and Cruz (2012) found out that teachers in an EFL context did not tend to provide corrective feedback for vocabulary errors. The second most frequent feedback type stated to be used by the student teachers was meta-linguistic feedback, accounting for 18.6% of the responses given to the situations including vocabulary error. There is not a study searching the particular types of preferred or used correction by the teachers or student teachers, but there are some studies aiming to find out differential effects of different feedback types on learners' vocabulary knowledge. In one of these studies, Dilans (2010) studied on the effects of recasts and prompts (i.e. meta-linguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, repetition) and it is remarked that both of oral corrective feedback types improved vocabulary knowledge of the students, however, the students provided prompts showed more in depth gains in terms of vocabulary knowledge. In the current study, prompts were more frequently used, so it might be concluded that the STs' OCF preference for vocabulary errors might have good effects on students' vocabulary knowledge.

For pronunciation errors, the most frequently used feedback type was explicit correction, accounting for 28.3 of the answers given to the situations containing a pronunciation error. The second most frequent one was recast and it received 19.2% of the answers. This result coincided with that of Lyster and Saito (2010). In their study, they proved the effect of recasts on L2 pronunciation development. It is suggested in their study that providing the students with explicit information can be necessary and useful. They explain how recasts work in two ways. Firstly, students can understand comprehensibility of their utterance by means of the negative evidence provided in recast. Secondly, they can have a chance to practice on the corrected form modeled by their teachers (positive evidence).

When oral corrective studies are reviewed, it can be seen that there are some studies concerning age of students, though not enough (e.g. Lyster & Saito, 2010; Oliver, 2000). By feeling a need, one of the focuses of this study is to find out whether student teachers' oral corrective behaviors differ according to the age of learners. The results show that it does. The student teachers preferred different oral corrective feedback types for the students at different ages. Firstly, when the students were young learners, the most frequent

feedback type preferred by the participants was recast (f=23.6; 24%). This finding is in line with the findings of Brown (2014). Also, in her study, Oliver (2000) stated that young learners (children) were expected to receive more recasts than adults. In Mackey and Oliver's study (2002), the findings indicated that young learners benefited more from recasts than adult learners and its effects were more immediate for the young learners. In addition, they remarked that the reason of young learners' sensitivity to recasts might be because of implicit nature of recasts that functions in a way similar to first language feedback provided. Secondly, when oral corrective studies are examined in terms of age of learners, it can be seen that there are few studies concerning adolescents (e.g. Brown, 2014; Lyster & Saito, 2010). However, these studies just included this age group as a variable, but they did not focus on it separately, so there is a need for research on this. In the current study, adolescents were the group that received the answer of 'no correction' most (f=20.6; 21%). Most of the participants of the study stated that they would not correct their error because of the characteristics of this particular developmental stage the students are in. Lastly, when target students were adults, the most preferred feedback type by the participants of current study was meta-linguistic feedback (f=19.7; 20.1%) and the second most frequent one was explicit correction, accounting for 16.6 % (f=16.3) of the answers given to the situations involving adult learners. This result concurs with the finding of Roothooft (2014) in terms of the second most frequent feedback type used. In Roothooft's study (2014), the most frequently preferred feedback type was recast. Therefore, it can be said that the participants of that study had a tendency to provide their learners with correct forms by using either recasts or explicit correction. However, in the current study, although the student teachers' second preference to correct adult students' errors was explicit correction, the most frequent type was meta-linguistic feedback, as mentioned above. It appears that the participants of the present study mostly preferred prompting their students for self-correction in contrast to the teachers in Roothooft's study (2014).

Findings of the previous studies suggest that teachers' corrective feedback choices can be affected by students' proficiency levels. In the present study, it was an issue to be focused and the results demonstrated that the participants' oral corrective feedback preferences differed according to the level of the students. The student teachers preferred recasts (f=25; 25.5%) most frequently for elementary level students. And the second most frequently preferred type of feedback was explicit correction (f=13.5; 13.8%). These findings are concurrent with the findings of Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011). In the current study, for

pre-intermediate level students the most frequent preference of the student teachers was again recast (f=26.25; 26.8%). From these findings, it can be inferred that the participants tended to supply the low proficiency students with the correct forms. However, some studies in literature show that low proficiency students benefit less from recasts than high proficiency students (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Brown, 2014; Li, 2013; Lyster, et al., 2013). When it comes to intermediate and upper-intermediate level students, explicit correction received the highest proportion (f=20.2, 20.6%; f=19.7, 20.1%, respectively). However, this is the rate when proportions of each oral corrective feedback type were evaluated separately. If four oral corrective feedback types (i.e. meta-linguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, repetition) are collected under the title of prompts, as it is done in most of the studies, the proportion of prompt is higher than explicit correction in both levels (f=24.7, 25.2%; f=26.3, 26.8%, respectively in intermediate and upper-intermediate level). Also, when the proportions were calculated in this way, the proportion of prompt was higher than recasts and explicit correction for elementary level (f=26.5; 27%) and pre-intermediate level students (f=38.5; 39.3). Ammar and Spada (2006) concluded that prompts were more useful than recasts in general and although high level students benefited from both of the feedback types equally, especially low level students benefited more from prompts than recasts. Therefore, it can be said that the participants of the current study stated to use effective corrective feedback types for all the levels.

One of the interests of the study was oral corrective feedback types preferred by the student teachers in fluency and accuracy based activities. The findings showed us that there was not a big difference between them in terms of preferred oral corrective feedback types. In both of them the most frequently preferred type was recasts (respectively, f=18.2, 18.5%; f=16.2, 16.5% in fluency and accuracy based activities). There are few studies, if any, in literature concerning this issue. However, Harmer (2006) suggests that if the focus is on fluency, reformulations of students' utterance (recasting) may work better, so it can be said that the participants' stated behaviors followed this advice.

Another focus of the current study was on the time of feedback given. For all kinds of errors, all age groups and all levels included in the study, oral error correction was stated to be done immediately. Among the error types (i.e. language components errors are on) pronunciation errors were the ones that received the highest proportion of delayed correction (f=17.3; 27.9%). When the age of the students taken into account, adults were

the ones corrected in a delayed way most. If the time of error correction is examined from the point of level of the students, the highest proportion of delayed correction was perceived by upper-intermediate level students. By looking at the results, it can be said that the participants preferred to use delayed correction more frequently for the oldest and highest level students. When it comes to the focus of the activity (fluency and accuracy based activities), although there was not a big difference between the percentages of delayed and immediate correction, the rate of immediate correction in accuracy based activities (f=53; 84.4%) was slightly higher than the rate of immediate correction in fluency based activities (f=53.1; 84.2%).

In literature, there were few previous studies regarding how feedback timing differs according to error type, age and level of students. However, there are some opinions about which one can be more effective. Long (1991) states that if the main focus is on meaning in an activity, it can be more useful to give feedback to students during the activity. There are also some empirical studies regarding the effects of immediate and delayed correction and they show some mixed results. However, most of them do not examine L2 learning, so it is not clear whether or to what extent their findings can be applicable to L2 learning.

4.6 RQ3: The Nature of Interaction Between Student Teachers' Stated Beliefs and Stated Oral Corrective Feedback Behaviors

The results indicate that although there are some correspondences between the student teachers' stated beliefs and stated behaviors, some of them are inconsistent. Prior to mentioning consistencies and discrepancies, it should be noted that expecting a perfect match between stated beliefs and behaviors or stated behaviors is not realistic (Baştürkmen, et. al., 2004). Also, the study is not based on an idea that teachers' beliefs and stated behaviors should be consistent or that any discrepancy shows an undesirable situation (Baştürkmen, 2012).

There were mainly three consistent points between their stated beliefs and stated behaviors. Firstly, as the following excerpts show, in the interviews the STs referred pronunciation errors as the type of students' errors that should be mostly corrected: "First of all, I think that pronunciation should be paid attention most in order to speak in both a fluent and effective way (Int1)", "Pronunciation mistakes should be corrected most because a word

may mean different things if it's said with a different pronunciation (Int4)", "To express yourself clearly correct pronunciation is very important, so pronunciation errors should be corrected most frequently (Int7)", "It might be one of my obsessions but I can't stand hearing wrong pronunciation. My high school teacher can have a huge effect on this. She attached great importance to pronunciation (Int7)", "...we are making pronunciation mistakes because we don't have enough knowledge so I will correct pronunciation mistakes most (Int10)", "…when they (students) learn something wrong, it becomes permanent. For example, since we started to learn English they've taught the same things, they haven't corrected us and then the things we learned became permanent (Int11)". This is in congruence with the findings of Altan (2012). In his study, the participants thought that for an effective communication not grammatical correctness but excellent pronunciation was quite important. In a similar vein, in SEC Simulation, the situations including pronunciation errors were the most corrected ones by the STs. Therefore, there is congruence between their stated beliefs and stated behaviors in terms of most frequently corrected error type. In these excerpts, the STs referred the reasons why they thought in this way, in other words, the sources of their beliefs about the topic. It is clear that their experiences as learners and their previous teachers had an effect on their stated beliefs and their stated behaviors.

Another congruent point was between the STs' beliefs about the frequency of OCF and age of learners and their stated behaviors in the SEC Simulation. In the interviews, the STs stated that they would provide more OCF for younger learners, and in the SEC Simulation the most corrected age group was young learners. The following excerpts illustrate the STs' stated beliefs: "…as the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined (Int1)", "…we should correct younger learners' errors more frequently so that it can be learned correctly and permanently (Int9)",

> …until high school I pronounced the word 'success' as /sʌksɛs/. It should have been corrected at lower levels because we learnt something new and I learnt it in this way. I learnt that it is /səksɛs/ when I was in high school and it was very difficult for me to change it so I think we should pay more attention to younger learners' errors (Int6).

The other consistent point was their preference in correcting the errors in accuracy based activities more frequently than the ones in fluency based activities in the SEC Simulation. As the following excerpts show, this was reflective of their beliefs about OCF frequency in fluency and accuracy based activities: "…in accuracy focused activities more OCF can be

provided because if the focus is on fluency correction may disturb the student's concentration (Int2)"; "…if we always interrupt the student and correct her in a fluency based activity, she will be demotivated. After some time, she may prefer not to speak in order not to make mistakes (Int5)",

> …if the focus is on accuracy, of course I will correct him because it's important to say it accurately in this activity. However, in fluency based activities students' motivation is very important. I know that it is very hard for them to speak in English so I won't correct him (Int4).

As for the discrepancies between their stated beliefs and their stated behaviors, there are more points to mention. Firstly, although most of the student teachers stated that generally they would not correct grammar mistakes or it would be the least corrected language component in the interviews, in the SEC Simulation, grammar was not the one that got the answer of 'no correction' least. In other words, when the student teachers were asked what kind of errors they would correct mostly, they stated that they would not correct grammar mistakes. The following excerpts may illustrate their beliefs: "…grammar errors can be ignored (Int2)"; "…in daily language, grammar isn't cared much, even native speakers, so there is no need to pay much attention to grammar (Int8)"; "…the students generally know grammar but they make mistakes while speaking. I will correct grammar errors least (Int10)". However, when they met a situation including a grammar error, they generally preferred to correct it.

Additionally, in the SEC Simulation, when the student teachers were asked to response situations including a vocabulary mistake, most of them preferred not to correct the errors. However, in the interviews, it was stated that vocabulary mistakes would be frequently corrected: "…vocabulary mistakes, especially wrong word choices should be corrected immediately. In this way, we can improve the student's vocabulary knowledge (Int2)"; "I think vocabulary mistakes should be corrected most frequently (Int8)"; "…to be able to say 'I have learnt English', a person should know correct words, correct collocations. I believe that errors on this matter should be corrected mostly (Int12)".

Another inconsistency was in pronunciation errors. Among the language components, pronunciation errors were the ones that were corrected in a delayed way most in the SEC Simulation. However, in the interviews, most of the participants pointed that they would correct pronunciation mistakes immediately: "…pronunciation mistakes should be corrected immediately (Int2)"; "Sometimes, we cannot pronounce a word and want

someone to help us. I can correct pronunciation errors at these moments to help the student (Int5)".

There was also a discrepancy between the STs' stated beliefs and their stated behaviors in terms of time of correction in fluency and accuracy based activities. As the Table 11 (in findings part) points out, there is no big difference in the number of the frequencies and the percentages of the participants who would use delayed and immediate correction when the focus of the activity is fluency or accuracy. However, especially in the interviews, most of the student teachers stated that if the fluency was important, they would definitely use delayed correction whereas they stated to use immediate correction if the accuracy was important. The following excerpts demonstrate their stated beliefs: "If the focus is on fluency, I'll not correct the student's mistake immediately. After he finishes speaking, I'll correct him, but if accuracy is important, I will use immediate correction (Int4)"; "…if the accuracy is important, I mean ok our aims is using accurate English all the time, but if our focus is on being accurate on a subject, I'll correct errors immediately (Int6)"; "…except the activities focusing on accuracy, I can use delayed correction (Int7); "…if fluency is important, I will correct errors in a delayed way (Int12)".

There was also a divergence between the STs' stated beliefs about the frequency of OCF they would provide for the students at different levels and their stated behaviors. Although they stated that they would provide more OCF for higher-level students as the following excerpts demonstrate, they corrected lower-level learners' errors more frequently than higher-level students'.

> If a student' level is elementary, it means that she/he has just started learning. Therefore, this student needs more encouragement and self-confidence. For this reason, I won't correct their mistakes all the time. However, if a student's level is upper-intermediate, her errors cannot be accepted, so I'll correct the mistakes (Int5)

> I don't prefer to correct the errors of students at beginner levels. For example, our mentor in practicum school doesn't make a lot of correction to let the students speak, but at higher levels, as I experienced at high school, my teachers were correcting our errors, so I'll correct (Int4).

As for the reasons of the discrepancies, the first possible explanation can be the length of the experience the STs had. They were all pre-service teachers who did not have any experience except the practicum experiences. As the related literature points out the stated beliefs and practices of experienced teachers are more consistent that inexperienced teachers (Tsui, 2005). As teachers gain experience, discrepancies between their stated

beliefs and behaviors can disappear (Baştürkmen, et. al., 2004), so the results of the current study support the findings of the studies claiming the effect of experience on consistency between teachers' stated beliefs and practices.

Furthermore, another reason of the discrepancies can be explained by referring to the lack of practice in the teacher education program. The findings of researches in the literature demonstrate that beliefs of teachers are based on different sources such as their experiences as students in the school, the teacher education they get and their personal experiences with teaching and in general (Richardson, 1996) and among them the most powerful source is seen as their experiences as students (Richardson, 2003). Although these experiences can have some positive effects on their beliefs, to some points they might be detrimental for their teaching (Peacock, 2001). Therefore, the teacher education programs generally have an aim to change these detrimental beliefs. However, it is not easy for the programs to do it because to change beliefs a long time is needed, but the teacher education programs are not long enough. Also, in teacher education programs there is a lack of practice, so the student teachers are not able to practice what they know and belief in real classrooms (Baştürkmen, et. al., 2004; Xing, 2009). The English language teaching program that the participants of current study in was quite similar to the programs referred. The program lasts for 4 years and it may not be enough to change the beliefs of the student teachers. Additionally, in the program, the student teachers had practicum in the last year. It may not be enough for them to practice what they know and belief.

To illustrate the situation, we can refer to the first inconsistency mentioned before. The following excerpts are the samples of two different answers given to the same question asking which kind of learners' errors should be corrected most: 1. "…in fact, we may correct all the errors, but not grammar mistakes. I think we shouldn't give much importance to grammar while our students are speaking (Int3)"

> 2. Pronunciation is also important, but I want to share something about me. Pronunciation is not that much important. I mean at high school, we focused on grammar. We shouldn't learn it wrong as our teachers said. Pronunciation, writing or reading were ignored. We were educated in this way, so I think I am influenced by it and grammar is important for me (Int11).

As the findings indicate although most of the STs' beliefs were in a similar way with the first excerpt, their stated behaviors were not. The ELT program that the STs were in offers a national curriculum which is based on a constructivist view of education and reflective approach in pre-service teacher education. Accordingly, their training does not prioritize

grammar and it places emphasis on the communicative skills. As the results of the current study show (See Table 2 and 3) the program achieved its aim because the STs had a constructivist view on teacher, learner, teaching and language learning. However, most of the STs were trained inprimary and high school in a similar vein with what the second ST said. In conclusion, although the teacher education program had a significant effect on the STs' stated beliefs, it did not have effects on their stated behaviors as much as on their stated beliefs and it might be because of the fact that it was not able to provide a chance for them to practice their beliefs (and knowledge).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the current study. The background, the aim, the processes of data collection and data analysis are presented once more. Finally, some implications are discussed and some suggestions for further research are made.

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study aimed to investigate the stated beliefs, stated behaviors of student teachers in an ELT program and the nature of the interaction between them. To reach this aim, an integration of some qualitative and quantitative research methods needed to be used. As for the qualitative design, interview questions were prepared. The aim of the interviews was to identify the student teachers' beliefs about OCF. For the quantitative part of the study, Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation was developed. The purpose of this tool was to identify student teachers' stated behaviors about OCF. The interview questions and the SEC Simulation were piloted independently for their applicability. After these processes and completion of piloting, interviews were conducted with 12 student teachers and the SEC Simulation was administered to 98 student teachers in the actual study.

The data gathered through the interviews was utilized to answer the first research question. The data demonstrated the student teachers' views on some certain categories: (1) Selecting Errors to Correct, (2) Time of OCF, (3) Frequent Oral Errors and (4) Effective OCF. The findings show that the most important factors leading the STs to correction were the repetition of the same error by the same students, the number of the students making

the same error and the subject that the error was on (i.e. a focused subject or not). As for the time of OCF, they stated to provide it immediately if the error was on a thing that should be accurate, in other words, if their focus was on accuracy. However, if the aim was just communication and their focus was on fluency, they would use delayed correction. Also, for the frequency of the type of errors the students made, they referred to their own experiences as learners and pronunciation mistakes were stated to be the most frequent ones. Finally, when the efficiency of an OCF was concerned, by highlighting the importance of taking individual variables of the students into account, classroom atmosphere and the manner of a teacher were shown as the most important factors by the STs.

As for the second research question, the quantitative data collected through the SEC Simulation indicated that the type and the time of the OCF provided by the STs differed in terms of language component, age and level of the students and the focus of the activity. The following are the findings of the study in relation to second research question:

- Recast is the most frequently preferred feedback type when the error is on grammar.
- When the focus is vocabulary, most of the STs do not prefer to correct the errors.
- For pronunciation errors, the STs preferred to correct the errors in an explicit way.
- In terms of age of the students, recasts for young learners, no correction for adolescents and meta-linguistic feedback for adults are the most frequently used feedback types by the STs.
- Lower-level learners are corrected more frequently than higher-level students and more explicit correction is used for higher-level students.
- In both fluency and accuracy based activities, the most frequently preferred feedback type is recast.
- For errors on each language component (i.e. grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation), immediate correction is preferred more frequently than delayed correction.
- The rate of the use of immediate correction is higher than the rate of use of delayed correction for all age groups (i.e. young learners, adolescents and adults).

- For all the levels (i.e. elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate), the rate of immediate correction is higher than the rate of delayed correction.
- The rate of immediate correction is higher in both accuracy-based and fluency-based activities although the rate of the immediate correction in accuracy-based activities is slightly higher than the rate of immediate correction in fluency based activities.

To answer the third research question, the data coming from these two sources were used. The findings demonstrate that although the STs' beliefs about OCF are consistent with their stated behaviors to some extent, there are more divergences between them. There can be various reasons for these discrepancies, but in the findings two reasons become prominent. One of them is the STs' lack of experience and the other one is lack of practice in the teacher education program.

5.2 Implications

The current study suggests some implications for practice. The most important implication can be suggested to the ELT programs and teacher trainers for the benefit of student teachers. In the ELT programs, mostly planned aspects of teaching are in the scope of the courses. However, unplanned aspects of teaching like error correction are ignored sometimes. These parts can be included in the syllabus of teacher education programs. Teacher trainers may focus more on these aspects. To give an example, the types of oral error correction techniques can be studied with the student teachers. In this way, the student teachers can be aware of alternatives, and this may provide some insights for their own teaching.

Furthermore, in the programs, the student teachers can be provided with some chances to identify and examine their beliefs about both planned and unplanned aspects of teaching. As the literature points out, this is an effective way to make the student teachers aware of their beliefs and change them. Also, if they are equipped with necessary knowledge to see some alternatives to their belief system, it will help them to build their beliefs in a more up-to-date and practical way.

There is one more implication that can be suggested to ELT programs. The literature shows that the student teachers already have some beliefs about teaching and learning

when they start teacher education program. These beliefs can sometimes be beneficial but most of the time they are unfavorable. Moreover, they learn new practices and ideas in the program. Consequently, the student teachers need more time to practice what they learn in the program and their beliefs and see what works in real classroom atmosphere. To this end, curriculums of ELT programs can be modified paying attention to mentioned points before.

5.3 Suggestion for Further Research

One of the most important further research suggestions is conducting a similar study in different contexts. The current study aimed to find out the student teachers' beliefs about OCF in a specific context and the findings were mostly based on quantitative data. For this reason, it is not possible to make a universal generalization. Some further researches can be done in different contexts around the world and the findings of these studies can be compared and the reasons of the convergences and divergences can provide some insights for both ELT programs and teacher trainers.

Secondly, student teachers' practices in classroom can be observed and in addition to student teachers' stated beliefs, stated behaviors, their real practices can be investigated as a variable. The data collected through these three different sources can be compared to see to what extent they correspond with one another.

Thirdly, a follow-up study can be done with the same students in the future to see whether their stated beliefs and stated behaviors change as they gain experience. In this way, real effects of pre-service teacher education program and gaining experience can be investigated.

Finally, studies on OCF and teachers' beliefs can be conducted from an interactionist perspective to understand effects of contextual and situational factors on efficiency of an OCF. In this regard, the factors affecting the efficiency of OCF arising from the findings of the interviews can be included in classroom studies as variables.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Questions of Interview

1. What is your attitude toward L2 learners' errors?
2. Does error correction contribute to L2 learning?
3. Should learners' errors be corrected?
4. Do you always correct student errors? If not, how do you select errors to correct?
5. Before the lesson, do you determine which kind of errors or forms you will correct?
6. When should learners' errors be corrected?
7. Does it depend on activity type: free – controlled?
8. Does it depend on focus of the activity: fluency – accuracy?
9. Does it depend on levels of L2 learners: elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced?
10. Does it depend on age of L2 learners: young learners, adolescence, adults?
11. When do you prefer delayed correction?
12. When do you prefer immediate correction?
13. What kind of errors do your students generally make in speaking activities? (Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)
14. Which kind of L2 learners' errors should be corrected? (Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)
15. Should L2 learners' errors be followed or written down?
16. How should errors be corrected?
17. Do you use explicit error correction in your teaching? What are some advantages and disadvantages of explicit error correction?
18. Do you use implicit ways of error correction in your teaching? How do you implicitly correct student error? What are some advantages and disadvantages of implicit error correction?
19. Do you think students notice when you implicitly correct their errors?

20. Do you behave in the same way when a group of students or only a student makes an error? If not, how and why does your error correction technique change?
21. Who should do the correction? (Self correction, peer correction, teacher correction)
22. Which kind of error correction is most effective for L2 learner's learning?)Self correction, peer correction, teacher correction)
23. Which factors can affect a correction to be effective? (Classroom atmosphere, level of students, type and focus of the activity)
24. Do all your students react to your error correction behaviors in the same way?
25. Do you think that teacher should take individual differences/learners' variables into account?
26. How can you tell whether your error treatment is effective for learners to acquire the correct information? (How to judge the effectiveness of your error correction?)

Factors behind Interview Questions on Beliefs

	Questions	**f**
1. Teacher	Q1, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q11, Q12, Q16, Q17, Q18, Q21, Q25	14
2. Learner	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q9, Q10, Q13, Q15, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25	15
3. Teaching	Q2, Q3, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q11, Q12, Q14, Q15, Q16, Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q23, Q26	17
4. Language	Derived from all Qs	

Factors behind Interview Questions on Error Correction

	Questions	**f**
Focus of the activity (fluency/accuracy)	Q4, Q6, Q8, Q11, Q12, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23	10
Level of learners	Q4, Q6, Q9, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25	10
Age of learners	Q4, Q6, Q10, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25	10
Language component (grammar/ vocabulary/ pronunciation	Q2, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22	12

APPENDIX B: SEC Simulation

Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation

A. Introduction

Situations for Error Correction (SEC) Simulation consists of 20 situations that an English language teacher can encounter in any language classroom context. Each of the situations involves an erroneous utterance or a sentence including an error. The SEC Simulation aims to identify how and why language teachers correct L2 learners' errors.

B. SEC Instructions

1. Erroneous utterances or sentences including an error in the situations are written in bold.

2. On the line above each situation, age and level of the student(s) that make the error in the situation are written.

3. There are some criteria (the language components, focus of the activity) for errors in each situation on the right of the page. You are asked to circle the language component or activity type in the boxes given. You can circle more than one item where applicable.

4. There is a space provided below each situation. In this part, you are asked to explain how and why you correct the error(s).

C. Demography

- Age: 20-22 ( ), 23-25 ( ), 26- older ( )

- Gender: F ( ), M ( )

- School overall grade point averages: 2.00-2.50 ( )
  2.50-3.00 ( )
  3.00-3.50 ( )
  3.50-4.00 ( )

Read the situations below with the following questions in mind: 1. What kind of error is that? (Circle the language component or activity type in the boxes given on the right. You can circle more than one item where applicable). 2. How and why would you correct the mistake(s). (Please write down your response to the space provided below each situation.)	**Grammar**	**Vocabulary**	**Pronunciation**	**Fluency**	**Accuracy**
Age: young learner **Level:** Elementary **1.** You are doing a warm-up activity with your class, asking them about their grandparents. One student tells the class **"My grandmother is seventeen and three".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: young learner **Level:** pre-intermediate **2.** You have just introduced "his" and "hers" for the first time. You have collected some items belonging to your class on your desk. You ask, picking up some pencils "Whose pencils are these?" A student answers, pointing at the owner of the pencils **"They're him."**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** intermediate **3.** Your class is doing an information gap activity in pairs in your speaking class. As you walk around the class and listen to them, you hear that most students cannot pronounce the words **'really'** and **'grateful'** correctly.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** intermediate **4.** Your class is working in pairs doing a speaking activity. One student is asking the other to go out for the evening. A student says **"I want go to a Chinese restaurant".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** intermediate **5.** You are doing a speaking activity. You give them some pictures to make up a story. In one of the pictures, there is a thief. While one of your students tells his story, he always says **"There is a man who steals belongings of other people"** instead of the word 'thief'.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: young learner **Level:** elementary **6.** Your class is working in pairs. While you are walking around the class, you hear that one of your students use the word **'positive'** incorrectly.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC

How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** intermediate **7.** Your class is working in groups, discussing magic events you've talked about. One of your students says **'angle'** intending 'angel'.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** intermediate **8.** Your class is working in pairs. One of your students says to his partner **"Can I lend your pen?"** meaning "Can I borrow your pen?"	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: young learner **Level:** intermediate **9.** You want your students to ask questions about you in turn. One of the students says **"What age are you?"**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** pre-intermediate **10.** Your class is working in groups, creating a typical day at their ideal school. A learner says **"I liking Maths and English best".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: young learner **Level:** pre-intermediate **11.** You have revised simple past tense. Then, you want them to work in pairs and ask questions to each other. One of the students asks her partner **"When did you went to the market?"**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate **12.** Your students are doing a role-play activity in your drama class. One of your students always mispronounces the word **'occur'.**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate **13.** You give some situations to your students and want them to say how they feel. One of your students says **"I feel excited"** meaning "I feel anxious".	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC

How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** pre-intermediate **14.** You are doing a warm-up activity. You ask your students how they feel today. One of them says **"I am tiring".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate **15.** You want your students to describe one of their classmates and the others to find out who she/he is. One of your students says **"Despite of he speaks seldom, he says meaningful words".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** upper-intermediate **16.** You are doing a drama activity. You give your students some role-cards. On their role-cards, event, setting and features of characters of the activity are written but you don't write what they say. One of the students is a secretary and she puts through one of the partner of her manager. She wants the telephone to wait and says **"Hold on a minute, will you?"**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** intermediate **17.** You are doing a post-activity of a reading text. You ask your students whether they have a car accident. One of the students wants to tell his experience. He starts saying **"The road wasn't large enough for two cars."**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adults **Level:** upper-intermediate **18.** You have just focused on changes in meaning of a question tag depending on how you say it. Then, you give your students a dialogue and want them to read it aloud paying attention to its meaning and use rising/falling intonation correctly. One of the students use rising intonation while he is supposed to use falling intonation.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** upper-intermediate **19.** You and your students have talked about General American Pronunciation and Received Pronunciation. You want them to prepare a short talk and be careful while they are talking. While they are talking, you realized that most of your students mispronounce initial and medial /r/ sound.	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC

How and Why to Correct it?					
Age: adolescence **Level:** intermediate					
20. You have focused on some vocabulary items. Then, you give a story to your students. In the story, there are some blank parts that the students fill in using the words they've just learned while they are telling the story. One of them cannot use the word 'mood' correctly and says **"The streets were very crowded and had a holiday mood".**	GR	VO	PR	FL	AC
How and Why to Correct it?					

APPENDIX C: FACTORS BEHIND SITUATIONS

Factors behind Situations

			f
Grammar	Fluency	Sit4, Sit9, Sit10, Sit14, Sit15, Sit16	6
	Accuracy	Sit2, Sit11	2
Vocabulary	Fluency	Sit5, Sit6, Sit8, Sit13, Sit17	5
	Accuracy	Sit20	1
Pronunciation	Fluency	Sit1, Sit3, Sit7, Sit12	4
	Accuracy	Sit18, Sit19	2

	Young learner	**Adolescence**	**Adults**	**f**
Elementary	Sit1, Sit6			2
Pre-intermediate	Sit2, Sit11	Sit10, Sit14		4
Intermediate	Sit9	Sit3, Sit5, Sit7, Sit17, Sit20	Sit4, Sit8	8
Upper-intermediate		Sit16, Sit19	Sit12, Sit13, Sit15, Sit18	6
f	5	9	6	

Gazi Gelecektir…